

**AN AXIS OF ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS:
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION,
ORGANISATIONAL LEADERSHIP, AND CUSTOMER
SATISFACTION**

By

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ABSTRACT

The objective of this research was to develop and test a theoretical model of the construct of organisational effectiveness in a multimedia cable, internet and telecommunications organisation. This research model of organisational effectiveness comprised three other constructs, namely job satisfaction, organisational leadership and customer satisfaction.

The contribution provided by this study addresses a void in the research literature in terms of creating and testing a unique theoretical model of organizational effectiveness.

The model of organisational effectiveness which was developed, included a valid and reliable measurement questionnaire comprising three parts representing the constructs of job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction. It was used as a diagnostic tool to measure and examine organisational effectiveness in the participating organisation, with potential application in other organisations as well.

The research consisted of both the literature review and empirical phases. The literature review involved an examination of the constructs of job satisfaction, organisational leadership and customer satisfaction. As part of the literature review, the construct of organisational effectiveness was explored on the basis of a number of models and theories. The literature review expanded the theoretical knowledge base of the constructs of job satisfaction, organisational leadership, customer satisfaction and organisational effectiveness.

With the literature review laying the foundation, the research proceeded to the empirical phase where the organisational effectiveness model was validated by conducting a survey of employees and customers from the organisation.

The survey results were then examined utilising structured equation modelling, followed by a confirmatory factor analysis, which confirmed the relationship between the research construct factors and the organisational effectiveness model.

After the application of structured equation modelling, a sound goodness of fit was determined between the job satisfaction, organisational leadership and the customer satisfaction constructs as part of the organisational effectiveness model.

The empirical phase of this research resulted in confirmation of the theoretical hypothesis by generating a tested and valid model of organisational effectiveness.

This model and the statistical findings of the research should benefit the host organisation in maintaining and enhancing organisational effectiveness, as well as its marketplace and industry competitiveness.

The organisational effectiveness research/model and integrated measurement instrument developed can be used in other operations and organisations (regardless of industry) because the three constructs of; job satisfaction, organisational leadership and customer satisfaction are common management and organisational challenges in the quest to maximise organisational effectiveness.

This research is expected make a meaningful contribution to the body of knowledge, and provides practical application opportunities for industrial and organisational psychologists, which might reignite research interest in the area of organisational effectiveness.

Key terms: Organisational effectiveness, job satisfaction, organisational leadership, customer satisfaction, employee motivation, effectiveness measurement, theoretical model of organisational effectiveness, organisational performance, employee-customer-leadership linkage, and employee involvement.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION	i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	ii
ABSTRACT	iii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiv
LIST OF TABLES	xv
CHAPTER 1	1
INTRODUCTION TO AND MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH.....	1
1.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH	1
1.2 BACKGROUND TO AND MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH	2
1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT.....	4
1.4 AIMS OF THE STUDY	6
1.4.1 General aim	6
1.4.2 Specific aims.....	7
1.4.2.1 Aims of the literature review	7
1.4.2.2 Aims of the empirical research	7
1.5 RESEARCH MODEL	8
1.5.1 Overview of the research model	8
1.5.2 Components of the research model	9
1.5.2.1 The intellectual climate	9
1.5.2.2 The market of intellectual resources.....	9
1.5.2.3 The research process	9
1.5.3 Dimensions of social science research	10
1.5.3.1 Sociological dimension	10
1.5.3.2 Ontological dimension	10
1.5.3.3 Teleological dimension	11
1.5.3.4 Epistemological dimension	11
1.5.3.5 Methodological dimensions	12
1.6 THE PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE.....	12
1.6.1 Relevant research paradigms	14
1.6.1.1 Humanistic paradigm	14
1.6.1.2 Systems paradigm.....	14
1.6.1.3 Functionalistic paradigm	14
1.6.2 Field of study	14
1.6.3 Theoretical statements and methodological convictions	15
1.6.3.1 Central research hypothesis.....	15
1.6.3.2 Research concepts	16
1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN.....	16
1.7.1 Research variables.....	16
1.7.2 Unit of analysis	17
1.7.3 Research typology	17
1.7.4 Establishing validity.....	18
1.7.5 Establishing reliability	19
1.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	19
1.8.1 Literature review phase	19
1.8.1.1 Job satisfaction	20
1.8.1.2 Organisational leadership.....	20
1.8.1.3 Customer satisfaction	20
1.8.1.4 Organisational effectiveness	20

1.8.2	Empirical research phase	20
1.8.2.1	Population and sample	20
1.8.2.2	Measurement instruments and tools	20
1.8.2.3	Data collection and gathering	20
1.8.2.4	Data analysis and processing.....	21
1.8.2.5	Interpreting and reporting of research results	21
1.8.3	Conclusions, limitations and recommendations phase	21
1.8.3.1	Conclusions drawn from the research	21
1.9	DIVISION OF CHAPTERS	21
1.10	CHAPTER SUMMARY	22
CHAPTER 2.....		23
EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION: FOUNDATION OF THE ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS STUDY		23
2.1	INTRODUCTION TO EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION	23
2.2	EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION FRAMEWORK FOR THE AXIS MODEL	23
2.3	THEORIES OF EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION	25
2.3.1	Hierarchy of needs theory	27
2.3.2	Motivation-hygiene theory of motivation	30
2.3.3	Theory of needs (achievement theory)	36
2.3.3.1	Need for achievement (nAch).....	36
2.3.3.2	Need for power (nPow).....	37
2.3.3.3	Need for affiliation (nAff).....	37
2.3.4	Theory X and theory Y	38
2.3.4.1	Theory X	38
2.3.4.2	Theory Y	39
2.3.5	ERG theory	40
2.3.6	Reinforcement theory	43
2.3.7	Cognitive evaluation theory	45
2.3.8	Intrinsic motivation model (theory)	47
2.3.8.1	Choice.....	48
2.3.8.2	Competence	48
2.3.8.3	Meaningfulness.....	48
2.3.8.4	Progress	48
2.3.9	Equity theory	50
2.3.10	Goal-setting theory.....	56
2.3.11	Expectancy theory.....	61
2.3.11.1	Valence.....	61
2.3.11.2	Instrumentality	62
2.3.11.3	Expectancy	63
2.3.12	Employee motivation theories central to this study	65
2.3.12.1	Goal-setting theory	66
2.3.12.2	Reinforcement theory	67
2.3.12.3	Expectancy theory	67
2.3.12.4	Cognitive evaluation theory	68
2.4	CHAPTER SUMMARY	69
CHAPTER 3.....		71
JOB SATISFACTION		71
3.1	INTRODUCTION TO JOB SATISFACTION	71
3.2	HISTORICAL FOUNDATION OF JOB SATISFACTION	72
3.3	JOB SATISFACTION THEORIES: RESULTS AND EVALUATIONS	73

3.3.1	Dispositional theory	78
3.3.1.1	General self-efficacy.....	80
3.3.1.2	Locus of control	80
3.3.1.3	Self-esteem.....	80
3.3.1.4	Neuroticism.....	80
3.3.2	Range of affect theory.....	83
3.3.3	Job characteristic model	86
3.3.3.1	Skill variety.....	86
3.3.3.2	Task identity.....	86
3.3.3.3	Task significance	86
3.3.3.4	Autonomy.....	86
3.3.3.5	Task feedback	87
3.3.4	Cornell integrative model	91
3.3.5	Situational occurrences theory.....	94
3.3.5.1	Organisational characteristics	95
3.3.5.2	Job characteristics.....	96
3.3.5.3	Individual characteristics	96
3.4	ANTECEDENTS OR DIMENSIONS OF JOB SATISFACTION	97
3.4.1	Environmental antecedents.....	98
3.4.1.1	Job characteristics.....	98
3.4.1.2	Job task or role variable	99
3.4.1.3	Pay.....	100
3.4.2	Personal characteristics	101
3.4.2.1	Age	101
3.4.2.2	Personality traits	102
3.4.2.3	Cultural demographics.....	102
3.4.2.4	Gender.....	104
3.4.3	The person-job fit antecedent	104
3.5	JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS	105
3.5.1	Job satisfaction impact on organisational success	105
3.5.2	The organisational citizenship behaviour link	107
3.5.3	Performance as an intervening variable	108
3.5.4	Trust as a link to organisational effectiveness	109
3.5.5	Organisational policies as an intervening variable.....	110
3.5.6	Linking climate, satisfaction and effectiveness	110
3.6	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	112
CHAPTER 4.....		114
ORGANISATIONAL LEADERSHIP		114
4.1	INTRODUCTION TO ORGANISATIONAL LEADERSHIP.....	114
4.2	DEFINITIONAL FRAMEWORK FOR ORGANISATIONAL LEADERSHIP	114
4.3	CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATION OF ORGANISATIONAL LEADERSHIP	121
4.3.1	Dyadic processes	121
4.3.2	Organisational processes.....	122
4.3.3	Intra-individual processes.....	123
4.3.4	Group processes	123
4.3.5	Challenges in comparing leadership theories.....	124
4.3.5.1	Behaviour dimension or paradigm.....	125
4.3.5.2	Power and influence dimension or paradigm	125
4.3.5.3	Trait dimension or paradigm.....	126
4.3.5.4	Situational dimension or paradigm	127
4.3.5.5	Integrative dimension or paradigm	128

4.4	THEORIES OF ORGANISATIONAL LEADERSHIP	128
4.4.1	Great man (person) theory	131
4.4.2	Trait theory	132
4.4.3	Behavioural theory approach	133
4.4.4	Leadership style theories	135
4.4.4.1	Boss or subordinate centred leadership	136
4.4.4.2	Initiating the structure or consideration	137
4.4.4.3	Autocratic versus democratic style theory	139
4.4.4.4	Job versus employee centred leadership	140
4.4.4.5	Concern for production or concern for people	141
4.4.4.6	System 4	144
4.4.4.7	LPC contingency theory of leadership	145
4.4.4.8	Situational leadership	147
4.4.4.9	Normative model	149
4.4.4.10	Path-goal theory of leadership	151
4.4.4.11	Leader-member exchange theory	152
4.4.4.12	Cognitive resource theory	153
4.4.4.13	Implicit leadership theory	154
4.4.4.14	Substitute for leadership theory	155
4.4.4.15	Transactional versus transformational leadership theory	157
4.4.4.16	Charismatic leadership theory	160
4.4.4.17	Stewardship theory versus traditional leadership theory	163
4.5	MODEL FOR COMPARING AND ANALYSING LEADERSHIP THEORIES	165
4.5.1	Leader versus follower centred theories	165
4.5.2	Prescriptive versus descriptive theories	166
4.5.3	Contingency versus universal theory	166
4.6	LEADERSHIP FROM A FUNCTIONAL AND DIMENSIONAL PERSPECTIVE	168
4.6.1	Broad leadership functions	168
4.6.2	Specific functions of leadership	168
4.6.3	Principles of leadership	170
4.6.4	Leading versus managing	170
4.7	LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT IMPACT ON LEADER EFFECTIVENESS	171
4.7.1	Strategic organisational leadership development	171
4.7.2	Leadership development through organisational learning	173
4.7.3	Six passages of leadership development	174
4.8	PERSPECTIVES ON LEADERSHIP AND ITS EFFECTIVENESS	175
4.8.1	Defining leadership effectiveness	175
4.8.2	An approach for assessing leadership effectiveness	177
4.8.3	Five practices of leadership effectiveness	177
4.8.4	Emerging versus experienced leader effectiveness	179
4.8.5	Leadership renewal and improved effectiveness	180
4.8.6	Psychological process and leadership effectiveness	181
4.9	LEADERSHIP STRATEGIES AND ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS	182
4.9.1	Results-based leadership	182
4.9.1.1	Organisation	182
4.9.1.2	Customer-focused leadership	182
4.9.1.3	Employees	183
4.9.1.4	Investors	183
4.9.2	Leadership effectiveness during paradigm shifts	183
4.10	LEADERSHIP IMPACT ON ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS	184
4.10.1	Transforming leaders and organisational effectiveness	184
4.10.2	Leadership, culture and organisational effectiveness	185

4.10.3	Visionary leadership and organisational effectiveness	186
4.10.4	Leadership, employee involvement and effectiveness	187
4.11	CHAPTER SUMMARY	188
CHAPTER 5		190
CUSTOMER SATISFACTION		190
5.1	INTRODUCTION TO CUSTOMER SATISFACTION.....	190
5.1.1	The foundation of customer satisfaction	190
5.1.2	Antecedents of customer satisfaction	191
5.1.3	Basis for the employee/customer satisfaction link.....	191
5.2	CUSTOMER AND EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION LINKAGE	192
5.2.1	Employee differences and customer service behaviour	195
5.2.2	Employee impact on customer satisfaction	196
5.2.3	Organisational culture and service performance.....	198
5.2.4	Organisational behaviour and customer service	200
5.2.5	Employee performance and customer satisfaction	200
5.2.6	Summary of research findings.....	202
5.3	OUTCOMES ATTRIBUTED TO CUSTOMER SATISFACTION	203
5.3.1	Customer-related outcomes.....	203
5.3.2	Employee-related customer satisfaction outcomes	204
5.3.3	Performance-related customer satisfaction outcomes	205
5.3.4	Efficiency-related outcomes of customer satisfaction.....	205
5.3.5	Summary of research	206
5.4	CUSTOMER SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS.....	207
5.4.1	Customer retention and organisational effectiveness	209
5.4.2	Role of customer perception in customer satisfaction	210
5.4.3	Product versus service customer satisfaction.....	211
5.4.4	Value proposition and customer satisfaction	211
5.5	MODELS OF CUSTOMER SATISFACTION.....	213
5.5.1	Service profit chain/employee-customer linkage.....	214
5.5.1.1	Research relating to the service profit chain	216
5.5.1.2	Summary of service profit chain research findings.....	219
5.5.2	The employee-customer linkage research model	220
5.6	HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTICES AND CUSTOMER SATISFACTION.....	223
5.7	ADDRESSING CUSTOMER DISSATISFACTION AND ITS IMPACT	224
5.7.1	Organisational impact from dissatisfied customers.....	225
5.7.2	Recapturing dissatisfied customers	226
5.7.3	Customer complaint resolution organisational impact	227
5.8	CUSTOMER SATISFACTION AND ITS IMPACT ON LOYALTY.....	228
5.8.1	Customer satisfaction impact on repeat business	228
5.8.2	Employee role in contributing to customer loyalty.....	229
5.8.3	Customer value, satisfaction and loyalty.....	230
5.9	LEADERSHIP, LEARNING AND CUSTOMER SERVICE CULTURE.....	232
5.9.1	Leadership and learning effect on customer service	232
5.9.2	Employee pay, rewards and service quality culture	234
5.9.3	Performance appraisal and customer satisfaction	237
5.9.4	Employee service response and customer satisfaction	238
5.10	SERVICE SATISFACTION IMPACT ON CUSTOMER LOYALTY	241
5.11	COMPLAINT PROCESSING AND CUSTOMER SATISFACTION.....	243
5.12	CHAPTER SUMMARY	245

CHAPTER 6	247
ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS	247
6.1	HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE ON ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS 247
6.2	ORGANISATIONAL THEORIES AND ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS 248
6.2.1	Goal model theory 248
6.2.2	Resource dependence model theory 248
6.2.3	Internal congruence model theory..... 250
6.2.4	Strategic constituencies model theory 250
6.2.5	Human relations model theory 250
6.2.6	Integrated model theory (competing values framework) 250
6.3	CLARIFYING THE ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS CONSTRUCT 251
6.3.1	Theoretical core of organisational research..... 252
6.3.2	Adaptability to changing organisational conditions..... 252
6.3.3	Variability of organisational effectiveness measures..... 252
6.3.4	Environmentally specific measures of effectiveness 253
6.3.5	Problem-driven organisational effectiveness measures..... 253
6.4	ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS CRITERIA SELECTION 253
6.4.1	Criteria selection process..... 253
6.5	ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS GUIDELINE STANDARDS 254
6.5.1	Clarity of organisational level under examination 254
6.5.2	Organisational effectiveness domain area studied 255
6.5.3	Source of organisational effectiveness data used..... 255
6.5.4	Short- versus long-term effectiveness assessment 255
6.5.5	Organisational effectiveness constituency base 255
6.5.6	Purpose of organisational effectiveness assessment 255
6.5.7	Benchmark for organisational effectiveness..... 255
6.6	RATIONALE FOR ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS GUIDELINES 255
6.7	RE-EMERGENCE OF ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS RESEARCH 256
6.8	UNDERSTANDING MODELS OF ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS 260
6.9	PERSPECTIVES ON ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS 262
6.9.1	Sociological and system theory model of organisational effectiveness 262
6.9.2	Operations research/management science model of organisational effectiveness 269
6.9.3	Attraction-selection-attrition framework model of organisational effectiveness 273
6.9.4	Interpretation systems model of organisational effectiveness 279
6.9.5	Economic and political model of organisational effectiveness..... 282
6.10	DIAMOND MODEL OF ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS 285
6.10.1	What makes organisations successful? 285
6.10.2	Strategy factor 285
6.10.3	Organisational capability factor 286
6.10.4	Core competencies factor 286
6.10.5	Environmental factors..... 287
6.11	LINKING REWARD SYSTEMS TO ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE 289
6.12	EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE AND ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS 290
6.13	CULTURAL CONTEXT OF ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS 290
6.14	CHAPTER SUMMARY 292
CHAPTER 7	293
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN	293
7.1	INTRODUCTION TO RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN 293
7.2	FORMULATION OF THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES 295
7.3	RESEARCH METHODOLOGY 296

7.4	ORGANISATIONAL PROFILE	298
7.5	TARGETED SURVEY POPULATION	298
7.5.1	Employee satisfaction survey group.....	299
7.5.2	Leadership effectiveness survey population	299
7.5.3	Customer satisfaction survey participants.....	299
7.6	SURVEY INSTRUMENTS USED IN THE STUDY.....	300
7.6.1	Rationale for and background on the job descriptive index (JDI).....	301
7.6.1.1	Validity of the JDI.....	303
7.6.1.2	Reliability of the JDI.....	305
7.6.2	Rationale for and background on the leadership practices inventory (LPI)	307
7.6.2.1	Validity of the LPI.....	311
7.6.2.2	Reliability of the LPI.....	313
7.6.3	Rationale for and background on the customer satisfaction index (CSI)	317
7.6.3.1	Validity of the CSI	318
7.6.3.2	Reliability of the CSI	320
7.7	SURVEY ADMINISTRATION AND DATA COLLECTION	321
7.7.1	Survey administration and data collection: JDI	321
7.7.1.1	Administration and collection.....	321
7.7.2	Survey administration and data collection: LPI	323
7.7.2.1	Administration and collection.....	323
7.7.3	Survey administration and data collection: CSI.....	324
7.7.3.1	Administration and collection.....	324
7.8	DATA CAPTURING AND CLEANING.....	325
7.9	ANALYSIS OF SURVEY DATA.....	325
7.9.1	Descriptive statistical analysis	325
7.9.1.1	Mean analysis.....	325
7.9.1.2	Variance analysis.....	326
7.9.1.3	Standard deviation.....	326
7.9.1.4	Kurtosis.....	326
7.9.2	Inferential statistical analysis.....	326
7.9.2.1	Hypothesis testing	326
7.9.2.2	T-test.....	327
7.9.2.3	Analysis of variance (ANOVA).....	327
7.9.2.4	Confidence intervals	327
7.9.2.5	Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA)	327
7.9.2.6	Multiple regression and correlation.....	327
7.9.2.7	Structural equation modelling (SEM).....	327
7.9.2.8	Chi-square (CMIN).....	328
7.9.2.9	Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)	328
7.9.2.10	Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)	328
7.9.2.11	Normed fit index (NFI)	328
7.9.2.12	Tucker Lewis index (TLI)	329
7.9.2.13	Comparative fit index (CFI).....	329
7.10	MEASURES OF RELIABILITY IN THIS RESEARCH.....	329
7.10.1	Reliability analysis	329
7.10.2	Internal consistency reliability	329
7.10.3	Cronbach alpha coefficient	330
7.11	MEASURES OF VALIDITY IN THIS RESEARCH.....	330

