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Transformational Leadership and Leader-Member Exchange: Organisational Learning and Behaviour in Nigerian Road Transport.

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Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to Almighty God and to my lovely parents, Chief Stephen Okeke and Lolo Caroline Nwafor Edeh, for their continuous support and love in making sure that this research came to completion. I also want to thank my parents for encouraging me and teaching me everything I know. I also dedicate this thesis to my darling daughter, Star Chinwendu Ani, who became part of my life during this research journey. Finally, I dedicate this work to my siblings, Ugochukwu Anthony Edeh, Ogechukwu Maria Paula Edeh, and Oluchukwu Mary-Joan Edeh, and my nephew Diamond Chukwuebuka Edeh, who is the latest addition to my family.

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Publications and Conferences

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Abstract

This study suggests that transformational leadership (TFL) and leader-member exchange (LMX) play a mediation role in the relationship between organisational learning (OL) and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). At the same time, it suggests that resistance to change (RTC) or change serves as a moderator in the changing environment present within Nigerian road transport companies. The goal of this study is to assess how TFL and LMX can improve organisational citizenship behaviour (Wang et al. 2005; Sherwani & Natheer, 2021). More specifically, this thesis addresses issues outlined within previous research by examining the different factors influencing the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour (Kim & Park, 2019).

In order to examine these relationships, quantitative method which follows a positivist paradigm was utilised. This research adopted a deductive approach, in which hypotheses were formed based on existing theories and then empirically tested. A survey of company employees was undertaken to investigate the links between the research constructs. As a result, this study should be particularly useful to Nigerian road transport companies because it will enable subordinates to determine the most appropriate leadership style for their changing work environment. A convenience sample of 250 employees was recruited from the terminals of transport companies in Nigeria. A questionnaire with accurate and reliable scales was used to collect data on participant perceptions of their management's ability in the areas of transformational leadership, leader-member exchange, organisational learning, resistance to change, and organisational citizenship behaviour.

The relationships between the independent variable (organisational learning), dependent variable (organisational citizenship behaviour), mediating variable (transformational leadership and leader-member exchange), and moderating variable (resistance to change) were investigated using descriptive statistics, confirmatory factor analysis, mediation analysis, and moderation analysis from the PROCESS procedure for Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The results from all 250 respondents are then reported. Overall, the findings demonstrate that transformational leadership has a considerable impact on organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour. Organisational learning also has a positive effect on organisational citizenship behaviour, and transformational leadership and leader-member exchange have a strong positive relationship (Sherwani & Natheer, 2021).

Additionally, as expected, the quality of transformational leadership style influences the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour. In terms of moderating effects, resistance to change partially moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour. The findings of this study

contribute to leadership and management theory, in addition to being useful to road transport companies.

This thesis contributes to the research field by studying two different relationship-oriented leadership styles simultaneously in an effort to understand their mediating influence on organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour. A further important contribution is made by focusing holistically on the interaction between the five constructs of organisational learning, transformational leadership, leader-member-exchange, organisational citizenship behaviour, and resistance to change within a dynamic environment. Therefore, this thesis contributes to the breath of literature on organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour in relation to leadership. To the best of the author's knowledge, this is one of the first studies to simultaneously examine the interactions between these constructs.

In practical terms, this study could be particularly useful to the under-researched sector of Nigerian road transport companies. Human Resource practitioners in change-oriented road transport companies may also find the study useful for informing the design and delivery method of training, development, and employee focused culture transformation workshops used to enhance organisational citizenship behaviour.

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List of Abbreviations

ABC   Associated Bus Corporation

CLO   Central Labour Organisation

FRSC   Federal Road Safety Corps

HR   Human Resource

LMX   Leader-Member Exchange

MLQ   Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

NLC   Nigeria Labour Congress

NURTW   National Union of Road Transport Workers

OC   Organisational Change

OCB   Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

OCBI   Individual Target Citizenship Behaviour

OCBO   Organisation Target Citizenship Behaviour

OL   Organisational Learning

OP   Organisational Performance

RTC   Resistance to change

RTEAN   Road Transport Employers' Association of Nigeria

SPSS   Statistical Package for the Social Science

TFL   Transformational Leadership

Chapter One: Introduction

1.1 Research Background

In recent years, an increasing corpus of research has been published on the role of transformational leadership (TFL) in enhancing overall organisational performance. While studies on the association between TFL and organisational learning (Bass, 1985; Howell & Frost, 1989) and TFL and organisational citizenship behaviour (Graham, 1988; Bass, 1985; Organ, 1988a, 1988b, 1997) have been conducted, only a few studies have been conducted on the mediating role of transformational leadership (TFL) and leader-member exchange (LMX) on organisational learning (OL) and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) within a developing or changing environment. This study suggests that transformational leadership and leader-member exchange mediate the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour, with resistance to change or change acting as a moderator. It is critical to look at this discrepancy in order to emphasise the necessity of change management in achieving desired behaviour.

ABC Transport is a Nigerian firm that provides transportation for road travellers. It was established on February 13, 1993 (ABC Transport, 2015a). ABC Transport intended to build a few bus terminals in several states and regions (including Abuja, Aba, Akwa, Akwanga, Ibadan, Enugu, and Lagos, among others) to provide reliable public transportation.

Despite ABC Transport's best efforts to improve service quality, the company is frequently chastised for failing to provide a safe transportation experience to the general public (Nairaland Forum, 2012). ABC Transport vehicles have been involved in several traffic accidents resulting in loss of life and property. Furthermore, its poor management has been linked to delays caused by vehicle failure (Nairaland Forum, 2012, 2010). In Nigeria, the general feeling among transport users appears to be underpinned by a loss of faith in the company (Nairaland Forum, 2012). This presents a question of how the business can improve to address this predicament. Therefore, a variety of management theories and concepts may be relevant. In light of this, this study will analyse change management theory, leadership theory, LMX theory, organisational learning, and organisational citizenship behaviour theory to asses how utilisation of such theories might holistically help the company's overall organisational behaviour.

According to Frank et al. (2009), an issue faced by most business managers is the requirement to create and sustain the organisation's competitiveness in its own industry. In this scenario, some research suggests that utilising a transformational leadership style might enhance general organisational behaviour. This is because, this style is vital to postively influencing a large number of individuals within an organisation (Givens, 2008; Rhodes et al., 2008).

Transformational leadership aids an employee's ability to develop new and innovative attitudes and actions (Michaelis et al., 2010). As a result of its charismatic quality, TFL can be defined as a form of leadership style that functions as a change agent and role model to its followers Bass (1985).

According to Walumbwa (2008: 793), TFL focuses on the "positive attitude, behaviour, and performance," of employees. In most cases, implementation of the TFL method can improve job outcomes for employees by allowing them to develop self-efficiency (Walumba et al., 2008). The use of a TFL style is also advantageous in terms of creating role models for corporate executives who encourage staff to align their own values with those of the company (Givens, 2008). When a corporation wants to achieve organisational change and inspire "innovation and change," business executives that embrace a transformational leadership style are arguably better equipped to handle "resistance-to-change" and inspire "innovative change" (Lussier, 2012: 337).

The second mediator, leader-member exchange, is crucial to this study because it deals with the dyadic relationship between a leader and their followers. Organisational learning capability, like transformational leadership, is essential to improving individual competence and performance, as well as the organisation's overall success (Argote, 2013; Lapre & Nembhard, 2011; Jerez-Gomez et al., 2005). Organisational learning is the process of gathering, interpreting, and sharing data to achieve positive organisational results. Learning about innovation, according to Algre and Chiva (2013), can lead to greater productivity. Similarly, Jerez-Gomez et al. (2005) and Goh et al. (2012) found that there is a favourable association between organisational learning capability and organisational performance.

The need to reinforce each employee's knowledge and ability to focus on critical decisions that can assist the team to achieve organisational objectives, either directly or indirectly, is known as organisational learning (Caemmerer & Wilson, 2010). The ability of business managers to cultivate a culture that promotes organisational learning, according to Holland and Salama (2010), is an important aspect of an organisation's growth and development. In this scenario, employees are persuaded to participate in organisational learning, which allows them to communicate more effectively, and become more involved in sharing new knowledge (Caemmerer & Wilson, 2010; Curado, 2006). Finally, OL is an interdisciplinary collaborative approach that can boost an organisation's overall performance (Lapre & Nembhard, 2011).

As evidenced by the previous literature on the subject, organisational learning and the use of a TFL style can help to improve overall organisational citizenship. In light of this, the goal of this study is to see what role TFL and LMX play in mediating the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour at (ABC, Ekeson and Son's, Gold International

Transport Nigeria Limited, God is Good Motors, and Ifesinachi Transport) and other Nigerian road transport companies during a period of change. The highest levels of management at (ABC Transport, Ekeson and Son's, Gold International Transport Nigeria Limited, God is Good Motors, and Ifesinachi Transport), as well as carriers in Nigeria in general, will have a stronger grasp on how to enhance both individual employee performance and overall organisational behaviour as a result of this research.

1.2 Background of Nigerian Road Transportation System

This study conducts research into ABC and (Ekeson and Son's, Gold International Transport Nigeria Limited, God is Good Motors, and Ifesinachi Transport). In order to understand the dynamics of this sector, it is first prudent to learn how Nigeria's transportation system works by studying its history and, more specifically, the history of ABC Transport in Nigeria.

According to Anyawu et al. (1997), motorised travel in Nigeria started in 1904 with the development of a mule route between Zaria and Zungeru in the Northern States. However, the road connecting Ibadan and Oyo, was the first motorable road in Nigeria, having been established in 1906. At the time, there were few private road carriers, and the government provided the majority of road transportation services. By the mid-1920s, the British colonial authority embarked on a massive road-building project to enable the extraction of the country's natural resources. As road infrastructure developed, an increasing number of people became interested in the road transport business, culminating in the emergence of an important segment of the economy. Eventually, this resulted in the formation of the Nigerian Road Transport Union in 1934, a new development in colonial Nigeria.

The union was formed to protect and expand the collective representation of its members. For example, in the 1930s, the union successfully contested colonial administration efforts to increase car taxes in areas where road transit competed with railways (Oshin, 1990). Nigeria's early motor carriers were largely concentrated in the country's Southern regions, with a few scattered throughout the country's Western and Eastern regions. Drummond-Thompson (1993) traces the history of a handful of operators in the provinces of Lagos, Egba, Ijebu, Oyo, and Ondo, as well as one or two in Eastern Nigeria. Some ran bus fleets or rented vehicles and trucks, while others ran lorry fleets. Despite the fact that one of the operators was a private European business, the remaining operators, including a number of women-led organisations, were owned and controlled by Nigerians, illustrating the degree of indigenous engagement in the colonial economy Anyanwu et al. (1997). The carriers provided the services while the government was heavily involved in the construction of roads at various levels. The country's development was facilitated by the road transportation system, which not only supported local

people's diverse economic interests but also aided the economic development. For example, bunker coal was transported from Enugu to the Onitsha River fleet in Eastern Nigeria, where they competed for palm products, and groundnuts and other goods were transported from Kastina to Kano. Companies competed with the Railway Road Motor Service's vehicles in transporting passengers and cotton. Other transportation companies were awarded regular government contracts to convey mail, freight, and passengers.

Following Nigeria's independence in 1960, the country's landscape featured a skeletal network of trunk, secondary, and feeder roads, all of which were narrow and winding, and were built to encourage the movement of agricultural produce from the interior to the ports for export, or to connect scattered settlements for easier administration (Anyanwu et al. 1997). Since then, Nigeria has been ruled by both civilian and military regimes during various periods, with varied management styles affecting the development of the transportation industry. Since 1960, road transportation companies have had a significant impact on the national economy, particularly due to the establishment of job opportunities for Nigerians as aresult of industry development (Drummon-Thompson, 1993). In turn, employees of transportation companies have contributed to the national economy by paying government taxes. These employees have contributed millions in Nigerian Naira (the Nigerian currency) to various duties for driver's licences, car licences, vehicle registration plate numbers, and insurance, to name a few.

The foundation of two other organisations, the Road Transport Employer's Association of Nigeria (RTEAN) and the National Union of Road Transport Workers, was spurred on the need for order in a developing sector (NURTW). RTEAN has a larger membership than NURTW, but is less active. The Nigerian Labour Congress (NLC) is a member of the Central Labour Organisation (CLO), which was founded in 1978 (Olubomehin, 2012). The NURTW membership consists of people who are interested in using various modes of transport to convey passengers and freight from one point to another, such as motorcycles, buses, taxis, tankers, and tricycles. Today, the NURTW has over "1.5 million membership throughout the federation," whereas the RTEAN is less well-known (Olubomehin, 2012).

1.3 Brief History of ABC Transport Company PLC

On February 13, 1993, the Associated Bus Company (ABC) Limited was established with the purpose of administering a modern and sophisticated road transportation system in Nigeria (ABC Transport, 2015a; Bloomberg, 2015). ABC runs luxury bus services that claim to match worldwide road transportation standards, as part of its commitment to provide superior public passenger transportation services. Its services are tailored to passengers who would ordinarily travel by plane. In many states and districts, ABC has built several modern bus terminals with

comfortable passenger lounges (ABC Transport, 2015b). The reindeer, the company's trademark logo, was chosen as the company's symbol because of the animal's sturdy, fast, and herd-like characteristics. ABC Transport was rated the top transporter in Nigeria by the Chartered Institute of Transport in Nigeria between 1996 and 2000. Since then, the firm has continuously been the recipient of the National Bus Operator of the Year award, as well as other awards from recognised organisations (ABC Transport, 2015b).

Despite these accolades and ABC Transport's stated intention to enhance service quality, the company is frequently criticised for transportation delays caused by engine failure and its involvement in numerous traffic accidents (Nairaland Forum, 2012). Change and facilitation of learning are unavoidable when it comes to development and improvement. With this in mind, the following section will discuss Nigerian transport sector in the context of change in detail.

1.4 Nigerian Transport Sector in the Context of Change

Different companies such as ABC, Gold International Transport, God is Good Motors, Ekeson & Sons and Ifesinachi transport company have now purchased new and modern vehicles to increase their fleet. Furthermore, these companies have modernised their offices thereby attracting more road travellers. In addition however, ticket prices have seen a significant increase due to scarcity of fuel resulting from an increase in fuel prices due to the removal of a government fuel subsidy. In addition, electronic ticketing and online boarding have now been introduced. This means that passengers can purchase their tickets online and check in prior to departure, making it more convenient and easier for passengers to travel. Technological advancement has also meant that employees of transport companies, many of whom are not computer literate, have been forced to update their skills by learning how to use computer. The following section will outline the research goals and objectives in detail.

1.5 Research Aims and Objectives

The aim of this research is to determine whether or not TFL and LMX play a mediation role in the relationship between ABC and other Transport companies (Ekeson and Son's, Gold International Transport Nigeria Limited, God is Good Motors, and Ifesinachi Transport) organisational learning and citizenship behaviour. One of the study's key goals, is to provide data to improve overall organisational citizenship behaviour. The study's moderating variable is change, which will be evaluated in the form of resistance to change (RTC). Hence, the overarching question of this research is: Do transformational leadership and leader-member exchange regulate the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour, and does resistance to change modify it? This is a holistic investigation; the overall aim is to look at how these different elements interact with each other. The overall

aim of this investigation is to look at the relationship between these factors, and within this model, demonstrating the interplay between all the research constructs from the followers' views in a holistic way. Followers' in this study refers to all the employees that works in the organisations studied. Therefore, the following objectives will be evaluated in order to address the study's main goal:

1. To investigate the link between leadership (i.e transformational leadership and leader-member exchange) and organisational learning.

2. To examine the association between leadership (i.e transformational leadership and leader-member exchange) and organisational citizenship behaviour.

3. To evaluate the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour.

4. To examine the mediating role of the two leadership styles between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour.

5. To investigate the moderating role of resistance to change between leadership styles and organisational citizenship behaviour.

1.6 Research Questions

The following research questions will be answered by the research study from a holistic angle:

1. What is the influence of organisational learning on organisational citizenship behaviour?

2. How does the use of leadership style (i.e. transformational leadership and leader-member exchange) affect transport companies' organisational citizenship behaviour?

3. Does transformational leadership mediate the relationship between organisational learning and overall organisational citizenship behaviour?

4. Does leader-member exchange mediate the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour in transport companies?

5. Does resistance to change moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour?

6. Does resistance to change moderate the relationship between leader-member exchange and organisational citizenship behaviour?

Thus, causal relationships will be investigated, as shown in Fig.1.
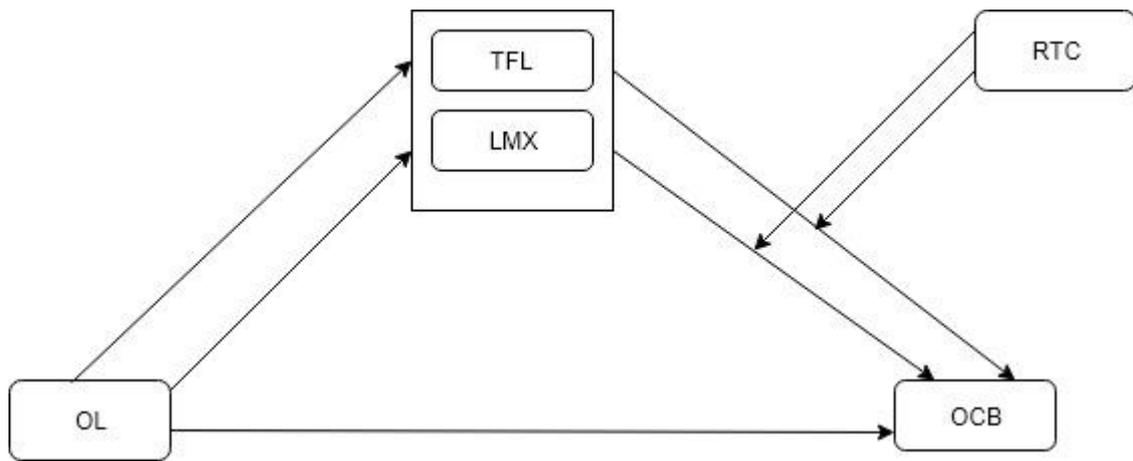
Figure 1. Theoretical Framework of this study.

1.7 Rationale for this Research

Previously, several research studies on the importance of transformational leadership and corporate citizenship behaviour have been conducted (Hackett et al., 2018). For example, in order to learn more about how transformational leadership might assist a firm, Singh and Krishnan (2008) investigated the role of altruism as a mediating factor in the link between transformational leadership and self-sacrifice. The idea of "altruism" refers to the need to prioritise the interests of others over one's own (Batson and Powell, 2003). Gong et al. (2009) looked at the function of creative self-efficacy in employees' learning from a distinct perspective in terms of learning orientation, transformational leadership, and employee creativity. Miao et al. (2012) investigated the mediating role of employees' identification with a leader, as well as its impact on their work performance and perceptions of transformational leadership behaviour. As discussed earlier, transportation businesses in Nigeria are currently in need of improving their general organisational behaviour, and this provides fertile ground for examining the function of organisational learning and transformational leadership on transport companies' organisational citizenship behaviour.

Following a review of literature, a discernible gap on the examination of the influence of organisational learning on organisational citizenship behaviour during change was highlighted. Also, Kim & Park (2019) recently highlighted the need to study the different factors influencing the interaction between transformational leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour. Kim & Park (2019), also called for further research studying how transformational leadership affects the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour. This study addresses these gaps. Furthermore, it can be argued that both transformational leadership and leader-member exchange can help followers to navigate change. However, these leadership styles have not been studied simultaneously in relation to organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour. The author was keen to study

these together to assess whether the different leadership styles affected the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour differently. Do and Mai (2020), also called for additional research on the important but lesser studied sectors of the economy. The Nigerian road transport industry is one example of an under-researched sector in the economy. By conducting this study in Nigerian road transport, an attempt has been made to bridge this gap.

The findings of this investigation have the potential to improve the grasp senior management within Nigerian transportation businesses have on methods for building beneficial tactics that help improve the quality of service they provide to the general population. It is also arguably crucial to analyse how followers' organisational citizenship behaviour can be supported in the Nigerian transportation business. More specifically, how leaders can encourage the organisational citizenship behaviour of its followers. The findings may also help other transportation companies, and the transportation sector as a whole, to understand how transformational leadership might develop visionary insight to better manage a company through change. The theoretical framework of this study integrates five different variables, namely; organisational learning, organisational citizenship behaviour, transformational leadership, leader-member exchange, and resistance to change. To the best of the author's knowledge, this is one of the first studies to holistically examine all five constructs during change. It is particularly important to study all these constructs holistically. This is because it has the potential to generate useful insights into the interplay between all five variables, thereby, also helping to add to the literature in this field.

1.8 Thesis Structure

There are six chapters in this study. Chapter one, presents an introduction to the study. This includes putting forward a high-level overview of the research, including its goals and objectives, research questions, and reasonings. The second chapter is a review of the relevant literature. This chapter evaluates the current literature on transformational leadership, leader-member exchange, change, organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour. The research methodology employed in this investigation is discussed in detail in Chapter three. This includes a discussion and justification of the philosophy adopted, its approach, research design, research instruments, population, sampling, data collection and data analysis methods. The researcher uses a quantitative research method to test causal links in this research. Data cleaning, data presentation, and data analysis are the focus of the fourth chapter. A discussion of this data analysis is presented in Chapter Five. Finally, Chapter Six outlines the conclusions, contribution to knowledge and limitations of the study.

1.9 Summary

This chapter has introduced the research background, aims and objectives, and a discussion of the rationale for this study. Thereafter, the thesis structure was presented. The following chapter engages in a literature review of the pertinent topics of change, transformational leadership, leader-member exchange, organisational learning, and organisational citizenship behaviour and puts forward arguments to suggest how each topic is interlinked. Therefore, the hypotheses for this thesis are presented along with their justifications.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The concepts of organisational change and change management will be studied in this thesis in order to help improve ABC, Ekeson & Son's, Gold International Transport Nigeria Limited, God is Good Motors, and Ifesinachi Transport, and other similar transportation corporations. Change is the only permanent aspect of a healthy organisation. This is because for a corporation to expand, it must change. This study analyses what inspires the change. It asks, for example, is it the organisation's leadership style? This study will look at leadership, TFL and LMX, and organisational learning and citizenship behaviour. Several experts and scholars have conducted research on the transformational leadership (TFL) style. TFL, through its focus on being visionary and taking into account follower needs, is considered to have the ability to improve overall performance by positively influencing the general behaviour and thinking of employees (followers) in any organisation (Argyris & Schon, 1996).

Following the study background, which includes the change context, this chapter will look at change theory before moving on to the literature on organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). According to previous research, organisational learning (OL) has the potential to have a major impact on organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). TFL and LMX, however, are vital to the changing environment and may help to mitigate the effect of OL on OCB. As a result, following a review of OCB literature, the literature on OL will be examined, followed by the literature on relevant leadership styles. This leads directly to the reasoning and development of the research hypotheses for this study. The hypotheses that will be tested in this study are presented at the end of the chapter.

2.2 Organisational Change

According to Kinman and Court (2010: 424), organisations must adapt to changing market needs and circumstances to remain competitive. Individual occupations, as well as the structure and function of organisations, are frequently affected by such developments. They must allow for change because new ideas, technology, development, and innovation emerge year after year. According to Beer and Nohria (2000), 70% of change programmes fail due to a lack of strategy and vision, insufficient top management commitment, a lack of resources, and a lack of change management skills.

Organisational culture, according to Bluedorn and Lundgren's (1993) research, is critical to the transformation process and the achievement of strategic goals. Managers must understand the current organisational culture in order to establish change management solutions that are appropriate for the organisation's circumstances (Kanter et al., 1999).

Jones et al. (1996) summarised transformation across history by suggesting that organisations and the individuals who work inside them are being asked to change at an unprecedented pace and scale. Global rivalry and the introduction of the information era, in which knowledge is arguably the most important resource, have thrown the work world into disarray. Organisations are attempting to reinvent themselves, moving away from traditional structures and toward a dynamic new model in which individuals may provide their creativity, energy, and insight in exchange for being nourished, developed, and delighted.

Change is a force that cannot be stopped. Dawson (2003) principally backed this approach in his analysis of a new bias for organisational action, which he characterises as the requirement for managers to be change leaders. Failing to do so, he argues, will result in firms perishing in an increasingly competitive world. Rebuilding occurs as a result of change. This allows for the adoption of new ideas and practices. Even if change does not always follow a predictable route, the fact that the organisational world is changing at a breakneck pace appears to be undeniable.

According to Jones (2004), organisational transformation is the process through which a company improves its performance as it approaches its ideal state. A leader, an ever-changing environment, or a response to a current crisis scenario can all spark organisational transformation (Haveman, et al., 2001). Furthermore, organisational change is extremely obvious when the business has recently seen a shift in executive control (Haveman, et al., 2001).

The term 'organisational change' in a business and management context refers to planned, organisation-wide change aimed at achieving a certain goal. Implementing new technology, mergers or acquisitions, scaling back, rebuilding operations, and introducing new projects, such as Total Quality Management, are all examples of organisational-wide changes. These systematic adjustments are usually prompted by a desire to sustain or improve an organisation's viability (Hayes, 2002), and their success necessitates a deliberate and effective change management strategy.

Poras and Robertson (1992: 723) believe that change management is "a set of behavioural science-based theories, values, strategies, and techniques aimed at the planned change of the organizational work setting for the purpose of enhancing individual development and improving organizational performance through the alternation of organizational members' on-the-job-behaviors."

By examining the relationship between the organisation and its surroundings, organisational theory aids understanding of change. Population ecology and institutional theory are two prominent strands of organisational theory, both of which emphasise the challenge of accomplishing change. According to population ecology, "to survive, organisations must be

perfect with their surroundings, which includes all external social, economic, and political conditions that impact their actions." Conversely, institutional theory claims that "organisations must adjust rapidly enough to maintain their authenticity and the resources they need to stay viable," according to institutional theory (Druckman et al., 1997: 2). Contingency theory (Covrig, 2005) argues that there is no one-size-fits-all method to organising, and that, "the most optimal strategy to organising depends on the nature of the environment to which the organisation responds" (Scott, 1992: 89). From an adaptation standpoint, change management necessitates the identification of environmental variables as well as the development of organisational architecture and procedures to match changing external impacts (Lawrence & Lorsch, 1967: Thompson, 1967). The problem with this contingency model of change is that it is procedural in nature (Dawson, 2003), and it does not provide a list of procedures to follow in order to manage change (Pettigrew, 1985).

Over the last few decades, various researchers have turned to complexity theory to understand change (Houchin & MacLean, 2005). Organisational change is, according to complexity theorists "defined as a technique that unravels additional time, exposing moments of greater and decreased insecurity, based on the eagerness concerning framework is an intuitive reaction regarding survival in a constantly shifting environment," (Ferdig & Ludema, 2003: 8).

As a means of comprehending and overseeing change, Nadler and Tushman (1995) recommended categorising it into incremental and discontinuous changes. Incremental change can be described as a set of operations, each of which, "seeks to advance the work that has already been accomplished and supports the operation of the business in tiny steps" (Nadler & Tushman, 1995: 22). Discontinuous or deep change however, entails a complete system shift. "It is change that is real in the sense that it is distinct from the past and, in general, irreversible. Deep transformation requires risk-taking and alters existing patterns of action" (Quinn, 1996: 3). While incremental change tries to 'do things better' by constant tinkering, adjustment, and change (Hayes, 2002: 6), discontinuous change aims to realign the organisation with its environment and occurs during periods of disequilibrium.

As stated above the punctuated equilibrium hypothesis asserts that, "radical and discontinuous alteration of all or most organisational exercises is needed to break the clutch of solid inaction" (Romanelli & Tushman, 1994: 1143). In this concept, organisations go through convergent periods (long periods of incremental change and adaptation) broken by reorientations (brief times of drastic, discontinuous change) that mark the start of the next convergent period and set the course for the next convergent period (Tushman and Romanelli, 1985). Furthermore, change occurs in a variety of organisational action areas, each of which produces different levels of execution and dormancy when operated individually and in conjunction with one another.

Organisational culture, technique, structure, power distribution, and control systems are examples of such areas (Romanelli & Tushman, 1994). In using the punctuated equilibrium model, Gersick (1994) offers some cautionary advice: first, avoid assuming that this is the primary mode of system change, and second, avoid transporting models from one research domain to another without first considering how they would apply in different settings. It may have set the path for future research on the rate and arrangement of activity in change forms (Gersick, 1994, Weick & Quinn, 1991).

Weick (1999) emphasises the need to move past activity order and focus on developing process theory through the use of tales that give meaning to the process. Change, in his opinion, is an occurrence that causes organisations to make sense (Weick, 1995). Dawson (2003) defined organisational change as having four essential dimensions: 1) progression over time from a current state to a future state of the organisation; 2) the scale or scope of progress focusing on constant, powerful, broad operational and strategic changes; 3) the political dimension displaying the changing degrees of political power based on the settings and types of progress activities and; 4) the substantive component of progress, which refers to the significance of the change's character and content. Change is vital because if an organisation wants to improve, it will have to change.

As a result, effective leaders and followers, through suitable organisational change will reasonably be able to improve an organisation's overall well-being, resulting in increased organisational citizenship behaviour and success. Following this discussion of change, the next part examines organisational citizenship behaviour, which is the study's dependent variable.

