

Sheffield Hallam University

The meaning of leadership in semiconductor industry

SOESILOWATI, Joanna

Available from the Sheffield Hallam University Research Archive (SHURA) at:

<http://shura.shu.ac.uk/32688/>

A Sheffield Hallam University thesis

This thesis is protected by copyright which belongs to the author.

The content must not be changed in any way or sold commercially in any format or medium without the formal permission of the author.

When referring to this work, full bibliographic details including the author, title, awarding institution and date of the thesis must be given.

Please visit <http://shura.shu.ac.uk/32688/> and <http://shura.shu.ac.uk/information.html> for further details about copyright and re-use permissions.

The Meaning of Leadership in a Semiconductor Industry

Joanna Soesilowati

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements of
Sheffield Hallam University
in collaboration with Munich Business School
for the degree of Doctor of Business Administration

April 2023

Candidate Declaration

I herewith declare that:

1. I have not been enrolled for another award of the University, or other academic or professional organization (except for the partnering Munich Business School), whilst undertaking my research degree.
2. None of the material contained in the thesis has been used in any other submission for an academic award.
3. I am aware of and understand the University's policy on plagiarism and certify that this thesis is my own work. The use of all published or other sources of material consulted have been properly and fully acknowledged.
4. The work undertaken toward the thesis has been conducted in accordance with the SHU Principles of Integrity in Research and the SHU Research Ethics Policy.
5. The word count of the thesis is 87637

Name	Joanna Soesilowati
Date	1 April 2023
Award	Doctor of Business Administration (DBA)
Faculty	Business Administration
Director(s) of Studies	Dr Paul Wyton, Dr Heiko Seif, Dr Oliver Couch

Abstract

The purpose of this thesis is to contribute towards the understanding of leadership in a U.S. semiconductor company, including the impact of various concepts of leadership on behaviour in the organisation, in order to identify the best practice of leadership for a semiconductor firm to achieve and maintain success in dynamic global competition. The findings aim to inform the best leadership practice and its effects on the organisation's behaviours in a semiconductor company. The research covers the period from early 2018 until 2020 using in-depth interviews with key stakeholders such as leaders-managers from different management levels and non-managers employees using qualitative methods in an U.S. semiconductor company based in Germany.

This study investigates the interviewees' views on leadership. Fifteen interviewees were asked to recall and describe pivotal career events that helped them grow as leaders. Participants were also asked to provide their definition of leadership, to identify development gaps within the studied company, and to suggest leadership development activities.

The primary findings of this study indicate that the current concept of leadership fosters greater inflexibility in management by increasing micromanagement and multiplying overlapping processes. For an organisation to be more productive and effective, transformational leadership is required to foster trust-based relationships and long-term growth, according to the interviewees. Interpersonal trust, self-identity, and authenticity are viewed as primary factors in developing a transformational and long-term mindset for the company to win markets in the semiconductor industry that are rapidly changing and highly competitive.

Keywords: *leadership, transformation, semiconductor industry, leader, manager, micromanagement, authentic, self-identity*

Acknowledgments

I thank God for allowing me to place my faith in Him and for providing me with the motivation to stay strong in my authenticity. This thesis is dedicated to my father, the late Drs. Joenoes Soesilo, and my mother, Andriani Widyawati. Without you, I would not be here in this world to fulfil my life's assignment. Thank you for giving me the chance to discover my identity and my purpose in life. Second, I am indebted to my supervisors, Dr. Paul Wyton, Profs. Dr. Heiko Seif, and Dr. Oliver Couch. Thank you for their attention to detail and careful supervision. I would like to thank Andrea Poyser and Samah Issa for being there for me during the submission process of the thesis.

I am grateful to my uncles, Samuel Resowijoyo and Nathanael Resowijoyo, who look after me as if they were my own father. To Bob Tebulu, who gives me the emotional support and spiritual advices to pursue my goals. I would like to thank Dr. Carsten Oppitz who continuously challenges me to become a better me during the research process. Dr. Michael Hummel, the root of my golden visualization, your existence stimulates my brain to pursue the seemingly insurmountable objectives I have for my life. Throughout these years, I have been thankful for my companions, who have been there for me through both good times and bad. Throughout the years, their encouraging words have always been accessible to me. Thank you for being a part of this voyage, Thomas, Alice, Andre, Thies, Dhenok, Tanvee, Ruo Yu, and Garima.

This project would not have been possible without the participation the staff at Sheffield Hallam University and Munich Business School for ensuring that I had access to facilities when I required them and for assisting me with administrative tasks throughout the course. Last but not least, thank you to all the participants of this research, who were willing to share their experiences and knowledge to fulfil the mission of this thesis.

CONTENT

Chapter

1	Introduction	11
	<u>1.1 Introduction</u>	11
	<u>1.2 Introduction to the Problem</u>	13
	<u>1.2.1 Semiconductor Value Chain and Complex Manufacturing Process</u>	13
	<u>1.2.2 High Global Competition and Decreasing Efficiency in Production Process</u>	14
	<u>1.2.3 Increasing Production Time and Minimal Long-Term Investment</u>	15
	<u>1.3 The Research Background and Objectives</u>	17
	<u>1.4 The Research Questions</u>	22
	<u>1.5 The Thesis Structure and The Research Flow</u>	27
2	Literature Review	33
	<u>2.1 Introduction</u>	33
	<u>2.1.1 Literature Review Technique</u>	34
	<u>2.1.2 Literature Topics</u>	37
	<u>2.1.3 Literature Review Framework</u>	39
	<u>2.2 Leadership Literature Review</u>	43
	<u>2.2.1 Transformational Leadership</u>	43
	<u>2.2.1.1 Creative Behaviours From Intellectual Stimulation</u>	45
	<u>2.2.1.2 Idealized Influence Through Interpersonal Approach</u>	47
	<u>2.2.1.3 The Requirement of 'High Purpose' Vision</u>	49
	<u>2.2.1.3.1 Company Vision and Personal Vision</u>	51
	<u>2.2.1.3.2 Long-Term And Short-Term Vision</u>	52
	<u>2.2.1.4 Inspirational Motivation As Result</u>	54
	<u>2.2.1.5 Individual Consideration</u>	56
	<u>2.2.1.6 Summary of Transformational Leadership</u>	57
	<u>2.2.2 Role Model Leadership</u>	58
	<u>2.2.2.1 Role Modelling in Transformational Leadership</u>	59
	<u>2.2.2.2 The Struggles of New Leaders</u>	60
	<u>2.2.2.3 The Risk of Past Achievement Role Modelling</u>	61
	<u>2.2.2.4 Self-Concept Role Modelling</u>	62
	<u>2.2.3 Authentic Leadership</u>	64
	<u>2.2.3.1 Trust in Authentic Leadership</u>	65
	<u>2.2.3.2 Interpersonal Trust</u>	66
	<u>2.2.3.2.1 Self-Awareness and Self Clarity</u>	67
	<u>2.2.3.2.2 Transperancy</u>	69
	<u>2.2.3.3 Balance Processing For Cooperative Solution</u>	70
	<u>2.2.3.4 Implementation of Trust in Organisational Context</u>	71
	<u>2.2.3.5 Authentic vs. Transformational Leadership</u>	72
	<u>2.2.3.5.1 Job Satisfaction</u>	73
	<u>2.2.3.5.2 Self-Efficacy and High-Risk Taker</u>	73
	<u>2.2.3.5.3 Relation in Influence</u>	75
	<u>2.2.3.5.4 Relation in Individual Consideration</u>	75

	<u>2.2.3.5.5 Leadership Effectiveness</u>	76
	<u>2.2.3.6 Summary of Authentic Leadership</u>	76
	<u>2.2.4 Transactional Leadership</u>	79
	<u>2.2.4.1 Contingent Reward (CR)</u>	80
	<u>2.2.4.2 Management by Exception (MBE)</u>	82
	<u>2.2.4.3 Transformational vs. Transactional Leadership</u>	83
	<u>2.2.4.3.1 Job Satisfaction</u>	84
	<u>2.2.4.3.2 Leadership Effectiveness</u>	85
	<u>2.2.5 Leaders versus Managers</u>	85
	<u>2.2.5.1 Overlapping Areas Between Leaders and Managers</u>	86
	<u>2.2.5.2 Middle and Lower-Level Managers</u>	87
	<u>2.3 Organisation and Management</u>	89
	<u>2.3.1 Critiques on Leadership Theories and Organisational Outcome</u>	89
	<u>2.3.2 Organisational Innovation</u>	93
	<u>2.3.3 Organisational Change</u>	94
	<u>2.3.3.1 Why do organizational change programmes fail?</u>	96
	<u>2.3.3.2 Transformational Leadership and Continuous Improvement (CI) in Lean Practice</u>	97
	<u>2.4 Literature Review Conclusion</u>	97
	<u>2.4.1 Summary of Role Modelling Literature Review</u>	98
	<u>2.4.2 Summary of Trust Literature Review</u>	99
	<u>2.4.3 Summary of Organisation and Management Literature Review</u>	99
	<u>2.4.4 Summary on Vision Theory</u>	100
	<u>2.4.5 Conclusion</u>	
3	Methodology	102
	<u>3.1 Introduction</u>	102
	<u>3.2 The Qualitative Research</u>	102
	<u>3.3 The Research Paradigm</u>	104
	<u>3.3.1 Ontology</u>	104
	<u>3.3.2 Epistemology</u>	105
	<u>3.3.3 Interpretive Approach as Methodology</u>	106
	<u>3.3.4 Interviews as Methods</u>	109
	<u>3.4 The Interview Technique</u>	110
	<u>3.5 Data Collection Method and Procedure</u>	113
	<u>3.5.1 First-Phase Data Collection</u>	114
	<u>3.5.2 Second-Phase Data Collection</u>	117
	<u>3.6 Data Analysis Approach</u>	120
	<u>3.6.1 General Analytic Induction</u>	120
	<u>3.7 Problem Encountered</u>	125
	<u>3.8 Ethical Issues</u>	127
	<u>3.9 Methodology Summary</u>	
4	Data Analysis and Findings	129
	<u>4.1 Introduction</u>	129
	<u>4.2 Data Analysis Procedure</u>	130
	<u>4.3 Context Of The Research</u>	138
	<u>4.3.1 Descriptive Characteristics of Organisations</u>	138
	<u>4.3.2 Descriptive Characteristics of Participants</u>	141
	<u>4.4 Investigation of Data</u>	146

4.4.1	Generation of Theme 1	146
4.4.2	Generation of Theme 2	149
4.4.3	Generation of Theme 3	152
4.5	Data Analysis and Findings Summary	155
5	The Need for Transformational Leadership and The Vicious Circle	156
5.1	Introduction	156
5.2	The Desired Leadership	157
5.2.1	Role Model Leadership	157
5.2.2	Leaders Build New Leaders	160
5.2.2.1	Individual Consideration	162
5.2.3	Influence Through Interpersonal Approach	164
5.2.4	Visionary Leadership	166
5.2.4.1	Vision and Transformational Leadership	167
5.2.4.2	Higher Purpose	168
5.2.4.3	Long-Term Vision	170
5.2.4.4	Self-Knowledge	172
5.2.5	Leaders Versus Managers	173
5.3	The Vision Conflict	175
5.3.1	The Company Goals and Shared Vision	175
5.3.2	Micromanagement and Short-Term Profit Orientation	177
5.3.3	The Inability to be Transformational Leaders	181
5.3.4	The Vicious Circle	183
5.4	The Need for Transformational Leadership	185
5.4.1	Increasing Lead Time in Manufacturing	186
5.4.2	Decreasing Quality in Innovation	190
5.4.3	Limitation on Solutions	194
5.4.4	Minimal Self-Development	199
5.4.5	Internal Competition	203
5.5	Chapter Summary	204
6	The Role of Authenticity and Self-Clarity	207
6.1	Introduction	207
6.2	Self-Clarity	208
6.3	Authenticity in Transformational Leadership	212
6.4	Interpersonal Trust and Transparency	215
6.5	Transparent Communication	218
6.6	Cooperative Solutions and Long Term-Vision	221
6.6.1	The Concept of Mutual Benefit Mindset	221
6.6.2	Long-term Vision as Requirement	225
6.7	Chapter Summary and The Leadership Triangle	227
7	Discussion and Contributions	230
7.1	Introduction	230
7.2	Summary Of The Key Findings	231
7.2.1	Transformational Leadership as Desirable Leadership	231
7.2.2	The Consequences of Transformational Leadership Deficit	232
7.2.3	The Vision Conflict and the Absence of Long-Term	233
7.2.4	The Vicious Circle and The Impact of Habits	233

7.2.5 The Leadership Triangle Concept for Becoming Transformational Leaders	234
7.3 Contribution To Knowledge	235
7.3.1 Theoretical Contribution to Role Model Theories	235
7.3.2 Theoretical Contribution to Transformational Leadership in Semiconductor Industry	236
7.3.3 Theoretical Contribution to Trust Model	238
7.3.4 Organisational Effectiveness and Continuous Improvement	238
7.4 Contribution to Practice	239
7.4.1 Long-Term Perspective for Global Competition	239
7.4.2 Transformational Mindset for Lean Production	240
7.4.3 Continuous and Quality Improvement	240
7.4.4 Role Model Leadership for People's Growth	241
7.5 Research Limitation	241
7.5.1 Minimal Samples and Limited Level of Leadership	242
7.5.2 Limited Context in Semiconductor Industry	242
7.6 Suggestion to Follow-Up Studies	242
7.6.1 Leadership Research in the Semiconductor Companies	242
7.6.2 Self-Transcendence and Self-Clarity Research	243
8 Conclusion	244
8.1 Thesis Conclusion	244
8.2 Personal Reflection	246
<u>Reference</u>	249

Figures and Tables

[Figure 1.0 The Connection between Research Questions and Objectives](#)

[Figure 1.1 The Research Flow](#)

[Figure 1.2 Research Questions and Discussion Chapters](#)

[Figure 2.0 Literature Review Steps](#)

[Figure 2.1 Continuous Literature Review Throughout The Study](#)

[Figure 2.2 Literature Review Framework](#)

[Figure 2.3 Literature Map](#)

[Figure 2.4 Model of Transformational Leadership and Follower Performance](#)

[Figure 2.5 Authentic Leadership and Trust Framework](#)

[Figure 3.0 The Research Paradigm](#)

[Figure 3.1 Main Preliminary Findings and Relation to Overall Data Collection](#)

[Figure 3.2 Participants' Leadership Level](#)

[Figure 3.3 Analytic Induction Approach](#)

[Figure 4.0 Data Analysis Procedure; Followed by Thomas \(2006\)](#)

[Figure 4.1 Folders Examples in MAXQDA](#)

[Figure 4.2 Example of Free Nodes List](#)

[Figure 4.3 Tree of Nodes After First Merging Process](#)

[Figures 4.4 Third Stage of Data Saturation](#)

[Figure 4.5 The Forth Stage of Data Saturation](#)

[Figure 4.6 Minimized Forth Stage Data Saturation](#)

[Figure 4.7 The Process of Data Reduction and Emerging Theme 1](#)

[Figure 4.8 The Process of Data Reduction and Emerging Theme 2](#)

[Figure 4.9 The Process of Data Reduction and Emerging Theme 3](#)

[Figure 5.0: The Inability to Become a Transformational Leader](#)

[Figure 5.1 The Vicious Circle](#)

[Figure 6.0 The Leadership Triangle](#)

[Table 3.0 First-Phase Participants List](#)

[Table 4.0 The Departments Characteristics](#)

[Table 4.1 Participants' Characteristics](#)

[Table 4.2 Department A Participants Descriptive Characteristics](#)

[Table 4.3 Department B Participants Descriptive Characteristics](#)

[Table 4.4 Department C Participants Descriptive Characteristics](#)

[Table 4.5 Perspective, Concerns, and Interest related to Research Objective No.1](#)

[Table 4.6 Perspective, Concerns, and Interest related to Research Objective No.2](#)

[Table 4.7 Perspective, Concerns, and Interests related to Research Objective No.3](#)

SIA Semiconductor Industry

TSMC Taiwan Semiconductor Manufacturing

CI Continuous Improvement

JIT Just In Time

SME Semiconductor Manufacturing Equipment

IMRAD Introduction, Methods, Results, Discussion

NR Narrative Reviews

SR Systematic Reviews

[Appendix 1](#)

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

The thesis aims to contribute towards the understanding of leadership in a U.S. semiconductor company, including the impact of various concepts of leadership on behaviour in the organisation, in order to identify the best practice of leadership for a semiconductor firm to achieve and maintain success in dynamic global competition. The company conducting the research is a U.S. semiconductor company headquartered in Europe with Design and Wafer Fabrication Sites. Research in semiconductor fields has become essential because of the steady decline in the share of U.S. semiconductor companies' global manufacturing capacity over the last thirty years (Varas et al., 2020). The growth of the semiconductor industry in the second half of the twentieth century coincided with significant organisational changes and the need for effective leadership (Vaill, 1989).

The importance of leadership research in the semiconductor industry is pointed out by Appleyard et al. (2001) that leadership practices in the semiconductor industry are unlike other manufacturing-based organisations. The contributions that the researcher anticipates making through this study are theories and practical models, particularly regarding the concept of leadership, that can assist the semiconductor industry in addressing the current global competition. Hunter et al. (2002) add that the differences between semiconductor manufacturing and other manufacturing-based organisations exist because the semiconductor manufacturing process is "one of the most complex manufacturing processes in the world" (p. 285). Even though U.S. semiconductor companies have fabrication around the globe, they continue to lose global market share in the manufacture of semiconductors (Ferry & Layton, 2021). Some studies suggest that U.S semiconductor companies focus on long-term leadership and the following year's profitability (Ghosh, 2020; Ferry & Layton, 2021). To maintain U.S. leadership in semiconductors, the U.S. semiconductor companies are suggested to

implement reforms to sustain a substantial increase in U.S. chip manufacturing, aiming to produce 50 per cent of semiconductors in every significant category (Ferry & Layton, 2021). The data reveals that the U.S. shares 12 per cent of the global semiconductor manufacturing capacity and is estimated to fall to 10 per cent by 2030 (Varas et al., 2020). By comparison, China's share is currently at 15 per cent and is projected to rise to 24 per cent by 2030 (Ferry & Layton, 2021). Some research reveals that the continuous decrease of U.S. manufacturing capacity in global share is caused by the minimum long-term investments of semiconductor firms in increasing their production effectiveness (Ferry & Layton, 2021; Kleinhans, 2021).

One of the main reasons for conducting inductive leadership research in the organisation is to allow the researcher to propose a leadership model that will allow the organization's leaders to lead in a setting of intense global competition, in addition to its current issues such as declining production efficiency and quality performance ([Section 1.2](#); [Section 5.4.2](#)) and growing lead times in manufacturing ([Section 1.2.3](#); [Section 5.4.1](#)). The researcher is a department manager within the company. However, the research is not set up within the researcher's department. As a member of the company, the researcher perceives a need for leadership response to address the production system problem ([Section 1.2.3](#)) and win the intensifying global competition ([Section 1.2.2](#)). Therefore, the purpose of this study is to comprehend what is occurring and to introduce theories that can be applied as contributions to semiconductor industry knowledge and practise. Another key factor leadership research is necessary in the organisation is to offer a leadership model that will assist the mission of the European Union to expand the semiconductor sector in Europe in contrast to worldwide competition ([Section 1.2.2](#)).

[Chapter 1](#) is divided into five subchapters. [Section 1.2](#) shows an overview of the semiconductor value chain and the introduction of the problem in the semiconductor industry, especially in terms of U.S semiconductor companies in global competition. [Section 1.3](#) explores the semiconductor industry leadership literature related to this thesis's research aim. [Section 1.4](#) reveals the research questions created based on the linkages of information from [Section 1.2](#) and [Section 1.3](#).

1.2 Introduction to the Problem

This section discusses the current state of the global semiconductor industry using literature from 1990 to 2022. This section aims to identify the existing literature on global semiconductor competition and the position of U.S. semiconductor firms in enhancing their goal strategy.

1.2.1 Semiconductor Value Chain and Complex Manufacturing Process

The semiconductor global value chain is highly specialised, concentrated and capital intensive. Semiconductor production is separated into three main steps: design, wafer fabrication and assembly (Hunter et al., 2002).

The design phase is established in a design department or R&D department in a semiconductor company. The next step in the value chain is the manufacturing phase. The manufacturing phase consists of the wafer fabrication (front end) and the assembly (backend). Wafer fabrication in the semiconductor industry is a critical production step that requires high levels of expertise and billions in capital expenditure (Poitiers & Weil, 2021). The wafer fabrication occurs in a foundry, and the assembly process happens in an assembly site. A semiconductor company is defined as a fabless company when it lacks a foundry facility. Fabless companies manufacture their chips using external foundries to outsource their production. However, many non-fabless semiconductor companies outsource their chips' manufacturing, for instance, if they have limitations in their manufacturing capacity. Assembly is the last step of the manufacturing process, which refers to the testing and packaging the chips before they are integrated into other products (Poitiers & Weil, 2021).

Semiconductor production times from designing to assembling new products may exceed twelve months (Hunter et al., 2002). The changing market needs and product applications could add another year or more for development and manufacturing. Modifying a chip design requires a considerable adjustment to match the specific manufacturing processes to meet the demand of other customers' applications. Performing in a dynamic environment requires agility and flexibility from the leadership

to ensure that the organisation responds to the emerging changes (Yitzhak Haleviet al., 2015).

1.2.2 High Global Competition and Decreasing Efficiency in Production Process

Numerous studies in the field of semiconductors demonstrate that the semiconductor industry involves more than just the introduction of new product innovations. The speed and efficiency with which new products are developed and introduced into high-volume production has a significant impact on manufacturing's competitiveness (Hatch & Mowery, 1998; Appleyard et al., 2001). The semiconductor industry must reduce product development durations and achieve the anticipated self-imposed target market goals to meet market demand requirements (Hatch & Mowery, 1998). In the semiconductor industry, according to Hatch and Mowery (1998), manufacturing process technology is frequently just as difficult as product development when it comes to bringing new products to market. Unfortunately, developing and implementing new manufacturing processes has received little attention (Hatch & Mowery, 1998). The alleged inability of numerous U.S. companies to effectively manage product development has been frequently cited as a significant factor in the decline of U.S. international competitiveness (Dertouzos et al., 1988).

The US semiconductor companies are the leaders in the design source and account for 65 per cent of this market (Poitiers & Weil, 2021). In the context of US-Chinese competition, the US still dominates the design of semiconductors (Poitiers & Weil, 2021); however, Taiwan and China are leading the manufacturing process, which includes the fabrication and the assembly (Poitiers & Weil, 2021). The global manufacturing capacity analysis from 1990 and forecast from 2020 onwards (wafer fabrication and assembly) shows that Europe and North America accounted for a significant chunk of global semiconductor manufacturing (Varas et al., 2020). In 1990, the U.S. semiconductor manufacturing capacity reached about 44 per cent, but it is closer to 10 per cent in 2020 (Varas et al., 2020). Due to low manufacturing time and cost efficiency, the share of capacity in North America is projected to decline over the forecast period as the region's sizeable fabless supplier industry continues to rely on

foundries, primarily those based in Taiwan and China (Varas et al., 2020; Ferry & Layton, 2021).

The priority of the Chinese semiconductor industrial strategy is to become a world-leading chip producer (Poitiers & Weil, 2021). They showed the most significant increase in global wafer capacity in 2016, rising one point one percentage points to 10.8 per cent from 9.7 per cent in 2015 (Varas et al., 2020). China, Taiwan, South Korea, and Japan account for about more than 80 per cent of global manufacturing and U.S. and European semiconductor designers outsource most production to TSMC and other foundry operators (Varas et al., 2020; Lee & Kleinhans, 2021). It is anticipated that the U.S. and European semiconductor manufacturing capacity share will gradually decline (Varas et al., 2020).

1.2.3 Increasing Production Time and Minimal Long-Term Investment

For U.S. fabrications to be successful, they must find a way to achieve a certain level of time and cost efficiency in their manufacturing process and deliver their products to customers as quickly as possible (Ferry & Layton, 2021). TSMC can do this because its Taiwanese government backers take a long-term view (Ferry & Layton, 2021). Taiwan has established a complete value chain, technological competencies, and global logistics and has become a key player in the global electronics industry (Wang & Chiu, 2014). Instead of focusing on the following year's profits, Taiwan seeks to maintain its leadership in this industry for the upcoming fifty years or more (Ferry & Layton, 2021). Semiconductor is still at the top of Taiwan's agenda for economic development (Wang & Chiu, 2014). The industry has a complete supply chain and an unparalleled time and cost efficiency (Wang & Chiu, 2014; Ferry & Layton, 2021). All these factors contribute to the development of IC design and manufacturing (Wang & Chiu, 2014). In the same case as in Taiwan, China set a long-term goal of reaching self-sufficiency in high-tech industries by 2025 and securing leadership in innovation by 2050 (Wang & Chiu, 2014; Hodiak & Harold, 2020; Ferry & Layton, 2021). Chinese semiconductor companies intend to reduce their reliance on external suppliers for their manufacturing process and ensure a move up the value chain for technology production, particularly for semiconductors (Casanova & Miroux, 2019; Poitiers & Weil, 2021).

Similar to the U.S. foundries, European foundries did not make educated long-term investments to keep up with the industry's rapid pace of innovation (Kleinhans, 2021). In 2020, only 3 per cent of global investment to equip foundries was in Europe. Major European foundries, including Global Foundries (Germany), STMicroelectronics (France and Italy), Bosch (Germany), Infineon (Germany) and NXP (Netherlands), have a small share of global production capacities and output, estimated at 10 per cent of global production (Poitiers & Weil 2021).

The U.S. and European semiconductor companies may learn from the long-term Taiwanese model (Ghosh, 2020). The U.S semiconductor firms need to be at the cutting edge in manufacturing, just as they are in chip design (Ferry & Layton, 2021). The U.S. semiconductor companies are suggested to focus on long-term leadership instead of the following year's profitability (Ferry & Layton, 2021).

Instead of pursuing short-term sales and profit in 2019, Chinese semiconductors firms invested nearly \$32 billion in semiconductor manufacturing equipment (SME), a 20 per cent annual increase, making China the largest market for semiconductor equipment (Ghosh, 2020). China has no interest in "sharing" the market with other competitors because China wants to be self-sufficient and produce all the chips for itself and the rest of the world (Ferry & Layton, 2021). China has a 15 per cent global semiconductor manufacturing capacity, rise to 24 per cent by 2030 (Varas et al., 2020).

Achieving development cycle reductions allows competing organisations to get a market position over the competition (Appleyard et al., 2001; Appleyard & Kalsow, 1999). Appleyard et al. (2001) describe the developmental cycle duration improvements, which allowed new product innovations to be deployed at an increasing rate, surpassing other manufacturing organisations' efforts to reduce time-to-market durations. Reducing product development lead time gives a semiconductor company an advantage in winning the market position (Appleyard et al., 2001). A semiconductor organisation may control product, cost, and growth while obtaining the acknowledged "product performance rights" in a specific target market segment (Appleyard et al., 2001).

Being unable to achieve production effectiveness, chip manufacturers face the 2020-2021 shortages following a 12 per cent decline in revenue in the industry in 2019 (Duthoit, 2019; Poitiers & Weil, 2021). The bottleneck is clear. Some chip producers cannot adapt their production capacities (Poitiers & Weil, 2021). Shortages are nothing new in the semiconductor industry (Statista, 2022). Since 1990, there have been sales declines lasting twelve to fifteen months and intense price competition every four to five years (Duthoit, 2019; Poitiers & Weil, 2021). Leadership practices are critical due to the complex nature of the manufacturing process. In addition, leadership is essential for combining manufacturing with research and development to advance the industry's new product development and improve its requirements (Brown & Campbell, 2001). The U.S. can regain its semiconductor manufacturing leadership (Ferry et al., 2021). This is merely a question of whether U.S. companies will invest in U.S.-based manufacturing over a twenty-year period or longer (Ferry et al., 2021).

1.3 The Research Background and Objectives

In the highly competitive and constantly changing environment that characterises the high-tech semiconductor industry, leaders and managers play a critical role in helping organisations accomplish their mission and guide subordinates towards their goals (Sechrest, 1999). Therefore, Chapter 3 will explore existing leadership literature in the semiconductor industry. The review in [Section 1.2](#) reveals that the continuous decrease of U.S manufacturing capacity in global share is caused by the minimum long-term investments of semiconductor firms in increasing their production effectiveness (Duthoit, 2019; Ferry & Layton, 2021; Kleinhans, 2021). Despite the limitations of leadership research in the semiconductor industry and given that the primary data findings in this study pertain to transformational leadership ([Section 4.4](#)), other leadership studies in the semiconductor industry that will be presented in this Chapter have some connections to the area of transformational leadership.

The long-term survival of many manufacturing is inseparable from the organisation's ability to create products, which quality meets or exceeds customers' expectations (Ng et al., 2009). Therefore, organisations are searching for approaches to managing

people and production systems to ensure the transformation of inputs into quality outputs that meet or exceed customers' expectations (Ugboro & Obeng, 2000). For decades, leadership theories have made concrete recommendations for enhancing organisational performance and employee commitment and satisfaction (Puffer & McCarthy, 1996). There has not been a great deal of academic research on leadership in the semiconductor industry. Many current leadership theories have yet to live up to their promise of helping practitioners resolve the challenges and problems in organisational leadership (Zaccaro & Klimoski, 2002; Gilmore et al., 2013).

This chapter reviews some literature about leadership conducted in semiconductor companies that are used as the background of the thesis's objectives. Many academic studies over the past decade have examined the relationship between leadership styles and organisational performance. However, much academic research on leadership in the semiconductor industry has not been conducted.

Some researchers study leadership topics in semiconductor companies with diverse research setups. Ng & Guan (2009) studied the impact and influence of leadership on the organisational performance of a semiconductor manufacturing firm in Melaka, Malaysia. Their study analyses the effect of a set of leader traits, values, and behaviours extracted within the organisation. Their study employed in-depth semi-structured interviews with project team leaders in the company. Their study provides insights to engineers and managers in the semiconductor industry on the specific factors that require adequate attention to ensure effective organisational performance. Ng & Guan's (2009) research shows that a company without vision and strategy is without direction and will most likely fail. Effective performance is influenced by leaders who are influential to their employees to achieve the company's vision (Ng & Guan, 2009). Vision and strategy are important because they provide a common thread amongst the diversity to give them a sense of shared identity and belonging to reach a common goal (Ng & Guan, 2009). Other researchers in leadership confirm Ng & Guan's findings. For instance, Howell (1999) suggests that by assigning a mission and ideological goals, which increase participants' perception of the meaning and importance of their task assignment, leaders may forge a solid affective connection between the participants and their work and elevate their motivation to perform.

Another leadership research in the semiconductor industry was conducted by Ho (2004), who did an evaluation study using a particular case in a semiconductor foundry in Taiwan. Ho (2004) used this as a case in the Taiwan semiconductor foundry industry since it holds the leading position in global competition. He explains that the costly investment and high uncertainty associated with emerging technologies complicate the assessment of a semiconductor company's impact on competitiveness (Ho, 2004). To achieve organisational flexibility in moving with the technological life cycle, the ability to shift strategy by internal leadership in a semiconductor company is necessary (Ho, 2004). Suppose the foundry can develop or acquire technologies that do not favour its current strategies. In that case, it requires altering its plans better to utilize the technologies available (Ho, 2004). However, to achieve that, the company needs to have influential leaders who can alter required strategies and change management in organisational structure, procedures, and even culture into well-developed ones (Ho, 2004).

Ho's (2004) findings are aligned with other leadership studies like Yukl (2008), who state that effective performance requires a cooperative effort by the multiple leaders in an organisation, and they must be flexible and adaptive as the situation changes (Yukl 2008). Also, another study on leadership accomplished in a semiconductor company in Taiwan by Chien & Ting (2015) shows some similarities to the findings of Ho (2004). Chien & Ting (2015) studied leadership's influence by interviewing supervisors (managers and above) in depth. Their research explores whether leadership styles in the semiconductor industry can vary along with operating performances. Organisational performances underpin the sustainability of competitive advantages (Chien & Ting, 2015). Their research shows that transformational leadership influences organisation performance more than transactional and charismatic leadership. Avolio and Bass (2009) investigated different leadership styles and their impact on CI (Continuous Improvements). They argued that transformational leadership is superior to transactional leadership in improving organisations' performance continuously. The characteristic of transformational leadership, which is influential, visionary, and capable of changing even the existing organisational culture (Chien & Ting, 2015; Avolio & Bass, 2009), are aligned with the leadership study of Ho (2004) in a Taiwanese foundry.

Woehl (2011) argues that transformational leadership is needed to implement lean production in the semiconductor industry. His research is conducted in 20 U.S.-based semiconductor companies. Woehl (2011) used quantitative surveys to test the hypothesis that transformational leadership is the most supportive leadership style for implementing lean manufacturing. His study aims to ascertain the association between different leadership styles of manufacturing management and the level of lean practices and lean culture in semiconductor manufacturing organisations. Woehl (2011) shows a correlation between transformational leadership and the degree of leanness. In the electronic industry, the management of factories sees lean manufacturing as a method to reduce cost, improve productivity, and improve profit (Motwani, 2003). Other researchers like Ohno (1982), Womack et al. (1990), and Flynn et al. (1993) describe lean manufacturing as a method to achieve continuous improvement (CI) and Just in Time (JIT) in a production system. Several studies conducted in the semiconductor industry have examined the topic of leadership. Particular examples include the works of Sechrest (1999), Achanga et al. (2006), and Woehl (2011). These studies have consistently highlighted the importance for leaders in this industry to implement lean transformation strategies. By eliminating unnecessary work activities and streamlining processes within their work systems, leaders can effectively reduce costs and minimize time requirements. The studies of transformational leadership and lean practices support the theories of Appleyard et al. (2001) and Hatch and Mowery (1998), who state that success in the semiconductor industry does not mean just the creation of new product innovations. The developmental cycle duration improvements allowed new product innovations to be deployed at an increasing rate, surpassing other manufacturing organisations' efforts to reduce time-to-market durations (Hatch & Mowery, 1998). Another group of researchers that supports transformation leadership to improve production efficiency is Achanga et al. (2006). They argue that leadership plays a significant role in implementing lean and discuss the need for a supportive organizational culture to implement lean.

Despite the benefits of lean transformation, which are fast-cycle times (Wu, 2003), and produces JIT at a low cost (Stalk, 1988), many studies show a low success rate for companies applying a lean transformation (Sohal & Egglestone, 1994; Koenigsaecker, 2005). In recent years, some researchers like Bhasin & Burcher (2006), Gande (2009),

and Mann (2009) have begun to shift their research focus to transformation leadership on how leaders improve the success rate of implementing lean. These researchers argued that a specific culture is necessary to implement lean practices; more specifically, a culture in which all employees are engaged in CI (Choi & Liker, 1995; Liker & Morgan, 2006; Huehn-Brown & Murray, 2010).

Sechrest (1999), who analyses how leaders develop in a semiconductor company, also identifies some leadership approaches that support the organisation to minimize cost and time (Sechrest 1999). Using interviews and inductive analysis of nineteen executives in one semiconductor design and manufacturing company, (Sechrest, 1999) argues that the advanced abilities of leaders, such as defining goals and setting priorities, eliminate unnecessary work activities, processes or positions in the company. That kind of leadership ability attracts stakeholders to continuous improvement actions & alternatives (Sechrest, 1999).

Sechrest (1999) used the interview techniques of Flanagan (1954) and McClelland (1978), in which the managers in the company were asked to recall and describe critical incidents in their lives or careers that helped them learn how to be leaders. Sechrest's (1999) research aimed to investigate the effects of professional and personal experiences that have contributed to professional leadership development in one semiconductor design, engineering and manufacturing company. His study shows that role models and mentoring are vital factors in leadership. His study also provides evidence of the company's need to develop managers and leaders to become role models.

Global market competitiveness and rapid technological change have shortened product and business life cycles, and consequently, creativity and innovation have become the survival and success tools of modern business organisations (Golden and Shriner, 2017). Both employees and managers play essential roles in developing and sustaining creative and innovative organisations (Carmeliet al., 2015; Henkeret al., 2015; Gumusluogluet al., 2017; Uhl-Bien & Arena, 2018). Unable to achieve production effectiveness, semiconductor firms face the 2020-2021 shortages following a 12 per cent decline in revenue in the industry in 2019 (Poitiers & Weil, 2021). Whether the context of leadership directly influences the current chip shortage issues

and the global semiconductor competition (Casper et al., 2021), if leaders in the semiconductor companies don't seize the opportunity to see the bigger picture and shift their practice from today, they may not be given another one (Miller, 2021). With the emergence of semiconductor topics, especially in maintaining U.S. leadership in semiconductors and countering china's threats (Varas et al., 2020; Ferry & Layton, 2021; Poiters & Weil, 2021) and the limited samples of leadership research in the semiconductor industry, it prompts an interest in exploring the context of leadership in one of U.S semiconductor company. Specifically, to understand 'what is happening, 'how things take shape within the definitions of leadership that the company applies and how they impact the organisation's behaviour and performance.

Having reviewed some leadership literature in the semiconductor industry, three specific research objectives were considered to achieve the overall research aim. They are as follows:

1. To gain a deeper understanding and to explore the concept of leadership from the perspectives of the key stakeholders, such as leaders-managers from different management levels and nonmanagerial employees in a semiconductor company.
2. To explore the gaps in leadership concepts in the company and to understand further 'what is going on' and 'how things take shape' in its organisational behaviour.
3. To propose a leadership model suggestion for developing the organisational behaviours required for a semiconductor business to accomplish its aims.

1.4 The Research Questions

This section describes how the researcher defines the main questions of the research based on the research objectives ([Section 1.3](#)) and the linkages between the explanations in [Section 1.2](#) and [Section 1.3](#).

[Section 1.2](#) reveals that the performance of semiconductor companies is measured by their success in increasing their speed and effectiveness in developing and producing their chips. From the review shown in [Section 1.2](#), U.S. semiconductor companies lost

their competition in fabrication against China and Taiwan because of their slow manufacturing process and high cost (Hatch & Mowery, 1998; Peng, 2009; Varas et al., 2020; Ferry & Layton, 2021). Some literature state that the inability of U.S semiconductor firms to achieve fast production cycle time is caused by their short-term profit strategy (Ghosh, 2020; Ferry & Layton, 2021). Leaders in U.S. and European semiconductor companies are suggested to apply a long-term vision to win the time-to-market and cost competition; for instance, what China and Taiwan did by investing in technology or equipment for the next twenty or even fifty years (Peng, 2009; Ferry & Layton, 2021; Kleinhans, 2021; Poitiers & Weil, 2021).

[Section 1.3](#) explores some leadership research accomplished in semiconductor companies in different locations. Despite the various sites of the semiconductor firms where the analyses were established, the studies show that leadership impacts the organisation's performance (Sechrest, 1999; Ho, 2004; Ng & Guan, 2009; Woehl, 2011; Chien & Ting, 2015). Ng & Guan (2009), who did their research in an assembly manufacturing semiconductor in Malaysia, state that influential leaders can accomplish effective organisational performance to their employees in achieving a common company goal. Ho (2004), who did research in a Taiwanese Foundry (wafer fabrication), explains that a semiconductor company needs influential leaders who can change their organisation to achieve its goal. As a foundry, its goal is to be consistently competitive in technology to reduce its production cost and cycle time (Ho,2004). Similar to Chien & Ting (2015), who interviewed supervisors and managers in a semiconductor company in Taiwan. Their research indicates that transformational leaders significantly influence employees to increase an organisation's performance compared to other leadership styles, such as transactional leadership (Chien & Ting, 2015).

This research is conducted in a U.S. semiconductor firm based in Europe, Germany. The preceding paragraphs and the information from Sections 1.2 and 1.3 show that leaders in many U.S. and European semiconductor companies still needed to apply a long-term vision. This prevents their companies from producing chips according to the market demand due to their high cost and long manufacturing time. Some leadership studies done in U.S. semiconductor companies, such as Sechrest (1999), state that being a role model is one of the main factors required by the leaders need in the

company ([Section 1.2](#)). Woehl (2011), who researched twenty U.S. semiconductor companies ([Section 1.2](#)), reveals that transformational leadership is needed for U.S. semiconductor firms to implement lean production that reduces cost, improves productivity, and improves profit (Woehl, 2011). The linkages from the explanations taken from [Section 1.2](#) and [Section 1.3](#) could be transformational leadership characteristics. The researcher finds it intriguing that the leadership research conducted in Taiwanese foundries reveals results associated with transformational leadership. Ho (2004) and Chien & Ting (2015) show that leaders with influence and vision attract employees for continuous improvement actions such as minimizing cost and time. According to transformational leadership literature, role modelling, long-term mindset, visionary, and influence are the main characteristics of transformational leaders (Weber, 1947; Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Sashkin, 1988; Bass & Avolio, 1989; Shamir et al., 1991). Based on the discussion of the literature from [Section 1.2](#) and [Section 1.3](#), the question is whether the lacking of transformational leadership causes the U.S companies' current production issues ([Section 1.3](#)). That question initiates a compelling question: whether the U.S. semiconductor company where the research is conducted lacks transformational leadership. However, to avoid limiting the scope of participants' perspectives (Creswell, 2014), the researcher will not initiate any topic related to transformational leadership. The interviews begin with open-ended questions to understand the interviewee's narrative account of their history, self-understandings, and essential incidents (Levitan et al. I, 2018). Secondly, this thesis does not aim to prove that this specific U.S. semiconductor company needs more transformational leadership.

As well established in [Section 1.3](#), three specific research objectives were considered to achieve the research aim.

To reach [research objective No. 1](#) ([Section 1.3](#)), the researcher must investigate each participant's conception of leadership as the key determinant of the organization's outcome. The definition of their leadership could be based on their concept, personal experiences or notable incidents in their career (Flanagan, 1954; McClelland, 1978; Creswell, 2014). A study by Gharibvand et al. (2013) in the semiconductor industry in Penang and Kuala Lumpur reveals that the most effective leadership style can increase employee job satisfaction and improve company performance. Other

literature on leadership also supports the theory from Gharibvand et al. (2013); The type of leadership applied in an organisation has an impact on its environment (Liebersson & O'Connor, 1972; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977). However, there are mixed results found in recent studies (Agle et al., 2006; Ling et al., 2008). Despite the pro and contra, Gharibvand et al. (2013) sees that managers can gain their employees' trust and job satisfaction by involving them in decision-making process by asking for their ideas and suggestions on how to improve the organisation (Gharibvand et al., 2013).

To achieve [research objective No. 2 \(Section 1.3\)](#), the researcher needs to find out the concept of leadership established in the company. The semiconductor industry is highly capital-intensive. Thus, enhancing organisational performances with suitable leadership styles is essential to ensure its competitive advantage in the knowledge economy with constant changes (Chien & Ting, 2015). Through leadership, top management leaders influence organisational outcomes by implementing specific firm strategies (Hambrick & Mason, 1984; Tang et al., 2011, 2015). The company's strategies are taken based on the company's vision that has a vital link to the company's outcome or company future (Schilit, 1987; Bass & Avolio, 1990; Zaccaro, 1996; Gilmore et al., 2013). A company's vision is generally set by top management, which can be defined as a shared vision that all employees must accept (McNeese-Smith, 1995; Leavey, 1996). A company's vision based on a shared vision gives employees motivation, enthusiasm, and productivity and produces a solid organisational commitment (McNeese-Smith, 1995). Gharibvand et al., 2013, who researched a semiconductor assembly site in Malaysia, revealed that most of their participants agreed that company leadership affect employee job satisfaction (Gharibvand et al. 2013).

To achieve [research objective No. 3 \(Section 1.3\)](#), the researcher must investigate participants' recommendations regarding the best leadership practises the company needs to realise its vision (Gharibvand et al., 2013). All the participants, including managers, supervisors and engineers in the company, are considered the keyholders (Sechrest, 1999). As described in [Section 1.2](#) and [Section 1.3](#), most of the results of the existing studies in the semiconductor industry show that transformational leadership is required for semiconductor companies to maintain their innovative

performance, such as the effectiveness in cost and production cycle time. Despite a clear indication in the literature review about transformational characteristics needed in the semiconductor industry (Creswell, 2014), the researcher did not initiate focusing on transformational leadership as the main area of the research to avoid participants and the researcher's bias. However, the first phase of interviews shows significant input about the urgency and importance of leaders' transformational abilities in the company. The discussion of transformational leadership dominates the data analysis in the thesis because it was one of the most significant findings from the interview data. Transformational leadership has been suggested to enhance organisational innovation through intellectual stimulation and encourage openness among organisational members (Vera & Crossan, 2004). In many leadership studies, the transformational and transactional leadership styles were compared (Bass, 1990). Some studies also examined the relationship between transformational leadership, transactional leadership and employee attitudes (Rahman et al., 2009).

The thesis aims to contribute towards the understanding of leadership in a U.S. semiconductor company, including the impact of various concepts of leadership on behaviour in the organisation, to identify the best practice of leadership for a semiconductor firm to achieve and maintain success in dynamic global competition. Based on the discussion of the research objectives and the related literature in this chapter, six main research questions are defined as follow:

1. How do they define “leadership”?
2. How is the leadership established in the company?
3. What barriers and challenges do they see in applying their leadership concept in their organisations?
4. What kind of leadership and what kind of impact of leadership does the company needs to be competitive in the semiconductor industry?
5. What is their solution to apply their desired leadership with all barriers and challenges they face in their organisations?
6. What is their suggestion or best practice to solve the issues they have in relation to the need for transformational leadership in their organisation? What is their solution to build transformational leaders?

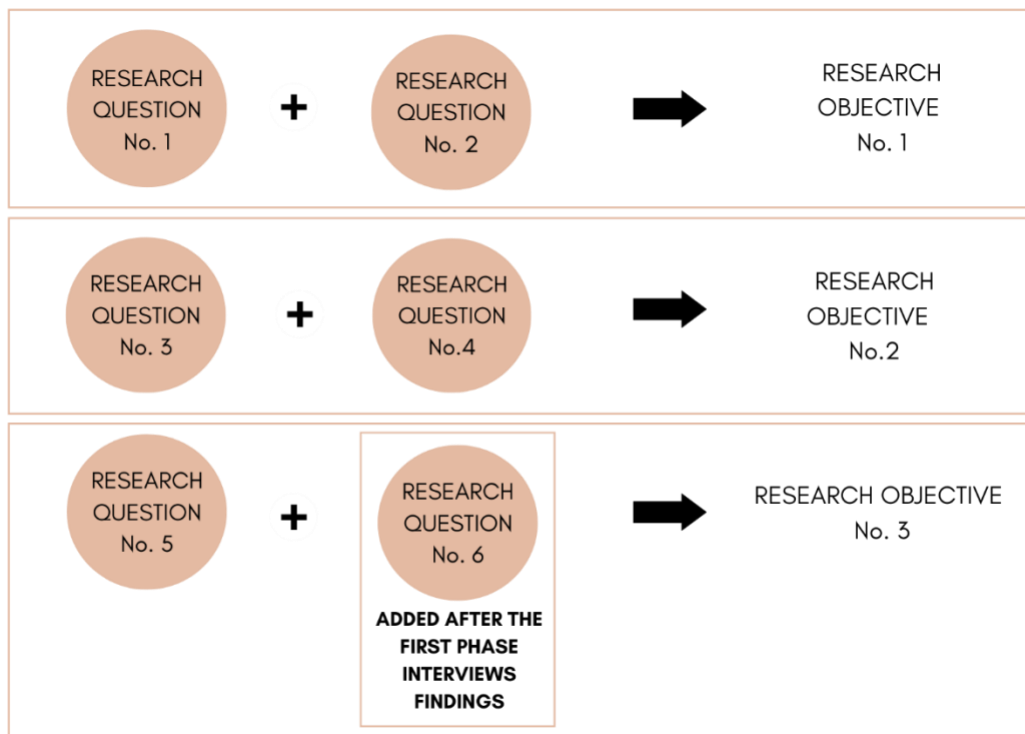


Figure 1.0 The Connection between Research Questions and Objectives

The research objectives inform the formulation of each research question. [Figure 1.0](#) demonstrates that research questions [No. 1](#) and [No. 2](#) are derived from the [research objective No. 1](#). The research question [No. 3](#) and [No. 4](#) are based on the second [research objective No. 2](#), while the research questions [No. 5](#) and [No. 6](#) are based on the [research objective No. 3](#). As previously indicated, although the researcher did not initially focus on transformational leadership, the first phase of interviews reveals substantial information regarding the urgency and significance of transformational leadership abilities within the organization. The sixth research question is added based on the information gleaned from the first phase of interviews. The interviews are held by answering open-ended question, interviewees can provide their historical information; however, with the prepared sub-questions, the researcher can 'control' the line of questioning (Creswell, 2017).

1.5 The Thesis Structure and The Research Flow

[Figure 1.1](#) displays the research cycle of this thesis. This section reveals the structure of the thesis that is developed based on the qualitative research concept. The use of

qualitative research in the study of leadership is growing, and several examples of research can be cited as illustrations of a qualitative research approach within leadership studies (Bryman et al., 1996; Bryman, 2004). Some popular books on leadership, such as Bennis and Nanus (1985), have employed interviews and informal observation to examine the strategies of successful senior leaders and have etched out the role of such features as “vision” in the leader’s success. Qualitative methods allow the researcher to explore individuals or organisations simply through complex interventions, relationships, communities, or programs and support the deconstruction and the subsequent reconstruction of various phenomena (Yin, 2003). This thesis is established based on the qualitative method. The core activities in qualitative research include literature review, data collection, data analysis and saturation (Streubert & Carpenter, 1999). Saturation includes concept formation, modification, description, and theory development (Streubert & Carpenter, 1999).

Streubert and Carpenter (1999) define qualitative research flow as cyclical steps. The quantitative usually is done in linear process flow (Streubert & Carpenter, 1999). The cyclical steps are necessary for qualitative research, and it is because the theories are developed during the study instead of only prior to the study. In quantitative research, the process research study measures the topic variables and controls the error of the data based on existing related theories (Streubert & Carpenter, 1999). On the contrary, qualitative study is to make meanings of the concepts and discover the findings' trustworthiness (Streubert & Carpenter, 1999).

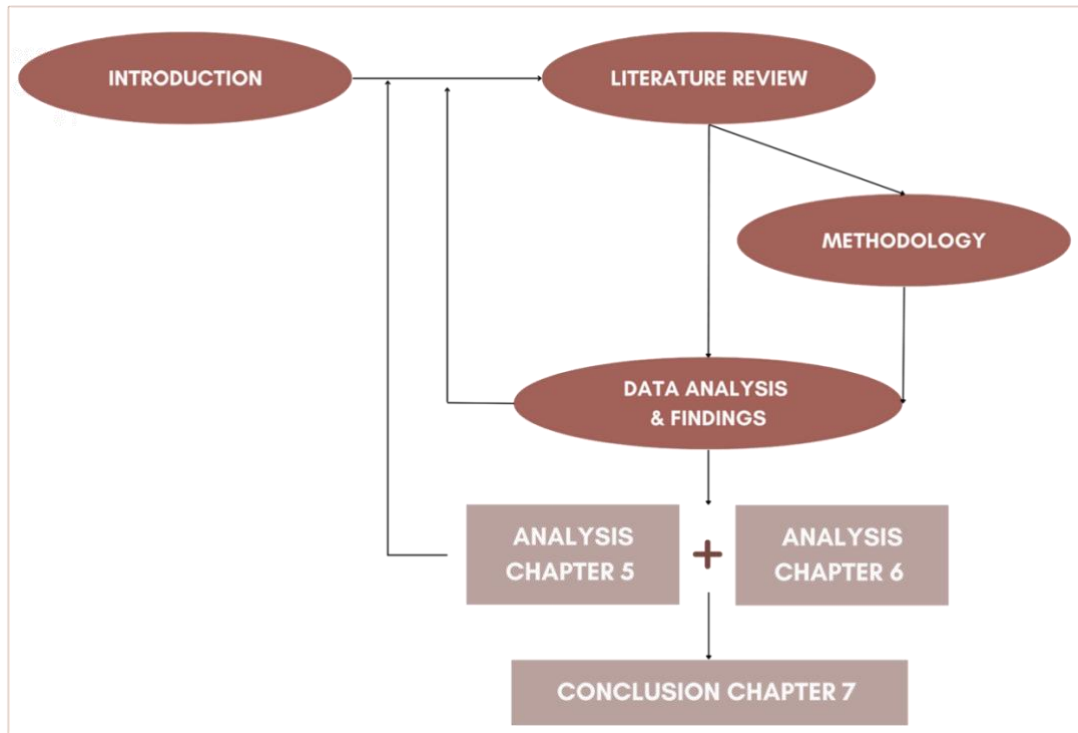


Figure 1.1 The Research Flow

The research flows starts with the introduction, in which the thesis background, aims, objectives and research questions are defined. The introduction's context defines what the researcher hopes the research is about. The researcher starts with a brief overview of what appears to be relevant literature as part of the researcher's preunderstanding. The literature review in the early phase enables the researcher to explore and develop the concept of the themes and the subject's account. The role of literature is to enable the researcher to understand the perspectives gained from the participants (Bell et al., 2022). The purposes of a literature review before the data collection are to know concepts and theories that are relevant to this area, to define the proper method and strategy, to see whether there are significant controversies and to explore whether there are any unanswered research questions in the research topic area (Bell et al., 2022). The next step is to define the research methodology and methods based on the research questions and objectives refined during the literature review process. The data analysis procedure is the process of qualitative data reduction that led to the three main themes explained in [Chapters 5](#) and [6](#). Three main themes are defined based on the data reduction: The Need of Transformational Leadership; Vision Conflict and The Vicious Circle; The Role of Authenticity and Self-Clarity. Chapters 5 and 6 explore the thematic discussion of data description, reflection or hypothesis generation and

relevant theories. [Figure 1.2](#) indicates the relationship between the three main themes and the research questions discussed in [Chapters 5](#) and [6](#).

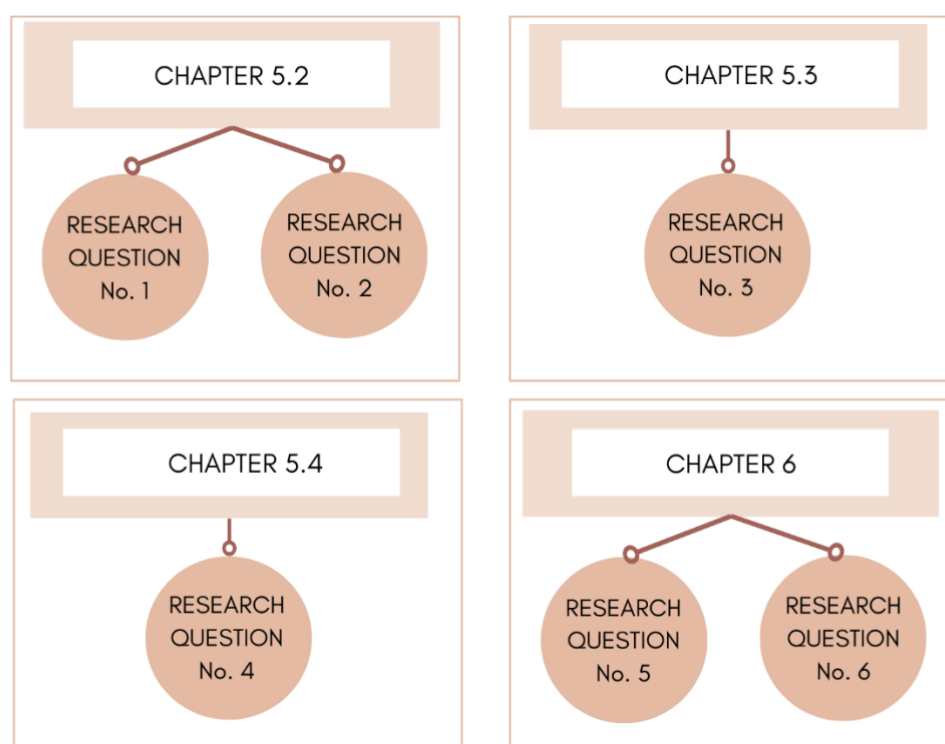


Figure 1.2 Research Questions and Discussion Chapters

To summarize, this thesis includes eight chapters. The following section explains the thesis's structure and outlines each chapter's objectives.

[Chapter 1 Introduction](#)

This chapter explores the background of research based on the existing leadership studies in the semiconductor industry and the aim of the research. The chapter also describes the rationale for the research based on the research objectives and the semiconductor industry's condition during the research's time frame.

The concept of leadership in any industry is broad. Leadership studies in the semiconductor industry can be in different aspects of improvement. This area of research deserves to be investigated at a doctoral level, as it can inform the main stakeholders about the best practice model of leadership that can improve the organisational performance of semiconductor companies.

[Chapter 2 Literature Review](#)

Chapter Two reviews critical academic theories and concepts used in the thesis. The chapter explains how the researcher conducted the theoretical framework. The critical pieces of literature will be on transformational leadership and authentic leadership. The critical area's background is that the participants showed similar ideas about their leadership's definition in the first stage of the interviews. It presents literature on general transformational leadership theories compared to transactional leadership theories and its implication on organisational performance. It also provides literature on transformational leadership from different perspectives, such as role model leadership, authentic leadership, continuous improvement, lean manufacturing management and organisational innovation. As a result of reviewing this chapter, gaps in the literature will be identified, and the research questions will be designed.

[Chapter 3 Methodology](#)

Chapter Three is a methodology chapter which discusses the research design informed by the literature review. It explains in detail the research approach, i.e. qualitative; the research method, i.e. interview technique; the data collection process and sampling technique; data analysis approach, i.e. General Analytic Induction; the limitations and ethical considerations in this thesis. The interview technique is an open-ended and in-depth dialogue, allowing the interview process to be flexible and the conversation to flow and evolve. The chapter explores the research paradigm and justifies the researcher's methods.

[Chapter 4 Data Analysis and Findings](#)

Chapter Four is an investigation of data and will report the findings. It also explains data analysis procedures by providing visual examples of the research data management from MAXQDA software. It also includes descriptive characteristics of the participants by introducing all the participants' details and backgrounds. Finally, the chapter includes an investigation of data which identifies participants' significant concerns regarding their relationship. This chapter also shows how three main themes of this thesis emerged from the empirical data and explain the data reduction process. Therefore, this chapter will inform the two following discussion chapters.

[Chapter 5 The Need for Transformational Leadership and The Vicious Circle](#)

Chapter Five is the first discussion chapter and discusses the first and second themes that emerged from the data using participant quotations and literature support. This chapter discusses the primary perspectives of the participants on leadership. This chapter also examines in depth the company's vision conflict and the pressing need for transformation leaders based on the interviewees' feedback. This chapter's discussion contributes to the Vision Conflict and Vicious Circle models.

[Chapter 6 The Role of Authenticity and Self-Clarity](#)

Chapter Six reveals participant viewpoints regarding the third research objective. In spite of the company conditions described in [Chapter 5](#), the interviewees provided suggestions on how to become a transformational leader based on their experience and the success stories of other leaders. This chapter and the result of Chapter Six contribute to the development of the model of the Leadership Triangle.

[Chapter 7 Discussion and Contributions](#)

Chapter Seven discusses significant findings and, consequently, the contribution of this thesis to knowledge and practise. It includes key recommendations for the key semiconductor. In addition, it highlights the primary strength of the research, as well as its limitations and recommendations for future research.

[Chapter 8 Conclusion](#)

Chapter 8 provides a comprehensive summary of the findings of the thesis. This section describes the author's personal reflections on the thesis-writing process. The researcher develops the critical thinking skills necessary for approaching problems systematically, recognizing the connections between ideas, evaluating arguments, and analyzing data in order to reach conclusions.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The chapter explains the steps of how the literature review is conducted. It shows the essential works of literature and the leadership areas relevant to the aims and objectives of the research. The analysis in this chapter will primarily focus on transformational leadership, authentic leadership, trust-based leadership, and full consideration of role model theory concerning leadership issues. The discussions in this chapter consist of comparing and contrasting the different leadership theories and being transparent in all these areas that are problematic in some respect. [Chapter 1](#) reveals the three defined specific [research objectives](#) ([Section 1.3](#)).

A literature review is an objective, thorough summary, and critical analysis of the relevant available research and non-research literature on the studied topic (Hart, 1998). Its goal is to bring the reader up-to-date with current literature on a topic and form the basis for another goal, such as the justification for future research in the area. A good literature review gathers information about a particular subject from many sources, and it is well written and contains few personal biases (Freitas et al., 2008). It should contain a clear search and selection strategy (Carnwell & Daly, 2001). Good structuring is essential to enhance the flow and readability of the review. Accurate use of terminology is important and jargon should be kept to a minimum. Referencing should be accurate throughout (Colling, 2003).

For qualitative research questions, literature reviews need to focus on how a research question, which is usually broader than a hypothesis to be tested in a quantitative study (Denney & Tewksbury, 2013). This means that in the literature review for a qualitative study, an inclusive approach to the general research topic is required (Denney & Tewksbury, 2013). The two standard types of reviews are (a) systematic and (b) non-systematic or narrative reviews. However, since NRs and SRs are written retrospectively, both are prone to bias (Yuan & Hunt, 2009). The main objective of a

SR is to formulate a well-defined question and provide quantitative and qualitative analyses of the relevant evidence, followed or not by a meta-analysis. The SR strengths include the focus on a unique query, clarity in retrieving articles for review, objective and quantitative summary, and inferences based on evidence (Collins & Fauser, 2005). NRs can address one or more questions yet the selection criteria for inclusion of the articles may not be specified explicitly. Subjectivity in study selection is the main weakness ascribed to the NRs, which potentially leads to biases (Yuan & Hunt, 2009). Neither the SRs, with their restricted focus, nor the NRs, with their distinctiveness, completely satisfies the wide range of topics to review (Collins & Fauser, 2005). Hence, new approaches are currently in development, such as meta-narrative reviews (Wong et al., 2013) and realistic syntheses (Wong et al., 2013).

2.1.1 Literature Review Technique

In the scientific literature, there are two common types of review articles: systematic and narrative literature reviews. These two types of review articles have distinct objectives and characteristics. This thesis applies the narrative review (NR) approach. Review articles on narrative literature play an important role in continuing education because they provide readers with up-to-date information on a particular topic or theme (Rother, 2007). This type of review does not, however, describe the methodological approach that would permit data reproduction nor answer a specific quantitative research question (Rother, 2007). Typically, these review articles are employed in qualitative research. A systematic literature review, on the other hand, is a well-planned review intended to answer specific research questions using a systematic and explicit methodology to identify, select, and evaluate the results of the included studies (Castro, 2006). The narrative method often has similarities to approaches used in qualitative research. For example, a thematic or content analysis is a commonly used technique. It can be broadly defined as a method for identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns in the form of themes within a text (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The approach is designed for topics that have been conceptualized differently and studied by various groups of researchers within diverse disciplines that hinder a complete systematic review process (Wong et al., 2013). This type of analysis can be useful for detecting themes, theoretical perspectives, or joint issues within a specific research discipline or methodology or for identifying components of a theoretical

concept (Ward, House, & Hamer, 2009). Independent of what approach will be used to conduct the literature review, several steps must be taken during the literature review process. [Figure 2.0](#) shows the steps of the literature review that were taken from practical experience and guidelines suggested for literature reviews (e.g., Liberati et al., 2009; Tranfield et al., 2003; Wong et al., 2013)

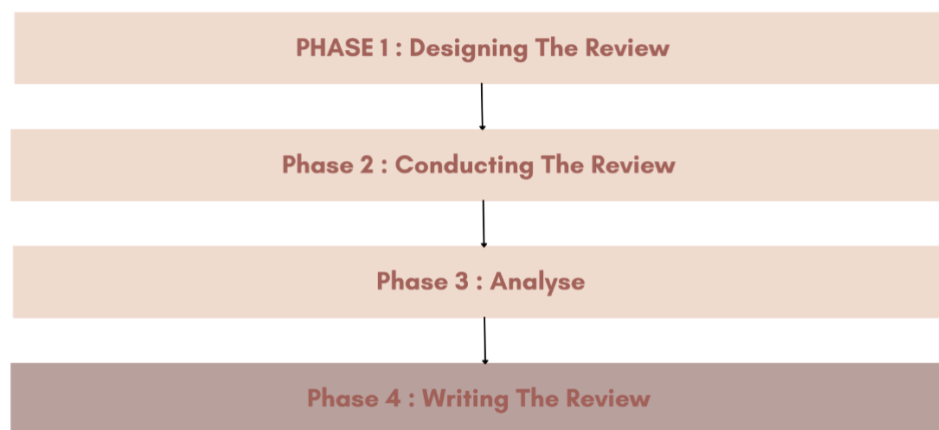


Figure 2.0 Literature Review Steps

Phase 1: Designing the Review

In the planning or designing phase, the researcher defines the parameter of the research, including the subject area, the industry sector or geographical area, and the type of literature (Saunders et al., 2012). The second main activity in the planning phase is to generate keywords or search phrases (Ely & Scott, 2007). Figure 3.0 shows some examples of the keywords used in the conducting phase of the literature review. Generating keywords can be done through readings and brainstorming discussions with colleagues or tutors. The purpose of designing the literature review is to collect relevant ideas to the research questions as widely as possible (Saunders et al., 2012).

Phase 2: Conducting the Review

With the purpose, specific research questions, and type of approach, the researcher can start conducting the actual literature review (Synder, 2019). However, Bell, Bryman and Harley (2022) suggest exploring the literature even if the research topic is still unfocused. Cooper (1988) proposes four selection approaches in conducting a

literature review. The four coverage techniques consist of an exhaustive review, exhaustive review with selective, representative sample, and purposive sample (Cooper, 1988).

This thesis adopts the purposive sample approach, which means the selection technique is to take a purposive sample in which the reviewer examines only the central or pivotal articles in a field. Nevertheless, the researcher also evaluates a representative sample of articles and makes assumptions about the entire population of articles from which sample (the representative sample technique). To get more ideas and details, a random coverage technique is used. However, the researcher ensures all articles are still manageable and every available detail is bound to a specific topic (Cooper, 1988). The researcher uses references from the reviewed literature to guide the researcher to the new sources. The researcher thoroughly reads each literature that appears in the search; this is a highly useful but time-consuming approach. Another option is to focus on the research method or findings. The third option is to conduct the review in stages by reading abstracts first and making selections, then reading full-text articles later, before making the final selection. During this time, the process of including and excluding specific articles should be documented carefully.

Phase 3: Analysis

The next step is evaluating or analysing the literature. At this point, the literature that has been determined as/deemed appropriate will have been gathered. While the focus of the literature may vary depending on the overall purpose, there are several useful strategies for the analysis and synthesis stages that will help the construction and writing of the review. Palmatier et al. (2018) suggest that a quality literature review must have depth and rigor. It is advisable to undertake a first read of the articles that have been collected to get a sense of what they are about (Freitas et al., 2008). The researcher follows the four steps from Hart (1998) to analyse the literature for this thesis. Hart (1998) suggests four steps in evaluating literature. The first step is to note the structure, the topic, the general reasoning, and the literature reference. The second step is to survey the literature by glancing at the general idea and the content.

The third step is to identify the aims and the logic of the work. Lastly, the researcher reads the parts of the chapters, which are identified as essential for the research.

Phase 4: Writing the Review

The framework of narrative review is the IMRAD (Introduction, Methods, Results, Discussion). Still, an NR may be organised in chronological order, with a summary of the research history when clear trends are identified, or presented as a conceptual frame, where the contents are separated according to dependent or independent variables and their relationships (Green et al., 2006; Randolph, 2009). [Figure 2.1](#) visualizes the general framework of an NR used for this thesis. In this model, the central body is partitioned into units, and each composed of the discussed and evaluated concepts (Green et al., 2006).

2.1.2 Literature Topics

Based on the interview data, qualitative inductive analysis was utilized to generate these four major themes, which are transformational leadership ([Section 2.2.1](#)), role model leadership ([Section 2.2.2](#)), authentic leadership ([Section 2.2.3](#)), trust ([Section 2.2.3.1](#); [Section 2.2.3.2](#)) and vision theories ([Section 2.2.1.3](#)). In [Section 4.4](#), the researcher describes how the four main themes are defined through the data analysis induction process, that is explained in [Chapter 3](#) and [Figure 3.3](#).