7.11.1	Factor analysis.....	331
7.11.2	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test.....	332
7.11.3	Bartlett's test of sphericity	332
7.11.4	Levels of statistical significance.....	332
7.12	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	332
CHAPTER 8.....		333
EMPIRICAL RESEARCH RESULTS		333
8.1	INTRODUCTION	333
8.2	PREPARING SURVEY RESULTS FOR STATISTICAL ANALYSIS	333
8.3	DETERMINING THE VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE	334
8.3.1	Rationale for exploratory factor analysis.....	335
8.3.1.1	Results of the exploratory factor analysis.....	335
8.3.1.2	Analysis of the internal consistency reliability	338
8.3.2	Rationale for confirmatory factor analysis	340
8.3.2.1	Results of the LPI confirmatory factor analysis	340
8.3.3	Conducting the structural equation modelling phase	355
8.3.3.1	Statistical analysis of the structural model	355
8.3.3.2	Analysis of the LPI, JDI and CSI validity and reliability	359
8.4	SUMMARISING AND MERGING THE RESEARCH FINDINGS.....	360
8.5	ASSESSMENT OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS).....	361
8.5.1	Descriptive statistics: LPI means and standard deviation analyses	361
8.5.1.1	Results of the descriptive statistics for the LPI.....	361
8.5.2	Descriptive statistics: JDI means and standard deviation analyses	362
8.5.2.1	Results of the descriptive statistic for the JDI.....	362
8.5.3	Descriptive statistics: CSI (internal) means and standard deviations analyses ...	363
8.5.3.1	Results of the descriptive statistics for the CSI (internal)	363
8.5.4	Descriptive statistics: CSI (external) means and standard deviation analyses.....	363
8.5.4.1	Results of the descriptive statistics for the CSI (external)	364
8.6	ASSESSMENT OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS)	364
8.6.1	Pearson correlation coefficient results	365
8.6.1.1	Analysis of the LPI to JDI Pearson correlation coefficients	365
8.6.1.2	Analysis of the LPI to CSI Pearson correlation coefficients (internal)	366
8.6.1.3	Analysis of the JDI to CSI Pearson correlation coefficients (internal)	367
8.6.1.4	Analysis of the JDI to LPI Pearson correlation coefficients	368
8.6.1.5	Analysis of the CSI to JDI Pearson correlation coefficients (internal)	368
8.6.1.6	Analysis of the CSI to LPI Pearson correlation coefficients (internal)	369
8.6.1.7	Analysis of the CSI to JDI Pearson correlation coefficients (external)	370
8.6.1.8	Analysis of the CSI to LPI Pearson correlation coefficients (external)	370
8.7	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	372
CHAPTER 9.....		373
CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....		373
9.1	INTRODUCTION TO CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	373
9.2	CONCLUSIONS RELATING TO THE LITERATURE REVIEW	373
9.2.1	Conclusions relating to research aim 1	374

9.2.2	Conclusions relating to research aim 2	376
9.2.3	Conclusions relating to research aim 3	378
9.2.4	Conclusions relating to research aim 4	381
9.2.5	Conclusions relating to research aim 5	383
9.3	CONCLUSIONS RELATING TO THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH	384
9.3.1	Conclusions relating to research aim 1	385
9.3.2	Conclusions relating to research aim 2	386
9.3.3	Conclusions relating to research aim 3	386
9.3.4	Conclusions relating to research aim 4	387
9.3.5	Conclusions relating to research aim 5	388
9.3.6	Conclusions relating to research aim 6	389
9.4	SUMMARY OF THE ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS MODEL	391
9.5	CONCLUSIONS RELATING TO THE CENTRAL RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS	392
9.6	CONCLUSIONS RELATING TO THE SPECIFIC RESEARCH HYPOTHESES	393
9.7	LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	395
9.7.1	Limitations relating to the literature review	395
9.7.2	Limitations relating to the empirical research.....	396
9.8	ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	397
9.9	RECOMMENDATIONS BASED ON THE RESEARCH	397
9.9.1	Recommendations for the participating organisation.....	397
9.9.2	Recommendations for the field of industrial and organisational psychology.....	399
9.9.3	Recommendations for further research	400
9.10	EVALUATION OF THE RESEARCH.....	401
9.11	CONTRIBUTIONS DERIVED FROM THE RESEARCH	401
9.11.1	Contributions on a theoretical basis	401
9.11.2	Contributions on an empirical basis	402
9.11.3	Contributions on a practical basis.....	403
9.12	CHAPTER SUMMARY.....	403
	LIST OF REFERENCES.....	405
ANNEXURES		
	Annexure A – PEARSON CORRELATION ANALYSIS	536
	Annexure B – ORGANISATIONAL SURVEYS.....	539
	Annexure C – ETHICAL RESEARCH CERTIFICATE	557
	Annexure D – DECLARATION OF PROFESSIONAL EDITING	559
	Annexure E – TURNITIN CONFIRMATION OF THESIS SUBMISSION	567

LIST OF FIGURES

<i>Figure 1.1: Conceptual Model of the Research Process</i>	13
<i>Figure 2.1: Relationship between Employee Motivation, Job Satisfaction, Effective Leadership, Customer Satisfaction and Organisational Effectiveness</i>	26
<i>Figure 2.2: Integration and Comparison of Employee Motivation Theories</i>	65
<i>Figure 3.1: Employee Satisfaction Focus of the Service Profit Chain Model</i>	106
<i>Figure 3.2: Employee Satisfaction Focus of the Linkage Research Model</i>	111
<i>Figure 4.1: Definitional Perspectives on Leadership</i>	116
<i>Figure 4.2: Leadership versus Management</i>	120
<i>Figure 4.3: Evolution of Leadership Theory</i>	132
<i>Figure 4.4: A Comparison of Universal versus Contingency Based Theories/Prescriptive Versus Descriptive Application</i>	167
<i>Figure 5.1: Service Profit Chain Model</i>	214
<i>Figure 5.2: Linkage Research Model</i>	221
<i>Figure 5.3: High Performance Engagement Model</i>	223
<i>Figure 6.1: Organisational Effectiveness Model Theories</i>	249
<i>Figure 6.2: Structure for Comparing Organisational Effectiveness Models</i>	261
<i>Figure 7.1: Research Design</i>	293
<i>Figure 7.2: SEM and the Research Design</i>	293
<i>Figure 8.1: Theoretical Measurement Model of Organisational Effectiveness</i>	360
<i>Figure 9.1: The Structured Equation Model (SEM) of Organisational Effectiveness... Error! Bookmark not defined.</i>	
<i>Figure 9.2: Theoretical Model of Organisational Effectiveness</i>	392

LIST OF TABLES

Table 8.1: <i>Results: KMO, Bartlett's Test and Percent of Variance for Confirmatory Factor Analysis</i>	336
Table 8.2: <i>Cronbach Alpha Coefficients and Inter-item Correlation Analysis</i>	338
Table 8.3: <i>LPI Standardised Maximum Likelihood Estimates Factor Loadings Regression Weights</i>	341
Table 8.4: <i>Model Fit of the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI)</i>	341
Table 8.5: <i>LPI Validity and Reliability Analysis</i>	342
Table 8.6: <i>LPI Confirmatory Factor Analysis - Factor Covariance</i>	342
Table 8.7: <i>JDI Standardised Maximum Likelihood Estimates Factor Loadings Regression Weights</i>	343
Table 8.8: <i>Model Fit of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI)</i>	345
Table 8.9: <i>JDI Validity and Reliability Analysis</i>	345
Table 8.10: <i>JDI Confirmatory Factor Analysis - Factor Covariance</i>	346
Table 8.11: <i>CSI (Internal) Standardised Maximum Likelihood Estimates Factor Loadings Regression Weights</i>	346
Table 8.12: <i>Model Fit of the CSI (Internal)</i>	348
Table 8.13: <i>CSI (Internal) Validity and Reliability Analysis</i>	348
Table 8.14: <i>CSI (Internal) Confirmatory Factor Analysis - Factor Covariance</i>	349
Table 8.15: <i>CSI (External) Standardised Maximum Likelihood Estimates Factor Loadings Regression Weights</i>	350
Table 8.16: <i>Model Fit of the Customer Satisfaction Index CSI (External)</i>	351
Table 8.17: <i>CSI (External) Validity and Reliability Analysis</i>	352
Table 8.18: <i>CSI (External) Confirmatory Factor Analysis - Factor Covariance</i>	352
Table 8.19: <i>LPI Construct Variables Maximum Likelihood Estimates - Regression Weights</i>	353
Table 8.20: <i>JDI Construct Variables Maximum Likelihood Estimates - Regression Weights</i>	354
Table 8.21: <i>CSI (Internal) Construct Variables Maximum Likelihood Estimates - Regression Weights</i>	354
Table 8.22: <i>CSI (External) Construct Variables Maximum Likelihood Estimates - Regression Weights</i>	355
Table 8.23: <i>Integrated LPI, JDI, and CSI Organisational Effectiveness Structural Model Factor Loading Estimates Regression Weights</i>	356
Table 8.24: <i>Integrated Model Fit for the LPI, JDI and CSI (Internal and External)</i>	358
Table 8.25: <i>LPI, JDI and CSI Integrated Validity and Reliability Analysis</i>	359
Table 8.26: <i>LPI Factors Descriptive Statistics</i>	361
Table 8.27: <i>JDI Factors Descriptive Statistics</i>	362
Table 8.28: <i>CSI (Internal) Factors Descriptive Statistics</i>	363
Table 8.29: <i>CSI (External) Factors Descriptive Statistics</i>	364
Table 8.30: <i>Summary of the research hypotheses</i>	371

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO AND MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH

1.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH

This research study focuses on identifying and examining the impact of a three-dimensional axis, which includes job satisfaction, organisational leadership and customer satisfaction, on organisational effectiveness.

The study also analyses the relationships and interdependencies between these three variables in an attempt to understand how these relationships and interdependencies may have a collective impact on organisational effectiveness. The study begins with a discussion on the foundational role of motivation in employee job satisfaction.

The contribution provided by this study addresses a void in the research literature in terms of creating and testing a unique theoretical model of organizational effectiveness. The research develops a model of organisational effectiveness that focuses on this three-dimensional axis in order to gain a better understanding of this phenomenon.

This study should hopefully generate future academic research by adding to the body of knowledge on organisational effectiveness. Studying how job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction affect one another, and their collective impact on organisational effectiveness, is important to advancing an understanding of the research question of how these variables impact an organisation in achieving and maintaining long-term effectiveness.

The potential benefit to organisations of this research would be to better comprehend and apply strategies, innovations and programmes in order to enhance job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction as a means for attaining sustainable long-term organisational effectiveness and success. These strategies may prove pivotal to organisations in terms of providing a real competitive advantage in the markets they serve.

Business strategies and applications for achieving organisational effectiveness through this model were developed as an outcome of the research recommendations emanating from this study.

The introductory chapter presents the background to and the motivation for the research study, formulation of the problem statement, identification of both the general and specific aims of the study, the paradigmatic approach of the research, the research design and structure, the

research methodology developed, conclusions derived and limitations determined from the study, recommendations for future research, and a summary of the chapters in the study.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO AND MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH

This research study encompasses an in-depth examination of the relationship between the three variables of job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction, and the effect of each on organisational effectiveness.

The research attempts to determine the overall level of employee job satisfaction, leadership effectiveness and customer satisfaction, and the collective role of these factors through relationships and interdependencies in the attainment of organisational effectiveness within an organisation.

Broadly speaking, organisational effectiveness has, from a historical perspective, largely been determined on the basis of the achievement of specific financial and sales and service results as measured by generally accepted accounting and marketing metrics. Return on equity (ROE) has often been considered in measuring organisational effectiveness (Vandenberg, Richardson, & Eastman, 1999).

Other financial measures of organisational effectiveness have included long-term profitability growth, return on investment (ROI) and the value of stock (Yukl, 2008). A marketing metric that has been widely and frequently used to measure organisational effectiveness is market share (Amah, Daminabo-Weje, & Dosunmu, 2013; Jones, 2001).

There is a need for a better understanding and analysis of the underlying or hidden organisational attributes represented by the three-dimensional axis, which may be the ultimate contributory factors to the effectiveness of organisations. This research study promotes an in-depth understanding of these attributes.

Industrial and organisational psychologists have examined organisational effectiveness, but primarily through the prism of leadership and management effectiveness. Charismatic leadership and its impact on organisational effectiveness have been studied (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; 1988a).

A number of researchers have examined an improvement in organisational effectiveness through transformational leadership (Bass, 1999; Bass & Avolio; 1994a; Bass & Riggio, 2006; Dvir, Eden, Avolio, & Shamir, 2002). Researchers have also studied authentic leadership and

its impact on organisational effectiveness (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Researchers such as Wiley and Brooks (2000) have explored effective organisations in terms of their top performance units as described by employees and the link to a high performance organisational climate and leadership.

In addition, industrial and organisational psychologists have examined at great length the relationships between various leadership styles and their impact on job satisfaction (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004; Bass, 1985; 1999; Jaussi & Dionne, 2004; Singh, 1998; Ugboro & Obeng, 2000).

Moreover, job satisfaction has been extensively researched on its own, particularly in the earlier years in the field by industrial and organisational psychology. The concept has also been studied in more recent decades (Bissell & Beach, 1996; Fourie, 2004; Hellman, 1997; Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001a; Judge, Zhang, & Glerum, 2020; Judge, Weiss, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Hulin, 2017; Rafferty & Griffin, 2009).

As far as customer satisfaction specifically is concerned, industrial and organisational psychologists have for the most part conceded this area as part of the purview of the marketing domain, but still conducting research within the broader area of consumer psychology and behaviour. However, this was not within the scope of the current study.

However, the possible impact of customers of an organisation's goods and services on the operational functioning of the organisation, the development of policies and practices and decision making, is an aspect which is gaining in relevance as a research area for industrial and organisational psychologists (Durkin-Michonski, 2005; Payne, Frow, & Eggert, 2017; Rogg, Schmidt, Shull, & Schmitt, 2001; Schein, 1980). This research will also explore the construct of internal customer satisfaction within the context of organisational effectiveness.

There is little evidence in the literature of any pertinent research efforts to gain an understanding of both the individual and collective impact of the variables of job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction, within an axis model, on organisational effectiveness.

In addition, there is a paucity of research literature on the interdependencies between these three axis variables and their mutual influence in the context of their collective impact on organisational effectiveness within the framework of this axis model.

The contribution provided by this study addresses a void in the research literature in terms of creating and testing a unique theoretical model of organizational effectiveness. It is in this area

that industrial and organisational psychology could fill the current knowledge void, which was the aim of the current study.

The study endeavours to determine whether the three variables comprising this axis, when functioning independently, can have a positive influence on organisational effectiveness. The research examines whether these variables, when interacting in harmony, not only enhance organisational effectiveness, but also through their interdependencies, optimise their positive mutual influences.

The research addresses the following primary questions.

- Does customer satisfaction have an impact on organisational effectiveness?
- Can leadership have an influence on organisational effectiveness?
- Is organisational effectiveness affected by employee job satisfaction?
- Can customer satisfaction, leadership and job satisfaction function interdependently in a model to influence organisational effectiveness?

A number of secondary questions to consider include the following.

- Is optimum customer satisfaction in part dependent on employee job satisfaction?
- Is employee job satisfaction an outcome of leadership effectiveness?
- Can customer satisfaction be influenced by leadership effectiveness?
- Do satisfied customers have an influence on employee job satisfaction?
- Is leadership effectiveness enhanced through employee and customer satisfaction?

Following the empirical research on and statistical analysis of the interdependencies and relationships between the three research construct factors and organisational effectiveness, recommendations are formulated in order to enhance organisational effectiveness in the organisation.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

One of the objectives of industrial and organisational psychology is to maximise employee contributions to organisational effectiveness through improvements to the quality of both the goods produced and services rendered, optimising productivity and enhancing the levels of teamwork achieved (Schneider, 1999).

Industrial and organisational psychologists have studied the topic of organisational effectiveness as an area of research (Cameron, 1982; Cameron & Quinn, 2006; Koys, 2001; Lawler III, 2018; Price, 1968).

While organisational effectiveness has been a subject of research, studies of a more holistic nature to examine the impact of and interdependences between employee job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction and their collective influence on organisational effectiveness, are an area conducive to a greater research focus.

Some research in the literature has examined the impact that factors such as employee job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction have had individually on determining levels of organisational effectiveness. Researchers such as Pugh, Dietz, Wiley, and Brooks (2002) and Wiley (2010a) have studied the relationship between employees' opinions of their work environment and organisational outcomes expressed in terms of financial performance and customer satisfaction.

The relationship between customer and employee satisfaction within the framework of a service profit chain has also been explored in the research literature (Heskett, Sasser & Wheeler, 2008; Heskett, Sasser, & Schlesinger, 1997; Heskett & Sasser, 2010a).

Other researchers have explored the relationship between employee job satisfaction and customer satisfaction from the paradigm of a linkage research model that leads to positive financial metric outcomes such as; profitability, revenue growth, high customer retention rates, and increased market share leading to sustainable organisational success and expansion (Wiley, 2010a; Wiley & Brooks, 2000; Zimmermann, Dormann, & Dollard, 2011).

Martins and Coetzee (2007) studied the relationship between organisational culture, employee satisfaction, perceived leader emotional competency and personality type, while Lund (2003) examined the relationship between organisational culture and job satisfaction.

A number of researchers have also conducted studies in the areas of leadership, organisational culture and performance (Denison & Mishra, 1995; Denison, Nieminen, & Kotrba, 2014; Truskie, 1999).

However, specific additional research is needed that examines the impact of job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction in relation to one another as part of a theoretical model for determining and understanding their impact on organisational effectiveness. It is believed that a model containing these factors could be developed allowing for future research by industrial and organisational psychologists in the area of organisational effectiveness.