2.3 Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (Dependent variable)

2.3.1. The Meaning of OCB

According to Bateman and Organ (1983) and Smith et al. (1983), Denis Organ (1983) and his colleagues formally introduced the term 'organisational citizenship behaviour' in the early 1980s. Its roots can be seen in Barnard's (1938) explanation of 'willingness to collaborate' and the contrast between 'innovative and spontaneous behaviours' and 'dependable role performance' (Katz, 1964; Katz & Kahn, 1966, 1978). Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) is described by Organ (1988a) as employee behaviour that goes above and beyond the call of duty and contributes to organisational effectiveness. It is optional and is not officially recognised by the employer's formal incentive system. According to Little and Little (2006), OCB is a reflection of employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment. It is comparable to the engagement literature's concepts of being courteous and helpful to co-workers, as well as a readiness to go the additional mile or work longer hours, try harder, accomplish more, and talk

favourably about the company. They pointed out that this desirable behaviour has been linked to the work environment rather than individual preferences.

Organisational citizenship behaviour can be characterised as behaviour demonstrated in the workplace by proactively initiating creative initiatives and aggressively finding ways to contribute outside of the job contract. The term 'organisational citizenship behaviour' (OCB) refers to a variety of diverse behaviours that all have one thing in common: they are discretionary and beyond the job's immediate responsibilities. These types of behaviours are rarely rewarded, and their absence is not punished by the organisation. However, their performance should lead to improved organisational performance (Barkworth, 2004).

Interest in OCB has increased significantly in recent years (Podsakoff et al., 2000), although the reasons behind this are unclear. There is considerable overlap between those labels and OCB. As a result, some researchers have attempted to explain it from a variety of perspectives, including spontaneity in the workplace (e.g. George & Brief, 1992; George & Jones, 1997), organisational conduct that is prosocial (e.g. Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; George, 1990, 1991), and contextual performance (e.g. Borman & Motowidlo, 1997). Both contextual performance and OCB, for example, place emphasis on volunteering and cooperating (Motowidlo, 2000).

However, more recent research (e.g., Hermawan et al., 2020; Pattnaik, S.C. & Sahoo, R. 2021; Qalati et al. 2022) shows that, despite certain parallels, there are still some differences between these classifications. OCB and contextual performance differ in that the former is not recognised by formal reward systems, whilst the latter is. Another distinction is that OCB is considered to be a type of extra-role behaviour, whereas contextual performance does not always imply extra-role behaviour. The term 'prosocial organisational behaviour' refers to behaviour that is geared towards assisting others. Personal considerations, rather than organisational success, may inspire prosocial behaviour (Brief & Motowidlo, 1986). All organisational citizenship behaviours, however, may have a direct or indirect relationship with the organisation's effectiveness (Van Dyne et al., 1995).

Budur and Poturak (2021), put forward a more current definition of OCB. They define it as "discretionary behaviours not defined by a formal reward structure that may promote organisational effectiveness." Using this definition, two characteristics of OCB are highlighted Hermanto, Y. B. and Srimulyani, V. A. (2022). First, behaviours are based on an individual's willingness and are not limited to formal job responsibilities. Second, within an organisation, behaviours may occur at random, but they should also benefit the organisation directly or indirectly (Van Dyne et al., 1995). Some scholars praise this definition for taking into consideration two important aspects of organisational design: organisational effectiveness and

efficiency (Burton & Obel, 2004). Although this phrase is well-known (e.g., Burton & Obel, 2004; Van Dyne et al., 1995), the argument over its definition continues (LePine et al., 2002). Scholars define OCB in terms of a variety of behavioural characteristics. In the following section, the significance of OCB will be discussed in further detail. For the purpose of this thesis, Podskaoff's (2000) definition of OCB is adopted. This is discussed in detail in section 2.3.3 below.

2.3.2 Why Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Matters

The OCB construct has been a hotly disputed topic in recent decades, prompting experts to stress the necessity for a clear definition of the term (Podsakoff et al., 2000). In an early paper, two dimensions for OCB were offered by Smith et al. (1983). The first is altruism, which is defined as assisting others in a face-to-face setting through voluntary and informal behaviours that benefit colleagues and the organisation (for example offering to help others who have a high workload). The second type is generalised compliance, which refers to strict adherence to organisational policies and processes even when the employee is not being watched or inspected (such as no smoking within the work environment).

In recent studies, Podsakoff et al. (2000: 516-25) group OCBs into five key themes: helping behaviour or altruism (voluntarily aiding others in resolving or preventing work-related issues), sportsmanship (maintaining a positive attitude even when things do not go your way, not being offended when others do not follow your suggestions, and being willing to sacrifice personal interests for the good of the group), organisational loyalty (being willing to put one's own interests aside for the greater good, promoting the organisation to outsiders, defending it against external threats, and remaining committed to it even under adverse circumstances), Individual initiative or organisational compliance (scrupulous adherence to organisational regulations and procedures even when not monitored or observed), and civic virtue (showing readiness to participate in organisational governance, watching the environment for risks and opportunities, and looking out for the organisation's best interests).

According to Podsakoff et al. (2000: 516-25), when these OCB themes are combined, they generate two unique subgroups (e.g. Williams & Anderson, 1991): individual-target organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBI) and organisation-target organisational citizenship behaviours (OCBO). The terms for these subgroups were coined by Williams and Anderson (1991). OCBI refers to behaviours that benefit individuals directly while also benefiting the organisation indirectly (e.g. helping a colleague with a problem). It entails willingly assisting people with work-related concerns. OCBO, however, is concerned with behaviours that directly benefit the organisation as a whole (e.g. complying with informal rules to keep order). Podsakoff et al. (2000) also discovered that OCBO appears to enhance employees acceptance of

organisational processes and regulations, resulting in strict adherence to rules even while unsupervised. The OCBI and OCBO structures differ in important ways. First, OCBO and OCBI have different implications for extra rewards; whereas OCBI does not involve external benefits, OCBO may. Second, the two types of OCB have distinct antecedents (e.g. Brief & Motowidlo, 1986; Smith et al., 1983). Certain prosocial behaviours, for instance, are applicable to OCBO but not to OCBI (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Van Dyne et al. (1994) made these distinctions between OCBO and OCBI. Van Dyne et al. (1994) combined the five dimensions into two subgroups: helping behaviour and organisational loyalty overlap with OCBI; sportsmanship, civic virtue, and individual initiative overlap with OCBO.

As previously stated, research on the OCB construct provides various dimensions. The five-dimensional framework proposed by Podsakoff et al. (2000) will be employed in this study because it provides a connection between different levels of organisational aims (i.e. individual/organisation) and varied levels of antecedents (i.e. personal, contextual) (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2004).

2.3.3 How to Measure Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Podsakoff et al. (2000) recognised five different forms of 'organisational citizenship behaviours' (OCBs). The current study focused on the five forms of citizenship behaviour outlined by Podsakoff (2000).

- Altruism or helping behaviour - Discretionary practices that have the effect of assisting a specific individual with a task or issue that is relevant to the organisation.

- Conscientiousness – Discretionary behaviour on the part of an employee that goes beyond the organisation's minimum role requirements, such as attendance, following rules and regulations, taking breaks, and so on.

- Sportsmanship – an employee's willingness to put up with less-than-ideal conditions without complaining – to "avoid complaining, petty grievances, ranting against real or imagined slights, and making federal cases out of minor matters" (Organ, 1988, p. 11).

- Courtesy – Individual discretionary conduct aimed at avoiding work-related problems with others.

- Civic Virtue – Individual behaviour that demonstrates that the employee appropriately participates in, is involved in, or is concerned about the company's life.

2.3.4 Service Quality and OCB

Bitner and Hubert (1994) and Culiberg and Rojsek (2010) define satisfaction as an, "instant response to consumption," whereas service quality is defined as the customer's impression and overall ideas about the service supplied to them (Bitner & Hubbert, 1994; Culiberg & Rojsek, 2010). Usually, service quality is influenced by what customers expect and perceive they receive from suppliers. Whenever what they are expecting is exactly what they receive, the service is viewed as satisfactory; if they receive a quality of service which is above what they were expecting, that service is termed as excellent. Alternatively, they perceive that why they receive falls short of expectation, then they will be dissatisfied with the level of service (Parasuraman et al., 1985). For instance, the transport industry, to improve the quality of service being provided, the service provider must endeavour to continuously meet the needs and demands of passengers. This will help the service provider to benefit in achieving a competitive advantage as a result of creating and maintaining service quality, leading to overall customer satisfaction. Research has shown that a company's capacity to offer high-quality service can contribute to a higher perceived value. As a result, perceived value is heavily influenced by service quality (Cronin et al., 2000; Parasuraman & Grewal, 2000).

Zeithmal et al. (1993) and Rust et al. (1995) have all argued that service quality is what directs future behavioural intentions. In turn, this impacts financial decision outcomes. Furthermore, Reicheld and Sessar (1990) stated that one companys strategy for survival is to deliver a quality service to its customers. The SERVQUAL scale's 'conceptual and operational' definition, which has been used in most service industries, has sparked considerable amount of debate (Buttle, 1996; Parasuraman et al., 1998).

Employees at service counters become more like performers than workers, and their behaviour in terms of client interactions becomes a critical component of the service quality that customers see. Dwyer et al. (1987) and Morgan and Hunt (1994) claimed that one should be able to adapt their relationship marketing principles to their interpersonal services marketing context, in order to contribute to the importance of social contents in the area of trust and commitment. Also, Maclaran and McGowan (1999), touching on the relationship between the customer and the firm in respect of long-term profitability, stated that, "in service relationships, customers' evaluation of service is dependent largely on the specialised skills, techniques, and experience of the customer-contact employees interacting with customers" (McGowan et al., 2001). In most service-oriented businesses, how staff treat clients can have a significant impact on customer relationships. Furthermore, clients are involved in the service delivery process as co-producers in high-contact service interactions, exposing them to the genuine voluntary behavioural pattern of the workers within the organisation. These observed behaviours as a

result of interactions between staff and customers may have a negative impact on the customer's assessment of the organisation's service quality.

Employees' OCBs may be viewed in connection with what consumers thought of the service they received for a variety of reasons. First, it is based on internal marketing objectives related to the service the business provides. Regarding internal marketing objectives, the behaviours that employees display in service encounters, in terms of the way they interact with customers, help customers to form a positive opinion about the quality of service that the company provides. The internal marketing objectives also suggest that exchanges with customers can only be successful if there has first been an effective internal exchange among and between employees. This then can lead to productive interactions between personnel and customers, resulting in high-quality service for the customer (George, 1991; Kelly & Hoffman, 1997).

Secondly, service quality from the perspective of external customer shows how effective and dynamic that organisation is. According to further studies (Organ, 1988; MacKenzie et al., 1991; 1993; Walz & Niehoff, 1996; and Podsakoff et al., 1997), there is the premise that OCB is the catalyst of organisational effectiveness, although organisational effectiveness can be explained from different perspectives. According to Paulin and Perrine (1996), the only factor that can indicate an organisation's external success is the service quality offered to its consumers, which is entirely judged by customers outside the organisation (Paulin & Perrine, 1996).

To help explain the link between OCBs and service quality provision, previous research has focused on three OCBs (altruism, civic virtue, and sportsmanship). The three areas of conduct listed above show how employees behave in ways that may influence how customers perceive the level of service they receive. Some of the individual behavioural elements that serve to build the link between each of these OCBs and consumers' perceptions of service quality are listed below.

Altruism plays a crucial role in ensuring that customers obtain high-quality service (George & Bettenhausen, 1990; Gronroos, 1984). Employees that see customers as employees and go out of their way to assist in giving better service will only improve service quality (Albrecht & Zemke, 1985). Whenever an employee who is more experienced helps an employee that is not highly skilled by providing enough information on how things are done to solve a service-related problem, which helps improve efficiency, customer service quality is improved (Podsakoff et al., 1997). In addition, altruism can lead to positive group cohesion among employees leading to a spill-over reaction to their external customers (Schneider & Bowen, 1992).

Civic virtue, refers to the behaviours that employees exhibit in the workplace by displaying enthusiasm, desire, and devotion. This may be demonstrated by their participation at meetings

or other social gatherings that are not required but benefit the company's overall image (MacKenzie et al., 1998; Organ, 1988). Though civic virtue is not always discussed in empirical research, according to George and Brief (1992) and Van Dyne et al. (1994), it is an important aspect of service organisations that can affect the quality of service delivered in a variety of ways. Civic virtue may also involve coming up with constructive ideas about how a service can be improved to achieve overall organisational effectiveness. In civic virtue, through employees attendance and participation in organised meetings, can help employees to acquire the necessary tools and experiences from their fellow employees during service encounters. This will help to shape their learning process which, in turn, helps to manage and provide quality service to customers.

Sportsmanship is another factor that might affect service quality. It is thought that when an employee has a high level of sportsmanship, he or she will have a pleasant attitude most of the time, which will lead to fewer complaints. Morrison (1996) argues that customers, in most cases, experience greater service quality whenever such behaviour is exhibited. Schneider and Bowen (1992) also believe that sportsmanship creates a favourable environment among employees, which is then transmitted to their relationships with consumers. This indicates that if staff are 'good sports' or have a great working relationship, it makes it easier for them to collaborate and provide excellent service. Conversely, an employee is always whining, it will be impossible for that individual to provide good customer service. As a result, it is critical that employees work in a positive environment, as this will affect the level of service they deliver to clients.

The following section will review organisational learning, which is the independent variable.

2.4 Organisational Learning (Independent Variable)

2.4.1 Definition of Organisational Learning

Organisational learning can be characterised as a process of gathering, interpreting, and sharing information with the goal of improving organisational outcomes. Organisational learning refers to the requirement to improve each employee's knowledge and ability to make critical judgements, which in turn improves the group's ability to make key decisions. As a result, this improves the company's ability to reach and fulfil its business objectives (Caemmerer & Wilson, 2010). Despite the field's expansion and improvement during the 1990s, many academics feel that unified terminology and cumulative work is still needed (Simon, 1991; Vera & Crossan, 2003; Weick, 1991). Organisational learning, as defined by Crossan et al. (1999), is the process of change in thought and action, both individual and shared, that is embedded in, and impacted by, the organisation's institutions. They went on to remark that one of the most difficult aspects of organisational learning is the pressure to absorb new information and put it to use.

2.4.2 The Importance of Organisational Learning

Organisational learning has been widely explored in recent years, and it has been argued that it is the only long-term competitive advantage (De Geus, 1988). The process of enhancing an organisation's performance is known as organisational learning (Goh et al., 2012; Lapre, 2011; Jerez-Gomez et al., 2005). First, organisational learning enhances employee capabilities and performance (Argote, 2013). Second, employee knowledge, skills, and decision-making abilities are improved as a result of encouraging them to communicate and interact with other team members (Caemmerer & Wilson, 2010; Curado 2006). Lapre and Nembhard (2011) stated that interdisciplinary collaboration can improve overall organisational performance and reinforce competitive advantage. Finally, integrative cooperation behaviour has the potential to increase overall organisational effectiveness (Lapre & Nembhard, 2011).

Organisational learning has been supported to increase and improve levels of output in order to attain organisational competitiveness and success (Paparoidamis 2005; Dunphy et al., 1996; Ghobadian & O' Regan, 2006). There is additional evidence to suggest that organisational performance influences learning in a variety of ways (see, for instance, Murray 2003; Panayides 2007; Spicer & Sadler-Smith 2006; Vakola & Rezgui 2000; Vincent & Ross 2001). Organisational learning, according to Kaplan and Norton (1996), is intimately linked to organisational performance. Therefore, improving the learning environment in the organisation is a crucial responsibility of the top manager. In order to maximise organisational performance, Marr (2006) emphasised the need to provide a suitable learning environment in the workplace.

As a result, Holland and Salama (2010) emphasised the importance of business managers' ability to create a learning-friendly culture as part of the organisation's growth and development. In addition, according to Marr (2006), top management, as well as other members of the organisation, should encourage a learning environment. He believes that organisations should create a social atmosphere that allows individuals to share knowledge both tacitly and explicitly, while also encouraging dedication, collaboration, mutual respect, and a sense of belonging. It is crucial that each member of the organisation feels valued by the community and participates in value creation. Employees will have greater opportunity to interact, connect, and participate more actively in sharing new insights gained from their personal work experiences as a result of their participation in organisational learning (Caemeerer & Wilson, 2010; Curado, 2006).

OL is essential to this study because transportation businesses that strive to improve the quality of services provided to clients face challenges associated with the effectiveness of a personnel development programme. Administrators at ABC, Ekeson & Son's, Gold International Transport Nigeria Limited, God is Good Motors, and Ifesinachi Transport must fully comprehend the

difficulties, design appropriate change initiatives, and assess the effectiveness of these methods and their impact on employees' ability to offer quality service.

2.4.3 How to Measure Organisational Learning

In this study, the Dimensions of Learning Organisation Questionnaire (DLOQ) was employed. The original and comprehensive version has been used because it has been validated in several previous studies (Ellinger et al., 2002; Watkins & Marsick, 2003; Yang et al., 2004; Hernandez, 2000; Zhang et al., 2004; Lien et al., 2006; Song et al., 2009). DLOQ's theoretical framework is easily understandable for three main reasons, in addition to its empirical element.

First, it provides a detailed and clear definition of the components that make up a learning organisation. It displays the structures from a cultural perspective, resulting in enough measuring domains to provide scale (Yang at al., 2004). Second, it looks at all levels of an organisation, as well as all its groups and societies. According to Redding (1997), who looked at a number of evaluation techniques (individuals, teams, organisation, and global), Watkins and Marsick's (1996) framework was one of the few that looked at learning at all levels. Third, this framework not only identifies the major characteristics of the learning organisation, but it also connects them in a theoretical framework by defining their relationship (Yang et al., 2004). Finally, it has a practical application because it focuses on the perspective of action imperatives (Yang et al., 2004).

The questionnaire depicts the seven dimensions of a learning organisation. The characteristics of organisational learning were measured using a Likert-type questionnaire. These seven dimensions are: a) continuous learning; help each other to learn and take time to support learning, b) inquiry and dialogue; provide open feedback and ask what others think, c) team learning; have freedom to adapt goals and act on recommendation, d) embedded system; make lessons learned available and measure the results of training, e) empowerment; recognise for taking initiative, give people control over resource and support calculated risk taking, f) system connection; encourage global perspectives, and work with outside resources, and g) strategic leadership; provide mentoring and coaching, opportunities to learn, and ensure consistent actions.

The following table provides a summary of recent studies on organisational learning, their focus and nature in terms of being cross-sectional or longitudinal (please see table 1).

Table 1. Lists of studies that have captured organisational learning in longitudinal and cross-sectional studies.

Name of the authors	Topic of the article	Type of studies	Year
Eun-Jee Kim and Sunyoung Park.	The role of transformational leadership in citizenship behaviour. Organisational learning and interpersonal trust as mediators.	Cross-sectional Studies	2019
Oussama Saoula, Husna Johari, Muhammad Fareed	A conceptualisation of the role of organisational learning culture and organisational citizenship behaviour in reducing turnover intention.	Cross-sectional Studies	2018
Karen Seashore Louis and Moosung Lee	Teachers' capacity for organisational learning: the effects of school culture and context.	Longitudinal Studies	2016
Mohammad Hossein Imani Khoshkhoo and Zahra Nadalipour	Tourism SMEs and Organisational Learning in a Competitive Environment. A longitudinal research on organisational learning in travel and tourism agencies located in the city of Ahvaz, Iran.	Longitudinal Studies	2016
Muhammad Abid Saleem, Najam us Saqib and Sadaf Zahra	Impact of job engagement and team processes on organisational learning: examining the moderating role of leadership style.	Cross-sectional Studies	2015
Taehyon Choi and Susan Meyers Chandler	Exploration, exploitation, and public sector innovation: An Organisational Learning perspective for the Public Sector.	Longitudinal Studies	2015
Victor Jesus Garcia-Morales, Maria Magdalena Jimenez-Barrionuevo and Leopoldo Gutierrez-Gutierrez	Transformational leadership influence on organisational performance through organisational learning and innovation.	Cross-sectional Studies	2012

Mohammad Sadegh Sharifirad	The Dimensions of Learning Organisation Questionnaire (DLOQ) A cross-cultural validation in an Iranian context.	Cross-sectional Studies	2011
Eric Stevens and Sergios Dimitriadis	New service Development through lens of organisational learning: evidence from longitudinal case studies.	Longitudinal Studies	2004

2.5 Resistance to Change

Change has been described as a complicated system that produces outputs in the context of an environment, a set of available resources, and a history (Nadler & Tushman, 1989). Within the literature, there are a variety of categories for distinct types of change. The majority of theorists categorise change into two types based on its scope: evolutionary and revolutionary change (Dirks et al. 1996). In other words, change that occurs within a system and change that aims to transform the system itself. Over the previous few decades, Estonian enterprises have undergone more than two types of transformations and has already experienced two big waves of change. The first was at the end of the nineteen eighties and beginning of the nineteen nineties, when socialism was replaced by capitalism. The market was empty and, as a result, it was relatively easy to start and run a successful company. During the second half of nineteen nineties, the market became saturated. This led to a significant number of bankruptcies and mergers among small enterprises (Alas, 2004). According to Ackerman (1986), organisational change is divided into three categories, according: developmental change, transitional change, and transformational change. Through the enhancement of abilities, procedures, or situations, developmental transformation improves what already exists. Transitional transformation replaces current ways of doing things with something new over time. The emergence of a new state from the ashes of the old state's chaotic collapse, which is unknown until it takes shape, is known as transformational change.

Change will not be effectively implemented in any organisation if its employees refuse to embrace it (Jick, 1993). Unless a person is motivated and willing to change, change will not occur (Schein, 1986). How ever, change will be resisted even when it is required, according to previous studies (Goodstein & Burke, 1991). As a result, to achieve long-term change, managers must first acknowledge resistance as a problem to overcome, then select a change strategy that will lessen or eliminate resistance (Armenakis & Bedeian, 1999).

Chawla and Kelloway (2004) define resistance to change as "an adherence to any ideas or practices that obstruct organisational change goals." According to Peccei et al. (2011),

individuals engage in change resistance as a form of organisational dissent when they find the change personally unpleasant or inconvenient. Resistance is described by Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) as a general failure to comply with specified change requirements. People may resist change not because of the change itself, but because of the expected repercussions of the change (Dent & Goldberg, 1999).

The strategy for overcoming resistance has changed. Early publications on the subject used the term 'resistance to change' in a way that implied irrational and often blind opposition to what must be regarded a beneficial invention on all other grounds. Later studies in this field began to identify the characteristics of individuals, communities, and organisations that typically obstruct, hinder, or distort change activities (Miner, 1978). Therefore, it has been argued, resistance can be regarded as a natural aspect of the cognitive transition that occurs during the change.

Although some researchers have suggested that resistance to change a negative factors that can harm an organisational effectiveness and efficiency, mainstream assumptions and perspectives have revealed that resistance to change is one of the negative factors that can harm an organisation's effectiveness and efficiency (Murtagh et al., 2012; Thomas & Hardy, 2011). According to Murtagh et al. (2012), resistance to change can be considered an inherently inescapable response to forced change, a universal proclivity, and a personality trait.

Leaders are change agents; they direct the process, articulate the vision, and negotiate with followers about what is happening in the organisation. Leaders are crucial during the transition process. This is because, if the leader lacks a strategic vision for implementing change, the organisation will not grow and will instead remain stagnant. Change is about managing the link between the leader and the follower so that the change process can be as successful as possible, although it is a difficult process. However, if the LMX relationship is inadequate, an organisation will suffer from poor communication and uncertainty. Organisational behaviour will wholly improve with an effective transformation process and a healthy LMX connection. As a result, good leaders and followers will improve an organisation's overall well-being, resulting in increased organisational performance and success (Bass, 1985).

This leads us to the second point of debate, which is leadership. Without a leader, an organisation is like an empty vessel. Leaders interact with employees on a regular basis. Therefore, a transformational leadership style can help to bridge the gap between OL and broader organisational citizenship behaviour. Transformational leaders in particular, are receptive to differing viewpoints and encourage staff to participate in decision-making (Hackman & Johnson, 2004). The following section reviews the literature on leadership.

2.6 Leadership

While reading the literature on leadership, Stogdill (1974) observed that there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept. Drath and Palus (1994: 4) write, "Leadership is the process of making sense of what people are doing together so that people will understand and be committed." Leadership, according to Northouse (2010), is a process in which one individual influences a group of people to achieve a common goal. It is also the process of inspiring people to give their all in order to achieve a common objective. Creating and conveying a future vision, as well as encouraging and insuring the participation of others, are all aspects of leadership. Leadership, according to Stogdill (1950: 3), is an "influencing process directed towards objective achievement." The finest leaders are those who, depending on the scenario, satisfy task needs, individual needs, and group maintenance needs.

Leadership has also been defined as the ability to inspire others to take risks and try new things (Bass, 1985). It is a process in which one person inspires another to attain a common purpose (Rauch & Behling, 1984). Leadership is a two-way process in which both the leader and the follower have a reciprocal relationship (Livi et al., 2008). It is impossible to analyse leadership without considering the followers. A company that lacks followers will not function, and a company that lacks a leader will not be able to lead. Leadership is a two-way process that requires the presence of both a leader and a follower because it can never happen in a vacuum. In business, transactional or transformational leadership is commonly thought of (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978).

2.6.1 Definitions of Leadership Development

The definitions of leadership can be interpreted in a variety of ways. Providing a definition of leadership has become a difficult task for academics and scholars, and as a result, it has become a hot topic in academia. For example, Rost (1991) claimed to have examined approximately 200 different definitions of leadership in material published between 1900 and 1990.

2.6.1.1 Theories of Early Leadership, or "Great Man" Theories (1920- 1970)

One of the most influential leadership theories of the 1920s and 1930s, according to Yukl (2010), was the trait theory. This theory assumes that successful leaders structure their leadership roles in an organisation using personality traits such as integrity, intelligence, desire to lead, adaptability, emotional stability, assertiveness, and being socially famous.

Furthermore, it has been demonstrated that not everyone can be persuaded in the same way. Different situations, for example, necessitate different sorts of leadership direction. Task-centred leaders, according to scholars, see it as their role to closely supervise their subordinates

or followers, giving them instructions on what to do, how to do it, when to do it, and where to do it (Fiedler, 1967).

However, through examination of significant historical individuals, philosophers of The Great Man Theory were established in the 19th century. According to this belief, a person would become a leader if they possessed positive traits like charisma, knowledge, and wisdom. This idea has been criticised for failing to take into account how external factors can affect a leader's behaviour. The Great Man theory has been widely rejected because of how constrictive it is, but has served as a foundation for subsequent theories and investigations into what makes a good leader (Thompson et al. 2020).

Trait theory and Great Man theory have some similarities in nature. Early theorists believed that leaders were born with specific physical and psychological qualities that set them apart from non-leaders (Nawaz and Khan, 2016). Trait theory attempts to classify the traits that set leaders apart from followers. According to trait theory, some individuals are born with particular traits that make them effective leaders, which implies that leadership is natural rather than manufactured or learned (Madanchian et al. 2016). In line with this theory, a variety of traits, including decision-making ability, self-assurance, self-control, stress management, situational awareness, and results-orientedness, were regarded as successful leadership qualities (Perera et al. 2021).

The next stage of leadership theory stemmed from the realisation of researchers that what leaders did and how they did it depended on or was contingent upon, the situation they were in (Fiedler, 1967). To be successful in various circumstances, different traits became crucial, as well as various behaviours or leadership styles. As a result of these investigations, situational and contingent leadership theories emerged (Yukl, 2011). According to this recent advancement in the theory of leadership, leadership is not entirely inborn but rather a function of, or response to a particular circumstance or a set of circumstances (Perera et al. 2021). In order to study change, more advanced perspectives on leadership which address follower psyche and not task-focused but relationship-focused, need to be adopted.

2.6.1.2 Newer leadership theories (1970-2010)

Transactional and transformational leadership are the foundations of new leadership theory. The task of leadership and the relationships between leaders and subordinates changed during the 1980s (Fiedler, 1967). The benefits transferred between leaders and followers, as well as the incentive or penalty for excellent or poor performance, are all discussed in transactional leadership. On the one hand, according to Fiedler (1967), leaders motivate their followers to attain predetermined goals by outlining the job and task criteria, as well as offering suitable

rewards and/or sanctions. On the other hand, transformational leaders, are looked up to as role models and change agents. This requires uniting individuals around a shared purpose through self-reinforcing behaviours where subordinates gain by completing a task successfully and through the assurance of intrinsic incentives (Burns, 1978).

2.7 Transformational Leadership

Since the early 1980s, transformational leadership has been one of the most well studied leadership methods. Downton (1973), Burns (1978), followed by Bass et al. (2003), coined the phrase "transformational leadership". The number of articles and citations on this topic has been rapidly expanding not only in conventional domains like management and social psychology, but also in new disciplines including nursing, education, and industrial engineering (Antonakis, 2012).

Green and Roberts (2012) examined the impact of postmodernism on public sector leadership techniques and identified transformational leadership as a style that is appropriate for today's post-modern organisations. They demonstrate the spirit of such leadership by allowing followers to ask questions, share their experiences and feelings, and prioritise connections above organisations.

Transformational leaders, according to Bass (1985), can motivate their followers to perform at a high level by demonstrating four behavioural characteristics. These four behavioural components or factors of transformational leadership are : 1) idealised influence, where- leaders act in charismatic ways that inspire employees to respect and revere them, such as through serving as a role model; 2) inspirational motivation, where- leaders motivate followers by inspiring them and providing them with an appealing vision. They also inspire subordinates to question systems and give purpose to their job; 3) intellectual stimulation, where-by challenging assumptions, reframing challenges, and tackling old circumstances in new ways, leaders assist and guide followers in their efforts to be inventive and creative. In this scenario, followers are encouraged to attempt new ideas, and their suggestions are not dismissed because they differ from the leader's viewpoint; 4) individualised consideration, where- by acting as a mentor or coach, transformational leaders pay specific attention to each individual follower's needs for achievement and progress (Bass, 1985). Two-way communication is encouraged, and management through roaming around work locations is practised (Bass, 1985).