This thesis's literature review is established throughout the research process. From defining research objectives to the conclusion chapters, [Figure 2.1](#) illustrates how the literature review is conducted throughout the study. During the second phase of interviews, a number of topics emerged, including trust, organisational change, and leadership. The object of analysing qualitative data is to determine the categories, relationships and assumptions that inform the respondent's view of the world in general and the topic in particular (McCracken, 1998). The researcher addresses the topics that have emerged by reviewing additional literature in the respective fields and identifying connections between the main topics. [Figure 2.1](#) also demonstrates that certain aspects of leadership, such as transformational and role model leadership, are

more likely to be examined after the primary data findings from the initial interview phase have been analysed.

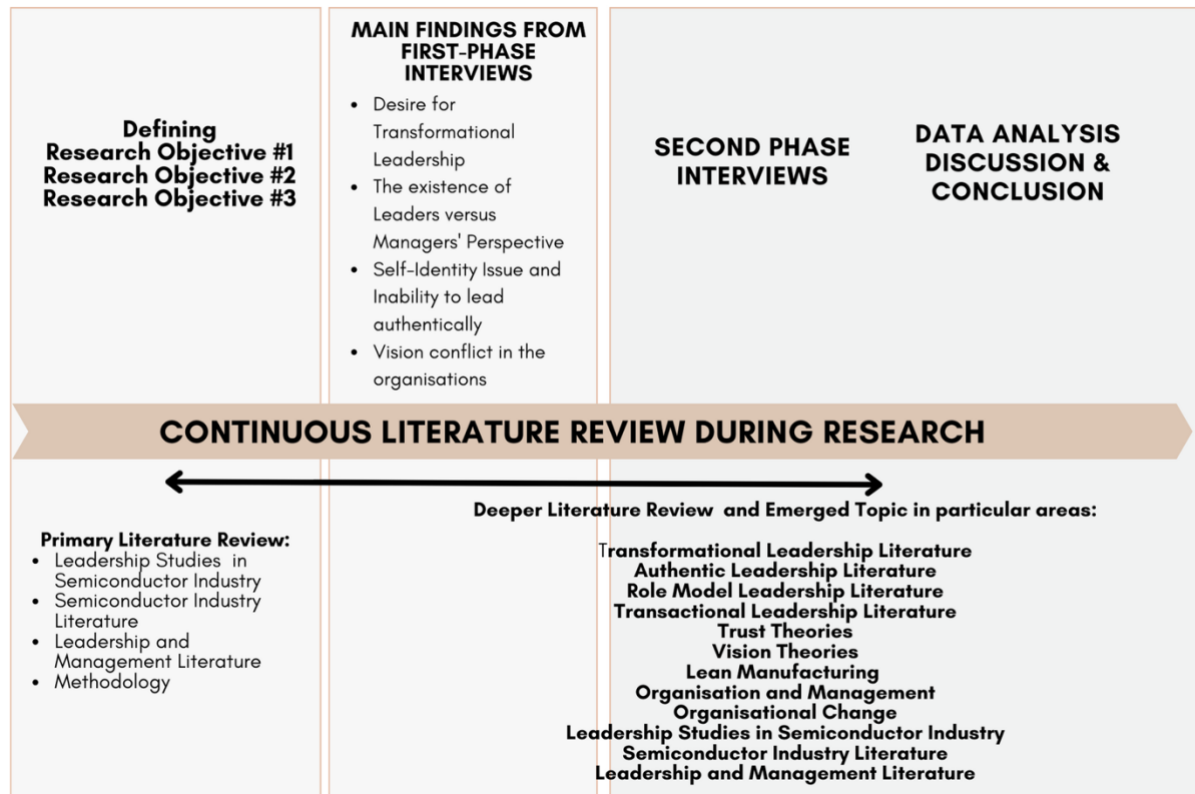


Figure 2.1 Continuous Literature Review Throughout The Study

As outlined in the preceding paragraph, the literature contains a variety of emerging topics, including organisational management theories ([Section 2.7](#)), organisational change theories ([Section 2.3.3](#)), and lean practise theories ([Section 2.2.3.2](#)). Some of the literature on emerging topics is not discussed in the literature review (Chapter 2). Some of them are used exclusively for data analysis in the analysis chapters ([Chapter 5](#) and [Chapter 6](#)).

The areas of leadership and organisational theories mentioned above are relevant to the aims and objectives of the thesis because there are similarities of topics from the data findings (see [Section 4.4](#)) and the existing literature in the semiconductor industry that are taken as fundamental resources of the research background ([Section 1.3](#) and [Section 1.2](#)). For instance, three leadership studies in semiconductor companies analyse/examine transformational leadership's impact on organisational performance (Chien & Ting, 2015), flexibility (Ho, 2004) and lean practice (Woehl, 2011). These

research topics align with the data findings in [Section 4.4](#), which show that the characteristics of transformational leadership are needed and desired by the interviewees of this thesis. The data findings ([Section 4.4](#)) show a high need for a transformational mindset among leaders in the company to create continuous improvement and organisational innovations in achieving high effectiveness of the work process and production cycle.

Although the researcher cannot find any study in the semiconductor industry about role model leadership, this is regarded as one of the main literature topics of this thesis because the data findings in [Chapter 4](#) show that role modelling is the term, which participants mostly used to define leadership. The interviewers' definitions of role modelling represent the majority of transformational leadership traits. Therefore, in the data analysis of [Chapter 5](#), the participants' comments on role modelling will be compared with transformational leadership theories.

The next main literature topic is leadership vision. Ng and Guan (2009), who studied the impact and influence of leadership on the organisational performance of a semiconductor manufacturing firm in Malaysia, show that a company without vision and strategy is without direction and will most likely fall. This is aligned with Theme [No.1](#) and [No. 2](#) of this thesis, which will be analysed in [Section 4.4](#). The final key literature topic is the self-identity theory, which strongly relates to the transformational and authentic leadership. Self-identity and self-clarity were strongly detected in data findings in [Theme No.3](#) ([Section 4.4.3](#)).

2.1.3 Literature Review Framework

Based on the literature review topics and the steps explained in [Sections 2.1.1](#) and [2.1.2](#), the literature framework and literature map are created ([Figures 2.2](#) and [Figure 2.3](#)). The purpose of the literature framework is to give a clear introduction to the literature areas relevant to the research questions described in [Section 1.4](#) and the research findings that will be discovered in [Chapter 5](#).

As explained in [Section 2.1.2](#), based on the research main findings ([Chapter 4](#)), there are four focuses of leadership area that will be reviewed: transformational leadership,

role model leadership, authentic leadership, trust theories, leadership vision theories, and some organisation theories related to change, performance, and lean practice management. Nevertheless, transactional leadership is additionally selected as the main topic of the literature review, as there are many studies comparing transformational leadership to transactional leadership theory ([Section 2.2.4.3](#)) to identify how transformational leadership influences organisational outcomes and the impacts on the followers or the leaders. The different leadership theories will be compared to find the contrast, similarities and relations between each leadership style. The review also includes identifying the gap and critiques in every leadership area. For example, theory contrast is mainly detected between transformational leadership and transactional leadership ([Section 2.2.4.3](#)). Role model leadership is positively related to transformational leadership and authentic leadership, in which the characteristic of self-concept is dominant ([Section 2.2.2](#)).

Besides the main leadership areas, the literature review covers additional organisational topics such as organisational outcome, organisational innovation and organisational change. Each organisational topic will be reviewed in the main leadership areas to identify some respect, problems and influence and also to identify weaknesses and strengths of each leadership style in each particular organisational context. Based on the literature review, most studies indicate that organisational change is more positively associated with transformational leadership rather than transactional leadership. However, there is evenly distributed literature on transformational and transactional leadership in organisational performance, although with different impacts—nevertheless, to maintain the quality of the literature review, the researcher focuses only on the literature that serves the purpose and the objective of the research thesis (Palmatier et al., 2018).

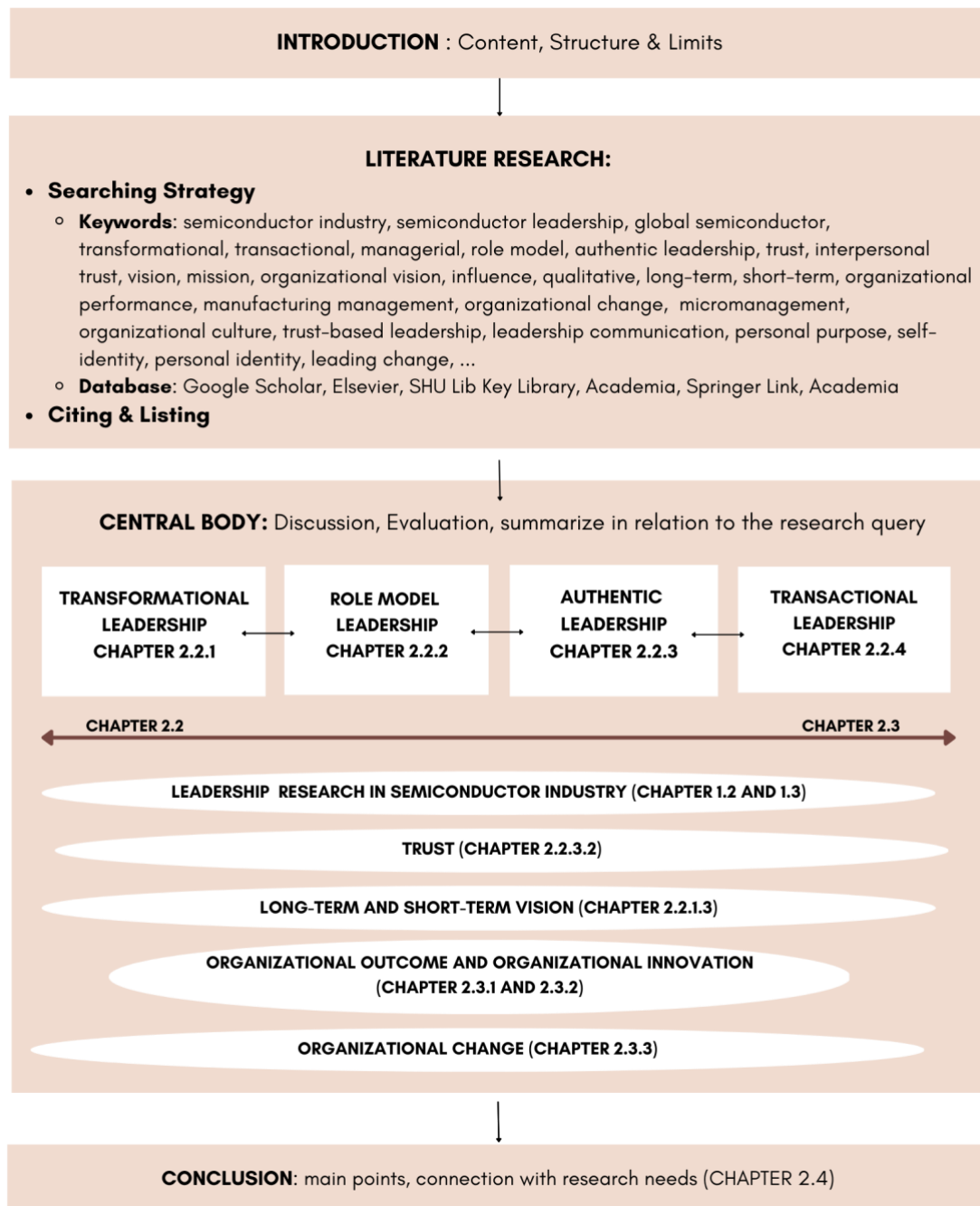


Figure 2.2 Literature Review Framework

[Figure 2.3](#) indicates the key literature of every main leadership area, in which main traits, job satisfaction, critiques, leaders/followers' personal outcome, weaknesses and strengths are analysed. The essential literature list is comprised of the most recent and earliest literature sources utilised by the researcher. The researcher compares contemporary and early literature to identify gaps and evaluate critiques.

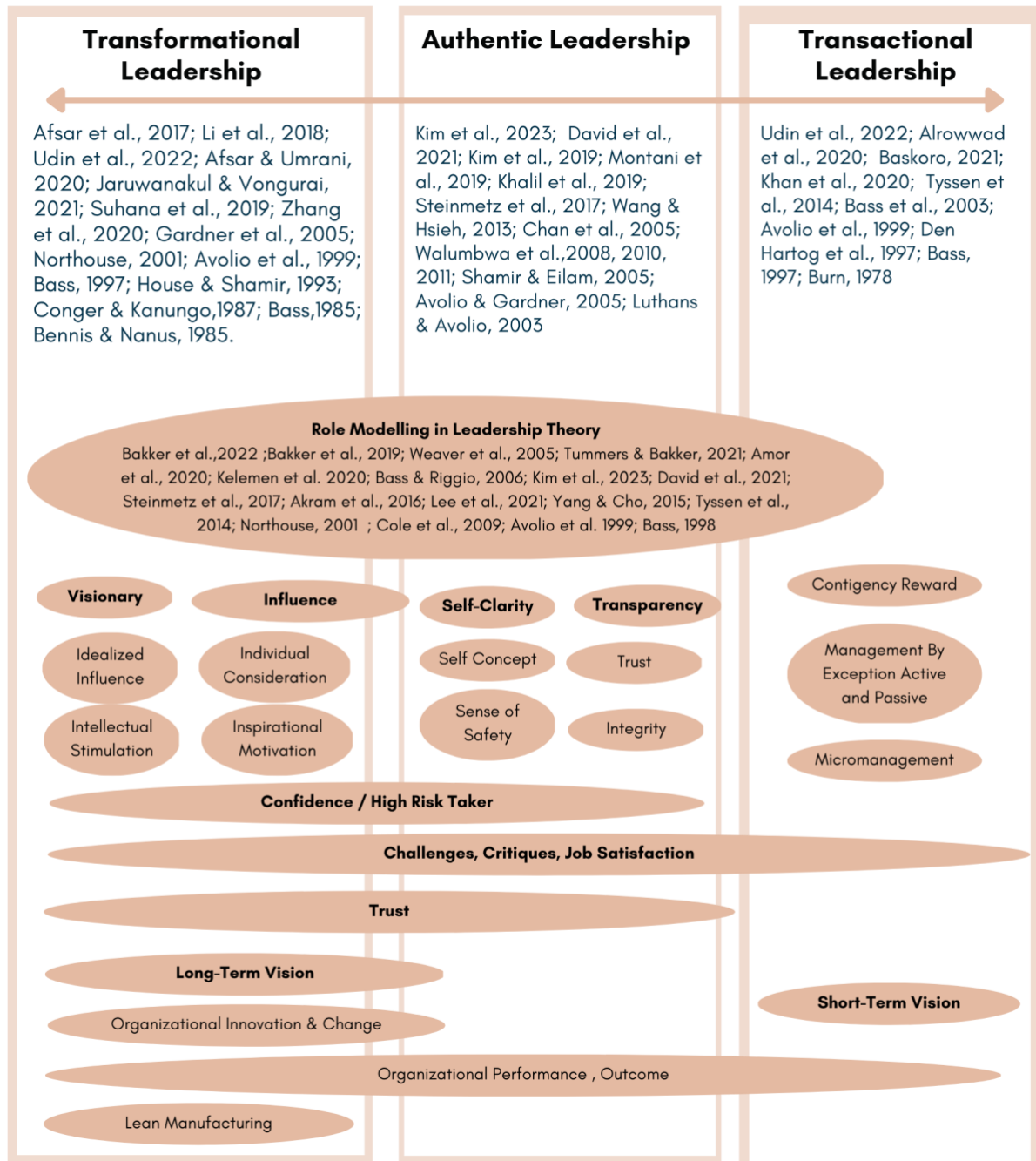


Figure 2.3 Literature Map

As explained earlier [Figure 2.3](#) illustrates the distribution of literature topic within the main leadership style, including the main traits of each leadership style. For example, according to the literature that is done by the researcher, trust and visionary are mainly found in transformational leadership theories. Transparency has positive correlation to authentic leadership and self-concept theories.

2.2 Leadership Literature Review

2.2.1 Transformational Leadership

Transformational Leadership initially proposed by Burns (2012) and then advanced by Bass (1985), has recently attracted a great deal of attention, becoming one of the most prominent leadership theories (Mhatre & Riggio, 2014). Early research, such as that conducted by Bass & Avolio (1990) and Avolio et al. (2004), defines transformative leadership in terms of four dimensions: Individual consideration ([Section 2.2.1.5](#)), idealised influence ([Section 2.2.1.2](#)), inspirational motivation ([Section 2.2.1.4](#)), and intellectual stimulation ([Section 2.2.1.1](#)).

Comparing the earliest studies of transformational leadership to the most recent ones, there are some similarities. One of them for instance, transformational leadership emphasises the improvement of employee involvement within the context of the organisation (Bass, 1985; Udin, 2021). Studies from the past and the present demonstrate that transformational leadership emphasises the enhancement of employee engagement within the context of the organisation (Bass, 1985; Udin, 2021).

Recent studies also show that transformational leaders are also characterised by their visionary, charismatic, and inspirational actions, which have fostered innovation in organisations (Afsar et al., 2017; Li et al., 2018). This definition is comparable to the earliest research published by House & Shamir (1993), Sashki (1988), and Shamir et al (1991).

Due to changing environmental and economic dynamics, rising customer demands, and intensifying competition, innovative behaviour is becoming increasingly important for businesses (Udin et al., 2022). Thus, numerous studies demonstrate the importance of leadership in motivating, promoting, facilitating, and developing innovative work behaviour among employees (Akram et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2021).

Majority of the recent studies show that transformational leadership (Suhana et al., 2019; Afsar & Umrani, 2020; ; Zhang et al., 2020; Jaruwanaikul & Vongurai, 2021) and authentic leadership (Groelj et al., 2021; Purwanto et al., 2021) have the positive relation to innovative behaviour among employees.

However, the recent studies show that there is a need to understand the moderating factors that enable transformational leadership to promote innovative work behaviour among information workers (Afsar et al., 2019; Astuty & Udin, 2020; Amankwaa et al., 2021; Stanescu et al., 2021). Another criticism comes from other researchers who assert that transactional leadership is the predominant form of leadership in enterprises (Young et al., 2020). If transformational and authentic leadership have a direct correlation with innovative behaviour, then why do some recent studies indicate that transactional leadership is the type of leadership that is most commonly used in companies?

In addition, there are criticisms from the earliest studies. For instance, transformational leaders have many components that seem too broad, treat leadership more as a personality trait than a learned behaviour, and have the potential to abuse power (Northouse, 2001). Transformational leadership theories are not without criticism, and the approaches need to be more evident in how leaders shape group and organisational processes (Yukl, 2009; Burke et al., 2006). Despite this criticism, transformational leadership still delivers one of the twenty-first century's most widely acknowledged and sustained approaches to leadership (Hunt, 2005).

In order to address the aforementioned question and criticisms, this chapter will first describe the key characteristics of all the focused leadership areas derived from this study's data findings ([Chapter 4](#)), namely transformational leadership, role model leadership, authentic leadership, and transactional leadership.

As established earlier, many earlier studies define transformational leadership's framework in four main dimensions (also known as the "four I's "): intellectual stimulation, idealised influence, individualised consideration and inspirational motivation (Bass, 1997; Bass, 1985; Avolio et al., 1999). Recent research reveals similarities with these earlier research. For instance, the behaviour of transformational leaders who cultivate intellectual talents in order to increase work motivation. (Afsar et al., 2014; Aydin & Erkilic, 2020; Zhang et al., 2021).

From different perspectives, many early studies as well as the recent ones compared transformational leadership to transactional leadership theory (Section 2.2.4.3). The

analysis is based on assessing the relationship and exchanges between leaders and their followers in pursuit of organisational goals (Bass, 1985; Bass et al., 2003; Vera & Crossan, 2004; Burns, 2012). Researchers have shown great interest in establishing how transformational leadership influences organisational outcomes (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

2.2.1.1 Creative Behaviours From Intellectual Stimulation

Creative outputs are significantly influenced by innovative work behaviour (Lee & Park, 2019; Montani, Vandenberghe, Khedhaouria, & Courcy, 2020). Transformational leaders' intellectual stimulation promotes their followers to utilise divergent thinking, an essential part of creative performance (Aryee et al., 2012; Sternberg, 2005). Transformational leaders' intellectual stimulation promotes their followers to utilise divergent thinking, an essential part of creative performance (Aryee et al., 2012; Sternberg, 2005). It is aligned to the early studies that show Intellectual stimulation represents the degree to which the leader encourages followers to challenge the status quo, take risks and put forward new perspectives for solving problems and completing tasks. This is intended to stimulate follower creativity and innovativeness (Avolio et al., 1999).

Additionally, transformational leaders induce organisation members to constantly anticipate and adapt to environmental change (Jung, Chow, & Wu, 2003; Waldman, Javidan, & Varella, 2004). However, despite this rich conceptual work, relatively few early practical studies have investigated the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational innovation. Nor is much known about how transformational leaders build the efforts of organisation members to be innovative under largescale's contextual and situational influences (Paulsen et al., 2013).

Many recent studies, such as that of Afsar et al. (2019), Afsar and Umrani (2019), Qureshi et al. (2021), Li et al. (2019), Aydin and Erkilic (2020), Stanescu et al. (2021), and Zhang et al. (2021), demonstrate a positive correlation between transformational leadership and organisational innovation. In contrast to Qureshi et al. (2021), other recent studies, such as Udin and Shaikh (2022), suggests a different concept. They indicate that transformational leadership had little direct effect on innovative work

behaviour. This mismatch may be attributable to the insufficient contextual conditions that have been analysed to determine the increased impact of transformational leadership and innovative behaviour (Qureshi et al., 2021). Another group of recent studies like Wardhani & Gulo (2017), Messmann et al. (2021) and Sudibjo & Prameswari (2021) indicate that transformative leadership did not directly influence innovative work behaviour. They explain that transformational leaders need mediator factors to create innovative behaviour to their organisations. Their researches indicate that the connection between transformational leadership and innovative work behaviour was mediated by information sharing and work passion (Udin & Shaikh, 2022).

Majority of the early studies describe a direct link between transformational leaders and innovative behaviour. that transformational leaders provide intellectual stimulation that increase the motivation and ability of organisational members to think out of the box and encourages organisational members to critically evaluate the firm status quo (Bass, 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2006). However, It is consistent with recent research indicating that transformational leaders encourage people to take risks, which has a discernible effect on their responsibilities at work, resulting in higher levels of innovative work behaviour (Afsar et al., 2014; Aydin & Erkilic, 2020; Zhang et al., 2021). Through intellectual stimulation, top-level transformational leaders can challenge organisational members to put forward ideas about renewing and improving existing organisational structures, processes and practices to meet better organisational goals (Bass, 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2006). They stimulates followers to challenge assumptions and view problems from new perspectives (Shamir et al., 1991). Transformational leaders with intellectual stimulation create a dynamic working environment where old approaches are challenged or tested (Bass, 1985). They display creative behaviours, serve as role models for innovation, and equip intellectual stimulation that encourages followers to think differently (Jung et al., 2003).

As conclusion, the influence of transformational leadership on follower creative performance is generally positive (Elkins & Keller, 2003; Shin & Zhou, 2003; Wang & Rode, 2010; Rosing et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2011; Afsar et al., 2019; Li et al., 2019; Afsar & Umrani, 2019; Aydin & Erkilic, 2020; Qureshi et al., 2021; Stanescu et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021). However, some quantitative reviews (Rosing et al., 2011;

Wang et al., 2011) have shown that this positive relationship is complicated and likely includes influential moderators. Growing evidence indicates that transformational leadership's effect depends on specific follower characteristics (Shin & Zhou, 2003).

2.2.1.2 Idealized Influence Through Interpersonal Approach

Another critical dimension of transformational leadership is idealised influence or the ability of a leader to become a role model (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1989; Le & Le, 2021; Wang et al., 2021; Bakker et al., 2022). Idealised influence represents the degree to which followers respect, trust and identify with the leader (Antonakis & House, 2014). In Sections [2.2.2.4](#) and [2.2.3](#), the relationship between self-trust in transformational leadership and self-clarity in authentic leadership will be discussed in greater depth. In order to gain the confidence and respect of the followers, transformational leaders need to appeal to the followers' ideals, values and emotions (Antonakis & House, 2014). A transformational leader also represents an important role model that displays the behaviours expected from followers, such as aligning one's behaviours with the values and purpose of the organisation and going beyond one's self-interest to meet organisational goals (Avolio et al., 1999).

Leadership influences individuals toward achieving a common goal (Northouse, 1998; De Clercq & Belausteguigoitia, 2017;). Influence is the observed effort of one member to change other members' behaviour by changing the motivation of other members or their habits (Bass, 1960; Backer et al., 2017, 2018, 2022).

Recent research indicates that transformational leadership and influence occur through an interpersonal approach (Cable & Kay, 2012; Kim et al., 2019). It is aligned with studies from the past such as Jago (1982) and Gardner et al. (2005), who state that influential leaders have an explicit self-identification or high self-knowledge (Gardner et al., 2005). Jago (1982) does not define influence as the impact of a particular leadership behaviour or situational approach. He characterises leadership as influence through the interpersonal process without resorting to the authority or power derived from an employment contract.

Furthermore, transformational leaders engage followers closely without using power (Bass, 2009; Lee et al., 2021). In Bass's (1985) theory, transformational leaders with idealised influence, despite their level of position in an organisation, can create a change and transform individuals, groups or the organisation without a position of authority. Thus, transformational leaders present them as individuals with qualities worthy of emulation (Bass, 1985). Indeed, according to Nikeć and Purić (2012), transformational leaders have exceptional traits not found in other men. Under the idealised influence dimension, transformational leaders show certain charismatic traits, reflecting their values and principles, which their followers believe to be ideal (Bass, 1985).

Idealised influence is when leaders become role models admired, respected, and emulated by followers (Avolio & Yammarino, 2013; Bass, 2013; Bakker et al., 2019; Tummers & Bakker, 2021; Amor et al., 2020). They lead by example, modelling creative and unconventional behaviours that may stimulate innovation (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Therefore, leaders with idealised influence (role model leadership) own a characteristic of having a personal vision, a sense of mission and self-confidence that they can transfer to their employees (Bass & Avolio, 1989; Bakker et al., 2019). As a consequence of idealised influence, anyone who practices transformational leadership can elevate followers' maturity, ideals, and concerns for the well-being of others (Berson et al., 1998). Bass (2009) shows that a successful influence can be seen from the followers' behaviour change.

Although transformational leadership positively relates positively to influence, transformational leadership's influence depends on followers' conditions (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982; Cole et al., 2009). It has been argued that there are few optimal ways to influence others, and that the type of leadership style that is most effective on individuals or groups relies on the maturity level of the individuals or groups. With idealised influence (Cole et al., 2009), transformational leaders can convince and motivate organisational members concerning the need for organisational change and innovation. However, resistance can appear from followers' ability to accept their self-identification awareness (Cole et al., 2009). Nevertheless, Cole et al. (2009) see that transformational leaders ensure that the firm members will support the efforts of the

top-level manager in a company to bring about organisational innovation (Collet al., 2009).

Despite of some criticisms about intellectual intelligence and idealised influence concepts in transformational leadership, many types of research from recently show that idealised influence and intellectual stimulation are significant and positive predictors of job satisfaction (Ali et al., 2020; Bilginolu & Yozgat, 2021; Ariani, 2021; Horwood et al., 2021; Wulandari, 2021). In earlier study, the transactional leadership style provided high satisfaction and organisational identification compared to the transformational leadership style (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Wu, 2009), although transformational leaders substantially influenced followers (Boseman, 2008).

2.2.1.3 The Requirement of 'High Purpose' Vision

Another key to transformational leadership is visionary (Shamir et al., 1991; House & Shamir, 1993; Kim, 2014; Li et al., 2018; Istiqomah & Riani, 2021). This section analyses the literature on the concept of vision, mission and purpose in transformational leadership. Transformational leaders' vision is a higher purpose beyond generating only profits and shareholder value (Mackey & Sisodia, 2014). Bass (2008) defines vision are goals that are meaningful to followers. The core of a vision for the organisation is its mission, but it adds meaning and purpose to the activities, arouses emotions, and is inspirational and intellectually stimulating (Bass, 2008). Duffy and Sedlacek (2007) state that vision benefits not only the leaders who own the vision. Recent and early studies show that the effects of transformational leaders with vision are followers' confidence in the leader, respect and trust-based relationship (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Shamir, 1993; Li et al., 2018; Udin & Shaikh, 2022).

In the organisational context, vision provides the direction and sustenance for changes and helps organisations navigate crises; visioning behaviour is the most critical aspect of transformational leadership (Hunt, 1999; Kim, 2014). Kim (2014) stated that transformational leaders have the capacity to reshape organisations through their vision for the future. they encourage innovative work behaviour and achieve overall company's goals (Majumdar & Ray, 2011; Istiqomah & Riani, 2021). However, regardless of the positive statements about visionary leaders creating inspirational

motivation and shared vision, some theorists point out that they do not have a detailed understanding of how transformational leader promotes processes through which they exert positive influences on their followers' vision (Garcia-Morales et al., 2008).

From early study like for example Burn (1978), suggests that individuals' different goals can benefit organisational success. He argues that positive influence on transformational leaders' followers results from leaders' sense of higher purpose in their vision. Transformational leadership is about pursuing a higher purpose (Burn, 1978: 20). The construct of purpose is becoming more understood to include doing something a person feels driven to do in which the benefactor or benefactors are not themselves (Duffy & Sedlacek, 2007). Damon et al. (2003) characterised a sense of purpose as denoting a course that is personally meaningful and beneficial to the greater society. This is consistent with recent research indicating that transformational leaders are able to improve employees' intrinsic motivation and inspire them to engage in innovative activities (Zuraik & Kelly, 2019) and work with the professional growth of employees to embrace a shared vision (Yukl, 2009).

Furthermore, Bass (1999) adds that transformational leadership as "moving the follower beyond immediate self-interests. Because of their sense of purpose or meaning for greater society's benefit, transformational leaders display conviction and trust in themselves, present their most important values, and show commitment to their decision (Bass & Avolio, 2000). Leaders with higher purpose and vision promote intellectual stimulation and are likely to challenge and inspire individuals to test existing mindsets to bring about change (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Eisenbeiss et al., 2008).

Despite some critiques of the vision concept in transformational leadership's theories, some studies in R&D companies show that transformational leaders can exploit the interdependence between team members and nurture individual goals that play a vital role in maximising the benefits of R&D projects (Gillespie & Mann, 2004). Transformational leaders treat followers as individuals, considering their particular goals and mentoring them appropriately (Bass, 1985). R&D environments reveal that employees look for opportunities that stimulate them intellectually and support their need to be creative (Herzog, 2009; Sauermann & Cohen, 2008).

2.2.1.3.1 Company Vision And Personal Vision

As established earlier, some theorists point out that they do not have a detailed understanding of how transformational leader promotes processes through which they exert positive influences on their followers' vision (Garcia-Morales et al., 2008).

The company's vision presents the company's future, and the vision has a vital link to the company's outcome (Bass & Avolio, 1990). In other words, the top leaders' vision presents the company's future (as described by Zaccaro, 1996; Schilit, 1987). Suppose leaders define a company's vision based on a shared vision of all company members; that vision will influence their employees to achieve the vision (Ling et al., 2008a). Transformational leaders are able to increase employees' intrinsic motivation and encourage them to engage in innovative activities and work with the professional growth of employees to embrace a shared vision (Yukl, 2009; Zuraik & Kelly, 2019). Leaders attract people with similar beliefs, causing an alignment of beliefs within the firm that create particular behaviour and performance of the organisation (van den Steen, 2017). A shared vision in a company gives motivation, enthusiasm, and productivity to the employees and produces a solid organisational commitment (McNeese-Smith, 1995).

From a different perspective, some studies show that a company's vision is defined by the CEO (Farkus & De Backer, 1996; Korn-Ferry, 1998). CEO needs to align his vision with the TMT (top-management team) before transmitting it to the organisation (Bass 2008, 630). TMT members make recommendations based on their varying expertise and knowledge to achieve that vision (Hambrick, 1994). However, Hambrick (1994) Farkus & De Backer (1996) and Korn-Ferry (1998) do not show data the company vision is based of a shared vision.

Each individual in a company plays a part in achieving the vision or goals defined for a company. A company vision is the desired state of products, services, and an organisation that a leader wants to realise (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). A vision conflict or different direction of goals in an organisation occurs when a company does not have a clear long-term vision as the foundation of its short-term goals (Kakabadse, 1999). A vision conflict is the root cause of why leaders fail to influence all stakeholders and individuals, and a company fail to achieve its goals (Kakabadse, 1999). Nevertheless,

there has yet to be much academic research on leadership and management that analyses the effect of a profit-oriented company or short-term gain within the semiconductor industry.

As established earlier, the concept of vision is a mental model of the organisation's future state and is more profound than achieving short-term goals (Nanus, 1992; Kouzes & Posner, 1996). A company's vision is to build a financially sustainable organisation that creates social harmony with all its stakeholders (Beer and Norrgren, 2011). Leaders' visions provide a road map for the followers to know how they fit into the organisation (Bryman, 1996). Based on this literature, a vision is defined more as a long-term rather than a short-term goal (Bryman, 1996). From here, a vision conflict might happen if, for example, some of the company's stakeholders members want to apply a long-term vision and others want to achieve short-term goals without investing too much in the long-term vision.

Unlike the concept of shared vision, Durman (2003) reveals that a company vision can be based on shareholders' goals. Stakeholders in a profit company include shareholders, investors, employees, customers and other stakeholders related to the economic profitability of the organisation, and there is usually a high level of interdependence between the organisation and these stakeholders (Durman, 2003). A primary stakeholder is usually the shareholders who exert a growing influence through the Stock Exchange (Durman, 2003). Secondary stakeholders are those groups who "influence or affect, or are influenced or affected by, the corporation, but [...] are not engaged in transactions with the corporation and are not essential for its survival" (Clarkson, 1995, p. 107). However, Ackermann and Eden (2003) noted that the CEO and top management should be able to identify the most potent stakeholders inside and outside their organisation.

2.2.1.3.2 Long-Term And Short-Term Vision

In an organisational context, vision is the projected image of the organisation that a leader wishes to achieve (Bennis & Nanus, 1985) or "an ideal and unique image of the future" (Kouzes & Posner, 1987). Essential in visioning is that there must be a link

between the vision and the ability of the leader to make meaning of it and to communicate to others (Conger,1991).

Kakabadse (1999) suggests a question in his research; why is visioning is important? If all the business team members are not facing the same long-term direction, the effect is a more chaotic and multi-directional short-term approach (Kakabadse, 1999).

This sense of vision gives rise to the transformational leadership process (Kouzes & Posner, 1987). Transformational leaders with a vision demonstrate enthusiastic inspiration (Hersey & Blanchard, 1996) and visibly model acceptable behaviours (Kouzes & Posner, 1987). The objective is to effect a change that broadens organisations' access to exciting new opportunities (Kouzes & Posner, 1987).

Without a long-term vision, Kakabadse (1999) identifies some impacts that cause organisations to fail to achieve their goals. With no one long-term direction clear to all, many directions evolve from within the organisation from different levels and individuals with many opinions (Kakabadse, 1999). As a result, it creates internal competition that will result in poor management of the organisation, ineffective work management, and inefficient use of resources (Kakabadse, 1999). In the worst case, colleagues with valuable and energetic input for the company become the enemy, and the energy is spent fighting to gain ground inch by inch from the bottom up (Kakabadse, 1999). Short-term goals without a foundation of a long-term vision generate a repetitive disadvantage rather than a competitive advantage (Kakabadse, 1999).

Furthermore, Kakabadse (1999) adds that 'Short-termism' can become infectious and habitual and weaken the company's long-term ability. In these circumstances, leaders are not planning for the future but surviving for the present and will put all team energies into fast gain. The achieved results are those of their own little company within the original larger one and will not necessarily benefit the latter in the long term (Kakabadse, 1999).

Westley and Mintzberg (1989) suggest that leaders create a strategic vision for an organisation towards visioning culture. A strategic vision starts with the envisioning

stage, where an idea of the future picture of the organisation is created (Westley & Mintzberg, 1989). There is a need to find a clear ideal picture for the future. In other words, leaders must first have long-term visions before defining short-term goals (Kakabadse, 1999). The next stage is where leaders must communicate the ideal picture of their long-term vision and influence their associates to achieve maximum unity (Westley & Mintzberg, 1989). The next stage is a crucial part of the process. The leaders break their overall goals or long-term vision into realistic shorter-term targets, which complement the chosen direction and motivate employees to achieve the next stage (Westley & Mintzberg, 1989). Nevertheless, in order to achieve visioning culture through strategic vision, Kakabadse (1999) suggest leaders need personal conviction or belief. Leaders' conviction grows from the initial dealings with the realities of influencing externalities which help form the vision in the first place through to the staying force needed when dealing with the internal dynamics and politics in their organisation are unavoidable (Kakabadse, 1999).

2.2.1.4 Inspirational Motivation As Result

As established in the last Section, transformational leaders own the characteristic of having a personal vision and a sense of mission (Bass & Avolio, 1989). According to recent studies, transformational leaders can influence key intrinsic motivating behaviors in their followers, particularly the use of one's own strengths and initiative (Bakker & Demerouti, 2018; Tummers & Bakker, 2021; Bakker et al., 2022). This study's results directly support a central principle of transformational leadership theory, which holds that leaders empower their subordinates to take on leadership roles (Bakker et al., 2022). In contrast to past research, inspirational motivation is the capacity of leaders to forge a compelling shared vision for their followers as a result of their awareness and self-clarity of their vision and mission (Avolio et al., 1999). A shared vision helps others look at the futuristic state while inspiring acceptance through aligning personal values and interests to the collective interests of a group's purposes (Bass, 1990b, 1998; Jung & Avolio, 2000; Avolio & Yammarino, 2013; Bass, 2013).

Leaders with inspirational motivation exhibit optimism, enthusiasm, and excitement about the goals and plans of the organisation (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bass, 1999; Bass

& Riggio, 2006). They also try to provide meaning to the follower's tasks and motivate them to strive for higher performance (Avolio et al., 1999). Thus, when facing a dynamic environment, transformational leaders emphasize the importance of organisational innovation (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Bass, 2013). They can motivate organisational members to be more creative and develop new ideas and solutions concerning organisational structures, processes and practices (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Transformational leaders can develop a shared vision, demonstrate confidence and optimism and emphasize commitment to a shared goal (Jung & Avolio, 2000; Lai, 2011). Nevertheless, some theorists argue that leaders may face challenges in creating collective interests for a group's purposes by aligning personal values (Bass, 1990b, 1998; Jung & Avolio, 2000; Avolio & Yammarino, 2013; Bass, 2013). They criticize that transformational leaders must constantly reiterate the vision and desirability (Bass, 1990b, 1998; Jung & Avolio, 2000; Avolio & Yammarino, 2013; Bass, 2013). When employees work to accomplish a goal or vision that is not their own, they are less driven (Higgins, 1987; Boyatzis, 2008).

Another challenge comes from Leavey (1996), who argues that shared vision is the vision of corporate leaders and not only the company's vision decided by one CEO. Leavey's statement strengthens the argument of Avolio & Bass (2002), Bass (1990b, 1998) and Jung & Avolio (2000) that leaders may face challenges in creating collective interests for a shared vision.

Suppose organisational leaders can formulate an essential and inspired shared vision; these leaders can inspire followers to feel energized toward challenging goals (Shamir et al., 1993; Leavey, 1996). It is because inspired shared vision impacts the trust and commitment of employees toward the organisation and supervisor (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, and Bommer, 1996). Trust of employees allows followers to focus more on solving tasks in creative ways (Amabile, 1996). In that case, transformational leaders raise the aspirations of their followers such that the leaders' and the followers' aspirations are fused (Bass, 1985).

Like intellectual stimulation and idealized influence, inspiring a shared vision had the highest correlation with employee job satisfaction, productivity and organisational

commitment (McNeese-Smith, 1995). Followers react positively when the vision reflects their values and provides information to direct their future behaviour (Thoms & Govekar, 1997). Followers' satisfaction comes from transformational leaders' ability to promote the personal vision of their followers (Odumeru & Ifeanyi, 2013). Transformational leadership, aside from leading towards the achievement of higher-level goals (organisational), also includes the individual aspirations and needs (personal and professional) of followers into the overall scheme of affairs –individual consideration (Odumeru & Ifeanyi, 2013).

Warrilow (2012) described transformational leadership as leadership that creates positive change in the followers, taking care of each other's interests and acting in the group's interests. Therefore, transformational leadership explains leadership that adopts an effective combination of a holistic and individualistic approach to meeting a group's collective goals and ambitions. Indeed, it could be described as leadership with full knowledge of how dependent the accomplishment of a collective goal is on the relationship and performance of a system's constituents.

Achieving a common goal is one of the main characteristics of influential leaders (Armandi et al., 2000). The inspirational motivation proportions describe that transformational leaders can effectively stimulate followers' sense of ownership of the group's aspiration to ensure shared responsibility towards attaining organisational goals (Nikezić, Purić and Purić, 2012).

2.2.1.5 Individual Consideration

Individual consideration concerns the extent to which the leader listens to and attends to the individual needs of each follower (Bass et al., 2003). It also involves creating learning opportunities for followers and stimulating their development through coaching and mentoring activities (Avolio et al., 1999). Individualised consideration can bring support and create positive feelings among followers, which may allow them to feel comfortable taking risks and examining ideas that are yet unproven (Avolio & Yammarino, 2013; Bass, 2013).

The individualised consideration provided by transformational leaders helps to develop the capabilities of organisational members (Bass et al., 2003), and it creates learning opportunities that can stimulate creative thinking. Thus, by addressing the personal needs of the organisational members, CEOs may be able to develop a supportive climate in which organisational members feel that they can learn, experiment, and be creative. This will further encourage organisational members to generate and implement new organisational structures, processes, and practises (Bass et al., 2003).

2.2.1.6 Summary for Transformational Leadership

After reviewing the literature on transformational leadership and analysing the differences between early and recent studies, the researcher finds that there is a lack of information on how transformational leaders empower their followers to become leaders by supporting their personal vision and simultaneously influencing them to increase their initiative for the company's goals. There is a major assumption of the recent and early theories of transformational leadership, namely that leaders inspire their followers to become leaders themselves (Bass, 1985; Van Woerkom et al., 2016; Bakker et al., 2022). However, some theorists criticize that they do not have a detailed understanding of how transformational leader promotes processes through which they exert positive influences on their followers' vision (Garcia-Morales et al., 2008). This critique is consistent with the researcher's hypothesis regarding the gap in transformational leadership theories. There are some researchers describe challenges in creating collective interests for a group's purposes by aligning personal values (Jung & Avolio, 2000; Avolio & Yammarino, 2013; Bass, 2013). They criticize that employees work to accomplish a goal or vision that is not their own, they are less driven (Jung & Avolio, 2000; Boyatzis, 2008; Avolio & Yammarino, 2013; Bass, 2013). Their theories are contradicted to the theory of Lai (2011) that says transformational leaders can develop a shared vision, demonstrate confidence and optimism and emphasize commitment to a shared goal. In order to fill the gap, there is minimal studies can be discovered by the researcher.

After analysing the primary characteristics of transformational leadership, the majority of the characteristics are positively associated with work performance and innovation.

By being visionary transformational leaders create personal initiative and strengths utilisation (Bakker & Van Woerkom, 2018; Amor et al., 2020; Kelemen et al., 2020), work engagement and increasing job performance (Bakker & Demerouti, 2018; Tummers & Bakker, 2021). [Figure 2.4](#) illustrates the indirect connection of transformational leadership and work engagement and performance. This model demonstrates transformational leadership, followers are so encouraged to utilise their abilities and initiative and to seek out challenges and resources, in part by expanding their adaptability and flexibility (Wong et al., 2017).

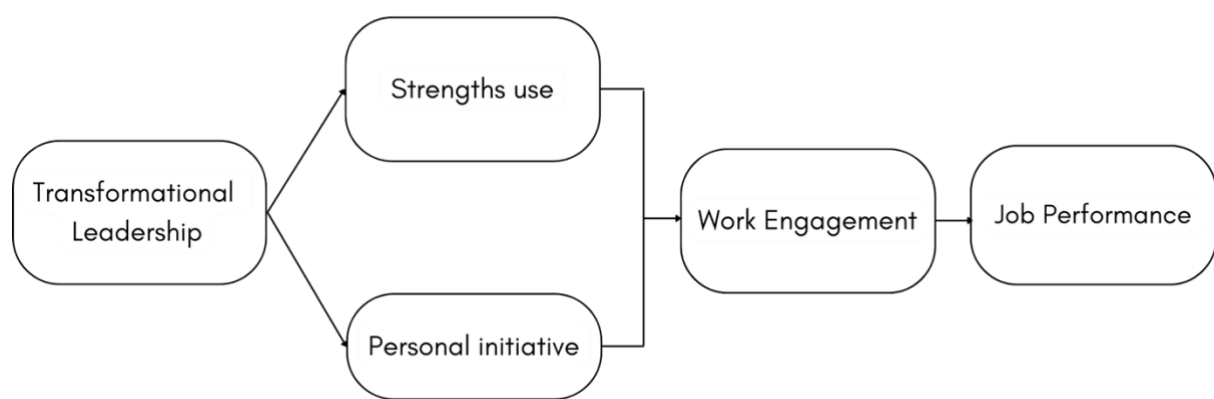


Figure 2.4 Model of Transformational Leadership and Follower Performance (Bakker et al., 2018)

The model demonstrates that transformational leadership is vital for the engagement and performance of followers because it stimulates individualistic follower behaviours, such as the utilisation of strengths and personal initiative. Another potential outcomes of strengths utilisation is self-efficacy and well-being, and to a lesser extent, performance (Bakker & Van Woerkom, 2018; Miglianico et al., 2020).

2.2.2 Role Model Leadership

According to some recent studies in transformational leadership, for example from Bakker et al. (2022), leaders act as positive role models by expressing high standards and confidence in their followers (i.e., by projecting inspirational motivation and idealised influence). These leaders empower their followers to utilise their personal strengths and perform at their highest level. Compared to earlier studies, role

modelling is a process that involves identifying “someone I can look up to” (Weaver et al., 2005) as well as a process of learning from that model. However, recent studies add that role model leaders inspire others to use their abilities and perform at their best and encourage them to develop their own leadership qualities (Bakker et al., 2019; Bakker et al., 2022). This concept of role model leadership is aligned with some of the transformational leadership traits, which are idealised influence and inspiration motivation (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Role modelling can be differentiated from mentoring because it does not require a close, personal relationship between models and observers (Gibson, 2004). Some research suggests that supervisory role models are not uncommon typical rank-and-file employees can identify numerous positive role models, most of them having been supervisors (Gibson, 2003). However, supervisory authority only sometimes makes someone a good role model (Manz & Sims, 1981). Supervisors must possess the other key elements of model attractiveness, such as competence, nurturance and credibility. Ethical supervisors possess such characteristics (Brown et al., 2005).

2.2.2.1 Role Modelling in Transformational Leadership

Both many recent and early studies show that transformation leaders have strong qualities in role modelling (Avolio et al., 1999; Northouse, 2001; Bakker et al., 2019; Amor et al., 2020; Kelemen et al. 2020; Tummers & Bakker, 2021). Transformational leaders empower and set an example for followers on how to initiate change, create a vision, contribute to achieving organisational goals and build them to become change agents within their organisation (Avolio et al., 1999). They act as good role models because they enhance follower capabilities (Bakker & Van Woerkom, 2018; Bakker et al., 2019; Bakker et al., 2022;) and self-confidence (Bass et al., 2003).

In contrast to more traditional forms of leadership that build on an exchange relationship, such as transactional leadership, transformational leadership aims to address the intrinsic needs of followers. To achieve this, the transformational leader needs to establish himself/herself as a role model by gaining the trust and confidence of his/her followers (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Cole et al., 2009) and by aligning the personal and social identification of his/her followers with the goals and values of the

leader and the organisation (Shamir et al., 1993; Bass et al., 2003). In doing so, transformational leaders aim to offer followers a purpose that transcends their self-interest by appealing to their values, ideals, and interests (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Vera & Crossan, 2004). This is intended to influence followers to contribute to the organisation's performance (Bass et al., 2003).

In role modelling, leaders express their confidence in followers to build their self-efficacy and develop followers' potential (Bass, 1985; Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Eden, 1992; Shamir et al., 1993). In different studies, transformational leaders show their high-performance expectations to their followers by being living proof of someone who is persistent in achieving essential goals (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Avolio & Bass, 1988; Shamir et al., 1993).

2.2.2.2 The Struggles of New Leaders

Supervisors are expected to be supportive and considerate (Piccolo, Bono, Heinitz, Rowold, Duehr, & Judge, 2012), but they sometimes use their power to abuse subordinates (Martinko et al., 2013). Role model leaders, on the other hand, embrace strengths utilisation to induce feelings of mastery and self-efficacy in employees (Bakker & Van Woerkom, 2018; Kelemen et al., 2020) and hence increase work engagement. Victims of abusive supervision displace their anxieties on coworkers and colleagues (Hoobler & Brass, 2006; Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Because those in positions of power serve as role models (Bandura, 1977), followers tend to emulate supervisors' behaviours. Indeed, Liu, Liao, and Loi (2012) found that abusive supervision "trickled down" from an organisation's higher managerial level (department leader) to its lower levels (team leader). Another study (Mauritz, Mayer, Hoobler, Wayne, & Marinova, 2012) suggests abusive supervision moves downward through the company as subordinates learn from their abusive supervisors.

Successful role models can help buffer individuals from the threatening effects of these stereotypes by disconfirming the negative stereotype and suggesting that success for such individuals is indeed attainable (Marx, Ko, & Friedman, 2009). Inspiring role models can also facilitate behavioural assimilation whereby people's domain-relevant behaviour changes in the direction of the comparison target; that is; role models can

inspire enhanced performance (Blanton, Buunk, Gibbons, & Kuyper, 1999; Huguet, Dumas, Monteil, & Genestoux, 2001; Wheeler & Suls, 2007).

However, many studies show how new leaders struggle to become successful role models. Entering the leadership ranks may be one of the most demanding challenges individuals face throughout their working lives (Gentry, 2014). One reason for the difficulty of this particular role change is that new leaders lack the abilities, values, and mindset required by the new role (Mumford et al., 2000). For example, new leaders often struggle to change their mindset from “me” to “we,” leaving them unable to influence and motivate others (Ibarra & Hunter, 2007). Moreover, even with leadership knowledge, new leaders may not have been taught how to use it effectively (Desmat, McGurk, & Vinson, 2010).

2.2.2.3 The Risk of Past Achievement Role Modelling

Due to their insecurity, new leaders look to others in their environment for cues on how to behave. Organisational newcomers look to supervisors or peers for information on successful tasks and interpersonal behaviours when they enter a new role (e.g., Saks, Uggerslev, & Fassina, 2007). Such information-seeking reduces uncertainty and allows them to understand, predict and control their environments (e.g., Ashford & Black, 1996; Maitlis, 2005). Furthermore, some studies show that past achievement and successful performance are critical elements of role model credibility (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999). Role model credibility comes from perceptions of status, power, or competence (Bandura, 1977; Weiss, 1977), as those provide evidence that the role model's behaviours are appropriate to the situation and have been rewarded in the past. Perceptions of status, power, and competence are associated with formal leadership positions, such as having the title of manager or leader and the ability to control resources (Brass & Burkhardt, 1993). They are also associated with evidence of success, such as team or leader performance, which signals competence (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Filstad, 2004). However, emulating the behaviours of that role model with past success involves risks. New leaders may emulate high-performing, abusive role models because they see abuse as a pathway to success (Mitchell & Ambrose, 2007). Indeed, some evidence suggests that goal pursuit may trigger abusive supervision (Mawritz et al., 2014).

A different study perspective shows newcomers do not pick just anyone as a role model; they look to credible and successful role models, observing their behaviour for signals (Scott & Myer, 2005). From a different perspective, other studies reveal that individuals will mimic role models' behaviour when they are successful prototypes and fit their sense of self (Bandura, 1977; Ibarra, 1999; Ibarra & Petriglieri, 2010; Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016). Therefore, section 2.2.2.5 analyses more in-depth the self-concept in role modelling.

2.2.2.4 Self-Concept Role Modelling

As established earlier in [Sections 2.2.2](#) and [2.2.1.1](#), transformational leaders with role-model qualities inspire their followers to be more willing to use their abilities and take initiative. Role-model leadership increases work engagement and job performance (Bakker et al., 2022). Despite positive results in early and recent studies about the essence of role model and transformational leadership being the capacity to motivate and influence others (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Bakker et al., 2019; Bakker et al., 2022), there is some criticism that questions how transformational and role model leaders can inspire their followers' enthusiasm and commitment to their direction (Bakker et al., 2022). In other words, transformational and role model leaders are able to motivate employees to be accountable for achieving employees' ambitions (Kim, 2014); yet, how they can influence employees to use their highest potential for the company's goal?

The researcher was unable to locate any study that provided a straight response to the query in the previous paragraph. Nevertheless, transformational leadership is positively correlated with personal initiative, especially for workers who have a high level of independence and self-efficacy (Den Hartog & Belschak, 2012). At a certain level of confidence and interpersonal trust, self-efficacy is developed. (Steinmetz et al., 2017; David et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2023). Self-concept and authentic leadership, which are topics covered in [Sections 2.2.2.4](#) and [2.2.3](#), are closely related to confidence and trust. Creativity is the top concern of businesses because it gives them a source of flexibility and aids employees in successfully adapting to changes and new challenges ([Section 2.2.3](#); Wong, 2018; Aruoren et al., 2023). Authentic leadership

and trust are the main contributors to generating followers' creativity and innovative behaviour (Runco, 2004). Literature also confirms that role modelling in leadership is a crucial role in motivating, promoting, facilitating, and developing workers' innovative work behaviour (Akram et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2021). Based on that analysis, the researcher makes the assumption that the self-trust fostered by authentic leadership has a positive association with the capacity of transformational leaders to persuade followers to act in accordance with their highest potential for their personal aspirations as well as for the objectives of their organisations critical thinking in order for the organisation to reach its goal (Tyssen et al., 2014; Yang & Cho, 2015; Keong & Dastane, 2019)

Therefore [Section 2.2.2.4](#) and [Section 2.2.3](#) focus on leadership self-concepts as critical internal factors that may lead individuals to resist or embrace abusive behaviours observed in the environment (Ibarra, 1999; Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016).

Individuals begin comparing and contrasting the role model's behaviours with their self-concepts to determine whether or not to emulate the behaviour (Ibarra & Petriglieri, 2010). People's ideal selves, images about who they might become, would like to become, or fear becoming in the future, are the part of the self-concept most relevant to identity change and self-development (Markus & Nurius, 1986; Ibarra, 1999). These future-oriented, desired parts of the self-concept (e.g., Vignoles et al., 2008) serve as both cognitive and emotional filters that individuals use to interpret their environment and guide future behaviour (Markus & Nurius, 1986; Ibarra, 1999).

Research on self-concepts (Ibarra, 1999) suggests that the desire for consistency and authenticity leads individuals to gravitate toward role models who allow them to be true to themselves and distance themselves from those who are different. When an individual is assigned to a leadership role, his or her ideal leadership self-concept, the image of a desired future self as a leader, is activated and salient (van Knippenberg et al., 2004). The ideal leadership self-concept acts as a mechanism by which individuals interpret, understand, and respond to a role model's behaviours (Ibarra, 1999; Gibson, 2003).

Moreover, anticipating self-reproach for engaging in personally unacceptable actions is an important motivational influence that helps keep behaviour in line with personal standards (Bandura, 1973; Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016). The process of individuals' self-concept and comparing them to their environment can motivate them to define what they want to do and do not want to do, causing them to try, approach, reject, or modify those behaviours (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016). Gibson's (2003) qualitative study describes how individuals emulate role models whose images match their desired selves and how they reject role models who represent their feared selves.

2.2.3 Authentic Leadership

Recent studies like Groelj et al. (2021), Purwanto et al. (2021) and Kim et al. (2023) indicate that authentic leadership is positively associated with innovative behaviour among employees. Kim et al. (2023) argue that authentic self-expression considerably increases coworkers' trust and, consequently, job performance. The theories of Kim et al. (2023) support other recent studies that suggest that employees who strive for authentic self-expression (i.e., letting others see them as they truly are) or engage in activities to stimulate the expression of their genuine selves (i.e., act authentically) can perform well (Kim et al., 2019; Montani et al., 2019; David et al., 2021).

Compared to earlier studies, for example, by Bruce Avolio, William Gardner, Fred Luthans, Doug May, Fred Walumbwa, and their colleagues, their studies focused more on the four primary components of authentic leadership: self-awareness, balanced processing, transparency, and behavioural integrity (Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Gardner et al., 2005b). The four components of authentic leadership are said to be predictors of an organization's level of trust (Hassan & Ahmed, 2011). Many researchers in earlier studies also compared authentic leadership with transformational leadership's characteristics (Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Authentic leaders has similar values with transformational leaders who transform followers into new leaders (see Section 2.2.1). Authentic leaders are confident, hopeful, optimistic, resilient, transparent, moral/ethical future-oriented, and prioritize developing their followers into leaders themselves (Luthans & Avolio, 2003).

According to the data analysis in Chapter 4, trust is one of the main findings of the research. Numerous recent studies have discovered a correlation between authentic leadership and employee trust (Hassan & Ahmed, 2011; Wang & Hsieh, 2013; Khalil et al., 2019 ; Jiang & Luo, 2018). Khalil et al. (2019) states that Authentic Leadership will positively influence employee trust. Authentic leaders play in motivating employees to bring about positive attitude change, the trusting relationship that is maintained when a leader is genuine and honest, and the efforts made to build the confidence of employees in order to achieve a high level of self-efficacy (Khalil et al. ,2019).

The topic of self-identity and transparency also emerged as a key finding from the interview data. Therefore, the literature review (Section 2.2.3.2) will be focused on the review of authentic leadership that describe authentic leaders as individuals who lead as an expression of their "true" and "real" selves. For instance, Shamir and Eilam (2005) describe authentic leaders as those who possess high degrees of person–role union (i.e., the leadership role is salient in their self-concept), self-concept clarity, self-congruence, and behavioural consistency. They define AL as a process that includes not only the authentic leader but also authentic followership, as followers follow the leader for genuine reasons to form an authentic relationship. Other theorists who support high self-concept in AL are Avolio and Luthans (2004), who define authentic leaders as individuals who know who they are; they are aware of the context in which they operate; and are confident, hopeful, resilient, and of high moral character.

2.2.3.1 Trust in Authentic Leadership

According to some recent study, trust and its components are defined as ‘the emotional glue that binds employees and leaders together (Khalil & Siddiqui, 2019). Trust is the most direct and influential way for a leader to increase organisational outcomes (Wang & Hsieh, 2013). This continuity of supervisor action/employee perception and trust fosters cooperation and increases employee engagement at work (Hsieh & Wang, 2015). The degree of trust in an organisation can be measured by how much influence, job satisfaction and commitment behaviour between leaders and employees (Zeffane & Connell, 2003).

Early literature concerning trust indicates authentic leadership has a greater impact on developing and fostering trusting relationships than other leadership styles (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004). Previous research has demonstrated a correlation between authentic leadership and employee trust. However, many early studies transformational leadership also show that trust is a significant feature in the relationship that transformational leaders have with their followers (Podsakoff, MacKenzie & Bommer, 1996; Butler, Cantrell, & Flick, 1999; Gillespie & Mann, 2000;). Transformational leaders influence employees by motivating and inspiring them to achieve organisational goals (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Transformational leaders also help associates imagine appealing future outcomes (Bass & Avolio, 1995) related to the organisation. Research has shown that transformational leaders affect organisational outcomes such as organisational citizenship behaviour, organisational commitment, job satisfaction, effort, and in-role performance (Nguni, Slegers, & Denessen, 2006).

2.2.3.2 Interpersonal Trust

Critiques arose in some recent studies. To maximise job performance, Kim et al. (2023) question whether it is best to present one's authentic self to coworkers or whether employees should emphasise or even exaggerate their strengths. Although these constructs are typically seen as two sides of the same coin (Lau et al., 2014), new research (e.g. Campagna et al., 2020) demonstrates that substantial differences can occasionally occur when individuals evaluate whether others trust them. This is important in light of the limited understanding of how tactical and genuine aspects of self-presentation work together to relate to trust processes (Steinmetz et al., 2017). Early studies indicate that to leaders to have the genuine self-representation, leaders must believe in themselves; If they do not believe in themselves, neither will the others they seek to influence believe in them (Handy, 1982/1992). Leadership influences group members through the interpersonal process without resorting to the authority or power derived from an employment contract (Fleishman, 1953; Halpin & Winer, 1957; Hemphill & Coons, 1957). Compared to early studies, new research finds that authentic self-expression and associated constructs are linked to a variety of good intrapersonal and interpersonal outcomes, including rate of force development and demand–ability match (David et al., 2021) and improved work performance (Cable &

Kay, 2012; Kim, Gilbreath, David, & Kim, 2019). A trusting attitude leads to more ambitious collaboration, mainly because successful collaboration depends on a personal basis (Darabi, 2012). The effects of a trusted individual are followers' confidence in the leader, respect and trust-based relationship (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Shamir, 1993).

From other side of theory, Rosenberg (1956) suggested that a person with low interpersonal trust would have difficulty establishing a close friendship that requires transparency. As leaders, they would be less likely to permit freedom of action to their subordinates. Thus, people need high interpersonal trust to trust others (Rosenberg, 1956). The concept from Rosenberg (1956) is supported by Doney et al. (2007), who says that interpersonal relationship builds relationship and trust.

Other authors whos that trust is related to self-confidence and the ability to set themselves as personal examples to their followers (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; Sashkin, 1998; Shamir et al., 1991). Self-confidence is a sign of leaders who can build trust through an interpersonal process (Bass, 1985a; Zeleznik, 1977). Self-confidence is a sign of leaders who can build trust through an interpersonal process (Bass, 1985a; Zeleznik, 1977). Self-confidence is solid in transformational leaders (Bass, 1985a). Transformational leaders inspire followers by exhibiting self-confidence, persistence, and determination (House & Klein, 1995).

2.2.3.2.1 Self-Awareness and Self Clarity

As established in the last Section, self-awareness is the fundament of interpersonal trust. Self-cofidence has positive influence to the trust process (David et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2023). The understanding of self has had a long history; however, it has only been in the last forty years that experimental research has surfaced (Duval & Silva, 2001). Authentic leaders undergo the self-awareness process to recognise their unique, authentic abilities. Through awareness and introspection, these leaders gain clarity regarding their fundamental beliefs and cognitive patterns (Swain, Cao, & Gardner, 2018).

Duval and Silva (2001) provide a view of objective self-awareness in three dimensions, self, standard, and attentional focus. Self is defined very broadly and addresses the understanding of the knowledge that one has about themselves. At the same time, the standard is one's perception of what is correct concerning behaviours, attitudes and traits (Duval & Silva, 2001). Objective self-awareness manifests when people compare themselves to a standard (Duval & Silva, 2001). Negative feelings emerge when a gap between self and standard emerges (Duval & Silva, 2001).

Self-awareness is a leader making meaning of their world concerning their strengths and weaknesses and how they can improve themselves to serve better (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Authentic leaders can effectively respond to situations and dilemmas in their work setting while remaining true to their core selves (Chan et al., 2005). According to Chan et al. (2005), leaders are not simply authentic or not; however, highly authentic leaders have high self-clarity and are motivated to consistently find ways to manage themselves for the betterment of their workplace. His theory of authentic leadership shows that the ability to do this has several intrapersonal and interpersonal implications.

Other authentic leadership leading theorists like Shamir and Eilam (2005) use the word 'self-concept' and 'self-clarity' to describe their definition of authentic leadership. However, their concept is similar to Chan et al. (2005). Shamir and Eilam's (2005) framework for authentic leadership provides that each leader's strength comes from their life story. From a leader's difficult times comes their self-awareness, and then they can define their values or what is important to them. The leader's "self-knowledge, self-concept clarity, self-concordance, and person-role merger, and on the extent to which the leader's self-concept is expressed in their behaviour" (Shamir & Eilam, 2005, p. 395). This self-knowledge is developed by "constructing, developing, and revising their life stories" (Shamir & Eilam, 2005, p. 396). Their arguments shifted from the then-current self-development models from skill development and styles to the development and appreciation of their life stories (Shamir & Eilam, 2005).

Many leading authentic leadership theorists define authentic leadership as a process of self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviours on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development (Walumbwa et al., 2008; Luthans &

Avolio, 2003). Given this definition, it is likely that an authentic leader must have a leadership standard to achieve, and that standard must evolve and improve for continued self-improvement (Tonkin, 2010). Tonkin adds that an authentic leader's objective self-awareness must be self-regulated and continually compared to the leader's leadership standard, not only to self but also in the organisational context in which the leader and associated followers operate.

Furthermore, other studies have developed a model that links the importance of self-awareness to hope, trust, and positive emotions that increase the follower's work attitudes and behaviours (Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Avolio et al., 2004).

2.2.3.2.2 Transparency

Transparency is the main characteristic of authentic leaders and is also considered central to building trust (Avolio & Wernsing, 2008; Walumbwa et al., 2008; Wong et al., 2010; Avolio & Luthans, 2010). Recent studies illustrate that relational transparency (RT) refers to presenting one's true self to others, as well as sharing information and one's genuine thoughts and emotions, in an open and honest manner (Aruoren et al., 2023). RT also stands for being truthful about who you are and what you know, and having no qualms about sharing either (Walumbwa et al., 2008; Swain, Cao, & Gardner, 2018; Aruoren et al., 2023).

According to early authentic leadership theories, the authentic, fair, and honest behaviour of leaders towards their employees maintains organisational transparency and increases employee trust (Norman, 2006). Furthermore, the belief in the leader's capability, honesty, and integrity encourages employees to engage in risk-taking behaviour (Schoorman et al., 2007), which results in organisational commitment and directly increases work engagement (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002).

Authentic leaders lead others by helping them achieve authenticity (Gardner et al., 2005). It is the background of why authentic leaders have leaders' transparency capability (Avolio et al., 2004). Their self-clarity promotes their capability to be transparent to their surroundings. This concept is aligned with several studies, for instance, Bird et al. (2012) and Hsieh et al. (2013). Authentic leaders "know who they

are, what they believe and value, and act upon those values and beliefs while transparently interacting with others" (Chan et al., 2005, p. 802).

Authentic leaders are adept at leading transparently because they are concerned with remaining true to their core values and, thus, are motivated by opportunities to verify that their true self is reflected in their actions (Chan et al., 2005). When followers detect this transparency from their leaders, they respond with supportive attitudes and behaviours (Chan et al., 2005). Nevertheless, some research shows that there is still much pressure for leaders to be transparent and to provide confidence to employees to be true to themselves (Bandsuch et al., 2008). From a follower perspective, Yukl (2010) shows that authentic leaders must be consistent in their words, actions and values. These self-evident premises assist followers in understanding whether a leader is transparent.

In comparison to transformational leadership, Bass and Steidhneier (1999) suggest that authentic leadership is similar to transformational leadership in regard to inspiring followers from a higher-order perspective. However, some studies show that transformational leaders may not be authentic since what they inspire may not be what they practice (Bass & Steidhneier, 1999).

Critiques on authentic leadership transparency come for instance, from Lee et al. (1998), who state that creating cooperation happens through clear and open communication. However, he argues that the process could be challenging because information sharing in supply chain collaborations faces several barriers, such as aligning different partners' incentives and timelines and the accuracy of the shared information.

2.2.3.3 Balance Processing For Win-Win Solution

Balanced Processing (BP) refers to a leader's ability to be objective while weighing all relevant data prior to making a decision (Leroy et al., 2012). According to Walumbwa et al. (2008), in order to create win win solution, balanced processing directs leader behaviour in that leaders try to analyse relevant data before making decisions and are not afraid to solicit opposing views from followers. A win-win situation is created when

a leader demonstrates their authenticity and integrity through their actions (Rouse, 2018). The findings are supported by the recent research such as Abidin and Noraida (2017) and Hsieh and Wang (2007, 2015).