Given this condition, the primary problem statement is whether job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction can have an impact on organisational effectiveness. The focal question that emerges from this primary problem statement can best be structured and formulated as follows:

Can organisational effectiveness be achieved through and impacted separately by each of the axis factors of employee job satisfaction, organisational leadership and customer satisfaction?

A secondary problem statement is whether the attainment of organisational effectiveness is directly affected by the aggregate impact of job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction.

A key question at the core of this secondary problem statement is as follows: Do these three axis factors function interdependently and have a mutual influence on each other, and thereby also have a collective impact on organisational effectiveness?

A number of questions addressed in this research study include the following:

- Is organisational effectiveness definable and measurable?
- Can job satisfaction have an influence on organisational effectiveness?
- Does leadership contribute to the attainment of organisational effectiveness?
- What impact does customer satisfaction have on organisational effectiveness?
- Are employee job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction interdependent determinants of organisational effectiveness?
- Is there a statistically significant relationship between each of the axis factors and organisational effectiveness?
- Does a statistically significant relationship exist between employee job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction?

1.4 AIMS OF THE STUDY

This section presents the general and specific aims of the research study. The latter are categorised as the aims of the literature review phase and of the empirical research phase.

1.4.1 General aim

The general aim of the literature review was to identify the relationship between and impact of job satisfaction, organisational leadership and customer satisfaction on organisational effectiveness.

The general aim of the empirical research was to determine whether an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness, based on the interdependencies and relationships between job satisfaction, organisational leadership and customer satisfaction, could be established and supported empirically.

1.4.2 Specific aims

The specific aims of this research study were subdivided into the aims of the literature review and of the empirical research.

1.4.2.1 Aims of the literature review

The general aim of the literature review was to assess the relevant literature on organisational effectiveness and the impact of job satisfaction, organisational leadership and customer satisfaction on organisational effectiveness. Within this context a number of key specific research aims were developed.

In the literature review, the specific aims were formulated as follows.

- Research aim 1: To conceptualise the role motivation plays in the employee job satisfaction variable portion of this research
- Research aim 2: To conceptualise the impact of job satisfaction on organisational effectiveness
- Research aim 3: To conceptualise the influence of leadership on organisational effectiveness
- Research aim 4: To conceptualise the effect of customer satisfaction on organisational effectiveness
- Research aim 5: To develop the foundations for a theoretical model of organisational effectiveness

1.4.2.2 Aims of the empirical research

The general aim of the empirical research was to determine whether an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness, based on the interdependencies and relationships between job satisfaction, organisational leadership and customer satisfaction, could be established and supported empirically. Within this context a number of key specific research aims were developed.

The specific aims of the empirical research were formulated as follows:

- Research aim 1: To explore empirically whether there are interdependencies and the relationships between job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction, as axis indicators of the latent variable and how they collectively and in an integrated way affect organisational effectiveness.
- Research aim 2: To empirically examine the effect of job satisfaction in an integrated model of organisational effectiveness.
- Research aim 3: To empirically examine the effect of leadership in an integrated model of organisational effectiveness.
- Research aim 4: To empirically examine the effect of internal customer satisfaction in an integrated model of organisational effectiveness
- Research aim 5: To empirically examine the effect of external customer satisfaction in an integrated model of organisational effectiveness.
- Research aim 6: To identify whether an organisational effectiveness model survey is a valid and reliable instrument for measuring job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness.

1.5 RESEARCH MODEL

The research conducted for this study utilised the model for social science research developed by Mouton and Marais (1996). The model depicted in Figure 1.1 is examined in the subsections that follow.

1.5.1 Overview of the research model

There are two major thrusts of this model, namely the intellectual climate consisting of meta-theoretical ontological assumptions, and the market of intellectual resources which embodies both theoretical and methodological beliefs (Mouton & Marais, 1996).

The researcher selectively internalised these two aspects in the research process by including the determinants of the research and incorporating and linking both the research domain assumptions and the theoretical-methodological framework.

The domain assumptions lead to the articulation of the research goals, which are further shaped by the research strategy developed.

This process results in the various research decisions that are addressed, and at this stage, the process can be either interactive or dialectic, ultimately defining the research domain. In

the final phase, the research domain can be either accepted or altered through successive iterations of the research process.

As a social science research model it provides a comprehensive framework for the research process by encompassing the full range of the social sciences research areas to include the sociological, ontological, teleological, epistemological and methodological dimensions (Mouton & Marais, 1996) and (Van der Waldt, 2013).

This model also has general application for making distinctions in the quality of social science research across varying projects.

1.5.2 Components of the research model

Overall, the research model takes on a systems structure with three vibrant components, which include the intellectual climate, the market of intellectual resources and the research process, which are discussed in some detail below.

1.5.2.1 The intellectual climate

The intellectual climate is the body of meta-theoretical assumptions and beliefs that researchers representing a particular discipline of study embrace (Mouton & Marais, 1996). These assumptions and beliefs are often untested, and in some instances, do not lend themselves to testing owing to their lack of a scientific foundation (Mouton & Marais, 1996).

1.5.2.2 The market of intellectual resources

The market of intellectual resources refers to the body of beliefs that influence the epistemic basis of scientific statements in terms of the knowledge claims made by the same scientific statements. There are two categories in the market of intellectual resources. The first category is the theoretical beliefs market of intellectual resources which focuses on the nature and structure of the research phenomena. The second category is the methodological beliefs market of intellectual resources with its focus on the nature and structure of the research process (Mouton & Marais, 1996) and (Van der Waldt, 2013).

1.5.2.3 The research process

The research process and the selective internalisation process stress specific beliefs stemming from the particular paradigms comprising the research. Through this process of internalisation and selectivity of beliefs, the researcher engages only those beliefs in support of the goals of the research, and to this end he or she may utilise multiple paradigms.

1.5.3 Dimensions of social science research

As stated earlier, the research model framework applied to this study was robust by encompassing and integrating the five aspects of social science research. These five dimensions include the following: sociological, ontological, teleological, epistemological and methodological. These five areas of social science research are addressed below in greater detail from a discipline perspective.

1.5.3.1 Sociological dimension

In the sociological dimension, the focus is on the recognition of the community of researchers comprising a specific field of research and with the process of research as a cooperative human endeavour. The social control mechanisms, moral norms and ideological considerations all factor into the sociological dimension (Marais, 2012).

This dimension is significant because it influences the methodological direction in which the research progresses (Mouton & Marais, 1996). In this research, discussions and plans with the appropriate representatives of the organisation in which the study was conducted demonstrate the sociological dimension.

1.5.3.2 Ontological dimension

The ontological dimension involves the breadth of human endeavour, the essence of being and nature of the view of reality given the variations prevalent in the uniqueness of the human experiences. Social reality is always a target of social science research and inherent in the ontological dimension (Aliyu, Bello, Kasim, & Martin, 2014).

The ontological dimension addresses the categorisation and definition of the research domains by acknowledging that differences in what social scientists consider the research domain develop through their varying domain assumptions (Mouton & Marais, 1996). These assumptions, in turn, emerge from the researcher's firm beliefs of what is reality. These differences in perspectives and beliefs about what is reality, have a significant influence on how a research problem is ultimately defined (Van der Waldt, 2013).

This dimension also encompasses the decision regarding selection of the proper category of the unit of analysis which may be the individual, group, interactions or objects.

The ontological dimension in this study was manifested by determining whether job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction impact organisational effectiveness. The unit of analysis in this study was at the group level, referred to as the business unit.

1.5.3.3 Teleological dimension

This dimension refers to the salient characteristic of the practice of science as being goal driven and having as the main focus the achievement of a greater understanding of phenomena (Groenewald, 2004) and (Mouton & Marais, 1996). In this study, the research goal impelled the various facets of the study. Consistent with the characteristics of this dimension, the research goal formulated here was explanatory, descriptive and to a lesser extent exploratory.

The goal was to create and manage an explanatory and descriptive research study as it pertains to understanding the variations and similarities in the relationships between job satisfaction, leadership, customer satisfaction and organisational effectiveness in a distinct independent business unit within a larger organisational entity.

As stated earlier, the research was also, to some extent, exploratory in its pursuit of gaining a greater understanding of a model of organisational effectiveness presented in this research. Also consistent with features of the teleological dimension, this research engaged in hypothesis generation and testing through the formulation and measurement of the central research hypothesis (Marais, 2012) and (Mouton & Marais, 1996).

The central research hypothesis formulated for the empirical research phase of this study was as follows:

A new integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness, based on the interdependencies and relationships between the construct research factors of job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction, can be established and empirically supported.

1.5.3.4 Epistemological dimension

The epistemological dimension is generally considered the most important dimension of social science research. A significant value is assigned to the epistemic character of scientific statements. Given that the research domain of the social sciences is complex and can lend itself to inaccurate conditions, it is necessary to understand that unequivocal certainty is generally unachievable (Van der Waldt, 2013). Alternatively, research activity should attempt to approximate reality and minimise errors and inaccurate research (Mouton & Marais, 1996). In addition to enhancing understanding, the objective is to achieve validity, reliability and replicability in the research findings.

In this research study, valid and reliable measurement instruments were utilised to determine employee job satisfaction, leadership effectiveness, customer satisfaction and organisational

effectiveness in an effort to maximise the usefulness of the research to fellow members of this research community. The instruments chosen for measuring these research variables are discussed in detail in subsequent chapters of this study.

1.5.3.5 Methodological dimensions

The methodological dimension is concerned with the higher level paradigms and schools of thought such as positivism and behaviourism (Aliyu, Bello, Kasim, & Martin, 2014) and (Mouton & Marais, 1996). Research in the social sciences categorises the available approaches associated with the methodological dimension into (Van der Waladt, 2013) the areas of quantitative, qualitative and participatory action research. Selection of one of these three approaches, in turn, influences the researcher's choice of appropriate data collection, data analysis and inference methods.

The research conducted measures its findings through a quantitative study approach, utilising statistical techniques such as correlation analysis, variance analysis and structural equation modelling.

The social science research model discussed is depicted in Figure 1.1.

1.6 THE PARADIGM PERSPECTIVE

This section identifies and examines the relevant paradigms, the research field and subfields, hypotheses and the foundational theoretical basis of the study.

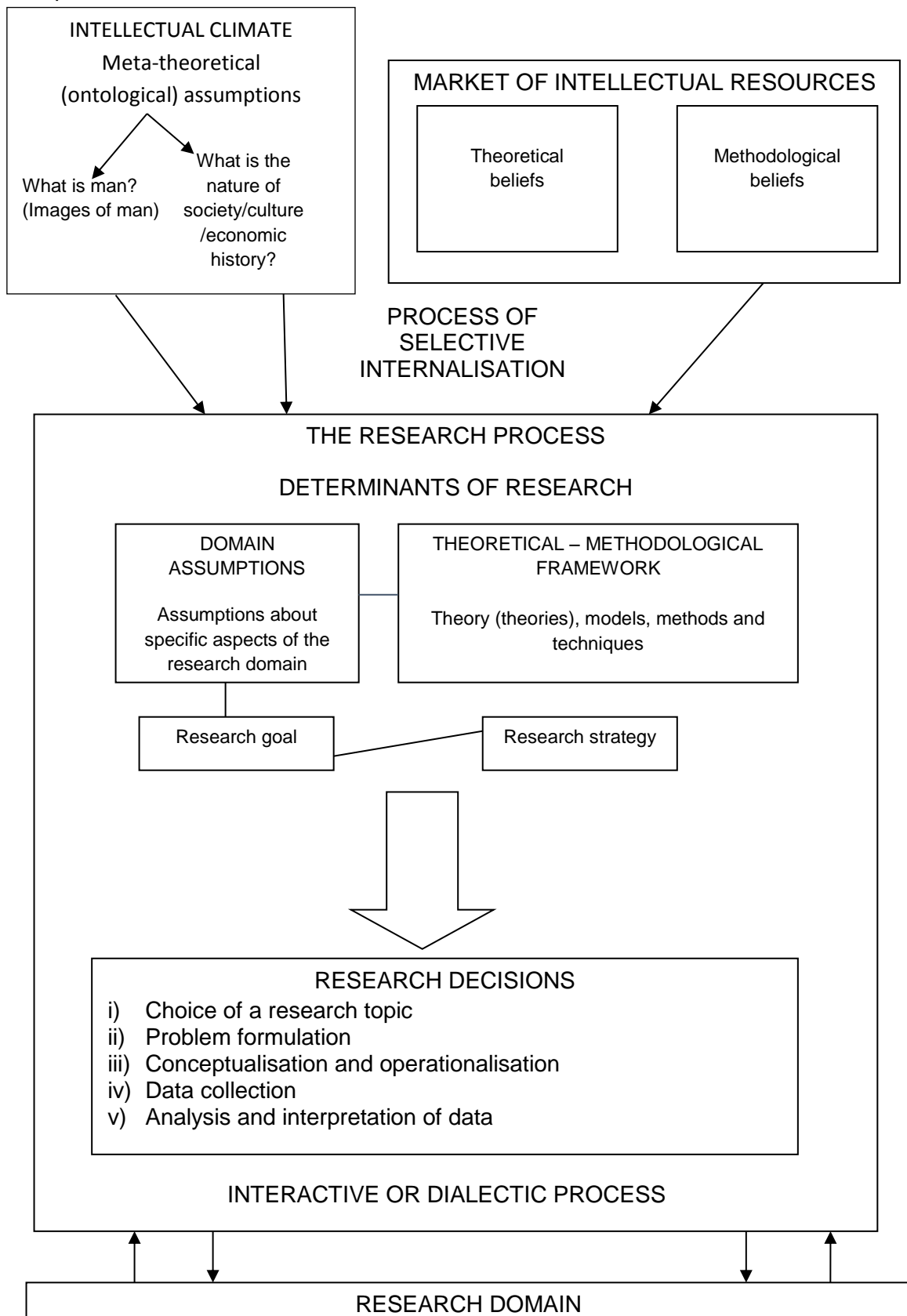
Consistent with the theme of normal science espoused by Kuhn (1970), a paradigm can be classified in general terms as an established scientific discipline. As a scientific discipline it can be defined as a set of principles and practices that exist during a specific period of time (Du Toit & Mouton, 2013).

This discipline has its own theories, beliefs, values and research techniques shared by a body of scientific members, which Kuhn (1970) referred to as a disciplinary matrix.

According to Mouton and Marais (1996), a paradigm perspective, which encompasses the intellectual resources market and specific statements, is what directs the research being conducted. They go on to indicate that a research paradigm incorporates as its major components basic research assumptions, the research questions to be addressed and the research approaches to be deployed.

Figure 1.1

Conceptual Model of the Research Process



Source: Mouton & Marais, 1996, p. 22

1.6.1 Relevant research paradigms

This research encompassed the humanistic, systems and functionalistic paradigms outlined below.

1.6.1.1 Humanistic paradigm

This research study utilised a humanistic paradigm in the literature review in order to present the variables of employee job satisfaction, organisational leadership and customer satisfaction. The humanistic paradigm is rooted in existentialism, focusing on the total human experience of creativity, self, individualism, growth, achievement, empathy and self-actualisation. It is often referred to as the third force of psychology (Meyer, Moore, & Viljoen, 1996).

1.6.1.2 Systems paradigm

The literature on organisational effectiveness was analysed from a systems paradigm. A systems paradigm is focused on the whole system and the interdependencies between the parts and the whole. It was deemed an appropriate approach in this study of organisational effectiveness because of the comprehensive character of its view of the social sciences. This paradigm is more inclusive and better enables the research to encompass the fields of industrial/organisational psychology and marketing behaviour/consumer psychology (Du Toit & Mouton, 2013).

1.6.1.3 Functionalistic paradigm

In the empirical part of a study, the research engaged in can best be described as employing a functionalistic paradigm. The chief characteristic of the functionalistic paradigm is the recognition of (Du Toit & Mouton, 2013) adaptations and adjustments in behaviour stemming from environmental changes and the influences of these shifts on the individual, group and organisation.

1.6.2 Field of study

The research conducted in this study can be described as residing within the primary broad academic discipline of industrial psychology. One of the early successful textbook attempts at a comprehensive definition of industrial psychology has its roots as a discipline in the work of Tiffin and McCormick (1965, p. 3), who defined industrial psychology as “the study of human behavior in those aspects of life that are related to the production, distribution and use of goods and services”.

The definition continued to evolve with time but maintained its core meaning of applying the principles of psychology to the workplace environment (Levy, 2006).

The field of industrial psychology can be further delineated into the two major areas of personnel psychology and organisational psychology, as well as the subfield of consumer psychology. According to (Levy, 2006, p. 4), “personnel psychology has long been associated with job analysis, training, selection, and performance measurement/appraisal, whereas organizational psychology deals with motivation, work attitudes, leadership, organization development, structure, and culture”. As a part of this study, the theories and concepts of both organisational and personnel psychology were deployed.

A framework in support of the delineation of two major areas in industrial psychology can be described using the concepts associated with paradigms.

The first category is a differential psychology type of paradigm. Focusing on individual characteristics as an explanation for differences in behaviour and an emphasis on correlation and variability centring on individual skill, ability and other personal traits, this resides within the domain of personnel psychology (Roe, 1987).

The second category is the general psychology paradigm with its focus on an experimental comparative approach. Emphasising the dynamic nature of situational considerations, it is manifested in such factors as attitudes, motivation and perception and resides within the organisational psychology domain (Roe, 1987).

In addition, the third area examined in this study is the axis dimension of customer satisfaction, which can best be described as a hybrid subset of industrial psychology, overlapping with the previously referenced subfield of consumer psychology as well as the area of marketing behaviour research.

1.6.3 Theoretical statements and methodological convictions

In social sciences research, theoretical statements represent the beliefs concerning the research phenomena under examination. Consistent with Mouton and Marais (1996), theoretical statements such as the central research hypothesis are the departure points for formulating the research goals.

This area aligns the theoretical statement in the form of a central research hypothesis for the empirical research conducted in this study. The concepts germane to this research are also outlined in the subsections below.

1.6.3.1 Central research hypothesis

The specific central research hypothesis that was developed for the empirical research phase of this study was as follows:

A new integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness, based on the interdependencies and relationships between the research construct factors of job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction can be established and empirically supported.

1.6.3.2 Research concepts

The key concepts examined in this research include the following:

- job satisfaction
- leadership
- customer satisfaction
- organisational effectiveness

1.7 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is analogous to an architectural blueprint for conducting and achieving the desired objectives of the research project in a manner which attempts to optimise the scientific validity and reliability of the results. A properly designed research project is detailed in nature, specifying the steps and sequence of events that are planned.

According to Selltiz et al. (as cited in Mouton & Marais, 1996, p. 32), a research design is “the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure”.

Mouton and Marais (1996, p. 32), built on this definition by stating that “it is evident that the aim in research design is to align the pursuit of a research goal with the practical considerations and limitations of the project”.

Of additional significance, Mouton and Marais (1996, p. 33) posited that “the aim of a research design is to plan and structure a given research project in such a manner that the eventual validity of the research findings is maximised and the research design is therefore synonymous with rational decision making during the research process”. Achieving validity in the research findings was a critical cornerstone of this research study.