Levinson (1980) suggested that if leadership consists solely of rewarding followers with carrots for compliance or punishing them with a stick for failing to comply with agreed-upon work to be done by the follower, the follower may become demotivated. Transformational variables are

typically found to be more strongly connected with outcomes of colleague performance and satisfaction than contingent compensation.

2.7.1 Transformational Leadership and Organisational Learning

Leadership is a process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to learn and achieve shared goals in an organisation (Aragon-Correa et al., 2007; Beattie, 2006; Berson et al., 2006; Gracia-Morales et al., 2012; Gomez & Ranft, 2003; Vera & Crossan, 2004; Yulk, 2009). It is one of the most important organisational functions that influences the conditions for collective learning (Berson et al., 2006). Therefore, organisational learning and transformational leadership are inextricably linked. A number of authors have linked leadership and organisational learning (e.g., Senge, 1990; Senge et al., 1994; Tushman & Nadler, 1986). Traditional leadership has been described as overly individualistic and ad hoc, making it difficult for organisational teams to learn. Transformational leadership however, stresses active engagement among employees in collective decisions and activities (Adair, 1990; Bass, 1991). Transformational leaders should be able to gather teams and provide them with guidance, passion, and support for organisational learning and change processes (Blackler & McDonald, 2000; McDonough, 2000; Nadler & Tushman, 1990).

Transformational leadership, in particular, promotes organisational learning by stimulating employees' minds, motivating them, and instilling self-confidence in them (Coad & Berry, 1998). Having the ability to lead transformational change is one of the most important aspects of establishing learning organisations (e.g., Maani & Benton, 1999; Slater & Narver, 1995; Snell, 2001). Furthermore, there is evidence to suggest that leaders can boost the developmental readiness of employees, or their ability and willingness to learn, through influencing the function and structure of learning networks, as well as actively supporting in the dissemination and institutionalisation of learning and new information (Hannah & Lester, 2009).

Transformational leadership is a management style that motivates and stimulates employees through charismatic speech, motivation, and intellectual stimulation (Bass, 1995). According to Seaver (2010), transformational leadership occurs when one or more people engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers motivate one another and increase morale. This form of leadership occurs when the leader establishes a trusting environment in which the employee exceeds expectations (Yulk, 2002). According to Seaver (2010), transactional leadership happens when one individual initiates interaction with others with the aim of exchanging something valuable. More than just compliance is required for transformational leadership; it also necessitates changes in followers' beliefs, needs, and values. According to Avolio and Bass (2000), transformational leaders are known for their charisma, inspiration, intellectual

stimulation, and particular attention to their employees. A leader's ability to inspire trust appears to be one of the most important factors in the performance of diverse leadership styles, according to Embry-Wilson (2010). Such leadership encourages followers to think about all company stakeholders. In order to acquire the essential competencies for organisational learning improvement, transformational leadership arguably now plays a significant role in assisting individuals and organisations in producing, exploiting, renewing, and applying knowledge (Aragon-Correa et al., 2007).

Templeton et al. (2002) define organisational learning as a set of actions (knowledge acquisition, information distribution, information interpretation, and organizational memory) that promote positive organisational change both purposefully and accidentally. Furthermore, Zollo and Winter (2002) defined organisational learning as a collaborative skill based on experiential and cognitive processes that involves knowledge acquisition, information exchange, and knowledge utilization. Organisational learning is currently considered in the context of strategic management and is seen as a source of competitive advantage (Grant, 1996; Montes et al., 2005; Liao et al., 2008).

Specifying learning processes at multiple levels of analysis, according to Berson et al. (2006), provides for the development of a detailed picture of the role of leaders in facilitating organisational learning. They were especially intrigued by the role of leaders in promoting organisational learning. They showed that leadership promotes organisational learning, which improves overall performance. Transformational leaders must be able to organise teams, provide them with direction and energy, and lead them through change processes, particularly organisational learning (McDonough, 2000).

Transformational leadership is highly linked to organisational learning, according to Amitay et al. (2005). Several other researchers have also discovered a connection between transformative leadership and organisational learning (Aragon-Correa et al., 2007; Slater & Narver 1995; Snell 2001). The majority of studies have found that transformational leadership is important for organisational learning (Coad & Berry, 1998; Brown & Posner, 2001; Lam & Pang, 2003; Lam, 2004; Amitay et al., 2005; Chang & Lee, 2007; Jansen et al., 2009; Kurland et al., 2010; Nafei et al., 2012; Saekoo & Yasamorn, 2013; Theodore, 2013).

Transformational leadership develops teams by providing them with direction, energy, and support for change and organisational learning (Bass, 1999; McDonough, 2000). Using this method, organisations can learn through experimentation, exploration, communication, and conversation (Lei et al., 1999; Menguc et al., 2007; Senge et al., 1994; Slater & Narver, 1995; Tushman & Nadler, 1986). The transformational leader will serve as a catalyst, mentor,

facilitator, and trainer for organisational learning. Furthermore, he or she creates shared mental models in technical companies that promote continuous learning and make learning and the application of new technology easier (Senge et al., 1994).

Transformational leadership also creates a unified vision and reorients work team training and development by raising understanding and acceptance of the organisation's purpose and objective. This leadership style also allows the leader to commit fully to learning, to become its driving force, and to provide whatever support is needed to overcome internal scepticism and external hurdles in order to foster learning inside the business (Wick & Leon, 1995).

Due to the obvious influence of transformational leadership on communication and the role of communication in organisational learning, transformational leadership has an indirect effect on organisational learning (Argyris & Schon, 1996; Lei et al., 1999; Schein, 1993; Senge et al., 1994). On the basis of these principles, it could be argued that transformational leadership is one of the most important approaches to improving organisational learning (Maani & Benton, 1999; Slater & Narver, 1995).

In the fields of leadership and organisational learning, a significant amount of research has been conducted on the value of transformational leadership (Vera & Crossan, 2004; Yukl, 2009). As a vision-driven approach to management, transformational leadership emphasises the importance of strong identification with the leader and the work unit in which the leadership occurs (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transformational leadership has also been proven to influence organisational learning by stimulating employees' thoughts and instilling inspirational drive and self-confidence (Coad & Berry, 1998).

2.7.2 Links between Transformational Leadership and Change Management

Transformative change begins with a leader's capacity to assist the organisation in exploring the depths of its own thinking, understanding, and story. Transformative leaders may be confronted with both expected and unexpected circumstances. According to organisational change research, positive responses to change are produced when management is change competent, has a participative, enlightened perspective, and is viewed as sensible (Oreg et al., 2011). As a result, transformational leadership is a powerful tool for managing change in organisations (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Eisenbach et al., 1999). Callan (1993) describes transformational leadership as the ability to ensure followers can cope with change and increase their dedication, self-efficacy, and empowerment during periods of transition (Bommer et al., 2005).

Transformational leadership provides a psychological focal point for followers during the transition process by providing a role model who performs desirable actions (Nadler & Tushman, 1989). Employees are not just recipients of change; they also influence the process and its

effects (Whelan-Berry, et al., 2003). As a result, managers play an important role in organisational change, both in terms of advancing change and affecting how well employees understand it (Armenakis, et al., 2007).

As the above examples of transformational leadership and change literature demonstrate, these points of view must be considered to acquire comprehensive knowledge of how to implement change effectively. According to the literature on leadership and change, certain transformational leadership attributes are particularly well-suited to leading various forms of change. Leadership research, for example, backs up the notion that transformational leadership is particularly effective in non-routine situations (Bass, 1985). Similarly, Pawar and Eastman (1997) believe that when adaptability is the goal, transformational leadership will be more effective. Event-based pacing appears to be more closely linked with transactional leadership in the literature on change, which emphasises objective definition, follower compliance through incentives and rewards, and a focus on task completion (Bass, 1995).

Transformational, charismatic, and visionary leaders can effectively modify the norm in their organisations by displaying the essential behaviours at the appropriate stage in the transformation process. When it becomes evident that the previous methods are no longer working, such executives may be tasked with developing a compelling future vision. A good vision can provide others with a strategic and motivational focus Bass (1985). It serves as a source of inspiration and commitment as well providing a clear description of the organisation's goal. According to Ford and Ford (1994), instead of causing dissatisfaction with the status quo, leaders create change by presenting a compelling vision to followers. There is no consensus in the literature on transformational leadership about whether a crisis or dissatisfaction in the status quo is required for transformational leadership to develop. Leaders may not need to foment dissatisfaction with the present, but rather convey an appealing and compelling vision of the future (Kouzes & Posner, 1988).

Both the literatures on transformational leadership and change management say that a leader must be a change champion who can gather and motivate a large enough group to lead the change endeavour, even if there is no disappointment or catastrophe (Kotter, 1995). According to change research, a leader's ability to use inducements and interventions to motivate others to change is only compelling if the change can fulfil or satisfy a dynamic demand.

As referenced above, change literature suggests that to attract followers to various change choices, a leader must create a compelling vision that considers the underlying needs and values of relevant stakeholders. The leader must put their vision into action after it has been developed. This could be accomplished through intellectual stimulation, in which the leader sets challenging

goals for employees and persuades them to challenge long-held business norms. The leader describes the change by appealing to the followers' desires for accomplishment and growth, making the change appealing to them. If the leader demonstrates personalised concern by providing support, mentoring, and direction to staff, the process may be facilitated. Coaching and guiding behaviours are especially vital in large-scale reforms and the construction of self-managing work teams (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Eisenbach et al., 1999). A growing number of modern businesses are adopting a team-based organisational structure, which represents a considerable cultural shift in and of itself. Following our discussion of what a transformational leader is, it is important to examine in more detail the dyadic relationship between leaders and followers. Therefore, the following section analyses Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX).

2.8 Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX)

Leader-Member Exchange Theory explored the dynamics of a leader's connection with one or more followers. During the 1970s, Dansereau, Graen, and their colleagues developed the Leader-Member Exchange concept, also known as the "Vertical Dyad of Linkage" (VDL) approach, and compared it to traditional leadership styles (Dansereau, et al., 1975; Graen & Cashman, 1975). Comparing how the traditional approach and the vertical dyad approach (VDL) order empirical relationships can more easily enable evaluation of the potential benefits of the VDL. In research carried out by Dansereau et al., (1973), data from 261 managers and their superiors were gathered using the research methodologies recommended by both approaches. The following was the authors' conclusion after looking at the connection between leadership and turnover from both the traditional (ALS) and Vertical Dyad Linkage perspectives:

> ... this VDL approach reveals orderliness in the data that the average leadership style approach would have assumed a prior to be mainly error variance. On the other hand, the orderliness revealed by the VDL approach could not have been extracted from the data using the ALS approach (Dansereau et al., 1973, p. 197).

The Leader-Member Exchange Theory assesses how leaders and followers interact. Leader-Member Exchange Theory focuses on the two-way link between leaders and followers as a vital component of the leadership process. In the 'vertical dyad', the leader establishes an individualised working relationship with each of his or her subordinates. The interactions between the leader and the subordinate define their dyadic relationship.

According to the VDL approach, in dyadic interactions between leaders and followers, leaders treat individual followers differently, resulting in the establishment of an in-group and an out-group. The in-group is a chosen group of loyalists with whom the leader usually establishes a close, higher-quality exchange relationship. The out-group is made up of the remaining

followers, with whom the leader normally has a more formal relationship. As a result of the leader's limited time and energy, and inability to afford all followers equal attention, these various social exchange relationships are usually long-lasting (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

Since its conception, the Leader-Member Exchange Theory has undergone numerous changes, and it continues to spark the interest of leadership researchers. LMX theory, according to Northouse (2016), helps to improve understanding of the leadership process in a variety of ways. For example, this is one of the first leadership theories that focuses directly on the interactions between leader and follower and draws upon the quality of the relationship between the two. Ilies et al. (2007) conducted a meta-analysis of fifty-one studies that looked at how employee citizenship behaviours and LMX relate to one another. As previously mentioned, citizenship behaviours are optional employee actions outside of one's job description, position, or compensation plan (Katz, 1964; Organ, 1988). They discovered a link between positive leader-member interactions and positive citizenship behaviours. In other words, followers were more likely to act in voluntary (positive "payback") ways that benefited their leaders and the company when they had better relationships with their leaders. In essence, the results above demonstrate unequivocally how much an organisation stands to gain from having leaders who can foster productive working relationships. Put simply, positive interactions between leaders and followers help both parties feel better, achieve more, and help the company grow. Several studies have discovered a strong link between the quality of Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) and leaders' transformational behaviour (Deluga, 1992).

Early studies focused on the nature of differences between in-groups and out-groups. The relationship between the Leader-Member Exchange paradigm and organisational effectiveness was studied further in later studies. This research focuses on the link between the quality of Leader-Member Exchanges and favourable consequences for leaders, followers, groups, and the entire organisation (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Follower satisfaction, organisational commitment, role clarity, leadership performance ratings, and objective performance have all been found to be positively related to leader-member exchange quality, whereas role conflict and turnover have been found to be negatively related (Bauer & Green, 1996; Deluga, 1998; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Schriesheim et al., 1999).

The link between the Leader-Member Exchange Theory and empowerment has also been studied. According to Harris et al. (2009), empowerment moderates the impact of Leader-Member Exchange on employment outcomes such as job happiness, and job performance.

2.8.1 Link between Transformational Leadership and Leader-Member Exchange Theory

So far, four meta-analyses assessing the causes and repercussions of and correlation between LMX and external factors have been published based on leader member exchange theory (Dulebohn, et al., 2012; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Ilies, et al., 2007; Rockstuhl et al., 2012). Leader-member exchange theory stands out among leadership theories because of its unique focus on the leader-follower (or supervisor-subordinate) dyad. Some writers consider LMX theory to be the premier dyadic theory in the leadership literature (Erdogan & Bauer, 2014: 407). Other leadership theories explore how leaders can affect employee attitudes, motivation, and performance. These theories tend to focus on a particular leader or are leader-centric in character. This is how transformational leadership works. According to Burns (1978), transformational leaders want to help those who come after them become future leaders so that they can help an organisation evolve.

According to Dulebohn et al. (2012), transformative leadership and leader-member exchange are strongly associated. It has been argued that transformational leadership is a necessary precondition for leader-member exchange, which affects organisational outcomes. According to existing research, creating positive interpersonal relationships is to enable transformational leaders to influence organisational outcomes (Dulebohn, et al. 2012; Shusha, 2013; Wang, et al. 2005). Furthermore, because transformational leadership is a multi-dimensional construct (Bass & Riggio, 2006), certain dimensions of transformational leadership may have a stronger influence on LMX than others. For example, relational-oriented aspects of transformational leadership may have a stronger influence on LMX than change-oriented aspects (Yukl, et al., 2009). This shows that a more thorough investigation of the connection between the components of LMX and transformative leadership is necessary.

According to the literature outlined above, it can be suggested that LMX mediates the relationships between transformational leadership and task performance, as well as organisational citizenship behaviours (Wang et al., 2005). However, although the literature found a strong link between transformative leadership and LMX quality, which found that LMX did not appear to regulate the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover.

2.9 Model Justification and Potential Contribution

This study proposes that transformational leadership and leader-member exchange mediates the link between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour in Nigeria's changing road transport industry. It is argued that studying this is crucial to emphasise the necessity for change management in achieving excellent organisational citizenship behaviour.

It is expected that the findings of this study will contribute to the current body of knowledge in a variety of ways. First, it is acknowledged that a number of studies have analysed the relationship between transformational leadership and leader-member exchange. As a result of a review of this literature, this research argues that transformational leadership has a significant impact on organisational learning and citizenship behaviour. In order to expand on the current literature, this research goes a step further by examining the impact of transformational leadership on the link between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour during change. The purpose of this is to assess whether transformational leadership can influence the relationship between the two variables in a changing environment. As a result, this study has the potential to deepen understanding of the influence of transformational leadership on organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour in a changing environment. Second, it is proposed that transformational leadership mediates the relationship between organisational learning and citizenship behaviour and resistance to change will moderate the relationship between the two forms of leadership and citizenship behaviour.

The research model outlines the connections and relationships between the variables'. This study's mediating variables include transformational leadership and leader-member exchange. Leader-member exchange theory stands out among the many scholarly leadership theories because of its unique focus on the leader-follower (or supervisor-subordinate) dyad (Hollander, 1978; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1991). Others consider LMX theory to be "the premier dyadic theory in the leadership literature" (Erdogan & Bauer, 2014; Day, 2014). The focus of this theory is the dyadic relationship between the leader and the followers. According to the leader-member theory, a leader's relationship with his or her subordinates tends to boost employee work-related attitudes. This results in a positive impact on organisational citizenship behaviour. One objectives of this research is to understand how leader-member exchange affects the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour. As a result, it is important to comprehend and critically evaluate leader-member theory. To capture the contrasts between leader-member exchange and transformative leadership, mediators were incorporated into one model. As a result of the way the model is constructed and measured, leader-member exchange does not occur without taking into account the interaction of leaders with their followers. In addition, the goal of this study is to assess how transformational leadership affects organisational learning and citizenship behaviour.

According to mainstream assumptions and perspectives (Murtagh et al., 2012; Thomas & Hardy, 2011), despite the fact that some researchers have suggested that resistance to change can be viewed as a necessary part of the change process, as well as potential triggers for positive change, resistance to change is viewed as a negative factor that can harm an organisation's

effectiveness and efficiency. Resistance to change has widely been considered a universal proclivity, a psychological trait, and an inevitability of required change, according to Murtagh et al. (2012). As a result, leaders play an important role in the progression of organisational change and the degree to which employees understand it (Armenakis, et al., 2007).

In the context of an organisation, resistance to change is described as the act of refusing to collaborate with or engage in a change initiative (Appelbaum, et al., 2015). Assessing the level of resistance, identifying the causes, and taking action to mitigate its negative effects are among the tasks of a change leader. Depending on the degree of impact the change has on working habits, resistance might range from minimal to high; the more the resistance there is, the more difficult implementation will be (Brown, 2011). To assess the real and perceived effectiveness of a change project, it is equally crucial to view resistance as an opportunity for progress and as part of a feedback loop at all stages of the change endeavour (Brown, 2011). Resistance to change has been an important subjects in organisational research, simply because it has been linked to the long-term competitive advantage of firms (Kwahk & Lee, 2008; Murtagh et al, 2012; Oreg, 2006; Triventi & Trivellato, 2009).

Transformational leadership is built on the charismatic quality of leaders and is focused on the principles of change inside an organisation and among its people to achieve desired goals (Khan & Khan, 2019). As a result, organisational learning creates synergies that lead to innovation, growth, and long-term development (Bryson, 2018; Estevez & Janowski, 2013). It has been suggested that transformational leadership can be used to increase organisational learning (Bass, 1985; Lam, 2002; Flores et al., 2012; Imran et al., 2016). Lam and Pang (2003) recognised transformational leadership as one of the most important drivers of organisational learning among a variety of external, internal, and contextual factors. According to Amitay et al.(2005), transformational leadership is positively and closely linked to both organisational learning values and mechanisms.

Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2004) investigated the link between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour, as well as the relationship between organisational learning and transformational leadership (Bryson, 2018; Estevez & Janowski, 2013, Gong et al., 2009). While previous studies on the link between transformational leadership and organisational learning was conducted in Israel (Amitay et al. 2005), there are reservations about the ability to extend these findings to Western cultures. However, data was collected from a range of firms, some of which were subsidiaries of global corporations, and some of the Israeli organisations in the study have their own subsidiaries abroad, making extrapolation more likely. Transformational leadership has been proven to improve organisational learning by increasing

intellectual curiosity, inspiring drive, and boosting self-confidence in and among the members of an organisation (Coad & Berry, 1998).

This study goes a step further by analysing the impact of transformational leadership on the link between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour, in order to assess whether transformational leadership may improve or weaken the relationship.

This study argues that transformational leadership and leader-member exchange influences the link between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour during transition. While it makes theoretical sense to put transformative leadership ahead of leader-member exchange, this study suggests that there may be reciprocal impacts at work. For example, workers in high-quality leader-member exchange connections are more likely to see their boss as transformational than those in low-or average-quality leader-member exchange relationships (Hackett et al., 2018). Section 6.6 in Chapter Six sheds more light on the potential research contributions of this study. The following section outlines the research hypotheses.

2.10 Research Hypotheses

Based on previous research, this study aims to test the structure outlined in Chapter One. More specifically, its goal is to learn more about the link between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour, as well as the potential mediating role of transformational leadership and LMX, and the moderating role of resistance to change.

The Relationship between Organisational Learning and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Organisational citizenship can be achieved by efficiently improving organisational learning and knowledge. In general, organisations that have a more positive learning environment perform better. An extensive amount of research suggests that organisational learning is an important tool for organisational performance (Fiol & Lyles, 1985). To expand on that, Bennis and Nanus (1985), and Shrivastva (1983), argue that day-to-day learning should be initiated to enable a company to respond to future challenges and opportunities. Hurley and Hult (1998) claim that organisations with a broad sense of a learning culture perform better in every way. Through organisational learning, the personal capacities, knowledge, and talents of employees, which are required for both their job and the organisation's mission and aims, are thought to have a significant impact on organisational citizenship behaviour (Yeo, 2013). To achieve this, organisational learning must be aligned with the firm's strategy. In other words, the organisation's vision and goals are entirely dependent on the followers' ability to put what they have learned during the learning process into practice and monitor whether it's assisting the company in achieving its goals.

H1: Organisational learning positively affects organisational citizenship behaviour.

The Connection between Transformational Leadership and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Transformational Leadership (TFL) is thought to have a positive impact on employees by improving organisational citizenship behaviour (Boerner et al., 2007). It assists employees to increase trust in their leaders, which benefits both job satisfaction and performance. Intellectual thought is also captured through transformational leadership. Put simply, it encourages learning and innovation, resulting in increased overall performance (Senge et al. 1994: Argyris and Schon 1996; Glynn 1996; Hurley and Hult 1998). As a result, that the following can be suggested:

H2: A transformational Leadership style will positively affect organisational learning.

H3: A transformational leadership style is positively related to organisational citizenship behaviour.

The Relationship between Transformational Leadership based on Organisational Learning and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour.

The term "mediate" refers to something that acts as a link between two parties. This study's hypothesis claims that transformational leadership mediates the relationship between organisational learning and citizenship behaviour. Therefore, these are the independent and dependent variables, respectively. In other words, the research hypotheses show that when leading large groups of people, using a transformational leadership style can boost the positive influence of organisational learning on overall organisational citizenship behaviour in Nigerian transportation businesses. Leadership has the potential to have a positive impact on the development of an organisational culture that fosters organisational learning or learning capacities in general (Carmeli & Sheafer, 2008; Berson et al., 2006). Previous empirical research strongly supports argument that transformational leadership plays a positive role in fostering the development of an organisational culture that values organisational learning (Garcia-Morales, et al., 2011).

It has also been suggested that the type of leadership style used by firm executives has a significant impact on the quality and effectiveness of organisational learning (Vera and Crossan, 2004). Vera and Crossan (2004), for example, said that using a transformational leadership style often encourages generative learning, whereas using a transactional leadership style encourages adaptive learning. Thus, the impact of leadership style on organisational learning, which has been shown to improve organisational citizenship behaviours (Kim & Park, 2019), suggests that transformational leadership plays a mediating function. Hence:

H4: Transformational leadership mediates the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour.

H6: Leader-member exchange mediates the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour.

The Relationship between Resistance to Change, Transformational Leadership and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour.

The moderating variable in this hypothesis is resistance to change (RTC). The dependent variable is organisational citizenship behaviour, and the mediating factors are transformational leadership and leader-member exchange. This illustrates how resistance to change can be addressed through leadership style to create desirable organisational citizenship behaviour. Resistance to change is an impediment or roadblock that leaders must overcome to implement change successfully. The act of refusing to cooperate with, or engage in, a change project can be defined as resistance in the context of an organisation. Part of the problem for a change leader is determining the level of, and causes behind, resistance, and then taking steps to mitigate the negative consequences of resistance (Edeh, 2015). Depending on the degree of the change's impact on working habits, resistance might range from minimal to high; the more resistance there is, the more difficult the implementation will be (Brown, 2011).

To assess the actual and perceived effectiveness of a change project, it is equally crucial to recognise resistance as an opportunity for progress and utilise it as part of a feedback loop at all stages of a change endeavour (Brown, 2011). RTC has been one of the most important issues in organisational research (Kwahk & Lee, 2008; Murtagh et al, 2012; Oreg, 2006; Triventi & Trivellato, 2009). This is because it is closely linked to long-term competitive advantages of a firm. Some researchers have suggested that resistance to change, while harmless to an organisation, could be viewed not only as the necessary nature of change but also as potential triggers for positive change. However, mainstream assumptions and perspectives regard resistance to change as harmful in that they can compromise organisational effectiveness and efficiency (Murtagh et al, 2012; Thomas & Hardy, 2011; Edeh, 2015).

H5: Resistance to change moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour.

H7: Resistance to change moderates the relationship between leader-member exchange and organisational citizenship behaviour.
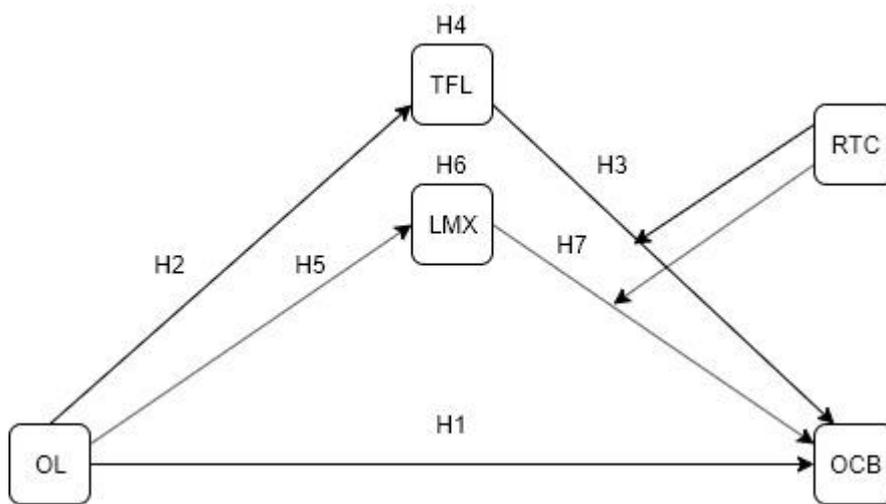
Figure 2. The research framework and hypotheses.

2.11 Summary of the Literature Review

To summarise, this review has offered theoretical and empirical evidence relating to the crucial roles played by transformational leadership and LMX in organisational learning and citizenship behaviour during periods of transformation. These responsibilities include achieving a long-term competitive advantage and strengthening follower collaboration. In a competitive context, learning is also crucial for organisational growth and survival. To investigate the hypothesised associations outlined above, the following chapter discusses the research technique employed in this study (Edeh, 2015).

Chapter Three: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The research method employed in this study outlined and discussed in this chapter. According to Saunders and Lewis (2011), methodology refers to the ideas about how research should be done, the theoretical and philosophical assumptions that research is built on, as well as the implications of these views for the method or processes utilised. To obtain a comprehensive collection of evidence, this study uses a positivist paradigm and a quantitative research technique using a single case study design (Yin, 2014). The debate follows the 'research onion' method (Figure 3.1), which depicts the research procedures and decisions, in succession from the surface to the centre (Edeh, 2015).
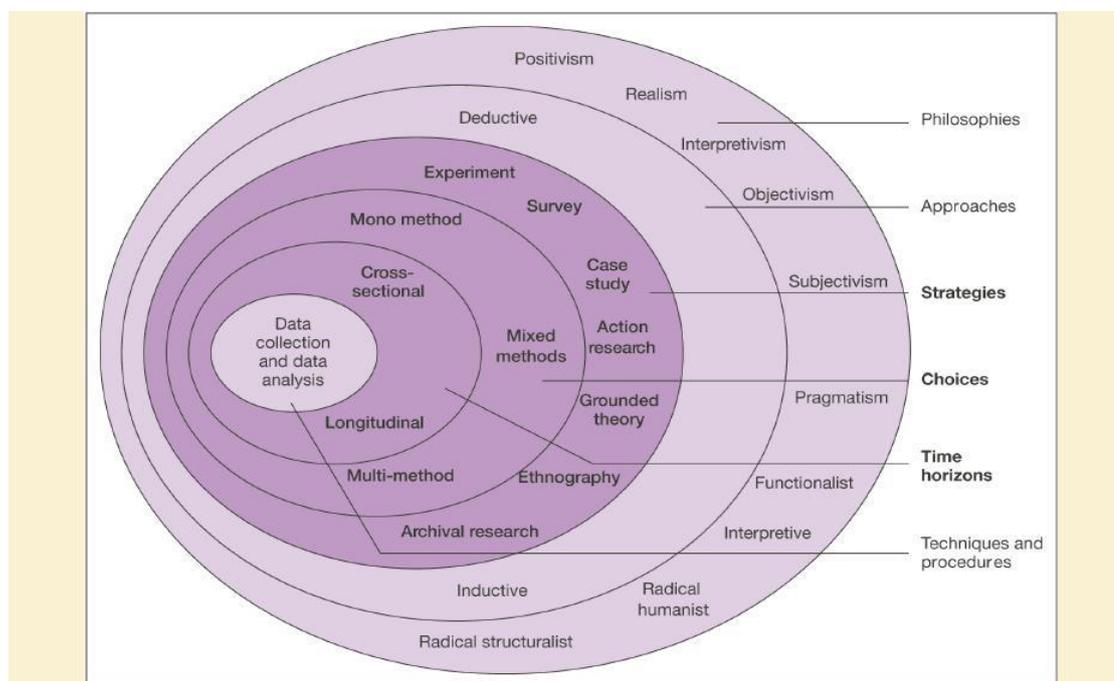
Figure 3. Research Onion

Source: Saunders & Lewis (2011).