The concept of balance processing is supported by many early leading theorists in authentic leadership as well as in transformational leadership; for instance Chan et al. (2005), and Gardner et al. (2005). Their theory shows that information processing in authentic leadership is not driven by the need to protect the ego. Instead, leaders reflect honestly and openly about their strengths and weaknesses from information collected through an analysis of follower reactions. The self-truth and self-acceptance of authentic leaders act as an unbiased frame of reference for how they fit into the social context of their organisation (Bandura, 1986).

Different perspective of study develops a multidimensional concept of authentic leadership that includes a leader's awareness, unbiased processing, behaviour, and relational orientation (Kernis & Goldman, 2005). Similar to Chaneil al.(2005), Kernis and Goldman (2005) suggest that authentic leaders utilize reactions to their decisions as insight into how aligned their actions are with their core beliefs. They also add that self-awareness leads to healthy functioning with followers because reflective leaders are attuned to the motivation behind their decisions. Furthermore, decisions focused on the best interest of the followers lead to the next level of leadership positive traits: greater trust and confidence in the leaders (Kernis & Goldman, 2005).

2.2.3.4 Implementation of Trust in Organisational Context

In the past few years, crises throughout the world have had a negative impact on organisational life and employee attitudes (Wang et al., 2021). Recent studies recommend that organisational leadership cultivate a high level of trust and commitment among organisational members, as this has significant implications for organisational growth and productivity in modern organisations (Aruoren & Tarurhor, 2023). Several studies have examined how authentic leadership (AL) contributes to an organization's effectiveness and efficiency, thereby influencing followers' job outcomes, particularly during times of crisis when trust and commitment within the organisation are essential (Alilyyani et al., 2018). AL can improve organisational

citizenship behaviour (Yeşilkaya & Aydın, 2016), an ethical culture (Morris, 2014), employees' organisational commitment (Ausar, Kang, & Kim, 2016), work engagement (Bamford et al., 2013), employee performance (Leroy et al., 2015), and organisational trust (Hassan, & Ahmed, 2015).

In organisational change context, trust in the leader is considered a relevant factor for the successful implementation of organisational changes (Zhu et al., 2004; Oreg, 2006; Sørensen & Hasle, 2009) because it is considered crucial for getting individuals to work toward a common goal (Dirks, 2000), especially under high levels of perceived uncertainty. Moreover, trust in the leader is also considered a fundamental element in the effectiveness of leadership (Bass, 1990). This idea is supported by Dirks and Ferrin's (2001, 2002) meta-analysis, in which they found that leadership style can increase trust in the leader, which is in turn associated with attitudes, perceptions, and important organisational outcomes such as organisational citizenship behaviour, job performance, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, or intention to quit. Schoorman, Mayer, and Davis (2007) considered the study of the relationship between trust and emotions a fascinating area of research. In response to this call, Ballinger et al., (2009) demonstrated that work group members' affective reactions to the departure of a leader were partly based on the quality of the relationship they had with the leader. These affective reactions influenced group members' trust judgments of the new leader unless they had access to previously formed judgments about the leader's ability (Ballinger et al., 2009).

2.2.3.5 Authentic vs. Transformational Leadership

The current definition of authentic leadership, born from transformational leadership, was formulated by scholars Avolio and Gardner (2005). Personality traits such as self-awareness, transparency and ethics are critical components of an authentic leader (Avolio et al., 2004). In contrast, a more mature leadership theory is transformational leadership (Yukl, 2010). The current definition of authentic leadership, born from transformational leadership, was formulated by scholars Avolio and Gardner (2005). Comparisons were drawn between authentic leadership and other theories, including transformational leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Avolio and Gardner (2005)

state that authentic leadership can contain different aspects from multiple leadership theories, including characteristics of transformational leaders. Furthermore, George and Bennis (2008) contends that authentic leadership may or may not contain charismatic personality traits that transformational leaders possess. The following sections investigate the link and the contrast between authentic and transformational leadership that are found in the literature review. The section also explores the scope to which authentic leadership influences employees' personal outcomes compared to transformational leadership.

2.2.3.5.1 Job Satisfaction

Many studies show that transformational leadership is positively related to job satisfaction (Koh et al., 1995; Lowe & Kroeck, 1996). However, There is little empirical evidence that authentic leadership is correlated to follower job satisfaction, which implies a gap between the need to create authentic leaders and the programs and interventions required to do so (Walumbwa et al., 2008). However, Avolio et al. (2004) reveal that both authentic and transformational leadership (Bass & Steidhner, 1999, p. 189) are antecedents to job satisfaction and leader supportiveness is an antecedent for job satisfaction (Smith et al., 1983). Moreover, in their authentic leadership theory, Lloyd-Walker and Walker (2011) indicate that authentic leadership adds ethics to transformational leadership. In some situations, both cannot provide the ultimate satisfaction to their subordinates and partially contribute as explanatory variables. Chen et al. (2005) found that followers were satisfied with the individualised consideration of transformational leaders. Conversely, employees' satisfaction with transactional leaders comes from the contingent reward dimension (Chen et al., 2005).

2.2.3.5.2 Self-Efficacy and High-Risk Taker

According to recent authentic leadership theories, employees' sense of self-efficacy is increased by the leader's confidence in their ability to perform efficiently (Khalil et al., 2019). Previous research conducted by Avolio and Luthans (2006) supports the results of Khalil's investigation. An individual's direct/indirect experience with success/failure affects their self-efficacy, which can be enhanced by the efforts of others, such as a leader's confidence in his or her employees, which helps them

achieve a high level of self-efficacy at work (Eden, 2003). Individuals with self-efficacy believe they are capable of performing a given task, are unafraid to confront difficult situations, set goals, assume risks, and exert the necessary effort to achieve those goals (Roux, 2010).

Because of their self-confidence, transformational leaders are consistently willing to take and share risks with followers, which, in turn, it led them to attempt and succeed in influencing groups to follow their lead (Clausen, 1956; Burnstein, 1969; Bass; 1985a; Avolio & Yammarino, 2013; Bass, 2013). By inspiring followers to be high-risk takers, transformational leaders indirectly encourage employees to do more than they had initially expected (Bass, 1985). In authentic leaders, a similar concept can be found: their capability to be transparent (Chan et al., 2005), which requires self-confidence. Authentic leaders are ready to act on what they believe, although with the risk of rejection from the organisational culture where they at (Chan et al., 2005).

As a result of a high-risk mindset, transformational leaders build a sense of self-efficacy in their followers (Waldman & Spangler, 1989). According to Conger and Kanungo (1988), transformational leadership is also connected to empowerment through self-efficacy. Self-efficacy represents an individual's belief in his or her capabilities to accomplish a specific task or set of tasks (Bandura, 1986). An increase in confidence and valence of outcomes can produce a noticeable rise in followers' efforts to succeed, thus making leadership the stimulus to effort beyond expectations (Bass, 1985; Tichy & Devanna, 1986). Transformational leaders can raise followers' self-efficacy by showing confidence in followers and helping them work through individual problems and developmental challenges (Bandura, 1977; Gist, 1987).

Unlike transformational leadership, no empirical evidence is found in the literature review that authentic leadership raises follower self-efficacy. Nevertheless, a similar concept can be seen from Gardner (2005), who suggests authentic leaders develop their followers to become new leaders by encouraging them to achieve their authenticity or true selves (Gardner et al., 2005). Therefore, both transformational and authentic leaders demonstrate explicit self-identification or high self-knowledge (Gardner et al., 2005) that gives them a sense of identity, direction, and strategy for implementation (Nygren & Ukeritis, 1993). Furthermore, self-management and self-

development are the primary goals of transformational leadership (Avolio & Gibbons, 1988). Transformational leaders increase followers' independence (Shamir, 1991).

2.2.3.5.3 Relation In Influence

Positive influence on transformational leaders' followers results from leaders' self-clarity and sense of higher purpose in their vision (Burn, 1978). Similar to authentic leadership theory, leaders with high self-clarity in authentic leadership produce self-development that increases their influence, according to Luthans and Avolio (2003). They describe authentic leadership as "a process that draws from both positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organisational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviours on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development" (p. 243). In transformational leadership, leaders with greater self-knowledge produce a high influence on their followers (Gardner et al., 2005).

On the contrary, a lack of self-concept creates inner confusion and rejects the leader as a source of influence (Gardner et al., 2005). Lack of self-knowledge or having 'low self-concept clarity and so suffering from inner confusion' may 'reject the leader as a source of influence' (Gardner et al., 2005). Leaders with greater self-knowledge will encourage their followers to develop greater self-knowledge (Gardner, 2005).

2.2.3.5.4 Relation In Individual Consideration

Being an authentic leader requires not only this commitment but also a commitment to having an awareness of the needs and expectations of one's followers (Chan et al., 2005). From here, we can see transformational leaders apply one of the authentic leader's characteristics, they nurture the individual goal of their team members (Gillespie & Mann, 2004), and they listen to the individual needs of each follower (Bass et al., 2003). This kind of behaviour exploits the interdependence between team members (Gillespie & Mann, 2004).

2.2.3.5.5 Leadership Effectiveness

Leadership promotes leaders' identification, such as in transformational leadership and authentic leadership contribute to leadership effectiveness (Shamir et al., 1993; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Ksark & Shamir, 2002).

From a different perspective, Judge and Piccolo (2004 as cited in Lai, 2011) found the various dimensions of the transformational leadership style (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulations and individualised consideration) and a single dimension of the transactional leadership style (contingent reward) to be linked with effective leadership (Cooper & Nirenberg, 2012). Indeed, Lai (2011) argues that an effective combination of these two leadership approaches may produce the best results or organisational outcomes.

2.2.3.6 Summary Authentic Leadership

The key finding from the literature review on authentic leadership indicates that authentic leadership behaviour fosters employee trust. Many recent studies state that employees will have a higher level of trust in their employers if leaders exhibit traits of authentic leadership (Aruoren & Tarurhor, 2023). Their findings suggested that authentic leadership demonstrated by leaders can inspire organizational trust from followers. Similar conclusions were reached by other researchers, for examples: Swain et al. (2018), Khalil and Siddiqui (2019), Qiu et al. (2019), Farid et al. (2020), Kleynhans et al. (2021) and Kim et al. (2022). This finding suggests that employees with extremely high levels of organisational trust are more committed to the success of their organisation.

Another key findings from the literature review on authentic leadership indicates that many recent studies shows authentic leadership has a positive correlation with organisational commitment (Lux et al., 2019; Tijani & Okunbanjo, 2020; Megheirkouni, 2021). Leroy, Palanski, and Simons (2012) recognise that the emotional commitment of a group of individuals (organisational commitment) to their leader is correlated with the leader's own behavioural integrity. This finding indicates that employees tend to be more committed to organisational tasks when leaders demonstrate authenticity in

leadership (Alomari et al., 2019; Duarte et al., 2021; Megheirkoun, 2021; Roncesvalles & Gaerla, 2021). [Figure 2.5](#) illustrates the two positive correlation of authentic leadership with organisational trust (OT) and commitment (OC) is the relationship between organisation trust and commitment (Baridula & Adanma, 2020) through authentic leadership (Kumartaşli et al., 2016; Hayuningtyas, 2018).

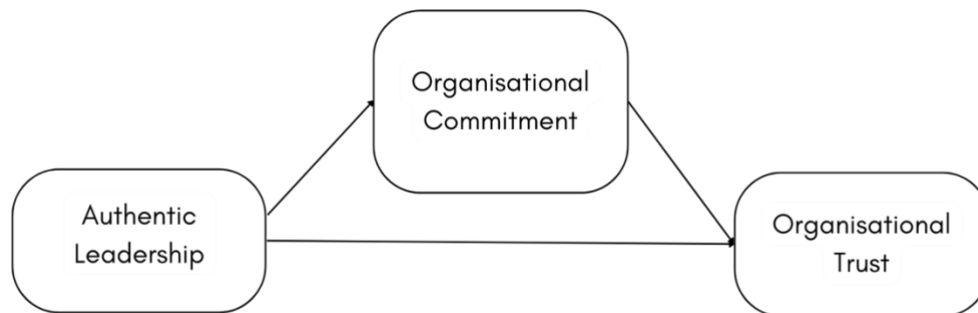


Figure 2.5 Authentic Leadership And Trust Framework (Aruoren & Tarurhor, 2023)

Through the positive correlation between OT and OC, a direct and positive relationship is established between authentic leadership and both work engagement and work performance (Bamford et al., 2013; Leroy et al., 2015; Hassan & Ahmed, 2015; Khalil & Siddiqui, 2019). Consequently, the connection between Khalil's (2019) and Baridula's (2020) theories demonstrates that authentic leadership has a positive relationship with work performance. Moreover, as previously established in Section 2.2.1, transformational leadership has a positive correlation with work performance. After conducting a literature review on transformational and authentic leadership, the researcher proposes that trust is the connecting factor between the two due to their indirect positive relationship with work performance. After reviewing early and recent studies, the researcher discovers a lack of information regarding how transformational and authentic leaders use interpersonal trust to build organisational trust.

Moreover, some works of literature show some critiques about trust in authentic leadership theories. Trust is a critical component of authentic leadership studies, however the role of trust and emotions in leading and following is under researched (Gooty et al., 2010). According to Folger and Cropanzano (2001), simply expecting

leaders to be more authentic and demonstrate integrity will be ineffective if tools for measuring these aspects of leadership are lacking. They argue that the empirical groundwork for advancing authentic leadership theory needs more development.

Despite the challenges to creating an advancing authentic leadership framework, there is an urgent need and demand for authentic leadership in private and public organisations (Avolio & Luthans, 2006). Taking a macro level standpoint, an upswing in highly publicised corporate scandals, management misbehaviour, and broader societal challenges facing organisations has contributed to the recent attention placed on authenticity and authentic leadership (Avolio & Luthans, 2006). The confluence of these challenges has produced calls for more positive forms of leadership in institutions and organisations to restore confidence in all levels of leadership (George & Bennis, 2008; Lorenzi, 2004; Brown et al., 2005; Avolio & Luthans, 2006). Indeed, in response to repeated and spectacular setbacks in ethical judgment by leaders, the public demands greater accountability of organisational leaders (Dealy & Thomas, 2007).

Other authors describe similar call for more positive forms of leadership and attention to authentic leadership in institutions. For instance, corporate boards are held more accountable (Aguilera, 2005); executives who fail to display consistency between their words and deeds can expect to lose followers' trust (Simons, 2002). Hence, organisational stakeholders appear to be much less tolerant of inconsistencies between leaders' espoused principles, values and conduct and expect those leaders to operate at higher levels of integrity (Simons, 2002). Although organisational stakeholders have certain expectations about the positive attributes they require of leaders (Lord, 1985; Phillips & Lord, 1986), including integrity as a core quality (Posner, 1993), there are relatively few validated tools for measuring these attributes or behaviours.

At the individual leader level, there is growing evidence that an authentic approach to leading is desirable and practical for advancing the human enterprise and achieving positive and enduring outcomes in organisations (George & Bennis, 2008; George et al., 2007). For example, personal benefits of authenticity, as shown by mounting evidence from social, cognitive, and positive psychology as well as organisational

studies, include more "optimal" levels of self-esteem, higher levels of psychological well-being, enhanced feelings of friendliness, and high performance (Grandey et al., 2005; Kernis, 2003). We suggest that when organisational leaders know and act upon their actual values, beliefs, and strengths while helping others to do the same, higher levels of employees' well-being will accrue, which in turn have been shown to positively impact follower performance (Ryan & Deci, 2001).

2.2.4 Transactional Leadership

Before transformational leadership theory was introduced into the literature, transactional leadership was considered the most effective form of organisational leadership (Bass et al., 2003). However, recent research focuses on analysing work innovation and performance by contrasting transactional and transformational leadership (Alrowwad et al., 2020; Udin et al., 2022). Transformational leaders are more committed to encouraging innovative behaviour among employees than transactional leaders (Suhana et al., 2019; Afsar & Umrani, 2020; Abdullah et al., 2020; Jaruwanakul & Vongurai, 2021). Despite this analysis, some studies continue to predict that transactional leadership will become the most prevalent form of leadership in businesses (Young et al., 2020). Therefore, transactional leadership has received increased attention from studies as a predictor of innovative behaviour among employees (Hansen & Pihl-Thingvad, 2019; Khan et al., 2020; Novitasari et al., 2021).

Transactional leadership involves managing in the more conventional sense by clarifying subordinate responsibilities, rewarding them for meeting objectives and correcting them for failing to meet objectives (Alrowwad et al., 2020; Bass, 2013). Transactional leadership is defined as more task- or goal-oriented than people-oriented (Bass, 1997). Transactional behaviour happens when the result can be seen through a transaction process in which followers' needs are met if their performance measures up to their explicit or implicit contracts with their leader Bass (1985).

In contrast to transformational leadership, which emphasizes selflessness and the intrinsic needs of organisational members, transactional leadership appeals to subordinates' self-interest. It focuses more on extrinsic needs by establishing a clear exchange relationship with them (Bass et al., 2003). According to Kouzes and Posner

(1995, p 321), "The transactional leader resembles the traditional definition of the manager".

Nevertheless, transactional leadership is not always defined as ineffective (Udin et al., 2022). Burn (1978) argues that its effectiveness is limited to the implicit contract between leaders and followers. They are not bound together 'in a mutual and continuing pursuit of a higher purpose (Burn, 1978: 20). As we have established in Section 2.2.1.3, transformational leadership is driven by a higher purpose and benefits the greater society; On the contrary, transactional leadership focuses on followers' motivation through reward or punishment instead of a trust-based relationship that nurtures individuals and shared visions (Burns, 2012). Transactional behaviour aims to maintain and monitor established organisational operations (Burns, 2012). More contrast and comparisons on transformational versus transactional leadership are described in Section [2.2.4.3](#).

One of the most recent versions of the transactional leadership framework consists of two dimensions: contingent reward and active management by exception (Bass et al., 2003; Tyssen et al., 2014). This version does not include the dimension "passive management by exception" because it has not been found to correlate positively with transactional leadership behaviour (Den Hartog et al., 1997).

2.2.4.1 Contingent Reward (CR)

Bass and Avolio (1994) regard transactional leadership as contingent-reward leadership that includes active and positive trade between leaders and employees whereby employees are rewarded or acknowledged for accomplishing agreed-upon objectives. Manager leaders who utilise contingent rewards are expected to show direction to the employees so that the job gets done (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Critical indicators of contingent reward encompass performance-based material rewards, direction-setting, exchange, and confidence-building in the team (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Positive support could be exchanged for good work, merit pay for promotions, increased performance and cooperation for collegiality (Khan & Nawaz, 2016).

Contingent reward represents the degree to which the leader provides clear goals and expectations and rewards organisational members for satisfactory performance (Den Hartog et al., 1997). Transactional leadership adopts a reward system, which leads to extrinsic motivation by leaders to attain the desired outcome from followers (Bass et al., 2003).

Other theorists describe that transactional leadership comprises an exchange between leader and follower in which the former offers rewards, perhaps in the form of prestige or money, for compliance with his or her wishes (Mumford & Van Doorn, 2001).

Although this type of leadership establishes clear goals and expectations through contingent rewards, provides constructive feedback, and distributes appropriate rewards (Bass, 1985; Avolio et al., 1999; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999), this form of leadership involves close monitoring of organisational members (Bass et al., 2003).

Similar to transformational leaders, transactional leaders aim to generate higher levels of performance among organisational members (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass, 1985, Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999). However, transactional leaders need close and detailed monitoring to quickly identify areas that require improvement and take corrective action (Bass et al., 2003). Some researchers see this as a challenging part of transactional leadership because it is not built on trust-based relationships and personal communication (Vangen & Huxham, 2003; Burn, 1978). Therefore, in that case, leaders and followers need a contractual agreement where each side desires the other to fulfil the agreed terms of the transaction to ensure the survival of the existing relationship between them (Penn, 2015).

In organisational innovation, contingent reward builds commitment from organisational members to accomplish specific tasks related to pursuing innovative activities (Avolio et al., 1999). It also ensures that organisational members know the expectation to generate new ideas and solutions concerning organisational structures, processes and practices (Avolio et al., 1999). Further, it clarifies to organisational members that the organisation's generation and implementation of innovative ideas are valued and will therefore be adequately rewarded. Consequently, leaders who exhibit

transactional leadership by providing contingent rewards can support organisational innovation.

2.2.4.2 Management by Exception (MBE)

In transactional leadership leaders establish specific parameters, guidelines, rules, and performance standards and establish reward and penal systems to enforce positive work behaviours and discourage negative ones (Russell, 2011). Active management by exception refers to leaders adopting a micromanagement approach to handling followers. In this type of management, the leader monitors and attends to followers' mistakes and failures to meet standards (Den Hartog et al., 1997). It involves the leader paying detailed attention to followers' activities to ensure strict adherence to established procedures and provide prompt remedial guidelines or measures to correct deviations or mistakes (Bass, 1997).

Mumford and Van Doorn (2001) see active management with a high micromanagement approach as a challenge for leaders because transactional leadership always need to rely on control and the exercise of power. On the other side, passive management, by exception, refers to transactional leadership behaviours that grant followers or employees some supervisory space to allow them to carry out their functions but only demand intervention when there are deviations or issues of unmet performance standards (Bass, 1997). Leaders who follow management by exception (active) trust their workers to end the job satisfactorily and avoid rocking the boat. This type of leadership does not inspire employees to achieve beyond expected outcomes. However, if the target is achieved, the system has worked, and everyone is satisfied (Bass & Avolio, 2004). As a result, this type of leadership creates little sense of adventure, risk-taking, or new perspectives and lacks employee confidence (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Management by exception (passive) is a style of transactional leadership in which the leaders bypass establishing agreement and fail to deliver goals and standards to be accomplished by employees. Sometimes, a leader-manager waits for things to go wrong before taking action (Bass & Avolio, 2004).

On the contrary, Avolio et al. (1999) show a different perspective than Bass and Avolio (2004). They reveal a positive influence between organisational innovation and

transactional leadership. First, through contingent rewards, transactional leaders can establish clear goals, expectations and rewards (Avolio et al., 1999). Second, using active management by exception, transactional leaders closely monitor organisational members to ensure that organisational goals are met (Pearce & Sims, 2002). This ensures that any departures from expected behaviours by organisational members are identified and necessary steps are taken to rectify the situation (Pearce et al., 2003), such as providing constructive feedback. The monitoring and feedback activities create transparency concerning the processes and procedures undertaken to complete organisational tasks (Pearce et al., 2003).

Nevertheless, a challenging input comes from Vangen and Huxham (2003). They argue that personal trust-based and informal communication might be challenging to achieve organisational innovation, especially in an organisation with a high bureaucracy structure. The challenge can be caused by an unequal power relationship (Vangen & Huxham, 2003).

2.2.4.3 Transformational vs. Transactional Leadership

The link between the transformational and transactional leadership styles has been looked at broadly in the literature. Findings of some practical studies in different contexts have shown a link between the two approaches, mainly the augmenting role of the transformational leadership style to the transactional leadership style. For example, Bass et al. (2003) studied whether transformational leadership augmented transactional contingent reward leadership ([Section 2.4.1](#)). The analysis initially showed no augmenting role of transformational leadership to transactional leadership (Bass et al., 2003). However, after a reexamination of the measuring scale on contingent reward focusing only on two lower-order transactional items, an augmenting role of transformational leadership to transactional leadership was observed (Bass et al., 2003).

Another research on transactional and transformational leadership concerns a multi-national study on building professionals. Chan (2005) explored transactional and transformational leadership among building professionals across four locations: Australia, Hong Kong, Singapore and the United Kingdom. Among the findings of Chan

et al.(2005), there was information about how transformational leadership augments transactional leadership characteristics. Through regression analysis, they found that transformational leadership has a substantial add-on effect on transactional leadership in predicting employees' rated outcomes of extra effort, perceived leader effectiveness, and satisfaction with the leaders in the sample of building professionals (Chan et al., 2005 p. 420).

Moreover, Bass (1985) also highlights that although the transformational and transactional leadership styles may look distinct, they are not mutually exclusive. This, therefore, means that both leadership approaches could be present in a leader and that there is a need for one to be absent to make way for the other (Bass, 1985). Bass explains that influential leaders use both approaches simultaneously to achieve the best results, and he further states that transformational leadership augments transactional leadership.

2.2.4.3.1 Job Satisfaction

Transformational leadership, which are idealised influence and intellectual stimulation, are significant and positive predictors of job satisfaction had a considerable influence on followers' performance than transactional leaders (Boerner et al., 2007; Nemanich & Keller, 2007; Ali et al., 2020; Ariani, 2021; Bilginolu & Yozgat, 2021; Horwood et al., 2021; Wulandari, 2021). However, some studies of the transactional leadership style provide high satisfaction and organisational identification as compared to the transformational leadership style (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Wu, 2009) despite the reason transactional leaders substantially influence followers (Boseman, 2008).

To conclude the above, Locke et al.(1999) opined that all leadership approaches or styles involve some form of transaction, some of which may be medium or long-term. This assertion applies to transformational leadership too. Consequently, this also explains why the augmenting role of transformational leadership to transactional leadership and not the other way round, as captured by some of the empirical studies reviewed (Chan et al., 2005).

2.2.4.3.2 Leadership Effectiveness

Leadership promotes leaders' identification, such as in transformational leadership and authentic leadership contribute to leadership effectiveness (Kets de Vries, 1988; Shamir et al., 1993; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Ksark & Shamir, 2002). From a different perspective, Judge and Piccolo (2004 as cited in Lai, 2011) found the various dimensions of the transformational leadership style (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulations and individualised consideration) and a single dimension of the transactional leadership style (contingent reward) to be linked with effective leadership (Cooper & Nirenberg, 2012). Indeed, Lai (2011) argues that an effective combination of these two leadership approaches may produce the best results or organisational outcomes.

2.2.5 Leaders versus Managers

Some famous theorists suggest a sharp distinction between management and leadership. Bennis (1985) distinguished leaders and managers as follows: Leaders develop, and managers maintain. Leaders ask what and why, and on the other hand, managers ask how and when. Leaders originate, and managers imitate. Leaders challenge the status quo; managers accept it (Bennis, 1985, 1989). All the mentioned quotes are too short of understanding the context of how they describe the distinction between management and leadership.

In Kotter's (1990) context, a person is defined as a leader or manager based on his characteristics instead of what kind of position he has. Kotter distinguishes leadership and management by saying that "... management is about coping with complexity... leadership... is about coping with change" (Kotter, 1990:37). For Kotter 1990, leadership concerns constructive or adaptive change, establishing and changing direction, aligning, and inspiring and motivating people. Management is involved with consistency and order, details, timetables, and the marshalling of resources to achieve a result. Manager plans, budget, and allocates staff to fulfil plans (Kotter, 1990). Krantz and Gilmore (1990) say that management is idealized as the technique for achieving an organisation's objectives and leadership is idealized as heroic, visionary, and mission-oriented. Leadership is pathfinding; management is a path following.

Considerable literature analyses the distinction between leadership and management. However, Bennis and Nanus (1985) suggest a parallel study between transactional and transformational leadership. Their research demonstrates that a manager has comparable characteristics to transactional leadership and a leader to transformational leadership. The outcome from Bennis and Nanus (1985) is aligned with other studies, i.e. from Posner and Kouzes (1996), McCarthy (2000), House and Klein (1995) and as well as from classical management theorists like R.C Davis (1942), Urwick (1952), and Fayol (1916), that will be described in the following paragraphs.

Many studies show that managers have the characteristics of orderly planning, organizing, and controlling were the functions of supervisors, managers, and executives in formal organisations of a hierarchically arranged group and individuals (Fayol, 1916; Davis, 1942; Urwick, 1952). To summarize the context of transformational/transactional and leaders/managers, Zaleznik (1977) stated that leaders are more likely to be transformational than are managers, and managers are there to maintain a controlled and equitable system.

2.2.5.1 Overlapping Areas Between Leaders And Managers

Nevertheless, there are many overlapping areas in theories about leaders and managers. For instance, Kotter (1982) mentions how managers can act as leaders in his literature. Krantz and Gilmore (1990) used the terms leaders and managers interchangeably. Alvesson and Sveningsson (2003) suggest that the distinction between managers and leaders is due only to how we conceptualise leadership.

From Kotter's theory (1985), he explains that the characteristics of the individual define the distinctions between a leader and a manager, not by his position in an organisation. His theory shows that managers, despite their position in an organisation, can become leaders if they adapt their character to the personal characteristics of leaders. Managers who combine intuition with rationality, as well as the personal characteristics of a leader, make the most successful managers (Kotter, 1982), middle managers (Kotter, 1985), and senior and lowest-level managers (Kotter, 1988).

Some scholars use the term 'leader-manager' to avoid the distinction context. For example, Gardner states that the leader-manager emphasises vision, values, motivation, and renewal and can cope with conflict (Gardner, 1998). He summed up leader managers' tasks as envisioning the group's foals, affirming the group values, motivating its member, managing, achieving workable unity among the members, explaining what needs to be done, representing the group and building trust (Gardner, 1998).

2.2.5.2 Middle and Lower-Level Managers

Zaccaro (1996) distinguished top management leaders from lower-level leaders. The CEO and top-level managers are the people who define the long-term vision or goals, and the managers under them deal with coordination across the organisation (Zaccaro, 1996). Top-level leaders contribute to organisational effectiveness through long-term planning, boundary-spanning activities, network development, consensus building, and a high-quality cognitive map of the organisation and its environment (Zaccaro, 1996). The middle managers do not involve directly in determining the company's vision (Schilit, 1987).

Some works of literature show that the leaders on top define the company's vision; however, so many studies (Meindl et al., 1985; Pfeffer, 1977) show that top leadership can not guarantee the company's outcome. Thomas (1988) argues that the organisation's size, for instance, leadership in a big organisation, might have less effectivity on the organisational innovation. From another perspective, Zaccaro (1996) explained that the different concepts of vision (long-term vision versus short-term goals) inside a company could cause the failure of the company's outcome.

A different perspective comes from Schilit (1987), who shows that middle managers' attitudes decide the overall achievement of the high-level performance because middle managers are responsible for carrying out the goals set by top managers. Like Schilit (1987), who shows a positive influence of middle-level leaders on organisational innovation, Dodge (1998) communicates that middle or lower-level managers may also have opportunities to apply leadership characteristics. He explains that leadership

is central to organisational change (Dodge, 1998). The vision of change comes from the top with little feedback from followers, and sometimes it may begin with suggestions from supervisors or middle management and their subordinates and work its way up (Dodge, 1998). It allows middle-level managers to act visionary and influence while maintaining the systems (Dodge, 1998).

Despite many positive inputs on middle-level leadership's influence on organisational innovation, Carpenter et al. (2004) criticise that middle managers' positive attitudes depend on the quality of the CEO's influence on them (Carpenter et al., 2004). In this concept, middle to lower leaders-managers in a big company act only to carry out the goals defined by the executive leaders (Carpenter et al., 2004). The success of achieving the company's vision depends on how strong the top-level leaders influence their middle and lower leaders-managers (Carpenter et al., 2004).

In response to the concept from Dodge (1998) established in the last paragraph, transformational leadership theory from Bass (2009, p.400) states that successful leaders influence their followers and bring about changes in their followers' attitudes and behaviours. Meaning followers or middle and low-level managers can influence their leader's behaviours (Bass, 2009). In some cases, subordinates lead, and superiors follow, meaning that every person can become a leader by being an influencer to others (Bass, 2009). Bass (1985) also added that transformational-charismatic leadership had been known to occur at the lower level of organisations. Transformational and charismatic leadership is the ability of individual leaders to transform corporations and transform the perceptions and motivations of people within those corporations (Storey, 2004).

Nevertheless, Bennis and Nanus (1985) and Tichy and Devanna (1986) argue that some studies show that top-level leaders are 'managers' rather than 'leaders'. Their research shows that managers act as more transactional and less transformational leaders that can positively influence organisational innovation (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). This perspective opens opportunities for middle- or lower-level managers to act visionary, transformational and influence instead of only maintaining the systems (Dodge, 1998).

2.3 Organisation And Management

This section analyses theories about the relationship between leadership and organisational outcome. The type of leadership applied in an organisation affects the result the organisation makes on its environment. Some scholars have explored the link between leadership and organisational outcomes (Lieberson & O'Connor, 1972; Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977). There are scholarly articles that are pro and contra about the positive link between leadership and organisational outcomes. There are also mixed results that are found in recent studies (Agle et al., 2006; Ling et al., 2008; Tosi et al., 2004; Waldman, Javidan, & Varella, 2004).

2.3.1 Critiques on Leadership Theories and Organisational Outcome

The transformational leadership theory has been positively correlated to various organisational outcomes (Bryman, 1996). Transformational leaders are assumed to "stimulate followers to perform beyond the level of expectations" (Bass, 1985, p. 32). Bryman (1996) discovered that transformational leadership positively relates to several critical organisational outcomes, including perceived extra effort, organisational citizenship behaviours, and job satisfaction. Nevertheless, Oguz (2010) observes little about the mediating processes between transformational leadership and organisational success is known. Because of the confirming and conflicting studies, the need to further research leadership theories about organisational citizenship behaviour has become imperative to advance in predicting leadership effectiveness (Tonkin, 2010).

Research has shown that transformational leadership impacts follower satisfaction (Hatter & Bass; Koh et al., 1995) and organisational commitment (Barling et al., 1996; Koh et al., 1995). Research has also shown that transformational leadership impacts employee commitment to organisational change (Yu, Leithwood, & Jantzi, 2002) and organisational conditions (Jack Lam et al., 2002). Due to its impact on personal and organisational outcomes, transformational leadership is needed in all organisations (Tucker & Russell, 2004)

In authentic leadership, leaders focus on the core characteristics of the followers to enhance the organisation's performance by focusing on the follower's strengths and avoiding their weaknesses (Luthans, 2003). That trait of authentic leaders creates the core characteristic of positive organisational behaviour (POB), which includes confidence, hope, optimism and resilience. POB characteristics are keys to high-performance systems (Gardner & Schermerhorn, 2004). Similar to the concept from Luthans (2003), POB makes managers concentrate on people's strengths rather than weaknesses (Gardner & Schermerhorn, 2004).

Due to inconsistent results, the answer to the question of which aspect of leaders' characteristics influence the organisational outcome is still a puzzle (Wang et al., 2011). Many studies, for instance, Boal & Hooijberg (2000), Cannella & Monroe (1997), Carpenter et al. (2004), Hunt (1991) have explored the link between top-level managers and organisational outcomes. However, according to Wang et al. (2011), the result is inconsistent. Some literature shows that top-level leaders are critically essential for an organisation to achieve a significant performance (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Finkelstein & Hambrick, 1996; Thomas, 1988; Peterson et al., 2003). Some scholars argue that top-level's leaderships are inconsequential to organisation performance (Meindl, Ehrlich, & Dukerich, 1985; Pfeffer, 1977).

Despite the inconsistency of scholars about the impact of leadership on organisational performance (Wang et al., 2011), we have discovered different perspectives that influence the pro and contra of the positive link between leadership and organisation outcomes. Some scholar like Thomas (1988) shows that organisation size is one of the criteria problems that cause inconsistent results of executive leadership in an organisation. Some scholars like Dodge (1998) and (Bass, 2009) show that managers with transformational leadership, no matter at which level in a company's hierarchy, have the potential to have a positive influence on organisational innovation.

2.3.2 Organisational Innovation

While some researchers have paid much awareness to companies' outcomes as organisational innovation's ability to develop new products or services (Damanpour & Aravind, 2006; Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009; Fosset al., 2011), there are fewer theories

about organisational innovation as an organisational outcome (Camisón & Villar-López, 2014). Organisational innovation refers to the creation or adoption of an idea or a new behaviour of an organisation (Daft, 1978; Damanpour & Evan, 1984; Damanpour, 1996; Villaluz et al., 2019; Damanpour & Aravind, 2006), that allows the organisation to develop and adapt to a changing environment (Lumpkin & Dess, 2001).

Despite fewer works of literature on organisational innovation, there is a wide range of diverse perspectives of research approaches and understandings of the phenomenon (Lam, 2005). Innovation can take the form of new systems, products, processes and services (Utterback, 1994). However, innovation is not necessarily new technology. Instead, "innovation should be seen in the Schumpeterian (...) sense as any change (however incremental) to (system, product, processes (Bunnell & Coe, 2001). Organisational innovation is a definition of organisational outcome that is essential for a firm competitive advantage and performance (Lam, 2005). The concept of organisational innovation refers to the creation or adoption of an idea or behaviour in the organisation (Daft, 1978; Damanpour & Aravind, 2006) that allows the organisation to develop and adapt to a changing environment (Lumpkin & Dess, 2001).

Leadership is central to promoting organisational innovation within the firm (Hambrick & Mason, 1984). Leaders at the highest level in the company's hierarchy can attempt to create conditions within the firm that facilitate the generation and implementation of organisational innovations (Tang et al., 2011, 2015). However, some literature differentiate the impact of transformational leadership and transactional leadership in organisational innovation. Jansen et al., (2009) concluded that the transformational leadership behaviors contribute significantly to exploratory innovation, while transactional leadership behaviours facilitate improving and extending existing knowledge and are associated with exploitative innovation (Jansen et al., 2009).

As established in the preceding paragraphs organisational innovation is critical for a firm competitive advantage and performance (Lam, 2005) as it allows the organisation to develop and adapt to a changing environment (Lumpkin & Dess, 2001). Despite the positive review of transformational leadership on organisational innovation, most researchers have paid more attention to firm innovation concerning the development of new products or services (Damanpour & Aravind, 2006; Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009

; Fosset al., 2011) instead of the creation or adoption of an idea or a new behaviour of an organisation (Daft, 1978; Damanpour & Evan, 1984; Damanpour, 1996; Damanpour & Aravind, 2006).

In terms of creating new behaviour in an organisation, transformational leaders aim to communicate inspiring shared vision and common goals concerning the firm's future (Dess & Picken, 2000). As we established in Section 2.3.2, leaders that exhibit transformational leadership behaviours are also likely to promote risk-taking and experimentation relating to new activities, processes and tasks (Dess & Picken, 2000), which can promote organisational innovation. This may also reduce concerns among organisational members about the potential risks of pursuing activities in which expected results and objectives are uncertain and vague, such as in the development of new organisational structures and processes practices (Dess & Picken, 2000).

On the other side, transactional leadership may decrease the ability and motivation of organisational members to put forward new ideas (Bass et al., 2003), which could impede the introduction of new organisational structures, processes and practices. However, some studies still show the positive side of transactional leadership in organisational innovation. For instance, by providing contingent rewards, transactional leadership can motivate organisational members to attain clear targets set by the management (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Avolio et al., 1999). Also, through active management by exception, transactional leaders can monitor and reward the implementation of the goals (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Avolio et al., 1999).

Transactional leadership relies on clear expectations concerning organisational members' outcomes, tasks and behaviours (Pieterse et al., 2010), which can create strict organisational routines (Cox et al., 2003) that may stifle innovation in dynamic environments. Further, because future states are less confident in a dynamic environment, the goals and guidelines offered by transactional leaders may not lead to desired results (Jansen et al., 2009). This can make active management, by exception, less effective (Bass et al., 2003).

Even though most leadership theories implicitly suggest that the effectiveness of various leadership behaviours depends on environmental circumstances (Osborne

al.,2002; Coxet al., 2003; Pearce & Conger, 2003; Pearce, 2004), little empirical research has examined potential moderators of the relationship between leadership and organisational innovation.

2.3.3 Organisational Change

Despite the different perspectives about the effectiveness of leadership to organisational innovation during unpredictable external characteristics, leaders, especially top-level leaders, are seen as leaders with a high ability to guide transformation or changes (Baum et al., 1998). Articulation and communication of a vision are critical for organisations to cope with change successfully, and leaders are the one who is responsible for those processes (Baum et al., 1998).

Transformational leaders work to bring about human and economic transformation. Within the organisation, they generate visions, missions, goals, and a culture that contributes to the ability of individuals, groups, and the organisation to “practice its values and serve its purpose” (Hickman, 1997, p. 9). These reliable leaders generate commitment from followers, resulting in the sense of shared purpose (Waddock & Post, 1991). The leader’s ability to inspire, motivate, and foster commitment to a shared purpose is crucial (Bass, Waldman et al., 1987).

The ability to transform is essential during a crisis because a company needs to adjust to the external conditions that are full of uncertainties (Palmer & King, 2003). During times of change, there is an increase in communication, and leaders are responsible for transmitting warnings, actions, explanations, and predictions (Palmer & King, 2003). It might also be why many scholarly articles have focused on transformational leadership and their effects on firm performance and organisation performance (Wang et al., 2011). Hunt (1999) stated that one of the most critical aspects of transformational leadership and vision is providing the direction and sustenance for changes and helping us navigate through crises. Kotter (1990) identifies a leader as a person who can make changes. He states that leadership is about coping with change (Kotter, 1990), and leadership is central to the organisational change process (Dodge, 2001).

2.3.3.1 Why do organisational change programmes fail?

Many organisations have found it challenging to implement organisational change successfully (Ansarian, 2014). Managers regularly apply organisational change programmes such as restructuring, reengineering, downsizing, merger, acquisition, and total quality management (TQM) to reduce operating costs, improve performance, and enhance efficiency (Ansarian, 2014). Although implementing change programmes improved some organisations' productivity (Abas & Yaacoob, 2006; Caccia-Bava et al., 2005), its application in practice involved many difficulties. The existing literature contains many reports of change programme failure (Mourier & Smith, 2001; Miller, 2002). Some researchers found a 50 per cent and 70 per cent failure rate for organisational change programmes (Balogun & Hailey, 2004; Beer & Nohria, 2000). Some others reported a failure rate of 80% or more (Kearney, 1992; Witcher, 1993).

Major procedural problems that organisations may encounter during the change-programme implementation tend to be as follows: drive for short-term results (Kotter, 2007), poor leadership (Cummings & Worley, 2005), the complexity of processes and bureaucracy (Hrebiniak, 2006), and lack of employees' motivation and satisfaction (Cater & Pucko, 2010). Leaders can reduce the change resistance in their organisations by introducing managerial practices that present learning opportunities that help "unfreeze" the perceptions and mindsets of the organisational members (Choi & Rhona, 2010; Lewin, 1947). By managing change resistance, firms can better facilitate the generation and implementation of innovative ideas (Fosset al., 2011) and proactively interact with their environment (Makri & Scandura, 2010; Romanellieand Tushman, 1994).

Furthermore, different perspectives and essential findings concerning why organisational change can fail. Managers may avoid taking risks and making radical changes because they fear it may cost them their jobs (Soltani et al., 2005). They cannot plan for the long term because they must maintain the status quo (Soltani et al., 2005). However, by practising transformational leadership, they can learn to increase their self-efficacy and capability to take high-risk decisions (Section 2.3.2).

Change is most likely to fail when driven by ineffective leadership (Mourier & Smith, 2001; Cummings & Worley, 2005). According to Shortell et al. (1995), command-and-control-based leadership was the main barrier to the TQM's successful implementation in organisations. Transformational leaders voluntarily help their employees and prevent work-related problems (Berson & Avolio, 2004), which ultimately enhances employee job satisfaction (Scandura & Williams, 2004; Nemanich & Keller, 2007). They become more committed and have fewer turnover intentions (Scandura & Williams, 2004; Rafferty & Mark, 2004). They would develop more long-term and strategic goals and take more risks in achieving the goals (Mosadeghrad, 2005).

Lack of vision is another root cause of organisational change failure. Lack of direction or vision reduces the front-line managers' and supervisors' willingness to take risks (Longenecker et al., 1999; Ansarian, 2014). Organisations must develop long-term plans to complete a significant transformational change, and they cannot obtain satisfying results by skipping some steps (Kotter, 2007). Managers must develop and build a shared vision for the organisation (Senge, 1990; Kotter, 1996). Deming (1986) also believes that a lack of constancy of purpose in vision is a deadly disease for organisations. Primarily senior managers must provide constancy of purpose by developing and sustaining a long-term vision of the changes necessary to succeed (Ansarian, 2014).

In the case of vision conflict (Sections 2.6.1 and 2.6.2), reducing vision conflict or conflicting goals requires visionary leadership, clear direction, and effective mutual communication (Longenecker et al., 1999). Adapting and institutionalising a change programme is a challenging and long-term process. It can take an organisation several years to create a supportive organisational structure and culture and change the values and attitudes of its people to participate continuously in the change programme process (Dale et al., 1997; Beer, 2003).

Another aspect that prevents change is the existing structure or system in the organisation. Mechanistic, bureaucratic, and authoritative structures hinder successful change implementation (Ansarian, 2014). Suitable infrastructure is required to support change initiatives (Ansarian, 2014). It includes determining activities to be performed, allocating the related responsibilities and authorities to the right people, and defining

communication channels (Ansarian, 2014). Organic structures with low centralisation and formalisation are more useful for implementing organisational change (Moreno-Lozon & Peris, 1998; Jabnoun, 2005).

2.3.3.2 Transformational Leadership and Continuous Improvement (CI) in Lean Practice

Leadership plays a significant part to create a supportive organisational culture to implement lean (Achanga et al., 2006). This is aligned to Choi and Liker (1995); Liker and Morgan (2006); Huehn-Brown and Murray (2010) indicate that a certain culture is necessary to implement lean practices. To be more specific, Bhasin and Burcher (2006), Gander (2009) and Mann (2009), reveal that lean practice can be implemented in a culture in which all employees are engaged in Continuous Improvement CI.

Woehl (2011) in his leadership research on lean practice in twenty U.S semiconductor companies, reveal that there is a significant correlations between CI, and transformational leadership. The respondents in his study showed that transformational leadership will support a higher degree of lean practices applied in factories implement lean in their factories. Woehl (2011) suggest that companies need to hire and train their leaders to become more transformational leaders to better implement lean manufacturing into their semiconductor companies in the United States. Further, the research results propose that Degree of Leanness is correlated with the level of Continuous Improvement companies are practising. Woehl's (2011) theory is aligned with Macey and Schneider (2008), who argued that transformational leadership will lead to higher engagement, which is considered one lean culture construct.

Independent from lean research, Avolio and Bass (2009) investigated different leadership styles and their impact on continuous improvement (CI); they argued that transformational leadership is superior to transactional leadership to continuously improve organisations. These findings also confirm earlier research by Bass (1985a) also concluded that to change an organisational culture, transformational management is needed. Bass (1985a, 1998) added that transformational leadership can achieve better results than transactional leadership, because employees would put extraordinary effort into their work and they can motivate organisational members

to be more creative and develop new ideas and solutions concerning organisational structures, processes and practices (Bass, 1999; Bass, 2013). This finding supports several researchers in organisational performance who reveal that CI is the core engine of lean manufacturing (Choi & Liker, 1995; Duque & Cadavid, 2007).

2.4 Literature Review Conclusion

As shown in Section 2.3, there is the most evidence that transformational and authentic leadership are linked to better work performance. Still, a number of studies show that there isn't a direct link between the two types of leadership and how well employees do their jobs. After reviewing recent and early studies of these two leadership styles, the researcher finds that there is a gap in the literature for studying in depth the indirect connector between transformational and authentic leadership (Section 2.2.3.5 and 2.2.3.6. In-depth study can be conducted to analyse the deeper role of self-concept with interpersonal trust and organisational trust. One of the connecting factors between transformational and authentic leadership is trust and role modelling, which will be summarised in the next section.

2.4.1 Summary of Role Modelling Literature Review

The literature review has shown that transformational leaders have strong qualities in role modelling (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Tummers & Bakker, 2021; Bakker et al., 2022; Kim et al., 2023). They can act as good role models because they enhance follower capabilities (Avolio et al., 1999; Wang et al. 2017) and self-confidence (Bass et al., 2003). On the other side, some literature shows leaders' challenges in becoming role models (Mumford et al., 2000; Gentry, 2014). The self-concept is the other perspective of role modelling research (Ibarra, 1999; Bakker & Van Woerkom, 2018). The self-concept in role modelling is also positively related to the level of leaders' authenticity (Ibarra, 1999; Bakker & Van Woerkom, 2018). The role model's behaviours begin when leaders compare and contrast their behaviour to the image of a desired future self as a leader (van Knippenberg et al., 2004). Followers begin comparing and contrasting the role model's behaviours with their self-concepts to determine whether to emulate the behaviour (Ibarra & Petriglieri, 2010). With these literature reviews, the researcher identifies some absence of areas for further

investigation, such as to investigate possible mediators between role model leadership and self-concept; and between transformational leadership and self-concept. For example, whether leaders' vision may serve as a mediator between role modelling and self-concept in transformational leadership. In transformational leadership literature or role model leadership theories, there is no significant research evidence about the need for leaders to examine their level of self-clarity and whether it aligns their words, actions, and values.

2.4.2 Summary of Trust Literature Review

The literature review also showed that trust theories are strongly related to transformational leadership (Butler et al., 1999; Wang & Hsieh, 2013; Khalil & Siddiqui, 2019) and authentic leadership (Avolio & Wernsing, 2008; Walumbwa et al., 2008; Avolio & Luthans, 2010; Wong et al., 2010). The degree of trust in transformational leadership can be measured by how much influence, job satisfaction, and commitment behaviour between leaders and employees (Bass, 1999; Zeffane & Connell, 2003). Authentic leaders can build trust through transparency (Walumbwa et al., 2008; Avolio & Luthans, 2010). Another area of trust literature is the relationship between leaders' interpersonal trust and the followers' trust in leaders or vice versa. Rosenberg (1956) suggested that a person with low interpersonal trust would have difficulty establishing transparency. He also added that people need high interpersonal trust to trust others (Rosenberg, 1956). Self-confidence is a sign of leaders who can build trust through an interpersonal process (Bass, 1985a; Zeleznik, 1977). Successful leaders must believe in themselves; If they do not believe in themselves, neither will the others they seek to influence believe in them (Handy, 1982/1992). Literature concerning trust and management has indicated that trust is an essential element in the relationship that transformational leaders have with their followers. There is a dearth of knowledge in the literature review about the requirements for leaders to achieve interpersonal trust. Further research could investigate possible mediators between self-concept in role models or transformational leadership and interpersonal trust; for instance, whether leaders' vision can mediate transformational leaders and interpersonal trust.

2.4.3 Summary of Organisation and Management Literature Review

In organisational theory, the literature review showed that transformational leaders have a greater impact on the organisational innovation than other types of leaders (Yuan et al., 2012) and in building an organisational culture for lean manufacturing, which will help semiconductor companies to create a highly effective work system and to reduce their production cycle time (Woehl, 2011). Possible gaps are found in organisational change literature and lean practice literature. The researcher found one paper on lean manufacturing leadership in semiconductors. Continuous improvement is needed for lean production (Burcher, 2006; Gander, 2009). Further research could investigate possible mediators between transformational leadership vision and continuous improvement (CI). For instance, what is the requirement for leaders to know whether their continuous improvement is going to the right direction of lean manufacturing.

Secondly, despite the positive relationship between transformational leadership and organisational outcome (Bryman, 1996), many organisations found it challenging to implement organisational change successfully (Ansarian, 2014). Major problems that organisations may encounter while implementing change programme tend to be as follows: drive for short-term results (Kotter, 2007), poor leadership (Cummings & Worley, 2005), the complexity of processes and bureaucracy (Hrebiniak, 2006), and lack of employees' motivation and satisfaction (Cater & Pucko, 2010). All these problems are discovered in the data findings of the thesis ([Section 4.4](#)). Not much literature, especially in the semiconductor industry, identifies the above problems and how transformational leadership can solve them.

2.4.4 Summary on Vision Theory

The literature review showed a positive relationship between transformational leaders and organisational vision (Kim, 2014; Li et al., 2018; Istiqomah & Riani, 2021). Transformational leadership has inspired organisational employees to believe in new visions with new opportunities (Kim, 2014; Bass & Avolio, 1995). Recent and early studies show that the effects of transformational leaders with vision are followers' confidence in the leader, respect and trust-based relationship (Conger & Kanungo,

1987; Shamir, 1993; Li et al., 2018; Udin & Shaikh, 2022). The researcher identifies possible absence in the vision and leadership literature. Few studies and no consistent results in leadership literature help leaders distinguish between long-term vision and short-term goals. This topic is related to one of the main themes in data findings in [Section 4.4](#). Some scholar, such as (Kakabadse, 1999), identifies the effect of not having a long-term vision can lead to increased internal competition and organisational failure, which are also found in the data findings of the thesis.

2.4.5 Conclusion

As a result of reviewing the literature, three main issues were identified for this thesis to investigate further.

The literature review integrated and identified all the important factors in transformational leadership, such as higher purpose, long-term vision, intellectual stimulation, and its relation to organisational outcome, change, and innovation. Transformational leadership has been found to have positive relationships with higher and longer-term visions. This promotes intellectual stimulation, as well as challenges and inspires followers to test existing mindsets in order to make changes happen in their organizations. This is confirmed by the literature in organisation and management theory. Transformational leadership positively influences organisational change and innovation. Some of the literature reviewed in [Sections 1.2](#) and [1.3](#) and studies in the semiconductor industry also show the positive impacts of transformational leadership and long-term goals on continuous improvement in improving fast cycle times and effective work processes in some semiconductor companies. However, there is a limited knowledge and research in developing transformational leadership, especially the relationships among higher purpose, long-term vision, and organisational change and innovation.

The second issue noted by the literature review is the lack of information and research about the development of interpersonal trust and authenticity as a practical guide for leaders. The literature review revealed a positive relationship between interpersonal trust and leaders' ability to develop trust-based relationships, influencing their ability to encourage followers to go the extra mile without utilising positional authority.

Literature review also indicate a correlation between strong self-knowledge or self-clarity and authentic leadership that fosters self-confidence. According to studies on leadership in semiconductor businesses, organisations need highly influential leaders who can alter the organisational culture and prepare them for change. Although there is a strong relationship between self-clarity, trust, and impact theories in authentic leadership and transformational leadership, there is a lack of study in this area, particularly in semiconductor companies.

The third issue noted by the literature assessment is the relation between the role model concept and vision theory. There is little research about role modelling in transformational leadership studies especially in semiconductor industry. Literature says that transformational leaders with strong qualities in role modelling create vision, have high initiative to create change, and have strong characteristics to become agents of changes (Northouse, 2001, Avolio et al., 1999). However, there is in clarity of evidences and explanations from academic literature that show the characteristics of leaders' vision that is required to be role model agents of changes.

[The research questions](#) numbered 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 in [Section 1.4](#) are derived from the Section 1.3 research objectives. However, research question No. 6 in Section 1.4 is based on the primary findings of the first-phase interviews, which demonstrate the participants' intense interest in transformational leadership. In conclusion, by combining the primary literature that has been reviewed in greater depth, research questions are formulated without sacrificing the quality of their relations to the three research objectives outlined in [Section 1.3](#). [Appendix 1](#) contains a listing of the primary sources that have been reviewed and helped shape the research questions.

CHAPTER 3

Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The literature review explores the importance of leadership in an organisational outcome such as organisational innovation. Chapter 3 explains how the research is carried out, how the research paradigm is built and how the inductive analysis approach is applied in this study. It identifies the research methodology, the interview techniques and the method chosen to analyse the findings. It also explains how the appropriate research method was designed to achieve the research aims & objectives.

This research applies qualitative interpretivism methodology. The aim of interpretive approaches is to understand how people make sense of their world (Gill & Johnson, 2010). A qualitative approach allows the researcher to achieve a deep understanding of a personal view and the social phenomena within the organisation. It enables the researcher to gather data about the perception of respondents in the context of their setting through a process of attentiveness and empathetic understanding (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.6). Qualitative research also allows the researcher to have a deep understanding of the interviewees' personal views, which builds a rich picture of the stories behind each perspective. For this research, interview as methods will be used because of its flexibility (Bell et al., 2022).

3.2 The Qualitative Research Approach

Two methods to explore a research issue are quantitative and qualitative, and both terms are related to the methodology adopted for data collection and analysis. The quantitative approach mostly has its basis in positivism, and having an objectivist conception of social reality shows that it has a distinctive epistemological position as well as the importance of the presence of numbers in this approach (Bell et al., 2022) which makes it different from qualitative research.

The qualitative approach varies from the quantitative approach and tends to be concerned with words rather than numbers. In the qualitative interpretive approach, the stress is on understanding the social world through examining the interpretation of that world by its participants (Bell et al., 2022). Through 'Verstehen', qualitative methods aim to understand others' experiences by inductively accessing the participants' actual meanings and interpretations (Van Maanen, 1998; Alvesson & Deetz, 2000; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). The participants subjectively and intersubjectively make sense of their worlds, influencing their ongoing social construction and accomplishment of meaningful action (Gill & Johnson, 2010). The qualitative approach permits the researcher to capture data on 'the perception of respondents in the context of their setting, through a process of attentiveness and empathetic understanding' (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 6).

In the present study, qualitative research allows the researcher to understand the personal views of leadership and the effect of their leadership on their organisations in the semiconductor company. It also allows the researcher to comprehend the participants' views about the applied top management's leadership strategy and what kind of effect on them. The qualitative approach helps the researcher get a rich picture of the stories behind each relation; thus, detailed data was collected.

According to Creswell (2014), the qualitative researcher views social phenomena holistically. It demonstrates why qualitative research studies appear to have broad views rather than micro-analysis; it can give the researcher a holistic view of the phenomenon under investigation. There were different ways of collecting qualitative data, such as observation, interviews, documents, and audio-visual materials (Creswell, 2014; Creswell & Poth, 2016), to understand people's perceptions of the phenomenon under investigation in this thesis. The interview is the most widely employed method in qualitative research and is attractive to the researcher because of its flexibility (Bell et al., 2022). One of the advantages of this method is flexibility. Using interviews for this thesis allowed the author to pick up on the interviewees' responses and ask new questions during the interview process, giving new insights into the data.

3.3 The Research Paradigm

The four elements can be defined as the foundation of the research. A foundation of social research aims to provide researchers with a sense of stability and direction as they go on to do their own building; that is, as they move towards understanding and expounding the research process after their own fashion in forms that suit their research purpose (Crotty, 1998). As already mentioned, most of the research paradigms share three fundamental factors which are ontology, epistemology, methodology and method (Creswell, 2003; Creswell & Poth, 2016).

3.3.1 Ontology

Ontology is a study of being. It is concerned with 'what is', with the nature of existence, with the structure of reality as such (Crotty, 1998, p.10). Ontology in business research can be defined as "the science or study of being" (Blaikie N.,2010). It refers to a theory of existence.

Ontology is associated with a question of whether a social phenomenon should be perceived as objective or subjective. Objectivism "is an ontological position that asserts that social phenomena and their meanings have an existence that is independent of social actors (Bryman, 2016). Subjectivism, on the contrary, perceives those social phenomena are created from the perceptions and consequent actions of those social actors concerned with their existence (Bryman, 2016). Realism is an ontological notion asserting that realities exist outside the mind. It is often taken to imply objectivism. In some cases, we even find realism identified with objectivism. Guba and Lincoln (1994, p. 108) certainly posit a necessary link between the two when they claim that 'if, for example, a "real" reality is assumed, the posture of the knower must be one of objective detachment or value freedom in order to be able to discover "how things really are" and "how things really work"'.

The ontological position for the research is objectivism. The knower and the known (Johnson & Duberley, 2000) were separate, did not influence the participants' views. In objectivism, if we see the world as the object of the research. According to Macquarrie (1973, p.57), the world is there regardless of whether human beings are

conscious of it. If there were no human beings, there might still be galaxies, trees and so on. But what kind of a world is there before conscious being engage with it? Many would want to say. Not a world of meaning. It becomes a world of meaning only when meaning making being make sense of it. In the research, the ontology is objectivist, but I can only understand it subjectively. The actors in the two sectors were the source of knowledge of this research. One way that is suggested by Alvesson (2011) to access the knowledge was through interviewing the actors, which is applied in this thesis.

3.3.2 Epistemology

Epistemology is a theory of knowledge embedded in the theoretical perspective and thereby in the methodology (Crotty, 1998, p.3). Epistemology in business research deals with the sources of knowledge. It is concerned with possibilities, nature, sources and limitations of knowledge in the field of study. It can be branded as the study of the criteria by which the researcher classifies what does and does not constitute the knowledge (Hallebone, E.& Priest, J. (2009) "Business and Management Research: Paradigms and Practices" Palgrave Macmillan). Epistemology commitments influence the processes through which we develop what we take as warranted knowledge of the world. Such is deeply held as taken-for-granted assumptions about how we come 'to know' what influences what we experience as being true or false, what we understand as true or false, and indeed whether we think that true and false are viable constructs (Johnson & Duberley, 2000).

According to Crotty (1998), transactional or subjectivist epistemology, is an approach in which people cannot be separated from their knowledge; therefore, there is a clear link between the researcher and research subject. The epistemology position based on the research questions is subjectivist constructionism. Crotty (1998) argues that in constructionism, there is no objective truth waiting for us to discover it. Truth, or meaning, comes into existence in and out of our engagement with the realities in our world. There is no meaning without a mind. Meaning is not discovered but constructed. In the other words, in constructionism, all knowledge and all meaningful reality is constructed in and out of an interaction between human beings and their world and developed and transmitted within a social context. Fish (1990), emphasizes that all

objects are made and not found. In this understanding of knowledge, different people may construct meaning in different ways, even in relation to the same phenomenon. Subject and object emerge as partners in the generations of meaning. Constructionism epistemology is inspired by most of the qualitative research.

In some literature like Heidegger and Merleau-Ponty (1962) indicates that constructionism brought together objectivity and subjectivity. From that viewpoint, meaning (the truth) cannot be described simply as 'objective' nor simply as 'subjective'. They say the world is always there. The world and objects in the world may be in themselves meaningless; yet they are our partners in the generation of meaning. We do not create meaning. We construct meaning and we have something to work with in the world and objects in the world (Humphrey, 1993; Crotty 1998). Although the researcher agrees that we construct meaning, the researcher does not agree on the way she sees her epistemological position as subjective and objective together. The way the researcher sees the research is only subjectivist constructionism.

The answer to epistemology position for this research lies with the purpose of the research. There is no objective truth to my interviewees' understanding of leadership. The meaningful realities of it are constructed in and out of interactions between the interviewees and their social context in the company.

3.3.3 Interpretive Approach as Methodology

The third factor of the research paradigm is methodology; that concern the rationales behind the procedures and what is believed is possible to be known (Creswell, 2014; Creswell & Poth, 2016). Methodology for the researcher is a philosophical stance informing the method and providing context for the process and its logic. This research applies qualitative interpretivism methodology. Interpretivist believes that people are constantly involved in interpreting and reinterpreting their world – social situation, other people's actions, their own actions and natural and humanly created objects (Blaike, 2007). Max Weber (1864-1920) suggests that interpretivism in the human sciences is concerned with *Verstehen* (understanding). Interpretivism was conceived in reaction to the effort to develop a natural science of the social. On the other side, a positivist

would follow the methods of natural science. A positivist detaches observation and seeks to identify a universal feature of humanhood, society and history that offer an explanation and hence control and predictability. On the contrary, interpretivism looks for culturally derived and historically situated interpretations (T. Schwandt, 1994).

The researcher believes that the subject under examination is socially constructed by individuals, so it can be understood from the point of view of the minds of the individuals who are directly involved in it. As Mead (1934) argues, humans have a sense of self that they develop through interactions with others-'through senses of self that we construct the actions that we take towards objects in our world'. The methodology of the research is aligned to Walsham (1995) who argues that knowledge is a social construction by human actors and that this applies equally to researchers. Therefore, reality for the researcher is an intersubjective construction of the shared human cognitive apparatus (Walsham, 1995). According to Blumer (1969), meaning arises from social interactions.

In interpretivism research, the researcher sees social phenomena holistically and systematically reflect on who I am in the inquiry (Creswell, 2003). Through the qualitative method (Van Maanen 1998; Alvesson & Deetz, 2000; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000) the researcher understands the interviewees' understanding of leadership by inductively accessing the actual meaning and interpretations the subjectively and intersubjectively deploy making sense of their worlds and which influence their on-going social construction and accomplishment of meaningful actions (Gill & Johnson , 2010). The qualitative approach allows the researcher to capture data on 'the perception of respondents in the context of their setting, through a process of attentiveness and empathic understanding' (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 6). By recognizing the link between studying others and discovering about self as learner and change agent researchers 'bring the place of epistemology, the place of the meaning of data and enquiry to the forefront of activity (Rosen, 1991: 2). Hence individual employees in the company were thought likely to view the phenomenon of leadership differently because they are from different backgrounds and have different experiences of their work experience and relationships in the organisation.

Nature has to be studied from the outside, whereas social phenomena have to be studied from the inside (Blaikie, 2007) and Interpretivism research applies to see the subject from the inside (Blaikie, 2007). This is aligned with Johnson and Duberley (2013) say that social analysis always has been an interpretative dimension. However, the researcher sees that social phenomena need to be seen from both inside and outside. It depends on how Blaikie defines 'inside' and 'outside'. The researcher makes her interpretation through the overall social phenomena she experiences in interviews. The perceptions and interpretations of meaning and language are the basis of forms of reality construction that reveal and conceal subjects' experiences (Morrow, Brown, 1994). The stance taken is an interpretative one which attempts to construct a sense of situations from personal and institutional standpoints through participation, observation, and analysis of contextual data (Johnson & Duberley, 2000).

Bulmer (1969) says that meaning is handled and modified through an on-going interpretive process; meanings are not fixed, and it is a process. Two reasons why the researcher agrees with Bulmer's statement. Firstly, because the actors (the researcher or participants) have subjective abilities, both emotional and cognitive, which influence how we consciously make choices about how to behave, where and when. How people behave is based on their perceptions and interpretations (Gill & Johnson, 2010). Secondly, the meaning of any experience will depend on the current struggle over the interpretation and definition of that experience (Giroux 1983; McLaren 1986; Weiler 1988). Nevertheless, Mead (1934) argues that humans have a sense of self that they develop through interactions with others – 'through senses of self, we construct the action that we take towards objects in our world. Therefore, the research should create a space where many voices can speak – particularly those with little power are asked to articulate their definitions of their situations (Johnson & Duberley, 2000). Knowledge could be validated through practical discourse and reassign objectifying behaviour and decision to their neutral and passive status. (Alvesson, M. & Willmott, H., 1992), p196).

Later at the data analysis stage when the researcher was interpreting data, the researcher was engaged with it and vigorously interpreted it. Hence what the researcher calls the data is really the constructions of the interviewees' construction (Geertz, 1973).

3.3.4 Interviews as Methods

Methods are the techniques or procedures used to gather and analyze data related to some research question or hypothesis (Crotty, 1998). There are different ways of collecting qualitative data, such as observation, interviews, documents, and audio-visual material (Creswell, 2014), to understand people's perceptions of the phenomenon under investigation. This research uses interview methods. According to Creswell (2014), qualitative researcher views social phenomena holistically, new questions during the interview process, giving new insights into the data. This explains why qualitative research studies appear as broad views rather than micro-analyses; this gave me a holistic view of the whole phenomenon under investigation. The interview is the most widely employed method in qualitative research and appeals to researchers because of its flexibility (Bell et al., 2022). Alvesson and Deetz (2000:194) describe interviews as a "... difficult but highly useful method ...". Like Bryman and Bell, King (2004) also states that interview is the most common method of data gathering in qualitative research, which is flexible, well understood by participants, and delivers rich data (King 1994:14).

Another method that is appropriate for qualitative research is observation. However, observation is not defined it as the research method for this study because of some reasons. Firstly, since the researcher works at the same company although not in the same department/group with them, she prefers to have a defined period to collect the data. With interview as the method, the researcher can set a particular period to experience the social construction in the interviews and the text data for later analysis. Secondly, with a defined period, the interviewees will know when they need to focus and give their full engagement. Lastly, it will make the researcher's tasks more straightforward.