1.7.1 Research variables

The centrepiece of this study deals with the independent and dependent research variables. As stated by Mouton and Marais (1996, p. 130), “the difference between the independent and dependent variables refers to the basic cause-effect relationship between specific events or

phenomenon. The independent variable refers to the antecedent phenomenon and the dependent variable to the consequent phenomenon.”

In the context of this study, the independent variables (antecedent phenomena) were job satisfaction, organisational leadership and customer satisfaction. The dependent variable (consequent phenomenon) was organisational effectiveness.

1.7.2 Unit of analysis

In this study, the unit of analysis relating to the aims of the research and the problem statement addressed was at the organisational level. More specifically, the unit of analysis was a major autonomous individual operating business unit within a large international media and technology company. The business unit provides internet, cable TV and telecommunications equipment, supporting technology and services to its customers.

1.7.3 Research typology

This study contained elements that allowed for the definition and categorisation of this research as descriptive, explanatory and exploratory. According to Mouton and Marais (1996), multiple categories of research typologies and objectives are regularly combined in research.

The research was of a descriptive nature because it relates to the independent variables of job satisfaction, organisational leadership and customer satisfaction, and the dependent variable of organisational effectiveness. The objective of descriptive research is to provide a thorough and accurate presentation of the variables under examination. This research was also descriptive because of the deployment of quantitative analysis methods in examining the research variables through statistical techniques such as correlation and variance analysis.

According to Mouton and Marais (1996, p. 44), a correlation study deals with “descriptions constructed by means of the relationship between variables. The commonality in all descriptive research is to ensure accuracy in describing that which exists”.

The research engaged in was also explanatory since it set out to demonstrate that a cause and effect relationship was present between each of the three independent variables of job satisfaction, organisational leadership and customer satisfaction, and the dependent variable of organisational effectiveness.

The objective of an explanatory study is to provide evidence of the cause and effect relationship between variables (Mouton & Marais, 1996). An effort was made in this research to assess the relationship between job satisfaction, organisational leadership and customer satisfaction, and organisational effectiveness.

To a lesser extent, but nonetheless relevant, this axis model study also contained elements of exploratory research since it endeavoured to develop a new theoretical framework for and perspective on the already existing phenomenon of organisational effectiveness. Consistent with exploratory research as well, this study attempted to develop original hypotheses regarding the current research phenomenon of organisational effectiveness (Mouton & Marais, 1996).

1.7.4 Establishing validity

Validity in the research design within the framework of the literature review was accomplished by:

- defining and formulating a central hypothesis that described the goal and aim of the research
- introducing descriptions of pertinent concepts and constructs examined in the study from the theoretical perspective as well as how they were deployed and measured during the empirical phase of the research
- selecting research models which lent credence to the literature review
- utilising theories as a point of departure in clarifying the research assumptions
- conducting a thorough review of the literature by utilising relevant computer database searches
- deploying appropriate concepts and supporting measurement instruments to facilitate the integration of the theoretical foundations and the literature review
- ensuring a comprehensive presentation of the literature review.

Validity in the empirical phase of this research study was achieved by:

- measuring the research variables properly
- utilising appropriate collection and codification methods of the research data
- analysing the research results consistent with standard research practices
- interpreting and presenting the research results according to accepted research standards
- ensuring the accuracy and reliability of collected research data
- confirming that the presented research data supported the findings and conclusions drawn from the study

1.7.5 Establishing reliability

Establishing reliability in a research study can be described as the requirement that the administration of a valid measurement tool to different participants in varying situations should lead to the same research results and conclusions (Mouton & Marais, 1996).

Reliability in the literature review was ensured by

- applying the assumptions of availability of the same literature to other researchers in the field
- producing and advancing the research using the most scientific approach possible
- providing the theoretical information gathered as scientifically as possible

Reliability in the empirical research phase of this study was maintained by

- selecting research participants who were representative samples of the larger population upon which this study was focused
- introducing the participant population to the objectives of the study and the nature of their involvement as the research participant population
- ensuring that all measurement instruments deployed in conducting this research had an established track record of reliability
- establishing and assuring the anonymity of individual survey participants

1.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology utilised in this study could be classified into three distinct phases consistent with academic research in the social and organisational sciences. The three phases of the research methodology were the

- literature review
- empirical research
- conclusions, limitations and recommendations

1.8.1 Literature review phase

This phase began by reviewing employee motivation theories as a foundation for this study. The key theoretical concepts of the independent variables of job satisfaction, organisational leadership and customer satisfaction were then explored. This phase also focused on the theoretical conceptualisation of the dependent variable of organisational effectiveness.

As stated previously, this research study examined the three independent variables identified below.

1.8.1.1 Job satisfaction

A coherent description and review of the relevant literature on the factors defined as key dimensions of job satisfaction were presented.

1.8.1.2 Organisational leadership

A review of the literature and conceptual as well as the theoretical foundation of organisational leadership was presented.

1.8.1.3 Customer satisfaction

An analysis of the cogent literature on the subject of customer satisfaction was presented.

The research also explored the dependent variable described below.

1.8.1.4 Organisational effectiveness

A thorough literature review on the theoretical underpinnings of organisational effectiveness was presented.

A key aspect of this research study was to integrate of the constructs of job satisfaction, organisational leadership and customer satisfaction into an axis model for understanding the collective impact of these independent variables on organisational effectiveness.

1.8.2 Empirical research phase

The empirical study phase, which focused on the execution aspects of this research study, included the following dimensions:

1.8.2.1 Population and sample

The population and sample size were identified and characterised in the context of the organisational unit under investigation.

1.8.2.2 Measurement instruments and tools

Relevant measurement tools such as surveys were presented and administered to the appropriate organisational unit involved in the study.

1.8.2.3 Data collection and gathering

Procedures for data collection and gathering were achieved through deployment of the appropriate organisational administrative units.

1.8.2.4 Data analysis and processing

The research included the use of standard and recognised statistical methodologies and packages for the analysis and processing of research data such as descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, regression analysis and analysis of variance.

1.8.2.5 Interpreting and reporting of research results

Results that emerged from the research were interpreted and presented in the context of the research aims initially formulated in the study. The results of the study were integrated on the basis of the literature review and empirical study phases.

1.8.3 Conclusions, limitations and recommendations phase

1.8.3.1 Conclusions drawn from the research

Conclusions drawn from this research determined whether the central research hypothesis was supported by means of testing during the empirical research phase of this study. At the conclusion of this study, the aim of identifying the relationship between and impact of the three axis factors of job satisfaction, organisational leadership and customer satisfaction on organisational effectiveness was achieved. The conclusion of this study also met the secondary aim of determining whether the three axis factors function interdependently and thereby have a collective aggregate impact on organisational effectiveness.

1.9 DIVISION OF CHAPTERS

The remaining chapters included in this study are as follows:

Chapter 2: Employee motivation: Foundation of the organisational effectiveness study

In this chapter, employee motivation theories are examined for background purposes. The importance of employee motivation theory is discussed from a foundational perspective for research into job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction, and the impact on organisational effectiveness.

Chapter 3: Job satisfaction

This chapter provides a review of the literature on employee job satisfaction in terms of a theoretical and conceptual perspective, key dimensional aspects and its organisational impact.

Chapter 4: Organisational leadership

This chapter deals with the literature on the concept of leadership, as well as the broad spectrum of theories and styles, and the effect of leadership on the organisation and its effectiveness.

Chapter 5: Customer satisfaction

This chapter provides an analysis of the literature on the theoretical and determinant considerations of customer satisfaction and its influence on organisational effectiveness.

Chapter 6: Organisational effectiveness

This chapter provides a literature review of the theory of organisational effectiveness, and a conceptual focus of the construct of organisational effectiveness and its key dimensions.

Chapter 7: Research methodology and design

This chapter focuses on the structure of the research design and methodological aspects of the study, as well as paradigmatic considerations. Characteristics such as sample size and measurement instruments are addressed.

Chapter 8: Empirical research results

In this chapter the results of this research study are presented. The results are interpreted through the utilisation of quantitative tools such as inferential, descriptive and comparative statistics.

Chapter 9: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

The chapter draws conclusions from the research results and reviews them in the context of the original problem statements, the research aims and the central hypothesis. The results are also assessed in terms of other research considered in the literature. In conclusion, the limitations of the research are addressed and research recommendations formulated.

1.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provided an introduction to the study and the background on and motivation for the research. The problem statement and aims of the study were then discussed. The research model and the paradigm perspective were addressed, as well as the research design and methodology. The chapter concluded with the division of the chapters in the study. The next chapter contains a discussion and review of the theories and research relating to employee motivation.

CHAPTER 2

EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION: FOUNDATION OF THE ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS STUDY

2.1 INTRODUCTION TO EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION

Employee motivation has been at the centre of much research conducted in the field of industrial and organisational psychology since its inception as an academic discipline (Ambrose & Kulik, 1999; Koppes, 2014; Latham, 2012; Latham & Budworth, 2007). Employee motivation is at the core of what is within the individual, and emerges in the form of motives and actual behaviour (Maslow, 2013). If the individual finds these motives desirable, he or she will strive for sustainability and maintain the desired behaviour (Bowditch, Buono, & Stewart, 1997; Vinchur & Koppes, 2011).

Others have referred to motivation as not only internal but also external forces that create a level of interest and drive the individual to behave in accordance with that particular interest (Aguinis, Joo, & Gottfredson, 2013; Daft & Marcic, 2004).

In the context of organisations, the importance of employee motivation is clear. In order to facilitate becoming a more productive and successful organisation, companies need to continually gain insight into what motivates their employees (Lee & Raschke, 2016; Wiley, 1997).

2.2 EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION FRAMEWORK FOR THE AXIS MODEL

Motivation can be defined as the sustained drive and behaviours to achieve a specific goal in order to satisfy an internal need (Mitchell, 1997; Reeve, 2015).

A general model of the motivation process can be described as comprising the following elements

- needs or desires
- driving force or behaviours directed towards a goal
- goal or objective attainment in fulfilment of needs

While one could argue that needs are cognitively based, an emotional component may exist, which even if minimally present, can become a psychological factor in an individual's behaviour and motivation. This emotional dimension is related to how one perceives and appraises the consequences of satisfying versus not satisfying a particular need. The appraisal of these consequences, in turn, results in action or goal-directed behaviour, and

becomes the driving force and energy behind an individual sustaining the effort necessary to lead to goal attainment and need satisfaction (Lazarus, 1991; Werner & Milyavskaya, 2018).

Others have described a model of the motivation process as beginning with an internal disequilibrium due to desire or expectation to satisfy a need and the associated anticipation. This then leads to action or behaviour directed towards achievement of a goal. Finally, a review is made to determine whether the behaviour is leading to achievement of the goal and a state of satisfaction and equilibrium, or whether the actions are misdirected and behaviour modifications are required to attain the goal (Deckers, 2018; Dunnette & Kirchner, 1965; Reeve, 2015).

Another behavioural option at this point might be for the individual to realise and accept that the particular goal may not be attainable after an unsuccessful attempt to achieve it, and to move on in the pursuit of satisfying other needs. However, this may lead to unresolved conflict and frustration for not having pursued the original goal again after being initially unsuccessful in achieving it.

Given that individuals have multiple needs and desires at any point in time, this motivational model can be operationalised both from a prioritised perspective as well as simultaneously across the broad spectrum of the needs the individual is actively attempting to satisfy.

The topic of employee motivation has enjoyed a rich and vibrant research history among industrial and organisational psychologists. Academic endeavours, be they the development or research testing of a theory of employee motivation, have enriched researchers' understanding of employee behaviour in the workplace (Fourie, 2004). While not always providing answers to the research questions posed, and at times even contradicting already accepted knowledge about motivation and work behaviours, significant insight into employee motivation has been gained.

Going forward in this chapter, it might appear that the topic of employee motivation theory is receiving an inordinate amount of attention. However, the significance of the theory should not be minimised as it is often not addressed to the degree it deserves as the foundation upon which much job satisfaction research literature and learning have been based over the decades (Benrazavi & Silong, 2013; Tietjen & Myers, 1998). Employee motivation theory has generally been the bedrock for what has been developed and learned about job satisfaction.

In light of the fact that much of job satisfaction theory and research is based on employee motivation theory, it is imperative that for the purposes of this research study, motivation theory is accorded the necessary attention. Also, this research study addresses not only job

satisfaction but also the relationship between and dual impacts of job satisfaction and customer satisfaction. A discussion of the underlying theories of employee motivation adds to and facilitates an understanding of the dynamics of customer satisfaction, which may be a result in part of employee motivation, particularly those employees in direct contact with customers. It can also be argued that the variable of leadership effectiveness, also part of this study, can be impacted by the motivation of the subordinate employee. This therefore provides a further rationale for a meaningful review of employee motivation theory as a prelude to the discussion of job satisfaction.

While much can be said about employee motivation, the purpose of this chapter is to focus on one specific aspect of the concept. The objective of the discussion here is to provide a thorough review of employee motivation theories for the purposes of creating a framework for discussing job satisfaction and the other variables in subsequent chapters. It is not the aim of this study to provide an in-depth analysis of the research associated with employee motivation. An in-depth discussion of the key theoretical and conceptual framework of job satisfaction follows in the next chapter.

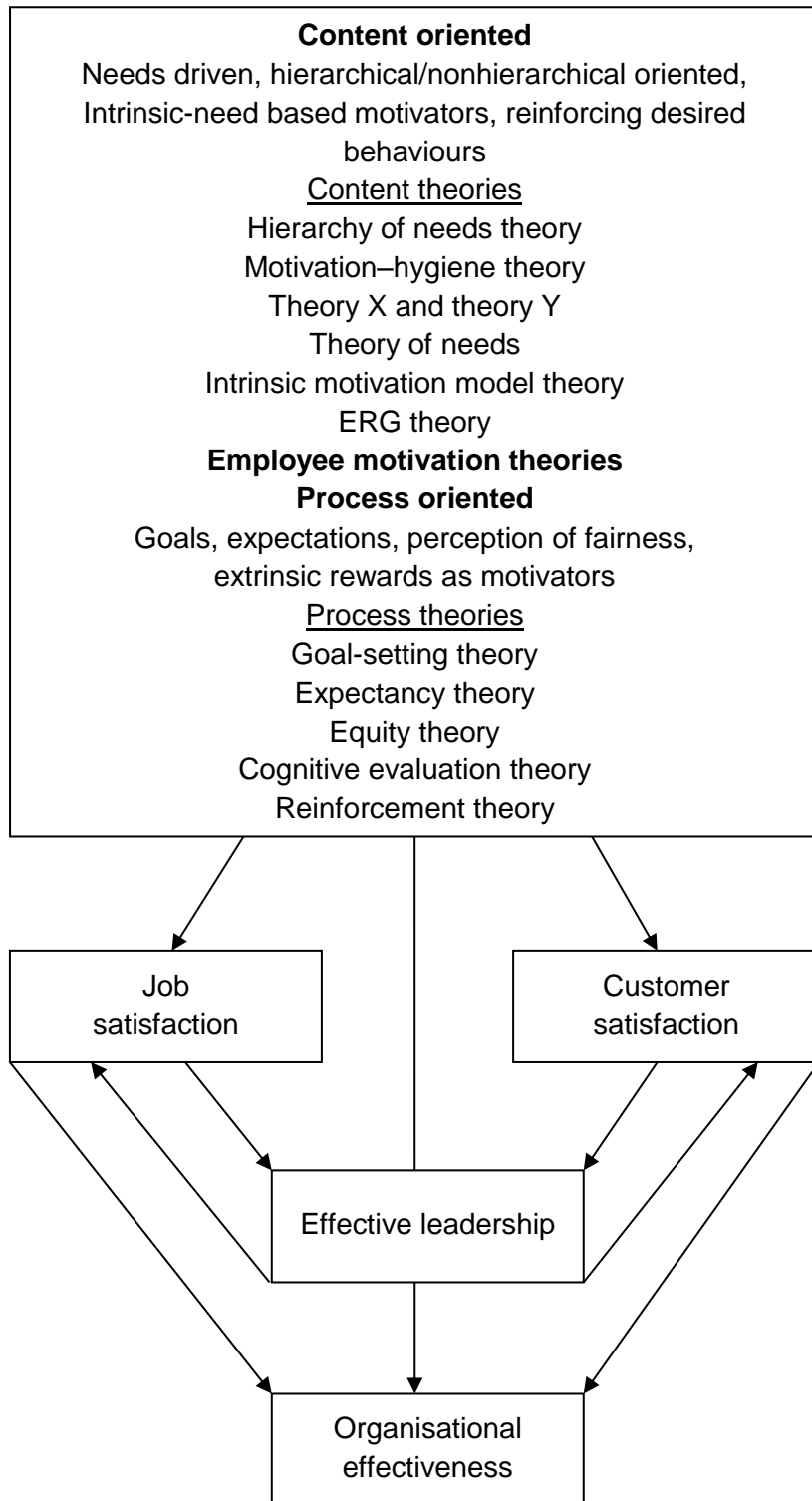
In order to prepare the proper framework for the chapter on job satisfaction theories and concepts, the next section will present and review theories of employee motivation as these theories largely form the basis for the discussion job satisfaction.

2.3 THEORIES OF EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION

A discussion of job satisfaction cannot begin without a presentation of employee motivational theory. The reason for this approach is to acknowledge the interrelationship between these two areas in the research literature on the topic of job satisfaction. A diagram depicting content and process employee motivation theories and the relationship between employee motivation and job satisfaction, leadership, customer satisfaction and organisational effectiveness is depicted in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1

Relationship between Employee Motivation, Job Satisfaction, Effective Leadership, Customer Satisfaction and Organisational Effectiveness



Source: Author

This interrelationship is so common that the terminology relating to job satisfaction and motivation theories is often used interchangeably in the literature. In fact it is not unusual in the research literature for a theory to be categorised as an employee motivation theory by one

researcher and as a job satisfaction theory by another. As such the categorisations of this topic going forward have those same characteristics regarding interchangeability.

Not only have the theories of job satisfaction and employee motivation been intertwined in the literature, but job satisfaction theory (Stello, 2011) also has its origins in and has evolved from employee motivation theory. The discussion below focuses on a review of the various generally recognised theories of employee motivation.

2.3.1 Hierarchy of needs theory

The fundamental theme of this theory is that individual motivation is determined by the innate desire to satisfy a human need which is believed to be unmet. When a need is believed to have been satisfied, the individual's current motivation and demonstrated behaviour becomes centred on the next need on the hierarchy perceived to be unmet and for which the individual has the drive to fulfil this other unmet need (Abulof, 2017; Maslow, 1987; 2013).

The creation and advancement of the theory of hierarchy of needs has shown to be a widely accepted method and framework for understanding employee motivation and behaviour on the job, and ultimately the level of satisfaction one experiences relative to the fulfilment of needs. This has occurred even though the theory has not been universally supported by empirical research.

As indicated later in this study, the extent to which the need can be achieved through the job itself is the point at which this theory of human motivation intersects and forms the link with job satisfaction theory.