The structure of this chapter is presented as follows. First, the research philosophy is outlined. Second, the study approach is explained. Third, the research methodologyis put forward, including information regarding sampling techniques, data collection instruments, reliability, and validity. Finally, ethical issues and potential limitations associated with this research are discussed (Edeh, 2015).

Table 2 below sets out alternative choices for each layer of the research onion (see Figure 3). The choices adopted in this study are emboldened for clarity.

Table 2. The Layers of the research onion

Layer	Approaches
Research philosophies	**Positivism**, realism, interpretivism, pragmatism.
Research approaches	**Deductive**, inductive.
Research strategies	Experiment, **survey**, case study, action research Grounded theory, ethnography, archival research.
Time horizons	**Cross-sectional**, Longitudinal.
Techniques and procedures	**Data collection and data analysis.**

Source: Saunders & Lewis (2011: 108)

3.2 Research Philosophy

The term 'research philosophy' or 'research paradigm' refers to the ways in which people think about research. Kuhn (1970) was the first to propose the concept of paradigms. A paradigm can best be described as a method of thinking that includes basic assumptions, questions, and research methods. The importance of a "fundamental direction to theory and research," was stressed by Neuman (2003: 70). According to Guba and Lincoln (2005), a research paradigm is a fundamental set of beliefs that govern behaviour from four perspectives: ontology, epistemology, axiology, and methodology. A paradigm is a collection of fundamental convictions or concepts that represents a point of view (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). The study of beliefs about the nature of 'reality,' whether singular and objective or multiple and subjective, is known as ontology. According to Burrell and Morgan (1979), epistemology is concerned with three major aspects of what constitutes acceptable knowledge in a particular field: positivism, interpretivism, and realism. It looks analyses the nature of knowledge and what constitutes acceptable knowledge in a given field. Axiology investigates value judgements (Saunders & Lewis, 2011).

According to Johnson and Clark (2006), an essential challenge in research philosophy is not whether our exploration should be philosophically informed, but how we reflect on and justify our philosophical conclusions in comparison to the options we may have taken. There are several different research philosophies that can be applied to research. These include pragmatism, interpretivism, realism, and positivism. According to the pragmatist, a crucial predictor of a researcher's epistemology, ontology, and axiology, is positivism. Pragmatism is instinctively engaging, according to Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), in part because it avoids the researcher participating in what they view to be rather futile open arguments about ideas like truth and reality. For example, positive, critical, phenomenological, constructivist, interpretive, feminist, and post-modern views are all used in organisational research.

According to Sarantakos (1998), positivism, sometimes known as the "scientific approach," is the oldest scientific doctrine (Sekaran, 2003). Furthermore, according to Saunders et al. (2009), this paradigm has a long history in management and business research. For individuals who work under this paradigm, the world is seen as 'mathematically drafted'. This is based on the belief that mathematics provides a guarantee of precision.

The positivist paradigm of social reality research is based on August Comte's philosophical beliefs, which emphasise observation and reason as tools for understanding human behaviour. Positivism is an epistemological viewpoint that encourages the use of natural scientific methods to study social reality and beyond. Positivism is a philosophy of knowing based on the belief that only factual information obtained from perception, including measurement, is reliable. "As a philosophy, positivism is in accordance with the empiricist view that knowledge comes from human experience. It has an atomistic, ontological perspective of the world as involving discrete, observable elements and events that interact in an observable, decided and consistent way" (Collins, 2010: 38).

A normative (positivist) discourse assumes an increase in enlightenment, rationalisation, and control, with an emphasis on codification, demonstrating co-variation and causal links by hypothesis testing, cumulative evidence, and nomothetic rules (Buchanan & Bryman, 2009). Overall, positivism allows the researcher to think like a scientist, searching for objective facts and testing theories with deductive reasoning. This is backed by an objectivist or realist ontology, which entails using measurement, correlation, statistical reasoning, and variable verification to explain why things happen (Creswell, 2003; Punch, 2005).

The interpretive social constructivist paradigm is based on the belief that, "Organising entails attempts to create a meaningful and predictable order out of a tangled environment" (Hernes, 2014: 14). Using inductive reasoning or a theory-based method, interpretivism allows the researcher to operate as a detective in the search for subjective knowledge. This is supported by a subjectivist ontology, which assumes that people work together to understand how and why things happen, as well as to deduce meanings and behaviours. On that note, the interpretative (constructivist and phenomenological) approach views sense-makers as active participants and co-creators of social systems and employs hermeneutic or ethnographic methodologies to establish meanings based on social and organisational behaviours (Buchanan & Bryman, 2009: 4). Interpretivism is commonly referred to as a "qualitative paradigm" (Collis & Hussey, 2003). There are some facts or experiences that can not be expressed numerically (Berg, 1995). Interpretivists argue that what we call "reality" is a subjective concept.

Conversely, realism is a philosophical stance connected to scientific inquiry. According to the realist school of thought, reality exists apart from intellect. Contrary to positivism, realism is a branch of epistemology that adopts a scientific method for knowledge acquisition and maintains that there is a reality that is untouched by human beliefs and thoughts. Overall, positivists and realists share objective perspectives on the world. As a result, researchers are unable to manipulate informants' emotions in order to produce unbiased results (Saunders et al., 2009). The main distinction between positivism and realism, is that some realists (critical realists) may interpret acquired facts in light of social conditioning (such as cultural experiences and world views), whereas positivists do not include their own interpretation in the research. Interpretivists however, have subjective ideas on the universe and are part of the research (Edeh, 2016).

This study examines the mediating role of transformational leadership and leader-member exchange on organisational learning and citizenship behaviour within a developing and changing group of Nigerian road transport companies, using a quantitative research method based on the positivist paradigm. The philosophical assumptions that support the research will be clarified in the following sub-sections (Edeh, 2016).

3.2.1 Ontological Standpoint

This study's ontological perspective is Objectivism. Objectivism is a philosophical stance that holds that social phenomena and their meanings exist apart from social actors. "The researcher is independent of and neither affects nor is affected by the subject of the inquiry," according to this theory (Remenyi et al., 1998: 33).

It is expected that this study's variables have observable and measurable relationships that are unaffected by the researcher's actions and interpretations, and that those patterns can be discovered and explained. This viewpoint will influence the research's epistemology and technique.

3.2.2 Epistemological Standpoint

TFL, LMX, OL, and OCB are realist phenomena that follow laws of behaviour, allowing for generalisation, according to the positivist epistemological presupposition. With resistance to change as the moderating variable, the study aims to investigate the mediating role of TFL and LMX on OL, RTC, and OCB. Using knowledge of transformational leadership, leader-member exchange, organizational learning, resistance to change, and organisational citizenship behaviour, this thesis seeks to find solutions or answers to the research questions. It will contribute to the body of knowledge by analysing the dyadic relationship between leaders and their followers, particularly in changing environments. Human nature, interactions, and

connections are operationalised and examined in this study, and human behaviour is considered transformative (Morgan & Smircish, 1980). Using the hypothetico-deductive model, epistemology tries to describe observed phenomena (Trochim, 2002), believing that trustworthy and legitimate knowledge is formed through empirical hypothesis testing, scientific methods, and minimising researcher value impact. Therefore, psychometric instruments that are objective will be used (Edeh, 2016).

3.2.3 Methodological Standpoint

The approach outlined above help to establish the research framework. Nomotheism, outlined by Buchanan & Bryman (2009), is the methodological option utilised within this study. Nomotheism employs instruments, personality tests, and statistical measures, as specified in the following sections, with a realist ontology and positivist epistemology. The following section will discuss the ethical implications associated with this research.

3.3 Research Ethics

It is appropriate for the researcher to carefully observe the notion of autonomy as a part of research ethics (Reynolds & Ceranic, 2007). As a result, according to Reynolds and Ceranic (2007), the researcher should provide each possible research survey respondent enough time, freedom, and free will to decide whether to participate in the actual research survey.

Therefore, to address the issue of informed consent, the researcher made a point of explaining the study's principal goal to each potential research survey respondent. Furthermore, although obtaining signed informed permission from each research survey respondent was not always possible (De Vaus, 2002), this study took all completed research survey questionnaires as de facto evidence that the research survey respondents willingly agreed to participate in this study. Instead of asking each research survey respondent to sign an informed consent form, the research survey questionnaire included a notation stating that completion of the research survey questionnaire automatically assumed to the consent of the participant.

The research survey questionnaire did not ask for the research survey respondents' name, postal address, e-mail address, or any other personal information that could directly or indirectly reveal the respondent's identities to the public, in accordance with the principle of confidentiality. As a result, demographic information was not necessary.

3.4 Research Approach

A research project can be designed using two basic methods. First, the deductive approach is a highly structured method of evaluating hypotheses through the collection of quantitative data. Second, the inductive approach is used to create hypotheses through evaluating qualitative

evidence (Saunders & Lewis, 2011). This study adopts a deductive approach and emphasises the importance of facts. This approach requires the researcher to take on the role of an objective analyst, making limited inferences regarding data that has been collected in a seemingly value-free manner. A deductive strategy entails, "developing hypotheses based on existing theory and then designing a research plan to test the hypothesis" (Wilson, 2014: 7). The deductive approach aims to elucidate causal links between variables, and concepts must be operationalised in a way that allows for quantitative measurement of facts (Edeh, 2015).

The research processes in this study are constructed using a deductive theory from a variety of perspectives (Table 3), and depicts the study's research process. The goal is to determine whether there are any causal links between variables. Relationships between TFL, LMX, OL, RTC, and OCB are postulated based on existing theories. To state the linkages between the dependent variable (OCB) and independent variable (OL), mediating variables (TFL) and (LMX), and moderating variable (RTC) (deductive process), a set of hypotheses have been created. Quantitative research methodologies will be used to obtain quantitative data to test the association between variables (deductive processes 2 and 3). Other variables, such as TFL, may influence LMX, according to the data collecting and processing methods. As a result, the original theory will be affirmed or amended based on the examination of the obtained evidence (deductive processes 4 and 5) (Edeh, 2015).

Table 3. Deductive processes of this study

Deductive processes	This research study
Deducing a hypothesis from theory (Process 1)	All the hypotheses (H1-H7)
Expressing the hypothesis in operational terms. Testing this operational hypothesis (Process 2 & 3)	Quantitative data collected by self-completion questionnaires (shown in section 3.4)
Examining the specific outcomes of inquiry	………………………………………………………….
Modifying (or not) the theory (Process 4 & 5)	………………………………………………………….

Source: Robson (2002)

3.5 Data and Methods

This section explains the study's research techniques and design. This research is primarily positivist, implementing a deductive approach and quantitative methodology, in which hypotheses are formed based on existing theories and then empirically tested. The relative convenience, low cost, and analytical and predictive capacity that can be gained through statistical analysis are all major advantages of gathering data using quantitative approaches. The meaning of the theoretical notions TFL, LMX, OL, RTC, and OCB in their current forms will be

assessed and evaluated using relevant psychometric instruments inside the change environment of a group of transportation businesses. In terms of assumptions, strategy, and methodologies, Table 4 below indicates how such studies differs from qualitative research (Edeh, 2015).

Table 4. Quantitative research vs. qualitative research

Quantitative		Qualitative
Positivist	**Research philosophy**	Interpretivists
Deductive	**Research approach**	Inductive
Scientific experiment	**Data and methods**	Action research Case study Ethnographic research Grounded theory research

Saunders & Lewis (2011).

A questionnaire was utilised to obtain the necessary data. The term questionnaire is, "a general term to involve all techniques of data collection in which a person is asked to respond to the same set of questions in a predetermined order" (Saunders & Lewis 2011: 360). Both descriptive and explanatory researches can use questionnaires. This strategy enables the researcher to explore and explain cause-and-effect relationships among the variables in the current study. A questionnaire was used because of its capability to accommodate a large sample size, so that advanced statistical techniques could be used. Hair et al. (2003: 356) also claim that using questionnaires in conjunction with quantitative designs provides researchers with the ability "of tapping into factors and relationships not directly measurable".

Personal surveys, telephone surveys, self-administered surveys, and web-based surveys are all examples of how the questionnaire can be implemented to collect data. Data collection methods are determined by the resources available and how well the strategy can create the desired information (Peterson, 2000).

In the transportation industry, ABC, God is Good Motors, Gold International Transport Nigeria Limited, Ekeson & Sons and Ifesinachi transportation corporations were chosen as the research setting. ABC, God is Good Motors, Gold International Transport Nigeria Limited, Ekeson & Sons and Ifesinachi was chosen because they are the top Nigeria's most successful transportation companies. The data for this investigation was gathered using a survey conducted by personally delivering the questionnaire. The following sections will address how the data was analysed and how the research hypotheses were statistically tested (Edeh, 2015).

Surveys are commonly used in business and management research studies to collect and analyse quantitative data to answer who, what, where, how much, and how many questions (Collis &

Hussey, 2009; Sekaran, 2003; Rosendaal, 2009). Surveys allow for the collection of a large amount of data. The survey approach was used in this research because it allows for a large sample size to be collected at a reasonable cost while also ensuring that the samples are representative. In comparison, a poll for example is more expensive and less representative because some people may refuse to participate. However, due to a paucity of data in the fields of TFL, LMX, OL, OCB, and RTC, most of the hypotheses cannot be answered using secondary data. There has, for example, been no previous research on the transformational leadership style of ABC, God is Good Motors, Gold International Transport Nigeria Limited, Ekeson & Sons, Ifesinachi, and comparable organisations in the Nigerian transportation sector. As a result, survey data was required to obtain primary data.

This study used a quantitative questionnaire because the research objectives necessitated measuring variables and drawing conclusions based on numerical data (Hair et al., 2011). A questionnaire was designed as part of the data collection process to allow the researcher to capture the generalised responses of all research participants, particularly with regard to the research hypotheses presented above, including the research survey respondents' perceptions of specific aspects of the transportation services offered by ABC, God is Good Motors, Gold International Transport Nigeria Limited, Ekeson & Sons and Ifesinachi transportation companies that need to be improved and strategic ways in which public transportation can be improved.

The following sections explain the methodology used to conduct the survey in further detail. This includes details regarding time horizons, target population, sampling design, sample size, data collection instruments, data collection schedule, and data analysis.

3.6 Time Horizons

Some investigations may be limited by time because of the study time plan, while others are not. According to the literature, these are two types of research plan namely, cross-sectional and longitudinal studies. Cross-sectional studies look at a specific occurrence at a specific point in time, whereas longitudinal studies look at change and progression over time (Adams & Schvaneveldt, 1991). Cross-sectional studies, according to Robson (2011), employ the survey approach to analyse relationships between diverse factors, whereas longitudinal studies use a series of snapshots of events over time. Thietart (2001:332) also stated that, "longitudinal analyses study the development of a phenomenon over the course of time. These developments can concern organisations, individuals, concepts or variables; they are the origin of the data to be analysed." A cross-sectional time horizon was utilised in this research study because it used a survey to evaluate the link between different components. The questionnaires were issued and collected by hand for all research targets (followers of Nigerian road transport companies)

in their different terminals and cities. Thus, the research simultaneously surveyed TFL, LMX, OL, OCB, and RTC among followers.

3.7 Population and Sampling

The entire group of instances from which a sample is taken is referred to as the population (Saunders & Lewis, 2011). In light of the fact this study focuses on Nigerian road transport businesses, all samples were obtained from their terminals throughout the country. It was impossible to include all potential participants in this study due to time and budget restrictions. Therefore, data from followers was collected using a sampling approaches.

3.7.1 Target Population and Sampling

In order to engage in the real research study, a minimum of 250 research survey respondents, including followers, were invited to participate. People working in one of five Nigerian road transport companies, regardless of age, nationality, or ethnic background, were considered qualified research survey respondents. To make it easier to find qualified research survey respondents, prospective respondents were approached in the vicinity of the terminals of various road transport companies. Following a visit to one transportation company terminals, the researcher carefully observed and approached only those employees required for the research (i.e., those eager to participate in the real research survey). Convenience sampling was used, meaning participants were chosen based on their availability and willingness to participate. Convenience sampling is arguably the simplest sampling technique. A sampling frame is a list of all possible elements or subjects from which a research sample could be chosen (Zikmund, 2003: 373). The sample frame for this study was made up of employees of ABC, God is Good Motors, Gold International Transport Company Nigeria Limited, Ekeson & Sons and Ifesinachi Transport in Nigeria. In sum, this research study employed a non-probability sampling technique while adopting a convenience sampling style.

3.7.2 Response Rate

Response rate is an important consideration when conducting a questionnaire survey. To limit the possibility of non-response bias and ensure that the sample is representative, a researcher must acquire the highest response rate possible (Grove & Peytcheva, 2008). A cover letter was included alongside the questionnaire which described the study's goals and significance. The cover letter also outlined the selection criteria for respondents, emphasised confidentiality, and highlighted the project's potential benefits to the respondent. The response rate and the sampling characteristics are discussed in more detail in section 4.1.1 of this thesis.

3.7.3 Questionnaire Design

Designing a questionnaire is the process in which essential information is obtained from respondents. The questionnaire should be straightforward, concise, dependable, and valid (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996; Punch, 1998; Malhotra & Briks, 2003; Neuman, 2006). A good questionnaire, according to Zikmund (2003), should have two characteristics: pertinence and accuracy. Pertinence indicates that no insufficient data is gathered and that all necessary data to solve the research challenge is gathered. The accuracy of a questionnaire refers to the validity and reliability of the data collected. Neuman (2006: 278) reported that the researcher should pay particular attention when writing survey questions to avoid jargon and technical terms, eliminate ambiguity in questions that may lead to confusion, avoid leading and loaded questions, and avoid unbalanced responses. Scholarly contributions to the enhancement of questionnaire design maintain that the information required should be clear when designing a survey, that care should be taken in the wording of the questions, and that the questionnaire should be kept simple.

3.8 Research Instruments

The factors in this study were measured using various well-known instruments or scales, such as the LMX7 and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). However, reliability was incorporated as a significant consideration in the selection of instruments.

3.8.1 Reliability

The term 'reliability' refers to the degree to which the data gathering techniques or analytic procedures selected will produce consistent results (Easterby-Smith et al. 2008). It also refers to the extent to which other researchers may make comparable discoveries or reach similar conclusions, as well as the transparency with which the raw data was interpreted. Cronbach's alpha, which runs from zero to one, is frequently used to assess reliability (Nunally & Bernstein, 1994). When Cronbach's alpha is more than .7, as indicated in Table 5 below, the reliability is satisfactory. The instruments used to measure transformational leadership style, including the LMX, RTC, OL, and OCB, will be identified and their internal consistency will be described in the following sections. Table 6 below displays the reliability coefficients of the variables.

Table 5. Internal consistency of Cronbach's alpha

Cronbach's alpha	Internal consistency
$\alpha \geq .9$	Excellent
$.9 > \alpha \geq .8$	Good
$.8 > \alpha \geq .7$	Acceptable
$.7 > \alpha \geq .6$	Questionable

.6 > α ≥ .5	Poor
.5 > α	Unacceptable

Source: George & Mallery (2003)

Table 6. Reliability Coefficients of the variables.

Name of the variable	Reliability Coefficient
Leader-Member Exchange	0.769
Transformational Leadership	0.856
Organisational Learning	0.903
Resistance to Change	0.837
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	0.836

3.8.2 LMX 7

To measure LMX with seven components, the LMX 7 was chosen (Huang et al., 2008; Hooper & Martin, 2008). On a five-point Likert scale ranging from one to five, where one equals "rarely" and five equals "very often," respondents must answer the seven items. Different authors reported reliability coefficients for LMX ranging from 0.78 to 0.93. (Kacmar et al, 2007; Huang et al 2008; Hooper & Martin, 2008; Golden & Veiga, 2008). The LMX reliability statistic was satisfactory for this study, as shown in table 7 below.

Table 7. Reliability Statistics of Leader-Member Exchange.

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.769	6

3.8.3 TFL

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) form 5X, which includes twenty components, is used to assess TFL (Bass, 1985). TFL reliability coefficients ranged from 0.85 to 0.91 according to different sources (McColl-Kennedy & Anderson, 2002; Hult et al., 2000; Podsakoff et al., 1996).

As a result of the substantial correlations among the four dimensions of TFL, it was measured as a single construct for the purposes of this study. The correlations associated with TFL are seen in Table 8 below. The four dimensions of TFL are as follows: II; Idealised Influence; IM: Inspirational Motivation; IS: Intellectual Stimulation; and IC: Individualised Consideration.

Table 8. Correlations among Transformational Leadership's Four Dimensions.

		TFL_II	TFL_IM	TFL_IS	TFL_IC
TFL_II	Pearson Correlation	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)				
	N	250			
TFL_IM	Pearson Correlation	.400**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000			
	N	250	250		
TFL_IS	Pearson Correlation	.368**	.031	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.628		
	N	250	250		
TFL_IC	Pearson Correlation	.504**	.531**	.304**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	250	250	250	

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The construct's reliability was determined using Cronbach's alpha. The reliability of the TFL construct has a high score, as seen in Table 9 below.

Table 9. Reliability Statistics of Transformational Leadership Four Dimensions.

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.808	13

3.8.4 OL

On a five-point Likert scale, the DLOQ was measured using seven dimensions and twenty-one items (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). The abbreviated 21-item DLOQ was validated in terms of the internal consistency of the item using data collected in Nigerian road transport industries. The correlation results of OL against seven dimensions is presented in Tables 9 and 10 below. They also shows the reliability statistics. The full abbreviations of the seven dimensions of organisational learning are as follows; CL: Continuous Learning; DI: Dialogue and Inquiry; TL: Team Learning; ES: Embedded System; E: Empowerment; SC: System Connection; SL: Strategic Leadership.

Table 10. Correlations for Organisational Learning's Seven Dimensions.

		OL_CL	OL_DI	OL_TL	OL_ES	OL_E	OL_SC	OL_SL
OL_CL	Pearson Correlation	1						
	Sig. (2-tailed)							
	N	250						
OL_DI	Pearson Correlation	.138*	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.029						
	N	250	250					
OL_TL	Pearson Correlation	.177**	.182**	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.005	.004					
	N	250	250	250				
OL_ES	Pearson Correlation	-.025	.323**	.441**	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.694	.000	.000				
	N	250	250	250	250			
OL_E	Pearson Correlation	.168**	.172**	.328**	.240**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.008	.007	.000	.000			
	N	250	250	250	250	250		
OL_SC	Pearson Correlation	.133**	.107**	.484**	.299**	.193**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.036	.092	.000	.000	.002		
	N	250	250	250	250	250	250	
OL_SL	Pearson Correlation	.062	-.089	.444**	.142*	.371**	.170**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.332	.159	.000	.000	.000	.007	
	N	250	250	250	250	250	250	250

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 11. Reliability Statistics of Organisational Learning.

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.827	14

3.8.5 RTC

The resistance to change questionnaire used in this study was developed by Shaul Oreg (2006). The RTC questionnaire has eighteen items on a six-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree) and is utilised in three dimensions. In Table 12, the RTC correlation result with three dimensions is provided. The full abbreviations of the three dimensions of RTC are as follows; CD: Cognitive Dimension; Affective Dimension; Behavioural Dimension.

Table 12. Correlations for Resistance to Change.

		RTC_CD	RTC_AD	RTC_BD
RTC_CD	Pearson Correlation	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)			
	N	250		
RTC_AD	Pearson Correlation	.340**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		
	N	250	250	
RTC_BD	Pearson Correlation	.175**	.184**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.006	.004	
	N	250	250	250

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The reliability of RTC was also investigated, with the results shown in Table 13 below.

Table 13. Reliability Statistics of Resistance to Change.

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.838	13

3.8.6 OCB

Podsakoff et al. (1999) established the five-factor model of organisational citizenship behaviour based on Organ's (1988) framework (this is shown in questionnaire 3). There are twenty-four parts to this instrument. The internal consistency of OCBs, according to Podsakoff et al. (1999), is .84. The scale for evaluating the five dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour was developed in a similar way to the transformational leadership scales. Items for each of the

constructs were created using the definitions from Chapter Two. Respondents were given definitions for each of the five dimensions and asked to classify each item into the relevant citizenship behaviour category, as well as to flag any item that did not meet any of the conceptual criteria in their opinion. The questionnaire used for organisational citizenship behaviour in this thesis was derived from Podsakoff et al. (1990) is located in the appendix. All constructs in this study were assessed using five-point Likert scales ranging from (1) Strongly Disagree to (5) Strongly Agree. The correlations between the five dimensions of organisational citizenship behaviour are shown in Table 14 below. The full meaning of the abbreviation dimensions of OCB are as follows; CON: Conscientiousness; S: Sportsmanship; CV: Civic Virtue; C: Courtesy; A: Altruism.

Table 14. Correlations for Organisational Citizenship Behaviour.

		OCB_CON	OCB_S	OCB_CV	OCB_C	OCB_A
OCB_CON	Pearson Correlation	1				
	Sig.(2-tailed)					
	N	250				
OCB_S	Pearson Correlation	.200**	1			
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.001				
	N	250	250			
OCB_CV	Pearson Correlation	.229**	.692**	1		
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.000	.000			
	N	250	250	250		
OCB_C	Pearson Correlation	.204**	-.130*	-.022	1	
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.001	.039	.734		
	N	250	250	250	250	
OCB_A	Pearson Correlation	.261**	.585**	.601**	-.061	1

	Sig.(2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.340	
	N	250	250	250	250	250

**. Correlation is Significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is Significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

The reliability coefficient of organisational citizenship behaviour is shown in Table 15 below.

Table 15. Reliability Statistics of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour.

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.844	16

3.8.7 Validity

Validity, according to Bernard (2000), is "the accuracy and trustworthiness of instruments" (2000: 46). Validity is important in research investigations because it determines if the obtained data accurately reflects the research goals (Collis & Hussey, 2009). As a result, it is crucial to assess the validity of this research and ensure that the research findings are useful.

According to Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995), the seven-item LMX is the most important measure of LMX. TFL's construct validity has also been investigated in a number of research studies. The validity of the measures was tested using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaires. Each dimension's percentage of total variance was calculated using confirmatory factor analysis with varimax rotation and determined that within the selection condition, the eigenvalue should be less than one to assess construct validity. The percentage of total variation explained was greater than fifty percent, indicating that the construct validity of the survey instrument was satisfactory (Hair et al., 2010). The degree of construct composite reliability is acceptable because the reliability score is more than 0.90 (Pavlou & Gefen, 2005).

3.9 Pilot Study

A pilot study is a quick test run of the main study carried out before research begins. This enables the researcher to address any flaws or potential issues with the instrument or data gathering technique. According to Boudreau et al. (2001), a pilot study is a quick preliminary survey and is essential for foreseeing problems with the research tools or instruments. A pilot study was carried out with participants selected from the different road transport businesses (ABC, Gold International Transport Company Nigeria Limited, God is Good Motors, Ekeson & Sons, and Ifesinachi Transport Company) in Nigeria, reflecting the companies utilised in this research study before the main data for this research was collected. These pilot participants were not included

in the main research study to avoid any bias due to prior familiarity with the survey. Respondents who took part in the pilot study completed the questionnaire and provided feedback to the researcher on the clarity and accessibility of the questions being asked. The results of the pilot study were used to alter the final survey questions so that they more closely matched the goals and objectives of the study. One of the major issues highlighted in the pilot feedback was that the survey questions administered contained too many items, thereby requiring more concentration, effort and time to complete than had been originally expected by the researcher. Upon reassessment of the survey questions, it was noticed that some of the questions in the survey meant that some unnecessary data was collected. For example, initially the researcher collected data on full range of leadership instead of only transformational leadership questions. However, the pilot study enabled the researcher to take out the questions that were not relevant to the research aims. Hence questions on laissez-faire leadership and transactional leadership were removed from the survey. In addition, based on participant feedback, the researcher amended errors identified in the questionnaire in terms of instruction clarity and typing errors. As mentioned above, the respondents from the pilot study were employed as a test group and were therefore excluded from the final research participant pool. The following section focuses on the fieldwork, including the distribution of the questionnaires.

3.10 Distribution of the Questionnaires

The relative efficiency with which questionnaires can be distributed by hand, mail, or electronically is a benefit. The questionnaires were physically given and collected. This approach has a number of benefits, including the ability of the researcher to be available to answer questions, clear up misunderstandings, and encourage participants to complete the survey.

The researcher approached the followers of the road transportation businesses and conveyed the significance of the study to them. They then gave their permission to continue with the data collection. The next section will detail data analysis methods employed in this research.

3.11 Data Analysis Methods

The major goals of data analysis, according to Sekaran (2003), are "getting a feel for the data, testing the goodness of data, and verifying the hypotheses developed for the research" (p. 306). The quantitative data was analysed using SPSS v3 and Amos v3. The numerous statistical techniques that were employed in the current investigation will be discussed in the following sub-sections.

3.11.1 Descriptive and Preliminary Statistics

The following descriptive statistics were employed.

First, data collected from the survey respondents were examined, coded and prepared for analysis. Data analysis, according to Levy (2006), includes carrying out pre-analysis data screening to check the accuracy of the data obtained, dealing with missing data issues, and addressing extreme situations or outliers including dealing with linearity and homoscedasticity, normality, multicollinearity and non-response bias tests.

Second, descriptive statistical analysis techniques were used to display and summarize the data as well as define variances for each individual variable in the study so that they could be more easily understood. The mode, mean, range, standard deviation, and variance were among the descriptive statistics utilised, as were diagrams for graphic representation of data.