To sum up, the ontological and epistemological views for this study frame the researcher's interaction with what she researching. Both perspectives affect the methodology how she goes about finding out knowledge and carrying out a research. The epistemology position dictates what kind of methodology will be used. The interpretivism perspective enables the researcher to understand the organisation culture. Interviews are chosen to be the method for this thesis, because of their

flexibility (Bell et al., 2022). The interview method allows the researcher to pick up on the interviewees' responses, ask new questions during the interview process and to observe their body language or their intonation during the interview process. This information gives the researcher new insight or/and deeper insight and as well sense of authenticity's recognition of the data. Figure 3.0 illustrate the research paradigm for the research.



Figure 3.0 The Research Paradigm

Based on the four elements of the research paradigm, the interview techniques, data collection procedures and data analysis approach will be explained in the sections that follow.

3.4 The Interview Techniques

Interviews are widely classified by their position in qualitative research (Edwards & Holland, 2013). The three common categories of interviews include; structured, semi-structured, and unstructured (Gill et al., 2008; Edwards & Holland, 2013; Stuckey, 2013). The primary difference between the categories mentioned is based on the power possessed by the interviewer, and in each category, the researcher carries some degree of responsibility (Gill et al., 2008). The semi-structured interview technique was selected as the primary approach to collect data in this thesis because of its ability to assist in interpreting the significance of particular incidents articulated

by those being interviewed (Richardson, Dohrenwend, & Klein, 1965; Borg & Gall, 1989). Kerlinger (1986) describes the face-to-face interview as a valuable technique for social scientific research because of its flexibility and adaptability (Kerlinger, 1986).

The semi-structured interview is the most used type by qualitative researchers (Alshenqeeti, 2014). Just like structured interviews, this type of interview is also an outline of topics and questions prepared by the researcher (Stuckey, 2013). Nevertheless, unlike structured, semi-structured interviews have no strict adherence (Stuckey, 2013). Their execution is dependent on how the interviewee reacts to the question or topics laid across by the researcher. Although there is a set of guiding questions, the subject's response gives the researcher the flexibility to ask more enhanced questions than the initially prepared ones (Stuckey, 2013). Other scholars claim that semi-structured interviews are the sole source of information for qualitative researchers (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006).

Face-to-face and telephone interviews tend to be the most utilized techniques (Jackle, Roberts, & Lynn, 2006). Besides the two mentioned techniques, messenger and email interviews are a growing method for interviewing (Opdenakker, 2006). Traditionally, face-to-face interviews were and continue to be the most preferred interview mode (Sullivan, 2013). The interview technique was the primary method for collecting data in this research (Silverman, 1997). This thesis uses the semi-structured in-depth of, face-to-face, one-on-one, and in-person interview. It was the researcher's concern and interest to get a detailed and profound picture of the interviewees' perceptions and understanding of the interactive process of the collaboration. Therefore semi-structured interviews could facilitate this aim. According to Silverman(1997), qualitative interviews provide a means to explore the points of view of our research subjects.

Constructivism is built upon the premise of the social construction of reality (Searle, 1995). One of the advantages of this method is the close collaboration between the researcher and the interviewees while enabling participants to tell their stories (Crabtree & Miller, 1999). Through these stories, the participants can describe their

views of reality, enabling the researcher to understand better the participants' actions (Lather, 1992; Robottom & Hart, 1993).

The interview process contains open-ended and probing questions that follow each central question (Stewart & Cash, 1985). The primary questions contributed a frame of reference for the participant's responses but placed no restrictions on the content and manner of those responses. The probes were a mixture of open-ended questions, closed-ended questions and restatements. This technique allowed the freedom to explore participant answers as the nonstructured interview does, but it also provided parameters for the interview. This technique can be replicated relatively easily with multiple participants, produces data that can be analyzed and compared, and does not require a highly trained interviewer. Further, this interview technique sometimes yields unexpected answers that may indicate the existence of unanticipated relationships.

The Critical Incident Technique created by Flanagan (1954) is also implemented in this research. With that technique, the participants describe reflected observations of critical incidents they experienced in their life and work. McClelland (1978) determined that additional probing in such an interview allowed particular critical incidents to be explored until behaviours, thoughts, and feelings were adequately articulated. Campbell et al. (1970) describe the Critical Incident Technique as one of the most effective methods for assessing leadership and managerial behaviours because of its ability to focus on the dynamics leaders judge to have impacted their development as leaders. Critical incident reflection allows the researcher to search for and compare underlying reasoning and assumptions about leadership development (Campbell et al., 1970). The participants were asked to recall and describe incidents that had the most impact on their development of leadership skills. After initial recollection and articulation, the interviewer used additional probing questions. These probes intended to gain as much description as possible about the incidents. The ultimate goal was to understand how the described experiences were developed. The questions asked included: (1) What do you consider your definition of leadership? (2) What critical incidents in your life or career have helped you learn to be a leader? (3) What leadership development gaps do you see in the company studied?

During the interview session, the focus was on discovering the participants' responses related to the objectives and the research questions described in Section 1.3 and Section 1.4. The advantages of this method are that participants can provide historical information and allow the researcher 'control' over the line of questioning (Creswell, 2014; Creswell & Poth, 2016). It allows the researcher to fully explore the topic from the respondent's perspective (Doole, 2000). As Denzin and Lincoln (2000) argue, an interview is a conversation; it is not a neutral tool, for at least two people create the reality of the interview situation. The researcher gained historical and in-depth information about their explanation and the stories of their current and past condition.

Face-to-face interviews are advantageously based on the amount of data that can be collected (Opdenakker, 2006). In a general interview, the researcher has the time to get comfortable and articulate issues with the subject (Opdenakker, 2006). Besides quantity, the quality of data collected is high (Opdenakker, 2006). However, completing face-to-face interviews can require a long time (Doyle, 2005).

3.5 Data Collection Methods and Procedures

As established in Section 3.4, the semi-structured in-depth interview is most preferred for qualitative data collection (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). For a formal interview to be conducted, the researcher should begin by appropriately assembling the participants (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). In addition to the unbiased selection, the participants need to be equipped, mainly through light training by the researcher (Doyle, 2005; Hancock, Windridge, & Ockleford, 2009). Having considered the relevant selection factors, analysts identify a list of other simple but significant aspects that must be considered for an interview process (Jacob & Furgerson, 2012). The researcher should also rely on open-ended questions to elicit the appropriate response from the participant (Jacob & Furgerson, 2012).

The researcher starts with the main aspects and contains an appropriate personal topic introduction related to constructing an excellent rapport to achieve the efficiency of the entire interview process. The researcher initiates by asking specific questions

and moving toward the complex ones. The interviewer should assert some authority, but not to the point that makes the participant tense (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). During the process, the collected data are documented in two ways. One way is through note-taking. Besides/apart from being a simple and easy tool, note-taking attempts to limit unwanted responses from the participant. Other modes of storing interview data include audiotape recording and videotape recording. The participant's consent is required for using these two forms (Harell & Bradley, 2009). High-quality tapes and noise-free background are fundamental to retrieve high quality of data from storage.

3.5.1 The First Phase of Data Collection

In the first phase of the interview session, the researcher asked [the research questions](#) No. 1 until No. 6, which are defined in [Section 1.4](#). Preliminary interviews were conducted with five high-level, middle, and lower-level managers from the different departments in the company. The descriptive characteristics of the organisation is described in [Section 4.3.1](#). [Table 3.0](#) shows the sample distribution from the interviews for the first phase of the study. The appointments with interviewees were made at different stages. First, the researcher sent the researcher's profile and the research summary to different High-Level managers of Business Units Departments.

Departement	Position	Name
A	High Level Manager	Greg
B	High Level Manager	Marco
C	High Level Manager	Adam
A	Middle Level Manager	Micah
A	Low Level Manager	Maria

Table 3.0 First-Phase Participants List

In the second stage, three High-Level Managers from different Business Units Departments contacted the researcher to show their interest. They suggested having the first face-to-face appointment with the researcher to learn more details about the research. In the first appointment, the researcher described the background, the aim,

the objective of the research, and the interview technique applied. The next step after the first meeting was to arrange an appointment for a preliminary interview with the high-level managers from Business Units Departments A, B and C.

Having conducted the three preliminary interviews with Business Units Departments A, B and C, the researcher set another appointment with them to have their feedback. In that feedback meeting, the High-Level Management of Business Units Department A, B and C showed interest in collaborating on the research. They gave feedback by giving suggestions about other potential candidates in their department who might be considered for interviews. The Business Unit Department A gave the option to the researcher to conduct other preliminary interviews with the middle and lower-level managers before executing the primary interviews.

In the third stage, the researcher followed up with each suggested potential interviewee in Departments A, B and C and made an appointment with them. From the researcher's point of view, getting the high-level manager's approval to interview the leader-managers underneath is essential. It is crucial because of the data protection, ethical issues, and the assurance that any information would only be used for the study. All these issues will be thoroughly discussed in the ethical issues section.

Potential participants were asked by email whether they would allow the researcher to make audio recordings of the interviews. However, at the beginning of the interview sessions, the researcher thanked the respondents for their participation, reconfirmed that the researcher would like to record the conversation, and then recorded the participants' reconfirmation about using the audio tape recorder. There were no cases where the participants objected to using the recorder during the conversations—the same procedure taken when making appointments and getting respondents' agreement for the second data collection phase.

It is an open-ended question to begin the conversation and understand the interviewee's narrative account of their history, self-understandings, and essential incidents that have influenced their values and behaviours (Levitan et al. I, 2018). This is in line with Creswell's theory (2014) about keeping the question broad so as not to limit the scope of participants' perspectives. Creswell (2014) argues that a researcher

should not pose more than five or seven sub-questions to develop the sub-questions. According to Gill and Johnson (2010), human beings can attach meaning to the events and phenomena surrounding them. The interpretive inductive researcher is privileged to stand back and listen to the actors' perceptions about their experience and background in the interviews; the interviewer and the interviewees are separated (Johnson & Duberley, 2000). The interviewees can provide historical information and allow the researcher 'control' over the line of questioning (Creswell, 2014).

In this research, the fundamental questions at the beginning of each interview made respondents more comfortable in answering the rest of the questions during the interview session, which led the conversation to a trusting relationship between the interviewee and the researcher. The researcher had a list of questions based on the [research aims](#) of the literature review framework shown in [Sections 1.2](#) and [2](#). Before the main questions, some basic questions were asked, such as the role of the interviewee in the organisation, working experience, the number of staff, and the company's turnover. In some cases, respondents raised exciting points which were useful to the research. At the end of the interview, participants were asked whether they would like to add anything to the conversation. All interviews were audio-recorded, conducted for about an hour, and held in a closed meeting room.

All the interviewees showed a high interest in leadership topics, primarily transformational leadership, finding meaning and self-identity, and expressing their understanding of leadership by comparing leaders and managers. Therefore, the results of the study's first phase from the three high-level managers, one middle-level manager, and one lower-level manager revealed similarity. Moreover, the researcher conducted two outcomes of the first five interviews that the researcher can use to improve the primary (second-phase) interviews.

First, the researcher identified similarities of each five first interviews. They all show a particular behaviour that they cannot apply their wished leadership's concept in their organisation. They show their desire to see and be able to be transformational leadership perspective; however, the condition of their organisation or company prevent them. They are not satisfied with the performance of their organisations, and all of them described some vision conflict between top management and employees.

The first inputs indicated the researcher to learn more about that specific topic, such as transformational leadership, self-identity concepts, and vision theories. More profound research in that area helped the researcher better prepare for the sub-questions.

Secondly, the first-phase interview also helped the researcher understand the good length of the interview, how to give the interviewees enough time to think before answering, and to give a sense of trust within the interview's atmosphere. From the first-phase interviews, all interviewees like to have time to think without feeling raced against the time. All five interviews took almost more than an hour. [Figure 3.1](#) shows the main preliminary findings and outcomes of the first phase of the study.

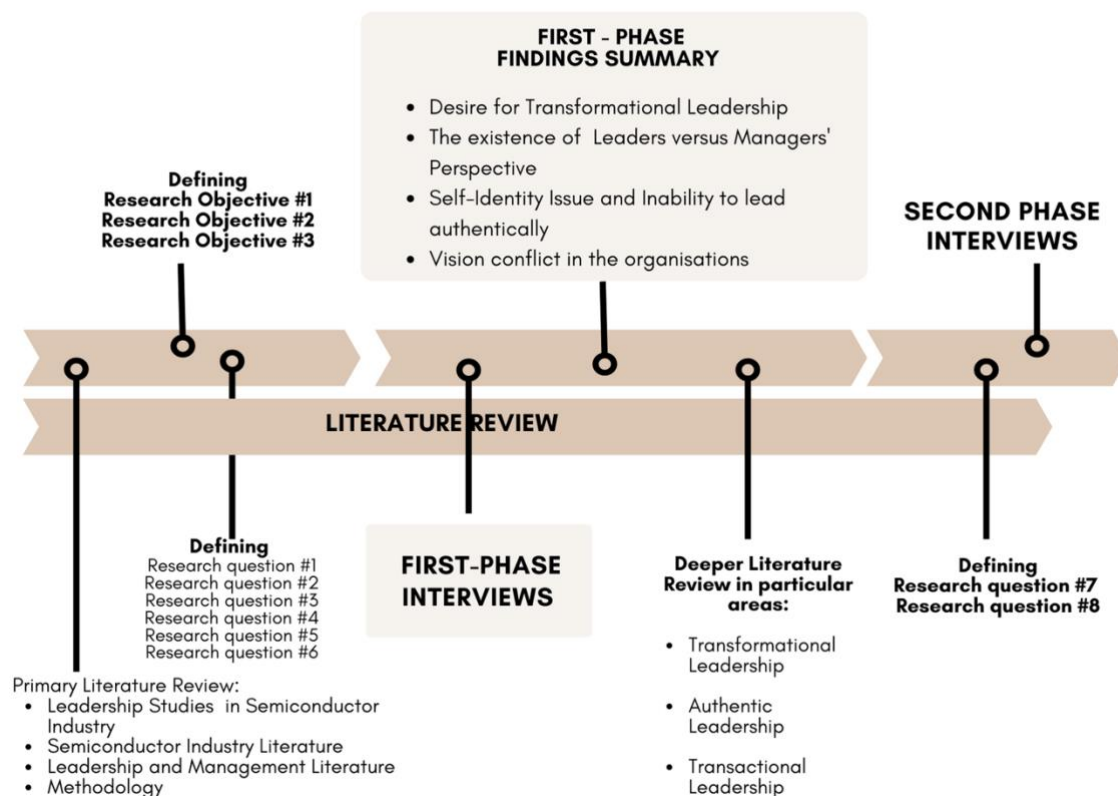


Figure 3.1 Main Preliminary Findings and Relation to Overall Data Collection

3.5.2 Second Phase of Data Collection

The preliminary or the first-phase findings gave important information for the researcher on which leadership area that needs to focus on. All five interviewees from

the first-phase data collection show similar leadership and organisational behaviours topics, as shown in [Figure 3.1](#) (First-Phase Findings). The researcher used the findings from the first data collection process to study and conduct more literature reviews, especially on transformational and authentic leadership. A deeper literature review gave the researcher more input on possible sub-questions in the second phase or primary data collection.

After the preliminary interviews, the primary data collection stage was conducted. The Departments A, B, and C were selected to represent a range of organisations across the company. All departments in the company apply the same management system from the top management. Fifteen managers and non-managers from Departments A, B and C were identified. Five interviewees from the first phase data collection were among the fifteen participants of the second phase data collection. [Table 4.1](#) in [Section 4.3.2](#) reveals the details and the descriptive characteristic of the fifteen participants.

The fifteen interviewees are from three different departments, from high-level to first-level managers. [Figure 3.2](#) displays the leadership levels of the fifteen participants. The majority of high-level managers have about one hundred to three hundred subordinates. Each business unit has its specific product and contribution to the company. More details about the characteristics of the organisations is described in [Section 4.3.1](#).

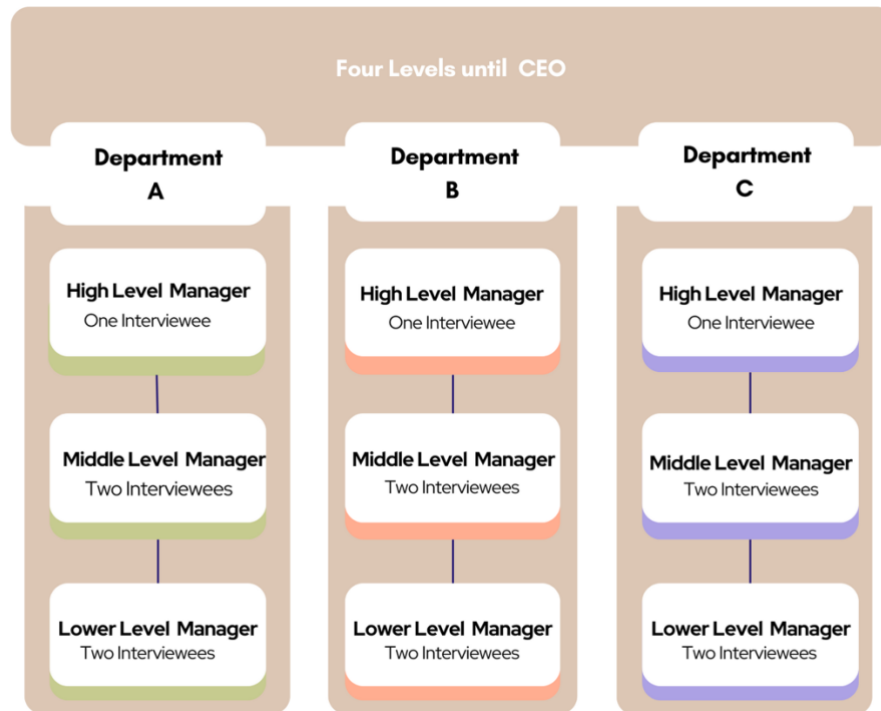


Figure 3.2 Participants' Leadership Level

Creswell (2014) explains that the idea behind interpretive research is to purposefully select participants who are thought to be most capable of assisting the researcher in understanding the problem and research question. Thus, in this research, purposive sampling demanded the researcher to think critically about the population's parameters and choose the sample case carefully (Silverman, 2008). The number of interviewees was not predetermined, and in the end, it was determined by the extent to which the researcher attained a form of 'closure'. To answer whether fifteen is sufficient, King said this is "... not solely a matter of research logistics"... "Interviews need to be planned, scheduled, conducted, which texts are typed and analysed, so a large number is unfeasible. According to King (2004), ensuring representativeness does not depend on a large number of texts. That is why this research is applied subjectivist interpretive, in which the researcher decided to select fifteen interviewees. This is because the researcher had found a representative results from the data obtained. The researcher prefers a precise analysis with one tangible result instead of having too much data that cannot be analysed qualitatively.

As established in [Section 3.5.1](#), the findings from the first-phase data collection give more reference on topics the researcher needs to have a deeper insight. Based on the

finding from the first-data collection, [research question No. 6](#) (see [Section 1.4](#)) was added to the second-phase interview ([see Figure 3.1](#)).

The interview techniques used in the second phase of data collection are the same as the first phase or as established in [Section 3.4](#). The researcher did not strictly follow the list but instead varied the sequence as the researcher picked up on particular subjects said by the interviewee. The interviewees were asked the same questions. However, they answered all the questions in a different order from the list of interview questions. In this type of semi-structured interview, interviewees talked about what they were experiencing and what they thought about subjects among them. It allowed the researcher to clarify the questions and answers and also ask new questions, following up interviewee's replies through the interaction between the researcher and participants to get a rich picture of each interviewee.

3.6 Data Analysis Approach

Three broad tasks are defined for qualitative data analysis, namely data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing or verification (Miles & Huberman, 1994, pp 10-11). Data reduction involves selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the data that appears in transcriptions. It is also a form of analysis that organises data to establish a 'final' conclusion (Miles & Huberman, 1994). This Section explains the data analysis approach, including the analytic induction approach. In developing the analytical approach, the interview transcripts were analysed, producing a provisional list of identified standard features and deviant cases. Then, similarities among categories were established (Johnson, 1998). The details of the data analysis procedures in practice and findings will be illustrated in [Chapter 4](#).

3.6.1 General Analytic Induction

This research, as social science research, needs to focus its analysis on which explanations of human action are generated inductively during data collection to develop an understanding of the interpretations deployed by the studied actors (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). It was decided to adopt a general inductive analytical process to interpret the data. The induction method is the process of proceeding from

particulars to the general- universals (Locke, 2007). Its function starts with an observation or something puzzling and needs exploration, e.g. a general question that ends up with a new theory. Generalisation is questionable in this approach because, according to Bryman (2016), the scope of the findings of the qualitative research is restricted. It is impossible to know how the results can be generalised to other settings. Can one or two cases be representative of all claims? The answer is no. However, qualitative research findings are generalised to theory rather than the population. It is crucial to ensure the quality of the theoretical inferences drawn from the qualitative data for the assessment of generalisation.

Tom (2006) states that the inductive approach is a systematic procedure for analysing qualitative data in which specific evaluation objectives guide the analysis. The process begins with reading the raw data and the identification of concepts, themes, or a model through interpretations made from the data by the researcher (Tom, 2006). The next stage of the coding process in inductive analysis (Tom, 2006) is to find the similarities among the codes. Miles and Huberman (1994) argue that pattern coding is a way of grouping codes into a smaller number of sets, themes, or constructs. Each transcription was read several times and labelled and coded every sentence, phrase or paragraph based on the researcher's interpretation of the raw data. Codes are links between locations in the data and sets of concepts or ideas, and they are heuristic devices that enable the researcher to go beyond the data (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). Lincoln and Guba (1985) state that the coding process can be finished when the categories are saturated, incidents can be readily classified, and sufficient repetition occurs in the data. Glaser and Strauss (1967, p. 61) 'theoretical saturation' – happened, i.e. 'where no additional data [was] found whereby the sociologist could develop properties of the category'. In other words, the researcher encounters repetition in the answers to the interview questions, and there was not much new data presented by the participants.

However, Gill and Johnson (2010) argue that human beings can attach meaning to the events and phenomena surrounding them. For instance, examining managers and non-managers in the company could reveal different understandings and views because they are from different organisational contexts and have different experiences of a relationship with each other. It also provides good contrasts and comparisons,

thereby confronting the emergent theory with the patterning of social events under different circumstances (Johnson, 1998; Symon & Cassell, 1998). McCracken (1998) believes that the object of analysing qualitative data is to determine the categories, relationships and assumptions that inform the respondent's view of the world in general and the topic in particular. Johnson (1998) claims analytic induction is a set of methodological procedures that tries to generate a theory grounded in the observation. This approach shaped the researcher's thoughts in applying the analytical induction approach to the data analysis. [Figure 3.3](#) below illustrates the procedures of analytic induction approach. The induction method is the process of proceeding from particulars to the general- universals (Locke, 2007). In developing the analytical approach, the researcher gathers all data from all interviewees. The interview transcripts were analysed, producing a provisional list of identified standard features and deviant cases. Then, similarities among categories were established. The researcher adjusts deviant features by linking them with common features or generating a new category with unique features.

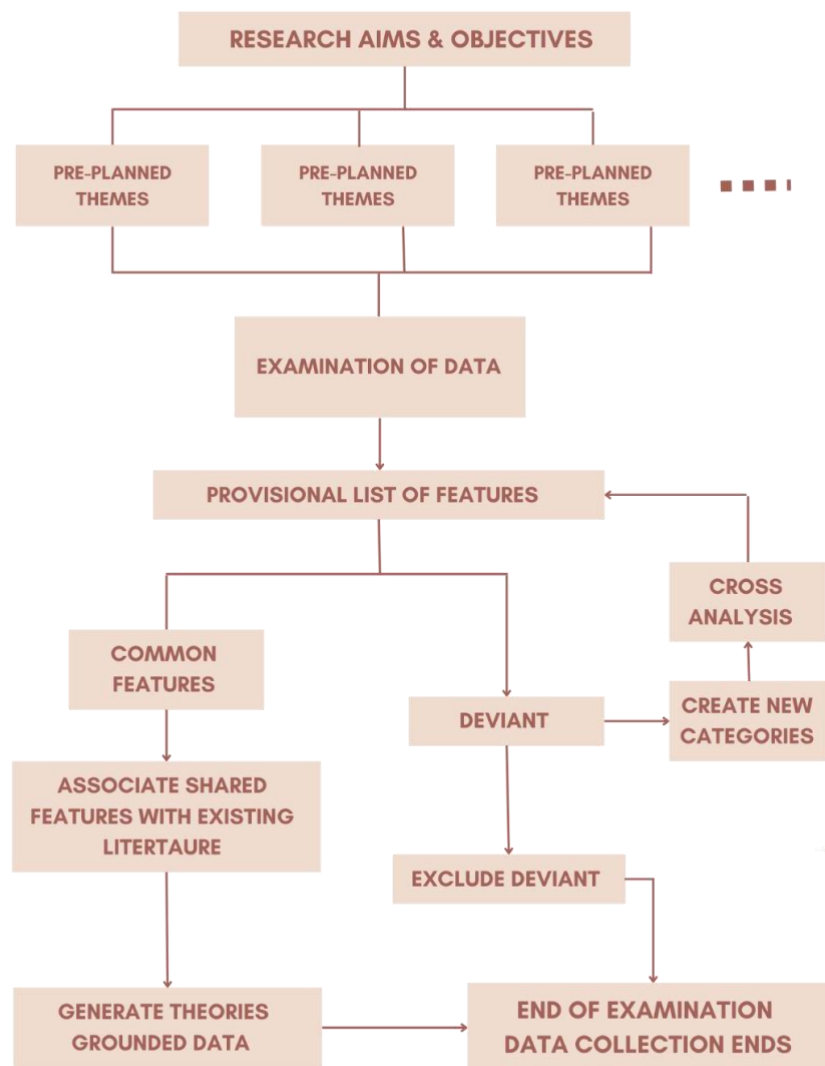


Figure 3.3 Analytic Induction Approach

3.7 Problems encountered

The research encountered several problems during data collection and data analysis. The first issue was generally related to making appointments with the participants. At one interview with one of the high-level managers, the researcher and interviewee agreed on a one-hour meeting. In the middle of the interview, the interviewee received a call and apologised that he needed to answer the call and apologised again that he needed to leave the session in ten minutes, hence cutting the interview to half an hour.

Therefore, the researcher tried to ask a few crucial questions, as the view of the interviewees was essential to the research. In some cases, the researcher needed to practice interpersonal skills to communicate effectively.

The second challenge was that the researcher would have liked to conduct interviews with leaders-manager from different business unit departments. However, the potential participants from the other department sometimes refused to participate in the research. The difficulty in getting access to different departments was a considerable struggle for the researcher. The communication with some departments or people was smooth and helpful. However, it was sometimes tough to convince some departments to participate in the research.

The third one was related to using an audio file recorder. In one case, the interviewer did not press the recording button correctly and missed a one-hour interview and needed to reschedule another appointment with one of the interviewees. Once, it took five months to reschedule the appointment due to a hectic schedule and workload. It was hard to set the time to repeat the interview; the interviewee understandably did not have the same interest in the questions. Therefore, the interviewer required technical skills and attention to detail. The researcher learned to double-check the recording device even during the interview process for the rest of the interviews.

The fourth issue was related to the problem of transcribing some interviews, which were conducted based on the interviewees' assumptions. Sometimes interviewees did not answer the question directly. These interviewees took time to discover themselves somehow and used the interviews session as the time to reflect their thoughts. That caused some difficulty for the researcher while transcribing the audio, and sometimes, the transcribing process took considerable time. However, the researcher made some important notes during the interview sessions, which eased the researcher to obtain the golden thread of the interviews.

3.8 Ethical Issues

As a manager within the organisation, the researcher understands the insecurity that participants may feel when discussing challenging topics such as their personal leadership and the leadership of their supervisors. With clear ethical procedures and a good background on the company, the researcher has an advantage to set structural concept in providing participants with a sense of security and the confidence to encourage them of the usefulness of identifying the right leadership to solve problems that their organisations face.

The organisations conducting the research are selected from among three departments. The researcher does not, however, work in these three departments. Under these circumstances, the researcher understands the company's culture. However, the researcher does not participate in the internal politics of the three departments where she conducts her research. The researcher arranged meetings with all high-level managers from the three chosen departments. Section 4.3 provides information regarding the departments and the participants. Before sending out a request for participants to individuals who may be interested, the researcher discussed the ethical procedure in detail with the high-level managers of the three chosen departments. For instance, procedures for data collection, analysis, and documentation. Prior to requesting an interview, the researcher also discussed the aims and objectives of the study. The purpose of the initial communication is to ensure that the participants feel comfortable and are prepared to contribute their best effort to achieving the research's objectives.

The upper-level managers of Departments A, B, and C provide their assistance with the research and offer the researcher with suggestions regarding the potential participants in their respective groups. Before actually notifying the potential interviewees based on the three high-level managers of the department, the researcher requested written permission from the high-level managers. Using the written recommendations and permission of three high-level managers, the researcher drafted emails to potential interviewees. The researcher requests an in-person meeting with potential interviewees so that she can explain the purpose of the study and the ethical procedure based on an agreement with their high-level managers.

The researcher considered the ethical issues throughout the research process before the data collection, presentation, analysis and writing the thesis. As human beings were involved in the research, a proposal was sent to the university research committee to ensure that the research did not harm the participants (Diener & Crandall, 1978). By sending the participating request to the potential participants, the research aim was clarified for the recipients. The researcher informed the participants that the interview was solely for academic purposes, and the researcher would not use it for any others. The researcher informed the potential interviewees about the confidentiality of the interview contents and asked them whether they would like to participate. The interviewees were informed that the researcher would like to make audio recording if they agreed. Otherwise, the researcher would consider using other methods, such as note-taking. All information, including text files and audio files, is stored on a password-protected external hard drive.

All the respondents confirmed their interest in participating by email. On the issue of an invasion of privacy (Diener & Crandall, 1978), the researcher let potential participants choose the interview location. The AoM Code of Ethical Conduct recommends that issues relating to confidentiality and anonymity should be agreed upon with the potential research participants (Bell et al., 2022).

During the course of conducting the interviews, quality and integrity were maintained. To ensure compliance with the University's ethics policy and procedures (SHU University Research Ethics Committee, 2017), the following points were explained and signed by the participants prior to the interview: Requests for participation in the interview section were made to each participant individually. There were no incentives for interview participation or for providing specific information. Interviews were conducted only with people who voluntarily participated in the study. The participant was given information about the study, and the study did not begin until she confirmed that all of his or her questions had been answered. Before beginning the interview, each participant signed a consent form containing this confirmation. Partners in the interview had the option to omit questions or topics they did not feel comfortable discussing or to end the interview. To protect personal and company data, all participant information was handled in strict confidence and anonymity. The

researcher ensured that organisations and individuals were not identified or published identifiable findings (Bell et al., 2022). The researcher considered the issue of anonymity of individual respondents in presenting data; for example, letters ('A, B,H') were used instead of the department names, the position of the participants mentioned in the research, and the name of the company and its departments were not revealed.

The data of the study (recordings of interviews, memos, etc.) will not be included in the publication and will be used solely for the purposes of this study, with the exception of certain excerpts that are essential to the research and do not permit inferences about the interviewee. At the conclusion of the retention period, the record will be deleted. Before incorporating any of the interview information into the thesis, the interviewees had the opportunity to review their interview notes and ask questions about them. This conforms to the University's ethics policies and procedures (SHU University Research Ethics Committee, 2017).

3.9 Methodology Summary

This Section discusses the researcher's philosophical stance, the guide to the research design, method and methodology. It raises several fundamental aspects of research, which have come together to form a practical approach that analyses the understanding of leadership in the company where the study takes place. However, it is not to claim that this is the only methodology setting that works for this type of research.

The research question shaped the philosophical perspective of the researcher, i.e. an interpretive approach to understanding the perceived reality of leadership concept and impact in a semiconductor company. This approach affected the research method. A qualitative research approach was adopted to explore the research issue from the respondents' perspective. To obtain rich and comprehensive data, semi-structured interviews were conducted as the data collection method. The purposive sampling techniques were used to gain access to the samples; this approach helped find

participants with the relevant knowledge about the subjects, which increased the data quality and reliability.

In total, fifteen semi-structured interviews were conducted from three different departments. The participants with managerial and non-managerial positions were chosen to give a whole picture of what is going on and what is happening in terms of leadership and organisational outcome. The data collection process started in January 2018 and finished in December 2020. The analysis begins with transcribing recorded interviews, multiple readings, and interpretations of the transcriptions. Then, it continues with coding the words or statements, developing categories or themes from the coding, and finding sub-topics, including contradictory points of view and new insights. The next step is selecting some of the findings that were significantly surprising and interesting to make arguments and interpreting them continuously to draw the collaboration model from the emerging themes. The limitations and ethical issues considered in this research are explained at the end of the chapter. Chapter 3 explains the data analysis approach, including the analytic induction approach. The details of the data analysis procedures in practice and findings will be illustrated in [Chapter 4](#).

CHAPTER 4

Data Analysis and Findings

4.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the data analysis procedure, including qualitative data reduction, and how the data led to three main themes. It also examines the participants' main concerns and highlights the contribution to the knowledge and practice of this thesis, which will also be explained in the Conclusion chapter.

Thomas (2006) claims that many procedures associated with qualitative data analysis are related to specific approaches, such as grounded theory (Strauss & Cobin, 1998), phenomenology (e.g. Van Manen, 1990), discourse analysis (e.g. Potter and Wetherell, 1994) and narrative analysis (Lieblich, 1998). However, a widely-used strategy in qualitative data analysis is the 'general inductive approach' (Dey, 1993; Bryman & Burgess, 2002). Thomas displays that the inductive approach is a systematic technique for analysing qualitative data in which specific evaluation objectives guide the analysis. It directs to detailed readings of the raw data, which drives the identification of concepts, themes, or a model through interpretations made from the data (Thomas, 2006).

The researcher starts with an area of study and allows the theory to emerge from the data, hence building an understanding of data analysis and theory in a manner that is consistent with Corbin's (1998) grounded theory methodology. The researcher followed a systematic procedure. The aim was to reduce the mass of raw data through coding and to categorise it. Another aim is to display clear links between the research objectives and the findings transparently and defensibly. Figures 4.0 below illustrate the data analysis procedure and themes and sub-categories which emerged from the data.

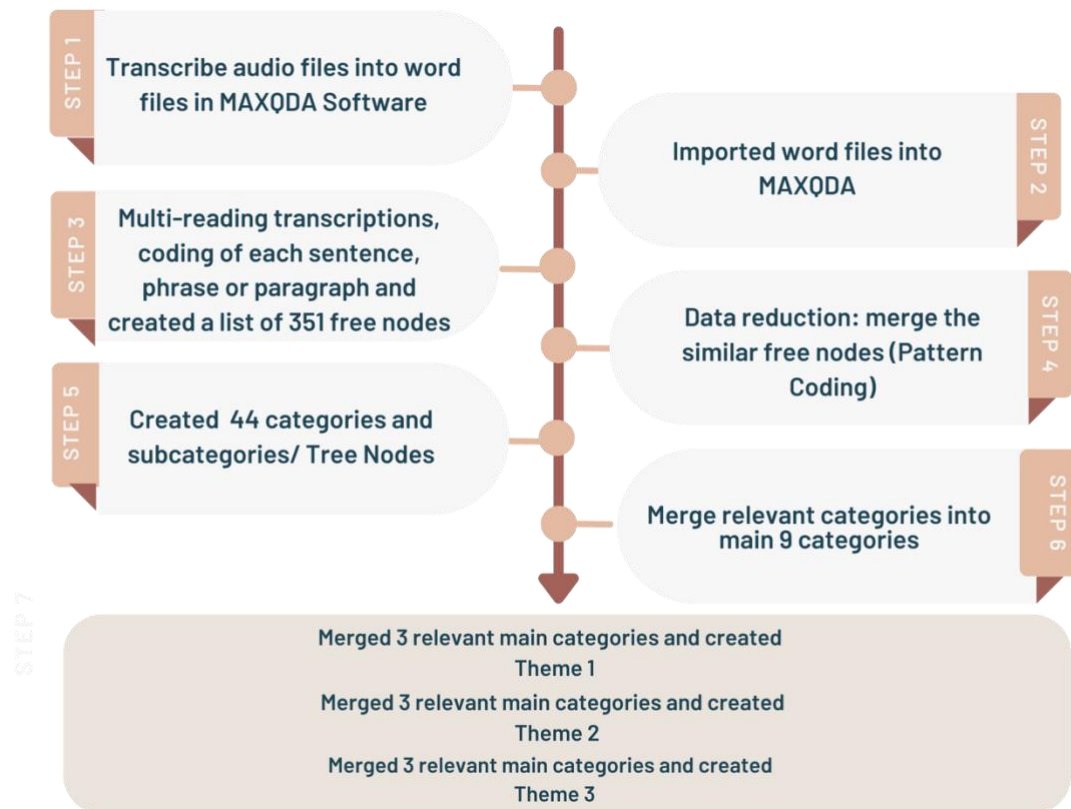


Figure 4.0 Data Analysis Procedure; Followed by Thomas (2006)

The following section explains the step-by-step approach that the researcher went through to reach the above themes and conclusions.

4.2 Data Analysis Procedure

The researcher transcribed the audio file interviews into Microsoft word files, and data analysis began simultaneously until data saturation. According to Glaser and Strauss (1967, p. 61), 'theoretical saturation' happened, i.e. 'where no additional data [was] found whereby the sociologist could develop properties of the category. The researcher needed to encounter repetition in the answers to the interview questions, and not many new data were presented by the participants. A coding process can be finalised when the categories are saturated, incidents can be readily classified, and sufficient repetition occurs in the data (Lincoln & Guba, 2000). Therefore new data did not add anything to develop the categories and the model. For instance, the researcher asked the participants why they needed a certain type of leadership in this

company. The answers were similar and did not add anything to the created categories.

Silverman (2021) claims that using transcription is a form of data analysis. Therefore audio files were transcribed word for word and typed into Microsoft word files. The transcription process was time-consuming, but it enabled the researcher to get very close to and familiar with the content of the data. The researcher needed to read each transcription several times. In reading through the raw data, the researcher applied ~~two~~ both manual and computerized techniques (i.e. using specialist software) for managing and analysing the data.

The first trial was to use the manual technique. The researcher read through the first transcription a few times to understand the meaning of the sentences, phrases and paragraphs. Then, the researcher wrote each of them on a different Word file name and gave each of them a code based on the similar content and the researcher's interpretation of the quote. To have a more structural presentation for the thesis, the researcher imported the transcription to MAXQDA and created categories and codes using the MAXQDA's system. All the transcriptions were imported to MAXQDA while data collection was in progress.. It was more manageable for the researcher to categorise the data as MAXQDA set different colours for each code (see [Figure 4.1](#)).

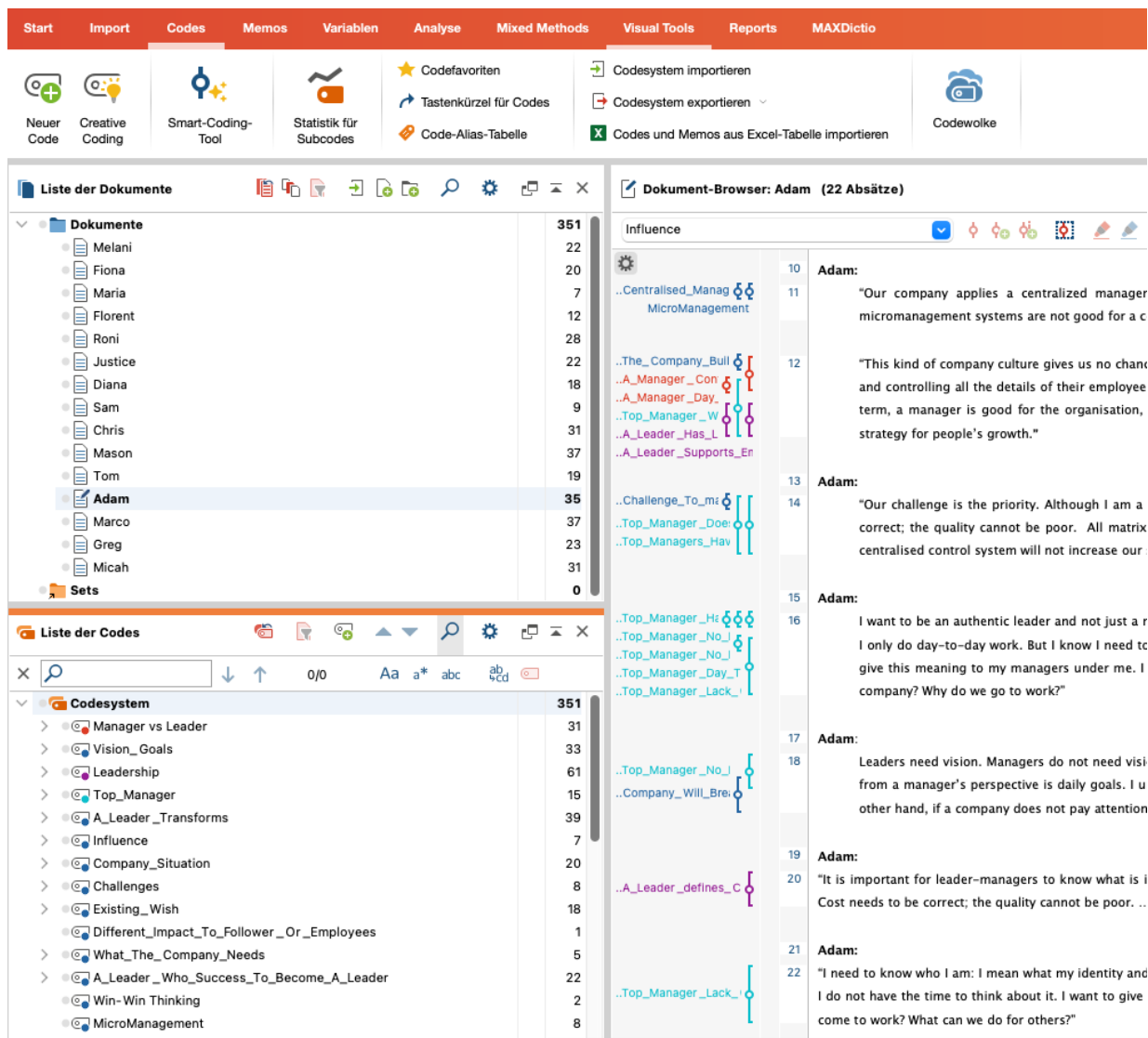
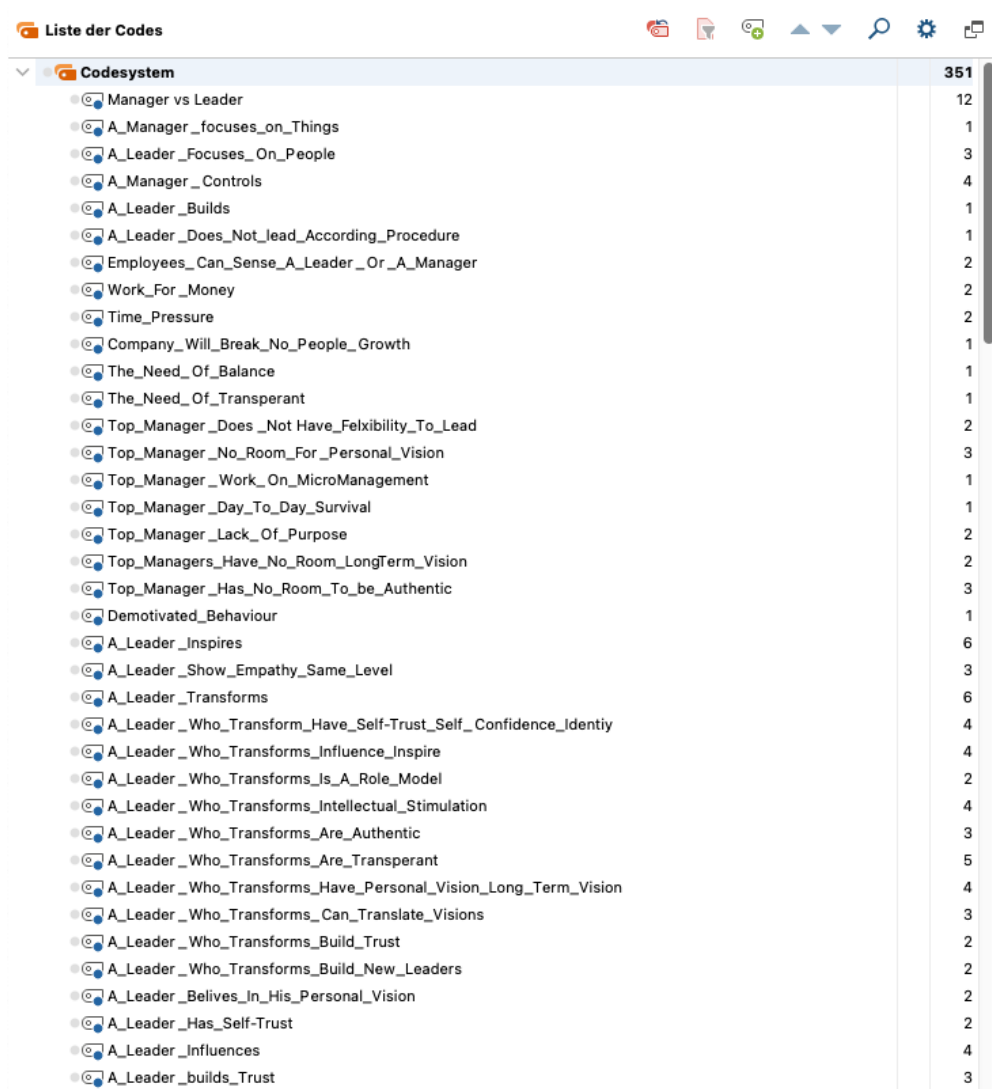


Figure 4.1 Folders Examples in MAXQDA

Miles and Huberman (1994, pp. 10-11) describe three broad tasks for qualitative data analysis, namely data reduction, data display, and drawing conclusions or verification. Data reduction means selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming the data that appears in transcriptions. It is also a form of analysis that organises data to establish 'final' conclusions. However, Thomas's (2006) coding process in inductive analysis explains data reduction in such a way that the first step of the process is an initial close reading of the text, identifying specific text segments related to objectives, labelling the segments of the text to create categories, reducing overlap among the categories, and creating a model incorporating the most important categories. The later coding process (Thomas, 2006) was adopted in this research. However, the researcher coded every text part, whether relevant or irrelevant to the research

objectives at the first stage. Thomas (2006) argues that the general inductive approach is almost similar to other qualitative data analysis approaches, such as grounded theory. However, the outcome of the analysis in the grounded theory approach is one that includes themes or categories. In the inductive approach, the outcome of the analysis is themes or categories most relevant to the research objectives.

Therefore the presentation of findings is a description of the most important themes. The researcher read each transcription several times and labelled and coded every sentence, phrase, or paragraph based on the researcher's interpretation of the raw data. Codes are links between locations in the data and sets of concepts or ideas, which enable the researcher to go beyond the data (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996). Each sentence or phrase was separated from the body of the transcription and was considered as a free code. Free nodes were defined mainly from the words mentioned by the participants, and therefore a list of 351 free nodes was established ([Figure 4.2](#)).



Codesystem	Count
Manager vs Leader	12
A_Manager_focuses_on_Things	1
A_Leader_Focuses_On_People	3
A_Manager_Controls	4
A_Leader_Builds	1
A_Leader_Does_Not_lead_According_Procedure	1
Employees_Can_Sense_A_Leader_Or_A_Manager	2
Work_For_Money	2
Time_Pressure	2
Company_Will_Break_No_People_Growth	1
The_Need_Of_Balance	1
The_Need_Of_Transperant	1
Top_Manager_Does_Not_Have_Felxibility_To_Lead	2
Top_Manager_No_Room_For_Personal_Vision	3
Top_Manager_Work_On_MicroManagement	1
Top_Manager_Day_To_Day_Survival	1
Top_Manager_Lack_Of_Purpose	2
Top_Managers_Have_No_Room_LongTerm_Vision	2
Top_Manager_Has_No_Room_To_be_Authentic	3
Demotivated_Behaviour	1
A_Leader_Inspires	6
A_Leader_Show_Empathy_Same_Level	3
A_Leader_Transforms	6
A_Leader_Who_Transform_Have_Self-Trust_Self_Confidence_Identi	4
A_Leader_Who_Transforms_Influence_Inspire	4
A_Leader_Who_Transforms_Is_A_Role_Model	2
A_Leader_Who_Transforms_Intellectual_Stimulation	4
A_Leader_Who_Transforms_Are_Authentic	3
A_Leader_Who_Transforms_Are_Transperant	5
A_Leader_Who_Transforms_Have_Personal_Vision_Long_Term_Vision	4
A_Leader_Who_Transforms_Can_Translate_Visions	3
A_Leader_Who_Transforms_Build_Trust	2
A_Leader_Who_Transforms_Build_New_Leaders	2
A_Leader_Belives_In_His_Personal_Vision	2
A_Leader_Has_Self-Trust	2
A_Leader_Influences	4
A_Leader_builds_Trust	3

Figure 4.2 Example of Free Nodes List

At the second stage of the coding process in inductive analysis (Thomas, 2006), the researcher tried to find the similarities between the nodes. Miles and Huberman (1994) argue that pattern coding is a way of grouping codes into a smaller number of sets, themes or constructs. From the researcher's point of view, pattern coding means finding the codes with the same meaning and merging them. In other words, some free nodes had something in common regarding meaning. Therefore, they were merged. As Miles and Huberman (1994) claim, the function of pattern coding is to reduce large amounts of data into a smaller number of analytic units. The researcher opened every single free code before merging them to make sure that they had something in common and then labelled them and created 44 categories as tree codes, i.e. each tree node with a few child nodes related to a category. The categories, therefore, developed from coding. Thus, Thomas argues that the label of each

category carries inherent meanings that may reflect the category's specification. features (Figure 4.3). Each tree node was considered a category; some free nodes stood alone, as they were not linked or fitted into any category.

> Vision Conflict	8
> The Vision Challenge	14
Win-Win Thinking	2
> Company Goal	14
> Managers Are Not Leaders	54
> Influential Leadership	10
Trust	0
> Self-Clarity	6
> Interpersonal Trust	6
> Authentic Leadership	19
> Vision_Versus_Goals	2
Personal_Vision_is_Knowing_Self-Identity	1
The_Need_Of_Transperant	1
> A_Manager_Who_Success_To_Become_A_Leader	19
> Challenges_To_Become_A_Leader_Who_Transforms_Not_Only_Maintain	7
A_Leader_Who_Success_to_Have_Personal_Vision	3
A_Leader_Who_Transforms_Knows_Self_Identity	5
A_Leader_Who_Transforms_Have_Self-Trust_Self_Confidence_Identi	4
A_Leader_Who_Transforms_Are_Transperant	5
A_Leader_Who_Transforms_Are_Authentic	3
A_Leader_Who_Transforms_Have_Personal_Vision_Long_Term_Vision	4
> Organizational Behaviour	15
> There_Is_A_Vicious_Circle	5
> Middle_Level_Managers_Limitations	14
> Top_Level_Managers_Limitations	15
> Leadership	58
> Existing_Wish	18
No_Room_To_Become_A_Leader	1
No_Room_For_Core_Solution	2
No_Time_For_Reflexive_Thinking	2
The_Need_Of_Balance	1
Fast_Flexibility	2
Fast_Changing_Market	1
MicroManagement	8
Deadlines_Matrixes_Budget	5
Survival_Mode_Behaviour	3
Able_To_Prove_To_Gain_Manager's_Trust	1
A_Good_Manager_If_He_Is_A_Leader	1
Pleasing Attitude	1
ArtificialMovementNoQualityity_ShowOff_PeopleOrientation	1
People_Are_not_Happier_Everyday	2
Different_Impact_To_Follower_Or_Employees	1
Managing Using Authority	5
Decision_Based_On_Action_Reaction_Affect	2

Figure 4.3 Tree of Nodes After First Merging Process

In the third stage, there was some overlap among categories (Thomas, 2006). At this stage, some categories with a link or relation with other categories were merged in a hierarchical category system and labelled with a larger heading. These links may point

to superordinate, parallel, and subordinate categories (Thomas, 2006), for example, 'company goal and personal vision' under the main category of 'Vision Conflict' ([Figure 4.4](#)). At this stage, the number of categories decreased to 23 because the theory of data reduction (Miles & Huberman, 1994; Thomas, 2006) expects a reduction in the number of categories. As Thomas (2006) claims, for the findings to be useable, the researcher must decide what is essential and less necessary in the data.

> ● Vision Conflict	22
> ● The Vision Challenge	14
> ● Long-Term Vision & Personal Vision	7
> ● Managers Are Not Leaders	38
> ● A_Leader_Transforms	23
> ● Influential Leadership	10
> ● A_Manager_Who_Success_To_Become_A_Leader	19
● Trust	0
> ● Self-Clarity	6
> ● Self-Identity	1
> ● Interpersonal Trust	6
> ● Authentic Leadership	19
● Transperancy	1
> ● Challenges_To_Become_A_Leader_Who_Transforms_Not_Only_Maintain	7
> ● Characteristics_of_Leaders_Who_Transform	21
> ● Organizational Behaviour	30
> ● There_Is_A_Vicious_Circle	6
> ● Middle_Level_Managers_Limitations	14
> ● Top_Level_Managers_Limitations	15
> ● Leadership_Definitions	58
> ● Participants_Desire_To_See_Becoming_A_Leader	18
> ● Requirements_For_The_Company_To_Win_Competition	3
> ● Complains_and_Limitations	13

Figures 4.4 Third Stage of Data Saturation

In the fourth stage, the most important categories were selected to merge to convey the core theme because some of the text was not relevant to the objectives of the research. Thus, three main themes and nine categories emerged to create a model incorporating the most important categories ([Figure 4.7](#)). At this stage, as the amount of data was still excessive, some of the categories were not assigned to the main themes and were left aside to be used in further research ([Figure 4.5](#) and [Figure 4.6](#)).

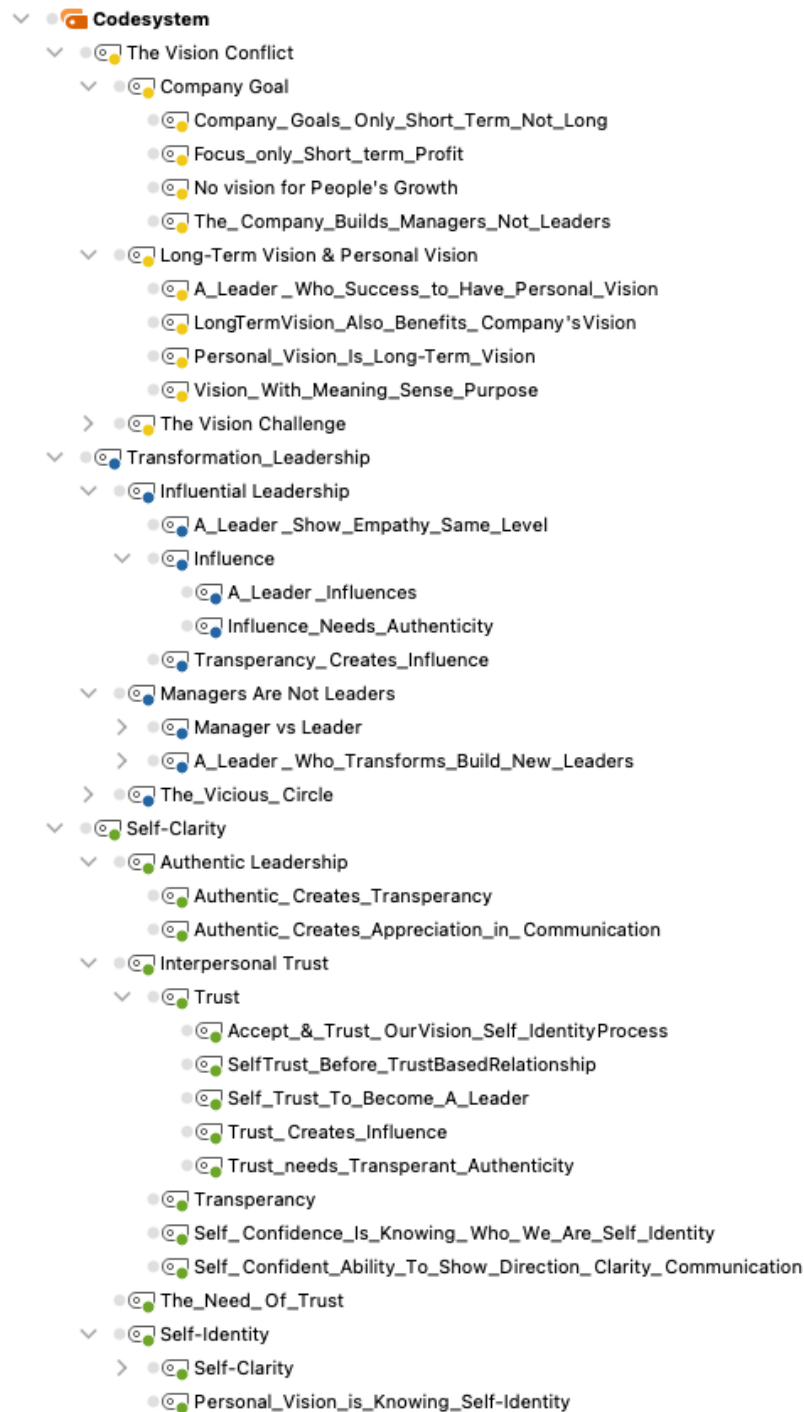


Figure 4.5 Forth Stage of Data Saturation

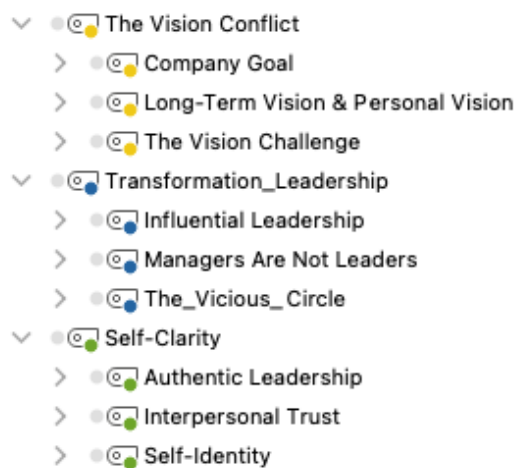


Figure 4.6 Minimized Forth Stage Data Saturation

As the result of this analysis, three main themes, such as Vision Conflict, Transformational Leadership, Self Clarity, emerged from the data. The amount of qualitative data brought the researcher to methodological challenges. It was challenging to manage such data and use the most appropriate data to analyse. The researcher overcame this challenge by focusing on the objective of the research and selecting the most relevant information to the objectives of the research (Thomas, 2006).

4.3 Context of The Research

This Section aims to describe the context of the participants and the organisation, as well as the descriptive characteristics of the company and its departments where the research was conducted. For instance, the number of employees, the type of departments, and the type of company. The descriptive characteristics of the participants includes the career background, working experience, their position in the company and the number of employees in their team.

4.3.1 Descriptive Characteristics of the Organisations

One of the reasons why the company is chosen is because of its location and connectivity factors. As previously explained, the researcher is a manager of one of the design departments in the company. In total, there are fifteen departments in the company located in Munich, Germany. Three departments are selected as the organisations conducting the research. However, the researcher does not work in

these three departments as a leader or manager. Under this condition, the researcher is familiar with the company's culture. The researcher does not, however, participate in the internal politics of the three departments where the research is conducted. Interviewer and interviewees are separated, so that the researcher has the opportunity to observe the interviewees' perceptions of their experience and background (Johnson & Duberley, 2000; Creswell, 2014; Creswell & Poth, 2016). Due to the pragmatic concept, the researcher also benefited from connection access. As the researcher works in the same building as the three departments, it is convenient for her to schedule a meeting with the respective high-level managers of the three departments. As an internal employee, allowing the researcher to present the concept of her research enhances the credibility of the highest-level management.

The company where the research is conducted is situated in Europe and employs a total of two thousand people. The organisation is affiliated with a U.S. semiconductor company founded in the 1930s and employing more than thirty thousand people worldwide. The company designs, manufactures, and sells analogue and embedded processing chips on a global scale. The company has manufacturing facilities, including foundries and assembly sites, on three different continents: North America, Europe, and Asia. The thesis is conducted in three departments of the German-based European headquarters.

As a member of the company's organisation, the researcher has the ability to communicate with the building's department heads. The researcher contacted each department's high-level manager via email and asked if they were interested in participating in the study and allowing the researcher to interview their employees. In the email, the researcher provided a concise overview of the study's topic and its historical context. All three high-level managers invited the researcher to a face-to-face meeting to discuss in depth the research's purpose and ethical conditions. At the initial meeting, all three department heads expressed interest in the subject. They are all in agreement that they need more information on how to deal with the current global competition. As a European semiconductor company, they consider the current situation to be critical due to increasing production times. Their concerns are consistent with the research context described in Chapter 1.

According to organisation theories, organisation size, age, and hierarchies influence the behaviour and performance of the organisation (Thomas, 1988; Gumusluoglu & Ilsev, 2009; Fosset al., 2011; Wang et al., 2011). The three organisations (Department A, Department B, and Department C) were selected initially due to the fact that they are all located in the same building. The same location supports the study pragmatism. It facilitates the researcher's productivity and efficiency. To ensure that the three organisations are comparable, they share similar characteristics. All three departments are involved in the semiconductor manufacturing supply chain. Department B is the company's design or research and development department. Departments A and C are the manufacturing departments responsible for the fabrication of wafers. The three departments are all located near Munich, Germany. Table 4.0 displays the explanatory departmental characteristics identified through data analysis. This section contains a detailed description of the departments and interviewees. Thirdly, the organization's size and age are relatively comparable. The organisation has been in operation for roughly forty years, and each department employs approximately two hundred individuals.

Departement	Type of Site	No. of Employees	Location
A	Wafer Fabrication	230	Europe
B	Design Site	200	Europe
C	Wafer Fabrication	250	Europe

Table 4.0 The Departments Characteristics

The superiors of all high-level managers who participated in this research are stationed in the U.S headquarter. There are four layers of the leadership hierarchy from the high-level manager to the CEO ([Figure 3.2](#)).

Department A

Department A is part of the wafer fabrication facility, also known as the foundry. The organisation is one of many large organisations within the company's wafer fabrication division. It has 230 employees and is managed by a senior executive or a high-level manager. One of the engineering departments for wafer fabrication at European sites, Department A focuses on the plasma process. The organization's management structure consists of four tiers, from the executive level to the supervisor level. The

senior manager of Department A is the highest-ranking leader in the European headquarters and the U.S. headquarters' representative.

Department B

Department B designs low-power consumption microcontrollers. The institution has existed for thirty-five years. Department B is the department of research and development that specialises in layout design, test design, and device validation. It has two hundred employees and is managed by a senior executive. The organization's management structure consists of three levels, ranging from the executive level to the supervisor level. The high-level manager of Department B is the highest-ranking leader in the European design office and the U.S. headquarters' representative.

Department C

The Department C is a component of the wafer fabrication facility, or foundry. The designs originate exclusively from the company's design department and are manufactured by the foundry. The Department C has 250 employees and is led by a manager of the highest rank. As part of the wafer manufacturing process, Division C specialises in plasma processing. The organisation has a four-tiered management structure, ranging from the executive manager to the supervisor. The senior manager of Department C is the highest-ranking leader at the European location and the representative of the U.S. headquarters.

4.3.2 Descriptive Characteristics of the Participants

Before requesting permission to conduct interviews within their organisations, the researcher has the privilege of contacting high-level managers using the company's internal email address and engaging in a formal discussion about the research project. The internal access bolsters the credibility of the three top managers or high-level managers' participation in the research and understanding of its purpose. The researcher explains why it is crucial to comprehend leadership behaviour and its effects, particularly in the context of global competition. Since the researcher is not involved in the internal politics of the three high-level managers' organisations, greater honesty can prevail between them and the researcher.

The researcher scheduled meetings with all high-level managers in the three selected departments. The personal network enables better participant selection, and the personal connection enables a trustworthy and open interview (Schnegg & Lang, 2001). This is especially advantageous given that certain aspects of the research involve sensitive topics and information. The high-level managers of Departments A, B, and C offer their support for the study and make suggestions to the researcher regarding the potential participants in their respective groups. The next step for the researcher is to contact all potential participants in each department in order to conduct an interview. To determine which participants are appropriate for the study, the researcher inquires with the potential interviewees about their level of interest in the topic. The researcher ensures that potential interviewees participate in the research interviews for reasons other than their supervisors' recommendations.

Prior to actually notifying the potential interviewees based on the three high-level managers of the department, the researcher requested a written statement from the high-level managers regarding their permission to begin the research. The researcher wrote emails to potential interviewees using the written recommendations and permission of the three high-level managers. As a result, all participants exhibit greater trust in the researcher and provide sincere feedback on the research topic. The researcher asks potential interviewees to meet in person so he or she can explain the purpose of the study in greater detail. In addition, the researcher ensured that the interviewees' interest in the subject was genuine and not based solely on the recommendation of their high-level managers. During the interviews, the researcher perceived greater participation from the interviewees due to their genuine interest in the study's purpose and leadership topics. In addition, their trust in the researcher is enhanced by the official endorsement of their upper management.

This Section explains the descriptive characteristics of participants, including the career background, working experience, the position in the company and the number of employees in their team. The technique of defining the number of interviewees and selecting the participant was explained in [Section 3.5.2](#). This interpretive research uses the purposive sampling technique in which the researcher is purposely select participants who are thought to be most capable of assisting the researcher in understanding the problem and the research question (Creswell ,2014; Creswell &

Poth, 2016). Purposive sampling technique also demanded the researcher to think critically about the parameters of the population being studied and choose the sample case carefully (Silverman, 2005).

The participants were located in one design centre office and two manufacturing sites of a semiconductor company in Germany. They represent a cross-section of intraorganisational divisions. As established in [Section 3.5.2](#), fifteen managers and non-managers from the three departments were selected to represent a range of organisations across the company. [Table 4.1](#) reveals the details and the descriptive characteristic of the fifteen participants.

Participant	Department	Type of Site	Managerial Level	Year of Experience	Location
Greg	A	Wafer Fabrication	High Level Manager	40	Europe
Marco	B	Design Site	High Level Manager	30	Europe
Adam	C	Wafer Fabrication	High Level Manager	15	Europe
Micah	A	Wafer Fabrication	Middle Level Manager	20	Europe
Tom	A	Wafer Fabrication	Middle Level Manager	18	Europe
Mason	B	Design Site	Middle Level Manager	8	Europe
Chris	B	Design Site	Middle Level Manager	10	Europe
Sam	C	Wafer Fabrication	Middle Level Manager	6	Europe
Diana	C	Wafer Fabrication	Middle Level Manager	5	Europe
Justice	A	Wafer Fabrication	First Level Manager	22	Europe
Roni	B	Design Site	First Level Manager	11	Europe
Florent	C	Wafer Fabrication	Project Leader	11	Europe
Maria	A	Design Site	Engineer	7	Europe
Fiona	B	Design Site	Engineer	5	Europe
Melani	C	Wafer Fabrication	Engineer	2	Europe

Table 4.1 Participants' Characteristics

The fifteen interviewees are from three different hierarchy levels, high-level managerial level to first-level managerial level. [Figure 3.2](#) in Chapter 3 displays the leadership levels of the fifteen participants. The majority of high-level managers have about one hundred to three hundred subordinates. This section aims to explain the context of the participants in the semiconductor company where the research is conducted.

[Table 4.2](#) , [4.3](#) and [4.4](#) show the interviewees' explanatory characteristics which were identified during the data analysis process. The details about the the participants will now be explained.