If a need that was at once fulfilled becomes unmet, then the individual will be motivated to satisfy that need once again. The satisfaction level with a particular need being met will determine whether the employee's behaviour will be driven to continue the attempt to satisfy that particular need or pursue behaviour that will satisfy the next unmet need on the hierarchy that the individual is driven to fulfil (Abulof, 2017; Maslow, 1987; 2013).

There are five distinct levels and categories of needs that function independently in the development of the hierarchy of needs theory defining each need as being both consuming and mutually exclusive.

The needs comprising the basis of this theory and this hierarchical formation are expressed from a workplace setting perspective as follows:

- 1) physiological

- 2) safety and security
- 3) social
- 4) ego
- 5) self-fulfilment (self-actualisation)

As the theory evolved over time, a new need beyond that of self-actualisation emerged, namely the self-transcendence need (Maslow, 1993; Morrison, 2018; Koltko-Rivera, 2006). When individuals experience self-transcendence, they put aside their own needs and go beyond self to focus on service to others to enable themselves to self-actualise.

The theory was also expanded by introducing two growth-oriented needs immediately preceding the need for self-actualisation, namely the cognitive need and the aesthetic need (D'Souza & Gurin, 2016; Maslow, Stephens & Heil, 1998; Saeednia, 2009). The cognitive need addresses the human drive for truth, knowledge and exploration. The aesthetic need applies to the quest for order, symmetry and recognition of beauty.

Individuals are motivated and focus on and express their behaviour in terms of their unfulfilled needs in the order in which the hierarchy appears. Individuals' motivation and behaviour will always be displayed towards fulfilling their needs, starting with the lowest unfulfilled need. The hierarchy of needs theory holds as a major premise that individuals' overt behaviour is motivated and explained solely by their desire to fulfil the lowest unsatisfied need in the hierarchy.

By examining the hierarchy of needs theory in the workplace setting and from an organisational context perspective specifically, one can explain the hierarchy of needs as follows:

- 1) physiological – for example, money to buy food
- 2) safety/security – for example, job security and safe working conditions
- 3) social needs – for example, a sense of being a part of a compatible work group or team to fulfil one's human relations needs
- 4) ego – for example, achieving a particular level or status within the organisation or immediate work group
- 5) self-fulfilment/-actualisation – for example, becoming all that one possibly can become through the nature of the work itself

The first three needs on the hierarchy have been met by most, and some in societies have fulfilled the fourth hierarchical need. Few, however, have attained the fifth need for self-

actualisation, and most organisations have not done much to address this need in the workplace.

However, self-actualisation is a need with the potential to be most successful in achievement in the workplace. This stems from advances in areas such as organisational architecture and structure, as well as the degree to which innovations in job conceptualisation and design are achieved (D'Souza & Gurin, 2016; Maslow, 1998).

The aim of the need for self-actualisation is not to reach an end point, but instead, an ongoing process of growth and development into what one can become (D'Souza & Gurin, 2016; O'Connor & Yballe, 2007).

The need for self-transcendence is an area of the theory in which additional research is required (Koltko-Rivera, 2006; Morrison, 2018). Undoubtedly, a better understanding and advancement of how the need for self-transcendence can be fulfilled in the context of work and organisational life, particularly as it pertains to leadership, mentoring, career and succession planning and its impact on employee motivation, might be beneficial.

The concepts and strategies underlying the individualised corporation and its focus on individual employees and their specific skills and talents is a step in the right direction on the path to self-actualisation through the work itself (D'Souza & Gurin, 2016; Ghoshal & Bartlett, 1997).

From the theoretical and practice perspective of employee motivation, the hierarchy of needs theory has had certain relevance in business and industry as a framework for motivating employees and developing a blueprint for addressing job satisfaction.

In the context of the hierarchy, one widely learned organisational experience has been that continuing to master the fulfilment of employees' lower-level hierarchical needs does not reduce or eliminate their desire to achieve higher-level needs. However, the fulfilment of a need on the hierarchy does not automatically trigger behaviour that seeks to satisfy the next highest need on the hierarchy (Frame, 1996; Taormina & Gao, 2013).

An example of an employee wishing to satisfy higher-level needs despite ongoing efforts to fulfil lower-level needs, would be when an organisation provides greater fulfilment of an employee's financial needs in the form of wage and benefits when he or she is already satisfied with those lower-level hierarchical needs.

However, an organisation does not address the employees' need for greater autonomy and decision making in the job or for affiliation with a work team. An employee's pent-up need to

pursue satisfaction for the ego and social need may have contributed to the employee empowerment and teamwork movements.

A wealth of research on the hierarchy of needs theory in the greater context of employee motivation, and ultimately job satisfaction, was generated from the 1950s to the 1980s. As one of many need theories of motivation, there is one particular need that it has in common with those other theories, namely the need for social acceptance or belonging and relationships or affiliation (Deci & Ryan, 2010; Franken, 2001; Kreitner & Kinicki, 1998).

The hierarchy of needs theory is still prominent in the industrial and organisational psychology community, as well as among other researchers, as a solid framework for the study of employee motivation and a foundation for job satisfaction theory and research (Soper, Milford, & Rosenthal, 1995; Taormina & Gao, 2013).

However, critics of the theory readily highlight the lack of empirical evidence in support of the theory (Huitt, 2007). A study of 500 managers in the Netherlands from five different industries, including a wide range of functions, age groups and educational level, showed no evidence of employee motivation to satisfy needs in a hierarchical order or a diminishing of need strength once a need has been satisfied (Griffin, 1991).

Another study comparing Saudis and Western management personnel indicated differences in the importance and ranking of needs across national and cultural dimensions (Al-Meer, 1996). Also, it has been shown that the hierarchy of needs theory does not have universal applicability outside the USA (Taormina & Gao, 2013), which is grounded in more of a male-dominated rugged individualism orientation as opposed to a social good group emphasis (Cullen, 1997).

In addition, a research study of Korean blue-collar workers indicated their prioritised needs in descending order to be belongingness, esteem, physiological, safety and self-actualisation, which contradicts the hierarchy of needs theory (Raymond, Mittelstaedt & Hopkins, 2003). Other studies (Kenrick, Griskevicius, Neuberg, & Shaller, 2010) also indicated differences in the order of need fulfilment. The above study also revealed that intracultural considerations played a role in this prioritisation of needs.

2.3.2 Motivation-hygiene theory of motivation

The theory proposes that employee motivation is determined through variables categorised as either motivators or hygiene factors. The extent of their presence and/or absence as assessed by a particular employee is the determinant of his or her motivation (Herzberg, 1971; Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959; Mehrad, 2015).

The purpose of referring to the motivation-hygiene theory at this juncture is its historical significance and relevance in the annals of the research literature as it pertains to the evolution in thinking, not only regarding job attitudes and satisfaction but also the development of employee motivation theory. While research on the motivation-hygiene theory has waned, many in management in numerous organisations continue to place a high level of credence in the viability of the theory of employee motivation (Sachau, 2007; Thierry, 1998)

However, in a subsequent chapter in the current study, the theory pertaining to employee attitudes and job satisfaction will be discussed as well as the early research underlying its establishment as a job satisfaction theory.

The theory is often referred to as the two-factor theory of employee motivation and job satisfaction owing to the methodical identification of job factors as being either satisfiers, motivators and content oriented, or dissatisfiers, hygiene factors and maintenance factors.

From its inception, the theory became the foundation for many future studies and has become one of the most researched motivation theories in the literature in industrial and organisational psychology. However, nowadays it competes with other more contemporary theories of job attitudes and satisfaction as well as employee motivation theories.

Perhaps more so than other theories, this theory is often discussed in the context of motivation theory as much as or maybe even more so than it is referenced under the subject of job satisfaction theory.

In acknowledging this to be the case and the importance of this theory in industrial and organisational psychology, it is discussed here from a motivational perspective, and later in the section on job satisfaction theory as it pertains to that aspect of the overall theory. Every effort will be made to avoid redundancy and at the same time not appear to be disjointed in meaning by splitting the theory into two segments.

The motivators are the job content-centric factors and related conditions emanating from these content factors. These motivators or intrinsic factors include the following (Herzberg, 1971; Tan, 2014):

- 1) the nature of the work itself
- 2) achievement attained through job performance
- 3) responsibility level
- 4) personal growth
- 5) recognition received

6) advancement potential

These intrinsic factors are the foundation of employee motivation. The degree to which these motivators or intrinsic factors are present determines the employee's motivation to do the job. When these motivators are positively present in the job, the employee will be motivated. If these motivators or intrinsic factors are at a low level or absent from a job, then regardless of the status of the hygiene factors relative to the job, the employee will have little or no motivation (Tan, 2014; Tietjen & Myers, 1998).

The hygiene or extrinsic factors are those aspects of the work that are external to the job and neither content centred nor derived from the results of job content. These factors include the following (Herzberg, 1971; Levy, 2016):

- 1) pay and benefits
- 2) working conditions
- 3) job security
- 4) relationships (supervisor, co-workers and subordinates)
- 5) supervision received
- 6) company administration and policies

The hygiene or extrinsic factors play a different role to the motivators or intrinsic factors. These factors as mentioned previously function differently in that they are external to the job content as well as the related outcomes emanating from the job content. Recent research has supported the fact that extrinsic factors do not motivate or detract from the motivation of government workers in North America and Western Europe (Houston, 2009; Hur, 2018). Other researchers (Dahlqvist & Matsson, 2013) examining the effects of extrinsic factors on employee motivation identified similar results.

In addition, in accordance with the theory, and as the logic would indicate, the presence of a negative perception of hygiene factors present in an employee's job, such as pay, will serve to decrease or perhaps entirely negate his or her motivation to do the job. With regard to pay identified as an extrinsic factor in this theory, it would seem more likely to be an artefact at the time the theory was developed (Kuvaas, Buch, Weibel, Dysvik, & Nerstad, 2017; Rousseau & Ho, 2000).

Nonetheless, contrary to the prevailing logic at the time, the theory contends that the presence of positive hygiene factors will not serve to motivate an employee to do the job. When the hygiene factors are positive or being met in the context of work, their effect on motivation is neither positive nor negative, but neutral (Dipboye, 2018; Herzberg, 1971).

A case in point is the situation where employees perceive their working conditions, pay, company policies or relationship with their supervisor to be positive or fulfilled to their level of expectation. However, despite the positive perceptions employees might have, they do not derive any additional motivation to perform their job once these hygiene or extrinsic factors have been fulfilled.

Given the theory behind the extrinsic or hygiene factors and the role that the positive presence and perception that intrinsic or content factors play in motivation, this is a notable distinction between these two major dimensions of the motivation-hygiene theory.

However, some research has contradicted this. For example, newly minted information system professionals indicated that pay served as a strong motivator early in their careers, but this dissipated over time, and pay transitioned from a motivator to a hygiene factor (Gerhart & Fang, 2015; McLean, Smits, & Tanner, 1996).

While this research showed an intervening time factor, for the duration of its application it still contradicted the original theory. It was also determined that while an employee joins an organisation with an array of needs to fulfil such as pay, security, opportunity, meaningful work, social relationships, status and working conditions, the financial motivation is still present (Cowling, 1998; Damij, Levnajic, Rec Skrt, & Suklan, 2015).

The distinction between intrinsic and extrinsic context factors has been at the core of research on this theory of employee motivation (Johnson, Mortimer, Lee, & Stern, 2007; Legault, 2020).

The principles of the motivation-hygiene theory advance the idea that factors that result in an employee being motivated are distinct, as well as separate, from those that cause an employee not to be motivated.

Since these factors are not at the polar ends of a scale, they do not function in a manner in which the further one is from one factor (e.g. intrinsic factor), the closer one is to the other (e.g. extrinsic factor). The logic here is that while they are part of the same theory of human motivation, conceptually they function as separate constructs. In essence they are mutually exclusive.

In addition, the theory contends that the opposite of being motivated is not a lack of motivation when discussing this in the context of the impact of intrinsic and extrinsic factors on motivation. As such, a two-way inverse relationship does not exist between the intrinsic and extrinsic factors of employee motivation.

The theory has been abundantly espoused but also has its share of detractors. It has been underscored as one of the most contested and constructively criticised theories of motivation primarily because of disagreement about the research methodology followed (Phillipchuck & Whittaker, 1996; Stello, 2011).

A summary discussion of the key points of contention regarding its efficacy, notwithstanding its proven long-term survivability as a viable theory, follows.

The research methodology presented has been criticised because it relies on the judgement of raters in evaluating responses. Raters do not always demonstrate consistency in the application of these judgements and can allow biases to creep into the ratings.

When these biases occur in the ratings, the data becomes contaminated, and if the biases happen often enough, it may ultimately have a negative effect on the reliability and validity of the research results. Erroneously based research findings may also result in decisions and actions based on these findings that may be inappropriate or unnecessary at best, and perhaps detrimental and financially costly at worst.

The research methodology utilised was the critical incident method not usually considered a scientific approach and criticised for being subject to defence mechanisms (Miner, 2005; Stello, 2011).

The methodology may also have flaws based on the possibility that the responders may have a tendency to posture their responses in order to take personal responsibility for the motivating factors. However, with regard to the hygiene factors and the lack of motivation occurring from them, responders may proclaim that to be the responsibility of others such as management of the organisation.

A case in point might be a situation in which the responding employees acknowledge their role in being motivated by their achievements, indicating their lack of motivation resulting from company policy inadequacies or promotional decisions.

Since the theory has made it clear that the intrinsic and extrinsic factors are distinct and separate constructs, they become structurally at odds with each other. This could prejudice the responders' view in terms of their perceptions of the accountability for the causes of their motivation or lack thereof.

Another criticism of the theory is that it is rigid, and fails to account for the effects of situational conditions on motivators and hygiene factors experienced by the employee. These situational

factors can be neutral, but they can affect motivation in either direction as well (Phillipchuk & Whittaker, 1996; Stello, 2011).

The theory has also been criticised as being overly generalisable, and not concerned with the effects of individual personality differences. A study of the two-factor theory and the effects of personality differences indicated that extroverts were aligned with motivators, while introverts showed an affinity with hygiene factors (Dartey-Baah & Amoako, 2011; Furnham, Forde, & Ferrari, 1999; Sanjeev & Surya, 2016).

Other studies of the theory examined differences in employee motivation and proclivity towards making recommendations about work processes and practices under a formalised suggestion programme. The study involved over 3200 participants and the findings indicated that monetary rewards and like recognition were not as strong a source of motivation to participate with suggestions, as were job content and other intrinsic-oriented factors (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005; Ncube & Samuel, 2014).

The results of a study among managers and their employees was quite revealing, indicating that employees rated challenging work as most important and pay as sixth in importance to them, while managers rated what they perceived was intrinsically important to their employees in reverse order (Clark, 2010; Kovach, 1995). Examining and measuring various component aspects of employee motivation without a clear understanding of their overall motivational level may result in erroneous assumptions leading to both false positives and negatives. For example, an employee may experience high motivation in a couple of dimensions such as advancement and recognition, but experience low overall motivation because of other dimensions in which a lack of motivation is the result.

While there appears to have been a decline in research interest over the years in the two-factor theory of motivation, it is still frequently referenced in discussions on employee motivation.

It is also acknowledged that perhaps one of the greatest contributions emanating from the motivation-hygiene theory and the research surrounding it was the key role it played as an impetus for the work that became known as job enrichment and design (Latham, 2012).

Finally, the theory has been challenged as not being complete, and thus limiting its utility in that it does not provide for a total measure of employee motivation. While it is certainly helpful, probably more so, to understand and measure the various components of employee motivation, it is also beneficial to capture the employee's total motivation towards his or her job.

2.3.3 Theory of needs (achievement theory)

A review of the theory of needs, sometimes also referred to as the achievement motive theory has as its central theme the presence of three human needs which include the need for achievement, power and affiliation (Hustinx, Kuyper, Van der Werf, & Dijkstra, 2009; McClelland, 1961). These needs are often referred to as follows:

- need for achievement (nAch)
- need for power (nPow)
- need for affiliation (nAff)

These three motivational needs evolve in the individual as a result of specific experiences. It has also been determined that through the development and utilisation of targeted training programmes at individual level, the need for achievement can be enhanced (McMullen & Shepard, 2006). While needs can be further developed as indicated by the theory through training, they are present in all individuals to varying degrees, and it is the strength of the need that drives the motivation to perform (Kinicki & Kreitner 2012).

2.3.3.1 Need for achievement (nAch)

The need for achievement can be described as the human want or motivation to demonstrate a high level and quality of accomplishment in one's particular job or endeavour. The achievement need aspect of the theory holds particular relevance in broader work motivation theory, especially with regard to the satisfaction of ego needs in terms of autonomy, recognition and creativity, as well as the need for self-actualisation. As such, this theory is compatible with some aspects of the theories espoused by other motivational theorists such as Badubi (2017), Herzberg (1971) and Maslow (1987).

In addition, those whose behaviour demonstrates an achievement motive are also associated with greater risk-taking behaviour, generally resulting in having more significant job responsibilities within their particular work group or organisation. Studies of entrepreneurs (a high risk-taking group) to better understand need motivation, determined that consistent with the need theory, entrepreneurs displayed a high need for achievement (Chen, Su, & Wu, 2012; McMullen & Shepherd, 2006).

High need achievers are motivated to outperform their peers and to continue to improve their performance. With this outperformance and continuous improvement, they would expect to earn greater job and organisational responsibilities.

The achievement motive dimension of the theory also parts ways with other need theories as it pertains to pay in that it does not hold pay as a lower-level need or as an extrinsic hygiene factor. Instead, this theory regards pay as vital in that it represents a universally recognised method or standard for measuring one's level of achievement success. Research examining managers with a high money-oriented profile scored much higher on the achievement motive than managers with a low money-oriented profile who scored low on achievement (Gregoire, Corbett, & McMullen, 2011; Tang, Tang, & Luna-Arocas, 2005)

2.3.3.2 Need for power (nPow)

The motivation at the core of the need for power is the drive to be accountable for others by having control and influence over them in terms of assignments received, enhancing subordinate performance, rewards earned and recognition they compete for within the organisation or work group and their participation in decision making.

Studies have shown that managers satisfied some of their need for power by helping subordinates to create conditions to achieve performance objectives and fostering an environment of empowerment through employee participation programmes (Raven, 2008; Tjosvold, Sun, & Chen, 2003). The individual with a high need for power tends to be driven by the recognition of organisational stature that accompanies this particular power and responsibility over others.

These individuals relish the responsibility of being the power broker and exercising the clout they hold over others by virtue of their position capacity within the organisational structure and work group. It appears that a high need for power is the most dominant of the three needs in the case of the strongest performing managers (De Waal, Van der Heijden, Selvarajah, & Meyer, 2016; Winter, 2002).

The employee who demonstrates a high need for power can at times be viewed by other members of the organisation as being somewhat shallow and not possessing the same drive for excellence that the employee with a high achievement need may display.