3.11.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to investigate the underlying factor structure of all the variables analysed, including transformational leadership, leader-member exchange, organisational learning, resistance to change, and organisational citizenship behaviour. An unrelated factor structure was developed by estimating the mean value of each of the discovered components. Following that, each of the EFA-identified factor structures was subjected to confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

3.11.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Confirmatory factor analysis is a technique used to extract latent factors from a set of observed variables. Therefore, the final step was to look at a structural model that included the CFA's proven factor structure. The research instrument was evaluated and validated with the main data using confirmatory factor analysis. CFA examines whether the number of factors and the loading of the indicator variables on them are consistent with theory-based expectations. The primary goal at this stage was to use hypothesis testing to evaluate the proposed relationships between organisational learning (independent variable), transformational leadership, leader-member exchange (mediating variables), resistance to change (moderating variable), and organisational citizenship behaviour (dependent variable).

3.11.4 PROCESS Using SPSS

PROCESS from SPSS was used to evaluate the mediating role of transformational leadership and leader-member exchange (the two leadership styles in this current research study) on organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour. Also, the moderating effects of resistance to change were equally evaluated between the two leadership styles (transformational leadership and leader-member exchange) and organisational citizenship behaviour. The following section will shed more light on mediation, moderation, moderated mediation, and mediated moderation.

3.12 Moderated Mediation and Mediated Moderation

The idea of moderation is credited to the Fisherian tradition of testing for mean differences across groups (Fisher, 1935). This entails looking at how the size of group differences can change based on the value of a third variable that moderates the relationship. The correlational or 'associationist' tradition, which began with Galton in 1869, is attributed with mediation.

From Warren's (1920) and Wright's (1921) early work through the middle of the twentieth century, the notion and terminology of mediation evolved, culminating in Baron and Kenny's (1986) paper. The direction and/or strength of the link between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or criterion variable is influenced by a moderating variable (Jose, 2013). In contrast, a mediating variable "accounts for the relationship between the predictor and the criteria," as well as the differences between them ("while moderator variables show when particular effects occur") (Jose, 2013: 28). Mediation seeks to identify the intermediate process that leads from the manipulated independent variable to the outcome or dependent variable, whereas moderation is concerned with the factors that influence the strength or direction of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables.

3.12.1 What is Moderation?

Statistical moderation is the specification of a variable or variables whose variation defines the conditions under which a certain magnitude of an effect occurs. As a result, the nature of the predictor's impact on the criterion varies depending on the level or value of the moderator variable (Holmbeck, 1997). Although Baron and Kenny (1986) explain that moderating variables are used when an independent variable has an unexpectedly weak or inconsistent relationship with an outcome variable, many social science studies are concerned with moderation because the findings show 'when' or 'for whom' a variable predicts or affects an outcome variable most strongly. (Edeh, 2015).

3.12.2 Mediation

The designation of a variable or combination of variables that establishes a causal relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable with a recognised influence however, is mediation. This is how the targeted independent variable affects the desired dependent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Mediating variables, in particular, provide insight into why and how specific effects arise. When the causal effect of an independent variable (X), in this case organisational learning, on a dependent variable (Y), in this case organisational citizenship behaviour, is transmitted through a mediator (M), in this case transformational leadership and leader-member exchange, it is known as mediation or an indirect effect. In other words, X: organisational learning influences Y: organisational citizenship behaviour because X

influences M: transformational leadership and LMX, which influences Y: organisational citizenship behaviour (Edeh, 2015).

Mediation hypotheses have traditionally experienced less interest in the field of individual differences than moderation studies, although they can be useful in identifying factors that could be credible moderators for a specific connection (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Furthermore, they can assist in providing a more solid theoretical rationale for the presence of moderation.

3.12.2.1 Simple Mediation

The researcher can always use mediation analysis to investigate how X effects Y. The focus of this study will be on transformational leadership and LMX, two models that only propose a double mediator (M). Figure 4 illustrates the path for basic mediation. The slope coefficient of M regressed on X is a1, while the conditional coefficients of Y regressed on M and X are b1 and c', respectively, when both M and X are employed as simultaneous predictors of Y. The indirect impact is frequently stated as c-c', which is usually similar to a1b1 where c represents the influence of X on Y in the absence of M. (MacKinnon et al., 1995).

$M = a0 + a1X + r$ (1)

$Y = b0 + c'X + b1M + r$ (2)

The regression residual r is employed, as well as the intercept terms a0 and b0. The coefficients a1 and b1 are then used to determine the presence, strength, and importance of X's indirect influence on Y via M.
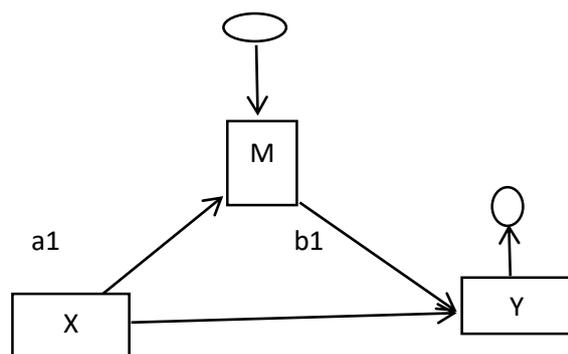
Figure 4. Simple Mediation

3.12.3 Moderated Mediation

In statistics, both moderation and mediation can occur in the same model. The phrase 'moderated mediation' was coined by James and Brett (1984). This model attempts to explain how and when a specific impact occurs (Frone, 1999). Officially, moderated mediation happens when the amount of a variable influences the strength of an indirect impact, or when the degree of a moderator influences mediation interactions (James & Brett, 1984).

Moderated mediation is defined as the definition of a variable or variables whose modification dictates the circumstances in which a mediation effect occurs. To see if there is an improvement in moderated mediation, also known as conditional indirect effects, a multiple group route model is used (Jose, 2013). This happens when an independent variable A's treatment effect on an outcome variable C via a mediator variable B fluctuates depending on the levels of a moderator variable D. The level of D determines whether B has an influence on C (Muller et al., 2005).

3.13 Summary of Methodology

This chapter has examined the research philosophies, strategies, approaches, methodology, time horizons, techniques and procedures, and research ethics used in conducting the study this study. Data cleaning, presentation, and analysis will be discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter Four: Data Cleaning, Presentation, and Data Analysis

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the quantitative analysis of the data from the cross-sectional survey conducted for this study. The quantitative examination encompassed four different stages. First, data was prepared by analysing missing data, outliers, linearity and homoscedasticity, normality, multicollinearity and non-response bias tests. Second, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was used to examine the underlying factor structure of all the variables studied, including transformational leadership, leader-member exchange, organisational learning, resistance to change, and organisational citizenship behaviour. An unrelated factor structure was developed by estimating the mean value of each of the discovered components. Third, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed on each of the EFA-identified factor structures separately. The final step was to examine a structural model with the confirmed factor structure identified in the CFA. The main goal of this stage was to assess the proposed associations between organisational learning (independent variable), transformational leadership, leader-member exchange (mediating variables), resistance to change (moderating variable), and organisational citizenship behaviour (dependent variable) through hypothesis testing. All study hypotheses were confirmed, and the data analysis results produced answers to the research questions presented in Chapter One. The findings of the current study are summarised in the following sections.

4.1 Univariate Analysis

To recognise and determine the characteristics of the research sample, and its distribution across the organisations, univariate analysis was performed. In addition, missing values, outliers, linearity, homoscedasticity, normality, and multicollinearity tests were used to construct a rational context of the distribution and maintain the quality of the dataset, which can impact the quality of multivariate tests. These investigations can also be used to assess the study's sample characteristics and determine whether the research data is suitable for multivariate analyses like exploratory factor analysis (EFA), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and process.

4.1.1 Response Rate and Sample Characteristics

As described in the previous chapter, 300 questionnaires were distributed to followers across various road transport businesses in Nigeria. A total of 250 people responded, for an overall response rate of 83.33%. Table 16 shows the sample response rate.

Table 16. Response Rate.

	Bus company employees	Total
Questionnaires distributed to followers	300	300
Usable questionnaires from followers	250	250
Response rate	83.33%	83.33%

Male participants made up the majority of respondents (73.6%). Table 17 shows the characteristics of the responders. The majority of the respondents (46%) were between the ages of 30 and 41. This might be because followers tend to remain with the company due to high job satisfaction or a high degree of comfort, or because their own values are aligned with those of the company. As a result, the ratio of middle-aged followers in this field is significant because it demonstrates that followers in these companies are likely to remain with them for extended periods of time. The fact that 35% of the employees in the studied organisations had the same level of work experience serves as additional confirmation of this.

Furthermore, the highest percentage of respondents in the sample (35.7%) held a higher national diploma, followed by bachelor's degree (29%), ordinary national diploma (13.5%), and First School Leaving Certificate (15.9%). The reason behind this is that new job requirements are becoming increasingly demanding and companies expect their employees to hold undergraduate degree before applying for the job. That is why the employees are more qualified than expected. Furthermore, among the followers, 88.1% were working full-time, while 11.1% worked part-time. The reason for this is that some employees may work for more than one company. Table 17 shows the descriptive statistics results for the demographic composition of the selected sample.

Table 17. Characteristics of Research Sample (Followers, n=250)

	Construct	Variable Item	Response	Percentage (%)
Followers (n=250)	Gender	Male	184	73.6%
		Female	66	26.4%
	Age	20-30	68	27%
		31-40	116	46%

		41-50	47	19%
		51-60	10	4%
		61 and above	9	3.6%
Education Level		Bachelor	73	29.0%
		Higher National Diploma (HND)	90	35.7%
		Ordinary National Diploma (OND)	34	13.5%
		First School Leaving Certificate (FSLC)	40	15.9%
		West African Examination Council (WAEC)	13	5.2%
Job Position		Assistant Manager	181	71.8%
		Junior Manager	35	13.9%
		Training Personnel	34	13.5%
Official Department		Operations	120	47.6%
		Accounting	40	15.9%
		Sales	39	15.5%
		Maintenance	30	11.9%
		Security	21	8.3%
Types of Job		Part-time	222	88.1%
		Full-time	28	11.1%
Job Experience	Experience in current division/unit	1-10 Years	164	65%
		11-20 Years	64	25%
		21-30 Years	22	9%
		More than 30 years	-	-
	Experience in current organisation	1-10 Years	160	63%
		11-20 Years	64	25%
		21-30 Years	26	10%

		More than 30 years	-	-
		1-10 Years	140	56%
	Total work experience in transport sector	11-20 Years	79	31%
		21-30 Years	31	12%
		More than 30 years	-	-

4.1.2 Assessment of Missing Values

To ensure the accuracy of survey data, it is important to first address any missing data. Handling missing data, according to several scholars (e.g., Gold & Bentler, 2000; Schafer & Graham, 2002), is critical because of the implications for future data analysis and the impact on the depiction of outcomes. In a similar vein, Tabachnick and Fidell (2007: 62) state that due to the significant effect of missing values on the reliability, validity, and generalisability of the data, missing values are a complex part of the data analysis process. According to Hair et al. (2010: 79), the most challenging part of dealing with missing data is determining, "if the amount of missing data is low enough to not affect the results, even if it operates in a non-random manner." When there is a high proportion of missing data in a data set, it is necessary to determine whether the data is missing randomly or in a non-random pattern before picking a technique to correct the missing data. Various researchers (e.g., Hattie, 1985; Gorsuch, 1990; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Hair et al., 2010) suggest that missing data of less than five to ten percent can be regarded low enough not to alter the conclusions and can thus be overlooked. SPSS missing value analysis (MVA) was used to find any missing values in the data set in this cross-sectional study. However, due to diligent observation and examination during the data gathering period, no missing values in the data set were discovered. As a result, the missing value analysis revealed that there were no missing values in the current study.

4.1.3 Assessment of Outliers

A data point that deviates significantly from the distribution's primary pattern is referred to as an outlier (Craig et al., 2017). Outliers are, "observations with a unique mix of attributes recognised as distinctly different from the other observations," according to Hair et al. (2010:62). In most cases, the existence of outliers in a data set indicates a problem. There are different ways in which outliers can appear in a data set, such as observation errors, mistakes in data entry, instrument errors based on layout or instructions, unusual observations that have no explanation and unpredicted events where inimitable observation occurs (Hair et al., 2010: 62-63; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010: 27). The outlier is problematic as it raises an error in analysis

and affects the normality and generalisability of the outcome. Hence, detecting outliers is vital. Outliers can be identified through univariate analysis or multivariate analysis. Within a univariate analysis, outliers can be detected through two basic techniques: Boxplot and five percent Trimmed Mean (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Hair et al., 2010; Pallant, 2010). This study utilised the Boxplot method to reveal few outlier cases (less than 2%) among the variables, which were randomly distributed. According to Cohen et al. (2014: 128) "if outliers are few (less than 1% or 2% of n) and not very extreme, they are probably best left alone". Accordingly, based on the findings of Boxplot analysis, the outliers can be ignored. In addition, the Five Percent Trimmed Mean method was used to conduct a univariate outlier analysis. This method predicts a new mean value by removing the top and bottom five percent of the examples. These examples can be kept in the data file if the original mean value is near to, or extremely similar to, the new trimmed mean value. The current study's analysis of the Five Percent Trimmed Mean shows that all the variables had similar values and hence indicate no serious issues with outliers.

Furthermore, the Mahalanobis distance method can be used to assess multivariate outlier analysis. Mahalanobis distance is, "the distance of a case from the centroid of the remaining cases where the centroid is the point created at the intersection of the means of all variables" (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007: 74). According to Hair et al. (2010: 66-67), "observations having D2/df value exceeding 2.5 in small samples and 3 or 4 in large samples (> 200) can be designated as possible outliers". The current study used organisational citizenship behaviour as a dependent variable and all other variables as independent variables in multiple regression equations to calculate Mahalanobis distance scores. Then, each score was divided by the degrees of freedom. This revealed that there was no issue with multivariate outliers, as all values were less than three. As a result, even though the Boxplot revealed a few outliers, it can be assumed that outliers are very unlikely to be a crucial problem for this study.

4.1.4 Assessment of Normality

The basic assumption in multivariate analysis is that data must have a normal distribution. Normality denotes, "the shape of the data distribution for an individual metric variable and its correspondence to the normal distribution, the benchmark for statistical methods" (Hair et al., 2010: 71). It is crucial to recognise non-normal data distributions, as it can cause inaccurate statistical analysis, which will draw erroneous and unreliable conclusions about reality (Field, 2009). Normality can be assessed on a univariate and/or multivariate level. However, Hair et al. (2010: 71) argue that, in most cases, calculating and determining univariate normality for all variables is adequate, and therefore testing multivariate normality is unnecessary. The severity of a non-normal distribution, according to several studies (e.g., Field, 2009; Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), is determined by two factors: sample size and the shape of the

offending distribution. A small sample size (n 50) can have a significant impact on the outcome, but with a sample size of 200 or more, a small significant deviation from normality can be overlooked. Alternatively, the form of a distribution provides insight into the data set and aids in the selection of the optimal centre measure, such as the mean or median, to represent the data. The shape of the distribution is defined by its possession of symmetry and its peakedness, its skewness or uniformity, which can be measured using skewness and kurtosis statistics. While skewness shows the distribution's centre, kurtosis measures a distribution's general tailedness (the form of a probability distribution) (Meyers et al., 2006: 68).

The results of skewness and kurtosis analysis were used to determine the normality of the data in this study. By generating the z- score for each variable, the importance of skewness and kurtosis was investigated. Since the basic assumption of PROCESS analysis is normal distribution of data (Byrne, 2010), this shows that the data set is normally distributed.

4.1.5 Assessment of Linearity and Homoscedasticity

Prior to structural equation modelling (SEM), the data set needs to be assessed for linearity and homogeneity of variance because SEM cannot be used when the correlation value has nonlinear effects (Hair et al., 2010). The term 'linearity' describes a link between two variables in which a change in one generates a corresponding change in the other (Pallant, 2010). The use of residual p-p plots in SPSS displays a straight-line relationship between the measured variables, which are centred around the linear line.

In accordance with the homoscedasticity assumption, "dependent variable(s) exhibit distinct equal amounts of variation across the range of predictor variable(s)" (Hair et al., 2010: 74). When the linearity assumption is fulfilled, the assumption of homoscedasticity is also met (Ho, 2006: 189). However, to confirm that the data did not substantially deviate from the assumption of homoscedasticity, Levene's Test was used. Levene's test is referred to as "a simple test that works by doing a one-way ANOVA conducted on the deviation scores; that is the absolute difference between each score and the mean of the group from which it came" (Field, 2009: 150). The null hypothesis is rejected when Levene's test yields a significant ($p \le .05$) result, indicating that there is a difference between variables and heterogeneity in the dataset. When Levene's test result is non-significant ($p > .05$), it indicates that the dataset is homogeneous. The results of homoscedasticity for the current investigation are shown in Table 18.

Table 18. Levene's Test for Homoscedasticity

Gender vs. Variables	Levene Statistic	Sig.
Transformational Leadership	.042	.838
Leader-member Exchange	.481	.489

Organisational Learning	7.451	.007
Resistance to Change	2.641	.105
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	1.153	.284
Job Type vs. Variables		
Transformational Leadership	2.355	.097
Leader-member Exchange	6.515	.002
Organisational Learning	10.250	.000
Resistance to Change	2.743	.066
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	3.573	.030
Job Position vs. Variables		
Transformational Leadership	5.569	.004
Leader-member Exchange	.343	.710
Organisational Learning	6.740	.001
Resistance to Change	4.038	.019
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	4.771	.009

While the above table demonstrates that there are a few problems of homogeneity, further Tukey and Scheffe tests revealed that all of the variable scores were non-significant, indicating that the variance within the variables is equal. Therefore, the data set's heterogeneity problem may be neglected.

4.1.6 Assessment of Multicollinearity

In multivariate analysis, such as structural equation modelling, assessing the multicollinearity issue is considered a key assumptions. A multicollinearity problem emerges when an independent variable in a data collection is significantly related with a set of other independent variables (Hair et al., 2010; Kline, 2011). The, the correlations matrix between all variables was examined, and it was discovered that none of the correlation coefficients were above 0.90, which is considered a significant value for confirming serious multicollinearity difficulties (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007: 88; Hair et al., 2010: 200). In fact, all correlation coefficients in the correlation matrix had values of less than 0.80.

The Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and associated Tolerance values were also analysed using multiple regression analysis to assess multicollinearity issues in the data set. According to Hair et al., tolerance is defined as "the degree of variability of the selected independent variable not explained by the other independent variables" (2010: 201). When the Variance Inflation Factor is larger than 10 and the Tolerance value is less than 0.10, the multicollinearity assumption is

likely to be violated (Hair et al., 2010: 205). When the VIF value reaches 10, according to Ho (2006: 249), more investigation is required. Furthermore, it is said that a VIF value of less than 10 is desirable for larger sample numbers (Hair et al., 2010: 205). The VIF result of the current study confirms that all the VIF values are less than 2.800, with a Tolerance level of more than .10. Multicollinearity is not a problem for this investigation, based on the correlation matrix and VIF. In the followers' data set, Table 19 shows the VIF and Tolerance level for multicollinearity assessment.

Table 19. VIF and Tolerance Level for Multicollinearity

Variables		TFL	LMX	OL	RTC	OCB
Transformational Leadership	VIF		1.619	1.620	1.637	1.723
	Tolr.		.618	.617	.611	.580
Leader-member Exchange	VIF	2.246		1.982	2.136	2.354
	Tolr.	.445		.505	.468	.425
Organisational Learning	VIF	1.736	1.531		1.846	1.847
	Tolr.	.576	.653		.542	.541
Resistance to Change	VIF	1.669	1.570	1.757		1.674
	Tolr.	.599	.637	.569		.598
Organisational Citizenship Behaviour	VIF	1.387	1.366	1.387	1.320	
	Tolr.	.721	.732	.721	.757	

4.1.7 Assessment of Non-Response Bias Tests

Due to the sampling technique used in this study, non-response bias could be an issue. The difference between participant responses and non-respondent responses to the research questionnaire is known as non-response bias. While non-responsiveness cannot be identified simply by numerical techniques, it has the potential to introduce bias into the sample (Burkell, 2003). To reduce the impact of non-response bias, the current study took the following steps, as suggested by Burkell (2003). First, the research questionnaire's instructions were double-checked to verify that they were clear and simple to follow. Second, the research questions were organised in a systematic structure to avoid common variance problems. Finally, the questionnaire completion time was relatively short.

Non-response bias occurs when survey respondents differ from those who did not answer in terms of demographic or attitudinal factors, according to Sax et al. (2003). Therefore, comparing the demographics of the respondents with the target population or second wave of respondents

is the common way to check for non-response biases (Churchill & Iacobucci, 2005; De Valck et al., 2007; Fan & Yan, 2010). In terms of gender, respondents of the current study did not differ widely from the reported percentage of the population. As Armstrong and Overton (1977) suggested, non-response bias was also investigated by examining the statistical difference between early and late respondents. The logical rationale for this test, according to De Valck et al., (2007), is that late responders should be more comparable to non-respondents than early respondents. While the recommended method is less rigorous in terms of bias assessment, it has been widely used by researchers to assess non-response bias (e.g., Karahanna et al., 2006; Gefen et al., 2011; Venkatesh et al., 2012). Respondents who participated late did not differ substantially from respondents who participated early in the current study, therefore non-respondents are unlikely to differ from respondents.

The current study used an independent samples t-test to investigate non-response bias, in which the difference in averages between groups was used to establish if the early and late participants were substantially different. With the exception of the gender variable, all variables utilized in the study were analysed. The study reveals that none of the factors have a meaningful difference, with ninety-five percent confidence. As a result, the tests show that the dataset is free of non-response bias. However, despite being a common and widely used method to assess non-response biases, an independent t-test does not fully eliminate the problem of biases. Hence, the outcomes of the current study should be construed accordingly.

4.2 Multivariate Analysis

To evaluate the hypotheses presented in the previous chapter, this study performed multivariate analysis in three steps: exploratory factor analysis (EFA), confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and process. EFA was utilized in this study to find the common underlying factor structure for the collection of variables that were employed (Bandalos, 1996: 389; Pallant, 2010: 181). Furthermore, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), was used to see which variables should be used to define each detected factor (Robin & Roberts, 2006). Finally, Process was used because it allows for more precise measurement of relationships in the study model as well as statistical modelling and testing of complicated events. The following sections will clarify the different stages of multivariate analysis performed in the study and their subsequent results.

4.2.1 Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed on each of the dimensions used in this study. In order to obtain such EFA results, principal component factor analysis (PCA) with Orthogonal (Varimax) rotation was used to discover the basic structure of the interactions between measured variables. PCA was used to determine the best ways to combine variables into a small

number of subsets and to understand how the related variables were arranged (Field, 2009; Pallant, 2010; Hair et al., 2010). Varimax rotation was also used to reduce the number of variables with large loadings on each factor and to make the factor easier to understand (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Hair et al., 2010).

Two criteria were used to determine the EFA's fundamental requirements. First, to determine factorability, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity must be significant, as it suggests that the variables are related and hence suitable for structure recognition. It was established by Hair et al. (2010) as a measure of the significance of all relationships in the correlation matrix, with values less than 0.05 indicating that the data is eligible for factor analysis. The second condition for the data set's factorability is the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) sampling adequacy measure. High scores (near to 1) indicate the need for a factor analysis. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test looks at how much of the variance in the variables is caused by underlying factors. However, acceptable factorability requires a KMO value of 0.50 (Pallant, 2010; Hair et al., 2010).

The requirement of an eigenvalue larger than 1 was used to derive the factor structure for each dimension. Additionally, factor loadings were employed to determine a factor's level of strength. Factor loadings can range between -1 and 1, with a greater loading close to 1 indicating a strong effect on the variable and a loading close to zero represents a weak effect on the variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; Pallant, 2010). According to Hair et al. (2010), factor loadings should be examined in relation to sample size, with a sample size of more than 250 accepting a loading value of less than .30 as the standard value. Considering its sample size (N=250), the current study used a high ±.50 loading value to achieve strong factors and better variable structure. Cronbach's Alpha (α) was also used to determine the dependability of the factors. The criterion was a Cronbach's Alpha (α) value of more than 0.70, as recommended by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994) and Hair et al (2010). Finally, the Corrected Item-Total Correlation (CITC) was utilized to determine internal consistency among items of a given variable, demonstrating the strength of the relationships between each item and the total score. The recommended CITC value is 0.50, which was chosen as the cut-off point in this study, based on Hair et al. (2010).

4.2.1.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Transformational Leadership

Exploratory factor analysis was used to determine the structure of transformational leadership dimensions based on the data collection process. Individual Consideration had four items, while Idealised Influence had eight. Inspirational Motivation had four, Intellectual Stimulation had four, and Individual Consideration had four. The next section assess the EFA's findings in greater depth.

4.2.1.1.1 Factor Analysis of Transformational Leadership

Exploratory factor analysis revealed a four-component solution. Using the previously described recommended criteria, the factor solution was derived. First, using the rule that the eigenvalue should be larger than 1, a four-factor solution emerged. The components that were retrieved explained 32.65% of the overall variance. Furthermore, the correlation matrix revealed numerous r = 0.3 and higher correlations, indicating that the data is suitable for factor analysis (Pallant, 2010). However, Bartlett's sphericity test found a significant (sig=0.00, p.05) estimated Chi-square of 1131.578 with 78 df, implying a non-zero correlation between the twenty items and excellent homogeneity among variables (Field, 2009). Furthermore, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sample adequacy (KMO) has a value of .714, which is greater than suggested by Hair et al. (2010), which was a cut-off point of 0.50. Overall, the data values stated above meet the basic requirements for factor analysis.

The current study used principal component analysis to assess the unidimensionality of the items, and the factor loadings were set to greater than 0.5, as advised by Hair et al. (2010). Due to cross-loadings and low factor loadings, seven of the twenty items were deleted. The Idealised Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individual Consideration variables all had loadings of 0.68 to 0.78, 0.50 to 0.98, 0.53 to 0.92, and 0.59 to 0.64, respectively. Furthermore, Cronbach's Alpha (α) for Transformational Leadership = .808. This meets Nunnally and Bernstein's fundamental consistency and reliability threshold level of 0.70. (1994). Furthermore, according to Bagozzi and Yi (1988), all internal reliabilities (Cronbach's alpha) meet the minimum cut-off value of 0.60.

In addition, an internal consistency indicators was the Corrected Item-Total Correlation (CITC). CITC indicates the degree of connection between each item and the rest of the score. This was utilised to ensure that all components had a high loading on the hypothesised factor and that no cross-loadings were present. The CITC values ranged from 0.207 to 0.582, falling within Nunnally and Bernstein's 0.40 cut-off point (1994).

4.2.1.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Leader-Member Exchange

A single factor solution was discovered in the Leader-Member Exchange dimension. The leader-member exchange had six items with good loadings, and one was eliminated due to poor loading. The results of the EFA are discussed in depth in the next section.

4.2.1.2.1 Factor Analysis of Leader-Member Exchange

Leader-member exchange was identified as a single factor by exploratory factor analysis. The one-factor solution accounted for 47.413% of the total variance. Using Bartlett's test of sphericity, the approximate Chi-square of 404.922 with 15 df was found to be significant

(sig=0.00, p<.05). Furthermore, the sampling adequacy measure (KMO) had a value of.719, suggesting that the results were higher than the specified threshold of 0.50. Six of the seven elements were retrieved using the one-factor structure. The factor loading for leader-member exchange items varies between 0.609 and 0.767. Leader-member exchange has a Cronbach's Alpha (α) of.769, which is over the critical consistency and dependability criterion of 0.70. The cut-off point for CITC is 0.40, and the values vary from 0.439 to 0.618. All of the above findings satisfy the key criteria for exploratory factor analysis.

4.2.1.3 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Organisational Learning

Similar to the previous dimensions, for organisational learning, a seven-factor solution was extracted. Continuous learning contained three items, dialogue and inquiry contained three items, team learning and collaboration contained three items, embedded system contained three items, empowerment contained three items, systems connections contained three items and strategic leadership contained three items. There were originally twenty-one items in the organisational learning category, but seven were deleted and just fourteen were used in the study. The following section discusses the FA findings in greater depth.

4.2.1.3.1 Factor Analysis of Organisational Learning

Organisational learning's seven-factor solution accounts for 37.370% of the total variance. The results show that Bartlett's test of sphericity's estimated Chi-square of 4856.221 with 91 df is significant (sig=0.00, p<.05). Furthermore, the sample adequacy measure (KMO) has a value of .646, which is greater than the proposed threshold value of 0.50. As mentioned above, of the twenty-one components, the seven-factor structure recovered fourteen. The factor loadings of these items range from 0.588 to 0.987. Organisational learning has a Cronbach's Alpha of .827, which is higher than the 0.70 consistency and dependability criterion.

4.2.1.4 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Resistance to Change

EFA created a three-factor solution for the resistance to change component, which included cognitive, affective, and behavioural dimensions. These three factors contain five items, four items, and four items respectively. The following section discusses the FA results in detail.

4.2.1.4.1 Factor Analysis of Resistance to Change

The three-factor solution is responsible for 34.705% of the total variance. Bartlett's sphericity test produces a significant (sig=0.00, p<.05) approximate Chi-square of 2001.202 with 78 df. Furthermore, the KMO (measure of sampling adequacy) is greater than the suggested threshold value of 0.50, with a value of 0.820. There are eighteen components in all; the three-factor structure extracted thirteen of them. The factor loadings for the items range from .553 to .993.

Cronbach Alpha's (α) for Resistance to Change α=.838, which meets the consistency and reliability threshold level of 0.70.

4.2.1.5 Exploratory Factor Analysis of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

In terms of organisational citizenship behaviour, EFA produced a five-factor solution representing conscientiousness, sportsmanship, civic virtue, courtesy, and altruism. The five factors contained twenty-four items, but only sixteen items had good factor-loading. The following section discusses the FA results in detail.