Department A	Participant Descriptive Characteristic
Greg	Greg has forty years of experience working in a semiconductor company and specialises in test engineering and project management. He has more than ten years of experience in a managerial position, and his background in the semiconductor industry was test engineering, product engineering, software engineering and project management.
Justice	Justice is an equipment engineer manager in the foundry. He has twenty-two years of work experience in the company, working in the engineering area. Justice manages around twenty equipment engineers in the foundry. He is responsible for the machines and all equipment and works extensively with process and system engineers who design the wafer production process.
Maria	Maria has been working for seven years as a quality engineer in the company. Her expertise is in quality management and design process. As a quality engineer, she works with all design departments in the company. In her job, Maria needs to ensure an alignment between customers' input and design teams in the company. It is essential for her to see continuous improvements being made in their chip design, and products' quality can be increased.
Micah	Micha has twenty years of work experience as a test engineer manager, and his expertise is focused on the test field. Micah has been working with several product design departments in the company. He is dedicated to supporting test engineers, innovating in the test engineering area, and seeing people's growth.
Tom	Tom has eighteen years of work experience in the company. He is interested in analysing in-depth leadership and management topics. Tom started his career in the foundry as a system engineer. He has various engineering backgrounds, for instance, test engineering, process engineering, equipment engineering and system engineering, before he became an equipment engineering manager. Currently, he manages around thirty people in the equipment engineering team.

Table 4.2 Departement A Participants' Descriptive Characteristics

Department B	Participant Descriptive Characteristic
Chris	Chris has been working in the company for ten years. Before becoming a system engineer manager, he worked as a marketing and system engineer. He works intensively with the design engineering teams, develops a road map with his team for new product catalogues, and gives inputs to the design teams based on market demand.
Fiona	Fiona is an application engineer in the design department with five years of work experience. She develops application hardware for chips that will be integrated directly into customers' applications. Her job requires strong communication with customers and innovative experiments.
Marco	Marco is a senior manager with thirty years of experience leading as design department director. He has five functional managers underneath who report directly to him. As the director of the department, he is responsible to the top managers located in the U.S. His focus is to develop products for the company that competitive enough for internal competition in the company, in order to get higher priority than other design departments.
Mason	Mason has eight years experience working in the design engineering area. For the last four year the last four years he has become a design manager, who manage twenty subordinates. His team focuses on developing new design concepts for company new products.
Roni	Roni manages a test engineering group with ten subordinates. Before his managerial position, he worked as a test and validation engineer, and he has eleven works of experience in the company. His team is responsible for testing and validating products before releasing them to the market. To develop a test setup and write a software program, the most critical aspects that his team needs are focus and continuous improvement in lab equipment.

Table 4.3 Departement B Participants' Descriptive Characteristics

Department C	Participant Descriptive Characteristic
Adam	Adam is a high-level manager who leads two hundred people together with his five functional middle-level managers. His work experience is fifteen years, including three years as a high-level manager. He manages all groups that run the manufacturing process, including the equipment engineering group, process engineering group, system engineering group and other functional groups in the foundry.
Diana	Diana is a marketing manager who creates new business deals with potential customers. She has five years of work experience in the company, and her background was in application and marketing engineering. As a manager, she is responsible for the overall marketing strategy in her organisation.
Florent	Florent has eleven years of experience as a project leader. He works with mostly all functional engineers to develop new products. His expertise is in project management, and he has broad experience working with several departments across the company to develop new product concepts.
Melani	Melani has two years of experience working as a software engineer in the company. As a software engineer, she works intensively with process and equipment engineers to develop our products. Her interest is to discover leadership topics, especially in the semiconductor industry. As someone who has only spent two years in a big semiconductor company, she intends to collect experience in the engineering type of work and the movement of semiconductor companies in Europe.
Sam	Sam is an expert in process engineering in wafer fabrication or foundry. He has led a process engineering team for six years with twenty-five subordinates. Sam started as a process engineer, and after four years, he became the process engineering manager.

Table 4.4 Departement C Participants' Descriptive Characteristics

4.4 Investigation of the Data

As established in [Section 4.2](#), the data analysis process included coding, finding patterns, developing categories and themes from the coding, finding sub-topics, including contradictory points of view, and new insights, selecting some of the findings, which considered surprising and interesting to make arguments and continuously interpreting them to identify final themes. This section aims to review the findings to show the data reduction process and how the three main themes shown in [Figure 4.5](#) and [Figure 4.6](#) emerged.

As social science research, this research must concentrate its analysis on the inductively generated explanations of human behaviour that are developed during data collection and analysis in order to develop an understanding of the interpretations deployed by the studied actors. (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). Based on the data analysis procedure in Chapter 3, Thomas (2006) states that the inductive approach is a systematic procedure for analysing qualitative data, in which specific evaluation objectives guide the analysis. It refers to detailed readings of the raw data, which drives the identification of the concepts, themes, or a model through the researcher's interpretations of the data.

As explained in [Section 4.2](#), the first portion of the analysis process was reading the interview transcripts from participants, making sense of them, and coding them. The second part was finding the patterns, i.e. similarities and differences in participants' concerns; the third part was creating categories, and the fourth part was letting each theme emerge from the data. The data analysis procedure included coding, finding patterns, developing categories from the coding, and finding sub-topics, including contradictory perspectives and new insights. It includes selecting unexpected findings to make arguments and continuously interpreting them to identify the final themes.

4.4.1 Generation of Theme 1

As explained in Section 1.3, the first research objective is to gain a deeper understanding and to explore the concept of leadership from the perspectives of the key stakeholders, such as leaders-managers from different management levels and

non-managers employees in a semiconductor company. To achieve [research objective No.1](#), [research questions No. 1 and No. 2](#) are formulated ([see Section 1.4](#)). Interviewees from Departments A, B and C shared their perspectives, definitions, concerns, and interests on different issues related to the questions based on [research objective No.1](#) ([see Table 4.2](#)). Table 4.2 also displays some of the main stakeholders' perspectives that contribute to the first theme of this thesis, which is transformational leadership. There were some perspectives/, interests, and concerns for stakeholders regarding their definition of leadership, being a role model, their desire to be and to see more leaders with transformational mindset and their limitation, such as being able to only act as a 'manager'.

The Need of Transformational Leadership and Role Model	
Department A	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Desire to see more leaders-managers who can create changes • Desire to be a role model leader, not only acting as a manager • Leading only by authority and not through influence • Managers unable to take risk and to make a decision • Losing motivation as engineer. Engineers like to solve problem from the core • Unmotivated managers and employees • Need leaders who have transformational mindsets. Clean up all unnecessary procedures and papers works. • Continuous increase of manufacturing cycle time • Increasing ineffective leadership
Department B	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Desire to be role model leaders who influential and self-confident • Desire to see and to be a leader who can nurture individual creativity and innovativeness • Work only for money, lack of purpose and motivation • Unmotivated young engineers. No room for self-development • No trust-based relationship in the organisation culture • Need radical transformation that could make their work faster, more productive, and higher efficiency • Ineffective design process, ineffective work system. Increasing micromanagement without adding quality to the organisational outcome. • Continuous decrease of organisational outcome
Department C	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Need a leader who are courageous to create massive changes • Managers cannot apply their own strategy as leaders, cannot make their own decisions • Desire to have better self-knowledge higher purpose and meaning for their jobs • Desire to see real improvement instead of quick fix concept or survival mode concept • Most managers in this company use only managerial skills rather than leadership skills • Urgency to have total transformation in information system, work and value chain system to reduce manufacturing cycle time and to launch the product faster • Inefficient and slow work process cause production issues. Innovation is also about improving work process

Table 4.5 Perspective, Concerns, and Interest related to Research Objective No.1

As shown in the table above, there are similar concerns regarding leadership perspectives from all departments. For example, all departments show similar interests in leadership with role modelling characteristics and transformational mindset. All departments describe their needs to see more leaders in their organisations who can lead them for significant changes and show them the meaning or purpose of their jobs. All departments also reveal similar issues about inefficient

work and manufacturing processes caused by minimal organisational innovation. Based on these findings, a theme called 'The Need for Transformational Leadership' was created. This theme has three categories, which are 'Role Modelling', Transformational Leadership, and 'The Need for Significant Changes'. [Figure 4.7](#) below shows the creation of Theme 1 by showing data reduction from sub-categories to categories and from categories to Theme 1.

The first category shows that all departments describe their concept of leadership by comparing their definition of 'manager' and 'leader'. All three departments also use the term 'role modelling' to describe their definition of leadership. They explained their perspectives about leaders who act as role models and how they distinguish them compared to leaders who act only as managers. [Section 5.2](#) analyses the participants' input regarding role modelling and shows how it relates to the theories of transformational leadership and role model leadership.

The second category indicates that all departments desire to see more leaders with transformational leadership characteristics. All three departments show similar interest not only to see but also in becoming leaders with the traits of transformational leaders, such as having high self-confidence and influence, being visionary and taking high risks. [Sections 5.2.1](#) until [5.2.4](#) further analyse the participants' requirements of a leader aligned with the transformational leadership concept.

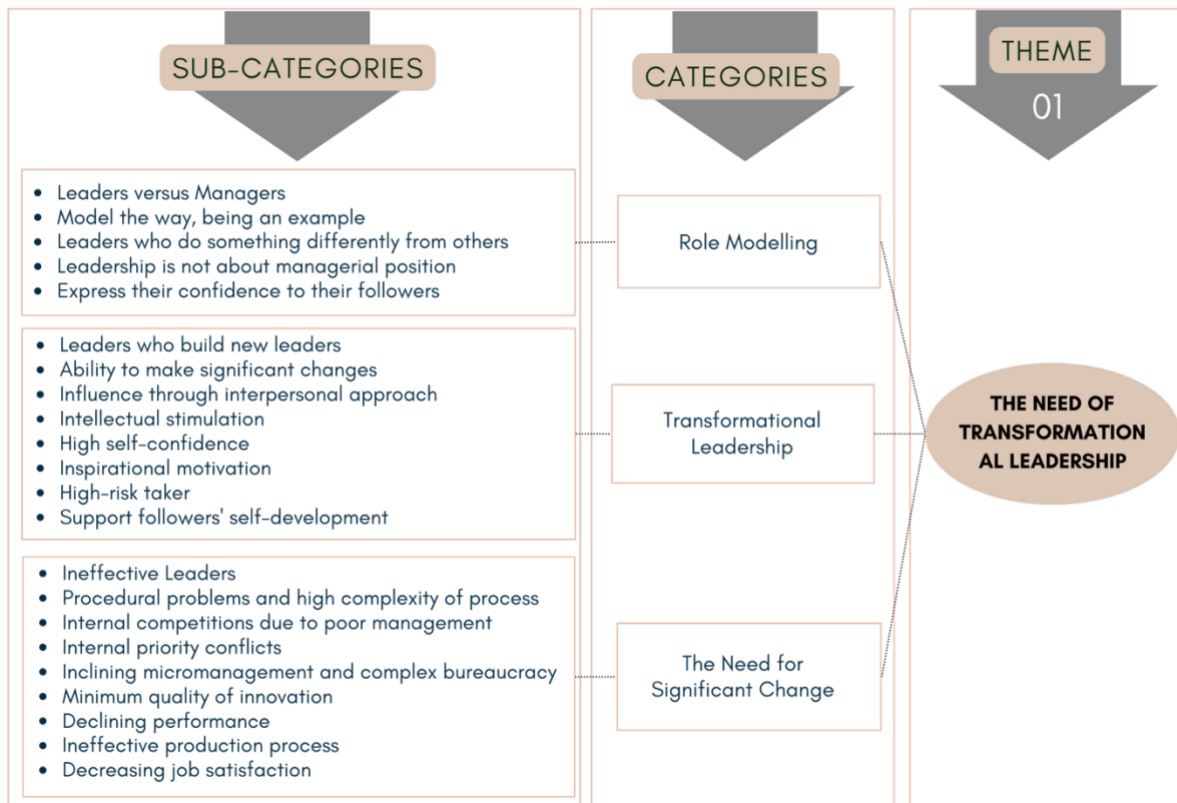


Figure 4.7 The Process of Data Reduction and Emerging Theme 1

The last category from theme 1 is 'the need for significant change'. The category reveals the problems the three departments have in their organisation due to ineffective leadership. All three departments shared similar issues regarding work effectiveness, declining organisational performance, and inefficient or highly complex work systems that reduce the effectiveness of their production time. [Section 5.4](#) describes these organisational issues and analyses their relations with transformational leadership theories and organisational ones.

4.4.2 Generation of Theme 2

Having reviewed the data on the 'The Need for transformational leadership' theme, it becomes clear that one of the fundamental causes of the problems is the vision gap or vision conflict in the company. As established in [Section 1.3](#), the second research objective is to explore the gaps in leadership concepts in the company and to understand further 'what is going on and 'how things take shape' in its organisational behaviour. To achieve [the research objective No.2](#), [research questions No. 3 and No. 4](#) are formulated ([Section 1.4](#)). Interviewees from Departments A, B and C shared

their perspectives, definitions, concerns, and interests on different issues related to the questions based on [the research objective No.2](#) (see [Table 4.6](#)).

The Vision Conflict and The Vicious Circle	
Department A	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No unified vision within in the company • Employees' long-term growth versus top managers' short-term goals • Managers cannot apply their own strategy as leaders and cannot make their own decisions • Feeling trapped in routine and survival mode. Difficulty to find meaning from their task. • The last ten to 20 years, there are not many changes in the company • Many managers want to do some transformation; however, only a few succeeded • Even high level manager cannot create fundamental change in this company for better work system • Fear to be transparent to upper managers about the real situation. Pleasing attitude. • Mindset of pleasing upper manager • Exponential incline of internal competitions
Department B	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No unified goals within an organisation • No balance between execution and long-term growth • Continuous incline of checklist and micromanagement without adding any value • Short-term profit goals versus long-term innovation • Add-in concept create information system run slower • Upper managers have similar limitations like their engineers from his upper managers • Desperate to change themselves and become a leader or a better manager • Inability to face their own fear. • Decision to stay in a safe side due to financial security.
Department C	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Company's vision that is not based on a shared vision • Sacrifice long-term strategy for fast gain • Trapped daily issues as result of unending short-term profit goals. • Checklist and matrixes are getting since the last twenty years without adding quality to the work process. • Micromanagement is the effect of not balancing long-term and short-term goals. • Minimal work quality, occupied only with daily issues • Avoid taking risks and making radical changes because of fear of losing jobs • Anxiety to make big moves or fundamental changes • Mindset to do superficial innovation for show-off and to get promoted

Table 4.6 Perspective, Concerns, and Interest related to Research Objective No.2

As shown in [Table 4.6](#) there are some similar concerns regarding the vision gap from all departments. For example, all departments show similar explanations about the company's lack of unified vision and goals. They explained that the company vision is based on the goals of the shareholders, not a shared vision. A vision conflict is identified in the research, in which the participants want to see a more long-term orientation vision instead of fast-gain or short-term profit orientation goals applied in the company. They believe that due to 'short-termism' habits, the organisation culture is built for managers limited to transactional actions. Based on these findings, a theme called 'the vision conflict' was created. This theme has three categories: Vision Conflict, Vicious Circle, and Inability to become Transformational Leaders. [Figure 4.8](#) below shows the creation of Theme No. 2 by showing data reduction from sub-categories to categories and from categories to Theme No. 2.

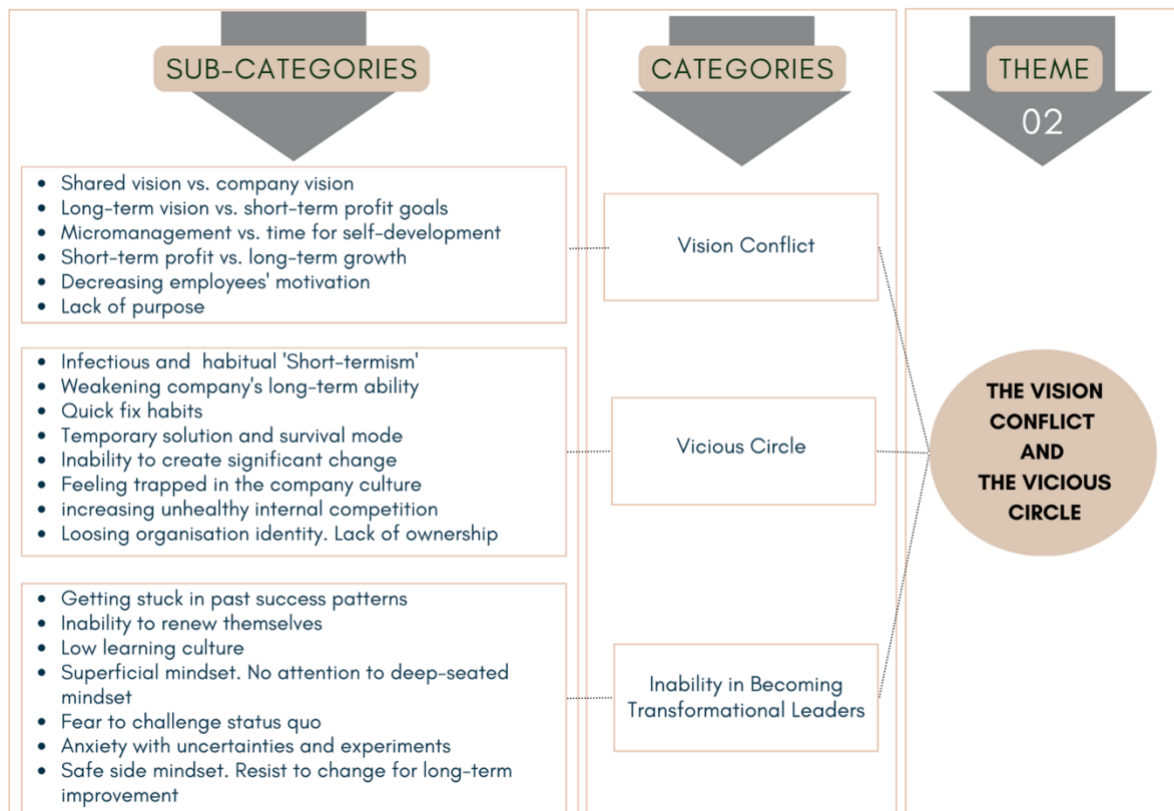


Figure 4.8 The Process of Data Reduction and Emerging Theme 2

The first category shows that all departments describe the existence of vision conflict in the company. The three departments reveal their views about the existence of vision conflicts in the company. They see that the company focuses only on fast profit goals and neglects the long-term investment needed for long-term growth. They believe that the company's short-term and long-term goals are out of balance, which lowers organisational performance and outcome. [Section 5.3](#) thoroughly describes the participants' insights related to this topic.

In the second category, the data indicate that participants from all departments are concerned with the vicious circle that keeps them feeling entangled in a particular organisational behaviour. Participants raised their concerns about some barriers, for instance, the increasing micromanagement and quick-fix habits, that prevent them from becoming role model leaders and transformational leaders (Theme No. 1). The vicious circle will be discussed in detail in [Section 5.3.4](#).

The last category from Theme 2 is the 'inability to become transformational leaders. The category reveals the frustration of most participants from all three departments

who feel stuck in a particular condition or mindset that prevent them from taking to different steps to become transformational leaders. Most of the participants from all three departments see a strong pattern of transactional and superficial mindset in their organisation that prevent them from becoming the leaders they desire. Most participants believe that to become the transformational leaders, they need a meaning or purpose in their jobs, which give them self-confidence and a clear long-term vision of what they can accomplish in their organisation. However, the majority of the interviewees cannot find a purpose behind their jobs due to their stressful condition that is already full of daily issues/concerns and finding quick-fixes. Thus, a model of Vicious Circle is developed as a result of identifying and creating categories and sub-categories relevant to the first and the second themes of this thesis. (see [Section 5.3.4](#)).

4.4.3 Generation of Theme 3

As explained in [Section 1.3](#), [the research objective No. 3](#) is to suggest a the best practice of leadership model in creating the necessary organisational behaviour which is suitable for the company to achieve its goals. To achieve the research objective No.3, [research questions No. 5, No. 6 and No. 7](#) are formulated ([Section 1.4](#)). Interviewees from Departments A, B and C shared their perspectives, definitions, concerns, and interests on different issues related to the questions based on [research objective No.3](#) ([Table 4.7](#)). Table 4.7 displays some of the main stakeholders' perspectives that contributed to the third theme of this thesis, namely authenticity and self-clarity. There were similar suggestions from the participant on how to break the vicious circle and become a transformational leader. Despite all the challenges detected in the findings of [Theme No. 2](#), some participants witnessed success stories that managers can learn to become transformational leaders. Their solutions are based on their experiences or success stories and incidents they see in the company.

Authenticity and Self Clarity	
Department A	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Only by having a personal vision and self-clarity, some managers can become agents of change • Incident of one foundry director who became an agent of change, implement long-term innovation for the foundry despite challenges from the top management. • Authentic leaders can accept and transparent about their strengths and weaknesses • Leaders who know the right momentum to make decision and take a step and • A leader-manager in a cooperate company needs to have the mindset of a long-term vision, to achieve fulfilment and to support his employees' vision
Department B	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Long-term vision and self-confidence are the keys to act as a leader • Incident of one engineer who develop new microprocessor without upper manager's permission in the beginning. He was able to influence his followers to create a strategy that at the end make the innovation comes true and benefits everyone, including the top managers. • To be an agent of change, start by having self-clarity and persistency to be authentic • Leaders are brave to feel up against the current • Followers react positively when the vision reflects their values • Self-Honesty and transparency produce self-confidence • Need to take into account employees' opinion
Department C	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Finding personal vision is like a process of knowing yourself • Real leaders find their purpose and confidence to apply their vision in their jobs • Having high purpose gives self-confidence for leader to be transparent in front of upper managers and to find mutual solution for employees and top managers' goals. • Vision grows and might look different from the initial idea, but the core is the same • Real leaders have the ability to be transparent without doing manipulation to their employees to explain the • Long-term goals are goals that will bring real growth opportunities and influence • Money and position do not motivate some high level managers any more • Authentic win-win mindset comes when an individual is a whole person

Table 4.7 Perspective, Concerns, and Interests related to Research Objective No.3

The first category of Theme 3 suggests that managers should start by finding their 'true selves' or having high self-knowledge. According to Gardner et al. (2005), transformational leaders with high self-knowledge make them influential. Most of the interviewees from the three departments shared similar opinions that managers should find their self-clarity in order to find their long-term vision. They believe that they can only become agents of change in their organisations by having a long-term personal vision. [Figure 4.9](#) below shows the creation of Theme 3 by showing data reduction from sub-categories to categories and from categories to Theme 3. This theme has three categories, i.e. Self-Clarity, Authentic Leadership, and Trust-based Relationships.

As explained in the previous paragraph, the first category is created based on the participant's suggestion that managers should start a self-clarity or self-identity process despite all the challenges they must encounter in the company. Some participants describe that having a personal vision is like knowing their true selves. The topic of self-clarity, as a foundation to build personal long-term vision and confidence, will be discussed in [Section 6.2](#). Their input about self-clarity led to the

following topic, namely authenticity, which is the foundation of the discussion in [Section 6.3](#).

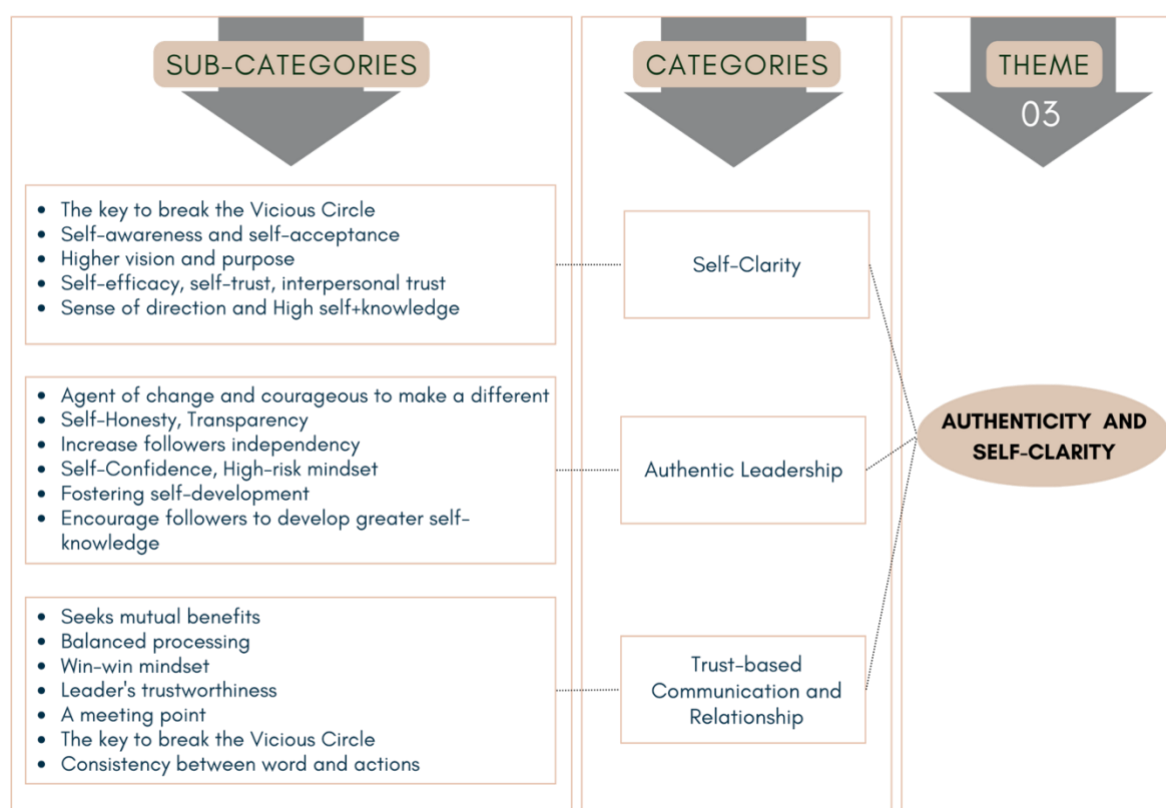


Figure 4.9 The Process of Data Reduction and Emerging Theme 3

The second category reveals the following suggestion of the participants on how to become an agent of change in the company. After finding their true selves and vision, leaders develop confidence that enables them to be consistent in pursuing their vision and act according to their values. Participants' definitions of authenticity contain some aspects of the transformational leadership theories. It is aligned with Avolio and Gardner (2005), who state that authentic leadership can contain different aspects from multiple leadership theories, including characteristics of transformational leaders. This topic will be discussed comprehensively in [Chapter 6](#).

The last category of Theme 3 is 'trust-based communication and relationship'. This category shows the participants' concept of how leaders with their long-term personal vision are capable of creating a win-win solution that benefits the company's short-term goals and supports the employees' vision. As explained in the findings of Theme 2, there is a vision gap or conflict between the company goals and employees' vision.

The interviewees observe that the employees in the company desire to see more long-term vision put into practice. A long-term vision creates opportunities for employees and engineers to develop their potential and create innovations based on the core solutions instead of merely quick-fix solutions. Based on/According to some success stories they saw in the company, some leaders who have a long-term personal vision were able to develop a high self-confidence to create trust-based communication and relationship in their organisation. They managed to find solutions that benefits their followers, the company profit goals, and their personal personal vision. The topic of how leaders develop a trust-based relationships based on their leadership skills will be discussed in [Section 6.6](#). The Leadership Triangle model is developed as a result of identifying and creating categories and sub-categories relevant to the third theme of this thesis ([Section 6.7](#)).

4.5 Data Analysis and Findings Summary

This Section describes the data analysis procedure, including qualitative data reduction, and how the data led to three main themes. The three main themes are The Need for Transformational Leadership ([Theme No. 1](#)), The Vision Conflict ([Theme No. 2](#)), and Authenticity and Self-Clarity ([Theme No. 3](#)). From the three/which main themes, two models are developed.

The findings in Theme No. 1 reveal that the participants' definition of role model leadership aligned with the concept of transformational leadership. They also reveal the company's organisational issues due to minimal significant changes and core problem-solving solutions. Based on the findings in Theme No.1 and Theme No.2, the first model, the Vicious Circle Model, is developed (see [Section 5.3.4](#)). The model reveals the participants' definition and desire for transformational the endless loop situation, in which/where the participants feeling trapped in a particular organisation behaviour that prevents them from becoming the transformational and role model leaders they described. The second practical model is the Leadership Triangle Model, which is developed based on the finding in [Theme No.3](#). This model reveals that the three main attributes of vision, trust, and influence are the basis for becoming the role model leaders with transformational leadership characteristics. The following two chapters will discuss the above themes in depth and detail

CHAPTER 5

The Need for Transformational Leadership and The Vicious Circle

5.1 Introduction

Chapter 5 explores how interviewees perceive leadership. The chapter analyses research objectives [No. 1](#) and [No. 2](#) ([Figure 1.2](#) and [Section 1.2](#)). Four major characteristics mentioned in their definition of leadership are role modelling, idealized influence, visionary, and intellectual stimulation. As the keyholder of the organisation's performance, majority of the participants define a leader as a person who can act as a role model and make a difference in their organisations. Based on the participants' statements, role model leaders inspire subordinates to become more to themselves and encourage them to pursue their vision ([Section 5.2.1](#)). Idealized influence is leaders' ability to influence others by creating an interpersonal approach with their subordinates without using their managerial position authority ([Section 5.2.3](#)). Visionary is the ability of leaders to create a long-term vision based on a higher purpose that will create a mutual benefits solution for the company and their subordinates ([Section 5.2.3](#)). The last main characteristic explained by the interviewees is intellection stimulation, in which leaders empower and build their followers to become new leaders ([Section 5.2.2](#)). Those four leadership characteristics are aligned with transformational leadership attributes (Bass, 1985).

[Section 5.2](#) thoroughly analyses all the characteristics of a leader mentioned by the interviewees. The Section also shows the desirable leadership style in the company, which is the transformational leadership. Despite their interest to see and to become transformational leaders, they face an endless loop of challenges in the company. The challenges mostly come from the existing vision conflict in the company. Most interviewees define leadership by comparing the characteristic between a leader and a manager.

[Section 5.3](#) explores the vision conflict that exists in the company in details. The Section shows the effects that the company is facing due to imbalanced priorities between short-term profit and long-term growth. One of the effects is the micromanagement problems that prevent interviewees from becoming transformational leaders. [Section 5.3](#) ends with the concept of vicious circle (see [Section 5.3.4](#)) that describes the interviewees' situation of being entangled in a chain and unable to become the leaders they desire.

[Section 5.4](#) explores the urgency for transformation leaders in the company based on the interviewees' input. They explain the effects they are facing due to the inexistence of significant improvements for long period of time. Some major effects, such low performance and low innovation are defined. Most of the effects are related to the production issues and their slow work process. Most interviewees believe that the company needs a major transformation in all areas to solve their crisis.

5.2 The Desired Leadership

In this Section, the four main leadership characteristics mentioned by the participants will be analysed with the leadership theories.

5.2.1 Role Model Leadership

The term which the majority of participants used to define leadership is role model. Section [2.2.2](#) shows that transformational leaders have strong qualities in role modelling (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Bakker et al., 2022). They act as role models or mentors and try to empower their followers (Avolio et al., 1999; Tummers & Bakker, 2021). This is intended to enhance follower capabilities (Avolio et al., 1999) and self-confidence (Bass et al., 2003). This is aligned with the statement from Manson and Fiona in the last paragraph, in which a role model is about being an inspiration for other people to pursue their own goals and vision.

Mason :

As a leader, I want to inspire and become a role model for my employees. And I want my employees to be an inspiration for other people. Everyone has a

different goal, but I want to be living proof that my goals are based on my purpose despite all the challenges around me. This is what I call a leader.

Fiona:

My definition of a leader is someone I can look up to as a role model. He/she does not need to have a managerial position. A leader is simply someone who inspires me to become more myself.

Mason's and Fiona's quotes show that they wish to inspire other people to pursue their goals. The interesting fact in their statements is that they use the term 'purpose' and 'become more myself'. That terms indicate the notion of 'self-concept' and 'higher purpose' in leadership theory, which is identified in Section [2.2.1.3](#). The following states a similar concept of role model leaders.

Justice:

A leader is a person I see as a role model. He does not need to be a manager or my manager. He is someone who can be himself with the values that I follow. It could be anyone in the organisation.

Greg :

It is not about becoming like someone. The real meaning of a role model is someone who does something differently from others. Others see that he is successful with what he is doing and start to do the same thing as he does. Either they buy his vision or just follow what he is doing.

Melani:

A leader is someone who can be an example and can motivate. It is not about the work task but more about being living-proof.

The participants' definition of role model leadership is aligned with the theory, which states transformational leaders who act as role models have a purpose and values for themselves, and their values become beneficial to their organisation (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Vera & Crossan, 2004). It is aligned with Justice's statement. Role modelling is not about influencing others to do the same thing but about the value behind the

leaders' goals (Bass & Avolio, 1990). The transformational leader offers his followers a purpose that transcends his self-interest by appealing to his values, ideals, and interests (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Vera & Crossan, 2004; Kim, 2014; Li et al., 2018; Istiqomah & Riani, 2021). Leaders stimulate personal and organisational change by having the same value as their followers (Avolio, 2005). A transformational leader gains his followers' trust and confidence by being a role model with the same values as his followers (Bass, 1999; Cole et al., 2009). Nevertheless, value and purpose are hard to quantify, whereas goals are specific, targeted, and generally quantifiable (Rost, 1991). Some participants argue that they struggle to find a purpose behind their job, for example, Adam in Sections [5.4.4](#) and [6.2](#).

Mason claims that *"everyone has a different goal, but I want to be living proof that my goals are based on my purpose despite all the challenges around me"*. Rost (1991) states that purposes are mutual. They reflect the desires of both the leader and the follower. Mason's statement supports Rost's (1991) theory that followers buy a leader's purpose. If people see a person brave enough to achieve their goals based on the same purpose as theirs, these people will follow the person (Rost, 1991).

The same case as Greg and Adam, who clearly said that they wish to be a role model who pursues their vision. Transformational leaders elevate the ability of the followers to contribute to achieving organisational goals (Bass, 1985). The question is how a leader acting as a role model can benefit the company's goals. Section [6.6.1](#) and Section [6.6.2](#) analyse the participants' perspectives on how a personal vision can benefit the company's goal that may not align with each other. However, in transformational leadership theory, transformational leaders also influence followers to contribute to the organisation's performance and the company's vision (Shamir et al., 1993; Bass et al., 2003).

As a result of the analysis in this chapter, three essential points were identified based on the participants' definitions of role model leaders. The three points contain having a self-concept as a leader, the ability to empower others to become more to themselves and pursue their vision and the fact that anyone can be a role model leader without a managerial position.

5.2.2 Leaders Build New Leaders

When role models reflect themselves at their work, actions, and teaching, they motivate employees to act in a similar manner (O'Connor et al., 2013). Another factor in the participant's comments about role modelling is that a leader who acts as a role model motivates others to become a leader (see quotes by Fiona, Melani and Justice). Leaders do not create followers; instead, they create more leaders (Blatt & Kohlberg, 1975; Berkowitz et al., 1980; Grant & Ashford, 2008). Some leader-manager interviewees like Adam and Greg appear to do this by encouraging their employees to figure things out independently and think independently so that they become self-determining.

Greg:

I want to show my employees to have a leader's mindset. Once when one of my employees was struggling with an issue, as a manager, I tried to tell him clearly that I gave him the project because I trusted him to do it. It meant I believed that he could be the leader of his project. I was not trying to be nice; I believed it. I was the one who decided that they should do the project, not somebody else.

Adam:

I want my employees to be leaders or be their true selves. By becoming a role model, I can guide my employees to deal with problems or find solutions independently. It is different from a teacher. A teacher tells people what to do, but a coach is more about guidance. A teacher is like a manager. I do not need to know every detail to guide people, and I motivate them to be a leader for themselves to overcome a situation.

Motivating others to become leaders is a component of the transformational leadership process, which Bass describes as a leader's "arousal and change in followers of problem awareness and problem-solving, of thought and imagination, and beliefs and values (Bass, 1985). It facilitates the followers' re-thinking situations with new insight (Bass, 1985). This argument is supported by Kohlberg and others (Blatt & Kohlberg, 1975; Berkowitz et al., 1980), who state that individuals who engage others at a higher

stage of moral development in an ongoing dialectical relationship are stimulated to move to the next step as well.

Micah:

My vision is to develop new leaders. Two former test engineers who reported to me are now successful test managers. And this is something I am proud of. Sometimes people think engineers work only with numbers; this is not true because everybody can make a difference. Even engineers without a managerial position can create changes or make a difference in their environment.

Mason:

My vision is to build new leaders with an innovative mindset. It means thinking out of the box. It is not just about creating new products. Anyone can be a leader. They can find the right information, find the right people, find the gap, fill the gap, and build the right connection. It is about thinking how to find solution. Some may say you have a problem, and sometimes that very problem could be the solution. In the technical world, we transform weakness from a specific product into a possible benefit for a new circuit product. This mindset helps me find a new solution, even if at first it was an obstacle or a problem.

Transformational leaders motivate their employees to achieve high performance by establishing an attractive and exciting vision, setting challenging yet achievable goals, being confident and optimistic and emphasizing team spirit and common values (Bass, 1985; Grant, 2012; Burns, 2012). However, Bass (1985) describes intellectual stimulation as a relationship of trust. Within a relationship of trust, such as in the leader's consideration for the follower, a dialectic exchange is possible between the two (Bass, 1985).

Tom:

Followers buy character. Normally they will follow you if they see you as someone they can trust.

Nevertheless, as described earlier Rosenberg (1956) argues that leaders with low interpersonal trust would have difficulty permitting freedom of action in their subordinates. In other words, leaders' ability to trust themselves determines their ability to be trusted by their followers. It is aligned with Greg's statement, which is to trust in his employees to be more self-confident. When Greg says, 'I was the one who decided that they should do the project, not somebody else,' he seems to have high interpersonal trust.

Another perspective from literature is the factor of leaders' self-confidence. Transformational factors create a radical shift of the followers' perspective through their self-confidence (Bass, 1985). According to Handy (1982/1992), Leaders who do not believe in themselves will not be able to influence others. Nevertheless, the concept of 'believing in oneself' is in line with some transformational leadership traits. For example, Bass (1985a) finds that self-confidence is extreme in transformational leaders, which leads them to attempt and succeed in influencing groups to follow their lead. That theory is aligned with Marco's statements. As a high-level leader-manager, he believes that leaders do not necessarily intend to influence other people; in other words, influence happens automatically because of a leader's confidence in his vision. This theory is aligned with the quotes from Marco:

Marco:

"...If you want someone to do something for you, they will normally be influenced if you are fully convinced with your own vision and you can show that you believe in yourself"

Section [6.2](#) and Section [6.3](#) provides in-depth analysis on how the interviewees see self-clarity and authenticity as the fundament to define leaders' purpose and generate leaders' self-confidence.

5.2.2.1 Individual Consideration

Because of their strong desire to empower their subordinates and inspire them to become more of themselves, most participants share their desire to build opportunities for self-development. It is aligned to one notable characteristic of role model leadership

defined by most interviewees is individual consideration, in which leaders involve creating learning opportunities for their followers and stimulating their development through coaching and mentoring activities (Avolio et al., 1999; Bass, 1998; Bass, 2013).

Marco:

Leadership is not only about the ability to influence other people to drive change, but also the ability to see and foster other people's growth

Mason:

This is how I discover my employees' visions: I give them the chance to express and discover themselves. I ask my employees where they want to go in their career in this company. I tell them where I see their strengths. I advise them to do certain projects and follow a specific path so that they can go in a certain direction..

Micah:

We have company goals or individual visions in this company. I want to be a role model to my employees by showing that my vision is a great contribution to other visions, such as the company goal and my employees' goals. My job as a leader is to know my employees' visions and explain how they could contribute towards this company goal.

The individualized consideration not only helps to develop the capabilities of organisational members (Bass et al., 2003), and it also creates learning opportunities that can stimulate creative thinking, that will encourage organisational members to increase organisational behaviour's improvement (Bass et al., 2003; Bass, 2013).

However, in transformational leadership theory, there is another essential factor called charisma. It describes when leaders have insight into the needs, values, and hopes of their followers (Bass, 1985, p. 46). Based on that definition from Bass (1985), charisma has similar characteristics like individual consideration, in which leaders stimulate their followers' development through coaching and mentoring

activities (Bass, 1998; Avolio et al., 1999; Avolio & Bass, 2002). Conger and Kanungo (1988, 1994) suggest that leaders described as charismatic were also rated as highly sensitive to the needs of followers. This is aligned to the above quotes that show how some leader-manager interviewees have a positive interest in discovering their employees' visions; not because they want to manipulate their employees to do a certain task, but because they simply become the person (role model) that their employees can follow (Bass, 1985). Furthermore, transformational leader theories express a similar concept, for example that leaders with charisma arouse achievement, affiliation, and power motives among their subordinates linked to the mission of their group (Bass, 1985, p. 47). The transforming leader looks to address higher needs in potential followers. This relationship is one of mutual stimulation and has the potential of transforming followers into leaders as well as transforming leaders into moral agents (Rost, 1991).

5.2.3 Influence Through Interpersonal Approach

In this section, the interviewees share their definition of influence, which is based on trust-based relationship and inspiration for their followers. Trust and role modelling are fundamental characteristics of transformational leadership (see Sections [2.2.2](#) and [2.5](#)). Transformational leaders engage followers closely without using power (Bass, 2009). That concept of influence In Bass's (1985) theory, transformational leaders with idealised influence, despite their level of position in an organisation, can create a change and transform individuals, groups or the organisation without a position of authority.

Marco:

Leadership has nothing to do with management, and leadership has more to do with interaction with people and influencing others to move in the right direction. The most critical trait of a leader is to influence or convince the people in your team and others outside your team, especially if you want to make changes in the company.

Micah:

In order to be influential , a leader-manager should not say: “You need to do that” or “that is your job”. People buy character. Normally they feel they can trust you.

Marco:

The most important trait of a leader is to be able to influence or to convince the people in your team and others outside your team....especially if you want to make changes in the company“... “Leadership has more to do with interaction with people and the ability to influence others to move along in the right direction...

Transformational leaders make a difference because they stimulate others (Posner and Kouzes,1996; McCarthy, 2000); they acts as a role model provides a vision, a strong influence, and a sense of mission (Bass & Avolio, 1989). Influence happens through an interpersonal approach (Sorenson & Savage, 1989). It is aligned with Jago (1982) and Gardner et al. (2005), who state that influential leaders have an explicit self-identification or high self-knowledge (Gardner et al., 2005; Section 6). Jago (1982) characterises leadership as influence through the interpersonal process without resorting to the authority or power derived from an employment contract (Jago, 1982). The interpersonal process happens through trust as an interaction of values, attitudes and emotions or moods (Jones & George, 1998). With trust, people can influence others and be influenced by others (see more in Section 6.4).

On the other side, transactional leaders influence their employees' performance (Bass, 1985; Avolio et al., 1999; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999) through a contractual agreement where each side desires the other to fulfil the agreed terms of the transaction to ensure the survival of the existing relationship between them (Penn, 2015). The agreement, perhaps in prestige or money, is for compliance with their wishes (Mumford & Van Doorn, 2001). Some literature sees transactional leadership as not built on trust-based relationships and interpersonal approaches (Burn, 1978; Vangen & Huxham, 2003).

5.2.4 Visionary Leadership

Role model behaviours possess visionary capabilities (Foy, 2019). Vision is also defined as the main aspect or characteristic of role model leadership (Bass, 1985; Bryman, 1996). A Leader who acts as a role model demonstrates that success is possible (Lockwood, 2006) and shows how to accomplish one's goals (Lockwood, 2006). Some of the participants use in the following quotes the word 'vision' or 'goals'. However, many of them reveal that a purpose is needed for leaders' vision. A purpose is overarching, holistic and hard to quantify, whereas goals are specific, targeted and generally quantifiable (Rost, 1991). Purposes are mutual in that they reflect the desires of both the leader and the follower (Rost, 1991).

Greg:

A leader is someone who "models" the way to go forward towards a specific vision. As a leader, I need to think what I want to be. It means I need to know what my vision is.

Micah:

Leaders should act as a role model... leadership is about inspiring people to do the extra mile on their own. This is because they can show that they are fully committed to be themselves and to their own vision.

Diana:

Leaders do not use authority. They inspire others because of the meaning or sense of purpose of their vision. They can be anyone, not just a manager. They set an example and inspire others. True role model leaders know their identity.

Leaders' vision can be analysed from four perspectives based on the interviewees' input. Firstly, the connection between vision and transformational leadership. Second, vision with life fulfilment and higher purpose. Third, the long-term perspective of a vision. Lastly is the relation between vision and self-knowledge.

5.2.4.1 Vision and Transformational Leadership

An essential factor in transformational leadership vision identifies a need for change (Conger & Kanungo, 1987). Visions are forward-looking and meaningful goals to followers, and the word 'meaningful' describes a sense of purpose (Bryman, 1996). Leadership intends fundamental changes that reflect mutual purposes (Rost, 1991). In this case, vision is used as a direction for a fundamental change in an organisation (Conger & Kanungo, 1987). Van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013) argue that visioning behaviour is the most critical aspect of transformational leadership. Most interviewees want to see major transformations or significant changes happen in the company (see Section [5.4](#)).

Roni:

... My desire is to drive change in the organisation to achieve better conditions,
...
To achieve this, I need a long-term vision ... I will try to do what I can, and I do not have to wait until I have a managerial position" ...

Marco:

We only have short-term goals in our company. Everybody knows that the focus is to earn money as quickly as possible.... maybe there is still little space for other visions. For me, a vision is not a day-to-day thing: it is a picture you can use as a guideline and judge your day-to-day work with that vision. It helps me to get into the direction of a long-term vision. Better still, keeping my long-term vision in mind helps me make decisions on a day-to-day basis.

The vital link between transformational leadership and vision was shown by many recent and early authors (Bass, 1985; Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Tichy & Devanna, 1986; Shamir et al., 1991; House & Shamir, 1993). Sections [6.2](#), [6.3](#) and [6.6](#) discover how a vision plays an essential role in becoming a transformational leader. Marco describes that there is a vision conflict that exists in the company. The top managers in the company prioritise more short-term profit goals and his vision is more for long-term growth for him and his team. However, Marco states that he keeps pursuing his personal vision, which helps him to face the same daily complexities due the existing

vision conflict. Marco's comment is in line with the theory that vision provides the direction and sustenance for changes and help us navigate through crises (M. Hunt, 1999, p 12). Literature also states that vision serves as a guide for interim strategies, decisions, and behaviour (Bass 2008). The theory says purpose connects to motivation, engagement, and performance, recognizing both purpose and calling as sources to motivation, drive toward, and commitment to an accomplishment (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000; Damon et al., 2003).

5.2.4.2 Higher Purpose

Another perspective that can be analysed in transformational leadership theories is that transformational leaders look to higher purposes (Brown, 1993; Bass, 2008; Kim, 2014; Li et al., 2018). Purpose strongly relates to self-knowledge and self-identity (Gardner et al., 2005). Duffy and Sedlacek (2007) also add that a personal higher purpose could be applied to organisations. Embracing a calling, purpose, or personal vision in one's vocation and living out a calling are linked to a positive work experience and well-being (Duffy & Dik, 2013).

However, little literature analyses the difference between a vision and a purpose. Bass (2008) describes visions as forward-looking and meaningful goals to followers (Bass, 2008). The word 'meaningful' implies a sense of purpose (Bass, 2008). An increased level of meaning or purpose is connected with work gratification (Bonebright et al., 2000), life fulfilment, well-being (Zika & Chamberlain, 1992) and happiness (Debats et al., 1993). The sense of meaning is not only for the follower; personal vision energises followers by creating meaning and positively socially constructing reality for themselves and their followers (Gardner et al., 2005).

Tom:

I expect that I want to feel fulfilled and satisfied with myself. There was a time when money and position were my motivation. I don't feel like that anymore: now I need stability where I can feel the meaning of what I am doing.

Chris:

I think the biggest challenge for me is to have a personal vision that motivates me. I think money for a manager at a certain level is not the main motivation any more. Money and promotion could be an incentive at first, but not for those who have held a leadership position for long enough. At least in my case. Here I do not see people any happier coming to work every day.

Marco:

Leading by example or becoming a role model leader means pursuing your vision. People will be inspired by you if you focus on a purpose that brings meaning to others. You need to have a vision of what you are trying to achieve. If you do not have a vision, you cannot be a leader.

Some participants make a clear distinction between goals that managers normally have (like money or position) and a vision that gives meaning and fulfilment. Chris explicitly calls it a personal vision. Managerial style is defined as task leadership, which uses more authority than communication (Daft 2003, McCartney & Campbell 2006). The participant quotes are aligned to the theory that a higher purpose goes beyond generating only profits and shareholder value (Mackey & Sisodia, 2014).

Micah:

Not everyone can lead, because leaders need vision. ... Being a manager, I do not need a vision.

Managers distribute employees' tasks without having any vision behind their job, using their position's authority. If I can develop the people I see are growing, I get satisfaction from being a leader-manager. Of course, there will be a time when they leave me because they are growing, but it is good for the company.

Adam:

Leaders need vision. Managers do not need vision. Although I have a high-level manager position, it does not mean I am a leader. Now I am more a manager than a leader. I think vision from a manager's perspective is daily goals. I understand about company goals. It is good to have managers who make sure

that everyone does their task to achieve a specific revenue. On the other hand, if a company does not pay attention to its people, some day it will break.

5.2.4.3 Long-Term Vision

Another essential aspect of the participants' statement is that vision needs to reflect their purpose. It is aligned with Marco's statement that shows how vision later grew into a particular shape but still had the same core and direction. In this case, Marco applies the theory that vision is the desired state of products, services, and an organisation that a leader wants to realize (Bennis & Nanus, 1985) and is an idyllic and distinctive representation of the future (Kouzes & Posner, 1987). He could see what kind of core and direction he wanted to achieve in the future, yet the outcome was much bigger than he thought.

Marco:

You need a long-term vision, establishing all the things you need piece by piece. Some steps might not be what you had planned, but you need to keep that vision to move forward...

Long-term vision is something you also need to develop over the time. The vision grows and might look different from your initial idea, but the core is the same. You are not changing the vision's direction, but you need to review it regularly, to know exactly what you want.

Florent:

A leader-manager in a cooperate company needs to have the mindset of a long-term vision, to achieve fulfilment and to support his employees' visions, regardless of his upper manager's conditions and the situation within the company. With a long-term vision mindset, he will be able to develop a clear strategy for his team that supports the company goal while also ensuring healthy growth for his team.

Mason:

Being a leader requires an extended long-term strategy. I learn to convince people in other function groups to buy the strategy I believe in. Unless they can see that my vision empowers their growth, they will not follow me freely. Some employees do their job because they have to, not because they are motivated to do it.

Marco refers to 'long-term vision' to explain his definition and says that finding personal vision is like a process of knowing himself, which will be discussed in the [Section 6.2](#). According to Marco, a long-term vision has similar characteristics that need to be developed and reviewed over time without changing the direction (Bennis & Nanus, 1985). Although Synder (2000) does not use the term 'long-term vision', he states a similar understanding to Bennis and Nanus (1985), which is goals or vision create targets or align thought processes and vary in terms of the amount of specificity and time frame.

Roni:

... My desire is to drive change in the organisation to achieve better conditions, particularly in engineering tools and software systems for the employees' personal growth.

To achieve this, I need a long-term vision and investment to build it. I will try to do what I can, and I do not have to wait until I have a managerial position" ...

Roni and Florent are non-managers, yet they both support the idea that leaders should have a long-term vision and make the same point that it supports and empowers employees' personal growth or vision. This is in line with Thoms & Govekar (1997), who say that followers react positively when the vision reflects their values and provides information to direct their future behaviour. The vision serves as a meta goal for the leader to pursue. When employees work to accomplish a goal or vision that is not their own, they are less driven (Higgins, 1987; Boyatzis, 2008). Some of the participant suggest leaders to create a long-term vision because it will help them to

encourage their subordinates to pursue their vision despite the challenging situation in the company. This topic will be discussed more in [Section 6.6](#).

5.2.4.4 Self-Knowledge

Another aspect of visionary leadership is self-knowledge (David et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2023). Gardner et al. (2005) confirm that leaders with greater self-knowledge will encourage their followers to develop greater self-knowledge. It is aligned with Fiona's statement that „*a leader is simply someone who inspires me to become more myself*’ (not someone else). Gardner et al. (2005) suggest that leaders with greater self-knowledge will encourage their followers to develop greater self-knowledge.

Marco:

I think setting your personal vision is like a process of knowing yourself... you may need to redesign the structure and the system from the first vision you achieved.

When I first started in this company, I wanted to build a small group of ten people and needed three years to do it. The business started growing and I needed a bigger group, so it took more time to build. Now that small team has become one big business unit with two hundred people ...

The next question is , what do the participant mean about self-knowledge? In Justice's quote, “*A leader is someone who can be himself with the value that I follow*”. Micah says ‘*leaders are fully committed to being themselves*’, while Diana claims ‘*true leaders know clearly their identity*’ and Greg says ‘*I need to think what I want to be*’.

Neverthelless Marco points out that self-knowledge produces a vision. In his statement, he says that „*I think setting your vision is like a process of knowing yourself...*”. This is in line with the theory that personal vision gives leaders insight of identity and has profound effects on the way we feel, think, and behave, and for the things we aim to achieve (Leary & Tangney, 2003). Visionary leaders have a sense of identity, direction, and strategy for implementation (Nygren & Ukeritis, 1993). Their

understanding about self-knowledge is related to self-clarity, which will be analysed in depth in [Section 6.2](#).

5.2.5 Leader Versus Manager

Another way the participant describe their leadership concept is by comparing their perspectives between a leader and a manager. This thesis aims not to prove whether these different interpretations of 'leader' and 'manager' are right or wrong, nor why the interviewees make this distinction.

Maria:

I'm interested in becoming a leader but not a manager, because people with a managerial position in this company are not actually leaders. Managers deal with vacation reports, salary reports and other paperwork. Their focus is on maintaining the company's matrix, but they do not have a vision that can inspire people to create something new for a better place. That's why most of the managers here do not know how to deal with people and support their potential.

Sam:

Some leaders-managers in this company may have authority, but it doesn't mean they are true leaders. Most of them manage, not lead. A manager has a more functional role to manage day-to-day issues. He provides structure, keeps to deadlines, oversees the progress of a major project, gathers all the information and has an overview of all his employees' current projects. A true leader is different: it's someone who can empower, inspire and influence his/her employees.

Fiona:

We have engineers that do not actually have a managerial role or direct authority over employees but are regarded as leaders by many employees, because what they say often makes more influence than what managers say. These 'leader' engineers have the ability to influence and motivate followers to achieve their vision (followers). They are brave enough to make a difference,

fulfil their own vision and support other people's visions, especially those related to growth. This is what I call leadership.

Based on the interviewees' statements, there are two significant characteristics of a leader described by the interviewees. The first characteristic is that a leader embraces other people's growth, which creates a natural influence to follow the leader. The second characteristic is that someone can be called a leader if he can make a difference and change instead of only maintaining a system that already exists.

The first characteristic is aligned with transformational leadership theory, which states that leaders endorse their followers' growth and potential; therefore, usually, leaders do not need an authority or reward system to motivate their followers (Bass, 1985; Rost, 1991; Bass, 2009). The second characteristic is aligned with one of the transformational leaders' characteristics, idealised influence. Bass (1985) argues that transformational leaders with idealised influence, despite their level of position in an organisation, can create a change and transform individuals, groups or the organisation without a position of authority.

Conversely, the participant's definition of a manager aligns with the transactional leadership literature. Transactional leaders do not motivate their employees through the concept of people-orientation; their focus is on things and influences their followers' performance through an agreement or a transaction to ensure the survival of the existing relationship between them (Bass, 1985; Avolio et al., 1999; Penn, 2015; [Section 2.2.4](#)).

All the above quotes say that leadership is about influencing and directing for a certain direction or change. Bennis and Nanus express a similar concept in *Leaders: The Strategies for Taking Charge* (1985, p 21):

“To manage” means “to bring about, to accomplish, to have charge of or responsibility for, to conduct.” “Leading” is influencing, guiding in direction, course, action, and opinion.” The distinction is crucial. Managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing”.

Most interviewees who use this distinction technique (manager and leader) to explain their understanding of leadership, view that leadership is about influencing, inspiring and motivating; there is always a change/transformation involved, and it is not just about maintaining. The next Sections analyse what kind of transformation or changes that the participants desire to see in their organisation. It will be also analysed why the

Most interviewees who use this distinction technique (manager and leader) to explain their understanding of leadership view leadership as influencing, inspiring and motivating; there is always a change/transformation involved, and it is not just about maintaining. The following Sections analyse the participants' wish to see organisational transformation or changes and why it is challenging to have that transformation happening in their company.

5.3 The Vision Conflict

Section 5.3 analyses the vision conflict between employees' vision and the company's vision. The interviewees describe their desire to see more shared vision applied in the company's strategy. They believe that the employees want more goals supporting their potential and self-development, which is essential for the company's long-term growth.

5.3.1 The Company Goals and Shared Vision

They believe that the employees want to see more goals that grow their potential and enable them to develop innovations for long-term perspective.

Diana:

This company does not move in one direction. Even the managers in the middle of the organisation do not share the same goal.

A long-term vision will help a big organisation with many departments to move in the same direction. It is difficult for a big organisation like a company to work for the same vision, especially a shared vision.

Greg:

In the last ten to 20 years, there are not many changes in our company's vision. Its goals are to generate maximum profit in the shortest possible time. If I were the CEO now, I would try to break down priorities and visions based on the input from my business units and my company shareholders. There has to be a balance between earning money and people's growth.

Some interviewees see that the company's goals are not based on a long-term perspective because the changes that happen in the company are only on the surface level and do not bring the company in any direction ([Section 5.4.3](#)). Based on their inputs, the root cause is the lacking of leaders and more 'managers' in their organisation ([Section 5.2.5](#)). Therefore, most interviewees state that the company needs significant transformation ([Section 5.4](#)) that can be driven by leaders instead of managers ([Section 5.2.5](#)). Transformational leaders can communicate a clear sense of direction and inspire organisational members to follow the direction of transformation (Pearce et al., 2003).

According to Bennis and Nanus (1985, p. 89), "to choose a direction, a leader must first have developed a mental image of a possible and desirable future state of the organisation. . . which we call a vision . . . [A] vision articulates a view of a realistic, credible, attractive future for the organisation. . . . With a vision, the leader provides the all-important bridge from the present to the future of the organisation". Bennis and Nanus' definition of vision aligns with the participant's long-term vision ([Section 5.2.4.3](#) and [6.6](#)). Their vision characterisation is based on the purpose of mutual benefit and embraces individual self-development.

Roni:

This daily issue is the effect of short-term profit goals. The consequence of too many short-term profit goals is the quick-fix and surface-fix mindset. Those mindsets are the root cause of the non-innovative work performance and system.

Further, when faced with a dynamic environment, transformational leaders take a long-term perspective. They offer organisational members a compelling vision (Judge &

Piccolo, 2004). The participants' statements show that they want to see more leaders who can drive the transformation to foster the innovation that the company needs to fix the effects of imbalance priority between short-term profits goals and vision for long-term growth (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Increasing micromanagement and unnecessary procedure are the effects of an unhealthy organisation that prioritise only short-term goals (Kakabadse, 1999; Ansarian, 2014; [Section 5.3.2](#)).

5.3.2 Micromanagement and Short-Term Profit Orientation

All the interviewees describe the existing micromanagement that disables them from becoming a leader. Based on their input, this section analyses that micromanagement is one of the effects of the short-term profit orientation itself. It also explains why the existing micromanagement does not support the company's goal to focus on short-term profit.

Mason:

In my opinion, high micromanagement does not fit with the company's goal, which is short-term and profit-oriented. To achieve this goal, you need to be fast and flexible. Micromanagement will not help us to be fast and flexible. However, micromanagement is the effect of not balancing long-term and short-term goals. It is like a trap. They want successful short-term results but have not spent enough effort on long-term development.

Adam:

... We have a high micromanagement system that takes up most of our time. Centralised management and high micromanagement systems are not good for a company focused on short-term profit-oriented goals because everything is slower and takes longer.

This kind of company culture gives us no chance to be the leader or the role model I have described. We are forced to be managers instead of leaders. A manager is always busy checking and controlling all the details of their employees. We have no choice but to be micromanagers because of all the checklists to be filled out and various day-to-day problems. In the short term, a

manager is good for the organisation, but in the long term, a healthy organisation needs leaders, not just managers. Leaders need the freedom and the time to create their strategy for people's growth.

According to the literature, micromanagement decreases worker efficiency and productivity and potentially decreases organisational success (White, 2021). A micromanager requests details that are of no value to a personal job or position (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2003). It is aligned with the participants' input that they are fully occupied with tasks that do not bring quality to their work performance which is efficiency and productivity (see [Section 5.4.1](#)). They say they need to work fast and flexibly to achieve the company's goal. As a result, most participants need more time to do significant work that brings real growth to themselves, their employees and their organisations (see [Sections 5.4.1](#) and [5.4.2](#)). Characterisations of micromanagement and administrative procedures, rules, and policies delay the speed of productivity caused by the required approvals needed on every level of decision (Jaques, 1989).

Nevertheless, some literature shows that micromanagement might benefit the company. In the short term, micromanager characteristics may have positive benefits for an organisation, whereas, in the long term, they may hinder employee productivity by increasing task timelines and limiting communication (Austin & Larkey, 1992; Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2003; Saprienza, 2005).

The question is now. Why the company applies a micromanagement system if they want to focus on short-term goals?

The Interviewer to Sam:

Do you know why the company applies more micromanagement concepts? As you said, it will not build a trust-based relationship.

Sam:

Good question. I do not think the top managers intentionally create micromanagement for us. Micromanagement is the result of an unhealthy organisation. However, every year is getting worst. The amount of

micromanagement, such as matrixes, is getting more every year, and I can say most checklists do not bring more quality for our product or our work process.

Adam:

...Micromanagement is also the consequence of the quick-fix concept that has been established for many years. No one had the time or capacity to fix the root cause and invest in a brand-new system for our information tools. As a result, our systems are now full of add-in tools that make it slower and more micro inputs.

Maria:

The habit of doing temporary fixes creates will create more work at the end. I believe this is why with the time we have increasing micromanagement works that brings no improvement to our work performance

Sam:

We have so much micromanagement because, for so many years, they have done only changes on the surface level in our software tools. As a result, the tools need multiple manual inputs of information. Many parts of information are the same, and we need to feed that information to our system multiple times. That is paperwork that takes too much time for my employees and me. Paperwork takes more than 50% of the time every day. Can you imagine issues that sometimes happen in our production lines due to machines' defects and an additional 50% of paperwork every day and all the meetings? Leaders should know this is clearly a non-effective work process.

Based on the participants' statements, they do not think that micromanagement is the impact of the temporary solution mindset that they need to do. Some participants, for example, Maria, see that the temporary solution mindset, which comes from the inexistence of transformational leadership, produces more micromanagement works in the company (see [Sections 5.4.1](#) and [5.4.2](#)).

Another effect of micromanagement is the decreasing quality of the manager-employee relationship.

Micah:

I even do not understand why they apply a micromanagement system. Micromanagement does not nurture trust in a leaders-employees relationship.

*Micromanagement is something you only do for new college graduates, starters, or weak people you cannot trust. This company has many checklists to measure our performance; they are one way to measure success, but too many checklists drive behaviour. Engineers are creative: if you give them a checklists matrix, they **may** not buy it: they will find a way to bypass it. Every engineer finds a way. However, the worst effect is that the employees will feel their managers do not trust them, which triggers a feeling of too much restriction and frustration.*

Diana:

...most managers prefer to play on the safe side instead of thinking long-term for the company to avoid issues with their top managers. This is one effect of micromanagement and shows the lack of trust in our organisation.

The actions of micromanagers decrease the characteristics of a successful manager, especially leader-managers who want to be role models for their followers (Loprena, 2004). It reduces the quality of the leader-employee relationship because it decreases the level of trust (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2003; White, 2010; Bascauvsoğlu, Hughes, & Mina, 2013; Bramble, 2014). A research study shows that at a large company, managers described micromanaging as taking away decisions from people who should take the decision (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2003).

Furthermore, micromanagement diminishes enthusiasm and job satisfaction, and poor communication and lacking emotional intelligence create frustration and hinder workforce performance (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2003; Cleary et al., 2015). Despite the participants' desire to act as role models (see [Section 5.2.1](#)), the interviewees must face challenges caused by the micromanagement system that reduces their work

performance quality (Loprena, 2004). The micromanagement and the ongoing pressure of short-term profit goals impact the company's productivity ([see Section 5.4.1](#)).

5.3.3 The Inability to be Transformational Leaders

This section explores the endless chain loop the interviewees must face in the company. The participants describe this chain reaction as an endless cycle that prevents them from becoming the leader they desire and assume that everyone, including the top managers, are also entangled in a certain behavioural cycle.

Adam:

... I assume that even many top leaders have difficulty becoming true leaders. I never talked to the CEO. However, all the upper managers I know are limited to acting only as managers. I do not know any upper manager who has shown his vision and ability to make his strategy for their organisations. Maybe the one who makes the decision is only one or two people, including the CEO.

I know some middle managers who want to do some transformation; however, only a few succeeded. And if they succeeded, they usually needed to do it behind the wall in the beginning before they could show something that would benefit the upper managers. It is challenging to convince upper managers to invest in something if they cannot see that the result will benefit them in the short term. So, it is like an endless loop. Micromanagement is also the consequence of the quick-fix concept that has been established for many years. No one had the time or capacity to fix the root cause and invest in a brand-new system for our information tools. As a result, our systems are now full of add-in tools that make it slower and more micro inputs.

Roni:

I am not sure whether the top leaders are really against the idea of investing money in long-term development, and maybe they are not against long-term growth. Nevertheless, we can see the result of the top leaders' actions. The culture that has been established is not the culture to build people with a long-

term mindset. Maybe the top leaders are just like the middle managers who are burdened with many daily issues, so they could not drive any significant long-term changes to improve our performance and production.

Several interviewees, such as Adam and Roni see that not only middle-level and high-level managers have difficulty becoming transformational leaders. They assume that everyone is somehow entangled in becoming a person who has transformational leadership mindset. [Figure 5.0](#) illustrate the barrier that keeps preventing the interviewees from acting according to their desired leadership.

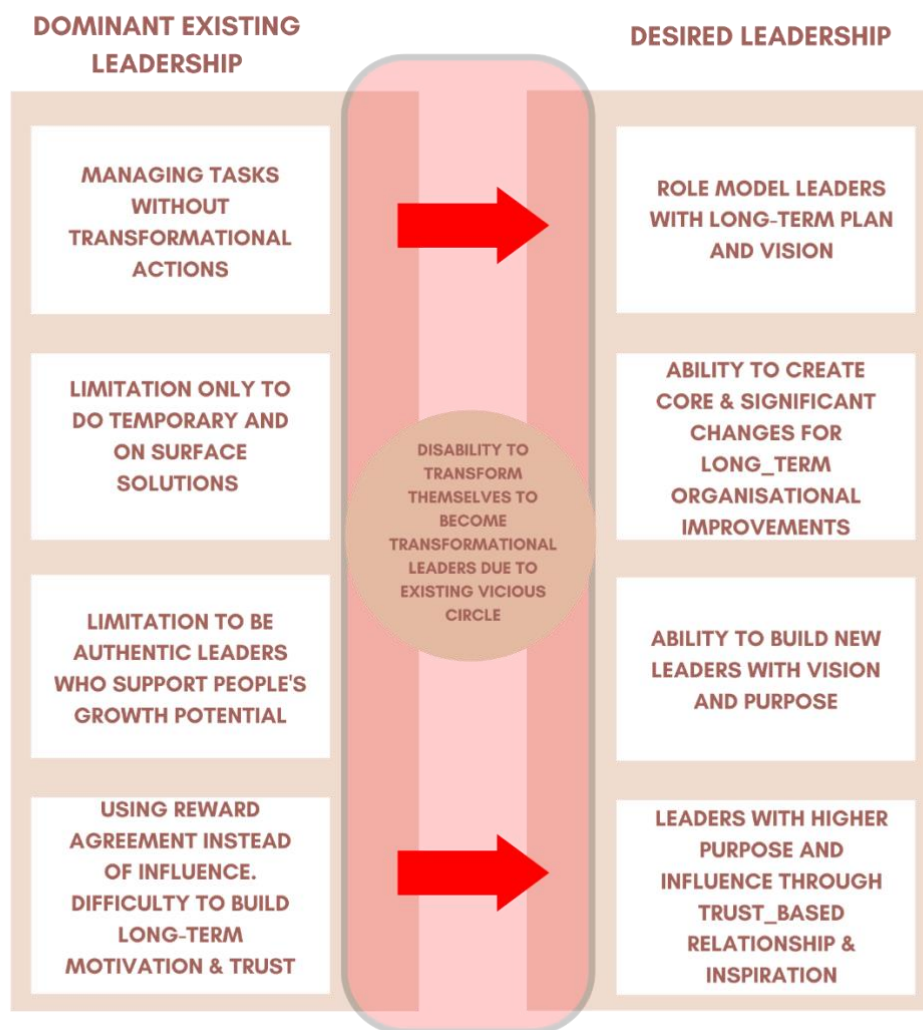


Figure 5.0 The Inability to Become a Transformational Leader

Despite the need and the desire for transformational leaders for the company's performance ([Section 5.4](#)) and employees' expectations (see [Section 5.2](#)), all

participants with managerial positions admit that they cannot act as transformational leaders due to all the organisational challenges they encounter. Most non-manager participants believe that it is difficult for the company managers to act as leaders who can make a difference. One of the participants, Roni, defines this kind of situation as an endless loop of circumstances that keep them doing and acting the same.