2.3.3.3 Need for affiliation (nAff)

The last dimension of the theory of needs is the need for affiliation. Individuals whose actions demonstrate the desire to fulfil this need, pursue and value strong relationship building. They strive for and are motivated by friendships and nonconfrontational situations.

In an organisational setting, the employee motivated by the need for affiliation is generally recognised by engaging in behaviour that seeks out collegial working relationships with, say, members of the work group such as coworkers, subordinates and supervisors. This individual

will place the goals and feelings of the team members first and foremost in pursuing win/win situations for all participants. Usually when employees with a high need for affiliation are placed in supervisory roles, they tend to be weaker as managers (Chun & Choi, 2014; Ramlall, 2004)

Moreover, employees who pursue their need for affiliation often do so at the expense of pursuing behaviour that will result in the attainment of personal success and recognition. This is in contrast with employees who seek to fulfil their need for achievement by outperforming their coworkers and demonstrating continuous improvement.

Understanding employee motivation from the standpoint of the three specific needs in the need or achievement motive theory through empirical research can be instrumental in providing a range of predictable outcomes in terms of employee motivational behaviour (Koestner & McClelland, 1990; Ziegler, Schmukle, Egloff, & Buhner, 2010).

2.3.4 Theory X and theory Y

Theory X and theory Y describe employee motivation through the orientation and beliefs held by managers in terms of how they perceive employees and the assumptions they make about employee motivation and behaviour (Lawter, Kopelman, & Prottas, 2015; McGregor, 1960).

While the theory emerged six decades ago, many management and organisational experts still deem it to have contemporary relevance, particularly as a management philosophy in terms of employee motivation (Heil, Bennis, & Stephens, 2000; Russ, 2013).

During the development of theory X and theory Y, organisational behaviour, human resource policies and practices, systems and organisation designs were contrary to what was emerging in the behavioural sciences as a body of knowledge on employee motivation and behaviour in the workplace (Robinson, 2003).

Theory X and theory Y take a different perspective than the hierarchy of needs or need theory in that they are essentially grounded in the managerial philosophy of employee motivation, that is, with either theory X or theory Y, a manager will adjust his or her managerial approach and motivation strategies based on the assumptions he or she makes about whether a particular employee falls into characteristics associated with either theory X or theory Y. The tenets of each aspect of this dual theory are discussed below.

2.3.4.1 Theory X

Theory X has a more pessimistic view of human motivation in the workplace and categorises this view into the following four specific assumptions (Lawter et al., 2015; McGregor, 1960):

- 1) Employees are innately dissatisfied with work and actively engage in behaviours to avoid performing their duties.
- 2) Given their avoidance of work, employees need to be closely monitored and penalised for activity which is contrary to performing their responsibilities.
- 3) Employees need to be highly directed as they lack ambition and are not self-starters.
- 4) The typical employee is only interested in work because of the security it provides and has little interest in or initiative to take on greater challenges.

2.3.4.2 Theory Y

Theory Y has a more optimistic perspective of human motivation and employee behaviour by recognising that employees can be both interested and motivated in the performance of their jobs. This theory is constructed on the following four principles (Lawter et al., 2015; McGregor, 1960):

- 1) It is natural to view work in a positive, accepting and fulfilling manner.
- 2) People aspire to greater autonomy and less supervisory control in their workplace when afforded an opportunity to do so.
- 3) Individuals pursue responsibilities even beyond the confines of their particular position description.
- 4) Employees demonstrate creativity and self-reliance and do not always depend on management for solutions.

Theory X and theory Y as they evolved were not intended to be viewed as mutually exclusive, that is either one or the other (Cutcher-Gershenfeld, 2006; Mohamed & Nor, 2013). Instead, the thinking shifted towards interpreting theory X and theory Y on more of a continuum subject to the influence by external factors as viewed from the perspective of supervisors when assessing their employees in the context of the theories.

What makes theory X and theory Y more than subtly different than some of the other employee motivational theories such as the hierarchy of needs or need theory is that it is centred on supervisors' beliefs about their employees. These supervisory beliefs then focus on how a given supervisor interacts with his or her particular employees.

One should bear in mind that the underlying assumptions of theory X and theory Y beliefs are not universal. When applying these assumptions, developed from a US-based perspective, to other parts of the globe such as southeast Asia, for example, it is clear that the assumptions

become culturally sensitive and not completely applicable (Hamelin, Nasiri, Rezaei, & El-Haddou-Yousefi, 2018; Hofstede, 1994).

Inherent in the underlying principles of this theory is the notion that the more supervisors operate according to the principles of theory Y, the more likely their employees are to engage in motivated behaviour consistent with the assumptions aligned with theory Y. Hence this can set the stage for a motivated and satisfied workforce.

Of course the opposite also applies. In other words, when supervisors hold and apply a theory X perspective on the continuum, their employees tend to demonstrate little ambition or self-reliance for the work tasks at hand. Unfortunately this may lead to an alienated and dissatisfied work group.

When employee motivation theories such as theory X and theory Y, hierarchy of needs and need theory are compared, a common thread emerges which may enhance employee motivation and potentially satisfaction. This commonality for preconditions for high levels of employee motivation and job satisfaction is rooted in the type of organisational structure, job design and supervisory behaviour. When these areas are addressed in a way that increases employee autonomy and self-control, opportunity for achievement, greater decision-making responsibility, overall empowerment and growth, employees are motivated to behave in accordance with the principles of theory Y (Smothers, 2011; Whittington & Evans, 2005).

Assumptions about employee motivation have shifted from the 20th century as a theory X cost of doing business to control philosophy and segmented work, to that of a 21st-century theory Y view of employees as an asset with value in need of continuing development and work that is both knowledge based and collaborative (Gurbuz, Sahin, & Koksai, 2014; Kochan, Orlikowski, & Cletcher-Gershenfeld, 2003).

Theory X and theory Y have been marginalised and rejected by many as a viable theory for understanding employee motivation because of weak empirical evidence and thus a tendency to ignore the underlining tone of the theory of human nature. This has resulted in missed opportunities for true change in management approaches and thinking about employee motivation (Jacobs, 2004; Lawter et al., 2015).

2.3.5 ERG theory

The ERG theory of motivation is another theory included in the group of need theories. This theory derives its acronym from and is centred on the idea that human motivation can be captured and discussed through the prism of three essential needs, namely existence, relatedness and growth, as postulated by Alderfer (1972; 1969) and Caulton (2012).

ERG theory with its three distinct categories of human motivational needs is often compared and contrasted to the hierarchy of needs theory and its five motivational needs. A summary of the three distinct needs comprising ERG theory are briefly discussed below.

Existence needs. This group of ERG theory needs focuses on those needs that address the basic universal human necessities such as food shelter and security or what the hierarchy of needs theory refers to as physiological and safety needs.

Relatedness needs. The relatedness needs encompass those human wants for relationship building with others such as coworkers, supervisors and subordinates. Included in this is the desire to be a socially accepted member of a group. These needs are similar not only to the social needs that are part of the hierarchy of needs theory, but also the esteem needs derived from interpersonal relationships.

Growth needs. These are the needs for human development to one's highest potential. They are comparable to both the internal dimension of esteem, or in essence self-esteem, and the need for self-actualisation as described in the hierarchy of needs theory.

It has been posited that since the ERG theory applies to the organisational environment, the need for personal growth trumps the existence need because an individual is likely to be meeting that need if he or she is employed. The same applies to the relatedness need given that organisations generally represent socioeconomic entities in terms of significance to the employee (Armstrong, 2002; Robbins & Judge, 2014).

Assuming that existence needs are being satisfied, organisations that create participative and employee involvement environments as a culture not a fad, are an example of practical applications of the premise behind ERG theory as it pertains to relatedness and personal growth needs (Robbins & Judge, 2014)

While ERG theory shares many common elements with the hierarchy of needs theory, these theories part ways in terms of similarities in two highly significant ways.

Firstly, the hierarchy of needs theory holds that an individual is motivated to fulfil one particular need at a time until that need is satisfied. In other words, the motivation to satisfy a need on the hierarchy does not occur until the most urgent preceding need on the hierarchy has been fulfilled.

In essence, the theory is operationalised on a sequential or pyramidal basis. By contrast, ERG theory recognises that the complexities of human motivation are such that the individual may

be motivated and behave in such a manner to suggest that he or she is trying to satisfy more than one need at any given time (Caulton, 2012; Hume, 1995). In practice, this theory tends to function on more of a continuum platform.

Secondly, the idea in the hierarchy of needs theory is that the individual is locked into and motivated to satisfy a specific need no matter the frustration or time involved in the pursuit of satisfying that need. However, according to ERG theory, when individuals are stymied in their motivation to fulfil a particular need, they (Caulton, 2012) become frustrated with their efforts to satisfy that need and instead regress or revert to continuing to fulfil an already satisfied lower-level need. This is referred to as the regression-frustration factor. For example, if individuals become frustrated in attempting to satisfy their need for relatedness, they may continue to satisfy their need for safety.

As stated above, both the hierarchy of needs theory and ERG theory have much in common in providing a framework for discussing and understanding human motivation. However, there are also a number of significant differences between the two theories.

The research evidence appears to lend greater support to ERG theory in terms of the complexity, dynamics and variability of the human experience. This is especially applicable to the role personality traits play. A study using ERG theory and the impact of need satisfaction on the personality trait of self-esteem and thus performance, indicated that self-esteem had a significant effect on performance across a range of jobs from first-line employees to top managers (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2002; Lazaroiu, 2015).

ERG theory has become a viable theoretical alternative to the hierarchy of needs as a framework for understanding and discussing employee motivation and needs. This is the case despite not receiving the same amount of attention in the literature, and largely because of the lack of criticism relating to the needs, as is the case with the hierarchy of needs theory.

While the hierarchy of needs theory has received much attention in the literature, a fair amount of that attention has been placed on refuting it. The theory has been challenged as a viable testable theory, on the premise of the sequential satisfaction of needs, and the rather static nature of its assumptions, with the theory not holding up well in empirical investigation (Betz, 1984; Birdwell & Wahba, 1973; Bostan, Condrea, Burciu, & Morariu, 2009; Ehiobuche, 2013; Hagerty, 1999; McShane, 2004; Payne, 2000). Over the span of many years. By contrast, ERG theory has received less criticism because its framework is less rigid (Bostan et al. 2009).

2.3.6 Reinforcement theory

Reinforcement theory is grounded in the psychological principles of learning, operant conditioning and reinforcement of learned and induced desired behaviours (Skinner, 1971; 2014; Wei & Yazdanifard, 2014). While applied by industrial and organisational psychologists in organisational settings for some time, its origins as a viable psychological learning principle can be traced back to experimental psychology as well.

Reinforcement theory, also referred to as operant conditioning or behaviourism, has been somewhat controversial over time. Some academics prefer not to classify reinforcement theory as a motivation theory, arguing that it mostly describes the manner in which behaviour occurs as a result of outcomes. Since it addresses one's desire to act in a manner and direction requiring sustained effort, it has become generally accepted as a sound motivation theory (Katzell & Thompson, 1990; Pinder, 2014). However, reinforcement theory articulates quite different assumptions compared with those of other motivational theories.

This theory of motivation subscribes to the demonstrated belief that motivation can be extrinsically influenced as opposed to the individual having innate needs and intrinsic motivation requirements. On the strength of this, the theory espouses that human motivation can be directed and manipulated through means external to the individual and not initiated by a desire to fulfil an internal need (Kanfer, Chen, & Pritchard, 2012; Komaki, Coombs, & Schepman, 1996).

Through operant conditioning methods, the theory adheres to the belief that the individual can be taught and learn to be motivated to behave in a way that is driven by outside inducements or the external environment and not through internal cognitive factors. In essence, reinforcement theory views human motivation as being behaviourally directed and not need driven as many of the other theories postulate.

The theory became a model for studying, discussing and conducting experimentation on human behaviour and motivation. Reinforcement theory is practised extensively today (whether intentional or not) as a means for gaining greater insight into employee motivation in the workplace (Gordan & Amutan, 2014; Komaki, 2003). Reinforcement theory comprises three essential components that serve to foster and solidify a predictable and repeatable behaviour. These three aspects of the theory include stimulus, response and reward, which are briefly explained below (Gordan & Amutan 2014; Skinner, 1971, 2014).

Stimulus. A stimulus is the external event or action intended to foster or create a desired behavioural outcome on the part of the recipient for which the stimulus is intended.

Response. A response is the actual behaviour demonstrated by as well as solicited and expected from the individual through the inducement or introduction of the stimulus.

Reward. A reward is a material item or something psychological that an individual earns for exercising the desired behavioural response to the stimulus that was introduced to solicit such behaviour.

These three conditions operate within this framework to motivate behaviour which is then rewarded. It is the consistent application of the reward given to the individual following the demonstration of the desired behaviour that serves to reinforce the particular behaviour any time that same stimulus and response are repeated. The role that the repeated reward aspect of this theory plays in contributing a psychological learning principle and the reinforcement of sustainable behaviour, provides a valuable basis for understanding the human learning process through the operant conditioning that occurs (Ellmers, DeGilder, & Haslam, 2004; Poling & Braatz, 2001).

This same operant conditioning process that occurs through the stimulus-response-reward cycle for rewarding desired behaviour can also be used punitively as opposed to a reward when dealing with undesired behaviour.

If the individual's response to a stimulus is unsupportable negative behaviour, then by recognising this with punitive action, the individual learns not to repeat the negative behaviour. Instead the individual learns (probably through trial and error) to display the behaviour that will result in a reward as opposed to a punitive outcome.

The practice of reinforcement theory is part and parcel of organisational culture and policy whether intended or not owing to the high degree to which rewards and punitive actions permeate the fibre of organisations. With the focus on inducing desired behaviours, one could argue that reinforcement theory as it applies to the workplace may be less of a motivational theory and more of a behaviour control mechanism (Botvinick & Braver, 2015; Cole, 2018).

An employee might not be motivated to display a particular behaviour but does so because the consequences of behaving in a fashion that truly motivates him or her may result in punitive

results if the behaviour is contrary to what is expected as a desired behavioural response to a particular stimulus.

Reinforcement theory may also be less of a motivational theory and more a behaviour control strategy because it does not acknowledge, as other theories do, the role that innate and cognitive factors such as needs, aspirations, perceptions and attitudes play in the complex topic of employee motivation and behaviour (Botvinick & Braver, 2015; Komaki et al., 1996).

Despite the prevailing beliefs that the theory is based less on motivation and is more behaviouristically oriented, it is often used to provide a motivational explanation for understanding employee behaviour (Locke, 1980; Pinder, 2014).

2.3.7 Cognitive evaluation theory

The cognitive evaluation theory can be viewed as more of a contrarian theory in that it attempts to refute or counter the principles of widely recognised motivational thinking. There has been a generally accepted premise in motivation theory that intrinsic motivational factors such as the job content, accomplishment and recognition are isolated from and function separately from extrinsic motivating factors such as compensation, security and working conditions.

However, the cognitive evaluation theory of motivation that was developed contradicts this premise (De Charms, 1968). This theory has been supported by research that has advanced the principle that providing extrinsic reward factors such as pay and benefits for work that have been previously intrinsically satisfying actually cause a reduction in the level of overall employee job motivation (Cameron & Pierce, 1994; Deci, 1975; Deci & Ryan, 2012). This is the core of what has become known as the cognitive evaluation theory.

A long-term view was that the extrinsic and intrinsic motivational components were independent. However, based on this finding, it has been argued that intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivational factors are not isolated from each other, but are in fact in a dependent relationship (Deci, 1971; Deci, Ryan, & Guay, 2013).

The cognitive theorist would conclude that utilising extrinsic rewards such as pay and benefits in recognition of performance in a job with high-value intrinsic motivational aspects associated with it, would lower an individual's intrinsic motivation in the content aspect of the job, and perhaps overall satisfaction as well. In support of the theory, a study examining the impact differential between tangible extrinsic rewards and praise on intrinsic motivation concluded that praise appears to increase intrinsic motivation, while pay and prizes tend to decrease intrinsic motivation (Carton, 1996; Georgellis, Iossa, & Tabvuma, 2010; Ryan & Deci, 2013; Shi, Connelly, & Hoskisson, 2017).

In practice, however, contrary to the beliefs surrounding the cognitive evaluation theory, a viable platform for utilising extrinsic rewards as motivators in organisational policies and human resource management programmes is commonplace. Researchers have demonstrated and practitioners have long held the view that linking extrinsic motivators and rewards such as pay, but strategically, to job performance outcomes, has led to increased motivation in achieving organisational strategies (Fang, Gerhart, & Ledford, 2013; Lawler, 1990a).

However, this has been done at the expense of what the cognitive evaluation theorists would argue is the lowering or reduction in significance of the intrinsic motivators in a job. These intrinsic motivational factors such as job content are what the cognitive evaluation theorists would suggest are what ultimately should be preserved in the context of employee motivation theory as the more relevant, reliable and durable job motivators and likely lead to long-lasting job satisfaction.

While the cognitive evaluation theory has generally been upheld, two exceptions have been observed. Extrinsic rewards received independent of a defined performed task such as a fixed salary, or unexpectedly as a nonperformance-based bonus, did not serve to mitigate intrinsic motivation (Deci, Koestner, & Ryan, 1999; Gerhart & Fang, 2015).

The reality of the workplace is such that external or extrinsic rewards such as pay are not only successfully used in recognition of both the value the organisation and its competitive marketplace place on the skills associated with a job, but also as a means to reward job performance. A possible explanation for why extrinsic factors may be motivating could be the variable of choice.

While the presence of an intrinsic interest to perform a particular job is essential for motivation, extrinsic interest to perform the same job at a particular level of performance may also prove motivating to the extent that the extrinsic dimension is one involving a degree of autonomy in choice (Fang et al., 2013; Ryan & Deci, 2000a). An example of this would be the employee who is intrinsically motivated to perform a particular job, but when confronted with the possibility of receiving bonus compensation in varying amounts dependent on the degree to which he or she outperforms, makes a decision or choice to perform at a specified level.

This financial reward for desirable job performance is intended to motivate future similar performance, which would in turn, be rewarded in a comparable financial manner. In a sense this cycle is similar to the stimulus-response-reward process that occurs through reinforcement theory. The opportunity provided through a job functions as a stimulus, and

because a job can fulfil so many other human requirements, an individual is motivated to have one. The response is the performance achieved in the job. Ultimately, the compensation received for that performance becomes the reward.

Given the extent to which an extrinsic reward such as pay is used to recognise performance and motivate future performance, many would perhaps argue, and appropriately so, its usefulness. There is little evidence that extrinsic rewards reduce future employee task interest and motivation, and in general, an employee will devote (Deci, Ryan, & Guay, 2013; Eisenberger & Cameron, 1996; Gerhart & Fang, 2015) as much effort to a task when the reward is removed as when it was previously made available for performing the same task.