4.2.1.5.1 Factor Analysis of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

The five-factor solution accounts for 42.374% of the total variance in organisational citizenship behaviour. Bartlett's sphericity test produces a significant (sig=0.00, p<.05) approximate Chi-square of 3017.255 with 120 df. In addition, the KMO (measure of sampling adequacy) has a value of 0.845, which is greater than the recommended threshold of 0.50. As mentioned above, the five-factor structure was able to recover sixteen of the twenty-four components. The factor loadings range from 0.500 to 0.934 for the items. Cronbach's Alpha (α) =0.844 for organisational citizenship behaviour, therefore meeting the consistency and dependability criteria of 0.70. All the above results meet the key requirements for exploratory factor analysis.

4.3 Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis is a method for determining whether we should accept or reject a preset concept (Hair et al., 2010: 770). This technique is critical for determining whether measured variables accurately and methodically represent constructs in the theoretical model, as well as nesting all latent variables into structural models (Ho, 2006: 304). For a good model fit, confirmatory factor analysis, according to Thompson (2004:6), is more likely to be effective when the model is based on theories and incorporates fewer variables. Furthermore, CFA has been recommended as the most detailed technique for examining the measurement model's validity and unidimensionality (Gerbing & Anderson, 1988). However, prior to assessing the measurement model, different important fit measure criteria must be taken into account. Several researchers (Hair et al., 2006: 730; Ho, 2006: 285, 286) have emphasised the importance of incorporating fit measures when evaluating a model that fits the data well. Absolute Fit Measures (i.e. Chi-square/df, GFI, RMR), Incremental Fit Measures (i.e. CFI, NFI, AGFI), and Parsimony Fit Measures (i.e. CFI, NFI, AGFI) were used to assess model fit (i.e. PCFI and PNFI). This study used at least one index from each category of fit measures, as well as Chi-square /df ratio and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, as recommended by various scholars (e.g. Hooper et al., 2008; Hair et al., 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), to assess the fit of the research model. This combination of indices will help to overcome each index's limitations and will be

appropriate for assessing the proposed model's fit. The table below shows the model fit indices proposed by different researchers.

Table 20. Suggested Model Fit Indices

Model Fit Index	Suggested Fit Indices	Author(s)
Absolute Fit Indices		
Chi-square (x^2/df)	≤5	
RMSEA	≤0.05	
RMR	≤0.05	
SRMR	≤0.08	
GFI	≥0.90	(Hu and Bentler, 1999; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001: 698-701; Raykov and Marcoulides, 2000: 35-40; Schumacker and G., 2004: 82; Thompson, 2004: 114; Hair et al., 2006: 749-751; Ho, 2006: 281, 285-286; Iacobucci, 2010; Kline, 2011: 707-709)
AGFI	≥0.90	
Incremental Fit Indices		
NFI	≥0.90	
CFI	≥0.90	
TLI	≥0.90	
RNI	≥0.90	
Parsimony Fit Indices		
PGFI	≥0.50	
PNFI	≥0.50	
Note: RMSEA=Root-mean-square Error of Approximation; **SRMR=**Standardized Root Mean Square Residual; **RMR**=Root-mean-square Residual; **NFI**=Normed Fit Index; **IFI**=Incremental Fit Indices; **TLI**=Tucker–Lewis Index; **CFI**=Comparative fit Index; **GFI**=Goodness of Fit Index; **PCFI**=Parsimony Comparative Fit Index; **PCFI=**Parsimony Normal Fit Index		

To test the validity of CFA models, this used indices such as chi-square/degrees of freedom (x2/df) less than 5, SRMR less than 0.08, RMSEA less than 0.08, and RMR less than 0.05 as the

benchmark score for a good model fit from the absolute fit indices (Bentler & Bonett, 1980; Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Ho, 2006; Hair et al., 2010; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). Furthermore, the current study used indices such as GFI, CFI, and NFI from incremental fit measures that met the minimum requirement of 0.90 (Brown, 2006; Hair et al., 2010; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Finally, PCFI and PNFI of more than 0.50 were approved as a benchmark for satisfactory model fit from parsimony fit metrics (Raykov & Marcoulides, 2000; Ho, 2006; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). When the CFA scores of the measurement model agreed with the specified standard scores, the study evaluated the model's validity using two criteria: convergent and discriminant validity.

Convergent validity was evaluated in this study using the four different criteria proposed by Gerbing and Anderson (1988: 187). These are as follows: the average variance extracted (AVE) for a construct must be larger than 0.50, construct reliability must be at least 0.70, factor loading must be at least 0.70 and significant, and any item's coefficient must be greater than twice its standard error for a model to be convergently valid. Alternatively, this study employed two alternative criteria to test the model's discriminant validity. First, alpha coefficients must be smaller than correlation coefficients, and the square root of AVE for each construct must be larger than the correlations between it and any other construct in the model (Hair et al., 2010; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). In the current study, which used a first-order CFA model with covariances as input, the maximum likelihood method was applied to estimate coefficients. In the following section, the results of the first-order factor CFA model for each construct are reviewed, followed by the results of the unidimensional CFA model.

4.3.1 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for TFL

This study enlisted the participation of 250 persons. CFA was applied to the TFL construct using a four-factor model: Idealised Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualised Consideration. The results of TFL followers' first order CFA is seen in the figure below.
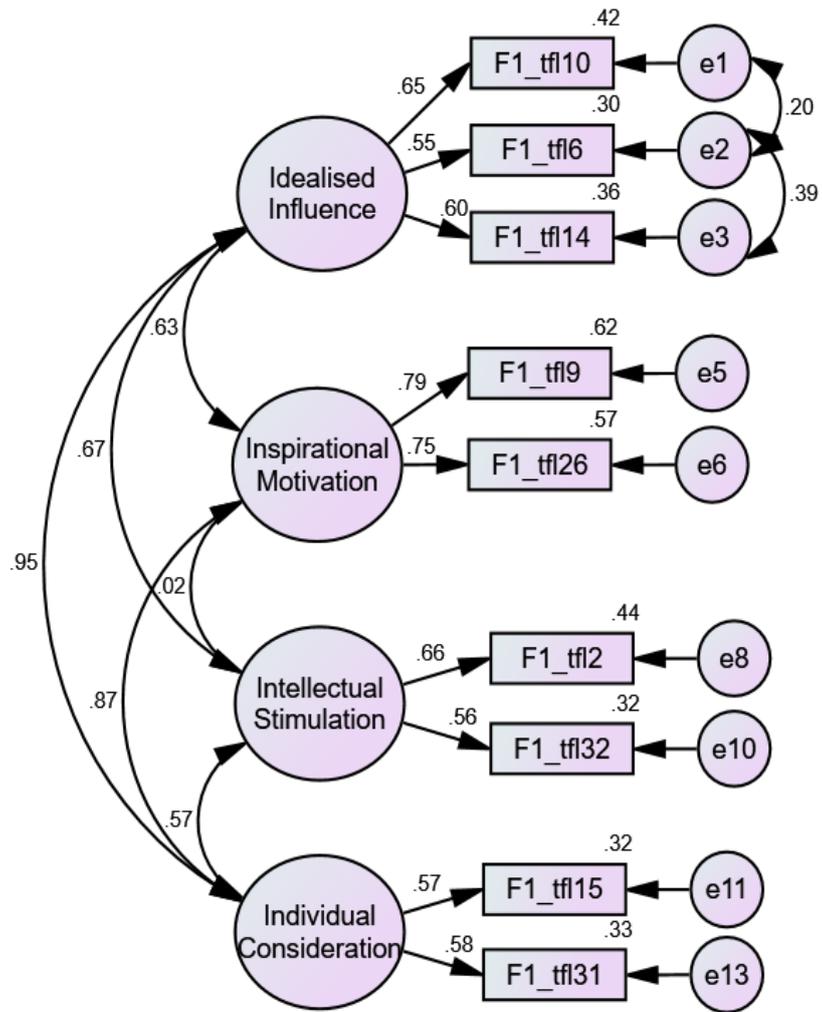
Figure 5. First order of CFA of TFL followers (standardised model)

Table 21. The first order of TFL model fit results.

Index	Criteria for model fit indices	Results	Estimate of model fit
P	<0.05	.000	Yes
RMR	<0.05	.092	-
RMSEA	<0.08 (<0.05, fit very well; <0.08 fit well)	.105	-
GFI	>0.9	.941	Yes
AGFI	>0.8	.861	Yes
NFI	>0.9	.890	-
RFI	>0.9	.792	-
IFI	>0.9	.917	Yes
TLI	>0.9	.839	-
CFI	>0.9	.915	Yes
PGFI	>0.5	.397	-

CMIN= 70.986

4.3.1.1 Model Fit with Data TFL

Transformational leaders are viewed as role models and change agents (Bass, 1985), which requires uniting individuals around a shared purpose through self-reinforcing behaviours and assurance of intrinsic benefits that subordinates gain by effectively completing a task (Burns, 1978). Transformational leaders, according to Bass (1985), can motivate their followers to perform at a high level by demonstrating four behavioural characteristics: 1) Idealised influence-leaders act in charismatic ways that inspire or urge followers to respect and appreciate them, such as through serving as a role model; 2) Inspirational motivation—leaders motivate their people by inspiring them and providing them with a compelling vision; 3) Intellectual stimulation- leaders assist and guide followers' efforts to be inventive and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing challenges, and addressing old circumstances in new ways; 4) Individualised consideration- transformational leaders devote special attention to each individual follower's needs for achievement and progress by acting as a mentor or coach, and their ideas are not rejected merely because they differ from the leader's position (Bass, 1985). The confirmatory model of transformational leadership suited the data well in the empirical test (RMR=.092, RMSEA=.105, GFI=.941, AGFI=.861, NFI=.890).

4.3.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) for LMX.

This study collected a total of 250 responses. Confirmatory factor analysis was performed on the LMX construct. The results of the investigation are summarised in the table below.
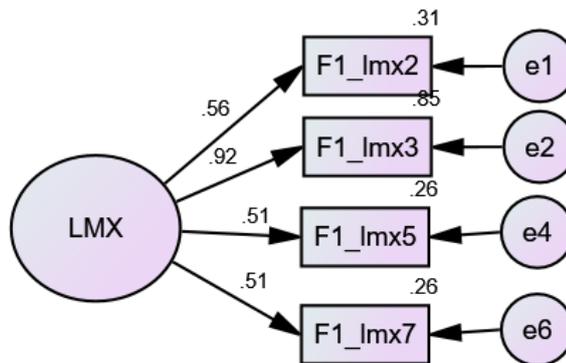
Figure 6. First order of CFA of LMX followers'. (standardised model)

Table 22. The first order of LMX model fit results.

Index	Criteria for model fit indices	Results	Estimate of model fit
P	<0.05	.066	Yes
RMR	<0.05	.040	Yes
RMSEA	<0.08 (<0.05, fit very well; <0.08 fit well)	.083	Accepted

GFI	>0.9		.989	Yes
AGFI	>0.8		.947	Yes
NFI	>0.9		.974	Yes
RFI	>0.9		.923	Yes
IFI	>0.9		.984	Yes
TLI	>0.9		.950	Yes
CFI	>0.9		.983	Yes
PGFI	>0.5		.198	-

CMIN= 5.426

4.3.2.1 Model Fit with Data LMX

Leader-member exchange is one of this study's mediators. As a result, it examines the dyadic connections between road transport company leaders and followers in a developing and changing environment in Nigeria. In essence, this study asserts that two-way communication, or interpersonal communication, between leaders and followers, is critical in improving overall organisational behaviour and, as a result, making the organisation competitive enough to withstand challenges and remain strong in a competitive global market, particularly in a developing country like Nigeria. Furthermore, in the empirical test, the confirmatory model of leader-member exchange fitted the data very well (RMR=.040, RMSEA=.083, GFI=.989, AGFI=.947, NFI=.974). As a result, the model of leader-member exchange was appropriate.

4.3.3 Confirmatory Factor Analysis for OL.

The study's participants were followers. A seven-factor model was used to confirm the findings of continuous learning, dialogue and inquiry, team learning and collaboration, embedded system, empowerment, systems connections, and strategic leadership. The findings from analysis are shown in the table below.
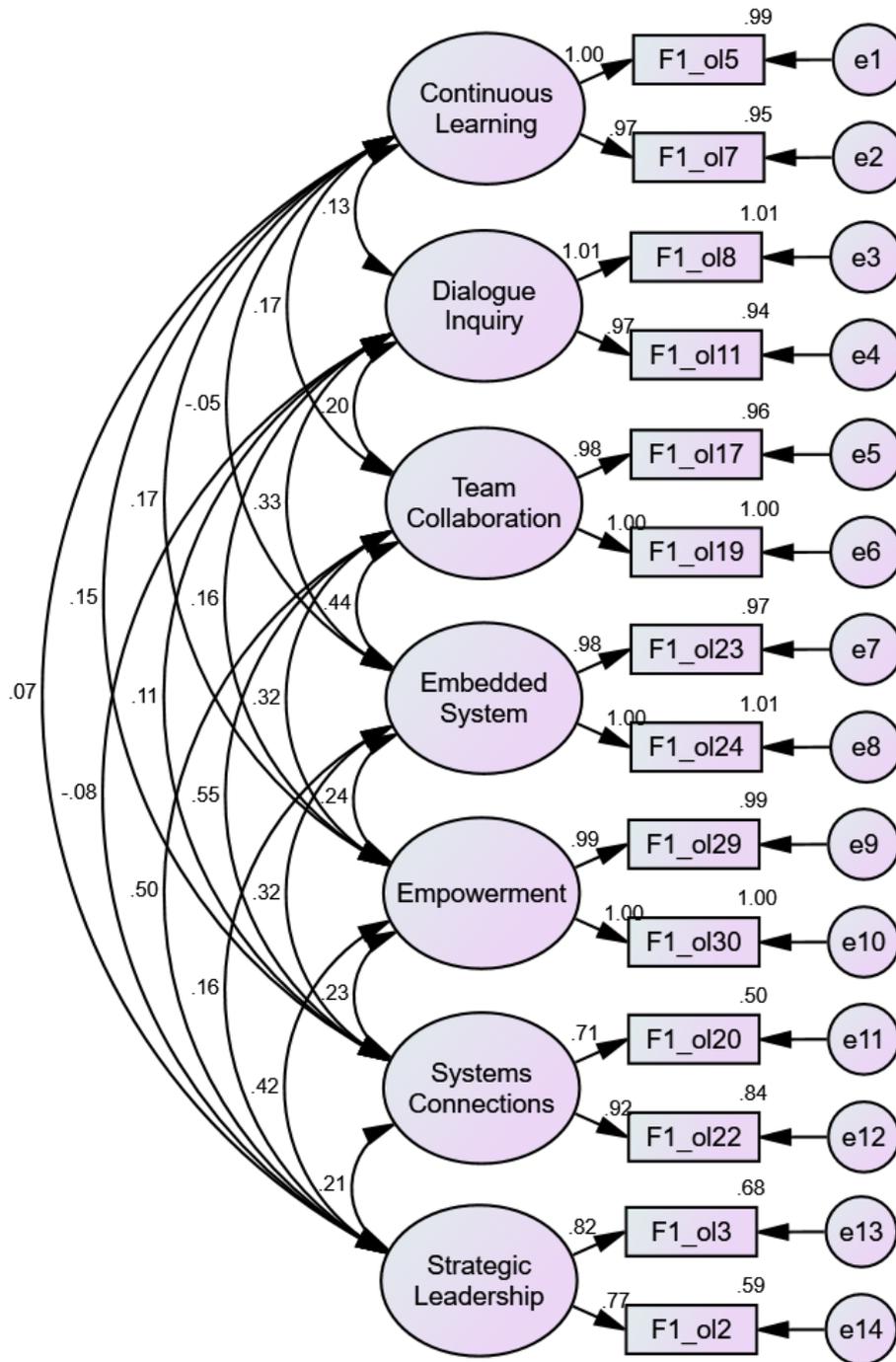
Figure 7. First order of CFA of OL (standardised model)

Table 23. The first order of Organisational Learning model fit results.

Index	Criteria for model fit indices	Results	Estimate of model fit
P	<0.05	.048	Yes
RMR	<0.05	.030	Yes
RMSEA	<0.08 (<0.05, fit very well; <0.08 fit well)	.037	Yes
GFI	>0.9	.960	Yes

AGFI	>0.8		.926	Yes
NFI	>0.9		.985	Yes
RFI	>0.9		.976	Yes
IFI	>0.9		.996	Yes
TLI	>0.9		.994	Yes
CFI	>0.9		.996	Yes
PGFI	>0.5		.512	Yes

CMIN=74.778

4.3.3.1 Model Fit with Data OL

When an organisation learns new and innovative things and puts them into practice, the general behaviour of the organisation usually changes for the better and improves the overall wellbeing of the company, especially during a change or transition. As a result, transformational leaders push their followers to learn either tacitly or explicitly, or both, in order to keep up with trends that will help the organisation thrive and lessen the danger of followers resisting change. The confirmatory factor analysis of organisational learning was performed on the seven dimensions with the empirical test. When all the elements were put into seven dimensions, this model suited the data well (RMR =.030, RMSEA =.037, GFI =.960, AGFI =.926, NFI =.985). As a result, the organisational learning model was appropriate for use in this research.

4.3.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) of RTC.

Followers were asked to participate in this study. The RTC construct was subjected to confirmatory component analysis using a three-factor model: Cognitive Dimension, Affective Dimension, and Behavioural Dimension. The findings are summarised in the following table.
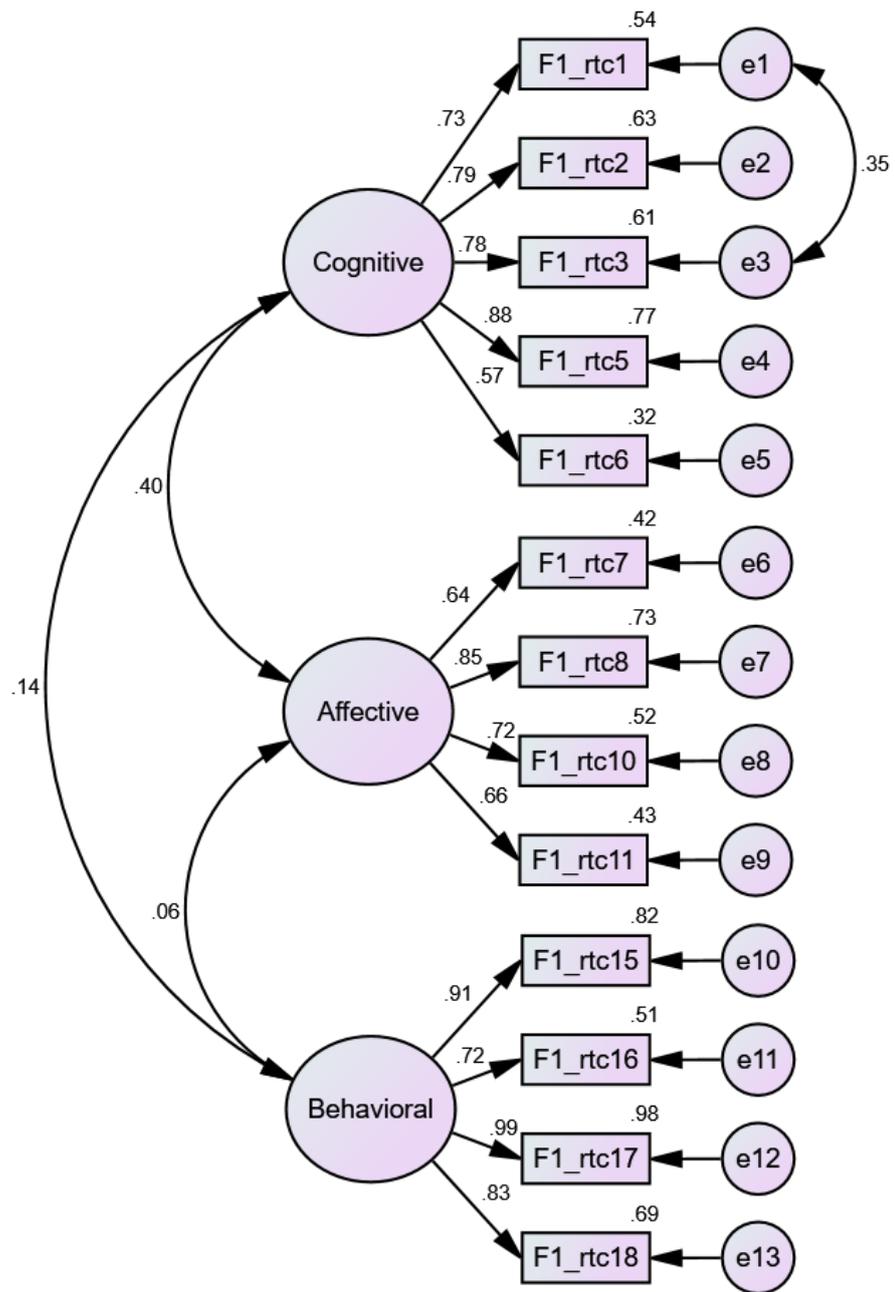
Figure 8.First order of CFA of RTC (standardised model)

Table 24. The first order of Resistance to Change model fit results.

Index	Criteria for model fit indices	Results	Estimate of model fit
P	<0.05	.000	Yes
RMR	<0.05	.166	-
RMSEA	<0.08 (<0.05, fit very well; <0.08 fit well)	.085	Yes
GFI	>0.9	.904	Yes
AGFI	>0.8	.857	Yes
NFI	>0.9	.917	Yes

RFI	>0.9	.893	-
IFI	>0.9	.945	Yes
TLI	>0.9	.929	Yes
CFI	>0.9	.944	Yes
PGFI	>0.5	.606	Yes

CMIN=170.605

4.3.4.1 Model Fit with Data RTC

In a developing and changing environment where the leader is not transformative enough and does not inform or enlighten followers on the new development or need for change, followers are more likely to become resistant to change simply because the leader failed to pass on the information and implications of the need for change properly. This results in high resistance to change and the general behaviour of followers will be disorganised, meaning the organisation will not be able to withstand pressure from its counterparts. The confirmatory factor analysis of the resistance to change construct included three dimensions in the empirical test. When all the elements were put into three dimensions, this model suited the data well (RMR =.166, RMSEA =.085, GFI =.904, AGFI =.857, NFI =.917). This model was also suited for use in this study.

4.3.5 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) for OCB.

In this study, followers took part in the research. The OCB construct was subject to confirmatory component analysis using a five-factor model: Conscientiousness, Sportsmanship, Civic Virtue, Courtesy, and Altruism. However only fifteen items have good loadings. The findings are shown in the table below.
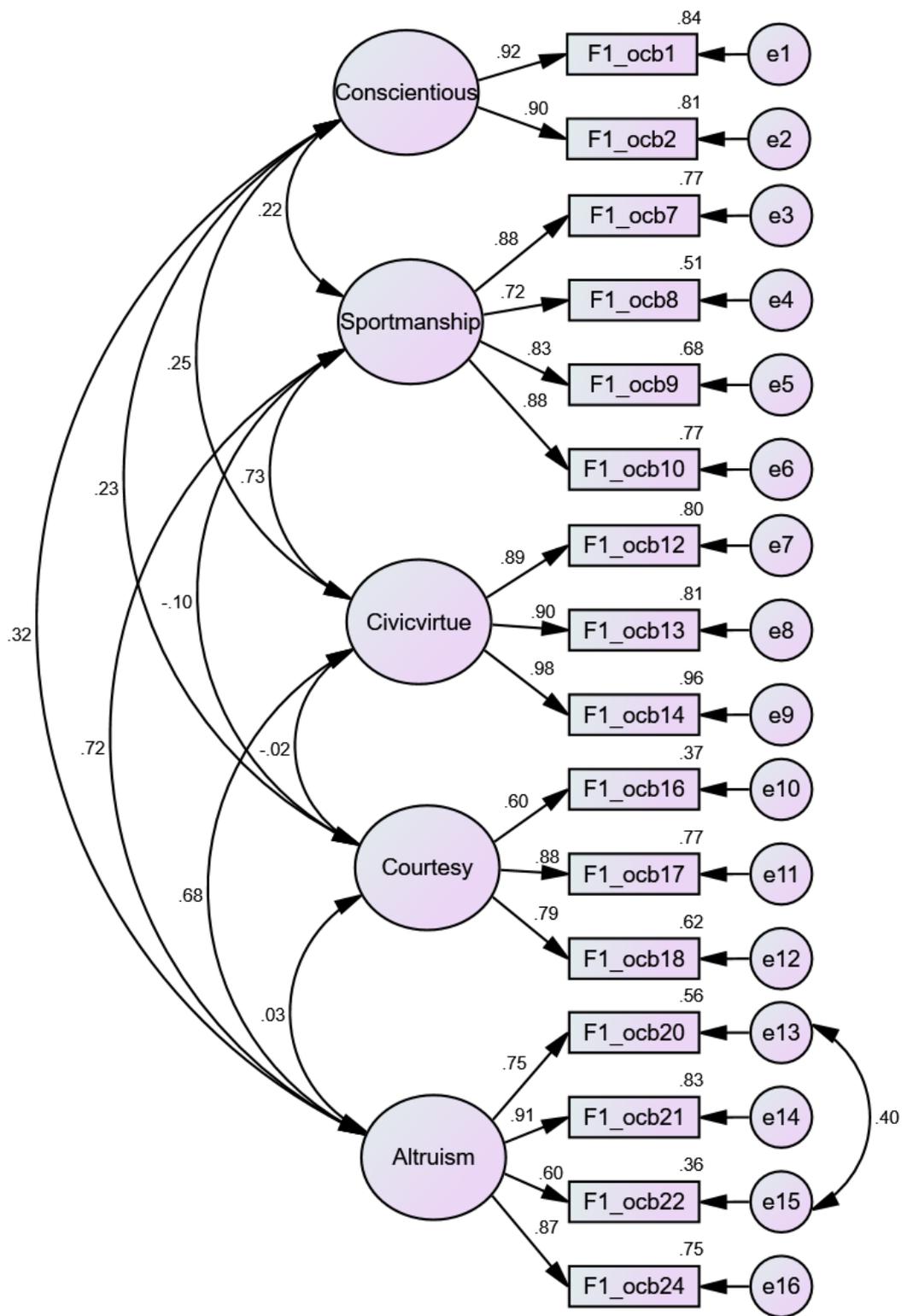
Figure 9. First order of CFA of OCB (standardised model)

Table 25. The first order of Organisational Citizenship Behaviour followers' model fit results.

Index	Criteria for model fit indices	Results	Estimate of model fit
P	<0.05	.000	Yes
RMR	<0.05	.061	Yes
RMSEA	<0.08 (<0.05, fit very well; <0.08 fit well)	.092	Yes
GFI	>0.9	.877	-
AGFI	>0.8	.820	Yes
NFI	>0.9	.907	Yes
RFI	>0.9	.880	-
IFI	>0.9	.935	Yes
TLI	>0.9	.915	Yes
CFI	>0.9	.934	Yes
PGFI	>0.5	.600	Yes

CMIN=288.320

4.3.5.1 Model Fit with Data OCB

The general behaviour of followers in any organisation, but especially in the developing or changing environment of a set of road transport companies in Nigeria, will determine the progress, success, and lifespan of that organisation. That is why organisational citizenship behaviour is crucial in any organisation, because if there are good transformative leaders leading the organisation, who communicate the mission, vision, goals, and need for change to their followers' appropriately, the organisation will subsequently be able to compete in a competitive and emerging market. The empirical test was comprised of five dimensions in the confirmatory factor analysis of the organisational citizenship behaviour. When all the elements were put on five dimensions, this model suited the data well (RMR =.061, RMSEA =.092, GFI =.877, AGFI =.820, NFI =.907). This signifies that this model was suitable for this study.

4.4. Hypothesis Testing of all the Variables.

In this study, hypotheses 1 to 3 were investigated using a Pearson's correlation analysis. The investigation's conclusions are listed in the table below.

Table 26. Correlation Results of Hypotheses 1- 3.

Hypotheses	Factors Correlated	Data
H1: Organisational learning positively affects organisational citizenship behaviour.	Follower self-ratings OL and follower self-ratings OCB.	r = .161, n = 250, p = <.005.
H2: The use of a transformational leadership style will positively affect organisational learning.	Follower self-ratings TFL and follower self-ratings OL.	r = .470, n = 250, p = <.001
H3: The use of a transformational leadership style will positively affect organisational citizenship behaviour.	Follower self-ratings TFL and follower self-ratings OCB.	r = .330, n = 250, p = <.001.

From the table above showing the results of hypotheses 1 -3:

Hypothesis 1:

Data was from self-reported OL and OCB of followers. To examine if there was a link between follower self-rated OL and follower self-rated OCB, a Pearson's correlation analysis was conducted. The results reveal that the two variables have a positive correlation, with r =0.161, n = 250, and p == <0.005***.

Hypothesis 2:

TFL and OL data were based on the self-reporting responses of followers. To examine if there was a link between follower self-rated TFL and follower self-rated OL, Pearson's correlation analysis was used. The study discovered that the two factors have a positive relationship, with r =0.470, n = 250, and p =<0.001***.

 Hypothesis 3:

TFL and OCB data were based on the self-reporting responses of follower. The relationship between follower self-rated TFL and follower self-rated OCB was investigated using Pearson's correlation analysis. The findings show a positive relationship between the two variables, with r =0.330, n = 250, and p =<0.001***.

Testing Hypothesis 4 Using Process Model 4 Followers' Data.

Hypothesis 4: Transformational leadership mediates the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour.

The above listed hypotheses were investigated using the Process procedure for SPSS version 3, model 4. The findings are summarised in the table below.