Roni:

It is like a chain of circumstances or an endless loop. This daily issue is the effect of short-term profit goals. The consequence of too many short-term profit goals is the quick-fix and surface-fix mindset. Those mindsets are the root cause of the non-innovative work performance and system.

5.3.4 The Vicious Circle

One of the main factors that challenge the interviewees who want to become transformational leaders is the vision conflict between the company's short-term profit goals and the employees' long-term vision (see [Section 5.3.1](#)). However, as described in [Section 5.3.3](#), some interviewees see that the top leaders may have the same difficulties in applying a transformational mindset. This is because everyone might be entangled in a particular loop of conditions that disables them to do differently (see [Section 5.3.3](#))—[figure 5.1](#) illustrates the vicious circle to show the chain of conditions that prevent interviewees from seeing and becoming transformational leaders and instead only acting as managers (see [Section 5.2.5](#)).

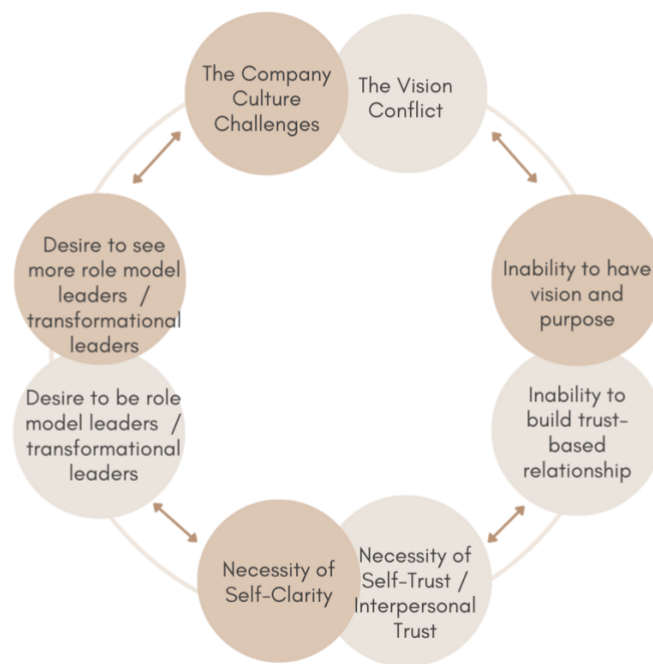


Figure 5.1 The Vicious Circle

The vicious circle illustrates what is going on and what is happening ([research objective No. 1 and No. 2](#)) in the company. It starts with the participants' perspective on leadership and their role model leaders and to see more leaders capable of driving core-based level transformation in the company. However, the company culture and the existing vision conflict prevent them from being the leaders they desire. The company culture, such as micromanagement and centralisation limit the participants even more. For example, more daily issue that take all of their time and ineffective communication due lack of trust. Because of the impacts of the company culture, they do not have time to find themselves, to find their purpose and vision. Without having a clear self-knowledge and clarity, they do not have natural self-confidence to influence others and to become transformational leaders.

The following [Section 5.4](#) explores the impact of the vicious circle behaviour that keeps the employees in the company acting only as managers and prevent them from being able to act like the leaders they desire. [Section 5.4](#) also reveals the short-term goals behaviours' impacts on manufacturing and production time efficiency.

5.4 The Need for Transformational Leadership

This section explores the urgency for transformational actions based on the interviewees' inputs. Four significant impacts were identified from the interviewees' data related to the need for transformational leadership in the company, namely the decreasing performance and quality, the limitation for self-development, the habits of temporary solution mindset, and the increasing numbers of unhealthy competition inside the company.

Greg:

In the last ten to 20 years, there are not many changes in our company's vision. Its goals are to generate maximum profit in the shortest possible time. If I were the CEO now, I would try to break down priorities and visions based on the input from my business units and my company shareholders. There has to be a balance between earning money and people's growth.

Maria:

...We need a significant transformation. It happens only if we have leaders-managers brave enough to make a significant transformation instead of surface-level changes. Managers here are limited to doing only surface-level changes. Most of them do that to show something new to their upper managers...

Based on the interviewees' input, one of the impacts of minimum transformational actions is decreasing work performance. Regarding work performance, the participants identified two significant impacts, namely the decreasing production efficiency in terms of time and cost and the decreasing innovation quality. The literature states that to gain sustainability and remain competitive, it is essential for organisations to be creative and innovative to gain efficiency and success (Slåtten & Mehmetoglu, 2015). Most participants confirm that their work process is getting slower and less effective over time. Based on some participants' quotes, this ineffective work system causes issues and delays their production and manufacturing processes.

Reducing change resistance by encouraging open communication among firm members minimizes speculations and wrong perceptions (Agboola & Salawu, 2010). Change resistance can also be reduced by introducing managerial practices that present learning opportunities to help “unfreeze” the perceptions and mindsets of the organisational members (Lewin, 1947; Choi & Ruona, 2010).

5.4.1 Increasing Lead Time in Manufacturing

Most of the participants mention the need for transformation in the company. Leaders with transformational qualities are known as the principal driver of employees' creativity and innovative behaviour (Jyoti & Dev, 2015). Transformational leadership has a positive association and significant influence to employees' creativity and innovation (Jyoti & Dev, 2015; Howell & Avolio, 1993). Transformational leaders can play an essential role in promoting personal and organisational change (Avolio, 2005).

Nevertheless, some researchers criticise that there are still many unclarities in how leaders shape group and organisation processes (Yukl, 2009). They argue that a comprehensive model is still needed to analyse leadership's impact on creativity and innovative behaviour (Yukl, 2009).

Marco:

Currently, we have production issues continuously. They have realized the need for long-term investment to increase their capacity. They have started to build more foundries and assembly sites.

Nevertheless, we need more than building new fabrications or foundries to solve our production issues. Improvement in production is not only about adding buildings and facilities. We need an effective work process without too much micromanagement and a new operating system to reduce cycle time.

Cycle time in production and our work process needs to be significantly reduced. To achieve that, we need significant transformation in many areas; I do not think leaders or managers in this company can do that.

Melani:

We need transformation in our software and tools for our system information. We need new machines, instead of pushing the old machine to run with extra accessories. The same in software, the changes they made are based only on the add-in concept, and there is no significant improvement in the primary system. As a result, everything is slower and heavier.

Tom:

Building more fabrication will not solve our problem. The issues that we have are more complicated than adding resources. It may seem to solve capacity issues quickly, but it does not solve the real problem.

Our inefficient and slow work process causes our production issues. Our old information management system generates a slow work process. Transferring information from one stage to the next production stage is getting longer.

Our system management is so complicated that it makes our work so ineffective. It causes a longer cycle time from manufacturing until shipping out the products. In addition to building new foundries, the company needs to completely transform its process system, including all digital software where information is transferred across this company's organisation. However, I do not see we will go in that direction because to do that, we need more leaders-manager who are brave enough to influence significant changes.

As described in [Section 1.3](#), U.S semiconductor foundries have less manufacturing share from global chip production (Poitiers & Weil, 2021). U.S semiconductor dominates 65% of the global chip design; however, U.S semiconductor companies have depended on Taiwanese Foundries to manufacture their chips (Poitiers & Weil, 2021). In the context of semiconductor competition, For U.S. fabrications to succeed, they must find a formula to achieve a certain level of time and cost efficiency in their manufacturing process and deliver their products to the customers fast (Ferry et al., 2021). The statements from Marco and Tom show some similarities of low efficiency in their work and manufacturing processes, such as in various areas from information systems, software, and machines in the foundries, including the whole supply chain

process. The next question is, what kind of transformational aspects prevent leaders in U.S semiconductor companies from making significant improvements to their manufacturing process?

Fiona:

The primary root cause is the absence of a long-term vision for the company. They should have done a balanced strategy between short-term goals and long-term goals long ago.

It is too late; no matter how hard we work, day and night, the work process is too slow due to old tools and systems.

We need significant changes in everything, but to make significant changes, they need to sacrifice some short-term goals and focus on innovation of internal processes. No managers will invest that time, especially the top managers, because their priority is to please the shareholders. ...

The Interviewer to Greg:

You said the semiconductor industry is defined as a technology industry for electronics and industrial innovations. However, you mentioned there are not too many changes in the company. What do you mean by changes?

Greg:

Changes are innovations and new strategies to reduce production cycle time and to launch the product faster. To do that, the company needs to do more in long-term investment. A long-term vision will benefit the company as well as the people's growth in the long run. However, that is not the case in this company.

As established in [Section 1.3](#), success in the semiconductor industry means that the speed and effectiveness with which new products are developed and introduced into large-volume production (Hatch & Mowery, 1998). Semiconductor companies are suggested to have long-term improvements that can bring the companies to a certain level of production efficiency (Peng, 2009; Ferry et al., 2021). Therefore, semiconductor industries must reduce product development durations and achieve the

anticipated self-imposed target market goals to meet market demand requirements (Hatch & Mowery, 1998).

TSMC, with its long-term view, achieved established a complete value chain and competitiveness in terms of time efficiency, cost and global logistics (Peng, 2009; Ferry et al., 2021). As described by some participants, Taiwanese Foundries have been good outsourcing foundries for other semiconductor companies to build their products.

Tom:

We have limited capacity in our fabrication...

Some design departments that do not succeed in getting priority in our foundry from the top management need to look for outsourcing possibilities. For instance, our design departments build their products in Taiwanese foundries. Supposed, we cannot manufacture their product on time; we will lose their potential customers.

The Interviewer to Melani:

You also mentioned earlier that the company needs significant transformation. What is the connection between the change and the long-term vision that company needs to have?

Melani:

Long term-vision generates total transformation that could make our work faster, be more productive, and have higher work efficiency. By making the work process quickly, the employees will have more time to work on continuous innovations to improve production and our work process. However, transformation cannot happen if the top managers never intend to have a long-term vision for the company.

By providing a vision of creative and innovative outcomes, and promoting intellectual stimulation, leaders challenge and inspire individuals to test the existing mindsets in order to bring about change (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Eisenbeis et al., 2008). Compared

with Chinese semiconductor companies, they set a long-term goal of reaching self-sufficiency in high-tech industries by 2025 and securing leadership in innovation by 2050 (Peng, 2009). They intend to alleviate dependence on external suppliers or outsourcing for their manufacturing process and ensure an improvement in the value chain for technology production, notably for semiconductors (ISDP, 2018; Casanova & Miroux, 2019; Poitiers & Weil, 2021). Their strategy is based on their vision to become a world-leading chip producer (Poitiers & Weil, 2021). The case of China is aligned with the statements of the participants, who say that a long-term vision is necessary to move big organisations towards a specific direction ([Section 5.2.3](#); Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Kouzes & Posner, 1987).

The pivotal role of leadership to support individuals to show their creativity and innovation often requires more than normal work tasks. They frequently experience fear and anxiety when trying to generate and implement a new idea (Csikszentmihalyi, 1996). Therefore, as displayed by some of the interviewees' statements, the proper leadership is required to drive the necessary changes and movement.

5.4.2 Decreasing Quality in Innovation

Creativity and innovation can be used as important tools to fuel corporate growth (Baker et al., 2016). Some participants describe the different possible meanings of innovation in the semiconductor industry. Based on the analysis in the last section, the lack of a clear direction and significant changes affects the quality of their innovations. Here, some participants explain their definition of innovation from the manufacturing or production perspective that most people confuse with the innovation from the chip's end application products.

Chris:

From the outside, the semiconductor industry always looks like a highly innovative industry, and indeed, it is highly innovative if we see it from the end application point of view. Nevertheless, it does not always mean from an organisational and manufacturing point of view.

The Interviewer to Chris:

People know that the semiconductor industry is defined as a highly innovative industry. Could you please explain more why the company need urgent innovation and massive changes?

Chris:

From marketing advertisements and media news, people may see that the semiconductor industry is always related to high innovation. The end applications that are using our chips may be innovative, but it does not mean we have sufficient innovations in our company to produce our semiconductor products or chips.

Chris mention two types of essential innovations for the company, which are the organisational innovation and manufacturing innovation. The term organisational innovation is often used to refer to the creation or adoption of a new idea or behaviour in the organisation (Daft, 1978; Damanpour & Evan, 1984; Damanpour, 1996; Damanpour & Aravind, 2006). However, the currently available literature on organisational innovation is rather diverse and fragmented, and different areas of research have developed their own approaches and understandings of the phenomenon (Lam, 2005). This has resulted in different definitions and interpretations in innovation, such as the structural, the process, and the organisational change perspective (Burns & Stalker, 1961; Mumford et al., 2002). Sam explains some type of transformation that can be done from an organisation process perspective.

Sam:

... to improve our manufacturing time, we need a total transformation. Although we have more foundries and assembly sites, it will not change the fact that our work procedure is too complicated and too traditional.

For instance, to create a product report, we need not at least three weeks because there are so many steps and procedures to generate that report. And those procedures add no value to the report's quality. Other semiconductor companies may need only one hour to create a similar product report. That is a simple example, but it dramatically impacts overall manufacturing time.

We need leaders who have transformational mindsets and can clean up all unnecessary procedures and papers works. They must be courageous enough to create significant changes in our information system.

Sam's example indicates that a high degree of organisational standardisation has also been suggested to reduce firm innovativeness by creating rules and routines that members of the organisation are afraid to break (Morgan, 1993). Sam's quote shows that that innovation could refer to information system management and work management. However, innovation could have various meanings in the semiconductor manufacturing concept.

Chris:

The semiconductor industry indeed has high-technology manufacturing. It is complicated technology and needs billions of dollars in investment to build a foundry. The semiconductor has been developed since the 1950ies. There have been so many development milestones until now. From 150 mm technology to 200mm and until now, 300 mm wafer technology.

However, if we talk about innovation, it includes the work process, the work systems, the management system and so on. It involves the software system, the operational system, the information system, the supply chain system and even the people growth in the company. The semiconductor shortage is caused not only by the long cycle time of the production system. It is also caused by a long operational process that needs to be optimized and more effective. That kind of improvement needs innovations.

Nevertheless, from different perspectives in literature, innovation can be classified into three categories: innovation from existing technologies, the emergence of a dominant design, and radical innovation from outside the industry group (Mintzberg, 1978; Harrison & St. John, 1994; Porter, 1996). The changes can be implemented in different types of strategy, such as strategy for product development (Camillus, 1984; Maidique et al., 1988), strategy for production (Miller, 1988; Robinson, 1988) or strategy for management (Maidique et al. 1988; Zahra, 1993). Despite the various perspectives

of innovation, quality, time and cost were always considered to evaluate effective and traditional processes (Sarkis et al., 1999).

Justice:

... our quality is decreasing. Just by having a short-term goal, our performance and our products' quality will go down. We can see the impact of our production's cycle time. This decreasing performance is also related to design quality. Maybe from the marketing advertisements, our new products look very innovative. However, it does not mean we created those products in an innovative system and innovative processes.

Chris:

We need to have leaders and engineers who have a transformational mindset. Innovative people can make fundamental changes in our organisations.

I am not saying our engineers do not have an innovative mindset. They do. However, we are talking about a company's transformation. Therefore, a company needs to have a clear long-term vision, like how our company will look in ten years. I do not feel that top managers desire to shape this company into a specific condition. I see how they want to get as much profit as soon as possible every year. Of course, that is good for the shareholders. Nevertheless, if they think only about the short-term profit, they will not consider spending long-term investments until they realize how the company's performance is decreasing.

Most of the interviewees describe that they need transformation in every area. To understand how change can be implemented correctly, some of the participants make a highlight that they need leaders who have long-term and transformational mindset.

Sam:

Leaders need to have a deep understanding inside out to solve an issue. They cannot see only from the surface level. They need to be able to see the core problem. Adding buildings is not always the solution to solve manufacturing capability.

Most of the participants explained that some changes have been implemented. However, the changes are based only from the short-term perspective and limited to the surface level, which serves only as temporary solutions. The changes are normally based on quick-fix mindset or temporary solutions due to time limitations ([Section 5.3](#) and [Section 5.4.2](#)).

5.4.3 Limitation on Solutions

The data analysis of the interviews shows that there is a pattern of adopting a short-term focus and expediency in decision making. Most of the participants explain that the way they solve problems favours the “quick fix” over thoughtful consideration and long-term development.

Sam:

The idea of improvement and continuous change is there. However, the question is, what kind of change they do. They can make changes either on the surface level or at the core level; we have seen so far the change that we have only limited on the surface level. For instance, in terms of software tools, we have in our foundry. We use different tools for different phases and different groups in our production. Each tool needs specific input from engineers. Some tools need similar inputs from the other tools. The problem is the change that we have done only fixed one item in one tool without considering other tools of the whole process. If an engineer tries to fix a particular issue in a particular tool, he only fixes it in the frame of that functional tool. There are many functions in a foundry supply chain. In the end, they fixed one issue but created another new issue. Some issues have been occurring for the last ten year.

An organisation’s ability to innovate and change is essential for its survival in a changing market environment (Ansoff, 1979). However, it is critical because organisations have a history of emphasizing the exploitation of new ideas without paying equal attention to the more time-consuming process of creative exploration. Because of this, organisations have developed a habit of quick fixes (Jamali, 2006). Furthermore, Jamali (2006) emphasizes that learning at the organisational level

involves creating systems, which institute long-term capacities to capture knowledge, to support knowledge creation, and to empower continuous transformation. Nevertheless, continuous transformation can be formulated if an organisation makes the shift from a short-term perspective to a long-term one, such as addressing the clearly defined sustainability concerns (Smith & Sharicz, 2011).

An organisation can be also diagnosed with PAS (Premature Aging Syndrome) that faces errors of growth and change (Probst & Raisch, 2005). Changes are ignored until the organisations are completely distorted (Probst & Raisch, 2005). The term “premature” does not indicate that young firms are particularly prone to catching this syndrome. Quite the contrary, the companies that qualified for premature aging often look back on a long and successful history (Probst & Raisch, 2005). Prior studies have shown that companies with a long history of success are particularly in danger of getting stuck in the previous success patterns. However, companies can overcome PAS when they are able to renew themselves by replacing the management team (Probst & Raisch, 2005). Characteristics such as systems-level thinking, learning culture and experimentation are critical for sustainability development (Probst & Raisch, 2005).

Sam:

We could and want to fix it for the long term, but we cannot. As engineers, it is our nature to find the root cause and fix something from the core. However, we need dedicated time, long-term vision and investment to do that. That is not the goal of the top managers in this company.

Without the top managers support it engineers are limited only to fix on the surface level. However, leaders will not make the extra effort without a long-term vision. Sometimes it is necessary to fix issues as soon as possible, but in certain areas, we need long-term improvements. There is no vision of how we want to have our foundry in the next ten or even twenty years. As a result of that quick fix, our tools are fixed and upgraded only from the surface level and not from the core level. It creates even more problems and defects in the long term.

Melani:

Most managers tell their employees to do something because they have been exposed to do so by the upper management. There should be a meeting point. In any relationship, there should be a compromise so that both can meet at a certain point. If managers and employees develop win-win thinking, they will find a way to find that meeting point.

The participants' quotes show that there is strong desire to avoid quick-fix habit. However, they need their strong support from their top leaders. Carrying out changes requires strong leadership that can assert itself against resistance within the organisation (Thompson, 1967). Based on the interview data, most of the middle-level managers' leadership is insufficient to represent the shared vision in the company (see also Section [5.3](#)). In many cases, long-standing CEOs sustained by previous success adhere to their rigid habits in leading the organisations (Harrigan, 1985).

Sam:

The habit of quick-fix is not only applied in tools, machines or hardware areas. We implement the quick concept other areas, for instance in our system information. Because of the quick-fix habit, we only fix our issue by doing add-on in our system that causes most of our software tools are not linked to each other, and it is the root cause of why the amount of micromanagement and paperwork is increasing.

Sam's quotations demonstrate that the influence of the 'old' routine or quick-fix mentality leads to the excessive micromanagement described in Section [5.3.2](#). This is the result of the vicious circle, in which participants become entangled in a chain of reactions that prevents them from developing into transformational leaders (Sections [5.3.3](#) and [5.3.4](#)).

Companies that got stuck in past habits patterns need to change their system through mindset transformation process in order to adapt with the dynamic environment (Ketz de Vries, 1988). A study in organisation psychology, shows organisational change and transformation are embedded in the process of individual change (Ketz de Vries,

1988). Organisations are made from the collections of people, the successful implementation of organisational change depends on an understanding of these individual reactions to the change process (Ketz de Vries, 1988). A lack of attention to the inner experience of the individual person with respect to change will abort the process (Ketz de Vries, 1988). Many of organisational transformation tend to be of a quick-fix nature, being only skin deep. Most of the time they have no enduring influence (Ketz de Vries, 1988; Probst & Raisch, 2005). In an in-depth analysis of the 100 largest organisational crises, a mutual logic behind these crises has been identified, which is the oversimplified models of human behavior that pay no attention to deep-seated underlying processes. Thus, these changes tend to be rather superficial (Probst & Raisch, 2005). Nevertheless, some theories show that change resistance can be reduced by introducing managerial practices that help “unfreeze” the perceptions and mindsets of the organisational members (Choi & Ruona, 2010; Lewin, 1947).

Melani:

The way we fix issues is by doing quick fixes or temporary solutions. Of course, a quick fix is cheaper and faster to be done. But a temporary solution will not fix the core issue and will only create another new problem.

The middle managers can only apply quick fixes because their upper managers do not have the time and budget to develop long-term solutions. The middle managers will continue to treat their engineers or employees like their upper managers.

As established earlier, in many case where top leaders are sustained by previous success, they kept their past success mindest and habits in leading the organisation (Lewin, 1947; Harrigan, 1985; Choi & Ruona, 2010). One of the main obstacles encountered by both individuals and organisations to start the changing process is the strong internal force within each individual that opposes change itself (Ketz de Vries, 1988). Managers who experience anxiety, as a result of the uncertainty of engaging in something new or becoming once again exposed to old dangers and risks, for example, often prompts people to resist change (Ketz de Vries, 1988). Thus, people are often willing to settle down with extremely unsatisfactory situations rather

than taking steps towards the unknown in order to improve things (Ketz de Vries, 1988).

Sam:

People in this company are not trained for long-term mindset...

...We need leaders who have transformational mindsets and can clean up all unnecessary procedures and papers works. They must be courageous enough to create significant changes in our information system.

...Suppose managers have particular improvement mostly is limited only for show-off or to get intention from the upper managers, but not a real improvement. Because a real improvement does not create a new issue; a real improvement will help other functional teams if we work together as one company.

...Leaders need to have a deep understanding inside out to solve an issue. They cannot see only from the surface level. They need to be able to see the core problem. Adding buildings is not always the solution to solve manufacturing capability.

Ketz de Vries (1988) argues that such personal resolutions set the stage for a reappraisal of goals, the envisioning of new alternatives making for an inner journey characterized by a crystallization of discontent, new insights, and increased self-knowledge. The end-result of these psychological working-through processes could be an internalization of change. Supposed the mindset of the person had changed, the new way of looking at things would have been internalized (Ketz de Vries, 1988).

Nevertheless, some literature reveal that an excessive change could lead to the destruction of an organisation's identity (Nelson, 1982; Probst & Raisch , 2005). A certain organisational identity is required. Companies cannot endure without developing a solid core that provides some guidance during changing times. People are only able to act when they have a specific degree of certainty. Organisational controls provide certainty, routines, and habits (Nelson, 1982). If the change exceeds

a certain dimension, organisations increasingly lose their ability to act (Nelson, 1982). On the other hand, some strategy research reveals that innovations and changes within organisation are indispensable to keep up with the dynamic environments (Probst & Raisch, 2005). Therefore, organisations need a certain degree of both stability and change to survive (Probst & Raisch, 2005).

5.4.4 Minimal Self-Development

Due to the endless loop of challenges in their organisations ([Section 5.3.3](#) and [Figure 5.0](#)), many managers are limited in their ability to support their employees and work on projects that enhance their potential and benefit their long-term growth. This section explores the interviewees' quote about the consequences of being unable to become transformational leaders, such as decreasing motivation and career dissatisfaction of their engineers, and as well as themselves as managers.

Florent:

Motivating engineers nowadays is getting hard. It is because they do not have the privilege to handle their projects according to their potential and capabilities. Engineers usually like to solve a problem and create something with quality. However, they need support from their managers, who can give them time and freedom to achieve that. Nowadays, they will get less and less time to be real engineers. Their managers prioritise their numbers more than their products, their employees' growth and the quality of their work performance.

The management numbers, or micromanagement numbers, are the numbers they need to show to their top management. Many managers use these numbers to win the competition across organisations in the company to get more visibility, priority and budget from the top management. However, the management numbers do not always represent the actual quality of the organisation's performance.

Transformational leaders try to provide meaning to the follower's tasks and motivate them to strive for higher performance (Avolio et al., 1999). They can motivate members of the organisation to be more creative and develop new ideas and solutions

concerning organisational structures, processes, and practices (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bass, 1999). However, in a particular environment, such as where the research is established, the participants who are managers with transformational leadership mindset cannot act as transformational leaders or role model leaders like they describe.

Melani:

Many managers in this company act only as managers and not as leaders. They are not free to set a long-term strategy for their organisations or groups. The managers here do not have the time or power to support their engineers' growth.

Our company culture makes employees work to please their managers and not go the extra mile. Many employees stay on for the money but will leave as soon as they find a new opportunity. Sometimes employees and even managers modify a result to please their bosses.

As an engineer, I am occupied with daily work that does not bring long-term quality for my growth or the organisation—for example, filling the excel files and multiple manual inputs using words and presentation files. I think those kinds of tasks can be done using programmed software. We have tools and software, but those tools and software are very old, and they are not linked to each other. That is why we still need to do a lot of excel files works and multiple manual works.

As a young engineer, it is okay if they give me “excel files” works, but not always. I thought it was only for young engineers, but I see that even managers also need to do so much paperwork. Most managers prefer to stay on the safe side and are not courageous enough to tell their upper managers that the company needs significant transformation.

Justice:

... As a leader, I know that many, especially young engineers, want personal growth. Personal growth is not only about a career or a high managerial position. They want to do something significant that can create a difference. They do not like to do too much paper works, and they like to see a significant improvement

that demands their most profound potential. They like to see the transformation and continuous improvements. Unfortunately, the space for significant changes and improvements is tiny with our management condition. If someone wants to go up to a managerial position in this company, he does not need to prove that he is innovative, but on the contrary.

The interviews data show that the employees expect long-term perspective projects and tasks. However, leaders-managers in the company cannot create the balance between short-profit goals and long-term growth that is essential for the quality of their work performance (Sections [5.3](#) and [5.4.2](#)). Studies from leadership research indicate that, although the optimal leadership style in organisations may be dependent on the situation, in the majority of situations mutual or shared power utilization leads to the greatest success (Probst & Raisch, 2005). However, in Probst and Raisch's research (2005), the most successful competitors of the examined organisations pursued an organisational policy which kept the organisations in long-term balance.

Although all leaders-managers interviewees have desire to take transformational actions in the company, they know the real transformation has not been established yet (Section [5.3.3](#) and Section [5.3.4](#)). Some of the non-manager participants share thoughts about the way the company innovates only on the surface level and not at the core level.

Melani:

If you see the yearly slides of each department's vision defined by the upper management, the company vision for people's growth is always written in the same way every year. If they use the same word formula, they do not put effort or value into people's development. If the company fails to see people as an asset, you can expect managers have a 'managerial' approach, which is to use authority to get things done rather than being a role model.

Maria:

My bosses do not make any strategy for significant changes. They only create new procedures or rules, but it will not change the fact that our performances are declining. We need a significant transformation. It happens only if we have

leaders-managers brave enough to make a significant transformation instead of surface-level changes. Managers here are limited to doing only surface-level changes. Most of them do that to show something new to their upper managers. However, that kind of surface-level change is useless because it only gives employees more micromanagement and brings no improvement to our work performance.

Melani's and Maria's statement about managers in the company are confirmed by Adam who is one of the high-level manager:

Adam

Leaders need the freedom and the time to create their strategy for people's growth.

...

I want to be an authentic leader and not just a manager, but at the moment, I do not have a vision as a high-level manager. I only do tasks to provide the best number for our matrixes, and I only do day-to-day work. However, I know I need to find meaning behind my position. I want to know where we will be in five years. But I do not have the chance to think about it.

Adam's authenticity as a person is to be a leader who can give value to his employees and inspiration for their employees to grow their potential. However, he is limited only to acting as a manager and does not know how to transform himself and to make changes in his organisation. More about authenticity and self-clarity will be discussed in [Section 6.2](#) and [Section 6.3](#).

In term of employees satisfaction and motivation, many literature states that the characteristic of transformational leadership, which idealise influence and intellectual stimulation, are significant and positive predictors of job satisfaction had large influence on followers' performance than transactional leaders (Delgua,1988; Scandura & Williams 2004; Boerner et al., 2007). Transformational leaders also help in the acceptance of organisational change (Bommer et al., 2004). These literature are aligned with the participants' input on how they expect to see significant changes and earn more job satisfaction among employees with more opportunity of long-term self-

development. However, on the contrary, there is literature that shows the transactional leadership style provides high satisfaction and organisational identification as compared to the transformational leadership style (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Wu, 2009). Nurturing creativity and innovativeness is very strong in transformational leadership characteristics (Avolio et al., 1999). Therefore, transformational leaders induce organisation members to constantly anticipate and adapt to environmental change (Jung, Chow, & Wu, 2003; Waldman et al., 2004).

5.4.5 Internal Competition

Another effect of lacking significant changes in the company is the increasing cases of unhealthy internal competition. Without a long-term direction, many will evolve from within the organisation, from different levels and individuals with many opinions (Kakabadse, 1999). As a result, it creates internal competition that will result in poor management of the organisation, ineffective work management, and inefficient use of resources (Kakabadse, 1999). This theory is aligned with the following participants' comments.

Tom:

Each design department in this company needs to show its contribution to the company's profit. The higher their number, the more money and priority they will get from the central. That kind of competition concept is good for increasing motivation. However, there will be an unhealthy competition without a company's long-term vision. Unhealthy internal competitions trigger unnecessary politics and diversity of vision. As I said, the driver is more internal competition or authority, and the driver is not a leadership inspiration based on a shared vision.

Justice:

... They created an event where every engineer could show their design and try to win the competition's reward by competing with other engineers in the company. I see one side as a positive strategy to increase motivation, but it is not enough.

The real competition that the employees need to see is how we can compare our company with outside to make significant improvements and changes for our organisation. For example, to have a critical mindset, why we are getting slower in our work process, and maybe our competitors have faster work process.

Unfortunately, few top leaders like to speak about the actual competition outside. It is like a bubble; if we are not critical enough, we will not know our position with real competition outside. However, many do not dare to admit that we need major improvement... The leadership in this company does not show the spirit of the high-risk taker.

A theory indicates that egoistic competition between employees has less long-term success than trusting cooperation (Ferrin & Dirks, 2003). Studies have shown that increased rivalry and competition between employees can be detrimental to trust (Ferrin & Dirks, 2003). A lack of employee trust has a negative effect on openness in communication, particularly about information shared with the superior (Roberts & Reilly, 1974).

5.5 Chapter Summary

Chapter 5 discovers the understanding of leadership based on the interviewees' definition. Based on the data collection, the participants desire to be leaders with the major characteristics of role modelling, idealized influence, visionary, and intellectual stimulation. All the leadership's characteristics they described ([Sections 5.2.1](#) until [5.2.5](#)) are aligned to the traits of transformational leadership. All fifteen participants believe that becoming transformational leaders does not require a managerial position.

Based on the data analysis of this thesis, the participants' definition of personal vision (long-term vision personal vision) is to know or to find their higher purpose ([Section 5.2.3](#); Bass, 2008; Mackey & Sisodia, 2014). Most of the interviewees define finding a personal vision is a process to know who they are. They believe that true personal vision comes from a person who knows their true self. Personal vision has the

characteristics to become a role model for others to find their vision and to develop their true potential through their assignment, which can also support the company goals (Gardner et al. ,2005; [Section 5.2](#)). They wish to be leaders who can provide meaning to their employees (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006).

However, they find it difficult to become the leaders like they described in Section 5.2. The participants share how their time only spent on transactional tasks, micromanagement tasks and daily problems, and not on thinking for a long-term significant improvement ([Section 5.3.2](#)). The challenges come from the vision conflict ([Section 5.3](#)), in which the company focuses on the short-term profit. Most of the interviewees feel entangled in a vicious circle of challenges ([Section 5.3.3](#) and [Section 5.3.4](#)) that prevent them from becoming the leaders they desire ([Section 5.2](#)). Employees desire a long-term vision that focuses more on people's growth, which is applicable in achieving the company goals. However, corporate strategies focus more on short-term profit that may be driven by public shareholders' interests. This conflict creates a situation where leaders-managers and employees act as 'managers' instead of 'leaders'.

Furthermore, the interviewees describe the impact of the vicious circle ([Section 5.3.4](#)) and the minimum transformational actions in the company ([Section 5.4](#)). The major impacts can be seen in the decreasing quality in overall work performance that causes the increasing manufacturing time. Decreasing work performance is mainly caused by the minimum core innovations that can improve the organisational performance in the course of time ([Section 5.4.2](#)). The changes they made are limited to the surface-level and mostly create new issues to the overall work performance ([Section 5.4.3](#)). From the human resource perspective, they recognize the decreasing motivation of the employees who wish more opportunity for significant growth in their potential as engineers ([Section 5.4.4](#)). The engineers wish to see more initiated projects, which are not only required their potential to grow but also bring long-term improvements to the company. Some of the participants believe that the individuals in the company need to go through mindset of transformation process for their company to break free from being entangled in past patterns and quick-fix habits ([Section 5.4.3](#)).

Organisational change and transformation are embedded in the process of individual change ([Section 5.4.3](#); Ketz de Vries, 1988).

Despite the challenging situation in the company, the majority of participants reveal the necessity to work on themselves by keeping searching on their identity and the purpose behind their position as leaders-managers or non-managers. They believe only by being authentic and true to themselves can they be transformed into the leader they desire. [Chapter 6](#) provides an in-depth analysis on the role of authenticity, self-clarity, and trust for the interviewees to becoming a transformational leaders in the company.

CHAPTER 6

The Role of Authenticity and Self-Clarity

6.1 Introduction

Chapter 6 analyses the interviewees' suggestions on how to become a transformational leader despite the company conditions described in Chapter 5. This chapter examines [research objective No.3 \(Section 1.3; Figure 1.2\)](#). It begins with [Section 6.2](#), which examines why self-clarity is the first necessary step for the majority of interviewees to take in order to become transformational leaders in the face of the challenges presented in [Chapter 5](#). Based on their explanation, self-clarity occurs when they know their vision as leader-managers. It helps them take leadership role inside their organisations where the majority only act as managers.

The Chapter continues with [Section 6.3](#), which explores the definition of authenticity based on the participants' inputs. The interviewees share their concept of the impact of being authentic, which is critical during transformational periods. The analysis shows that leadership influence comes from leaders who can lead with their values despite the organisational challenges they face/encounter. Most participants believe that their self-confidence develops when they decide to be authentic to themselves. Most interviewees see that people with high self-trust strongly influence their followers. The topic of self-trust and trust-based relationships is discussed in Section 6.3.

[Section 6.4](#) explores the concepts of self-clarity and maintaining authenticity, which will enable leaders to achieve a certain level of self-assurance in order to communicate openly with their subordinates and managers for mutual benefit.

[Section 6.5](#) discusses the impacts on the interviewees' communication ability when they practice their leadership based on self-clarity and authenticity. Due to the existing vision conflicts in the company, most of the manager-participants have difficulties

having transparent communication between them and their subordinates or between them and their superiors. Some interviewees stated that having self-clarity and keeping their authenticity creates self-confidence; they develop a certain confidence level to talk with people to make advantageous situations.

Chapter 6 ends with the Chapter's summary and the Leadership Triangle concept developed by the researcher based on the analysis of [Section 6.1](#) to [Section 6.6](#).

6.2 Self-Clarity

In [Section 5.3](#), it was discovered that in there is a disunity of visions inside the company. [Chapter 5](#) analyses that the vision conflict causes unhealthy internal competition among groups and departments across the company. Due to the vision conflicts and unhealthy internal competition, most of the interviewees show that they need leaders who can give a clear direction and who can make a decision. In Section 6.2, some participants share their thoughts on how they can make decisions despite the company's unclarity and instability. They believe that self-clarity and having a clear purpose and vision, what they want to achieve through their work, are the first steps that will help them to become transformational leaders.

Tom:

... having a vision of this company's culture is challenging. The biggest challenge for me is to get self-clarity about my motivation. But I know deep inside my heart I do not want just to be a manager. I want to be a leader who can inspire people, I am happy to see new engineers grow in their expertise.

Here, the more you go up, the more difficult it is to be authentic, not just because the company's vision may differ from your vision as a leader: I think people here struggle even to find their vision.

Gardner et al. (2005) and Kim et al. (2023) claim that leaders who are influential have clear self-identification or high self-knowledge. Gardner (2005) adds that low self-concept clarity may create an inner confusion and reject the leader as a source of

influence. Gardner et al. (2005) states that leaders who are influential have a clear self-identification or high self-knowledge. Clarity is also one of the seven attributes to accessing organisational vision. These include brevity, clarity, abstractness, challenge, future orientation, stability, and desirability (Baum et al., 1998; David et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2023). Coch and French (1948) and Kotter and Schlesinger (1989) suggest that setting clear goals, and involving and motivating the workforce, helps promote the right environment for change.

Adam:

Leaders need vision. Managers do not need vision. Although I have a high-level manager position, it does not mean I am a leader. Now I am more a manager than a leader. I think vision from a manager's perspective is daily goals. I understand company goals. It is good to have managers who make sure that everyone does their task to achieve a specific revenue. On the other hand, if a company does not pay attention to its people, someday it will break.

Adam:

I need to know who I am: I mean what my identity and my vision as a leader is. I need to know the meaning and the purpose behind my position. It means I need to know what my vision is. But I do not have the time to think about it. I want to give it meaning to the managers below me. ... I would like to say: Why do we do this job? Why is it great to work for this company? Why do we come to work? What can we do for others?"

Tom:

A leader's most important aspect is having clarity within himself. It means we need to be clear about what we want to achieve. With all the challenges we have, many issues are important. It is not easy for a leader manager to give his employees the most important priority. However, employees need a clear direction; otherwise, it will create unnecessary work and stress.

Nowadays alignment of priorities from top management is becoming unclear. Everything is essential for top managers. In other words, they want all. It is because of the short-term goal orientation. There is no sense of direction or

picture of how this big company looks in the long term. That future picture will give the organisations in this company a sense of direction.

Tom:

Managers need clarity on what they want to achieve with their job. By having personal clarity, they will know how to handle the situation in this company. Becoming middle managers or even higher-level of manager are very stressful. As managers, we do not have the strategic power to build our organisations. Fast profits drive the company. The goals in the company defined by upper managers are usually to create quick profits and are driven by varying market demands. We also have the pressure to win internal competitions inside our company.

They are ignoring the fact that their engineers need long-term growth. Many stay with their job because they need the money, not because they can grow. Many young engineers quickly leave and change their positions.

Fiona:

In this company, people who are brave to act as a leader and make a difference are people who have a clear vision. To act as a leader, people do not need a manager position. In my career working in a big company, I have seen non-manager leaders who can show they have the vision and courage to pursue it to make significant changes in their organisations

The Interviewer to Marco:

How have you developed the self-confidence that you will achieve your vision as it was a long-term one? You said you must face challenges inside the company to achieve your vision. You also explained that your upper managers might not support your vision because they put more priority on short-term goals.

Marco:

The most important thing is not to worry about the outside situation but to focus on what is inside us.

Are we clear with ourselves? The clarity was the one that gave me confidence, not the result. With clarity, you can have more confidence. The most important thing is that you have clarity regarding your long-term vision.

Followers react positively when the vision reflects their values and provides information to direct their future behaviour (Thoms & Govekar, 1997). Leader vision affected follower self-efficacy (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996). Self-efficacy reflects beliefs about one's ability to organize and execute courses of action necessary for attaining a goal (Bandura, 1997; Maddux & Gosselin, 2003).

Duffy and Sedlacek (2007) argue that a personal higher purpose could be applied to organisations. The concept is that a higher purpose vision enables a company to build a financially sustainable organisation that creates both social good (e.g., making the world a better place) and social capital (e.g., trusting and committed relationships with all stakeholders) (Beer and Norrgren, 2011).

High-risk takers tended to score high in self-confidence, which, in turn, led them to attempt and to succeed in influencing groups to follow their leadership (Clausen, 1956; Burnstein, 1969). Thoms and Govekar (1997) argue that followers react positively when the vision reflects their values. Trust leads to risk-taking (Coleman, 1990; Das and Teng, 1998).

According to the identity theory (Stryker, 1980), identities are organized in the self-concept according to a hierarchy salience. Self-concept is only sometimes related to clear and specific goals (Boeddeker et al., 2008). Levinson (1978) defines self-concept as a variety of aspirations, goal and values. Mason and Nurius (1986), self-concept represents individuals' ideas of what they might become that they would like to become as a central motivation construct.

The interviewees use terms like self-identity, self-clarity, and "knowing who we are" to describe the authentic self. Gardner (2005) defines self-identification by the term self-knowledge.

6.3 Authenticity in Transformational Leadership

This section describes the meaning of authenticity based on the interviewees' inputs. The participants explain why authenticity is essential for them especially if they want to be an agent of change in their organisations. They share the challenges as authentic leaders in the company.

Justice:

Authentic means you can be transparent without doing any manipulation tricks to your employees to get some work done that will benefit only the company's goal...

I try to become a role model for them by being an authentic person. However, it is not easy to be authentic, especially as a manager in this company.

Greg:

To be an agent of change, you need to be authentic, transparent and know the right moment for every step. You may sometimes have to bend the rules established by your upper management. If you want to challenge a process for an improvement, employees or managers are sometimes against you.

Roni:

Authentic means being honest with ourselves. If I can be honest with myself, meaning I am an authentic person. To be an authentic leader, he needs to be loyal to his vision and purpose, despite of the challenges he needs to face in his organisation. If I am honest with myself, I know that I need to be a role model who has a vision and supports my followers' vision.

Chris:

Authentic leadership is essential now because we need innovation and massive changes in our organisations.

The participants' comments are aligned with the theory that in organisations of all types experiencing unprecedented levels of change, a portfolio of transformational and authentic leadership behaviours is instrumental for strategic leaders in leading others in highly dynamic contexts (Crossan et al., 2008). The interviewees' statements are also aligned with the definition of authentic leadership, which says that leaders who have the characteristic of having a strong self-knowledge, their values and act accordingly are authentic (Harter, 2002; Avolio et al., 2004; Avolio & Gardner, 2005; Ladkin & Taylor, 2010). The authentic leader knows oneself, acts in accordance with one's own value system, understands who they are and what they believe in, and is able to express their own self to the followers who see the authenticity of their leader (Harter, 2002; Ladkin & Taylor, 2010).

From the transformational leadership theories, transformational leaders inspire their followers through their authenticity, transparency in pursuing their vision despite organisational challenges they need to face (Section [5.2.3](#); Harter, 2002; Avolio & Gardner et al., 2005). Therefore, authentic leaders must therefore know themselves deep down to avoid 'inner confusion' that cause him/her unable to be transparent and authentic in his/her communication (Gardner et al., 2005). The purpose of being authentic is to build trust between the managers and the employees (Hassan & Ahmed, 2011). Trust enhances commitment from their employees to achieving organisational goals and priorities that the leaders want to create in their organisation (Hassan & Ahmed, 2011).

Micah:

To influence people, you need to be who you are and have your vision. A leader with a vision tends to work authentically, and in a cooperative firm, you have to create somehow a good story to sell an idea. If you want people to back you up, you need to sell your idea.

Chris:

It will create trust if I can be authentic towards myself and my engineers. You need to know yourself to be a transformational leader, which is difficult for me. To be authentic, you need to know yourself. If I have self-clarity, I have the

courage and the confidence to fight for my engineers' needs in front of my upper managers.

The relation between authenticity and influence is aligned with the theory that authentic leadership can influence followers and the followers' eudemonic well-being (Ilies et al., 2006). However, state that being authentic does not necessarily allow a leader to be transformational (Bass, 1985; Burns, 2012). This could be applied to the case in which a manager is authentic but does not have a vision or the attention to change something that affects others (Bass, 1985; Burns, 2012).

Despite of many studies showing the positive effect of authenticity in transformational leadership, some literature shows that it is impossible to apply authenticity in a challenging environment's organisation (J. Ford & N. Harding, 2011). The challenges to be an authentic leaders may apply to some quotes below:

Roni:

... it is not easy to be an authentic leader in our company's culture. Most managers prefer to follow the current and act only as a manager. To be a true leader, I must have a solid vision to influence people. The example that I told you earlier about an engineer who created the first microprocessor product in this company. He had his vision to develop a microprocessor. He knew that creating that particular new type of product in this company would also give the engineers more long-term development and growth. However, it was not the strategy of his upper managers. Despite that, his vision enables him to bravely take a risk by implementing an integrated microprocessor design inside another type of product. In the end, he could show his upper managers and other people the benefits of his idea, and his upper managers could not blame him anymore. His action needs courage. Only people with a strong vision can be courageous, high-risk takers and an agent of transformation.

The interviewer to Justice:

Is it difficult for you as a manager to be an authentic person?

Justice:

Correct, because to be seen as a good manager, the best way is to say only the things that your upper managers want to hear. It is dangerous if I say why we do not have the budget and the freedom to shape our foundry. In order to be in the safer side or to be promoted sometimes you need to let go your own authenticity. If I want to ask, sometimes I need to be political enough that it will not harm myself and my employees. That is why I think this kind of conversation about leadership is needed. I could also lose myself if I am always in an environment that does not allow us to be authentic. I do not know about other companies. However, I think other big companies have the same situation.

6.4 Interpersonal Trust and Transparency

According to Van Oosten (2006), supportive and trusting relationships are the fulcrum that allows change to take place. This is confirmed by many of the interviewees in Section 6.3. People will start to follow if they trust the people who influence them, because trust is important in understanding expectations for cooperation and planning in long-term relationships (Hakansson, 1982; Dwyer et al., 1987; Steinmetz et al., 2017; Kim et al., 2023). In term of communication, the pre-existing presence of trust among organisational members is critical to the management of inter-organisational relations because it creates transparency communication (Section [6.3](#); Gardner et al., 2005; Babiak & Thibault, 2008).

However, there are some researchers study about how to develop trust-based relationship and its requirements. One requirement is to have interpersonal trust (Rosenberg, 1956; Bass, 1985a; Kim et al., 2023). Handy (1982/1992) states that successful leaders have to believe in themselves. The lack of trust in a relationship between two stakeholders can be caused by the lack of trust of the individual in him/herself (Handy, 1982/1992). Rosenberg (1956) argues that in order to trust others, people need to have high interpersonal trust. Below is one quote from Micah about the relation of trust and interpersonal trust, that is aligned with Rosenber's theory.

The Interviewer to Micah:

Do you mean you need to trust yourself first before being trusted by others?

Micah:

Yes, If you are motivated by what you are doing at work, you will automatically inspire others. To be influential, a leader-manager should not say: “You need to do that” or “that is your job”. People buy character. Normally they feel they can trust you.

If you are not sure of yourself, how can you influence or convince others? First, you need to be convinced about your idea; if you have doubts about yourself, it is difficult to influence others. As a leader, you need to be clear that you can convince with your ideas. You could be wrong, but as a leader, you can admit: “ok, I was wrong; let us stop it; it won’t work.”

... To trust your employees, you have to trust yourself first or fully believe your decision to choose them to do a specific project to achieve a vision that benefits everyone.

Micah’s statement supports Rosenberg’s theory (1956) that shows leaders with low interpersonal trust would be less likely to permit freedom of action in their subordinates. The next question is how leaders can develop their interpersonal trust?

The interviewer to Maria:

How do you develop your trust in yourself?

Maria:

I develop my confidence by understanding more about myself. It takes time to know what I truly want in my career. I think it is not as simple as defining a career path. It is to know what is the purpose behind my job. Many people struggle to define what they want. I heard from my colleagues that they are also asking these questions. I think money or salary could be the first motivation. However, to feel fulfilled, true leaders want to see growth in their employees. That is something that is rarely found in the company.

That is why I told you the only difference between managers and non-manager is their task to do vacation reports, salary reports and other paperwork. People do not need a managerial position in this company to become a leader.

The Interviewer to Maria:

You said you need to have a purpose. Could you please explain more about purpose, trust and leadership?

Maria:

I need to have a certain level of personal trust to have self-confidence. I cannot trust myself if I am not happy with myself. I also think that my inner security comes when I know where I am going and can do what I genuinely like. Many people I know dislike our job because we cannot use our potential at work. We are conditioned to limit our potential and not believe in ourselves. Fewer people I know in the company can influence me to believe in myself. Those people are true leaders in my eyes, although maybe they are not in a managerial position. Therefore, I think having a purpose will help us to know where we want to go.

Maria's statement is related to the theories that have been introduced in the earlier Sections (Section [5.2.3](#); Section [6.2](#) and Section [6.3](#)). Leaders with clear vision have strong self-confidence, which is also a sign of leaders who can build trust from an interpersonal process (Bass, 1985a; Bandsuch et al., 2008). Many studies also show that claims that self-confidence is particularly strong in transformational leaders (Handy, 1982/1992; Bandsuch et al., 2008). These all are aligned with theories mentioned earlier that those who seek to be leaders must therefore know themselves deep down have to believe in themselves (Gardner et al., 2005). In [Section 6.2](#), self-confidence is defined by some interviewees as the result of leaders who have self-clarity and self-trust, which are what the interviewees say they need for influential communication. Fiona's statements summarize the concept that is describe in Section [6.2](#) and Section [6.3](#).

Fiona:

We need to know who we are to become a leader. For me, the key to being influential is authenticity. You can trust an authentic person, and being

authentic, honest, and transparent are the keys to trust. To build a trust-based connection with others, we must first have confidence in ourselves. This means that sometimes we need to be able to admit our mistakes or weaknesses. We need to know who we are and always try to be ourselves. It means having the trust to accept our vision, strengths, and weaknesses.

Although there are many transformational leadership literature explain the positive connection between trust, self-confidence and influence, there are not many literature show how interpersonal trust can be projected unto others. However, Hollway and Jefferson (2000) look more in depth with other interview data. Leaders who consciously or unconsciously have a self-fear to believe themselves can project their insecurity onto others (Hollway & Jefferson, 2000). Self-fear can be projected onto others (Hollway & Jefferson, 2000). The parts of the self that are feared as bad are split off and projected onto others, usually an object or person (Hollway & Jefferson, 2000). The person at whom the projection is 'aimed' can often find themselves feeling and acting in ways which are not authentic to themselves but derive from the other's projected characteristics which have been unconsciously assumed (counter-transference) (Hollway & Jefferson, 2000). Just like fear, encouragement can be projected to others. The concept from Hollway and Jefferson (2000) can be identified in transformational leadership theory, that claims that leaders with greater self-knowledge will encourage the follower to develop greater self-knowledge (Gardner et al., 2005). No matter how deeply authentic leaders look, they cannot gaze into their unconscious and 'know thyself' (Butler, 2005).

6.5 Transparent Communication

Due to existing vision conflicts within the organisation, the majority of manager-participants have trouble establishing transparency in their communication between their managers and employees. The majority of their upper-level managers prioritise short-term profits over projects with a long-term perspective. This section demonstrates that by having self-clarity and maintaining their authenticity, interviewees develop a certain level of confidence to communicate openly with their employees and managers to create a win-win outcome.

Roni:

Real leaders even without a managerial position make more influence than managers with a position. They are reputed real leaders by many employees because of their transparency and vision.

With transparent and authentic communication, we can influence others and make them understand. Then trust can be built. Trust does not come out of anywhere. It would help if you created that trust.

Micah:

It is important to support your employees' visions because they will go the extra mile without you needing to use your authority as a manager. But you have to be transparent and open because not every individual vision fits into the current project.

...

It is also true that sometimes we must follow what the upper management wants to hear. But as leaders, we need to be fair and open and have the courage to say: "I would do differently".

Tom:

... As a manager, I want to support my employees, but I am also limited to creating projects that could bring significant growth for my engineers. By having a self-clarity that builds confidence, I can try to communicate and influence my upper managers by giving them ideas for projects that could benefit the upper managers' goals and the engineers'. As a manager, I need to be smart enough to find a picture of a solution that can be beneficial for everyone. However, doing that is not easy, especially if we do not have a clear vision of what we want to achieve. Most of the managers I know end up only being a 'manager'. It means they will not make the extra effort to find an idea that creates a win-win opportunity for their upper managers and employees. Most of them manage their employees using their authority or reward system to get things done.

Diana:

As a manager, I do not use authority with my team. I am confident that I can be transparent with my employees about our situation. However, it does not change the fact that we are losing our quality in the long run. The upper managers must change themselves to become visionary leaders with long-term vision. Only with that can we, as middle managers, make significant changes for the long-term benefits of our company. I can be honest with my team about the company's condition. However, young engineers are not stupid. They know they cannot grow that much in this kind of environment. We can see many young engineers move from one job to another quickly, which is the only way to learn something new.

Transparent communication is one way towards finding a mutual benefits for the company and its employees (Fariba, 2013). Managing, expectation, clarity and being frank and open at the beginning of a relationship is important (Fariba, 2013; Swain, Cao & Gardner, 2018; Aruoren et al., 2023). Only by being open on both sides are the parties able to understand the situation that they are in and have a trusting relationship that can lead to a mutually beneficial solution (Alvesson & Sveningsson, 2003; White, 2010; Bascauvsoğlu, Hughes, & Mina, 2013; Bramble, 2014). Communication becomes “a significant factor in helping employees understand both the need for change, and the personal effects of the proposed change” (Goodman & Truss, 2004, p. 217).

From the transformational leadership literature, communication of a vision is critical for organisations to cope successfully with change (Baum et al., 1998). Open communication is one of the tools that leaders use to influence employees to move in a certain direction of change (Baum et al., 1998). Individuals with high in openness, honesty and concern for others positive affect “not only perceive their situations in an optimistic way (Harvey et al. 2007; Wilson, 1975). High positive affect has also been related to greater influence and success in negotiations (Chemers et al. 2000) and has been found to be associated with better relations between leaders and followers (Solomon et al. 1986).

Furthermore, Fariba (2013) adds that the more information shared, the more trust there is between parties. Also it is aligned with other literature claiming that open communication and information that is freely available are ways in which trust is built (Anderson & Weitz, 1989; Anderson & Narus, 1990; Morgan & Hunt, 1994; Doney & Cannon, 1997). However, Selness and Sallis (2003) have a similar argument but the other way round when they claim that when there is a high level of trust, both parties are willing to share knowledge and learn from the cooperation.

Nevertheless, on the other side of transformational leadership theory; a managerial approach uses more authority instead of interacting with employees to discuss and make decisions based on their varying expertise and knowledge (Hambrick, 1994). Some literature calls this kind of managerial leadership 'task leadership'. Task leadership is much less communicative and may be regarded, according to Daft (2003) and McCartney and Campbell (2006), as more of a 'managerial' than 'leadership' style.

6.6 Cooperative Solutions and Long Term-Vision

6.6.1 The Concept of Mutual Benefit Mindset

A "mutual benefit" mindset was mentioned by several interviewees as another important factor. They believe that adopting this mindset enables them to address the vision gap (or conflict) within the organisation and become the role models for leaders they aspire to be. A "mutual benefit mindset" is a frame of mind and disposition that constantly seeks mutually beneficial outcomes. Some interviewees claim that by applying this way of thinking to their decisions and strategies, they are able to achieve company goals while also fostering their own personal development. In this Section, several leaders-managers describe the key components of a mutual benefit attitude and its demonstration in the workplace. However, in order to achieve a cooperative solution, most participants believe that leaders need to develop long-term vision by finding self-clarity and stay authentic to their purpose.

Micah:

Leaders with a higher vision need to take into account everyone else's opinion and make the best thing out of it. You can do that if you think win-win.

Melani:

I see that most managers tell their employees to do something because they have been told to do so by the upper management. There should be a meeting point. In any relationship there should be a compromise so that both can meet at a certain point. I think if managers and employees develop win-win thinking, they will find a way to find that meeting point.

Marco:

As a high-level manager I always look for a solution that has mutual benefits. I need to make sure that everything works together so that my department can produce enough revenue to benefit the company. I have two focuses: the development of my people and our output, which we need to show to the upper management. These two focuses support my vision. The upper management will give us the budget only if we can prove we can do good business.

Now, the question is, what actions can leaders and managers take to develop cooperative solutions? According to the interview data, the ability to translate the company's goals and followers' visions is an important factor.

Roni:

Leaders need to know their employees' visions and their own personal vision for their team, then they need to translate all the goals from the top. Only then can they achieve the company's goal and also support their team to the best of their ability.

This scenario is aligned with the idea that followers react positively when the vision reflects their values and provides information to direct their future behaviour (Thoms & Govekar, 1997). This ability of managers like Mason and Micah to translate visions and goals reflects their skill in taking necessary action as leaders. This is in line with

the argument that leader vision was found to affect follower self-efficacy (Kirkpatrick and Locke (1996). Self-efficacy reflects beliefs about one's ability to organize and execute courses of action necessary for attainment of a goal (Bandura, 1997; Maddux & Gosselin, 2003). By having a personal higher purpose (personal vision), employees have the opportunity to apply a mutual benefit mindset to their strategy. A personal vision should not prevent leaders from supporting other people's visions; on the contrary, it should enable them to support their company's vision and their followers. Duffy and Sedlacek (2007) argue that a personal higher purpose could be applied to organisations. The concept is that a higher purpose vision enables a company to build a financially sustainable organisation that creates both social good (e.g., making the world a better place) and social capital (e.g., trusting and committed relationships with all stakeholders) (Beer & Norrgren, 2011).

Micah:

The ideal situation is to combine the company's goals and personal goals, but sometimes this is not possible. Sometimes I have to be brave and transparent enough to admit that I am unable to find a solution to this vision conflict. Sometimes I need to suggest looking for a better position, not because I have given up on supporting him as a leader, but to help him find a better job for him to foster his vision. You can only build trust if you are honest with people. Sometimes you can make it happen with side projects, while other times you may not be able to fulfil both the company objective and personal vision. You have to be transparent and a good communicator with your employees about this, because if people have to do what they don't like doing, they won't run the extra mile. They will only do it for a certain amount of time and then go looking for something else.

Mason:

... I try to do my part to achieve company's goals and still put priority on employees' needs of growth. That's why transparent communication is important for my role as a leader-manager in order to build trust.

Despite the limitations described in [Section 5.3.4](#) of the Vicious Circle model, a few participants described incidences of company leaders who were able to transform into change agents.

Roni:

I can show you a case that proves 'nothing is impossible'. We now have a microprocessor product in our Business Unit. Believe it or not, the first ever microprocessor created in this company was neither part of the company's goals nor part of the business unit's goals. Developing microprocessors was not even part of the upper management's strategies. The engineers who were working on our existing device managed to develop a microprocessor inside it without telling their managers. These are what I call leaders. After they finished it, they showed the upper management how successful this device was on the market with the new microprocessor inside. Nobody knew that that device had an integrated microprocessor until the engineers told their upper managers. In the end, they had nothing to say against the extra investment to develop a new device called a micro-processor. There were a couple of brave people in our company who had the guts to take this kind of initiative.

Roni's statement demonstrates that the engineers were self-assured and willing to take risks to pursue their vision, believing that their vision would contribute to the company's mission. However, if they had requested support from upper management before demonstrating the benefits of their innovation, upper management would have declined. These engineers acted in accordance with the theory/case study in which high-risk takers tended to have high levels of self-confidence, which led them to attempt and succeed in influencing groups to follow their leadership (Clausen,1956; Burnstein,1969). Thoms and Govekar (1997), who argue that followers respond positively when the vision reflects their values, also support Roni's argument. Although the non-managerial engineers at Roni initially appeared to have a different vision than the company, they were still motivated to make their vision a reality by acting as true leaders. They were ultimately able to influence their upper management without compromising the company's mission or vision. Another case with a similar concept to Roni's is provided below:

Greg:

There was a factory director who bought a machine that worked on both the existing technology and a new technology that the upper management had not planned for. However, he knew that this new technology was necessary for the long-term development of his team. His strategy was to prove to his upper managers that he could implement new technology that could guarantee greater capacity, as he knew they would never invest in his factory before seeing the benefits. So he ran the machine on the new technology while another factory of the company (not the factory under his management) was out of capacity to show the top managers what his newly equipped machines were capable of. Even though his factory was not intended to have this capacity, the top managers had no option but to pass on more projects. This was a real breakthrough for the engineering team, because they now have new hi-tech facilities and enough projects for the long term

In this instance, the factory director's long-term vision promotes the team's vision, which is to develop new technology, as well as the company's goal, which is to achieve maximum production with consistent stability. From Roni's and Greg's insights, we can see that applying a mindset of mutual benefit requires a willingness to take risks. In Greg's case, if the factory director hadn't taken a risk, he likely would not have achieved his goal, which was to create a situation in which everyone would benefit. Managers and non-managers alike are required to have the courage to make decisions and take action. These leaders are also confident in their vision and aware that it will benefit a large number of people, not just themselves. According to theory, trust encourages taking risks (Das & Teng, 1998; Coleman, 1990).

6.6.2 Long-term Vision as Requirement

As described previously, many interviewees believe that in order to achieve a cooperative solution, leaders must develop a long-term vision by gaining self-clarity and maintaining their authenticity.

Florent:

A leader-manager in a cooperate company needs to have the mindset of a long-term vision, to achieve fulfilment and to support his employees' visions, regardless of his upper manager's conditions and the situation within the company. With a long-term vision mindset, he will be able to develop a clear strategy for his team that supports the company goal while also ensuring healthy growth for his team.

[Section 5.2.4](#) demonstrates how challenging it is to have personal vision (a reason for their task) while facing the organisational issues outlined in Vicious Circle (Section [5.3.4](#)). Similar characteristics of long-term vision must be developed and reviewed over time, without changing the direction (Snyder, 2000). This brings up an additional important aspect of personal vision and is consistent with the theory that goals or vision create targets or align thought processes and vary in terms of specificity and duration (Snyder, 2000).

Marco (from Section 5.2.4):

You need a long-term vision, establishing all the things you need piece by piece. Some steps might not be what you had planned, but you need to keep that vision to move forward...

"Long-term vision is something you also need to develop over the time. The vision grows and might look different from your initial idea, but the core is the same. You are not changing the vision's direction, but you need to review it regularly, to know exactly what you want.

Roni (from Section 5.2.4):

... My desire is to drive change in the organisation to achieve better conditions, particularly in engineering tools and software systems for the employees' personal growth.

"To achieve this, I need a long-term vision and investment to build it. I will try to do what I can, and I do not have to wait until I have a managerial position ...

In this instance, Marco applies the theory that vision is a leader's desired state of products, services, and an organisation (Bennis & Nanus, 1985) and is an idealised and unique representation of the future (Kouzes & Posner, 1987). He could see the core and direction he wished to achieve in the future, but the outcome was much larger than he had anticipated. This is consistent with Thoms and Govekar's (1997) assertion that followers respond positively when the vision reflects their values and provides guidance for future behaviour. The vision serves as the leader's overarching objective. When employees pursue a goal or vision that is not their own, they are less motivated (Higgins, 1987; Boyatzis, 2008). Boyatzis and Akrivou (2006) discovered that one can be perfectly content working toward someone else's goals or objectives until he or she realises that their personal dreams are being compromised because this "ought self" does not correspond to their ideal self. This realisation results in feelings of demotivation or even anger at having wasted time pursuing the desires and expectations of others. This produces what Boyatzis (2008) refers to as negative emotional attractors, which have a negative impact on motivation and engagement (Boyatzis & Akrivou, 2006).

6.7 Chapter Summary and The Leadership Triangle

Based on the analyses in [Chapter 5](#), the researcher discovers the vicious circle, a model that describes what is happening and what is occurring within the organisation (see [Section 5.3.4](#)). The vicious circle illustrates the concept of leadership held by the participants, as well as their desire to become transformational leaders and to see more leaders who can effect significant changes within the organisation. Nevertheless, the participants' inability to become transformational leaders is a result of the existing vision conflict and company culture. Chapter 5 demonstrates the importance of transformational leadership within the organisation. The participants believe that the pattern of "Short-termism," which can be translated as a viscous circle, undermines the company's long-term capabilities, such as its long-term vision and ability to solve core problems. As a result, their organisations are experiencing an increasing number of problems, such as ineffective work systems, quick-fix habits, a decline in innovation quality, internal competitions, and a decline in human resource potential or self-

development. All of these organisational issues contribute to the root causes of semiconductor manufacturers' declining performance.

Chapter 6 reveals participant opinions regarding the third research objective. In spite of the company conditions described in Chapter 5, the interviewees shared how to become a transformational leader based on their experience and the success stories of leaders who became agents of change in the company. First, they must choose to discover their self-identity and clarity through self-awareness. Self-clarity enables them to articulate a long-term vision with a greater purpose. The interviewees define having a long-term vision as the process of knowing oneself. However, they must make a decision to remain true to their mission and have faith in their vision. They may need to go against the current to demonstrate that their vision will benefit the organisation. If they can remain true to their mission, it will foster self-assurance and interpersonal trust. Interpersonal trust enables them to be open and risk-taking. These types of leaders know the optimal time for every action. They have high confidence in their vision and are able to influence those around them by concentrating on what their personal vision.

Another essential analysis in Chapter 6 is how leaders, with their long-term vision, can create a mutual solution that benefits the company goals and the subordinates. In [Chapter 5](#), the company goals that are based only on the short-profit goals or fast gain has been discussed. This is the reason why the organisation behaviour in the company prevents the employees from having time to find their vision and opportunity to nurture their potential. By having the right vision based on high self-knowledge and purpose, leaders will naturally endorse followers identity and support their growth. Leaders with long-term vision can break down their vision into goals that will benefit not only the company short-term profit goals but also the employees' need for self-development in their job.

[Figure 6.0](#) below illustrates the Leadership Triangle model. It reveals the three main attributes of becoming role model leader or translated to a transformational leader. The three attributes consist of vision, trust, and influential communication.