The theory may, however, have some limitations in its generalisations of jobs and the intrinsic/extrinsic motivation relationship. Cognitive evaluation theory has not drawn a distinction between differences in jobs in terms of the degree to which different jobs may contain varying levels of intrinsic job content, ranging from extremely low unskilled jobs to executive level positions and the impact of extrinsic rewards as motivators on intrinsic motivation. In one study of government employed research scientists it was determined that they were motivated by high-quality creative work accompanied by management feedback, and not motivated by salary, benefits or promotions (Deci, Olafsen, & Ryan, 2017; Jindal-Snape & Snape, 2006).

Decoupling rewards from job performance is likely to be a theoretical exercise only, as it relates to examining employee motivation in the workplace. It would seem that additional research is necessary to determine just how detrimental to intrinsic motivation it is to utilise extrinsic rewards such as pay, as has been identified and described through cognitive evaluation theory.

2.3.8 Intrinsic motivation model (theory)

In order to facilitate a discussion of the intrinsic motivation model, it is necessary to discuss the ideas behind the concept of flow from which this model has been derived. As mentioned, this model is based on the psychological concept referred to as flow.

The concept of flow relates to individuals being so immersed in an activity, one in which they are interested, that they enter into a kind of organisational timelessness state (Mainemelis, 2001; Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014). The individuals' total concentration is so focused on one particular activity that their attention is not distracted from this activity by any other events around them. Even when individuals are isolated from others and involved in this activity, on a conscious level, they do not experience any other internal thoughts.

This psychological concept of flow tends to be experienced in situations where the work activity is of a high level of interest and challenge to the individual and requires skills commensurate with the challenge of the activity. Also present in the work activity engaged in by the individual is a demonstration of creativity.

In addition, the work activity is of a planned objective pace or nature with various assessment points along the way until the ultimate end objective has been achieved. Generally, the sense of accomplishment in achieving the objective pursued is not experienced, in terms of satisfaction, until after the attainment of the objective when the individual is no longer concentrating on the activity.

In some circles it might be believed that to really experience the psychological concept of flow a person must be engaged in activities of the highest order of intellectual challenge. Of course, a scientist involved in, say, research on the human genome, may certainly experience flow. However, flow may be experienced in any work activity where the individual interest level in the work activity, challenge of the task and skill compatibility is optimised in a particular situation.

The intrinsic motivation model was developed on the basis of the principles associated with the psychological concept of flow. The model builds on these concepts by providing a framework for categorising elements inherent in the intrinsic motivation model into four key factors, namely choice, competence, meaningfulness and progress (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014; Thomas, 2000).

2.3.8.1 Choice

This is defined as the selection of activities that employees find suitable and for which they decide the manner in which to complete them.

2.3.8.2 Competence

This is the sense individuals have of the activity they have selected and their own capability to successfully perform it.

2.3.8.3 Meaningfulness

Meaningfulness is the degree to which the activity addresses the individual's objectives and needs for intrinsic value and purposefulness.

2.3.8.4 Progress

This is the belief that individuals have that they are succeeding in reaching whatever internal and external milestones they have set in performing the activity they have selected.

In an organisational setting, for example, the recognition by employees that these four factors exist in the work activity in which they are engaged would reflect the presence of intrinsic motivation as defined by this theory.

Other proponents of the intrinsic motivation model have postulated that when an individual satisfies the three innate needs of competence, autonomy and relatedness, this will lead to greater self-motivation, and when left unfulfilled, result in diminished intrinsic motivation (Deci, Ryan, & Guay, 2013; Ryan & Deci, 2000b).

The theory is operationalised when employees demonstrate a consistent in-depth interest in their work and how to maximise their performance. This occurs along with deriving such an intrinsic satisfaction from the tasks contained in their job that the extrinsic rewards are not of any significant positive consequence to their motivation. In a research study of agency professionals, not only were extrinsic rewards of no positive consequences, but they also actually served to diminish the employees' intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2010; Kunz & Pfaff, 2002).

In other words, it is the fulfilment of intrinsic motivational needs which the employee truly seeks and becomes satisfied with in the job, and which leads to increased performance levels when they are present in the form of the four factors referenced earlier (Baard, Deci, & Ryan, 2004; Deci, Ryan, & Guay, 2013). It is not the extrinsic factors and rewards, such as financial ones, that are provided and may be linked to the individual's performance in the job, that satisfy his or her motivational needs.

The real test of this theory in practice, and as it may relate to not only motivation but also to employee job satisfaction, is whether it has held up universally along a broad spectrum of jobs in terms of the variation in level of challenge present in those jobs. In a study of newly hired technical professionals, the theory showed conflicting results. The extrinsic factor of pay was a significant factor in the motivation and decision to join the organisation, but this dissipated rapidly once the employee reached a comfort level in the organisation (Barber & Bretz, 2000; Georgellis et al., 2010).

To date, however, the research would suggest that the intrinsic motivation theory model has shown limited organisational applicability, particularly as it pertains to the four factors mentioned earlier. The theory calls for this to be experienced by the individual employee through the job content in order for intrinsic motivation to be present in him or her.

The area in which the research has shown this limited support has been in the type of jobs with a higher level of challenge content as defined in broad terms organisationally, such as applied scientific, pure research, engineering and management positions.

It remains to be seen to what extent, if any, future research conducted on moderate or lower skill level and challenge jobs can yield results that are similarly in support of the intrinsic motivation theory model.

In closing there appear to be similarities between the intrinsic motivation theory model and the two-factor theory of motivation. Of most significance in terms of similarities between these two theories is the emphasis on intrinsic motivation factors as the key to employee job satisfaction.

Also, both theories view extrinsic factors as not playing a role in employee job satisfaction even though the two-factor theory maintains that the presence of these extrinsic factors will at least avoid dissatisfaction.

2.3.9 Equity theory

The equity theory of employee motivation has its origins in sociology and the psychology of comparison. The theory articulates the view that what is significant in employee motivation is the self-perception of fairness.

To elaborate, the theory holds that the perception of effort expended and the recognition and reward received for exerting that effort should be fair and just. This is both in terms of the individual's own internal needs for balance, and most importantly, in comparison with others for whom these comparative judgements are made (Adams, 1965; Ryan, 2016). The comparison with the referent individual would then either validate the employee's perception and lead to motivating behaviour or the perception would be refuted by the comparison and result in a lack of motivation.

When an employee perceives this comparison as fair, the conditions create a balance or sense of equity. Also, when the employee perceives the comparison to be equitable, this may drive attitude, motivation and behaviour favourably. Of course the opposite may occur if the comparison is perceived to be unfair. An employee has four different referent group categories, including self or others and inside or outside their organisation (Shore & Strauss, 2012; Summers & DeNisi, 1990).

The comparisons the individual makes are neither limited to only peers in similar jobs nor within his or her own organisation. Besides coworkers, the comparisons include superiors,

subordinates, colleagues from other organisations and professional associations, as well as friends and family.

There are five key principles of equity theory regarding the fairness of compensation employees receive for the work they perform, and which have been validated by the research (Griffeth & Gaertner, 2001; Mowday, 1991; Till & Karren, 2011). These five principles are indicated below.

- An employee who is paid on the basis of time and is undercompensated, will generate lower work or quality output than an employee who is also paid on the basis of time, but equitably compensated.
- An employee whose pay is based on time expended and overcompensated, will generate greater work output than an employee whose pay is also based on time but who is equitably compensated.
- When an employee who is paid according to the quantity of output and undercompensated, will generate lower quality but greater output than an employee paid in a like manner however equitably compensated.
- An employee whose pay is based on time expended and overcompensated will generate greater work output than an employee whose pay is also based on time but who is equitably compensated.
- When an employee is paid on basis of the quantity of output and overcompensated, he or she will generate a higher quality but lower output compared with an employee paid on the same basis but who is equitably compensated.

However, there are some anomalies one might expect to occur in reality in the workplace, which contradict some of these principles. An employee who is overcompensated may not be so outraged over inequity as an undercompensated employee; nor perhaps are all individuals comparably sensitised to equity issues, particularly as a team member (Bing & Burroughs, 2001; Luna-Arocas & Tang, 2015).

The foundation of equity theory includes an analytical dimension and a process by an individual to draw a conclusion regarding his or her perception of fairness. Specifically, this individual examines what are known as the inputs he or she brings to the position, as well as the outcomes emanating from the application of those inputs. This results in an input/outcome ratio.

The inputs are considered the contributions employees make or assets they bring to a job. These inputs include, for example, education, skill level, experience, performance effort and growth potential. Outcomes are recognised as the rewards or benefits employees receive based on the inputs they bring to the job and include factors such as recognition, advancement, pay grade and level of responsibility.

An employee who performs this analytical exercise then engages in speculation concerning both the inputs of the comparative individual and the perceived outcomes that emerge and the resultant input/outcome ratio of the comparative individual. The employee who is conducting the comparison of ratios will react from a motivational standpoint according to what this comparison reveals. While equity theory provides a clear framework for understanding employee motivation in various scenarios, as discussed below, the empirical findings in support of the theory have been inconsistent (Pinder, 2014).

In the scenario where the employee has a ratio of 100/100, inputs to outcomes, he or she would interpret this as follows: Based on the inputs the employee brings to his or her job (e.g. education, experience and performance), the outcomes (e.g. pay, recognition and responsibility) derived are perceived to be equitable or aligned and in balance.

The second aspect of this theory and the dimension with the greatest significance is the ratio comparisons made with other individuals. To illustrate this, an employee with the input/outcome ratio of 100/100 identifies a coworker for comparison purposes. The employee makes assumptions about the coworker's inputs and outcomes and perceives the ratio to also be 100/100. In this instance, the employee believes that equity and fairness prevail.

An employee would also believe that there is equity and fairness in a comparison of his or her own ratio of 100/100 to another worker's ratio of 150/150. In this situation, the employee would acknowledge that while the coworker's outcome or what he or she receives from the job is greater than his or her own outcome, the coworker would also bring more to the job in terms of inputs, which happen to equal the outcomes received.

Of course this logic would also apply to the opposite situation when an employee compares his or her input to outcome ratio of 100/100 to another coworker's ratio of input to outcome, which is estimated at 75/75. In this scenario, the employee recognises that the coworker's outcome or what he or she derives from the job is less than his or her own outcome. However, the other individual is contributing less to the job in terms of inputs, which also equal the outcomes being received. This would also lead to a sense that equity and fairness prevail (Adams, 1964; Ryan, 2016).

This occurs because the theory is not based on whether someone else's input to outcome ratio is higher or lower than the employee making the comparison. Instead, it is based on whether there is a balance in the income to outcome ratios for both of the employees involved in the comparison.

The perception of equity and fairness would change, however, under different circumstances when the input to outcome ratio is not in balance. When this same employee compares his or her input/outcome ratio to that of a coworker, his or her reaction may be different. As the theory postulates, the perception of inequity will emerge regardless of the direction of the ratio comparison between the employee and the referent individual (Aidla, 2012; Van Dierendonck, Schaufeli, & Buunk, 2001).

However, where one perceives, in the case of one's own ratio, that the outcome is greater than the input in comparison with that of the referent employee, one would generally accept this condition or at least show little concern (Bell & Martin, 2012; Mowday, 1991).

If the referent individual is perceived to have an input/outcome ratio of 100/100 by the employee doing the comparison, whose own input to outcome ratio is a 100/150 ratio, his or her perception would be that there is inequity in this comparison.

This would happen even though the employee is in a position of receiving outcomes of higher value than the inputs he or she brings to the job compared to the other individual. According to Adams (1965) and Aidla (2012), when this occurs, the employee whose input to outcome ratio is out of balance would be motivated to behave in a manner that would bring the ratio back into balance. However, as stated above, in reality this might not transpire.

In the case of the example above, the employee could possibly increase his or her inputs, such as expending greater effort, which might then bring the ratio into balance and alleviate his or her feelings of inequality (Aidla, 2012; King & Miles, 1994).

It is possible that the employee could reduce the outcome to bring the ratio into balance. However, this becomes problematic in that the source of the outcome is something that the employee may have little direct control or influence over. Given that outcomes such as recognition, advancement opportunity or pay are controlled by company policy and not forward looking, but retrospective, this would pose problems.

This would require the employee to purposefully behave in the future in a manner which, while perhaps bringing the ratio into balance, could be extremely detrimental to the employee's reputation and future with the organisation. Since this behaviour would be self-destructive, it

is unlikely that the employee would be motivated to create the ratio balance through the outcome side of the equation when changing the input side which, as mentioned previously, would be a more viable direction.

Another example is a scenario in which the employee perceives his or her own input to outcome ratio to be in balance at 75/75 and the coworker's input to outcome ratio to be perceived by the employee making the comparative analysis to be out of balance at 75/100. Once again, the employee acknowledges an inequity, but here the employee making the comparison perceives that the coworker is at an unfair advantage to himself or herself. However, it is worth mentioning that while most would experience this type of inequity, there are some who are not sensitive to inequities (Bell & Martin, 2012; Sauley & Bedeian, 2000).

Since it is perceived that both individuals bring the same value of inputs into the equation, as judged by the employee, and the coworker is deriving outcomes greater than those of the employee, a condition of imbalance exists that results in an inequity.

This perception of inequity may not only serve to lower the employee's motivation level, but may also lead to other undesirable organisational outcomes (Scheer, Kumar, & Steenkamp, 2003; Trevor, Reilly, & Gerhart, 2012). In this situation, the employee could also attempt to increase his or her outcome value such as responsibility or recognition.

However, as indicated in the previous example, the employee has virtually no direct control or influence in altering only outcomes in terms of lowering their value, he or she would literally have the same limitations in attempting to increase the outcome value as well. Regardless of direction (lower or higher), this limitation is again due to the fact that outcomes are determined and issued by sources external to the individual employee, generally company policy and/or the employee's supervisor.

To continue this example, if the employee were able to affect the value of his or her outcome in an upward direction, this would usually transpire by an increase in input through effort or skill. This would then result in inequity on the input side of the equation when compared to the ratio of the coworker described in this example. An employee's level or category of equity sensitivity shows a relationship to his or her effort, motivation and organisational commitment (Allen & White, 2002; Erdogan, Bauer, Peiró, & Truxillo, 2011).

Additionally, if the employee were to attempt to create an imbalance in his or her own ratio of 75/75 by lowering his or her input so that he or she too would be deriving greater outcomes from lower inputs, like the coworker in this comparison, the employee might be successful in

the short term. However, this employee runs the risk of seeing a downward adjustment to his or her outcomes by a supervisory decision or company policy as a result of the lower input.

Any effort on the employee's part to engage in an activity that creates an outcome-biased ratio for him or her, would now result in both the employee and the coworker involved in the comparison having an imbalance in their respective input to outcome ratio. However, in theory, presumably the employee would no longer feel that there is inequity since he or she and the coworker in the comparison, would both derive outcomes in equal proportion, which would be greater than their respective inputs.

The whole concept of fairness emanating from equity theory has evolved over the years and is considered part of the subject of organisational justice. Historically, fairness as a concept in equity theory was mainly based on how rewards were distributed and the quantity of rewards. This is referred to as distributed justice. However, in the evolution of the fairness doctrine, a broader definition of fairness emerged (Cropanzano & Ambrose, 2015; Cropanzano & Greenberg, 1997).

The concept of procedural justice, that is, the fairness of the method or process used in issuing rewards, in addition to distributed justice, has also been extensively examined (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng, 2001; Tornblom & Vermunt, 2016). Research on these two concepts of fairness has indicated that distributive justice plays a more significant role in employee motivational attitudes, while procedural justice is a factor in employee organisational commitment and trust (Elanain, 2010 Konovsky, 2000; McFarlin & Sweeney, 1992).

Equity theory provides one of the more thorough and rational explanations of employee motivation. It depicts this through numerous input/outcome ratio scenarios and how employees would view fairness or equity through the prism of this ratio. Central to this is how an employee perceives his or her own input/outcome ratio to those of other referent employees. In this regard it provides logic and comparative perspective through which to examine the merits of that logic.

However, equity theory possesses some shortcomings as well. The structure of the theory as a rationale for employee motivation is such that it is limited to explaining motivation somewhat narrowly from the perspective of a ratio. From a real-world perspective, this restrains one's thinking and perhaps understanding of the dynamics of employee motivation, which is generally recognised as a complex topic influenced by many variables.

In addition, the premise that in the workplace employees can accept receiving lesser outcomes than a peer, based on their perception that the inputs of the peer are greater than their own,

may be misguided. Employees and human nature are such that people are generally not that objective in areas of such a personal matter as rewards received at work that they would be comfortable with these ratio analysis when they are at the lower end of the reward hierarchy compared with their peers. Employees are equally, if not more so, inclined to reject the assessment of the input/outcome ratio in this scenario and rationalise why the explanation is not warranted.

Employees' perceptions of distributed and procedural justice in the context of equity theory are the key to perhaps providing some support for the theory. If employees believe that the way (distribution) and the method (procedure) used to allocate and determine rewards (Thurston & McNall, 2010), such as the performance appraisal systems throughout the organisation or at least, within their work group, are equitable (even if this may mean they do not benefit as much as a coworker), they may be more likely to accept the method of distributed and procedural justice. However, this may not be sufficient to overcome the natural human tendency to succumb to subjective thinking or rationalising the input/outcome ratio when they do not benefit from it.

2.3.10 Goal-setting theory

The goal-setting theory of motivation is based on the principle that a structure of work grounded in an individual employee's goals and objectives against which his or her performance is measured and feedback is provided, is essential to employee motivation (Locke, 1968; Locke & Latham, 1990; 2012; 2013). Based on a review of the research literature (Latham & Pinder, 2005; Locke & Latham, 2013), goal-setting theory has been acknowledged as one of the most significant contemporary employee work motivation theories.

The three key dimensions of the goal-setting theory are as follows:

- 1) goals or objectives
- 2) performance
- 3) feedback

The three dimensions represent separate activities, but they are not mutually exclusive because they interact, and when functioning in harmony, can enhance employee motivation. Also, clearly defined goals that have been accepted by the employee and represent a meaningful level of challenge or difficulty and on which periodic feedback is provided, lead to higher performance (Ashford & De Stobbeleir, 2013; Locke, 1996; Wofford, Goodwin, & Premack, 1992)

Goals and objectives are the blueprint that can propel employee motivation towards accomplishment. The importance of goals and objectives relative to employee motivation is that they allow the employee incremental steps or subgoals within a timeframe to measure progress.

The dimension of time underscores goal-setting theory in comparison with other employee motivation theories (George & Jones, 2000; Lunenburg, 2011a). Along with this, the timing of subgoal milestones and an estimate of the effort required at the various steps in the milestones, together increase the likelihood of accomplishment of the overall objectives.

Given this type of architecture provided by the goal-setting theory, and the dissemination of its related process over a landscape of time, milestones and incremental subgoals, it operates in a fashion that facilitates maintaining a sustainable level of optimum employee motivation. It appears that the key aspect of sustaining high employee motivation is the element of time inherent in the goal-setting process and operationalised through schedules and deadlines associated with goal setting (Fried & Slowik, 2004; Locke & Latham, 1990; 2012).

From a motivational standpoint, this structuring of job tasks and responsibilities into well-formulated goals and objectives also provides a defence against employee performance issues.