Table 27. Model 4 (Data) Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (TFL)

Causal steps approach	B	S.E	t	Sig. (p)	Comment
Path c (OL* OCB)	.1376	.0536	2.5686	.0108**	
Path a (OL*TFL)	.5449	.0650	8.3777	.0000***	
Path b (TFL*OCB)	.2402	.0501	4.7890	.0000***	
Path c' (OL*OCB)	.0068	.0582	.1167	.9072	
OCB model	R2= .1087	F= 15.06	P < .001		**Full Mediation**
Sobel test	B	S.E		Sig.	
Indirect effect "ab"	.1308	.0310		.0000***	
Bootstrapping	B	S.E	LL95CI	UL95CI	
Indirect effect "ab"	.1308	.0310	.1362	.1941	
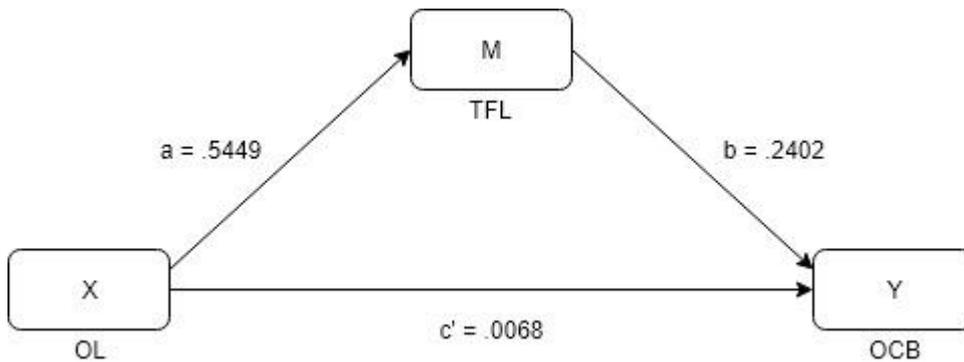
Figure 10. Diagram of simple mediation model of hypothesis 4 follower data.

The results of the data analysis for hypothesis 4 as shown in Table 27 and figure 10, show that the simple regression of organisational learning on organisational citizenship behaviour (OL*OCB) yields a significant total effect, c =.1376, p<.001, and that the indirect effect of organisational learning on transformational leadership through organisational citizenship behaviour is different (.1362 to .1941 with a point estimate of .1308). Regarding the paths from organisational learning to transformational leadership (OL*TFL; a =.5449, p<.001), and M to Y in full effectiveness while controlling for X (M*Y.X; b = .2402, p <.001). However, when controlling for M, the direct effect of X on Y is not statistically different from zero at the 95% confidence interval (X*Y.M; c' =.0068, p >.05).

As a result of the aforementioned findings, the conditions for a full mediation effect have been met. As a result, Hypothesis 4 is supported since M has a complete mediation effect on the X and Y relationship.

Testing Hypothesis 5 Using Process Model 14 Data.

H5: Resistance to change moderates the relationship between transformational leadership style and organisational citizenship behaviour

Table 28. Moderated Mediation TFL (OCB) Model 14

Effects		Coeff. β	S.E	t	Sig.	*Comment*
Path a (OL*TFL)		.5473	.0665	8.2251	.0000***	
Path b (TFL*OCB)		.1777	.0520	3.4161	.0007***	
Path c' (OL *OCB)		.0172	.0576	.2993	.7650	
(RTC*OCB)		-.1469	.0451	-3.2539	.0013***	Moderated Mediation
Interaction (TFL*OL*OCB*RTC)		.1385	.0525	2.6357	.0089***	
Age as Control variable						
Gender as Control variable		P>.05 within all paths				
Exp3 as Control variable						
OCB model		R2= .2101 F= 9.19 P < .001				

Conditional indirect effects at values of Resistance to change	RTC Stage	Indirect Effect	BootS. E	CI 95		Sig.
				LL	UL	
TFL	-1	-.8306	.0343	.0356	-.03	.10	P>.05
TFL	.00	-.0223	.0956	.0309	.03	.15	P<.05
TFL	+1	.8474	.1615	.0402	.08	.24	P<.05
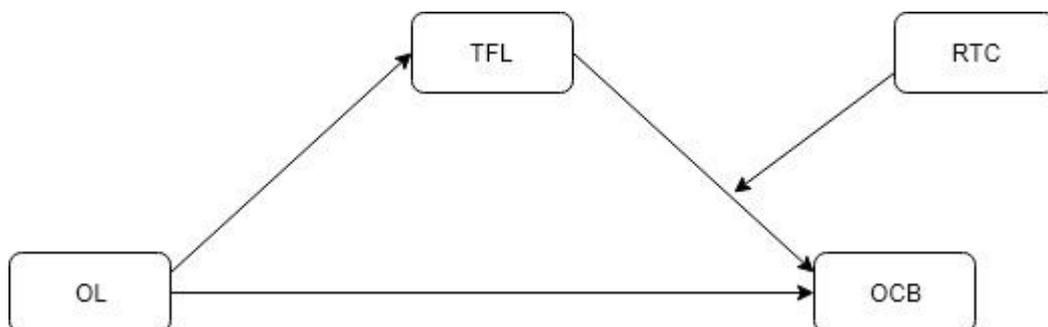
Figure 11. Diagram of simple moderation model of hypothesis 5 data.

According to the results of data analysis against hypothesis 5 in the table above, transformational leadership exhibits moderated mediation between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour. This suggests that the indirect effect is considerable when resistance to change is great. Leaders can manage and organise resistance to change. When resistance to change is high, leaders should be stronger, organised and able to take action. In this research, the R2 of this model is acceptable, at 21% of organisational citizenship behaviour variance. That means the independent variable explains 21% of organisational citizenship behaviour variance.

Testing Hypothesis 6 Using Process Model 4 Followers' Data.

Hypothesis 6: Leader-member exchange mediates the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour.

The above-mentioned hypothesis was investigated once more using the Process technique for SPSS version 3 model 4. The results of the analyses are listed in the table below.

Table 29. Model 4 (Data) Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (LMX)

Causal steps approach	**B**	**S.E**	**t**	**Sig.**	*Comment*
Path c (OL* OCB)	.1376	.0536	2.5686	.0108**	
Path a (OL*LMX)	.6637	.0673	9.8559	.0000***	
Path b (LMX*OCB)	.2691	.0476	5.6474	.0000***	
Path c' (OL*OCB)	-.0410	.0596	-.6870	.4927	**Full Mediation**
OCB model	R2= .1373 F= 19.65 P < .001				
Sobel test	**B**	**S.E**		**Sig.**	
Indirect effect "ab"	.1786	.0407		.0000***	
Bootstrapping	**B**	**S.E**	**LL95CI**	**UL95CI**	
Indirect effect "ab"	.1786	.0712	.1097	.2700	
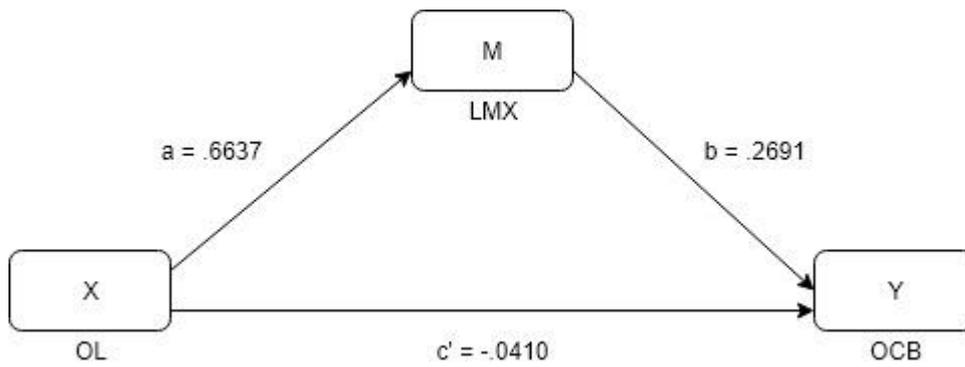
Figure 12. Diagram of simple mediation model of hypothesis 6 follower data.

The findings from data analysis against hypothesis 6 are shown above in (table 29 and figure 12). They show that the simple regression of organisational learning on organisational citizenship behaviour (OL*OCB) yields a significant total effect, c = .1376, p <.001, and the indirect effect of organisational learning on leader-member exchange through organisational citizenship behaviour is different from zero at a 95% confidence interval based on 5000 bootstrap samples (.1097 to .2700 with a point estimate of .1786). Regarding the paths from organisational learning to leader-member exchange (OL*LMX; a = .6637, p < .001), and M to Y in full effectiveness while controlling for X (M*Y.X; b = .2691, p <.001). However, the direct effect of X on Y while controlling for M is not significant at the level of 95% confidence interval (X*Y.M; c' = -.0410, p <.001).

From the above results it can be stated that the criteria of a full mediation effect are met. As a result, Hypothesis 6 is supported since M has a complete mediation effect on the X and Y relationship.

Testing Hypothesis 7 Using Process Model 14 Data.

H7: Resistance to change moderates the relationship between leader-member exchange and organisational citizenship behaviour.

Table 30. Moderated Mediation LMX (OCB) Model 14

Effects	Coeff. β	S.E	t	Sig.	Comment
Path a (OL*LMX)	.6339	.0679	9.3300	.0000***	Moderated Mediation
Path b (LMX*OCB)	.2230	.0520	4.2853	.0000***	
Path c' (OL *OCB)	-.0499	.0579	-.8622	.3894	

(RTC*OCB)	-.1159	.0468	-2.4773	.0139**	
Interaction (LMX*OL*OCB*RTC)	.0535	.0537	.9960	.3203	
Age as Control variable	P>.05 within all paths				
Gender as Control variable					
Exp3 as Control variable					
OCB model	R2= .2141 F= 9.42 P < .001				

Conditional indirect effects at values of Resistance to change	RTC Stage	Indirect Effect	BootS.E	CI 95		Sig.
				LL	UL	
LMX	-1	-.8306	.1132	.0469	.02	.21	P<.05
LMX	.00	-.0223	.1406	.0352	.07	.21	P<.05
LMX	+1	.8474	.1701	.0403	.09	.25	P<.05
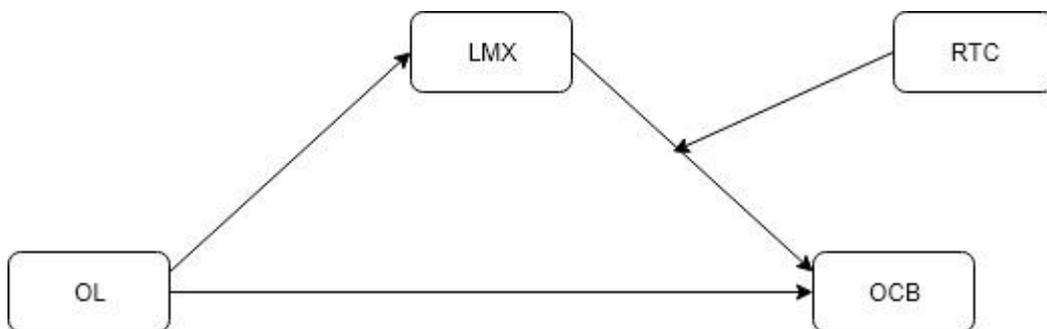
Figure 13. Diagram of simple moderation model of hypothesis 7 followers' data.

When the amount of resistance to change is low or high, Leader-Member Exchange can be a moderated mediation between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour, according to the results of the above-mentioned analysis.

4.5. Summary of Findings.

Table 31. Findings.

Hypothesis	Description	Findings
H1	Organisational learning positively affects organisational citizenship behaviour.	Supported

H2	The use of a transformational leadership style will positively affect organisational learning.	Supported
H3	The use of a transformational leadership style will positively affect organisational citizenship behaviour.	Supported
H4	Transformational leadership mediates the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour.	Accepted
H5	Resistance to change moderates the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour.	Accepted
H6	Leader-member exchange mediates the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour.	Accepted
H7	Resistance to change moderates the relationship between leader-member exchange and organisational citizenship behaviour.	Accepted

4.6 Summary of Data Cleaning, Presentation and Data Analysis

This chapter has examined the data set used in this thesis by first cleaning the data, and running the necessary analysis required for this study by testing the hypotheses generated for this research. It then also presented the finding of this analysis. The following chapter will present a detailed discussion on the findings of data analysis.

Chapter Five: Discussion

5.0 Introduction

This chapter expands on the results of the hypotheses testing reported in Chapter Four and discusses the meaning and implications of the results and findings. This chapter is split into two sections. The model validation of the research will be presented in the first section, while the discussion of the research hypotheses for all variables will be discussed in the second section. The findings of this study are significant because they show the relationship between the mediating variables (transformational leadership and leader-member exchange), independent variable (organisational learning), dependent variable (organisational citizenship behaviour), and moderating variable (resistance to change) in a holistic way.

The discussion will be centred around the findings regarding each hypothesis. As a result, the first section focuses on the model validation of the research. The study's findings are compared to previous studies in the disciplines of leadership, organisational citizenship behaviour, organisational learning and change management. The results reported in preceding chapters were in a format that was relevant to the research's key goals: First, this study will assess the connection between TFL and organisational citizenship behaviour. Second, the link between TFL and organisational learning will be analysed. Third, the link between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour will be investigated. Fourth, the mediating role of transformational leadership between organisational learning and organisational citizenship will be discussed. Furthermore, the mediating role of leader-member exchange between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour is also assessed. Lastly, the moderating relationship of resistance to change between the leadership styles and organisational citizenship behaviour is discussed.

5.1 Model Validation of Research

The findings from Chapter Four are introduced and discussed in relation to the research hypotheses, objectives, and questions in this section. As indicated in Chapter One, there are few studies focusing on the mediating function of transformational leadership and leader-member exchange (LMX) on organisational learning and citizenship behaviour during change. According to the findings, transformational leadership and leader-member exchange mediate the association between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour, with resistance to change or change serving as a moderator. One of the study's key goals, in terms of findings, was to investigate if leadership could help improve an organisation's overall organisational citizenship behaviour. Overall, the results shows that the two leadership styles employed in this study improved the organisation and the followers' citizenship behaviour.

Change is a moderating variable in the study, and it was explored in the form of resistance to change (RTC).

5.2 Discussion of Research Hypotheses

The data from each hypothesis will be addressed and compared with the literature reviewed inside the framework.
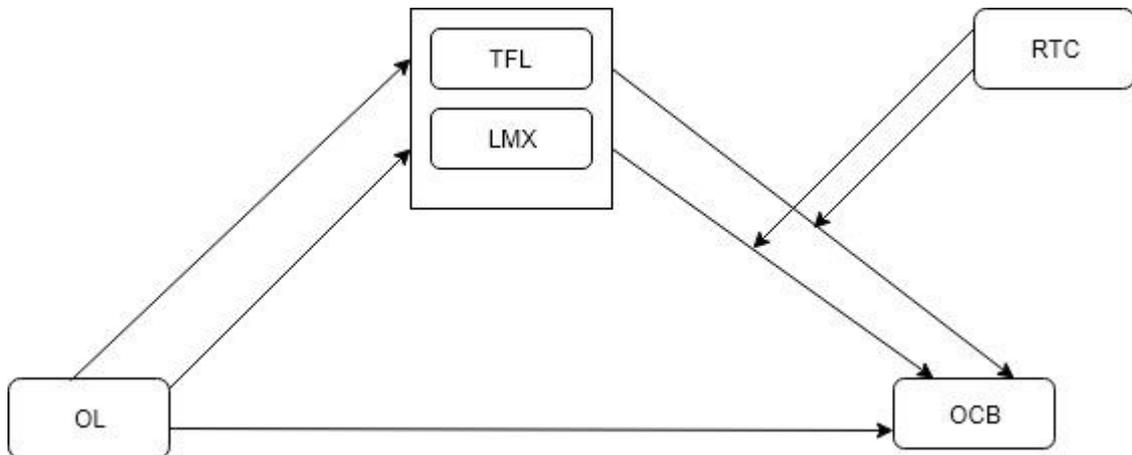
Figure 14. Hypothesised model

5.2.1 Transformational Leadership and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Transformational leadership was found to have a positive association with organisational citizenship behaviour. This was as expected and in accordance with previous research findings. According to the findings of this study, transformational leadership style is positively associated with organisational citizenship behaviour among transportation company employees. Therefore, correlation analysis backed up previous theorectical insight. The findings of this study therefore support some existing scholarly hypotheses concerning transformational leadership's impact on organisational citizenship behaviour (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Cavazotte et al., 2012; Irshad & Hashmi, 2014; Ahmed et al., 2012).

Follower morale is, this thesis argues, positively boosted by transformational leadership, meaning they are more willing to accomplish more. Transformational leaders, according to MacKenzie (2006), inspire their followers to perform above and beyond expectations. As a result, it can be argued that transformational leadership has a direct and positive impact on organisational citizenship behaviour. The favourable benefits of transformational leadership on organisational citizenship behaviour in a collectivistic framework have also been confirmed in a small number of empirical investigations (eg. Kirkman et al. 2009; Wang et al. 2005). Similarly, this study shows that transformational leadership can help firms to improve corporate citizenship practices. Similar arguments have been advanced by Bass (1985), Burns (1978),

Cavazotte et al. (2012), Irshad & Hashmi (2014), and Ahmed (2014). This study offers a degree of confirmation that transport companies within Nigeria could benefit from focusing on the development of transformational leadership, with a view to enhancing organisational citizenship behaviour; particularly in terms of both individual- target organisational citizenship behaviour (OCBI) and organisation-target organisational citizenship behaviour (OCBO). This would in turn, benefit performance and productivity as higher organisational citizenship behaviour is likely to improve the follower citizenship behaviour and the organisation's wellbeing.

5.2.2 Transformational Leadership and Organisational Learning

The number of studies on transformational leadership and organisational learning has increased over the last decade. However, unlike previous studies, this thesis contributes to the growing literature by evaluating two different leadership styles, transformational leadership and leader-member exchange simultaneously and in the context of change. Moreover, this study has been collected data from transport companies in Nigeria; a sector that needs more social research. Hence, it is worth noting Do and Mai's (2020) observation that, "Transformational leadership supports knowledge transfer, and thus establishes a foundation for organisational learning. The consistent positive relationship found between this dominant leadership style and organisational learning suggest that this approach is well-suited for learning organisations and can be considered by adoption by practitioners" (p.1213). Existing studies have primarily concentrated on education and the manufacturing industry, meaning other important but under-studied areas being overlooked. The role of transformational leadership and leader-member exchange in increasing and improving organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour in a developing and changing environment was therefore investigated in this study.

Moreover, this thesis contributes to the literature by introducing transformational leadership and leader-member exchange as mediators of the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour, with resistance to change acting as a moderator. As a result, this thesis suggests that transformational leadership and leader-member exchange are important factors in enhancing organisational learning and promoting positive employee citizenship behaviour.

Pearson's correlation analysis was used to investigate the direct link between transformational leadership style and organisational learning. Through this, it was discovered that TFL and OL are positively correlated. Previous research has found that a leader's approaches have a minor impact on organisational learning, and that they only serve as cost benefit analysts (Barling et al., 2000; Dvir et al., 2002). This research found a strong positive relationship with r= 0.470.

However, results from this study demonstrated a strong positive relationship between transformational leadership and organisational learning. Therefore, this suggests that focusing on nurturing the transformational leadership skills, can be highly valuable. This is because transformational leaders can use these skills to facilitate and nurture a culture of organisational learning. At the same time, scholars believe that for organisations to increase their organisational learning, they need competent leadership (Gong et al., 2009). In recent studies, leadership styles and organisational learning have been debated. In addition, transformational leaders show the ability to build teams and provide them with direction, enthusiasm, and support for change and organisational learning (Blackler & McDonald, 2000; McDonough, 2000; Nadler & Tushman, 1990). Transformational leadership, according to the findings of this study, can help firms learn more successfully. Bass et al. (2003) and Tuan and Thao (2018) state that transformative leadership has a significant impact on organisational learning. This view serves to support the conclusions drawn by this research. Whether transformational leadership has a positive impact on organisational learning in Nigeria's transportation sector was also investigated. This is discussed in the following section.

5.2.3 The Correlation between Organisational Learning and Organisational Citizenship

As hypothesised, it was discovered that organisational learning has a positive link with organisational citizenship behaviour, at r=0.161. The association was investigated using Pearson's correlation analysis. The results show that organisational learning has a positive impact on organisational citizenship behaviour. This supports Somech and Drach-Zahavy's (2004) argument that organisational learning has a significant impact on organisational citizenship behaviour. Based on these findings, it can be argued that by nurturing organisational learning within the organisation through various tools and channels, including collaborative teamwork, continuous learning loops, and empowerment of followers, the organisation can encourage the display of positive organisational citizenship behaviour. This behaviour can entail altruistic behaviours, conscientiously going above and beyond requisite duties, and fostering conflict-free working conditions. These attributes are extremely valuable, particularly in terms of maintaining performance levels, in the context of change. Hence, these results suggest that the transport companies studied here, are likely to benefit from investing in developing a culture of organisational learning.

5.2.4 The Connection between Transformative Leadership, Organisational Learning, and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

The findings demonstrated that transformational leadership completely mediated the link between organisational learning and citizenship behaviour. Transformational leadership has also been found to have a positive impact on organisational learning in previous studies.

Transformational leadership, according to the findings of this study, can help firms learn more successfully. This can be achieved by using various tools and channels such as collaborative teamwork, continuous learning loops, empowerment of followers, dialogue and inquiry, courtesy, civic virtues, sportsmanship, and individualised consideration.

It has also been argued that the leadership styles of company executives can have a significant impact on the quality and efficacy of organisational learning (Vera & Crossan, 2004). Vera and Crossan (2004), for example, said that using a transformational leadership style often encourages generative learning, whereas using a transactional leadership style encourages adaptive learning. Arguably then, the type of leadership style employed in this current study not only helps to promote organisational learning but also improves general behaviour among employees with-in the organisation. This is so, particularly in terms of courtesy, civic virtue, sportsmanship, conscientiousness, and altruism. As a result, conflicts arising from work relationships are avoided, and other followers are encouraged when morale is high. In addition, this study demonstrates that to create positive employee behaviours and learning processes, effective leadership is essential.

5.2.5 The Link between Leader-Member Exchange, Organisational Learning, and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

The mediating role of leader-member exchange on organisational learning and citizenship behaviour was examined in this study. The findings demonstrated that leader-member exchange completely mediated the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour. This shows that organisational learning can help to improve organisational citizenship behaviour through high quality leader-member exchange. According to Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2004), organisational learning has a significant impact on organisational citizenship behaviour. Therefore, based on the findings, it can be reasoned that an organisation with a poor dyadic relationship between its leaders and followers will be unable to learn effectively or influence change in the behaviour of the followers. This could make it challenging to retain and improve performance in the context of change. In sum, the current study asserts that if there is a strong mutual dyadic relationship between leaders and followers, the organisation is likely be able to use organisational learning to foster organisational citizenship behaviour, whereby followers go above and beyond their normal call of duty. It can be argued that where a high-quality leader-member exchange exists, leaders are more like to empower followers to learn and take responsibility. This is likely to make followers feel valued and therefore invest more effort in the organisation. This can be valuable to an organisation by helping to improve productivity and performance.

When followers feel leaders care about them, that colleagues are trustworthy, and that learning experience and knowledge received from organisations are beneficial, their citizenship behaviour can be regarded as a reciprocal exchange to pursue individual and mutual benefits (Kim & Park 2019: 1354).

5.2.6 The Relationship between Resistance to Change, Transformational Leadership, Leader-Member Exchange and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Upon testing the moderating role of resistance to change between transformational leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour, the results highlight that resistance to change fully moderated the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour. This study also examined the role of resistance to change in moderating the relationship between leader-member exchange and organisational citizenship behaviour. Resistance to change, according to the findings, has a significant impact on the link between leader-member exchange and organisational citizenship behaviour. This suggests that when resistance to change is high, the relationship between transformational leadership and OCB is weakened. Therefore, when there is a high level of resistance to change, transformational leaders are less likely to be able to encourage OCB among their followers. In the same vein, high resistance to change reduces the strength of influence high leader-member exchange quality can have on fostering OCB of followers.

To assess the actual and perceived effectiveness of a change project, it is crucial to recognise resistance as an opportunity for progress and to include it as part of a feedback loop at all stages of a change endeavour (Brown, 2011). Resistance to change has been a topic of significant interest in organisational research because it has the potential to be related to an organisation's long-term competitive advantages (Kwahk & Lee, 2008; Murtagh et al, 2012; Oreg, 2006; Triventi & Trivellato, 2009). Although some researchers have suggested that resistance to change is harmless to organisations, and that it can be viewed not only as a necessary part of the change process, but also as a potential trigger for better changes, mainstream assumptions and perspectives regard resistance to change as harmful in that they can compromise organisational effectiveness and efficiency (Murtagh et al, 2012; Thomas & Hardy, 2011). Assessing the level of resistance, identifying the causes, and taking action to mitigate its negative consequences is part of the task for a change leader. Depending on the degree of impact the change has on working habits, resistance might range from minimal to high; the more resistance there is, the more difficult implementation will be (Brown, 2011). As a result, less resistance is preferable for success in a changing organisation. Thereby, it can be argued that transformational leadership and leader-member exchange, the two essential leadership styles investigated in this study, and their relationship with OL and OCB, are comparable.

5.3 Summary

To improve understanding of the mediating role of transformational leadership and leader-member exchange in an organisation's learning and citizenship behaviour during change in road transportation companies, this chapter has explained and discussed the various findings and contributions of the proposed research models. The findings show that transformative leadership and leader-member exchange help to mediate the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour among followers. This also shows that these leadership styles can have a positive impact on the learning and general behaviour of followers. The final chapter will present the conclusions and limitations of this research.

Chapter Six: Conclusions and Limitations

6.1 Introduction

This chapter is broken down into four main sections. First, an overview of the study and its objectives. Second, summary of the research gaps, how they were addressed, and their theoretical and practical implications will be outlined. Third, emphasis is placed on the significant contributions of this research in terms of both its theoretical extension of the current literature and its practical application. Finally, the limitations of this research are discussed, and suggestions are put forward for further research.

6.2 Summary of the Research Objectives and Conclusions

The aim of this study was to assess the impact of transformational leadership and leader-member exchange on mediating the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour in the changing and evolving environment of a group of Nigerian road transport companies. The study's main purpose was to assess how TFL and LMX can be used to help companies improve organisational citizenship behaviour among employees (e.g. Wang et al. 2005; Sherwani & Natheer, 2021). From a positivist perspective, theoretical models were tested using a survey that was administered to 250 followers within a set of road transport companies in Nigeria. The results were then analysed in a quantitative manner. Psychometrically validated questionnaires were utilised to study the variables of transformational leadership, leader-member exchange, organisational learning, organisational citizenship behaviour, and resistance to change. The main objectives of this research were as follows:

1. To investigate the link between leadership (i.e. transformational leadership and leader-member exchange) and organisational learning.

2. To examine the association between leadership (i.e. transformational leadership and leader-member exchange) and organisational citizenship behaviour.

3. To evaluate the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour.

4. To examine the mediating role of the two leadership styles between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour.

5. To investigate the moderating relationship of resistance to change on leadership styles and organisational citizenship behaviour.

The data collected was analysed using descriptive statistics, confirmatory factor analysis, mediation analysis, and moderation analysis using the PROCESS tools and procedure for SPSS. As a result, it was argued that a good change agent or visionary leader, such as a transformational leader, should be able to positively influence his or her followers through effective interpersonal communication and a dyadic relationship (e.g. Wang, et al., 2005; Dulebohn, et al., 2012; Shusha, 2013; Erdogan & Bauer, 2014; Sherwani & Natheer, 2021). The results reveal that the criteria for a full mediation effect were met for both organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour, since the hypothesised relationship was supported. This suggests that transformational leadership has a complete mediation impact on the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour, whereas a regression analysis of organisational learning on organisational citizenship behaviour revealed a significant total effect. In other words, this thesis asserts that in a changing and developing environment, the type of leadership style an organisation adopts to govern the business, particularly in the transportation sector, is likely to have a significant influence on how followers learn and share learning within an organisation. In turn, this is likely to heavily influence the level of additional duties taken on by followers, beyond the expectations of the job specifications. An increase in such behaviour is often as a result of the desire of followers to thrive in a competitive labour market. However, such behaviours also have a positive effect on the potential of the business to survive and increase profitability.

In light of the above, the same may be said for leader-member exchange as a mediator of the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour in a dynamic and changing environment. A simple regression analysis of data associated with organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour yielded a significant total effect. The results show that a full mediation effect is fulfilled, and the hypothesis is verified for the paths from organisational learning to leader-member exchange and leader-member exchange to organisational citizenship behaviour. As with transformational leadership, the same holds true for leader-member exchange. As a result of the dyadic interaction between the leader and the follower, two-way interpersonal communication is present within leader-member exchange. This study shows that the quality of this dyadic interaction can influence the impact of organisational learning on organisational commitment behaviours. This is usually manifested by an increase in followers willing to go beyond their contractual duties. Without it, the survival of the organisation could be compromised and the transport sector could struggle to grow and discover new ideas in order to compete in a globally dynamic and changing environment.