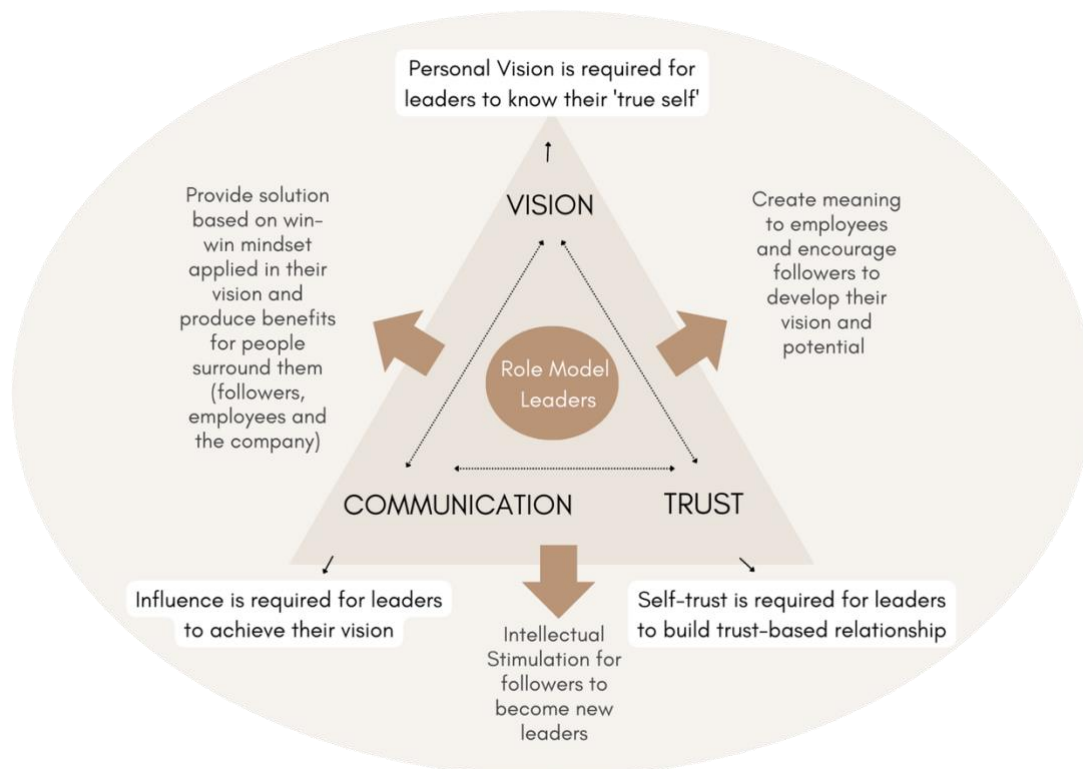


Figure 6.0 The Leadership Triangle

The three main attributes are linked to each other and require self-clarity as a foundation to create the right vision, communication, and trust. Only with the self-clarity or high self-knowledge foundation can leaders create a long-term vision based on a higher purpose, influence or communicate with their subordinates without using authority but the interpersonal approach, and have interpersonal trust or self-confidence that attracts others to follow them. Without a self-clarity foundation or high self-knowledge, leaders will create visions limited to short-term goals and cannot bring mutual benefits for the company goals and employees' growth. In the same condition, they only make people follow them by using the reward system or their position's power instead of influence. Lastly, without the foundation of self-knowledge, leaders can only build relationships based on agreements and are unable to encourage their followers to pursue their vision and become more of themselves. To summarise, the difference between having self-clarity and not having self-clarity is the quality of the three main attributes that a leader needs. With self-clarity, leaders create a vision, and develop trust and influence (communication) that align to transformational leadership characteristics.

CHAPTER 7

Discussion and Contributions

7.1 Introduction

This chapter summarizes the thesis and presents the original contribution to both knowledge and business practice. The chapter also articulates the implications of the thesis for business practice, as well as the limitations and suggestions for further research.

[Section 7.2](#) shows the key findings based on the thesis data analysis in [Sections 5](#) and [6](#). The chapter describes the two models that are developed in the data analysis of [Chapters 5](#) and [6](#). The Vicious Circle illustrates the condition in the company, in which the employees entangled in a kind of pattern of behaviours that prevents them from becoming transformational leaders. The second model is the Leadership Triangle, which displays the connections between the three main factors of role model leadership (transformational leadership). With the foundation of high self-knowledge, leaders can build the three main factors of leadership (trust, vision and influence) to become transformational leaders. All three factors require self-clarity that will give the leader self-confidence.

[Section 7.3](#) describes the contribution to knowledge based on the thesis findings. Three main findings include the contribution to role model theories, trust model theories, transformational leadership with the self-clarity concept, and organisational change theory in the semiconductor industry.

[Section 7.4](#) explains the contribution to practice especially in the semiconductor industry. Based on the current data, the semiconductor industry faces different kind of manufacturing issues. The data findings of this thesis suggest semiconductor companies apply a balanced strategy between long-term growth plans and short-term profit goals. The research demonstrates that centralization and micromanagement do not contribute to the flexibility and efficacy of the work process. Instead, it will slow

down the production and manufacturing process. Centralization and micromanagement are both the results and causes of "Short-termism" ([the vicious circle](#) and Section [5.3.1](#)). Short-termism is a pattern of behaviour that weakens the company's long-term capabilities, including its long-term vision and ability to solve core problems. To be competitive in a dynamic global business environment, semiconductor companies must be quick and flexible in their performance, as well as innovative in terms of their work system and management. Innovation in the work system and management process will increase the likelihood that employees will have access to effective work processes and sufficient freedom to concentrate on self-development and creativity. Self-improvement and creativity of employees will benefit the company in the long run.

Sections [7.5](#) and [7.6](#) describe the research limitations and the suggestion for further studies in the semiconductor industry. Leadership research in the semiconductor industry is critical as leadership practices in the semiconductor industry are unlike other manufacturing-based organisations (Appleyard et al., 2001; Appleyard & Brown, 2001). Semiconductor manufacturing is one of the world's most complex manufacturing processes (Hunter et al., 2002) and the foundation of all electronic device production. Section [7.7](#) concludes the thesis with the researcher's personal reflection on the journey of writing the thesis.

7.2 Summary of the Key Findings

7.2.1 Transformational Leadership as Desirable Leadership

The primary participants' perspectives regarding leadership are presented in [Section 5.2](#). They express their desire to be transformational leaders and to see more leaders who can enact significant change inside the organisation. Role modeling, idealized influence, visionary, and intellectual stimulation are four main qualities they list in their definition of leadership. A leader a person who can function as a role model and make a difference in their organizations. According to the majority of participants, a leader holds the key to the organization's effectiveness. Based on the participants' statements, leaders who serve as examples encourage followers to develop their own

personalities and achieve their goals (Section [5.2.1](#)). Idealized influence is the capacity of leaders to persuade others by developing a human rapport with their subordinates instead of using their managerial position's power (Section [5.2.3](#)). The capacity to forge a long-term vision based on a higher purpose that leads to a situation when everyone in the organization wins is known as visionary leadership (see Section [5.2.4](#) and Chapter [6](#)). The interviewees' last major attribute, intellection stimulation, refers to leaders who enable and develop their followers to become new leaders (Section [5.2.2](#)). These four traits of leadership line up with transformative leadership qualities (Bass, 1985). The participants aspire to embody the core traits of transformative leadership that they list (Section [5.2.1](#) until Section [5.2.5](#)). All fifteen participants agree that managerial experience is not required for transformational leadership. Despite the fact that all participants share a common understanding of leadership, not all of them are able to apply transformational leadership in the workplace due to a never-ending series of obstacles and difficulties, most of which are caused by vision conflict (Section [5.3](#)). As a result, they are unable to attain the level of leadership they desire.

7.2.2 The Consequences of Transformational Leadership Deficit

In relation to the need for transformational leadership within the organization, the data from the interviewees revealed four key impacts, including declining performance and quality, self-development restrictions, mindsets that focus on temporary fixes, and an increase in unhealthy competition within the organization. The management of the company's system is so complicated as a result of minimal core level improvement, which renders the work process extremely inefficient. It results in a longer cycle time between product manufacturing and sending out. The U.S. semiconductor foundries produce the least amount of the world's chips (Poitiers & Weil, 2021). Despite controlling 65 per cent of the world's chip design, U.S. companies have been reliant on Taiwanese Foundries to produce their chips (Poitiers & Weil, 2021).

It is advised that semiconductor companies implement long-term innovations that can lead them to a specific degree of production efficiency (Hatch & Mowery, 1998; Ferry et al., 2021). With a long-term perspective, TSMC was able to develop a comprehensive value chain and competitiveness in terms of time efficiency, cost, and

global logistics (Ferry et al., 2021; Peng, 2009). Therefore, transformational leadership is required to encourage intellectual stimulation, challenge leaders, and motivate individuals to examine their existing mindsets in order to effect change (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Eisenbeis et al., 2008). However, the thesis data analysis demonstrates that the company's recent adjustments are based solely on a short-term viewpoint and are limited to the surface level, serving only as temporary fixes and ultimately diminishing work efficiency.

7.2.3 The Vision Conflict and the Absence of Long-Term Vision

Some interviewees believe that the company's aims are not set on a long-term perspective because the company's improvements are superficial and do not move the organization in any particular direction (Section [5.4.3](#)). According to their feedback, the primary cause is the absence of leaders with transformational leadership qualities (Section [5.2.5](#)). Micromanagement and superfluous procedures are increasing as a result of a company's unsustainable focus on short-term objectives (Ansarian, 2014; Kakabadse, 1999; Section [5.3.2](#)). The participants' statements indicate that they want to see more leaders who can drive the transformation to nurture the creativity that the organization requires to address the imbalance between short-term profit goals and long-term growth ambition (Judge & Piccolo, 2004).

7.2.4 The Vicious Circle and The Impact of Habits

The vision conflict between the company's short-term profit goals and the employees' long-term growth aspirations is one of the most significant obstacles for those who wish to become transformational leaders (Section [5.3.1](#)). Nevertheless, as discussed in Section [5.3.3](#), some interviewees believe even the senior leaders may encounter the same challenges when attempting to implement a transformative attitude. This is due to the fact that everyone may be locked in a conditional loop that prevents them from acting differently (Section [5.3.4](#)). The vicious cycle indicates what is occurring (research objectives [No. 1](#) and [No. 2](#)) in the organization. It begins with the participants' attitude on leadership and their desire to be role model leaders and to see more leaders who are capable of driving transformation at the company's core level. However, the conflicting company culture and vision prohibit them from being

the leaders they desire. The organizational culture, such as micromanagement and centralization, imposes further restrictions on the participants. For instance, more daily issues that consume their entire time and inefficient communication owing to a lack of trust. Due to the effects of the company culture, they have no time to discover themselves, their purpose, and their vision. They lack the inherent self-confidence necessary to influence others and become transformational leaders in the absence of self-awareness and clarity.

7.2.5 The Leadership Triangle Concept for Becoming Transformational Leaders

[Chapter 6](#) offers participant opinions regarding the third research objective. In spite of the organizational conditions described in [Chapter 5](#), the respondents shared how to become a transformational leader based on their experience and the success stories of other leaders. First, they must choose to discover their self-identity and clarity through self-awareness. Self-clarity enables them to articulate a long-term vision with a greater purpose. The interviewees define having a long-term vision as the process of knowing oneself. However, they must make a decision to remain true to their mission and have faith in their vision. They may need to go against the grain to demonstrate that their vision will benefit the organization. If they are able to stay true to their mission, it will foster self-assurance and trust between individuals. Interpersonal trust encourages risk-taking and openness. These types of leaders recognize the optimal time for every action. They have strong confidence in their vision and are able to influence those around them by focusing on their desires and goals (personal vision).

The Leadership Triangle model identifies the three most important characteristics of role model leaders or transformational leaders. The three primary characteristics are interdependent and require self-clarity as a basis for developing the proper vision, communication, and trust. Only with self-clarity or a high level of self-awareness can leaders develop a long-term vision based on a higher purpose, influence or communicate with their subordinates without resorting to authority, and instead employing an interpersonal approach, as well as develop the interpersonal trust and self-confidence that inspire others to follow them. Without a strong foundation of self-

clarity and self-awareness, leaders will generate visions that are restricted to short-term objectives and cannot deliver reciprocal advantages for the company's goals and the progress of its personnel. In the same circumstances, they only compel people to follow them by using a reward system or the strength of their position. Without self-awareness, leaders can only form relationships based on agreements and are unable to urge followers to pursue their vision and develop themselves further. To summarize, the difference between having self-clarity and not having self-clarity is the quality of the leader's three characteristics. With self-clarity, leaders generate vision, cultivate trust, and exert influence (through communication) that align with transformational leadership traits.

7.3 Contribution to Knowledge

7.3.1 Theoretical Contribution to Role Model Theories

The first contribution of this study to knowledge is in the areas of transformational leadership and self-concept theories. In the research on transformational leadership, self-concept and a sense of purpose are linked to role modeling in a good way. A self-concept as a leader and the capacity to motivate others to become more of themselves and follow their vision are two main criteria identified in the thesis (Section [5.2.1](#)). Transformational leaders who serve as role models, for instance, have a mission and ideals for themselves (Vera & Crossan, 2004; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Bakker et al., 2022). Individual's will follow leaders that align with their sense of self (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016; Bakker et al., 2019). Ibarra's (2010) research on self-concepts also reveals that the need for consistency and authenticity causes individuals to gravitate toward role models, who allow them to be true to themselves and to distance themselves from those who are different.

The research findings also support the transformational leadership hypothesis that role modelling is not about convincing others to do the same thing, but rather about the importance of the leaders' aims (Bass & Avolio, 1990; Tummers & Bakker, 2021). By having a defined self-concept and purpose, role model leaders are able to confidently articulate their worth while pursuing their goals, as indicated by the participants' descriptions. The transformational leader gives his followers a mission that transcends his own self-interest by appealing to his beliefs, aspirations, and interests (Vera &

Crossan, 2004; David et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2023). A transformative leader obtains the trust and confidence of his followers by serving as a role model who shares the same values as his followers (Cole et al., 2009; Bakker et al., 2019).

The second contribution of this study to the role model theories is that it demonstrates that the thesis data do not entirely support the assumption that a role model's legitimacy is contingent upon past accomplishment and successful performance (Awamleh & Gardner, 1999; Bakker et al., 2022). Participants' conceptions of role model leaders reveal that anybody may be a role model leader without having a managerial position (Section [5.2.1](#)). The findings do not support the assumption that role model credibility depends on perceptions of prestige, authority, or formal leadership duties, such as having the title of manager or leader and the ability to manage resources (Bandura, 1977; Brass & Burkhardt, 1993; Zuraik & Kelly, 2019).

7.3.2 Theoretical Contribution to Transformational Leadership in Semiconductor Industry

Many academic studies over the past decade have examined the relationship between leadership styles and organisational performance. However, there are only limited leadership studies in the semiconductor industry. This thesis contributes not only to a greater understanding of leadership, but also promotes continuing leadership development in the semiconductor industry. The results of this study can help figure out how leadership affects engineering performance and prove that the ways a semiconductor company develops leaders are working.

Leadership theories have made concrete recommendations for enhancing organisational performance, employee commitment, and satisfaction (Puffer & McCarthy, 1996; Afsar et al., 2019; Li et al., 2019; Afsar & Umrani, 2019; Aydin & Erkilic, 2020; Qureshi et al., 2021; Stanescu et al., 2021; Zhang et al., 2021; Bakker et al., 2022). It is crucial to improve organizational performance with proper leadership styles and good employee job satisfaction. Consequently, this thesis contributes to academic understanding on the qualities of transformational leadership required in semiconductor companies. The requirement for transformational leadership in the semiconductor industry is consistent with previous research on leadership in semiconductor companies, such as those conducted by Sechrest (1999), Chien and

Ting (2001), Ho (2004) and Ng et al. (2009). These studies investigated the impact of specific leadership in the semiconductor industry.

Ng et al. (2009) investigated the impact and influence of leadership on the organizational performance of a semiconductor manufacturing company. Data analysis in [Section 5.4.2](#) reveals that leadership vision is crucial to the success of the semiconductor manufacturing company's efforts towards quality improvement. A corporation without a vision lacks direction and will certainly fail (Ng et al., 2009). Leaders at all levels must embrace the company's vision since it provides them with a feeling of shared identity and belonging in order to achieve a common objective (Ng et al., 2009). The study by Ng et al. (2009) demonstrates a linear relationship between organizational effectiveness and the presence of a company-wide objective. Due to the vision conflict in the organization, Ng et al.'s (2009) hypothesis represents the declining quality of organizational performance in the firm where this thesis' study is done (See [Sections 5.3](#) and [5.4](#)).

Ho (2004) did an evaluation study using a particular case in a semiconductor foundry in Taiwan. Companies must have influential leaders who can alternate required strategies, change management procedures, and even change the company's culture (Ho, 2004). Influence happens through an interpersonal approach ([Section 5.2.3](#); Sorenson & Savage, 1989). Trust in a relationship creates transparency in communication that will influence followers to go the extra mile that is beneficial for their vision and the company goals ([Section 6.3](#); Babiak & Thibault, 2008; Gardner et al., 2005). This dissertation's data analysis yields comparable results to Ho's study (2004). For instance, Micah demonstrates in [Section 6.5](#) that it is crucial for managers to support the visions of their staff, since they will go the additional mile without the management having to use their power. However, managers must be transparent and forthright because not every individual's vision is compatible with the existing project. It is vital for a semiconductor company to have influential leadership in order to build organizational flexibility and change strategy (Ho, 2004). Ho's (2004) findings are consistent with the conclusion of this thesis, which is the need for transformational leadership characterized by strong influence ([Section 5.2.3](#)), the capacity to develop trust-based relationships ([Section 6.6](#)), and transparency ([6.5](#)). Another study in this industry confirms the benefits of transformational leadership. Chien & Ting (2015)

explore whether leadership styles in the semiconductor industry can vary along with operating performances. Organisational performances underpin the sustainability of competitive advantages (Chien & Ting, 2015). According to their findings, transformational leadership has a greater impact on organizational performance than transactional or charismatic leadership.

7.3.3 Theoretical Contribution to Trust Model

The Leadership Triangle model in [Section 6.7](#) provides a contribution to trust theory in leadership literature. It demonstrates the relationship between interpersonal trust, self-clarity, and authenticity. Transformational leadership relationships built on trust demand interpersonal trust (Bass, 1985a; Wang & Hsieh, 2013, 2015; David et al., 2021; Kim et al., 2023). Handy (1982/1992) and Kim et al. (2023) assert that successful leaders must have self-confidence. An individual's lack of trust might affect the trust in a relationship between two parties (Handy, 1982/1992). Many of the interviewees in [Section 6.3](#) confirm that authentic leaders must know themselves deeply to avoid "inner confusion" that prevents them from being transparent and authentic in their communication (Gardner et al., 2005; Wang & Hsieh, 2013). With that finding, this study adds contributions to leadership theories that trust is one of the connecting factors between transformational and authentic leadership.

7.3.4 Organisational Effectiveness and Continuous Improvement

The data findings in this thesis show that the employees and the managers are unsatisfied and limited in growing their potential and finding their purpose and vision, because they are loaded with unnecessary work activities, processes, and daily issues in the company due to the company's short-term profit orientation, which disregards the long-term benefit of investing time and money for innovation. As a result, job satisfaction is decreasing, and employees start to lose the meaning behind their job. These findings reveal similar results to two studies in the semiconductor industry described in [Section 1.3](#). Sechrest (1999), who analyzes how leaders develop in a semiconductor company, also identifies leaders who can eliminate unnecessary work activities, attract stakeholders to continuous improvement, and adopt approaches that support the organization to minimize cost and time ([Section 5.4.1](#); Sechrest, 1999). The study by Gharibvand et al. (2013) study in the semiconductor industry in Penang

and Kuala Lumpur reveals that the most effective leadership style can increase employee job satisfaction and improve company performance. The results of the thesis and the studies by Sechrest (1999) and Gharibvand et al. (2013) are in line with transformational leadership theory, such as that of Avolio and Bass (2009), who show that transformational leadership has a positive effect on continuous improvement (CI).

7.4 Contribution to Practice

7.4.1 Long-Term Perspective for Global Competition

In terms of leadership in practise, this thesis suggests that leaders-managers, particularly in the semiconductor industry, must focus on the long-term performance of their organisations. This is consistent with the findings of earlier researchers, such as Ng and Guan (2009), who investigated the impact of leadership on the organisational performance of a semiconductor company's backend manufacturing plant. Ng and Guan (2009) assert that leadership with vision, values, attitudes, and behaviours is crucial to the long-term success of organisations in the semiconductor manufacturing industry. This study, along with the study by Ng and Guan (2009), is useful for engineers, managers, and especially top-level managers in semiconductor companies because it provides insight into the elements of a long-term plan that require adequate attention to ensure effective organisational performance.

Chinese and Taiwanese semiconductor companies have set a long-term goal of reaching self-sufficiency in high-tech industries by 2025 and securing leadership in innovation by 2050 (Poitiers & Weil, 2021). They are leading the manufacturing process, which includes the fabrication and the assembly (See [Figure 1.1](#)). Their long-term plan is to become a world-leading chip producer (Poitiers & Weil, 2021). China desires to be self-sufficient and produce all the chips for itself and the rest of the world (Ferry et al., 2021). Long-term priority has the missing attention from the company where the research for this thesis is established. However, data findings from the thesis show that one of the practical strategies that leaders can use to develop long-term vision are by having a personal vision that will benefit the growth of the employees in the company. By having a personal vision, leaders-managers will be trained to think

long-term perspective instead of being burdened with daily issues only (see the model of Leadership Triangle in [Section 6.6](#)).

7.4.2 Transformational Mindset for Lean Production

This thesis suggests leaders have a transformational mindset as a practical approach to making the right changes in their organisation that can solve issues from the core instead of only on the surface level. The findings of this thesis reveal the necessity for leaders-managers to be able to simplify or create lean system in their work process by eliminating non-useful procedures, rules, micromanagement, and traditional paperwork. To do that, leaders need a transformational mindset that will unleash them from the old habits. It is consistent with the work of Ho (2004), who did an evaluation study using a particular case in a semiconductor foundry in Taiwan and Woehl (2011), who researched twenty U.S. based semiconductor companies. Ho (2004) explains that to achieve organisational flexibility to move with the technological life cycle, the ability to shift strategy by internal leadership in a semiconductor company is necessary (Ho, 2004). Therefore, the company needs transformational leaders to implement lean production in the semiconductor industry (Woehl, 2011). Unable to achieve production effectiveness, semiconductor firms face the 2020-2021 shortages following a 12 per cent decline in revenue in the industry in 2019 (Duthoit, 2019; Poitiers & Weil, 2021). Therefore, leaders-managers need to apply more lean transformation by eliminating unnecessary work activities, and processes in their work system to minimize cost and time (Sechrest, 1999; Wu, 2003; Achanga et al., 2006; Woehl, 2011).

7.4.3 Continuous and Quality Improvement (Avoiding Temporary Solutions)

The implication of the thesis is practising transformational leadership's characteristics to influence an organisation for continuous improvement (IC). Data analysis of the thesis reveals that IC with a clear direction or long-term vision leads to a core problem's solution instead of a temporary one. [Section 5.4.3](#) explores how temporary solutions create new issues in the future and in the end complicate the work system even more. As a result, the time effectiveness of the work system is decreasing. The semiconductor industry is categorised as a fast-changing business environment. Therefore, leaders must be flexible in continuously improving performance (Yukl,

2008). Using interviews and inductive analysis of nineteen executives in one semiconductor design and manufacturing company, Sechrest (1999) argues that the advanced abilities of transformation leaders to make lean transformation, include defining a clear direction and priorities and eliminating unnecessary work activities or processes to invite stakeholders to make continuous improvement actions & alternatives (Sechrest, 1999).

7.4.4 Role Model Leadership for People's Growth

This thesis suggests leaders-managers to practice role model leadership. The data analysis of this thesis reveals that leaders act as role model by being a living proof to their employees as leaders who pursuing their vision and inspiring their employees to pursue their dreams and grow their true potential. This is consistent with a study from Gharibvand et al. (2013) in the semiconductor industry in Penang and Kuala Lumpur. They reveal that it is important for the supervisors to care about their employees and help them to succeed. The employees must believe that their supervisor is genuinely interested in their success and wellbeing on a personal level. The best way for a supervisor to involve the employees is to ask for their ideas and suggestions on how to improve the organisation and give them the opportunity to implement their decision in the organisation. Employees and managers play essential roles in developing and sustaining creative and innovative organisations (Carmeliet al., 2015; Henkeret al., 2015; Gumusluoglu et al., 2017; Uhl-Bien & Arena, 2018).

However, the challenge encountered by the employees and managers are not because of a lack of desire to be innovative and creative, but it is on the contrary. Data analysis reveals that they cannot be the supportive leaders and the innovative engineers they desire because of organisational limitations. Nevertheless, the thesis suggests that managers to practice authenticity and role model leadership for managers and non-managers despite the organisational challenges.

7.5 Research Limitations

This paper strives to accomplish all stages of research tasks as robust as possible but suffers from the following limitations:

7.5.1 Minimal Samples and Limited Level of Leadership

Due to limited research resources, this paper only examines up to a certain level of managerial position within the organisation. For a large organisation with seven or eight levels until the CEO level, it is useful to compare data with the top management level to determine the definition and strategy of their leadership. Additionally, this paper examines a single U.S. semiconductor company based in Europe, as opposed to a combination of multiple U.S. semiconductor companies based in Europe, in order to compare the definition of leadership more effectively.

7.5.2 Limited Context in Semiconductor Industry

The firms in the semiconductor foundry industry are all multinational corporations, so the technology strategies are likely to remain consistent to a large extent, but may undergo minor modifications due to regional industry characteristics. Due to the diverse geographical backgrounds of the expert panel's members, judgement quantifications may vary based on geographical location.

7.6 Suggestion for Follow-up Studies

7.6.1 Leadership Research in the Semiconductor Companies

There is insufficient evidence to determine whether the top managers with the most authority in the company are unaware of their employees' needs (people-growth-oriented vision) due to a communication gap between the bottom and the top, or if they are aware but unable to act because the company's strategy is to define their goals without regard to shared visions. The concept of a comparative or additional study with deeper research and larger sample sizes can be proposed for subsequent studies.

This paper conducts interviews with the supervisors and employees of a semiconductor company in Europe. Future research may enlarge the sample size or examine different industries in order to compare and contrast the findings.

7.6.2 Self-Transcendence and Self-Clarity Research

Additional research could involve a similar research question based on similar concepts, company characteristics, or background and methodology, but with a greater emphasis on collecting data related to participants' understanding of self-clarity or self-identity, particularly if they express the desire to make a difference or bring about change within their organisation. Maslow's Hierarchy, for instance, can be used in a follow-up study to address issues such as self-esteem, self-actualization, altered work and social contexts, and new chances for learning and self-definition that are currently relevant to the workforce (Benson, 2003). Researchers could use the concept of employing Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs as a guide for posing specific questions about self-clarity and personal vision from a motivational standpoint. Using Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, leaders can assess whether they are still concerned about the outcome of their vision.

According to Maak and Pless (2006), shareholders anticipate an efficient allocation of company resources to maximise profits. With such an expectation, the absence of an effective management system could be detrimental to employees, as they and their leaders will be overburdened with management tasks that hinder innovation and personal development (Maak & Pless 2006). A transcendent leader is a strategic leader who leads on the levels of self, others, and the organisation (Koltko-Rivera, 2006). Consequently, leaders who are able to escape the vicious circle have the courage to set and pursue their vision because they are unconcerned with the vision's outcome. This will allow them to continue their journey of self-discovery and become a leader role model despite the vision conflicts and company culture issues that surround them.

CHAPTER 8

Conclusion

8.1 Thesis Conclusion

The key findings of the thesis are the participants' desire to see an increase in transformational leaders and their willingness to become transformational leaders themselves. Transformational leadership is defined by the participants in terms of the characteristics of leaders who can effect organisational change and exert influence by serving as role models ([Section 5.2](#)). The Leadership Triangle model is developed based on the data analysis of this thesis. Transformational leaders require self-clarity and self-awareness to develop their personal vision, self-confidence, and interpersonal trust, as illustrated by the Leadership Triangle ([Section 6.7](#)). These three factors are the basis for a transformational leader's capacity to develop a shared vision, generate influence, and establish trust-based communication. Self-clarity is contingent upon the leader's three qualities. In accordance with transformational leadership characteristics, leaders who have self-clarity generate vision, cultivate trust, and exert influence without using authority.

All the contributions of knowledge described in [Section 7.3](#) show that the Leadership Triangle supports the existing model of transformational leadership ([Figure 2.4](#)) from the literature review. The characteristics of the Leadership Triangle are positive and related to work performance and engagement. However, the Leadership Triangle gives more information about the body of theories. The Leadership Triangle provides detailed information on how transformational leaders promote processes through which they exert positive influences on their followers' vision. By having self-clarity, transformational leaders are able to influence their employees to accomplish a goal or vision that is not their own. It is because transformational leaders with self-clarity demonstrate confidence and interpersonal trust that enamor them and emphasise shared vision and goal. This detail about self-clarity fills the literature gap that is described in [Section 2.4](#) about the factor that connects transformational leadership

and authentic leadership. Self-concept, or self-clarity, is a key factor of authentic leadership.

The Leadership Triangle shows that leaders, by having self-identity and the ability to be authentic to themselves, are able to build trust-based relationships with other people and can influence their followers to make necessary changes in their organisations. Indirectly, the Leadership Triangle also supports the authentic leadership framework described in the literature review ([Section 2.2.3.6](#)). The framework shows that being authentic is about fostering trust between managers and employees that creates organisational commitment. Overall, the Leadership Triangle is the relationship between interpersonal trust, self-identity, and authenticity that makes leaders transformative without using their positional authority or reward system.

Regarding the semiconductor industry, this thesis suggests that leaders must prioritise their organisations' long-term performance and investment. This is consistent with earlier studies in semiconductor industry (Chien & Ting, 2001; Ho, 2004; Ng & Guan, 2009). This thesis also proposes that leaders in the semiconductor industry must have transformational mindsets and actions, as opposed to merely transactional ones. Transformational behaviour is the key to achieving organisational effectiveness and continuous improvement, which semiconductor companies need in order to compete effectively in the global marketplace. By implementing continuous improvements and significant organisational change, semiconductor companies will be able to address their growing production times and declining efficiency.

8.2 Personal Reflection

This section describes the author's personal reflections on the thesis-writing process. The researcher acquires the critical thinking skills necessary to approach problems systematically, recognise the connections between ideas, evaluate arguments, and analyse data in order to reach a conclusions. A researcher must design a project, create a realistic timeline, overcome obstacles, and manage stakeholders in order to complete a dissertation. During this time, the researcher must simultaneously manage long-term projects and short-term objectives, which requires exceptional organisational skills. The researcher is trained to determine the optimal approach to a

question, locate relevant data, implement a method for analysing it, comprehend vast quantities of data, and synthesise the findings. Practice is required to become a skilled writer. The researcher has had the opportunity to receive feedback on communication skills from supervisors and peers. According to the findings of the thesis, participants seek transformative leadership. The analysis of the thesis reveals that interviewees desire transformational leadership from their managers and aspire to become transformational leaders themselves. As a manager in the organisation, the researcher has recognised the importance of adopting a transformational mindset when interacting with her team. The researcher had to overcome formidable obstacles to become a transformative leader in her field. Due to declining innovation and performance, the researcher has encountered difficulties in attempting to comprehend what her employees truly desire from their work environment. It has been a long and difficult journey for the researcher to become a transformational leader without being aware of her followers' struggles to become transformational individuals and their desire to see more transformational leaders or role models within the organisation.

Some coworkers are unwilling to abandon an obsolete system that no longer serves their needs. They are aware that their work management is ineffective, but they continue to use it. After completing the dissertation, the researcher has a deeper understanding of what lies behind the mentality of breaking old habits or outdated work management. This enhanced comprehension of the origins of the company's issues provides the researcher with the confidence to share a more transformative way of thinking with her team. By knowing that everyone interviewed wants to become a transformational leader and by comparing the interviewees' responses to those of other similar studies, the researcher has more information about how to use transformational leadership in a way that builds trust and helps people reach their full potential without compromising the organization's objective.

After applying a transformational mindset to decision-making, the researcher observes significant impacts of trust-based relationships and work innovation. The researcher discovers how to overcome her insecurities in order to become an authentic leader in her organization's implementation of her strategy. The researcher has learned to give herself a chance to trust herself despite the obstacles she must face while conducting research and performing her managerial duties. Transformational leadership has no

direct effect on the growth of the organization's matrix, but it does influence the behaviour of the researcher's team. Work engagement and innovation have significantly increased. The researcher recognises that the more she promotes the potential of her employees, the more motivated they are to achieve the company's goal. Motivation and work engagement increased compared to when the researcher used a more transactional leadership style with a reward system. However, the effect was only temporary, and their work motivation declined again after a time.

The researcher gains new knowledge from the data, formulates concepts, and compares the findings to those of other studies on leadership issues in the semiconductor industry. Personal introspection during research has given the researcher the confidence to be herself in her managerial position and to exercise transformational leadership. Her transformation, as described in the preceding paragraph, is consistent with the findings of similar leadership studies in the semiconductor industry, such as those conducted by Ng et al. (2009) and Ho (2004).

The ability to take risks is a further effect of this study. Every time a researcher wants to make a minor adjustment to her organization's strategy, there is uncertainty. Nevertheless, the data findings of this thesis serve as a constant reminder that employees want to experience change. Knowing that the majority of managers and employees are unable to break their vicious cycle inspires the researcher to take a chance and try something new. Before beginning this study of leadership, the researcher has a strong presumption that the majority of employees in the organisation practise transactional leadership on purpose and have no desire for the organisation to undergo transformation. This thesis broadens the researcher's perspective on leadership research methods. Even though the researcher is also an employee of the company conducting the research, he or she remains objective. Daily situations make it difficult for individuals to articulate their most profound ideas about leadership in their organisation. To analyse leadership behaviour, the researcher has the privilege of receiving internal funding from the organization's top managers. The researcher is able to create a trustworthy environment for interviewees by utilising the recommendations of top managers. The researcher develops an objective research concept by utilising her pragmatic access within the organisation. Each participant is a member of one of three organisations within the company, but the researcher is not

the manager of any of them. Under these circumstances, the researcher is not involved in the daily internal politics of the environment of the participants. The researcher is an integral part of the company's culture, but she does not participate in the internal politics of the three research-conducting departments. The researcher has the opportunity to conduct an honest and objective study under these conditions.

Throughout the research, the researcher creates a new method of ongoing reflective thought about her leadership. It influences her professional and networking behaviour. The researcher would like to conduct additional research on leadership cases outside of her organisation and the semiconductor industry. The concept of transformational leadership enables the researcher to discuss innovative ideas and their implementation with coworkers or employees from outside her organisation from a new vantage point. Strengthening findings by incorporating cases and actions from the researcher's own conversations with others in the organisation who have encountered comparable circumstances (Corbin, 2015).

As a manager, the researcher discovers that in order to apply transformational leadership in her organisation, she must first be authentic. It is difficult for a leader or an employee to have the time to reflect on their actions due to daily responsibilities. The researcher can begin her reflective thinking by analysing whether her daily actions are based on her leadership and management values. The researcher learns as a researcher that to find answers within an organisation, she must remove herself from the organization's internal politics. To become objective, the researcher needs to create a condition that create the trustworthy of the interviewees.

After being transformed by her own research, the researcher is committed to challenging her own mindset with a transformational mindset without sacrificing her transactional leadership. Transactional leadership is required to maintain system stability. Recent EU commitments, however, are to adapt to the new global semiconductor competition by becoming more productive and effective (Chapter 1). Transformational leaders must be more involved than transactional leaders to achieve this objective. As a leader-manager and researcher of transformational leadership in a European semiconductor company, it is a privilege to join this mission.

Reference

A

- Abell, P. (1996). A model of the informal structure (culture) of organizations: Help, trust, rivalry and team spirit. *Rationality and Society*, 8(4), 433-452.
- Achanga, P., Shehab, E., Roy, R., & Nelder, G. (2006). Critical success factors for lean implementation within SMEs. *Journal of manufacturing technology management*, 17(4), 460-471.
- Afsar, B., Masood, M., & Umrani, W. A. (2019). The role of job crafting and knowledge sharing on the effect of transformational leadership on innovative work behavior. *Personnel Review*, 48(5), 1186-1208.
- Agle, B. R., Nagarajan, N. J., Sonnenfeld, J. A., & Srinivasan, D. (2006). Does CEO charisma matter? An empirical analysis of the relationships among organizational performance, environmental uncertainty, and top management team perceptions of CEO charisma. *Academy of management journal*, 49(1), 161-174.
- Agboola, A. A., & Salawu, R. O. (2011). Managing deviant behavior and resistance to change. *International Journal of business and management*, 6(1), 235.
- Agote, L., Aramburu, N., & Lines, R. (2016). Authentic leadership perception, trust in the leader, and followers' emotions in organizational change processes. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 52(1), 35-63.
- Aguilera, R. V. (2005). Corporate governance and director accountability: An institutional comparative perspective. *British journal of management*, 16, S39-S53.
- Amor, A. M., Vázquez, J. P. A., & Faíña, J. A. (2020). Transformational leadership and work engagement: Exploring the mediating role of structural empowerment. *European Management Journal*, 38(1), 169-178.
- Amabile, T. M. (1996). Creativity in context. Boulder, CO. 1998). *La creatividad como um valor dentro del proceso educativo. Psicología Escolar e Educativa*, 2, 43-51.
- Antonakis, J., & House, R. J. (2014). Instrumental leadership: Measurement and extension of transformational–transactional leadership theory. *The leadership quarterly*, 25(4), 746-771.
- Antoniou, P. H., & Ansoff, H. I. (2004). Strategic management of technology. *Technology Analysis & Strategic Management*, 16(2), 275-291.
- Akram, T., Lei, S., Haider, M. J., & Hussain, S. T. (2018). Exploring the impact of knowledge sharing on the innovative work behavior of employees: A study in China. *International Business Research*, 11(3), 186-194.
- Alilyyani, B., Wong, C. A., & Cummings, G. (2018). Antecedents, mediators, and outcomes of authentic leadership in healthcare: A systematic review. *International journal of nursing studies*, 83, 34-64.
- Almeida, P., Song, J., & Grant, R. M. (2002). Are firms superior to alliances and markets? An empirical test of cross-border knowledge building. *Organization science*, 13(2), 147-161.
- Alrowwad, A. A., Abualoush, S. H., & Masa'deh, R. E. (2020). Innovation and intellectual capital as intermediary variables among transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and organizational performance. *Journal of Management Development*, 39(2), 196-222.
- Alqahtani, M. S. (2023). The Role of Leaders' Regulatory Focus Towards Creativity and Safety Ambidextrous Behavior. A Conceptual View. *Journal of Economics and Management Sciences*, 6(1), p6-p6.
- Alimo-Metcalfe, B., & Alban-Metcalfe, R. J. (2001). The development of a new transformational leadership questionnaire. *Journal of occupational and organizational psychology*, 74(1), 1-27.
- Aliyu, A. A., Bello, M. U., Kasim, R., & Martin, D. (2014). Positivist and non-positivist paradigm in social science research: Conflicting paradigms or perfect partners. *J. Mgmt. & Sustainability*, 4, 79.
- Allmark, P., Boote, J., Chambers, E., Clarke, A., McDonnell, A., Thompson, A., & Tod, A. M. (2009). Ethical issues in the use of in-depth interviews: literature review and discussion. *Research Ethics*, 5(2), 48-54.
- Alshenqeeti, H. (2014). Interviewing as a data collection method: A critical review. *English linguistics research*, 3(1), 39-45.

- Appelbaum, S. H., Audet, L., & Miller, J. C. (2003). Gender and leadership? Leadership and gender? A journey through the landscape of theories. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 24(1), 43-51.
- Appleyard, M. M., & Kalsow, G. A. (1999). Knowledge diffusion in the semiconductor industry. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 3(4), 288-295.
- Appleyard, M. M., Hatch, N. W., & Mowery, D. C. (2001). 7 Managing the Development and Transfer of Process Technologies in the Semiconductor Manufacturing 97. *The nature and dynamics of organizational capabilities*, 183.
- Appleyard, M. M., & Brown, C. (2001). Employment practices and semiconductor manufacturing performance. *Industrial Relations: A Journal of Economy and Society*, 40(3), 436-471.
- Aruoren, E. E., & Tarurhor, E. M. (2023). Influence of authentic leadership on organizational trust: The mediatory role of organizational commitment. *International Journal of Management & Entrepreneurship Research*, 5(1), 18-32.
- Avolio, B. J., Bass, B. M., & Jung, D. I. (1999). Re-examining the components of transformational and transactional leadership using the Multifactor Leadership. *Journal of occupational and organizational psychology*, 72(4), 441-462.
- Avolio, B. J., Kahai, S., & Dodge, G. E. (2000). E-leadership: Implications for theory, research, and practice. *The leadership quarterly*, 11(4), 615-668.
- Avolio, B. J., Sosik, J. J., Jung, D. I., & Berson, Y. (2003). Leadership models, methods, and applications. *Handbook of psychology*, 12, 277-307.
- Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Walumbwa, F. O., Luthans, F., & May, D. R. (2004). Unlocking the mask: A look at the process by which authentic leaders impact follower attitudes and behaviors. *The leadership quarterly*, 15(6), 801-823. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2004.09.003>
- Avolio, B. J., Luthans, F., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2004). Authentic leadership: Theory building for veritable sustained performance.
- Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (2004). Multifactor leadership questionnaire (TM). *Mind Garden, Inc. Menlo Park, CA*.
- Avolio, B. J. (2005). *Leadership development in balance: Made/born*. Psychology Press.
- Avolio, B. J., & Gardner, W. L. (2005). Authentic leadership development: Getting to the root of positive forms of leadership. *The leadership quarterly*, 16(3), 315-338.
- Avolio, B. J., & Wernsing, T. S. (2008). Practicing authentic leadership. SJ Lopez (Ed.), *Positive psychology: exploring the best in people içinde* (s. 147-165).
- Avolio, B. J., & Yammarino, F. J. (Eds.). (2013). *Transformational and charismatic leadership: The road ahead*. Emerald Group Publishing.
- Axelrod, R., & Hamilton, W. D. (1981). The evolution of cooperation. *science*, 211(4489), 1390-1396. doi: 10.1126/science.7466396
- Akram, T., Lei, S., & Haider, M. J. (2016). The impact of relational leadership on employee innovative work behavior in IT industry of China. *Arab Economic and Business Journal*, 11(2), 153-161. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aebj.2016.06.001>

B

- Bakker, A. B., & Van Woerkom, M. (2017). Flow at work: A self-determination perspective. *Occupational Health Science*, 1, 47-65.
- Bakker, A. B., Hetland, J., Olsen, O. K., & Espevik, R. (2019). Daily strengths use and employee well-being: The moderating role of personality. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 92(1), 144-168.
- Bakker, A. B., Hetland, J., Olsen, O. K., & Espevik, R. (2022). Daily transformational leadership: A source of inspiration for follower performance?. *European Management Journal*. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.emj.2022.04.004>
- Ballinger, G. A., Schoorman, F. D., & Lehman, D. W. (2009). Will you trust your new boss? The role of affective reactions to leadership succession. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20(2), 219-232.

- Bamford, M., Wong, C. A., & Laschinger, H. (2013). The influence of authentic leadership and areas of worklife on work engagement of registered nurses. *Journal of nursing management*, 21(3), 529-540.
- Baskoro, B. D. (2021). The nexus of transactional leadership, knowledge sharing behavior and organizational creativity: empirical evidence from construction workers in Jakarta. *Journal of Work-Applied Management*, 14(1), 145-162.
- Bass, B. M. (1960). Leadership, psychology, and organizational behavior.
- Bass, B. M., & Valenzi, E. R. (1974). Contingent aspects of effective management styles. Contingency approaches to leadership. JG Hunt and LL Larson. Carbondale.
- Bass, B. M., & Bass Bernard, M. (1985). Leadership and performance beyond expectations.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). Leadership: Good, better, best. *Organizational dynamics*, 13(3), 26-40. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616\(85\)90028-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616(85)90028-2)
- Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., & Goodheim, L. (1987). Biography and the assessment of transformational leadership at the world-class level. *Journal of management*, 13(1), 7-19.
- Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (1987). Transformational leadership, charisma, and beyond In JG Hunt, BR Baliga, HP Dachler, & CA Schriesheim (Eds.), *Emerging Leadership Vistas*: 29-49. *Lexington, MA: Lexington Books*.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1989). Potential biases in leadership measures: How prototypes, leniency, and general satisfaction relate to ratings and rankings of transformational and transactional leadership constructs. *Educational and psychological measurement*, 49(3), 509-527.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1990). The implications of transactional and transformational leadership for individual, team, and organizational development. *Research in organizational change and development*, 4(1), 231-272.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1990). Developing transformational leadership: 1992 and beyond. *Journal of European industrial training*, 14(5).
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1990). *Transformational leadership development: Manual for the multifactor leadership questionnaire*. Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Bass, B. M. (1990). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. *Organizational dynamics*, 18(3), 19-31.
- Bass, B. M., & Stogdill, R. M. (1990). *Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications*. Simon and Schuster.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership and organizational culture. *Public administration quarterly*, 112-121.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership: A response to critiques.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994). Shatter the glass ceiling: Women may make better managers. *Human resource management*, 33(4), 549-560.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (Eds.). (1994). *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. sage.
- Bass, B. M. (1997). Does the transactional–transformational leadership paradigm transcend organizational and national boundaries?. *American psychologist*, 52(2), 130.
- Bass, B. M. (1999). Two decades of research and development in transformational leadership. *European journal of work and organizational psychology*, 8(1), 9-32.
- Bass, B. M. (2000). The future of leadership in learning organizations. *Journal of leadership studies*, 7(3), 18-40.
- Bass, B. M. (2013). Forecasting organizational leadership: From back (1967) to the future (2034). In *Transformational and charismatic leadership: The road ahead 10th anniversary edition* (Vol. 5, pp. 439-448). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., Jung, D. I., & Berson, Y. (2003). Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of applied psychology*, 88(2), 207.

- Bass, B. M., & Riggio, R. E. (2006). *Transformational Leadership*. Mahwah, NJ: L.
- Bass, B. M. (2013). Forecasting organizational leadership: From back (1967) to the future (2034). In *Transformational and charismatic leadership: The road ahead 10th anniversary edition* (Vol. 5, pp. 439-448). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Bass, B. M., & Bass, R. (2009). *The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications*. Simon and Schuster.
- Babiak, K., & Thibault, L. (2008). Managing inter-organisational relationships: The art of plate spinning. *International journal of sport management and marketing*, 3(3), 281-302.
- Bandura, A. (1986). Social foundations of thought and action. *Englewood Cliffs, NJ*, 1986(23-28).
- Bantel, K. A., & Jackson, S. E. (1989). Top management and innovations in banking: Does the composition of the top team make a difference?. *Strategic management journal*, 10(S1), 107-124.
- Basu, R., & Green, S. G. (1997). Leader-member exchange and transformational leadership: an empirical examination of innovative behaviors in leader-member dyads. *Journal of applied social psychology*, 27(6), 477-499.
- Baum, J. R., Locke, E. A., & Kirkpatrick, S. A. (1998). A longitudinal study of the relation of vision and vision communication to venture growth in entrepreneurial firms. *Journal of applied psychology*, 83(1), 43.
- Bennett, T. M. (2009). *The relationship between the subordinate's perception of the leadership style of IT managers and the subordinate's perceptions of IT manager's ability to inspire extra effort, to be effective, and to enhance satisfaction with management*. Nova Southeastern University.
- Benson, S. G., & Dundis, S. P. (2003). Understanding and motivating health care employees: integrating Maslow's hierarchy of needs, training and technology. *Journal of nursing management*, 11(5), 315-320.
- Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (1985). *The strategies for taking charge. Leaders*, New York: Harper. Row, 41.
- Berson, Y., & Avolio, B. J. (2004). Transformational leadership and the dissemination of organizational goals: A case study of a telecommunication firm. *The leadership quarterly*, 15(5), 625-646.
- Berkowitz, M. W., Gibbs, J. C., & Broughton, J. M. (1980). The relation of moral judgment stage disparity to developmental effects of peer dialogues. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly of Behavior and Development*, 26(4), 341-357.
- Beyer, J. M., & Browning, L. D. (1999). Transforming an industry in crisis: Charisma, routinization, and supportive cultural leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10(3), 483-520.
- Beuscher, L., & Grando, V. T. (2009). Challenges in conducting qualitative research with individuals with dementia. *Research in Gerontological nursing*, 2(1), 6-11.
- Bhasin, S., & Burcher, P. (2006). Lean viewed as a philosophy. *Journal of manufacturing technology management*, 17(1), 56-72.
- Birasnav, M. (2014). Knowledge management and organizational performance in the service industry: The role of transformational leadership beyond the effects of transactional leadership. *Journal of business research*, 67(8), 1622-1629.
- Bird, J. J., Wang, C., Watson, J., & Murray, L. (2012). Teacher and principal perceptions of authentic leadership: Implications for trust, engagement, and intention to return. *Journal of School Leadership*, 22(3), 425-461.
- Boseman, G. (2008). Leadership effective leadership in a changing world. *Journal of Financial Service Professionals*, 62(3), 36.
- Boerner, S., Eisenbeiss, S. A., & Griesser, D. (2007). Follower behavior and organizational performance: The impact of transformational leaders. *Journal of leadership & organizational Studies*, 13(3), 15-26.
- Boeddeker, N., Hemmi, J. M., & Zeil, J. (2008). Vision and the organization of behaviour. *Current Biology*, 18(8), R320-R323.
- Bommer, W. H., Rubin, R. S., & Baldwin, T. T. (2004). Setting the stage for effective leadership: Antecedents of transformational leadership behavior. *The leadership quarterly*, 15(2), 195-210.

Boal, K. B., & Hooijberg, R. (2000). Strategic leadership research: Moving on. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 11(4), 515-549.

Boyatzis, R. E. (2008). Competencies in the 21st century. *Journal of management development*, 27(1), 5-12.

Boyatzis, R. E., & Akrivou, K. (2006). The ideal self as the driver of intentional change. *Journal of management development*, 25(7), 624-642.

Boyer, K. K. (1998). Longitudinal linkages between intended and realized operations strategies. *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*, 18(4), 356-373.

Brown, C., & Campbell, B. (2001). Technical change, wages, and employment in semiconductor manufacturing. *ILR Review*, 54(2A), 450-465.

Brown, M. E., Treviño, L. K., & Harrison, D. A. (2005). Ethical leadership: A social learning perspective for construct development and testing. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes*, 97(2), 117-134.

Bruneel, J., d'Este, P., & Salter, A. (2010). Investigating the factors that diminish the barriers to university–industry collaboration. *Research policy*, 39(7), 858-868.

Bryman, A. (1996). Leadership in Organisations: in Clegg, S, Hardy, C., and Nord, W. eds. *Handbook of Organisation Studies*. Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA, 276, 92.

Bryman, A., Stephens, M., & a Campo, C. (1996). The importance of context: Qualitative research and the study of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 7(3), 353-370.

Bryman, A., Gillingwater, D., & McGuinness, I. (1996). Leadership and organizational transformation. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 19(6), 849-872.

Burgess, R. G., Pole, C. J., Evans, K., & Priestley, C. (2002). Four studies from one or one study from four?: Multi-site case study research. In *Analyzing qualitative data* (pp. 129-145). Routledge.

Bryman, A. (2004). Qualitative research on leadership: A critical but appreciative review. *The leadership quarterly*, 15(6), 729-769. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2004.09.007>

Bryman, A. (2016). *Social research methods*. Oxford university press.

Bell, E., Bryman, A., & Harley, B. (2022). *Business research methods*. Oxford university press.

Brymer, E., & Gray, T. (2006). Effective leadership: Transformational or transactional?. *Journal of Outdoor and Environmental Education*, 10, 13-19.

Bycio, P., Hackett, R. D., & Allen, J. S. (1995). Further assessments of Bass's (1985) conceptualization of transactional and transformational leadership. *Journal of applied psychology*, 80(4), 468.

Hurley, R. F., & Hult, G. T. M. (1998). Innovation, market orientation, and organizational learning: an integration and empirical examination. *Journal of marketing*, 62(3), 42-54.

Burns, J. M. (2012). *Leadership*. Open Road Media.

Burke, S., & Collins, K. M. (2001). Gender differences in leadership styles and management skills. *Women in management review*, 16(5), 244-257.

Burke, C. S., Stagl, K. C., Klein, C., Goodwin, G. F., Salas, E., & Halpin, S. M. (2006). What type of leadership behaviors are functional in teams? A meta-analysis. *The leadership quarterly*, 17(3), 288-307.

C

Camisón-Zornoza, C., Lapedra-Alcamí, R., Segarra-Ciprés, M., & Boronat-Navarro, M. (2004). A meta-analysis of innovation and organizational size. *Organization studies*, 25(3), 331-361.

Camisón, C., & Villar-López, A. (2014). Organizational innovation as an enabler of technological innovation capabilities and firm performance. *Journal of business research*, 67(1), 2891-2902.

Carmeli, A., Dutton, J. E., & Hardin, A. E. (2015). Respect as an engine for new ideas: Linking respectful engagement, relational information processing and creativity among employees and teams. *Human Relations*, 68(6), 1021-1047.

- Carpenter, M. A., & Fredrickson, J. W. (2001). Top management teams, global strategic posture, and the moderating role of uncertainty. *Academy of Management journal*, 44(3), 533-545.
- Carpenter, M. A., Geletkanycz, M. A., & Sanders, W. G. (2004). Upper echelons research revisited: Antecedents, elements, and consequences of top management team composition. *Journal of management*, 30(6), 749-778.
- Cannella Jr, A. A., & Monroe, M. J. (1997). Contrasting perspectives on strategic leaders: Toward a more realistic view of top managers. *Journal of management*, 23(3), 213-237.
- Camillus, J. C. (1984). TECHNOLOGY-DRIVEN AND MARKET-DRIVEN LIFE-CYCLES-IMPLICATIONS FOR MULTINATIONAL CORPORATE-STRATEGY. *Columbia Journal of World Business*, 19(2), 56-60.
- Chan, F. T., & Abhary, K. (1996). Design and evaluation of automated cellular manufacturing systems with simulation modelling and AHP approach: a case study. *Integrated Manufacturing Systems*, 7(6), 39-52.
- Chan, A. T., & Chan, E. H. (2005). Impact of perceived leadership styles on work outcomes: Case of building professionals. *Journal of construction engineering and management*, 131(4), 413-422.
- Chan, A., & Hannah, S. T. (2005). Veritable authentic leadership: Emergence, functioning, and impacts. WL Gardner, BJ Avolio & FO Walumbwa (Eds.) *Authentic leadership theory and practice: Origins, effects and development içinde* (s. 3-41).
- Casper, H., Rexford, A., Riegel, D., Robinson, A., Martin, E., & Awwad, M. (2021, August). The impact of the computer chip supply shortage. In *Proceedings of the international conference on industrial engineering and operations management, Bangalore, India* (pp. 236-245).
- Casanova, L., & Miroux, A. (2019). *The era of Chinese multinationals: Competing for global dominance*. Academic Press.
- Cannella Jr, A. A., & Monroe, M. J. (1997). Contrasting perspectives on strategic leaders: Toward a more realistic view of top managers. *Journal of management*, 23(3), 213-237.
- Chen, H. C., Beck, S. L., & Amos, L. K. (2005). Leadership styles and nursing faculty job satisfaction in Taiwan. *Journal of nursing Scholarship*, 37(4), 374-380.
- Chen, A. J., Boudreau, M. C., & Watson, R. T. (2008). Information systems and ecological sustainability. *Journal of systems and Information technology*, 10(3), 186-201.
- Chen, M. Y. C., Lin, C. Y. Y., Lin, H. E., & McDonough, E. F. (2012). Does transformational leadership facilitate technological innovation? The moderating roles of innovative culture and incentive compensation. *Asia pacific journal of management*, 29, 239-264.
- Chen, S. T., & Chang, B. G. (2012). The effects of absorptive capacity and decision speed on organizational innovation: a study of organizational structure as an antecedent variable. *Contemporary Management Research*, 8(1).
- Child, J. (1997). Strategic choice in the analysis of action, structure, organizations and environment: Retrospect and prospect. *Organization studies*, 18(1), 43-76.
- Choi, T. Y., & Liker, J. K. (1995). Bringing Japanese continuous improvement approaches to US manufacturing: The roles of process orientation and communications. *Decision sciences*, 26(5), 589-620.
- Choi, M., & Ruona, W. E. (2011). Individual readiness for organizational change and its implications for human resource and organization development. *Human resource development review*, 10(1), 46-73.
- Chien, Y. C., & Ting, K. S. (2015). The Influence of Leadership Styles by Male and Female Supervisors on Operating Performance: A Listed Semiconductor Company in Taiwan as an Example.
- Cortés-Denia, D., Luque-Reca, O., Lopez-Zafra, E., & Pulido-Martos, M. (2023). Does authentic leadership promote higher job satisfaction in public versus private organizations? Exploring the role of vigor and engagement. *Heliyon*, 9(1).
- Cole, M. S., Bruch, H., & Shamir, B. (2009). Social distance as a moderator of the effects of transformational leadership: Both neutralizer and enhancer. *Human Relations*, 62(11), 1697-1733.

Cooper, C. D., Scandura, T. A., & Schriesheim, C. A. (2005). Looking forward but learning from our past: Potential challenges to developing authentic leadership theory and authentic leaders. *The leadership quarterly*, 16(3), 475-493.

Cooper, H. M. (1984). Cooper, Harris M., *The Integrative Research Review: A Systematic Approach*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage, 1984.

Cooper, H. M. (1988). Organizing knowledge syntheses: A taxonomy of literature reviews. *Knowledge in society*, 1(1), 104.

Cooper, J. F., & Nirenberg, J. (2012). Encyclopedia of leadership edition. *Leadership Effectiveness*.

Cox, L. S. J. F., Pearce, C. L., & Sims Jr, H. P. (2003). Toward a Broader Leadership Development Agenda: Extending the Traditional Transactional–Transformational Duality by Developing Directive, Empowering, and Shared. In *The future of leadership development* (pp. 187-206). Psychology Press.

Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1998). *Charismatic leadership in organizations*. Sage Publications.

Conger, J. A. (1998). Qualitative research as the cornerstone methodology for understanding leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 9(1), 107-121.

Corbin J, Strauss A (2015) Basics of Qualitative Research: Techniques and Procedures for Developing Grounded Theory. Fourth edition. Sage, Thousand Oaks, Ca.

Corti, L., Day, A., & Backhouse, G. (2000, December). Confidentiality and informed consent: Issues for consideration in the preservation of and provision of access to qualitative data archives. In *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung/Forum: Qualitative Social Research* (Vol. 1, No. 3).

Clapp-Smith, R., Vogelgesang, G. R., & Avey, J. B. (2009). Authentic leadership and positive psychological capital: The mediating role of trust at the group level of analysis. *Journal of leadership & organizational studies*, 15(3), 227-240.

Cleary, M., Hungerford, C., Lopez, V., & Cutcliffe, J. R. (2015). Towards effective management in psychiatric-mental health nursing: the dangers and consequences of micromanagement. *Issues in Mental Health Nursing*, 36(6), 424-429.

Crawford, J. A., Dawkins, S., Martin, A., & Lewis, G. (2020). Putting the leader back into authentic leadership: Reconceptualising and rethinking leaders. *Australian Journal of Management*, 45(1), 114-133.

Crawford, E. R., Rich, B. L., Buckman, B., & Bergeron, J. (2013). The antecedents and drivers of employee engagement. In *Employee engagement in theory and practice* (pp. 57-81). Routledge.

Creswell, J. W. (2003). Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. India: SAGE Publications.

Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2016). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Sage publications.

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2017). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Sage publications.

D

Daft, R. L. (1978). A dual-core model of organizational innovation. *Academy of management journal*, 21(2), 193-210.

Dagher, G. K., Chapa, O., & Junaid, N. (2015). The historical evolution of employee engagement and self-efficacy constructs: An empirical examination in a non-western country. *Journal of Management History*, 21(2), 232-256.

Damanpour, F., & Evan, W. M. (1984). Organizational innovation and performance: the problem of "organizational lag". *Administrative science quarterly*, 392-409.

Damanpour, F. (1996). Organizational complexity and innovation: developing and testing multiple contingency models. *Management science*, 42(5), 693-716.

Davila, T., Epstein, M., & Shelton, R. (2012). *Making innovation work: How to manage it, measure it, and profit from it*. FT press.

Damanpour, F. (1992). Organizational size and innovation. *Organization studies*, 13(3), 375-402.

Damanpour, F., & Aravind, D. (2006). Product and process innovations: A review of organizational and environmental determinants. *Innovation, science, and industrial change: A research handbook*, 38-66.

Darabi, F., & Clark, M. (2012). Developing business school/SMEs collaboration: the role of trust. *International journal of entrepreneurial behavior & research*, 18(4), 477-493. <https://doi.org/10.1108/13552551211239500>

Davies, A. J., & Kochhar, A. K. (2002). Manufacturing best practice and performance studies: a critique. *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*, 22(3), 289-305.

David, E. M., Kim, T. Y., Farh, J. L., Lin, X., & Zhou, F. (2021). Is 'be yourself' always the best advice? The moderating effect of team ethical climate and the mediating effects of vigor and demand-ability fit. *human relations*, 74(3), 437-462.

Dealy, M. D., & Thomas, A. R. (2007). Managing by accountability: What every leader needs to know about responsibility, integrity-and results. (*No Title*).

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2000). The "what" and "why" of goal pursuits: Human needs and the self-determination of behavior. *Psychological inquiry*, 11(4), 227-268.

Dertouzos, M. L., Lester, R. K., & Solow, R. M. (1970). the MIT Commission on Industrial Productivity. 1989. Made in America: Regaining the productive edge. *Cambridge/Mass./London*.

Dess, G. G., & Beard, D. W. (1984). Dimensions of organizational task environments. *Administrative science quarterly*, 52-73.

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2000). *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Sage Publications. <https://books.google.de/books?id=LIGvgEACAAJ>

Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (Eds.). (2011). *The Sage handbook of qualitative research*. sage.

Dess, G. G., & Beard, D. W. (1984). Dimensions of organizational task environments. *Administrative science quarterly*, 52-73.

Den Hartog, D. N., Van Muijen, J. J., & Koopman, P. L. (1997). Transactional versus transformational leadership: An analysis of the MLQ. *Journal of occupational and organizational psychology*, 70(1), 19-34.

Dess, G. G., & Picken, J. C. (2000). Changing roles: Leadership in the 21st century. *Organizational dynamics*, 28(3), 18-34.

Dey, I. (1993). Qualitative research. A user-friendly guide for social scientists.

D'Este, P., & Patel, P. (2007). University-industry linkages in the UK: What are the factors underlying the variety of interactions with industry?. *Research policy*, 36(9), 1295-1313.

DiCicco-Bloom, B., & Crabtree, B. F. (2006). The qualitative research interview. *Medical education*, 40(4), 314-321.

Diener, E., & Crandall, R. (1978). *Ethics in social and behavioral research*. U Chicago Press.

Dineen, B. R., Lewicki, R. J., & Tomlinson, E. C. (2006). Supervisory guidance and behavioral integrity: relationships with employee citizenship and deviant behavior. *Journal of applied psychology*, 91(3), 622.

Dirks, K. T. (2000). Trust in leadership and team performance: Evidence from NCAA basketball. *Journal of applied psychology*, 85(6), 1004.

Dirks, K. T., & Ferrin, D. L. (2001). The role of trust in organizational settings. *Organization science*, 12(4), 450-467.

Dirks, K. T., & Ferrin, D. L. (2002). Trust in leadership: meta-analytic findings and implications for research and practice. *Journal of applied psychology*, 87(4), 611.

Doole, I. (2000). *How small and medium sized enterprises learn to compete effectively on international markets*. Sheffield Hallam University (United Kingdom).

Doolen, T. L., & Hacker, M. E. (2005). A review of lean assessment in organizations: an exploratory study of lean practices by electronics manufacturers. *Journal of Manufacturing systems*, 24(1), 55-67.

Doney, P. M., & Cannon, J. P. (1997). An examination of the nature of trust in buyer–seller relationships. *Journal of marketing*, 61(2), 35-51.

Doney, P. M., Barry, J. M., & Abratt, R. (2007). Trust determinants and outcomes in global B2B services. *European Journal of marketing*, 41(9/10), 1096-1116.

Drew, H. (2014). Overcoming barriers: Qualitative interviews with German elites. *Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*, 12(2), pp77-86.

Driscoll, C., & McKee, M. (2007). Restorying a culture of ethical and spiritual values: A role for leader storytelling. *Journal of business ethics*, 73, 205-217.

Dwyer, F. R., Schurr, P. H., & Oh, S. (1987). Developing buyer-seller relationships. *Journal of marketing*, 51(2), 11-27.

Duthoit, A. (2019). A 2020 semiconductor slump will send shockwaves across the global electronics industry. https://www.allianz.com/content/dam/onemarketing/azcom/Allianz_com/economic-research/publications/specials/en/2019/20193009-TheView-SemiConductor.pdf

Duffy, R. D., & Sedlacek, W. E. (2007). The work values of first-year college students: Exploring group differences. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 55(4), 359-364.

Dvir, T., Eden, D., Avolio, B. J., & Shamir, B. (2002). Impact of transformational leadership on follower development and performance: A field experiment. *Academy of management journal*, 45(4), 735-744.

E

Edwards, R., & Holland, J. (2013). *What is qualitative interviewing?* (p. 128). Bloomsbury Academic.

Eisenbeiss, S. A., Van Knippenberg, D., & Boerner, S. (2008). Transformational leadership and team innovation: integrating team climate principles. *Journal of applied psychology*, 93(6), 1438.

Eisenhardt, K. M., & Tabrizi, B. N. (1995). Accelerating adaptive processes: Product innovation in the global computer industry. *Administrative science quarterly*, 84-110.

Eisenhardt, K. M., & Schoonhoven, C. B. (1996). Resource-based view of strategic alliance formation: Strategic and social effects in entrepreneurial firms. *organization Science*, 7(2), 136-150.

Eisenhardt, K. M. (1989). Building theories from case study research. *Academy of management review*, 14(4), 532-550.

Elkins, T., & Keller, R. T. (2003). Leadership in research and development organizations: A literature review and conceptual framework. *The leadership quarterly*, 14(4-5), 587-606.

Elenkov, D. S., & Manev, I. M. (2005). Top management leadership and influence on innovation: The role of sociocultural context. *Journal of management*, 31(3), 381-402.

Elenkov, D. S., Judge, W., & Wright, P. (2005). Strategic leadership and executive innovation influence: an international multi-cluster comparative study. *Strategic management journal*, 26(7), 665-682.

Ensley, M. D., Pearce, C. L., & Hmieleski, K. M. (2006). The moderating effect of environmental dynamism on the relationship between entrepreneur leadership behavior and new venture performance. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 21(2), 243-263.

Ensign, P. C. (1999). Innovation in the multinational firm with globally dispersed R&D: Technological knowledge utilization and accumulation. *The Journal of High Technology Management Research*, 10(2), 203-221.

Epitropaki, O., & Martin, R. (2005). The moderating role of individual differences in the relation between transformational/transactional leadership perceptions and organizational identification. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16(4), 569-589.

F

Farid, T., Iqbal, S., Khan, A., Ma, J., Khattak, A., & Naseer Ud Din, M. (2020). The impact of authentic leadership on organizational citizenship behaviors: the mediating role of affective-and cognitive-based trust. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 11, 1975.

Farkas, C. M., & De Backer, P. (1996). *Maximum leadership: The world's leading CEOs share their five strategies for success*. Macmillan.

Felin, T., & Hesterly, W. S. (2007). The knowledge-based view, nested heterogeneity, and new value creation: Philosophical considerations on the locus of knowledge. *Academy of management review*, 32(1), 195-218.

Ferrin, D. L., & Dirks, K. T. (2003). The use of rewards to increase and decrease trust: Mediating processes and differential effects. *Organization science*, 14(1), 18-31.

FERRY, J., LAYTON, R., & CO-FOUNDER, C. T. T. (2021). MAINTAINING US LEADERSHIP IN SEMICONDUCTORS AND COUNTERING CHINA'S THREATS.https://prosperousamerica.org/wp-content/uploads/2021/03/CTT_CPA_Semiconductor_White_Paper_3.20.21_FINAL-1.pdf

Fenwick, T. (2007). Developing organizational practices of ecological sustainability: A learning perspective. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 28(7), 632-645.