This research also examined the link between transformational leadership and organisational learning and suggests that transformational leadership and organisational learning work

collaboratively. The hypothesis testing revealed a favourable link between the two, and the findings support the existing research in different contexts (e.g. Vera & Crossan, 2004; Gracia-Morales et al., 2012; Waruwu et al., 2020). For example, it supports the argument that an important organisational function for determining the effects of group learning is leadership (eg. Aragon-Correa et al., 2007; Yukl, 2009; Gracia-Morales et al., 2012; Waruwu et al., 2020). According to Hult et al. (2000), transformational leadership and organisational learning are closely connected. The value of transformational leadership has been emphasised in a number of studies on leadership and organisational learning (Vera & Crossan, 2004; Yukl, 2009). Transformational leadership is a vision-driven style of leadership that focuses on the significance of strong identification with both the leader and the work unit in which the leadership occurs (Bass & Riggio, 2006). It has also been demonstrated that transformational leadership can influence organisational learning by stimulating the mind and inspiring motivation and self-confidence among followers (Coad & Berry, 1998). As this study shows, this can serve to increase confidence and empower followers to engage in positive organisational citizenship behaviours. This can be considered crucial because, particularly in the developing and changing environment of road transport companies in Nigeria, the type of leadership styles and learning employed could determine the extent to which an organisation brings about change successfully.

In addition to the above, the link between leader-member exchange and organisational citizenship behaviour was investigated. Leader-member exchange, like transformational leadership, is a leadership style that focuses on the dyadic relationship between leaders and followers and could be significant to improving organisational citizenship behaviour. This study shows that organisational learning is linked to leader-member exchange, which helps promote positive organisational citizenship behaviour. Organisational citizenship behaviour plays a critical role in the success of organisations by initiating different workplace dynamics, fostering social connections in organisations and affecting employees' behaviours related to organisational functions and outcomes (Coldwell & Callaghan, 2014). Therefore, OCB can be highly beneficial to organisations during periods of transformation. According to Podsakoff et al. (1990), OCBs "clearly involve helping others with or preventing the occurrence of work-related problems" (p. 123). During a period of dynamic change, organisations are often faced with resistance, low morale and reduced productivity from followers. A high level of OCB can help mitigate this and benefit the organisation by contributing to its interests and effectiveness (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2004). While it entails discretionary behaviours on the part of the follower, it can be vital for productivity (Jo & Joo, 2011). Therefore, this research extends the existing research because, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, studies holistically

investigating the five variables examined in this study, in a changing environment specifically, are scarce.

Finally, it was discovered that resistance to change acts as a moderated mediator between transformational leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour. This demonstrates that when resistance to change is great, the indirect effect is significant. This implies that the hypothesised model is accepted. In other words, when resistance to change is high, the influence of transformational leadership on encouraging positive organisational citizenship behaviour is less impactful. The same may be said of the second mediator, the leader- member exchange leadership style. It was revealed that resistance to change a moderated mediator between leader-member exchange and organisational citizenship behaviour in the hypothesised model. Therefore, similarly high resistance to change reduces the strength of the positive impact leader-member dyadic relationships can have on followers engaging in OCB.

Based on the findings of this study it could be argued that, for an organisation to implement change and thrive within a transformational environment, organisations should encourage employee training and developing change leadership. Based on this argument, organisations should seek ways to develop transformational leadership and high-quality exchanges between leaders and followers. It is recommended that organisations put appropriate training in place for leaders and reward followers for organisational citizenship behaviour. Furthermore, seeking ways to appropriately lead change so that it generates the least amount of unhappiness among followers is also considered important. Training will also help leaders to understand, and pay attention to, individual needs. Put simply, it is argued that organisations should attempt to foster transformational leadership. This means organisations should focus on fostering a positive relationships between leaders and followers. It could be suggested that there is a need to develop a culture of understanding and appropriate training for leaders on how to foster transformational leadership skills and appropriately lead change so that they address individual needs and concerns within the big picture of the organisation's overall vision and goals.

Table 32. The link between the research questions, research findings and research implications.

Research Questions	Research Findings	Research Implications
Q1. What is the influence of organisational learning on organisational citizenship behaviour?	The results showed that organisational learning had a significant and positive relationship with organisational citizenship behaviour.	The findings of this study imply that organisational learning is vital in improving an organisation's organisational citizenship behaviour. As a result, this study concludes that facilitating different ways of organisational learning is critical to improving organisational behaviour.
Q2. How does the use of a transformational leadership style affect transport companies' organisational citizenship behaviour?	This study confirmed that transformational leadership has a significantly positive relationship with organisational citizenship behaviour.	This study's findings suggest that transformational leadership is essential for altering organisational behaviour. As a result of transformational leadership, employees' morale can be improved, and they are more likely to be willing to accomplish extra, more meaningful work.
Q3. Does transformational leadership mediate the relationship between transport companies' organisational learning and overall organisational citizenship behaviour?	Transformational leadership, according to the findings, entirely mediated the link between organisational learning and citizenship behaviour.	The outcomes of this study demonstrate that organisational learning can affect and increase employees' general citizenship behaviour through the use of transformational leadership behaviours in the transportation organisations studied.
Q4. Does leader-member exchange mediate the relationship between transport companies' organisational learning	The findings revealed that the association between organisational learning and organisational citizenship	The findings of this study also suggest that fostering a high-quality dyadic relationship between leaders and followers can be crucial for organisational learning to lead

and organisational citizenship behaviour?	behaviour was fully mediated by leader-member exchange.	to the display of high levels of followers' organisational citizenship behaviour.
Q5. Does resistance to change moderate the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour?	The findings revealed that the association between transformational leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour was fully moderated by resistance to change.	When a transformational leader is dealing with a change environment and has informed his or her staff about the need for change, employees will not need to oppose change. Instead, they will be able to improve the company's overall organisational citizenship behaviour.
Q6. Does resistance to change moderate the relationship between leader-member exchange and organisational citizenship behaviour?	According to the findings, resistance to change moderated the link between leader-member exchange and organisational citizenship behaviour.	Similar to the above implications, these findings indicate that resistance to change can worsen the dyadic relationship between leaders and followers. Therefore, in order to mitigate the above, leaders need to focus on developing high quality LMX relationships and try to find ways to reduce follower resistance to change. A strong mutual dyadic relationship between leaders and followers can be necessary to reduce resistance to change and improve the overall citizenship behaviour of the company's employees.

6.3 Research Gaps

Kim and Park (2019) called for, "additional research to explore more diverse factors strengthening the relationship between transformational leadership and employees' citizenship behaviours" (p.1356). Transformational leadership is thought to be most effective at supporting change (Eisenbach et al., 1999; Carter et al., 2013), hence this study investigated transformational leadership to investigate its association with OCB in an organisation experiencing change. Change also requires focus on the followers, so both transformational leadership and leader-member exchange were studied simultaneously.

In a changing and developing environment, the addition of transformational leadership has resulted in new knowledge and understanding of transformational leadership's impact on organisational learning and citizenship behaviour. According to Kim and Park (2019), further research was required to understand how organisational and leader support interact to influence employee organisational learning processes and level of participation in citizenship behaviours. Furthermore, they suggest that future research should focus on how better to understand the procedural and social processes of organisational learning via which transformational leaders encourage their followers to engage in citizenship behaviours. This research addresses this need. In this study, all these variables are studied collectively in one theoretical framework. This is because the current literature highlighted the importance of assessing how leadership style can enhance follower behaviour and an organisation's overall performance and productivity within a developing or changing environment. As a result, two leadership styles, namely, transformational leadership and leader-member exchange, were identified as the greatest fit to address the needs of this research. More research into the link between organisational citizenship behaviour and leadership had been requested in previous literature. As a result, it was important to analyse how the organisational citizenship behaviour of followers might be supported beyond contractual work performance and outcomes, as well as how leaders can encourage organisational citizenship behaviour in followers in the Nigerian transportation industry.

Do and Mai (2020) called for "additional research on the important but less studied sector of the economy as potential areas for future research" (p. 1211). This is the reasoning behind the decision to research the road transport sector, as one of the less studied sectors in this particular field of research. Organisations with higher-level organisational learning, according to Noruzy et al. (2012), are more able to meet today's concerns such as innovation and organisational performance. As a result, it is easy to see why both industry and academia have focused their efforts on better understanding learning processes and capacities, as well as the optimum conditions for organisational learning (Lahteenmaki et al. 2001).

"Unfortunately, there are a variety of approaches to organisational learning, and most of them have been stretched to fit each scholar's interpretation. The existence and interchangeable use of multiple conceptualisations of organisational learning, according to Wang and Ahmed (2003), has caused strong bias and definitional confusion for researchers. Because faulty conceptualisation leads to partial understanding and difficulty in finding synthesis (MacKenzie, 2003), a comprehensive framework that incorporates all components of organizational learning is urgently needed" (Do & Mai. 2020: 1201).

In addition, previous researchers have emphasised the importance of leadership in encouraging learning in organisations (Senge, 1990; Amitay et al., 2005). However, as the field of leadership research has grown, basic issues regarding study designs and replications of well-known leadership techniques such as transactional and transformational leadership have surfaced (Yukl, 2013; Tourish, 2019). Furthermore, because leadership theories have changed dramatically over the last decade, resulting in a variety of leadership approaches (Day, et al., 2014), it is difficult to develop a comprehensive model that encompasses the leadership approach required for organisational learning. There have so far been no successful attempts to create a unified framework for synthesising and expanding this research node. Vera and Crossan (2004), for example, conducted a review of the literature on strategic leadership theory and organisational learning in order to synthesise it. Their findings revealed that both exploration and exploitation of organisational learning are stimulated by transformational leadership and transactional behaviour of leaders. However, Vera and Crossan's (2004) research focused solely on transformational and transactional leadership at the strategic level. Do and Mai (2020) believe that a review of the relationship between leadership and organisational learning is needed to fill the gaps in the literature (p.1202).

6.3.1 Addressing the Research Gaps

The theoretical framework of this study integrated the five variables of this thesis. This research assessed the impact of transformational leadership and leader-member exchange on the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour in a changing environment. The purpose was to see if transformational leadership and leader-member exchange influenced the relationship between the two variables during change in a positive or negative way. In the Nigerian transportation industry, it is also essential to research how organisational citizenship behaviours among followers can be improved beyond normal job performance and outcomes, as well as how leaders can encourage positive organisational citizenship behaviour. This study is unique, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, in studying all these variables combined in a holistic way. Arguably, studying the links between these variables addresses the research gaps highlighted by Kim and Park (2019) who highlight the need

to study, "more diverse factors strengthening the relationship between transformational leadership and employees' citizenship behaviours" (p.1356). Also, further research was required to understand how organisational and leader support interact to influence employees' organisational learning process and level of participation in citizenship behaviours. The findings of this study showed that transformational leadership and leader-member exchange had a high mediation effect on the two variables of organisational learning and citizenship behaviour, proving the model's validity. In addition, the moderating impact of resistance to change was also studied here, showing a strong requirement for leaders to focus on reducing resistance to change, so that organisational citizenship behaviour can be fostered.

The above understanding can be adopted by organisations to help put in place appropriate training for leaders and followers, reward followers for organisational citizenship behaviour, and find ways to appropriately lead change so that it generates fulfilment in followers. Training will also help leaders to understand and pay attention to individual needs.

Furthermore, this study addresses the research gaps highlighted by Do and Mai (2020) and adds to the ongoing contemporary debate on leadership and organisational learning. Transformational leadership and leader-member exchange are two important leadership styles examined in this thesis that help in improving an organisation's organisational learning. Organisational learning is crucial because, as a result of its visionary insight and the dyadic relationship between leaders and followers, when an organisation learns, the leaders and followers learn as well, and the organisation's overall behaviour improves and becomes competitive enough to compete in the global workplace.

6.4 Theoretical Significance

This study extends the body of research on transformational leadership, leader-member exchange, organisational learning, and organisational citizenship behaviour. Transformations inside organisations are frequently greeted with opposition from followers who are experiencing instability and uncertainty, resulting in a significant need for additional information and knowledge. Sourcing and sharing information and knowledge within organisations is likely to help with learning and understanding within the organisation, which in turn, could enhance citizenship behaviours and thereby productivity.

According to the findings, transformational leadership has a considerable impact on the link between organisational learning and citizenship behaviour. Different studies have previously looked at the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2004), as well as the relationship between organisational learning and transformational leadership (Somech & Drach-Zahavy, 2004; Coad & Berry, 1998;

Gong et al., 2009; Estevez & Janowski, 2013; Bryson, 2018). This study, went a step further by investigating the impact of transformational leadership on the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour to assess whether transformational leadership can have an impact on the relationship between the two variables. The impact of transformational leadership on organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour has been identified as a significant force that could transform follower behaviour. It also helps to provide new research in terms of understanding the impact of transformational leadership on organisational learning and citizenship behaviour (Northouse, 2016). According to the findings, leader-member exchange mediates the association between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour. It is crucial to study this as the quality of relationship between leaders and followers can influence how followers behave within an organisation and their level of investment. The types of leadership style adopted by leaders within a changing or developing environment determine how the citizenship behaviour of followers will be affected, either positively or negatively. As a result, the two important leadership styles examined in this research study were transformational leadership and leader-member exchange, which are regarded as the most appropriate types of leadership style in dealing with a changing or evolving environment.

In addition, the moderating variable, resistance to change, diminished the impact of transformational leadership on organisational citizenship behaviour, according to this study. This means that there is a strong link between transformational leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour when opposition to change decreases.

Similarly, when resistance to change is included as a moderating component, the influence of leader-member exchange on organisational citizenship behaviour appears to be reduced. This is because the leader may not have effective interpersonal relationships with his or her followers and is without clear orientation that highlights the need to upgrade or change. In this scenario, followers are unlikely to display positive citizenship behaviour within the organisation. Rather, the followers may feel forced to resist change because of a lack of proper change orientation provided by leaders. To the best of the researcher's knowledge, previous research has not looked at the function of resistance to change in moderating the relationship between leader-member exchange and organisational citizenship behaviour. As a result, this research illuminates the significant impact of resistance to change on organisational citizenship behaviour. In essence, this study showed that both follower-centric leadership styles positively influenced the citizenship behaviour of followers.

6.5 Practical Contribution

Transformational leadership and leader-member exchange have a considerable impact on organisational learning and citizenship behaviour during change, according to this thesis. The study's findings have practical implications for organisations looking to develop effective and successful learning interventions that will reflect the role of transformational leadership's function and leader-member exchange in improving citizenship behaviour among followers, particularly in Nigeria's transportation sector. Studying these constructs collectively sheds light on how organisational positive citizenship behaviour can be increased within an organisation undergoing change, while resistance to change moderates the relationship. For organisations to thrive within a changing environment, it could be argued that organisations need to invest in the training and development of change leadership. According to the conclusion of this study, organisations are likely to benefit by investing more in developing the transformational leadership style. The five transport companies that were studied in this thesis may stand to gain from these insights by introducing a culture of learning, which can be facilitated by their leaders, on how to foster high quality relationships between leaders and followers. Also, this study looked at five variables (transformational leadership, leader-member exchange, organisational learning, resistance to change and organisational citizenship behaviour) in a holistic way.

Thus, leaders could attempt to mitigate resistance in an organisations by ensuring that the reasons behind the change is clearly communicated to followers. Based on the findings of this study, it could be argued that supporting and training leaders in developing their transformational leadership behaviours and equipping leaders with the tools and skills to be able to develop high quality leader-member exchange relationships, can be effective in mitigating resistance to change. In particular, this would help leaders to provide individualised attention to followers, act as role models, and help staff understand how engaging in the changes would be beneficial to them. Thereby an increase in the demonstration of high-quality leadership styles examined in this study, could encourage followers to productively engage with their leader's vision and go above and beyond the call of duty. In other words, they would begin to demonstrating positive organisational citizenship behaviours. This might lead to increased engagement and possibly championing the changes that the organisations are working to put in place. Therefore, training and developing these leadership styles could improve the citizenship behaviours of followers in an organisation. In turn, this could help to reduce the level of resistance, and therefore the potentially negative effects of resistance to change.

As an integrative model bringing together organisational learning and development, this study emphasises the importance of scientifically demonstrating how transformational leadership and leader-member exchange affect organisational citizenship behaviour, particularly from the

perspective of followers. Nigeria is one of the fastest growing and largest economies on the continually changing African continent. Nigeria's transportation sector is one of the country's most important economic sectors because of its competitiveness in the emerging market in a developing world. In this context, it is crucial to consider how leaders may promote followers' organisational citizenship behaviour in the Nigerian transportation industry, as well as how followers' citizenship behaviour might be supported beyond job performance and outcomes. The findings of this thesis may encourage management, researchers, and practitioners in Nigeria to pay more attention to how transportation companies can maximise the effect of transformational leadership and promote effective dyadic relationships or interpersonal communication between leaders and followers, as well as organisational learning, to improve positive behaviours among followers.

In other words, the findings of this study will help organisations develop effective organisational learning interventions that reflect the role of transformational leadership and interpersonal dyadic mutual relationships in improving followers' citizenship behaviour in the workplace, especially in Nigeria's transportation industry. This research study recommends that organisations provide more learning opportunities for followers to experience and engage in citizenship behaviours by implementing appropriate organisational learning interventions, based on the impact of leadership and dyadic mutual relationship on followers' citizenship behaviour through organisational learning (e.g. coaching and mentoring, collaborative work and outreach programmes). To fulfill the demands of a competitive labour market, managers should instil in their employees the necessity for continuous and learning, training, and development.

Furthermore, mature followers' citizenship behaviour and well-maintained interpersonal dyadic relationships could have a favourable social impact beyond the organisational level. Internal dynamics, such as leadership and organisational learning, can help organisations flourish as a social unit, meaning that followers begin to help others. These organisations may be able to raise awareness of the crucial role of the leader-follower connection, as well as followers' citizenship behaviour, in sustaining a strong society throughout time. This perspective in particular may provide insights for the Nigerian transportation industry in achieving results over a short period of time while also adhering to long-term goals and strategies. As a result, an organisation's facilitation of well-maintained dyadic relationships and citizenship behaviour among followers can assist future employees to become trustworthy citizens for personal, professional, organisational, and social development.

6.6 Contribution to Knowledge

A large number of articles on leadership styles, organisational learning, change, and organisational citizenship behaviour in various sectors of the economy have been assessed as part of this research, with the goal of adding new knowledge to research on the Nigerian transportation sector in particular. According to Kim and Park (2019), "specifically, in the era of rapidly changing organisations and business environments, organisational citizenship behaviour plays a critical role in the success of organisations by initiating different workplace dynamics, fostering social connections, in organisations and affecting employees' behaviours related to organisational functions and outcomes". Individual variations, attitudinal variables, leadership factors, and job features have all received a significant amount of attention, causing scholars to analyse the key drivers of employees' organisational citizenship behaviour (Dai et al., 2018; Salas-Vallina et al., 2017a, b). Personality qualities, work happiness, organisational commitment, transformational leadership, and task interdependency, for example, have been proven to predict employee citizenship behaviour (Chiaburu et al., 2011; Cho & Dansereau, 2010).

Leadership has been identified as a crucial component in changing employee behaviour among the numerous factors (Northouse, 2016). Transformational leadership in particular, is a significant factor in developing followers' citizenship behaviour in a variety of organisational environments (e.g. Carter et al., 2014; Khalili, 2017). Although earlier research has looked at the roles of a variety of antecedents in followers' citizenship behaviour, the majority of these studies have focused on dispositional, attitude, leadership, and work elements of organisational citizenship behaviour predictors rather than on the relationship and learning related factors. Previous research has looked at the role of personal (e.g. proactive personality and self-efficacy) and organisational (e.g. organisational support atmosphere and organisational concern) elements as mediators between leadership and organisational citizenship behaviour (Mo & Shi, 2017; Newman et al., 2017; Li et al., 2017). The purpose of this study was to investigate the connections between transformational leadership, leader-member exchange, and organisational learning, as well as organisational citizenship behaviour in a changing environment. In a developing or changing context, what are the connections or interactions between transformational leadership, leader-member exchange, organisational learning, and organisational citizenship behaviour? This was the overarching question that guided this research study.

This study has made a significant contribution to the field. First, this thesis examined how the two leadership styles employed in this study and learning factors influence followers' citizenship behaviour within the context of a changing environment. To investigate the link between leader follower behaviour in reforming the road transport businesses in Nigeria, transformational

leadership and leader-member exchange were investigated as mediators of organisational learning when influencing organisational citizenship behaviour in this thesis. In order to evaluate the relationship between leader behaviour and follower citizenship behaviour, in comparison to prior studies, this thesis focused more on learning and relational-related mediators than previous studies. Second, this research proposed a conceptual framework to promote transformational leadership, leader-member exchange, organisational learning, organisational citizenship behaviour, and their interactions in a changing environment. This thesis will aid researchers and academics in better understanding the dynamic links that exist between leadership styles, organisational learning, and organisational citizenship behaviour in a changing and developing context. Finally, in the context of the Nigerian road transport industry, this research investigated follower perceptions of the five variables.

6.7 Limitations

The limitations of this research can be outlined in five main points. First, the role of transformational leadership and leader-member exchange in mediating the relationship between organisational learning and organisational citizenship behaviour in Nigerian road transport businesses undergoing change is investigated in this study. As a result, the research findings are more likely to be applicable to the Nigerian transport context and may not apply to other sectors.

Second, this study was carried out using a quantitative approach. Quantitative research data collection methods, in particular the use of surveys to collect data, have several advantages. These include being relatively quick, providing exact, quantitative, numerical data, and being suitable for examining large groups of people. Furthermore, quantitative methods are better for answering some questions and qualitative for others. In contrast, qualitative studies could help to explore why transformational leadership mediates OL and OCB. Therefore, employing qualitative methods in future research could help obtain richer findings. In addition, further research using longitudinal data might be beneficial in order to study changes over time.

Third, this thesis relies heavily on single-source reporting for data collection. This could lead to a common method variance that may affect the connections between the study's variables. In order to address this, future research could attempt to collect data from both leaders and followers as opposed to only followers, as is the case in this study. A strengths of qualitative research is that the data is based on participants' own categories of meaning. It is also useful for studying a limited number of cases in depth and for describing complex phenomena. It also provides individual case information. This study relied on questionnaire data, which is more appropriate for describing an event. Qualitative data in the words and categories of participants

lend themselves to exploring how and why phenomena occur. Hence, future research should make use of interviews when collecting the data of managers and employees in an organisation undergoing change, as this could provide further insight into how and why transformational leadership enhances organisational citizenship behaviour.

Fourth, the sample of data collection was limited to followers. The researcher was unable to obtain data from leaders due to time constraints. However, a combination of views from both leaders and followers would be beneficial to this research. Therefore, it is suggested that more research be conducted to include the perceptions of leaders within Nigerian road transport firms.

Further research is required to uncover additional elements that reinforce the link between leadership styles and organisational citizenship behaviours, particularly from the perspective of leaders. Future research should expand on this by collecting data either from leaders or from both leaders and followers. Furthermore, it worth noting that the majority of participants in this study were male. This may be related to the cultural belief often held by Nigerian road transport companies that males are more respected than females in the transport industry and that they are therefore more skilled in the ability to control transport companies. This could potentially be another interesting area for enquiry in future research.

Finally, this thesis examined the relevant literature by identifying and testing two leadership styles (transformational leadership and leader-member exchange) that influence followers' citizenship behaviour during change. Future research should be encouraged to expand on this.

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Appendix 1: Research Questionnaire

THIS RESEARCH IS FOR MY DOCTORAL (PhD) THESIS THE RESEARCH SEEKS TO STUDY BEHAVIOURS IN ORGANISATION

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am doing a survey and I seek your kind assistance in completing this questionnaire. The study examines Leadership and change in road transport companies in Nigeria. Please complete the questionnaire.

There is no right or wrong answer. All your answers will be kept **CONFIDENTIAL** and participants will only be identified by assigned code names.

The survey will take about 30 minutes to complete. In exchange for your time, I will send an executive summary of my findings to those returning completed surveys. I would also be happy to present my findings to your organisation upon request. If you would like to receive a copy of the executive summary, please provide your email address below or attach a business card.

Email address:………………………………………………………………………..

I am aware of your job commitments but your participation is very important to the study and is highly appreciated. Thank you for your valuable time.

Yours faithfully,

Uchechukwu Elizabeth Edeh

E-mail: lizgold4real@gmail.com

Please do not hesitate to contact me if you have any queries.

Questionnaire 1: About Leadership 1 (MLQ Bass, 1985).

No		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently if not always
1	My manager instils pride in others for being associated with him.					
2	My manager goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group.					
3	My manager acts in ways that build his respect.					
4	My manager displays a sense of power and confidence.					
5	My manager talks about our most important values and beliefs.					
6	My manager specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.					
7	My manager considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.					
8	My manager emphasises the importance of having a collective sense of mission.					
9	My manager talks optimistically about the future.					
10	My manager talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.					
11	My manager articulates a compelling vision of the future.					
12	My manager expresses confidence that goals will be achieved.					
13	My manager re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.					
14	My manager seeks differing perspectives when solving problems.					
15	My manager gets me to look at problems from many different angles.					

16	My manager suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.					
17	My manager spends time teaching and coaching.					
18	My manager treats others as individuals rather than just as members of the group.					
19	My manager considers that I have different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.					
20	My manager helps me to develop my strengths.					

Questionnaire 2: About Leadership 2 (LMX7 Graen and Uhi-Bien, 1995).

1. Do you usually know how satisfied your leader is with what you do?

Rarely   Occasionally   Sometimes   Fairly Often   Very Often

2. How well does your leader understand your job problems and needs?

Not a Bit   A Little   A Fair Amount   Quite a Bit   A Great Deal

3. How well does your leader recognise your potential?

Not at All   A Little   Moderately   Mostly   Fully

4. Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/her position, what are the chances that your leader would use his/her power to help you solve problems in your work?

None   Small   Moderate   High   Very High

5. Again, regardless of amount of formal authority your leader has, what are the chances that he/she would "bail you out", at his/her expense?

None   Small   Moderate   High   Very High

6. I have enough confidence in my leader that I would defend and justify his/her decision if he/she were not present to do so?

Strongly Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Strongly Agree

7. How would you characterise your working relationship with your leader?

Extremely Ineffective   Worse than Average   Average   Better than Average   Extremely Effective

Questionnaire 3: About Learning (DLOQ, Watkins & Marsick, 1997).

No		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	In my organisation, people help each other learn.					
2	In my organisation, people are given time to support learning.					
3	In my organisation, people are rewarded for learning.					
4	In my organisation, people give honest feedback to each other.					
5	In my organisation, whenever people state their view, they also ask what others think.					
6	In my organisation, people spend time building trust with each other.					
7	In my organisation, teams/groups have the freedom to adapt their goals as needed.					
8	In my organisation, teams/groups revise their thinking as a result of group discussions or information collected.					
9	In my organisation, teams/groups are confident that the organisation will act on their recommendations.					
10	My organisation creates systems to measure gaps between current and expected performance.					
11	My organisation makes its lessons learned available to all employees.					
12	My organisation measures the results of the time and resources spent on training.					
13	My organisation recognises people for taking initiatives.					

14	My organisation gives people control over the resources they need to accomplish their work.					
15	My organisation supports employees who take calculated risks.					
16	My organisation encourages people to think from a global perspective.					
17	My organisation works together with the outside community to meet mutual needs.					
18	My organisation encourages people to get answers from across the organisation when solving problems.					
19	In my organisation, leaders mentor and coach those they lead.					
20	In my organisation, leaders continually look for opportunities to learn.					
21	In my organisation, leaders ensure that the organisation's action are consistent with its values.					

Questionnaire 4: About Change (Shaul Oreg, 2003).

No		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Tend to Disagree	Tend to Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I believed that the change would have a negative effect on the manner in which work is performed by the division.						
2	I thought it was good that the change was taking place.						
3	I was open to consider and try out the change.						
4	I believed that the change would make my job harder.						
5	I believed that the change would benefit the division.						
6	I thought the change would benefit me personally.						
7	I was afraid of the change.						
8	I had a bad feeling regarding the change.						
9	I was enthusiastic towards the change.						
10	The change made me angry.						
11	The change stressed me out.						
12	I tended to oppose the change.						
13	I was thinking of going along with the change.						
14	I was looking for ways to prevent the change.						
15	I protested against the change.						

16	I complained about the change to my friends.						
17	I expressed my objections of the change to members of management.						
18	I spoke for the change.						

Questionnaire 5: About Behaviours (Podsakoff et al., 1990).

No		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1	I have work attendance that is above the norm.					
2	I believe in giving an honest day's work for an honest day's pay.					
3	I obey company rules and regulations even when no one is watching.					
4	I try to see the positive, rather than focus on what's wrong.					
5	I often critise what the organisation is doing.					
6	I attend functions that are not required, but help the company image.					
7	I keep abreast of changes in the organisation.					
8	I do not abuse the rights of others.					
9	I try to avoid creating problems for co-workers.					
10	I consider the impact of my actions on co-workers.					
11	I help orient new people even though it is not required.					
12	I help others who have heavy workloads.					
13	I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me.					
14	I am one of our most conscientious employees.					
15	I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.					
16	I always focus on what's wrong, rather than the positive side.					

17	I tend to make "mountains out of molehills".					
18	I am the classic "squeaky wheel"that always needs greasing.					
19	I attend meetings that are not mandatory, but are considered important.					
20	I read and keep up with the organisation announcements, memos, and so on.					
21	I take steps to try and prevent problems with other workers.					
22	I am mindful of how my behaviour affects other people's job.					
23	I willingly help others who have work-related problems.					
24	I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me.					

Section A (Respondent Profile)

Please fill in the blanks or tick in the appropriate fields.

1. Name of the Leader being rated:………………………………………………

2. Position of the Manager:………………………………………………………

3. Your age (years)

4. Your gender

1	Male	
2	Female	

5. Your current department's name:

6.

1	Full-time	
2	Part-time	

7. Your highest Level of Education

1	Bachelor	
2	HND	
3	OND	
4	WAEC	
5	First School Leaving Certificate	
6	Others (Please Specify)	

8. Your working Experience

No	Working Experience in	Number of years
1	Current division/unit	
2	Current organisation	
3	Total work experience in transport sector	