Finkelstein, S., & Hambrick, D. C. (1996). *Strategic leadership: Top executives and their effects on organizations*. Minneapolis, MN: West Publishing Company.

Fleishman, E. A. (1953). The measurement of leadership attitudes in industry. *Journal of applied psychology*, 37(3), 153.

Fleishman, E. A. (1953). Leadership climate, human relations training, and supervisory behavior. *Personnel psychology*, 6(2), 205-222.

Fleishman, E. A., Mumford, M. D., Zaccaro, S. J., Levin, K. Y., Korotkin, A. L., & Hein, M. B. (1991). Taxonomic efforts in the description of leader behavior: A synthesis and functional interpretation. *The leadership quarterly*, 2(4), 245-287.

Flynn, B. B., Sakakibara, S., & Schroeder, R. G. (1993). A framework and measurement instrument for just-in-time manufacturing. *Production and Operations Management*, 2(3), 177-194.

Folger, R., & Cropanzano, R. (2001). Fairness theory: Justice as accountability. *Advances in organizational justice*, 1(1-55), 12.

Ford, J., & Harding, N. (2011). The impossibility of the 'true self' of authentic leadership. *Leadership*, 7(4), 463-479. doi: 10.1177/1742715011416894

Foss, N. J., Laursen, K., & Pedersen, T. (2011). Linking customer interaction and innovation: The mediating role of new organizational practices. *Organization science*, 22(4), 980-999.

Foy, C. C. N. (2019). *The Influence of Role Models in the Development of Ethical Leadership Behaviors* (Doctoral dissertation, Grand Canyon University).

Fry, L., & Kriger, M. (2009). Towards a theory of being-centered leadership: Multiple levels of being as context for effective leadership. *Human relations*, 62(11), 1667-1696.

Furr, N., & Dyer, J. H. (2014). Leading your team into the unknown. *Harvard business review*, 92(12), 18.

G

Gardner III, W. L. (1992). Lessons in organizational dramaturgy: The art of impression management. *Organizational Dynamics*, 21(1), 33-46.

Gardner, W. L., & Avolio, B. J. (1998). The charismatic relationship: A dramaturgical perspective. *Academy of management review*, 23(1), 32-58.

Gander, M. J. (2009). Managing people in a lean environment: The power of informal controls and effective management of company culture. *Journal of Business Case Studies (JBCS)*, 5(6), 105-110.

Gardner, W. L., Avolio, B. J., Luthans, F., May, D. R., & Walumbwa, F. (2005). "Can you see the real me?" A self-based model of authentic leader and follower development. *The leadership quarterly*, 16(3), 343-372.

- Gardner, W. (2005). Veritable authentic leadership: Emergence, functioning and impacts. In *Veritable authentic leadership: Emergence, functioning and impacts* (pp. 3-41). Elsevier.
- Gardner, W. L., Coglisier, C. C., Davis, K. M., & Dickens, M. P. (2011). Authentic leadership: A review of the literature and research agenda. *The leadership quarterly*, 22(6), 1120-1145. doi: 10.1016/j.leaguan.2011.09.007
- García-Morales, V. J., Llorens-Montes, F. J., & Verdú-Jover, A. J. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of organizational innovation and organizational learning in entrepreneurship. *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, 106(1), 21-42.
- García-Morales, V. J., Lloréns-Montes, F. J., & Verdú-Jover, A. J. (2008). The effects of transformational leadership on organizational performance through knowledge and innovation. *British journal of management*, 19(4), 299-319.
- García-Morales, V. J., Jiménez-Barrionuevo, M. M., & Gutiérrez-Gutiérrez, L. (2012). Transformational leadership influence on organizational performance through organizational learning and innovation. *Journal of business research*, 65(7), 1040-1050.
- George, B., Sims, P., McLean, A. N., & Mayer, D. (2007). Discovering your authentic leadership. *Harvard business review*, 85(2), 129.
- George, B., & Bennis, W. (2008). *Authentic leadership: Rediscovering the secrets to creating lasting value*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Gerçek, M. (2018). The Effects of Transformational and Transactional Leadership Styles on Psychological Contract: A Managerial Perspective. *International Journal of Economics & Management*, 12(2).
- Gillespie, N. A., & Mann, L. (2004). Transformational leadership and shared values: The building blocks of trust. *Journal of managerial psychology*, 19(6), 588-607.
- Gill, J. & Johnson, P. (2010). Research methods for managers. *Research Methods for Managers*, 1-288.
- Gill, P., Stewart, K., Treasure, E., & Chadwick, B. (2008). Methods of data collection in qualitative research: interviews and focus groups. *British dental journal*, 204(6), 291-295. <https://doi.org/10.1038/bdj.2008.192>
- Gilmore, P. L., Hu, X., Wei, F., Tetrick, L. E., & Zaccaro, S. J. (2013). Positive affectivity neutralizes transformational leadership's influence on creative performance and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 34(8), 1061-1075.
- Ghosh, P. International Business Times. (2020, October). US And China In Battle For Semiconductor Supremacy. <https://www.ibtimes.com/us-china-battle-semiconductor-supremacy-3067314> .
- Gregersen, H. B., Morrison, A. J., & Black, J. S. (1998). Developing leaders for the global frontier. *Sloan management review*, 40(1), 21-33.
- Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1967). Grounded theory: The discovery of grounded theory. *Sociology the journal of the British sociological association*, 12(1), 27-49.
- Golden III, J. H., & Shriner, M. (2019). Examining relationships between transformational leadership and employee creative performance: The moderator effects of organizational culture. *The Journal of Creative Behavior*, 53(3), 363-376.
- Gooty, J., Connelly, S., Griffith, J., & Gupta, A. (2010). Leadership, affect and emotions: A state of the science review. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21(6), 979-1004.
- Grant, A. M., & Ashford, S. J. (2008). The dynamics of proactivity at work. *Research in organizational behavior*, 28, 3-34.
- Grandey, A. A., Fisk, G. M., Mattila, A. S., Jansen, K. J., & Sideman, L. A. (2005). Is "service with a smile" enough? Authenticity of positive displays during service encounters. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes*, 96(1), 38-55.
- Griffin, M. A., Neal, A., & Parker, S. K. (2007). A new model of work role performance: Positive behavior in uncertain and interdependent contexts. *Academy of management journal*, 50(2), 327-347.
- Gumusluoglu, L., & Ilsev, A. (2009). Transformational leadership, creativity, and organizational innovation. *Journal of business research*, 62(4), 461-473.

Gumusluoglu, L., Karakitapoğlu-Aygün, Z., & Scandura, T. A. (2017). A multilevel examination of benevolent leadership and innovative behavior in R&D contexts: A social identity approach. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 24(4), 479-493.

Gumusluoglu, L., & Ilsev, A. (2009). Transformational leadership, creativity, and organizational innovation. *Journal of business research*, 62(4), 461-473.

H

Halevi, M. Y., Carmeli, A., & Brueller, N. N. (2015). Ambidexterity in SBUs: TMT behavioral integration and environmental dynamism. *Human Resource Management*, 54(S1), 223-238.

Halai, A. (2006). Ethics in qualitative research: Issues and challenges. https://www.edqual.org/publications/workingpaper/edqualwp4.pdf/at_download/file.pdf

Hambrick, D. C., & Mason, P. A. (1984). Upper echelons: The organization as a reflection of its top managers. *Academy of management review*, 9(2), 193-206.

Hambrick, D. C. (1994). Top management groups: A conceptual integration and reconsideration of the "team" label. *Research in organizational behavior*, 16, 171-171.

Hancock, B., Ockleford, E., & Windridge, K. (2001). *An introduction to qualitative research*. London: Trent focus group.

Handy, C (1982). Title: Charles Handy article on leadership language. Charles Handy Papers. Calisphere. <https://calisphere.org/item/6f21fbe7082eaafaf5110d310702dfaa/>

Handy, C. (1992). The language of leadership. *Frontiers of Leadership*. Eds. Syrett and Hogg.

Handy, CB (1993). Understanding organisations. Baltimore: Penguin Books. <https://books.google.de/books?id=NitYAC2aH2sC>.

Harter, S. (2002). Authenticity. In C. R. Snyder & S. J. Lopez (Eds.), *Handbook of positive psychology* (pp. 382–394). Oxford University Press.

Harrell, M. C., & Bradley, M. (2009). Data collection methods: Semi-structured interviews and focus groups. <https://apps.dtic.mil/sti/citations/tr/ADA512853>.

Harrison, J. S., & John, C. H. S. (1998). *Strategic management of organizations and stakeholders: concepts & cases* (Vol. 1). Thomson South-Western.

Harrigan, K. R. (1985). *Strategic flexibility: A management guide for changing times*. Simon and Schuster.

Hassan, A., & Ahmed, F. (2011). Authentic leadership, trust and work engagement. *International Journal of Human and Social Sciences*, 6(3), 164-170.

Hatch, N. W., & Mowery, D. C. (1998). Process innovation and learning by doing in semiconductor manufacturing. *Management Science*, 44(11-part-1), 1461-1477.

Hater, J. J., & Bass, B. M. (1988). Superiors' evaluations and subordinates' perceptions of transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied psychology*, 73(4), 695.

Hater, J. J., & Bass, B. M. (1988). Superiors' evaluations and subordinates' perceptions of transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied psychology*, 73(4), 695.

Hayes, R. H., & Wheelwright, S. C. (1984). Restoring our competitive edge: competing through manufacturing. (No Title). <https://lccn.loc.gov/84003710>.

Håkansson, H., & IMP Project Group. (1982). International marketing and purchasing of industrial goods: An interaction approach. (No Title). <https://lccn.loc.gov/81013070>

Håkansson, H. & Snehota, I. (1995). Developing relationships in business networks.

Herzog, P. (2009). *Open and closed innovation: Different cultures for different strategies*. Springer Science & Business Media.

- Hernández-Mogollon, R., Cepeda-Carrión, G., Cegarra-Navarro, J. G., & Leal-Millán, A. (2010). The role of cultural barriers in the relationship between open-mindedness and organizational innovation. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 23(4), 360-376.
- Henker, N., Sonnentag, S., & Unger, D. (2015). Transformational leadership and employee creativity: The mediating role of promotion focus and creative process engagement. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 30, 235-247.
- Hindle, T. (2008). *Guide to management ideas and gurus* (Vol. 42). John Wiley & Sons.
- Ho, C. T. (2004). *Strategic evaluation of emerging technologies in the semiconductor foundry industry (Special case: Semiconductor foundry industry in Taiwan)*. Portland State University.
- Hodiak, J., & Harold, S. W. (2020). Can China Become the World Leader in Semiconductors?. *The Diplomat*, 25.
- Howell, J. P., Romero, E. J., Dorfman, P. W., Paul, J., & Bautista, J. A. (2003). Effective leadership in the Mexican maquiladora: challenging common expectations. *Journal of International Management*, 9(1), 51-73.
- Howell, J. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, locus of control, and support for innovation: Key predictors of consolidated-business-unit performance. *Journal of applied psychology*, 78(6), 891.
- Howell, J. M., & Hall-Merenda, K. E. (1999). The ties that bind: The impact of leader-member exchange, transformational and transactional leadership, and distance on predicting follower performance. *Journal of applied psychology*, 84(5), 680.
- House, R. J., Spangler, W. D., & Woycke, J. (1990, August). Personality and charisma in the US presidency: A psychological theory of leadership effectiveness. In *Academy of management proceedings* (Vol. 1990, No. 1, pp. 216-220). Briarcliff Manor, NY 10510: Academy of Management.
- House, R. J., & Shamir, B. (1993). Toward the integration of transformational, charismatic, and visionary theories.
- House, R. J., & Klein, K. J. (1995). On fire: Charismatic leadership and levels of analysis. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 6(2), 183-198.
- House, R. J., & Aditya, R. N. (1997). The social scientific study of leadership: Quo vadis?. *Journal of management*, 23(3), 409-473.
- House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W., & Gupta, V. (Eds.). (2004). *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Sage publications.
- Howell, J. M., & Hall-Merenda, K. E. (1999). The ties that bind: The impact of leader-member exchange, transformational and transactional leadership, and distance on predicting follower performance. *Journal of applied psychology*, 84(5), 680.
- Hsiao, H. C., & Chang, J. C. (2011). The role of organizational learning in transformational leadership and organizational innovation. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 12, 621-631.
- Hunt, J. G. (1991). *Leadership: A new synthesis*. SAGE Publications, inc.
- Morgan, R. M., & Hunt, S. D. (1994). The commitment-trust theory of relationship marketing. *Journal of marketing*, 58(3), 20-38.
- Hunt, J. G. (1999). Transformational/charismatic leadership's transformation of the field: An historical essay. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10(2), 129-144.
- Hunt, J. G. J. (2005). Explosion of the leadership field and LQ's changing of the editorial guard. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 1(16), 1-8.
- Hunter, J., Delp, D., Collins, D., & Si, J. (2002). Understanding a semiconductor process using a full-scale model. *IEEE Transactions on Semiconductor Manufacturing*, 15(2), 285-289.
- Huehn-Brown, W. J., & Murray, S. L. (2010). Are companies continuously improving their supply chain?. *Engineering Management Journal*, 22(4), 3-10.
- Hunter, J., Delp, D., Collins, D., & Si, J. (2002). Understanding a semiconductor process using a full-scale model. *IEEE Transactions on Semiconductor Manufacturing*, 15(2), 285-289.

Huxham, C. (2003). Theorizing collaboration practice. *Public management review*, 5(3), 401-423.

Huxham, C., & Hibbert, P. (2008). Manifested attitudes: intricacies of inter-partner learning in collaboration. *Journal of Management Studies*, 45(3), 502-529.

Huxham, C., & Vangen, S. (1996). Working together: Key themes in the management of relationships between public and non-profit organizations. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 9(7), 5-17.

Huxham, C., & Vangen, S. (2000). Ambiguity, complexity and dynamics in the membership of collaboration. *Human relations*, 53(6), 771-806.

I

IC Insights (2020, December 28). *Fabless Company Share of IC Sales to Set New Record in 2020 at 32.9%*. <https://www.icinsights.com/news/bulletins/Fabless-Company-Share-Of-IC-Sales-To-Set-New-Record-In-2020-At-329-/>.

Ilies, R., Morgeson, F. P., & Nahrgang, J. D. (2005). Authentic leadership and eudaemonic well-being: Understanding leader-follower outcomes. *The leadership quarterly*, 16(3), 373-394.

Istiqomah, S., & Riani, A. L. (2021). Linking transformational leadership to OCB in hospitality industry: The mediating influence of affective commitment and work engagement. *JDM (Jurnal Dinamika Manajemen)*, 12(1), 53-67.

ISDP Institute for Security and Development Policy (2018). *Made in China 2025*. <https://isdp.eu/content/uploads/2018/06/Made-in-China-Backgrounder.pdf>.

J

Jäckle, A., Roberts, C., & Lynn, P. (2006). *Telephone versus face-to-face interviewing: mode effects on data quality and likely causes: report on phase II of the ESS-Gallup mixed mode methodology project* (No. 2006-41). ISER Working Paper Series.

Jack Lam, Y. L., Peggy Wei, H. C., Wendy Pan, H. L., & Marshall Chan, C. M. (2002). In search of basic sources that propel organizational learning under recent Taiwanese school reforms. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 16(5), 216-228.

Jacob, S. A., & Furgerson, S. P. (2012). Writing interview protocols and conducting interviews: Tips for students new to the field of qualitative research. *Qualitative report*, 17, 6.

Jackson, S. E. (1992). Consequences of group composition for the interpersonal dynamics of strategic issue processing. *Advances in strategic management*, 8(3), 345-382.

Jackson, K. T. (2005). Towards authenticity: A Sartrean perspective on business ethics. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 58, 307-325.

Jago, A. G. (1982). Leadership: Perspectives in theory and research. *Management science*, 28(3), 315-336.

Jamali, D. (2006). Insights into triple bottom line integration from a learning organization perspective. *Business Process Management Journal*, 12(6), 809-821.

Jansen, J. J., Vera, D., & Crossan, M. (2009). Strategic leadership for exploration and exploitation: The moderating role of environmental dynamism. *The leadership quarterly*, 20(1), 5-18.

Jansen, J. J., Van Den Bosch, F. A., & Volberda, H. W. (2005). Managing potential and realized absorptive capacity: how do organizational antecedents matter?. *Academy of management journal*, 48(6), 999-1015.

Jansen, J. J., Van Den Bosch, F. A., & Volberda, H. W. (2006). Exploratory innovation, exploitative innovation, and performance: Effects of organizational antecedents and environmental moderators. *Management science*, 52(11), 1661-1674.

Jansen, J. J., George, G., Van den Bosch, F. A., & Volberda, H. W. (2008). Senior team attributes and organizational ambidexterity: The moderating role of transformational leadership. *Journal of Management Studies*, 45(5), 982-1007.

Jia, X., Chen, J., Mei, L., & Wu, Q. (2018). How leadership matters in organizational innovation: a perspective of openness. *Management Decision*, 56(1), 6-25. doi: 10.1108/MD-04-2017-0415.

- Johnson, P., & Duberley, J. (2000). *Understanding management research: An introduction to epistemology*. Sage.
- Jones, G. R., & George, J. M. (1998). The experience and evolution of trust: Implications for cooperation and teamwork. *Academy of Management Review*, 23, 531-546
- Jyoti, J., & Dev, M. (2015). The impact of transformational leadership on employee creativity: the role of learning orientation. *Journal of Asia Business Studies*, 9(1), 78-98.
- Judge, T. A., & Bono, J. E. (2000). Five-factor model of personality and transformational leadership. *Journal of applied psychology*, 85(5), 751.
- Judge, T. A., & Piccolo, R. F. (2004). Transformational and transactional leadership: a meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of applied psychology*, 89(5), 755.
- Jung, D. I., & Avolio, B. J. (2000). Opening the black box: An experimental investigation of the mediating effects of trust and value congruence on transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of organizational Behavior*, 21(8), 949-964.
- Jung, D. I., Chow, C., & Wu, A. (2003). The role of transformational leadership in enhancing organizational innovation: Hypotheses and some preliminary findings. *The leadership quarterly*, 14(4-5), 525-544.
- Jung, D. I., Chow, C., & Wu, A. (2003). The role of transformational leadership in enhancing organizational innovation: Hypotheses and some preliminary findings. *The leadership quarterly*, 14(4-5), 525-544.
- Jung, D. D., Wu, A., & Chow, C. W. (2008). Towards understanding the direct and indirect effects of CEOs' transformational leadership on firm innovation. *The leadership quarterly*, 19(5), 582-594.

K

- Karlsson, C., & Åhlström, P. (1996). Assessing changes towards lean production. *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*, 16(2), 24-41.
- Karliczek, A., Jesus, E. C., Matos, D., Castro, A. A., Atallah, A. N., & Wiggers, T. (2006). Drainage or nondrainage in elective colorectal anastomosis: a systematic review and meta-analysis. *Colorectal Disease*, 8(4), 259-265.
- Koenigsaecker, G. (2005). Leadership and the lean transformation. *Manufacturing Engineering*, 135(5), L7-L11.
- Khalil, S. A., & Siddiqui, D. A. (2019). Authentic leadership and work engagement: the mediatory role of employees' trust and occupational self-efficacy. *Available at SSRN 3510937*.
- Khurana, A. (1999). Managing complex production processes. *MIT Sloan Management Review*, 40(2), 85.
- Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of management journal*, 33(4), 692-724.
- Katz, D., & Kahn, R. L. (1978). *The social psychology of organizations* (Vol. 2, p. 528). New York: wiley.
- Kark, R., Van Dijk, D., & Vashdi, D. R. (2018). Motivated or demotivated to be creative: The role of self-regulatory focus in transformational and transactional leadership processes. *Applied Psychology*, 67(1), 186-224.
- Kernis, M. H. (2003). Toward a conceptualization of optimal self-esteem. *Psychological inquiry*, 14(1), 1-26.
- Kernis, M. H., & Goldman, B. M. (2005). From thought and experience to behavior and interpersonal relationships: A multicomponent conceptualization of authenticity. *On building, defending and regulating the self: A psychological perspective*, 31-52.
- Khalil, S. A., & Siddiqui, D. A. (2019). Authentic leadership and work engagement: the mediatory role of employees' trust and occupational self-efficacy. *Available at SSRN 3510937*.
- King, L. A. (2004). Measures and Meanings: The Use of Qualitative Data in Social and Personality Psychology.
- Kim, T. Y., David, E. M., Chen, T., & Liang, Y. (2023). Authenticity or self-enhancement? Effects of self-presentation and authentic leadership on trust and performance. *Journal of Management*, 49(3), 944-973.
- Kim, T. Y., David, E. M., Chen, T., & Liang, Y. (2023). Authenticity or self-enhancement? Effects of self-presentation and authentic leadership on trust and performance. *Journal of Management*, 49(3), 944-973.

Kim, H. (2014). Transformational leadership, organizational clan culture, organizational affective commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior: A case of South Korea's public sector. *Public Organization Review*, 14, 397-417.

Kleinhans, J. P., & Baisakova, N. (2020). The global semiconductor value chain: A technology primer for policy makers. *Stiftung Neue Verantwortung*, 1-30.

Kleinhans, J. P. (2021). The Lack of Semiconductor Manufacturing in Europe (Policy Brief, April 12). Stiftung Neue Verantwortung.

Klimoski, R. J., & Koles, K. L. K. (2001). The chief executive officer and top management team interface. *The nature of organizational leadership: Understanding the performance imperatives confronting today's leaders*, 219-269.

Koh, W. L., Steers, R. M., & Terborg, J. R. (1995). The effects of transformational leadership on teacher attitudes and student performance in Singapore. *Journal of organizational behavior*, 16(4), 319-333.

Kotter, J. P. (1982). General managers are not generalists. *Organizational dynamics*.

Kotter, J. P. (1982). What effective general managers really do. *Harvard business review*, 60(6), 156-167.

Kotter, J. P. (1985). Why business has so few leaders. *New York Times*.

Kotter, J. P. (1988). The leadership factor. (*No Title*).

Kotter, J. P., & Schlesinger, L. A. (1989). *Choosing strategies for change* (pp. 294-306). Macmillan Education UK.

Kotter, J. (1990). A force for change: How management differs from leadership. *New York: FreePress*.

Kotter, J. P., & Heskett, J. L. (1992). *Corporate Culture and Performance*. New York: Free Press.

Kotter, J. P. (1996). Why transformation efforts fail. *Harvard business review*.

Kotter, J. P. (2007). Leading change: Why transformation efforts fail.

Kotzé, M., & Nel, P. (2015). The influence of trait-emotional intelligence on authentic leadership. *SA Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13(1), 1-9.

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (1995). The leadership challenge: How to keep getting extraordinary things done in organizations. *Language*, 25(405p), 23cm.

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (1996). Envisioning your future: Imagining ideal scenarios. *The futurist*, 30(3), 14.

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (1998). *Student Leadership Practices Inventory. Student Workbook*. Jossey-Bass Publishers, 350 Sansome St., San Francisco, CA 94104.

Katz, D., & Kahn, R. L. (1978). *The social psychology of organizations* (Vol. 2, p. 528). New York: wiley.

Kranz, J., & Gilmore, T. N. (1990). The splitting of leadership and management as social defence. *Human Relations*, 43(2), 183-204.

Kellough, R. D., & Kellough, N. G. (2008). *Teaching young adolescents: Methods and resources for middle grades teaching*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Merrill/Prentice Hall.

Kernis, M. H. (2003). Toward a conceptualization of optimal self-esteem. *Psychological inquiry*, 14(1), 1-26.

Kets deVries, M. F. (1988). Prisoners of leadership. *Human Relations*, 41(3), 261-280.

Kuhnert, K. W., & Lewis, P. (1987). Transactional and transformational leadership: A constructive/developmental analysis. *Academy of Management review*, 12(4), 648-657.

L

Laohavichien, T., Fredendall, L. D., & Cantrell, R. S. (2009). The effects of transformational and transactional leadership on quality improvement. *Quality Management Journal*, 16(2), 7-24.

- Langlois, R. N., & Steinmueller, E. (1999). The evolution of competitive advantage in the worldwide semiconductor industry. *Sources of industrial leadership*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK.
- Ladkin, D., & Taylor, S. S. (2010). Enacting the 'true self': Towards a theory of embodied authentic leadership. *The leadership quarterly*, 21(1), 64-74.
- Lai, A. (2011). Transformational-transactional leadership theory. *AHS Capstone Projects. Paper*, 17.
- Fagerberg, J., Mowery, D. C., & Nelson, R. R. (Eds.). (2005). *The Oxford handbook of innovation*. Oxford university press.
- Lambert, R. (2003). Lambert review of business-university collaboration. *University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign's Academy for Entrepreneurial Leadership Historical Research Reference in Entrepreneurship*.
- Lazarus, R. S. (1991). *Emotion and adaptation*. Oxford University Press.
- Le, L. T. K., & Le, P. B. (2021). Improving the innovation performance for Vietnamese firm based on practices of idealized influence and individualized consideration: The mediating role of knowledge sharing. *International Journal of Business Administration*, 12(3), 75-85.
- Lee, W. R., Choi, S. B., & Kang, S. W. (2021). How leaders' positive feedback influences employees' innovative behavior: The mediating role of voice behavior and job autonomy. *Sustainability*, 13(4), 1901.
- Lee, J. (2008). Effects of leadership and leader-member exchange on innovativeness. *Journal of managerial psychology*, 23(6), 670-687.
- Leavy, B. (1996). On studying leadership in the strategy field. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 7(4), 435-454.
- Legard, R., Keegan, J., & Ward, K. (2003). In-depth interviews. *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*, 6(1), 138-169.
- Lewin, K. (1935). A dynamic theory of personality, McGraw-Hillbook Company. Inc, New York.
- Lewin, K. (1947). Frontiers in group dynamics: II. Channels of group life; social planning and action research. *Human relations*, 1(2), 143-153.
- Leroy, H., Palanski, M. E., & Simons, T. (2012). Authentic leadership and behavioral integrity as drivers of follower commitment and performance. *Journal of business ethics*, 107, 255-264.
- Leroy, H., Anseel, F., Gardner, W. L., & Sels, L. (2015). Authentic leadership, authentic followership, basic need satisfaction, and work role performance: A cross-level study. *Journal of management*, 41(6), 1677-1697.
- Liker, J. K., & Morgan, J. M. (2006). The Toyota way in services: the case of lean product development. *Academy of management perspectives*, 20(2), 5-20.
- Li, Y., Castaño, G., & Li, Y. (2018). Linking leadership styles to work engagement: The role of psychological capital among Chinese knowledge workers. *Chinese Management Studies*, 12(2), 433-452.
- Lincoln, Y.S. and Guba, E.G. (2000). *Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences. Handbook of qualitative research*, 163-188.
- Lieberson, S., & O'Connor, J. F. (1972). Leadership and organizational performance: A study of large corporations. *American sociological review*, 117-130.
- Liedtka, J. (2008). Strategy making and the search for authenticity. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 80, 237-248.
- Ling, Y. A. N., Simsek, Z., Lubatkin, M. H., & Veiga, J. F. (2008). Transformational leadership's role in promoting corporate entrepreneurship: Examining the CEO-TMT interface. *Academy of Management journal*, 51(3), 557-576.
- Ling, Y., Simsek, Z., Lubatkin, M. H., & Veiga, J. F. (2008). The impact of transformational CEOs on the performance of small-to medium-sized firms: Does organizational context matter?. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(4), 923.
- Lieblich, A., Tuval-Mashiach, R., & Zilber, T. (1998). *Narrative research: Reading, analysis, and interpretation* (Vol. 47). Sage.

- Liu, D., Liao, H., & Loi, R. (2012). The dark side of leadership: A three-level investigation of the cascading effect of abusive supervision on employee creativity. *Academy of management journal*, 55(5), 1187-1212.
- Lo, M. C., Ramayah, T., & Min, H. W. (2009). Leadership styles and organizational commitment: a test on Malaysia manufacturing industry. *African Journal of Marketing Management*, 1(6), 133-139.
- Loo, J. T. K. The Effect of Transformational Leadership and Work Organization on Workforce Agility: A Case Study of a MNC's Semiconductor Company.
- Lowe, K. B., Kroeck, K. G., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996). Effectiveness correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature. *The leadership quarterly*, 7(3), 385-425.
- Locke, E. A. (1999). *The essence of leadership: The four keys to leading successfully*. Lexington Books.
- Locke, E. A. (2007). The case for inductive theory building. *Journal of management*, 33(6), 867-890.
- Lord, R. G. (1985). An information processing approach to social perceptions, leadership and behavioral measurement in organizations. *Research in organizational behavior*.
- Lorenzi, P. (2004). Managing for the common good:: prosocial leadership. *Organizational dynamics*, 33(3), 282-291.
- Lumpkin, G. T., & Dess, G. G. (2001). Linking two dimensions of entrepreneurial orientation to firm performance: The moderating role of environment and industry life cycle. *Journal of business venturing*, 16(5), 429-451.
- Luthans, F., & Avolio, B. J. (2003). Authentic leadership development. *Positive organizational scholarship*, 241(258), 1-26.
- Luthans, F., & Youssef, C. M. (2007). Emerging positive organizational behavior. *Journal of management*, 33(3), 321-349.
- Luthans, F., Avolio, B. J., Avey, J. B., & Norman, S. M. (2007). Positive psychological capital: Measurement and relationship with performance and satisfaction. *Personnel psychology*, 60(3), 541-572.
- Lyon, F., Mßllering, G., & Saunders, M. N. (Eds.). (2015). *Handbook of research methods on trust*. Edward Elgar Publishing.

M

- Mackey, J., & Sisodia, R. (2014). *Conscious capitalism, with a new preface by the authors: Liberating the heroic spirit of business*. Harvard Business Review Press.
- MacKenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., & Rich, G. A. (2001). Transformational and transactional leadership and salesperson performance. *Journal of the academy of Marketing Science*, 29, 115-134.
- Madique, M., & Patch, P. (1988). Corporate strategy and technology policy. *Thusman and W. Moore Eds. Reading in Management of Innovation*.
- Marinova, G. I., & Bitri, A. K. (2021, November). Challenges and opportunities for semiconductor and electronic design automation industry in post-Covid-19 years. In *IOP Conference Series: Materials Science and Engineering* (Vol. 1208, No. 1, p. 012036). IOP Publishing. <https://iopscience.iop.org/article/10.1088/1757-899X/1208/1/012036/meta>
- Miller, M.S. (2021; December, 22). Why the chip shortage is lasting so long, and what industry leaders can do about it. <https://www.manufacturing.net/supply-chain/blog/21965187/why-the-chip-shortage-is-lasting-so-long-and-what-industry-leaders-can-do-about-it>.
- Makri, M., & Scandura, T. A. (2010). Exploring the effects of creative CEO leadership on innovation in high-technology firms. *The leadership quarterly*, 21(1), 75-88.
- Mann, D. (2009). The missing link: Lean leadership. *Frontiers of health services management*, 26(1), 15-26.
- Martin, X., & Salomon, R. (2003). Knowledge transfer capacity and its implications for the theory of the multinational corporation. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 34, 356-373.
- May, D. R., Chan, A. Y., Hodges, T. D., & Avolio, B. J. (2003). Developing the moral component of authentic leadership. *Organizational dynamics*.

- Maslach, C., Schaufeli, W. B., & Leiter, M. P. (2001). Job burnout. *Annual review of psychology*, 52(1), 397-422.
- Matzler, K., Schwarz, E., Deutinger, N., & Harms, R. (2008). The relationship between transformational leadership, product innovation and performance in SMEs. *Journal of Small Business & Entrepreneurship*, 21(2), 139-151.
- McCracken, G. (1988). *The Long Interview* Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Melia, SP (1999). *Continuity in the lives of elder Catholic women religious*. *International Journal of Aging & Human Development*, 48(3), 175-189.
- McNeese-Smith, D. (1995). Job satisfaction, productivity, and organizational commitment: The result of leadership. *JONA: The Journal of Nursing Administration*, 25(9), 17-26.
- Meindl, J. R., Ehrlich, S. B., & Dukerich, J. M. (1985). The romance of leadership. *Administrative science quarterly*, 78-102.
- Medley, F., & Larochelle, D. R. (1995). Transformational leadership and job satisfaction. *Nursing management*, 26(9), 64JJ.
- Meyer, J. P., Becker, T. E., & Vandenberghe, C. (2004). Employee commitment and motivation: a conceptual analysis and integrative model. *Journal of applied psychology*, 89(6), 991.
- Mintzberg, H. (1978). Patterns in strategy formation. *Management science*, 24(9), 934-948.
- Miller, A. (1988). A taxonomy of technological settings, with related strategies and performance levels. *Strategic Management Journal*, 9(3), 239-254.
- Miller, J., Keohane, D., & Inagaki, K. (2021). Car manufacturing hit by global semiconductor shortage. *Financial Times*, 8. <https://www.ft.com/content/e264fd41-7ee9-4fba-be3c-21446298efd9>
- Motwani, J. (2003). A business process change framework for examining lean manufacturing: a case study. *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, 103(5), 339-346.
- Mosadeghrad, A. M., & Ansarian, M. (2014). Why do organisational change programmes fail?. *International Journal of Strategic Change Management*, 5(3), 189-218.
- Morgan, M. (1993). *Creating workforce innovation: Turning individual creativity into organizational innovation*. Business & Professional Pub..
- Montani, F., Vandenberghe, C., Khedhaouria, A., & Courcy, F. (2020). Examining the inverted U-shaped relationship between workload and innovative work behavior: The role of work engagement and mindfulness. *Human Relations*, 73(1), 59-93.
- Montani, F., Maoret, M., & Dufour, L. (2019). The dark side of socialization: How and when divestiture socialization undermines newcomer outcomes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 40(4), 506-521.
- Mumford, M. D., Marks, M. A., Connelly, M. S., Zaccaro, S. J., & Reiter-Palmon, R. (2000). Development of leadership skills: Experience and timing. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 11(1), 87-114.
- Mumford, M. D., & Van Doorn, J. R. (2001). The leadership of pragmatism: Reconsidering Franklin in the age of charisma. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 12(3), 279-309.
- Mumford, M. D., Scott, G. M., Gaddis, B., & Strange, J. M. (2002). Leading creative people: Orchestrating expertise and relationships. *The leadership quarterly*, 13(6), 705-750.
- Muylaert, C. J., Sarubbi Jr, V., Gallo, P. R., Neto, M. L. R., & Reis, A. O. A. (2014). Narrative interviews: an important resource in qualitative research. *Revista da Escola de Enfermagem da USP*, 48, 184-189.

N

- Nanus, B. (1992). *Visionary leadership: Creating a compelling sense of direction for your organization*. Jossey-Bass Inc., 350 Sansome Street, San Francisco, CA 94104-1310.
- Nemanich, L. A., & Keller, R. T. (2007). Transformational leadership in an acquisition: A field study of employees. *The leadership quarterly*, 18(1), 49-68.
- Nelson, R. R. (1982). *An evolutionary theory fo economic change/Richard r. Nelson and sidney g. winter*.

Ngadiman, A. E., & Ratmawati, D. (2013). Influence of transformational leadership and organization climate to the work satisfaction, organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior on the educational personnel of Sebelas Maret University, Surakarta. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 5(10), 97-114.

Ng, P. K., Goh, G. G. G., & Eze, U. C. (2009, November). Leadership: A study of its influence in a semiconductor manufacturing firm's performance. In International Conference on Quality, Productivity and Performance Measurement, Putrajaya, Malaysia.

Niehoff, B. P., Enz, C. A., & Grover, R. A. (1990). The impact of top-management actions on employee attitudes and perceptions. *Group & Organization Studies*, 15(3), 337-352.

Nikezic, S., Puric, S., & Puric, J. (2012). Transactional and transformational leadership: Development through changes. *International journal for quality research*, 6(3), 285-296.

Ng, P. K., Goh, G. G. G., & Eze, U. C. (2010). An exploratory study on leadership in a semiconductor manufacturing firm's performance. *International journal of business and management science*, 3(2), 231-250. <https://search.informit.org/doi/10.3316/informit.342245711494504>

Northouse, P. G. (2004). Leadership theory and practice 3rd Ed Sage. *Thousand Oaks, CA*.

Northouse, P. G. (2021). *Leadership: Theory and practice*. Sage publications.

Norman, S. M., Avolio, B. J., & Luthans, F. (2010). The impact of positivity and transparency on trust in leaders and their perceived effectiveness. *The leadership quarterly*, 21(3), 350-364.

Novicevic, M. M., Harvey, M. G., Ronald, M., & Brown-Radford, J. A. (2006). Authentic leadership: A historical perspective. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 13(1), 64-76.

Novitasari, D., Supiana, N., Supriatna, H., Fikri, M. A. A., & Asbari, M. (2021). The role of leadership on innovation performance: Transactional versus transformational style. *JIMFE (Jurnal Ilmiah Manajemen Fakultas Ekonomi)*, 7(1), 27-36.

Nygren, D. J., & Ukeritis, M. D. (1993). *The future of religious orders in the United States: Transformation and commitment*. Praeger.

O

O'Connor, T. G., Matias, C., Futh, A., Tantam, G., & Scott, S. (2013). Social learning theory parenting intervention promotes attachment-based caregiving in young children: Randomized clinical trial. *Journal of Clinical Child & Adolescent Psychology*, 42(3), 358-370.

Odumeru, J. A., & Ogbonna, I. G. (2013). Transformational vs. transactional leadership theories: Evidence in literature. *International review of management and business research*, 2(2), 355.

Ohno, T. (1982). Workplace management, 2011 edn.

Ohno, T. (1988). Toyota production system: beyond large-scale production. Diamond. *Inc., Tokyo*.

Opdenakker, R. J. G. (2006). Advantages and disadvantages of four interview techniques in qualitative research. In *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung= Forum: Qualitative Social Research* (Vol. 7, No. 4, pp. art-11). Institut fur Klinische Sychologie and Gemeindesychologie.

Orb, A., Eisenhauer, L., & Wynaden, D. (2001). Ethics in qualitative research. *Journal of nursing scholarship*, 33(1), 93-96.

Osborn, R. N., Hunt, J. G., & Jauch, L. R. (2002). Toward a contextual theory of leadership. *The leadership quarterly*, 13(6), 797-837.

Oreg, S. (2006). Personality, context, and resistance to organizational change. *European journal of work and organizational psychology*, 15(1), 73-101.

P

Palanski, M. E., & Yammarino, F. J. (2011). Impact of behavioral integrity on follower job performance: A three-study examination. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22(4), 765-786.

Palanski, M. E., & Yammarino, F. J. (2007). Integrity and leadership:: clearing the conceptual confusion. *European Management Journal*, 25(3), 171-184.

Pawar, B. S., & Eastman, K. K. (1997). The nature and implications of contextual influences on transformational leadership: A conceptual examination. *Academy of management review*, 22(1), 80-109.

Partington, G. (2001). Qualitative research interviews: identifying problems in technique. *Issues in educational research*, 11(2), 32-44. <http://ro.ecu.edu.au/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=5367&context=ecuworks>

Paulsen, N., Callan, V. J., Ayoko, O., & Saunders, D. (2013). Transformational leadership and innovation in an R&D organization experiencing major change. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 26(3), 595-610.

Pearce, C. L., & Sims Jr, H. P. (2002). Vertical versus shared leadership as predictors of the effectiveness of change management teams: An examination of aversive, directive, transactional, transformational, and empowering leader behaviors. *Group dynamics: Theory, research, and practice*, 6(2), 172.

Pearce, C. L., & Conger, J. A. (2002). *Shared leadership: Reframing the hows and whys of leadership*. Sage Publications.

Pearce, C. L. (2004). The future of leadership: Combining vertical and shared leadership to transform knowledge work. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 18(1), 47-57.

Pearce, C. L., Sims Jr, H. P., Cox, J. F., Ball, G., Schnell, E., Smith, K. A., & Trevino, L. (2003). Transactors, transformers and beyond: A multi-method development of a theoretical typology of leadership. *Journal of Management development*, 22(4), 273-307.

Peus, C., Wesche, J. S., Streicher, B., Braun, S., & Frey, D. (2012). Authentic leadership: An empirical test of its antecedents, consequences, and mediating mechanisms. *Journal of business ethics*, 107, 331-348.

Peterson, R. S., Smith, D. B., Martorana, P. V., & Owens, P. D. (2003). The impact of chief executive officer personality on top management team dynamics: one mechanism by which leadership affects organizational performance. *Journal of applied Psychology*, 88(5), 795.

Penn, A. (2015). Leadership Theory Simplified, University of Arkansas, United States Department of Agriculture, and County Governments Cooperating.

Peus, C., Wesche, J. S., Streicher, B., Braun, S., & Frey, D. (2012). Authentic leadership: An empirical test of its antecedents, consequences, and mediating mechanisms. *Journal of business ethics*, 107, 331-348.

Pfeffer, J. (2017). The Ambiguity of Leadership 1. In *Leadership Perspectives* (pp. 333-341). Routledge.

Phillips, J. S., & Lord, R. G. (1986). Notes on the practical and theoretical consequences of implicit leadership theories for the future of leadership measurement. *Journal of Management*, 12(1), 31-41.

Piccolo, R. F., & Colquitt, J. A. (2006). Transformational leadership and job behaviors: The mediating role of core job characteristics. *Academy of Management journal*, 49(2), 327-340.

Pieterse, A. N., Van Knippenberg, D., Schippers, M., & Stam, D. (2010). Transformational and transactional leadership and innovative behavior: The moderating role of psychological empowerment. *Journal of organizational behavior*, 31(4), 609-623.

Plewa, C., Quester, P., & Baaken, T. (2005). Relationship marketing and university-industry linkages: a conceptual framework. *Marketing Theory*, 5(4), 433-456.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The leadership quarterly*, 1(2), 107-142.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., & Bommer, W. H. (1996). Transformational leader behaviors and substitutes for leadership as determinants of employee satisfaction, commitment, trust, and organizational citize. *Journal of management*, 22(2), 259-298. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063\(96\)90049-5](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0149-2063(96)90049-5)

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bachrach, D. G. (2000). Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of management*, 26(3), 513-563.

Podsakoff, N. P., Whiting, S. W., Podsakoff, P. M., & Blume, B. D. (2009). Individual-and organizational-level consequences of organizational citizenship behaviors: A meta-analysis. *Journal of applied Psychology*, 94(1), 122.

Poitiers, N., & Weil, P. (2021). *A new direction for the European Union's half-hearted semiconductor strategy* (No. 17/2021). Bruegel Policy Contribution.

Poon, J. M., Rahid, M. R., & Othman, A. S. (2006). Trust-in-supervisor: Antecedents and effect on affective organizational commitment. *Asian Academy of Management Journal*, 11(2), 35-50.

Porter, M. E. (1996). Operational effectiveness is not strategy. *Harvard Business Review*, 74(6), 61-78.

Posner, J. K. B. (1993). *Credibility: How Leaders Gain and Lose It, and Why People Demand It* Jossey-Bass San Francisco.

Potter, J., & Wetherell, M. (1994). Analyzing discourse. Teoksessa A. Bryman & RG Burgess (toim.) Analyzing qualitative data.

Q

Qiu, S., Alizadeh, A., Dooley, L. M., & Zhang, R. (2019). The effects of authentic leadership on trust in leaders, organizational citizenship behavior, and service quality in the Chinese hospitality industry. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 40, 77-87.

Qureshi, N. A., Masood, K., Gul, W., & Shaukat, Z. (2021). Transformational Leadership And Role Of Internal And External Support In Organizational Innovation. *Webology (ISSN: 1735-188X)*, 18(6).

R

Rafferty, A. E., & Griffin, M. A. (2004). Dimensions of transformational leadership: Conceptual and empirical extensions. *The leadership quarterly*, 15(3), 329-354.

Rahman, N. M. N. A., Kemat, B., Muhamad, N., & Hassan, M. E. M. (2009). Revisiting the Relationship between transformational leadership and transactional leadership and employee Attitudes: transformation of Glcs put to the test. *Malaysian Management Review (MMR). The Journal of the Malaysian Institute of Management*.

Raisch, S., & Birkinshaw, J. (2008). Organizational ambidexterity: Antecedents, outcomes, and moderators. *Journal of management*, 34(3), 375-409.

Riaz, A., & Haider, M. H. (2010). Role of transformational and transactional leadership on job satisfaction and career satisfaction. *Business and Economic horizons*, 1(1), 29-38.

Reuvers, M., Van Engen, M. L., Vinkenburg, C. J., & Wilson-Evered, E. (2008). Transformational leadership and innovative work behaviour: Exploring the relevance of gender differences. *Creativity and Innovation Management*, 17(3), 227-244.

Rempel, J. K., Holmes, J. G., & Zanna, M. P. (1985). Trust in close relationships. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 49(1), 95.

Roberts, K. H., & O'Reilly III, C. A. (1974). Failures in upward communication in organizations: Three possible culprits. *Academy of management journal*, 17(2), 205-215.

Robinson Jr, R. B., & Pearce, J. A. (1988). Planned patterns of strategic behavior and their relationship to business-unit performance. *Strategic management journal*, 9(1), 43-60.

Romanelli, E., & Tushman, M. L. (1994). Organizational transformation as punctuated equilibrium: An empirical test. *Academy of Management journal*, 37(5), 1141-1166.

Rosenberg, M. (1956). Misanthropy and political ideology. *American sociological review*, 21(6), 690-695.

Rosenberg, N. (2000). America's University/Industry Interfaces, 1945-2000. *Manuscript, Stanford University*.

Rosenberg, N., & Nelson, R. R. (1994). American universities and technical advance in industry. *Research policy*, 23(3), 323-348.

Rosing, K., Frese, M., & Bausch, A. (2011). Explaining the heterogeneity of the leadership-innovation relationship: Ambidextrous leadership. *The leadership quarterly*, 22(5), 956-974.

Rother, E. T. (2007). Systematic literature review X narrative review. *Acta paulista de enfermagem*, 20, v-vi.

Rousseau, D. M., Sitkin, S. B., Burt, R. S., & Camerer, C. (1998). Not so different after all: A cross-discipline view of trust. *Academy of management review*, 23(3), 393-404.

Roulston, K. (2011). Working through challenges in doing interview research. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 10(4), 348-366.

Rowold, J. (2006). Transformational and transactional leadership in martial arts. *Journal of applied sport psychology*, 18(4), 312-325.

Russell, M. E. (2011). Leadership theories and style: A transitional approach. *International Journal of Leadership studies*, 2, 1-18.

Runco, M. A. (2004). Everyone has creative potential.

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2001). On happiness and human potentials: A review of research on hedonic and eudaimonic well-being. *Annual review of psychology*, 52(1), 141-166.

S

Saks, A. M., & Gruman, J. A. (2014). What do we really know about employee engagement?. *Human resource development quarterly*, 25(2), 155-182.

Sanjari, M., Bahramnezhad, F., Fomani, F. K., Shoghi, M., & Cheraghi, M. A. (2014). Ethical challenges of researchers in qualitative studies: The necessity to develop a specific guideline. *Journal of medical ethics and history of medicine*, 7.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2012). Business research methods for business students. Harlow: Pearson Education Ltd.

Sarkis, J., & Talluri, S. (1999). A decision model for evaluation of flexible manufacturing systems in the presence of both cardinal and ordinal factors. *International Journal of Production Research*, 37(13), 2927-2938.

Sauermann, H., & Cohen, W. M. (2010). What makes them tick? Employee motives and firm innovation. *Management science*, 56(12), 2134-2153.

Sashkin, M. (1988). *The visionary leader*. Jossey-Bass.

Schoorman, F. D., Mayer, R. C., & Davis, J. H. (2007). An integrative model of organizational trust: Past, present, and future. *Academy of Management review*, 32(2), 344-354.

Schilit, W. K. (1987). An examination of the influence of middle-level managers in formulating and implementing strategic decisions. *Journal of Management Studies*, 24(3), 271-293.

Scandura, T. A., & Williams, E. A. (2004). Mentoring and transformational leadership: The role of supervisory career mentoring. *Journal of vocational behavior*, 65(3), 448-468.

Schepers, J., Wetzels, M., & de Ruyter, K. (2005). Leadership styles in technology acceptance: do followers practice what leaders preach?. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*, 15(6), 496-508.

Schein, E. H. (1983). The role of the founder in creating organizational culture. *Organizational dynamics*, 12(1), 13-28.

Schmitt, A., Den Hartog, D. N., & Belschak, F. D. (2016). Transformational leadership and proactive work behaviour: A moderated mediation model including work engagement and job strain. *Journal of occupational and organizational psychology*, 89(3), 588-610.

Sechrest, T. L. (1999). *How leaders develop in the semiconductor industry: A case study*. The University of Texas at Austin.

Sewell, M. (2008). The use of qualitative interviews in evaluation. Tucson, AZ: The University of Arizona.

Segal, A. (2020). The coming tech cold war with China. *Foreign Affairs*, 9.

Senge, P. (1990). The fifth discipline Doubleday. New York.

Shamir, B., & Howell, J. M. (1999). Organizational and contextual influences on the emergence and effectiveness of charismatic leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10(2), 257-283.

- Shamir, B., House, R. J., & Arthur, M. B. (1993). The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: A self-concept based theory. *Organization science*, 4(4), 577-594.
- Shamir, B. (1991). The charismatic relationship: Alternative explanations and predictions. *The leadership quarterly*, 2(2), 81-104.
- Shamir, B., & Eilam, G. (2005). "What's your story?" A life-stories approach to authentic leadership development. *The leadership quarterly*, 16(3), 395-417.
- Shalley, C. E., Zhou, J., & Oldham, G. R. (2004). The effects of personal and contextual characteristics on creativity: Where should we go from here?. *Journal of management*, 30(6), 933-958.
- Shin, S. J., & Zhou, J. (2003). Transformational leadership, conservation, and creativity: Evidence from Korea. *Academy of management Journal*, 46(6), 703-714.
- Silverman, D. (1997). Introducing qualitative research. *Qualitative research. Theory, method and practice*, 1-7.
- Silverman, D., & Marvasti, A. (2008). *Doing qualitative research: A comprehensive guide*. Sage.
- Silverman, D. (2021). Doing qualitative research. *Doing qualitative research*, 1-100.
- Simons, T. L. (1999). Behavioral integrity as a critical ingredient for transformational leadership. *Journal of organizational change management*, 12(2), 89-104.
- Simons, T. (2002). Behavioral integrity: The perceived alignment between managers' words and deeds as a research focus. *Organization science*, 13(1), 18-35.
- Simons, T., Friedman, R., Liu, L. A., & McLean Parks, J. (2007). Racial differences in sensitivity to behavioral integrity: Attitudinal consequences, in-group effects, and "trickle down" among Black and non-Black employees. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(3), 650.
- Simons, T., Tomlinson, E., & Leroy, H. (2011). Research on behavioral integrity: A promising construct for positive organizational scholarship.
- Simsek, Z. (2009). Organizational ambidexterity: Towards a multilevel understanding. *Journal of management studies*, 46(4), 597-624.
- Slåtten, T., & Mehmetoglu, M. (2015). The effects of transformational leadership and perceived creativity on innovation behavior in the hospitality industry. *Journal of Human Resources in Hospitality & Tourism*, 14(2), 195-219.
- Smith, P. A., & Sharicz, C. (2011). The shift needed for sustainability. *The learning organization*, 18(1), 73-86.
- Sohal, A. S., & Egglestone, A. (1994). Lean production: experience among Australian organizations. *International journal of operations & production management*, 14(11), 35-51.
- Sorenson, R. L., & Savage, G. T. (1989). Signaling participation through relational communication: A test of the leader interpersonal influence model. *Group & Organization Studies*, 14(3), 325-354.
- Sørensen, J. B., & Stuart, T. E. (2000). Aging, obsolescence, and organizational innovation. *Administrative science quarterly*, 45(1), 81-112.
- Sørensen, O., & Hasle, P. (2009). The importance of trust in organizational change. *Prerequisites for healthy organizational change*, 10-29.
- Solomon, P. R., Rosenthal, P., Spartz, M., & Bosch-Charpenay, S. (2001). Advanced process control in semiconductor manufacturing. In *ASQ World Conference on Quality and Improvement Proceedings* (p. 185). American Society for Quality. <https://www.proquest.com/openview/4bdd7443405cb22259666f830a5a7678/1?pq-origsite=gscholar&cbl=39817>
- Sparrowe, R. T. (2005). Authentic leadership and the narrative self. *The leadership quarterly*, 16(3), 419-439.
- Srivastava, A., & Lee, H. (2005). Predicting order and timing of new product moves: the role of top management in corporate entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 20(4), 459-481.
- Storey, J. (Ed.). (2004). *Leadership in organizations: Current issues and key trends*. Psychology Press.

Stashevsky, S., & Koslowsky, M. (2006). Leadership team cohesiveness and team performance. *International Journal of Manpower*, 27(1), 63-74.

Stalk, G. (1988). Time--the next source of competitive advantage.

Steinmetz, J., Sezer, O., & Sedikides, C. (2017). Impression mismanagement: People as inept self-presenters. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, 11(6), e12321.

Stumpf, M. N. (2003). *The relationship of perceived leadership styles of North Carolina County Extension Directors' to job satisfaction of County Extension Professionals*. North Carolina State University.

Stanescu, D. F., Zbucnea, A., & Pinzaru, F. (2021). Transformational leadership and innovative work behaviour: the mediating role of psychological empowerment. *Kybernetes*, 50(5), 1041-1057.

Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). Basics of qualitative research techniques.

Stevens, M. (2013). Ethical issues in qualitative research. *King's College London*, 1-41.

Stewart, K., Gill, P., Chadwick, B., & Treasure, E. (2008). Qualitative research in dentistry. *British dental journal*, 204(5), 235-239. <https://doi.org/10.1038/bdj.2008.149>

Stuckey, H. L. (2013). Three types of interviews: Qualitative research methods in social health. *Journal of Social Health and Diabetes*, 1(02), 056-059. <https://doi.org/10.4103/2321-0656.115294>

Sullivan, J. R. (2012). Skype: An appropriate method of data collection for qualitative interviews?. *The Hilltop Review*, 6(1), 10.

Suwanti, S., & Udin, U. (2020). Investigating the relationship between person-organization fit, person-job fit, and innovative work behavior: The mediation role of organizational citizenship behavior. *Calitatea*, 21(176), 36-41.

Sweney, M. (2021). Global shortage in computer chips 'reaches crisis point'. *The Guardian*, March, 21.

Symon, G. E., & Cassell, C. E. (1998). *Qualitative methods and analysis in organizational research: A practical guide*. Sage Publications Ltd.

T

Tang, Y., Li, J., & Liu, Y. (2016). Does founder CEO status affect firm risk taking?. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 23(3), 322-334.

Tang, J., Crossan, M., & Rowe, W. G. (2011). Dominant CEO, deviant strategy, and extreme performance: The moderating role of a powerful board. *Journal of Management Studies*, 48(7), 1479-1503.

Thomas, A. B. (1988). Does leadership make a difference to organizational performance?. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 388-400.

Thomas, D. R. (2006). A general inductive approach for analyzing qualitative evaluation data. *American journal of evaluation*, 27(2), 237-246.

Thoms, P., & Govekar, M. A. (1997). Vision is in the eyes of the leader: A control theory model explaining organizational vision. *OD Practitioner*, 29(1), 15-24.

Thompson, J. D. (1967). Organizations in action. New York: McGraw-Hill. *Thompson Organizations in Action* 1967.

Tichy, N. M., & Ulrich, D. O. (1984). SMR forum: The leadership challenge--A call for the transformational leader. *Sloan Management Review (pre-1986)*, 26(1), 59.

Tichy, N. M., & Devanna, M. A. (1986). The transformational leader New York John Wiley & Sons.

Tierney, P., Farmer, S. M., & Graen, G. B. (1999). An examination of leadership and employee creativity: The relevance of traits and relationships. *Personnel psychology*, 52(3), 591-620.

Tosi, H. L., Misangyi, V. F., Fanelli, A., Waldman, D. A., & Yammarino, F. J. (2004). CEO charisma, compensation, and firm performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(3), 405-420.

Trung, N. N., Nghi, P. T., Soldier, L. L., Hoi, T. V., & Kim, W. J. (2014). Leadership, resource and organisational innovation: Findings from state and non-state enterprises. *International Journal of Innovation Management*, 18(05), 1450034.

Tyssen, A. K., Wald, A., & Spieth, P. (2014). The challenge of transactional and transformational leadership in projects. *International Journal of Project Management*, 32(3), 365-375.

Tummers, L. G., & Bakker, A. B. (2021). Leadership and job demands-resources theory: A systematic review. *Frontiers in psychology*, 12, 722080.

U

Udin, U. D. I. N., DANANJOYO, R., & ISALMAN, I. (2022). Transactional leadership and innovative work behavior: Testing the mediation role of knowledge sharing in distribution market. *Journal of Distribution Science*, 20(1), 41-53.

Udin, U., & Shaikh, M. (2022). Transformational leadership and innovative work behavior: Testing the mediating role of knowledge sharing and work passion. *JDM (Jurnal Dinamika Manajemen)*, 13(1), 146-160.

Uhl-Bien, M., & Arena, M. (2018). Leadership for organizational adaptability: A theoretical synthesis and integrative framework. *The leadership quarterly*, 29(1), 89-104.

V

Van den Steen, E. (2005). Organizational beliefs and managerial vision. *Journal of Law, Economics, and organization*, 21(1), 256-283..

Van Knippenberg, D., & Sitkin, S. B. (2013). A critical assessment of charismatic—transformational leadership research: Back to the drawing board?. *The Academy of Management Annals*, 7(1), 1-60.

Vangen, S., & Huxham, C. (2003). Nurturing collaborative relations: Building trust in interorganizational collaboration. *The Journal of applied behavioral science*, 39(1), 5-31.

Varas, A., Varadarajan, R., Goodrich, J., & Yinug, F. (2020). Government incentives and US competitiveness in semiconductor manufacturing. *Boston Consulting Group*.

Vaill, P. B. (1989). *Managing as a performing art: New ideas for a world of chaotic change*. Jossey-Bass.

Vera, D., & Crossan, M. (2004). Strategic leadership and organizational learning. *Academy of management review*, 29(2), 222-240.

Verbos, A. K., Gerard, J. A., Forshey, P. R., Harding, C. S., & Miller, J. S. (2007). The positive ethical organization: Enacting a living code of ethics and ethical organizational identity. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 76, 17-33.

Villaluz, V. C., & Hechanova, M. R. M. (2019). Ownership and leadership in building an innovation culture. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 40(2), 138-150.

Voas, J., Kshetri, N., & DeFranco, J. F. (2021). Scarcity and global insecurity: the semiconductor shortage. *IT Professional*, 23(5), 78-82.

Voon, M. L., Lo, M. C., Ngui, K. S., & Ayob, N. B. (2011). The influence of leadership styles on employees' job satisfaction in public sector organizations in Malaysia. *International journal of business, management and social sciences*, 2(1), 24-32.

W

Wallace, M., & Weese, W. J. (1995). Leadership, organizational culture, and job satisfaction in Canadian YMCA organizations. *Journal of Sport Management*, 9(2), 182-193.

Waldman, D. A., Javidan, M., & Varella, P. (2004). Charismatic leadership at the strategic level: A new application of upper echelons theory. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(3), 355-380.

Waldman, D. A., Ramirez, G. G., House, R. J., & Puranam, P. (2001). Does leadership matter? CEO leadership attributes and profitability under conditions of perceived environmental uncertainty. *Academy of management journal*, 44(1), 134-143.

Waldman, D. A., Javidan, M., & Varella, P. (2004). Charismatic leadership at the strategic level: A new application of upper echelons theory. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(3), 355-380.

- Waldman, D. A., Ramirez, G. G., House, R. J., & Puranam, P. (2001). Does leadership matter? CEO leadership attributes and profitability under conditions of perceived environmental uncertainty. *Academy of management journal*, 44(1), 134-143.
- Walumbwa, F. O., Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Wernsing, T. S., & Peterson, S. J. (2008). Authentic leadership: Development and validation of a theory-based measure. *Journal of management*, 34(1), 89-126.
- Walumbwa, F. O., Luthans, F., Avey, J. B., & Oke, A. (2011). Retracted: Authentically leading groups: The mediating role of collective psychological capital and trust. *Journal of organizational behavior*, 32(1), 4-24.
- Walumbwa, F. O., Wang, P., Wang, H., Schaubroeck, J., & Avolio, B. J. (2010). Retracted: Psychological processes linking authentic leadership to follower behaviors. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2010.07.015>
- Walumbwa, F. O., Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Wernsing, T. S., & Peterson, S. J. (2008). Authentic leadership: Development and validation of a theory-based measure. *Journal of management*, 34(1), 89-126.
- Wang, Y., & Lu, L. (2007). Knowledge transfer through effective university-industry interactions: Empirical experiences from China. *Journal of Technology Management in China*, 2(2), 119-133.
- Wang, H., Tsui, A. S., & Xin, K. R. (2011). CEO leadership behaviors, organizational performance, and employees' attitudes. *The leadership quarterly*, 22(1), 92-105.
- Wang, C. T., & Chiu, C. S. (2014). Competitive strategies for Taiwan's semiconductor industry in a new world economy. *Technology in Society*, 36, 60-73.
- Wang, H.-J., Demerouti, E., & LeBlanc, P. (2017). Transformational leadership, adaptability, and job crafting: The moderating role of organizational identification. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 100, 185–195.
- Wang, Z., Ren, S., Chadee, D., Liu, M., & Cai, S. (2021). Team reflexivity and employee innovative behavior: the mediating role of knowledge sharing and moderating role of leadership. *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 25(6), 1619-1639.
- Wang, D. S., & Hsieh, C. C. (2013). The effect of authentic leadership on employee trust and employee engagement. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, 41(4), 613-624.
- Wang, G., Oh, I. S., Courtright, S. H., & Colbert, A. E. (2011). Transformational leadership and performance across criteria and levels: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of research. *Group & organization management*, 36(2), 223-270.
- Warrilow, S. (2012). Transformational leadership theory-The 4 key components in leading change & managing change. *Harvard Business Review*, 2(3), 101-104.
- Weber, M. (1947). The theory of economic and social organization. *Trans. AM Henderson and Talcott Parsons*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- West, J. (2002). Limits to globalization: organizational homogeneity and diversity in the semiconductor industry. *Industrial and Corporate Change*, 11(1), 159-188.
- Wiersema, M. F., & Bantel, K. A. (1992). Top management team demography and corporate strategic change. *Academy of Management journal*, 35(1), 91-121.
- Witschey, J., Murphy-Hill, E., & Xiao, S. (2013, May). Conducting interview studies: Challenges, lessons learned, and open questions. In *2013 1st international workshop on conducting empirical studies in industry (cesi)* (pp. 51-54). IEEE.
- Womack, J. P., Jones, D. T., & Roos, D. (2007). *The machine that changed the world: The story of lean production-Toyota's secret weapon in the global car wars that is now revolutionizing world industry*. Simon and Schuster.
- Woehl, J. H. (2011). *How leadership styles reflect on lean manufacturing practices and culture* (Doctoral dissertation, Capella University).
- Wong, C. A., & Cummings, G. G. (2009). The influence of authentic leadership behaviors on trust and work outcomes of health care staff. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 3(2), 6-23.
- Wong, C. A., Spence Laschinger, H. K., & Cummings, G. G. (2010). Authentic leadership and nurses' voice behaviour and perceptions of care quality. *Journal of nursing management*, 18(8), 889-900.

Woodman, R. W., Sawyer, J. E., & Griffin, R. W. (1993). Toward a theory of organizational creativity. *Academy of management review*, 18(2), 293-321.

Wu, F., & Shiu, C. (2009). The Relationship between leadership styles and foreign English teachers job satisfaction in adult English cram schools: Evidences in Taiwan. *The Journal of American Academy of Business*, 14(2), 75-82.

Y

Yuan, B. J., Lin, M. B., Shieh, J. H., & Li, K. P. (2012). TRANSFORMING EMPLOYEE ENGAGEMENT INTO LONG-TERM CUSTOMER RELATIONSHIPS: EVIDENCE FROM INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY SALESPeOPLE IN TAIWAN. *Social Behavior & Personality: an international journal*, 40(9).

Yukl, G. (2008). How leaders influence organizational effectiveness. *The leadership quarterly*, 19(6), 708-722.

Yukl, G. (2009). Leading organizational learning: Reflections on theory and research. *The leadership quarterly*, 20(1), 49-53.

Yukl, G., & Mahsud, R. (2010). Why flexible and adaptive leadership is essential. *Consulting Psychology Journal: practice and research*, 62(2), 81.

Z

Zaccaro, S. J. (1996). *Models and theories of executive leadership: A conceptual/empirical review and integration*. Alexandria, VA: US Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences.

Zaccaro, S. J., & Klimoski, R. (2002). The interface of leadership and team processes. *Group & Organization Management*, 27(1), 4-13.

Zagoršek, H., Dimovski, V., & Škerlavaj, M. (2009). Transactional and transformational leadership impacts on organizational learning. *Journal for East European Management Studies*, 144-165.

Zahra, S. A., & Covin, J. G. (1993). Business strategy, technology policy and firm performance. *Strategic management journal*, 14(6), 451-478.

Zaleznik, A. (1977). Managers and leaders: Are they different.

Zamahani, M., Ghorbani, V., & Rezaei, F. (2011). Impact of authentic leadership and psychological capital on followers' trust and performance. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences*, 5(12), 658-667.

Zhang, Q., Abdullah, A., Hossan, D., & Hou, Z. (2021). The effect of transformational leadership on innovative work behavior with moderating role of internal locus of control and psychological empowerment. *Management Science Letters*, 11(4), 1267-1276.

Zheng, J., Wu, G., Xie, H., & Li, H. (2019). Leadership, organizational culture, and innovative behavior in construction projects: The perspective of behavior-value congruence. *International Journal of Managing Projects in Business*, 12(4), 888-918.

Zhou, J. (1998). Feedback valence, feedback style, task autonomy, and achievement orientation: Interactive effects on creative performance. *Journal of applied psychology*, 83(2), 261

Zhu, W., May, D. R., & Avolio, B. J. (2004). The impact of ethical leadership behavior on employee outcomes: The roles of psychological empowerment and authenticity. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 11(1), 16-26.

Zhu, W., Chew, I. K., & Spangler, W. D. (2005). CEO transformational leadership and organizational outcomes: The mediating role of human-capital-enhancing human resource management. *The leadership quarterly*, 16(1), 39-52.

Zohar, D. (2000). A group-level model of safety climate: testing the effect of group climate on microaccidents in manufacturing jobs. *Journal of applied psychology*, 85(4), 587.

Zuraik, A., & Kelly, L. (2018). The role of CEO transformational leadership and innovation climate in exploration and exploitation. *European journal of innovation management*, 22(1), 84-104.

Appendix 1

- How did you start the relationship with your employees to build trust?
- Have you had any successful or unsuccessful experiences applying a particular leadership concept?
- Why do you want to develop your leadership to become a transformational leader?
- What are the perceived advantages of applying your leadership concept?
- What are the perceived disadvantages of the leadership concept applied by top management?
- Why do you mean not many changes in the company's vision? How does a maximum profit-oriented goal relate to people's growth?
- Could you please explain how a long-term vision can be applied? Do you have an example, maybe?
- How do you support your employees' vision in this company while you are also pursuing your own vision?
- What would be your best practice to become a leader with vision in a company like this?
- What do you do as a leader-manager who wants to support your employees' growth?
- Do you also think leading is something anyone can do in the organisation?
- Could you please explain more about the transparent and authentic communication?
- What kind of leadership do you think that your organisation needs?
- What is the background of the unmotivated employees?
- What are the challenges to become a leader in your organisation?
- What is the relation between the decreasing organisation outcome and the leadership that is applied in the company?
- What is the reason of continuous incline of checklist and micromanagement in the company? Does the existing management improves the work's quality?
- What is the reason that many managers in your organisation have the tendency of avoiding to take risk in their leadership?
- Is the vision in your organisation based on shared vision?