With measurable milestones and deliverables as a part of these goals, the likelihood of frequently reoccurring episodes of distracting behaviour and the potential for reduced employee motivation is minimised. The goals and objectives keep the employee's attention and motivation. The type of organisational environment that evolves through the goal-setting process is a controlled, synchronised and coordinated one, in which the focus of employee, group and management is on the achievement of goals (Lee & Liebenau, 1999; Lunenburg, 2011a).

The aspect of employee performance within goal-setting theory is another significant dimension. One could argue that an employee's performance in a job could be improved through the establishment of clearly defined and accepted objectives, as well as the measurement of the employee in the context of those objectives.

The presence of specific agreed-upon goals of interest to the employee, as well as the structure and discipline required in working to attain these goals, is most likely to increase the level of employee performance. By contrast, a situation in which the employee performs tasks or activities that do not fit within specific and measurable objectives, is much less likely to have the same results with employee performance.

Research has demonstrated that, when goals and objectives are perceived as challenging and the employee has accepted or bought into the goals developed, a higher level of performance is attained than when the goal is easy and employee acceptance is lacking (Locke & Latham, 2012).

These two conditions, namely the level of difficulty of the goals and the employee's acceptance of the objectives are the key determinants of motivation to increase performance against the goals. Employees need to embrace the goals as representing a legitimate test of their capability.

The primary consideration here is ensuring that the goals are not easy to achieve as this situation would not foster the motivation or desired behaviour. However, at the same time, the goals cannot be perceived by the employee to be so challenging that even with maximum effort and performance they would be unattainable. The goals should be seen as bona fide in order to secure maximum employee motivation.

The second condition regarding goals and their impact on enhanced performance is the idea of acceptance by the employee. Acceptance of the goals requires the following elements in the structure of the goal that are instrumental (Locke & Latham, 1990; 2012):

Goal specificity. Goals should be specific and clear as opposed to general and subject to multiple interpretations.

Measurement and success. The manner of measurement and the definition of success should be spelled out in advance.

Flexibility. Agreed-upon goals should allow for flexibility to recognise and deal with events that develop as a result of extemporaneous external conditions outside the employee's control.

Periodic feedback. Employees should receive periodic feedback on their progress towards achievement of the goals by their immediate supervisor or the individual setting the goals.

Communications. Ongoing communications between employees and their immediate supervisor should be available and encouraged so that mid-course corrections can be addressed and misunderstandings avoided.

The two conditions of major significance in employee commitment to goals are goal specificity and periodic feedback. Goal specificity is also a function of the nature of the work to be

performed. Tasks that are quantifiable or measurable are more easily specified, while tasks of a more complex orientation become more difficult to quantify (Latham, 1968; Latham & Seijts, 1999; Locke & Latham, 2015a). Periodic, time-sensitive and event-driven feedback to an employee is essential to the attainment of goals (Locke & Latham, 2012).

As previously discussed, employees' acceptance of goals is essential if the goal-setting theory is to serve its purpose of maximising employee motivation. Also, employee commitment is not only vital to their motivation, but it is also a necessary factor in enhancing their actual performance level in order to achieve their goals and objectives (Nongo & Ikyanyon, 2012; Tubbs, 1993).

The question of employees' acceptance of goals in the goal-setting theory has another relevant dimensional aspect to explore as it relates to the level of employee motivation. This additional consideration has to do with who develops the goals and is considered from two distinct and separate points of view.

As far as the importance of acceptance is concerned, what should be considered is whether there is differentiation in the acceptance and resultant motivation level to pursue specific goals based on whether the goals are assigned to the employee from the top down or whether the employee participates in the goal-setting process. If there is a differentiation in the employee motivation level between the top-down and the employee participation approach, it would be sufficiently substantial to conclude that one method is more effective in increasing motivation.

One of the alternatives would be the development of the objectives by the employee's immediate supervisor or higher-level management, also referred to as the top-down assignment of goals.

Consistent with the principles of participative decision making and the plethora of research on this subject, it would appear at first glance that a top-down approach would be the least desirable of the two approaches of obtaining employee buy-in of goals. Seemingly, employees would more likely embrace a goal that they helped to formulate and resist or at least not demonstrate full buy-in of the goals assigned to them.

However, in all instances, the research does not bear this out conclusively (Harkins & Lowe, 2000; Lunenburg, 2011b). There are some situations in which assigned goals would be equally accepted as goals based on employee participation in the goal-setting process (Ludwig & Geller, 1997; Lunenburg, 2011b).

In instances where there is low employee skill level matched with equally low skilled work, the employees may prefer to have the goals developed and assigned by their supervisor or a higher level of management.

Another scenario in which assigned goals may be accepted is when the job content consists of lower-level tasks and rigid predetermined work methods and schedules. Jobs such as assembly line or outbound call centre work may not lend themselves to participative goal setting, but instead to top-down assignment with full employee buy-in and support.

Additionally, an employee might accept the assigned goals more readily if they provide a particular learning experience. When the goals are developmental and expressed in more general terms, they may foster strong motivation, especially when the employee's behavioural patterns have not been established and the situation faced is more novel or uncertain (Latham, Seijts, & Slocum, 2016; Seijts & Latham, 2005).

The circumstances described above may make the case for assigned goal versus participative goal setting. However, one situation in which the research would favour participative goal setting over assigned goals relates to goal difficulty.

The greater the level of difficulty of the goal and the chances of successfully achieving it, the more appropriate the need is for employee participation in goal setting. If employees perceive the goal to be difficult, they would be more likely to reject or resist ownership for it if they played no role or a limited one in the formulation of the goal. If these employees have not psychologically accepted the assigned difficult goal, their level of motivation and enthusiasm for achieving it would likely not be the same as if they had appropriately participated in setting the same difficult goal (Latham, 2007; Latham et al., 2016).

As stated earlier, the research does not provide support for generalisations that one approach (assigned goals) is proven universally better than the other (participative goal setting), notwithstanding the exceptions noted previously. It would seem that employee participation, where circumstances permit would be the preferable approach in order to optimise employee motivation (Erez, Earley, & Hulin, 1985; Locke & Latham, 2013, 2015b).

Other secondary variables may also affect employee motivation to perform at high levels in order to achieve goals. One variable, the nature of the task, may impact motivation and performance against goals. Goals that comprise tasks that are overly complex may make motivation and performance too difficult to succeed, particularly, if the complexity is associated with interdependence on other individuals. This is especially so when the work of the other individual is required or feeds into the goals of the dependent employee. Goals comprising

simpler tasks not highly dependent upon the work of others, increase the motivation and performance level.

Another secondary variable is employees' commitment level. Their commitment level is both strengthened, and their progress towards goal attainment positive, if they feel that the goal they are considering making a commitment to is in harmony with their own value system and needs (Austin & Klein, 1996).

An employee's commitment level can be positively impacted if the goals are broadly communicated throughout the organisation, the employee's own control to achieve the goal is strong and he or she has participated in setting the goal.

In conclusion, employees' self-efficacy or confidence and belief in their capability to perform the responsibilities associated with the goal are also an additional variable (Bandura, 1997; Lunenberg, 2011c). The stronger employees' self-efficacy and confidence to perform the tasks associated with their goals, the higher their performance level will be (Stajkovic, Latham, Sergent, & Peterson 2019; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998).

2.3.11 Expectancy theory

Expectancy theory argues that through a cognitive and rational process, employees will assess the job behavioural options available to them and select those behaviours they perceive will result in obtaining the highest valued outcomes and rewards (Miner, 2015a; Vroom, 1995).

The theory has provided a school of thought on employee motivation theory that is more process oriented as well as a being challenge in thinking to many need-based theories of motivation that are considered content driven.

Expectancy theory is commonly referred to as the VIE theory as well, an acronym for valence, instrumentality and expectancy. The theory is constructed on the three dimensions described in greater detail below.

2.3.11.1 Valence

Valence refers to the degree of preference an employee places on a particular outcome, based on its value to him or her. The higher the degree of preference the employee has for the value of the outcome, the more positive the valence becomes and the greater the motivation to achieve the outcome. The value of the valence the employee assigns to the particular outcome is generally expressed numerically.

If the employee has no preference for the value of the specific outcome, it is considered to have negative valence and be less than zero (-1). When the employee is indifferent towards the value of a particular outcome, the valence is considered to be zero (0). However, when an employee expresses a preference for the value of a specific outcome it is judged to have positive valence and is assigned a value of one (1) (Miner, 2015a; Vroom, 1995).

The concept of the dimension of valence in expectancy theory is a highly individualistic process. Each employee will assign value to the valence of an outcome based on an array of factors, but most importantly, his or her own experiences and perceptions of the particular outcome. In the situation where two employees in the same job each indicate a different preference for the same specific outcome, and thus assign a different value to the valence of that specific outcome, the effect of individual differences becomes a factor in these different judgements (Gerhart, Minkoff, & Olsen, 1995; Naylor, Pritchard, & Ilgen, 2013).

2.3.11.2 Instrumentality

Instrumentality is the belief held by employees that the performance they achieve at a particular level will lead to a specific reward, regardless of other conditions (Fudge & Schlacter, 1999; Lloyd & Mertens, 2018). The real significance of the concept of instrumentality is not in the initial outcome, but in how instrumental attainment of the first-order outcome will be in achieving the second-order outcome.

An example of the instrumentality aspect of expectancy theory would be an employee perceiving that delivering a major project ahead of schedule and under budget (first-order outcome) would lead to selection for a promotion (second-order outcome) to a position that has been vacant and upon which the employee places a positive valence value.

While each of the three dimensions of expectancy theory are of significance in their own right, instrumentality perhaps takes on an added level of significance to the relevance of this theory as it applies to the environment of the workplace and enhancing one's understanding of employee motivation.

It is the element of instrumentality that is really the engine driving this theory. If the employee believes that achievement of the first-order outcome does not in reality lead to achievement of the desired second-order outcome (the real prize), then the motivation cycle breaks down or never materialises. In this scenario, the employee will not be motivated to perform because his or her belief systems rule out achieving the specific desired outcome.

2.3.11.3 Expectancy

Expectancy can be defined as employees' belief and perception that the effort and energy they expend on a particular task will manifest in a recognisably accepted level of performance (Karathanos, Pettypool, & Trout, 1994; Parijat & Bagga, 2014).

When employees estimate the required expended effort required to achieve the necessary performance level, they are engaging in a cognitive-oriented process that can be categorised as a learning exercise. Employees will refer to this learning experience in the future, whether or not their decision to make the effort results in a correct choice or a mistake relative to the level of performance demonstrated and achieved.

Since the assessment of performance is determined by the employee's immediate manager, multiple layers of management, peer review or a combination of those methods, other variables, particularly subjective ones, may enter into the whole performance appraisal process, which is out of the employee's control.

These subjective factors may either have a positive or negative influence on the level of performance achieved. While either influence may not accurately reflect the reality of the situation regarding the performance level achieved, the degree of subjectivity may indeed have an impact. From the employee's perspective, a subjectivity impact possessing negative characteristics would be of most concern, human nature being what it is.

This may result in employees becoming reticent about expending the effort required. Given this reluctance, their motivation may be neutralised or minimised because of these extemporaneous factors, which are out of their own sphere of control.

Personality traits play an influential role in expectancy theory. These traits relate to how employees process valence, instrumentality and expectancy in their decision making (Chou & Pearson, 2012; Klein, Austin, & Cooper, 2008; Petrides, 2010).

In essence, the theory can explain employee motivation in the workplace through the presence of the three key conditions of expectancy, instrumentality and valence. In essence, an employee must perceive that the effort he or she will expend on a task will lead to performance of an accepted level that will result in attaining specific valued outcome. As the theory posits, when this situation occurs, the employee will be motivated to achieve.

The expectancy theory has also been described as a model or equation in the following manner:

E (expectancy) x I (instrumentality) x V (valence) = motivation

This model builds on two fundamental relationships which include the linkage between effort and performance (the E-P link) and the relationship between performance and outcome (the P-O link).

These two relationships assign a level of sophistication and complexity to expectancy theory, which other motivation theories perhaps lack. The theory becomes operational when it is recognised that the degree to which an employee expends effort to complete a task depends mainly on whether the reward or outcome associated with the effort is valued, and the strength of the value placed on the particular reward.

The theory goes beyond the powerful motivational role that expectancy alone plays in an employee's cognitive process. It also includes the vital role of instrumentality and valuing of outcomes, employee behavioural decisions and one's understanding of employee motivation in an organisation (Lloyd & Mertens, 2018; Mitchell & Mickel, 1999).

Expectancy theory shares some similarities with reinforcement theory in that desired behaviours can be induced through the utilisation of outcomes to reinforce such behaviours. Comparable to reinforcement theory, expectancy theory espouses the use of extrinsic rewards or outcomes as inducements or motivators to drive the desired behaviours (Leonard, Beauvois, & Scholl, 1999; Pajjat & Bagga, 2014).

However, a difference may exist in the manner in which the desired outcomes are used. In expectancy theory there is more of a cognitive experience in that behavioural choices are made on the basis of the perceived value of outcomes. In reinforcement theory, the operant conditioning that occurs can create and manipulate the desire for the particular outcome or reward.

Consistent with expectancy theory, it has been suggested that employees will engage in the cognitive selection decision process to optimise and sustain their own self-interests first relative to the extrinsic motivators available to them (Shamir, 1990).

Research has not always resulted in consistent or supporting evidence for expectancy theory. A meta-analysis of the theory concluded that only a few components of the theory garnered support, with these components yielding as high effect sizes as the total model itself. Also, most of the research in the meta-analysis was between employee groups, while the theory focuses on the individual employee perspective (Van Eerde & Thierry, 1996).

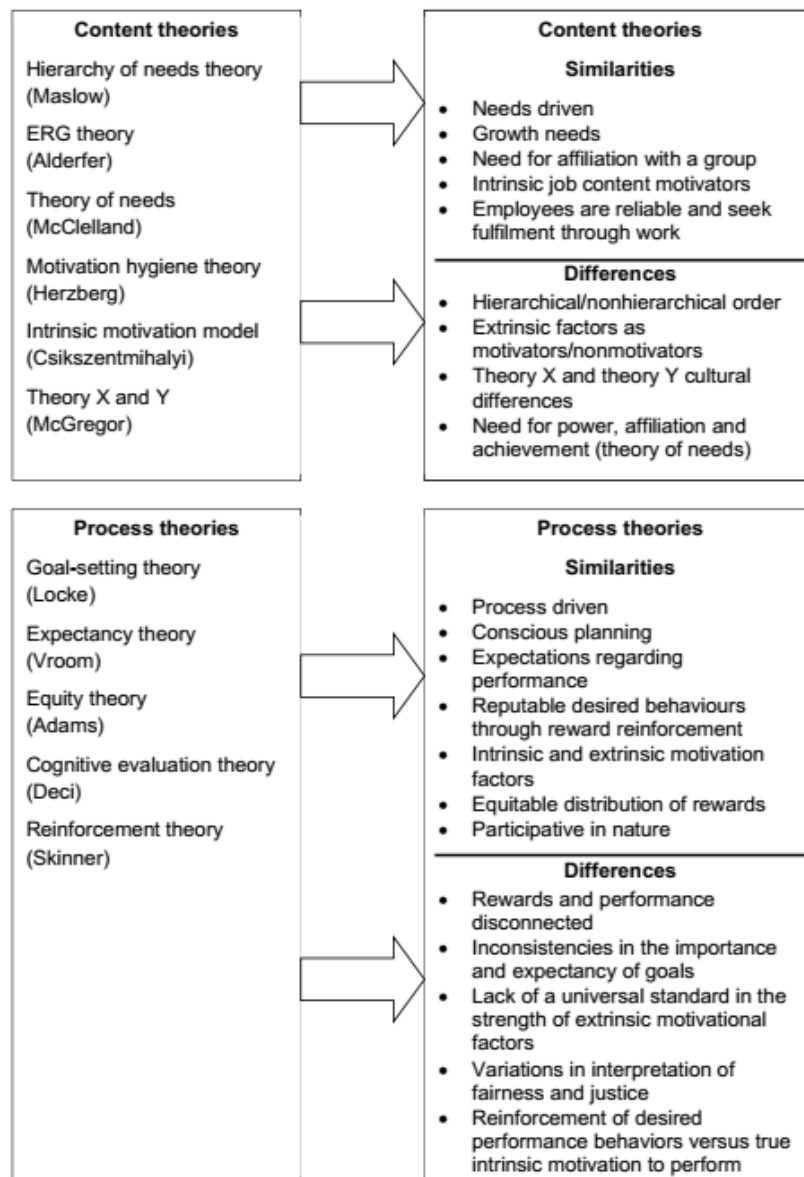
2.3.12 Employee motivation theories central to this study

The theories of employee motivation discussed in this chapter were explained and analysed in terms of their positive and negative dimensions as a foundation for the current research study.

Figure 2.2 contains a comparison of these employee motivation theories.

Figure 2.2

Integration and Comparison of Employee Motivation Theories



Source: Author

For the purpose of this study, it should be acknowledged that the category of motivation theories focusing on the need dimension prevalent among all employees, namely hierarchy of needs, theory of needs, motivation-hygiene and ERG theory, plays a role regardless of the

sequence or order of need motivation. In recognition of the human condition of need fulfilment, it was decided to include these theories because of their influence on this research study.

Because the intrinsic motivation model theory is closely aligned with the motivation-hygiene theory, based on their mutual emphasis on intrinsic motivation, it was also deemed to make a contribution to this study.

Equity theory and the principles of fairness supporting this theory of motivation were deemed relevant to this study. They understandably set the tone for how an organisation deals with the variety of inputs and outcomes presented by a diverse body of employees in pursuit of an organisation's provision of goods and services to its customers.

In terms of theory X and theory Y, a management philosophy incorporating the principles of theory Y and its emphasis on the belief that an employee is inherently interested in and motivated to perform, also had its place in the foundation of this study regarding employee motivation.

However, the theories with the greatest significance in the role of employee motivation in the context of this study include the following:

- goal-setting theory
- reinforcement theory
- expectancy theory
- cognitive evaluation theory

The rationale for emphasising the importance of each of these four theories is explained below.

2.3.12.1 Goal-setting theory

The significance of goal-setting theory is centred on the focus of behaviour motivated towards goal attainment. This connection between behaviour and goal attainment can foster or enhance the prospects of achieving job satisfaction which, in turn, can enhance the focus through goal development on achieving higher levels of customer satisfaction.

When the practice of effective leadership, in terms of the broader level integration of goals across the spectrum of functions in an enterprise, is added to this tapestry, higher levels of organisational effectiveness may be achieved.

The goal-setting theory of employee motivation can also enhance organisational effectiveness because of the extremely participative and coordinated nature of the goal-setting process.

This emphasis on the participative aspect leads to an organisational culture more engaged in the satisfaction of both employee and customer needs, which ultimately increases the effectiveness of the organisation.

2.3.12.2 Reinforcement theory

This theory was deemed significant to this study as the principles of the theory are central to reinforcing the desired behaviours that are instrumental in maintaining employee motivation and contribute towards job satisfaction. The deployment of reinforcement theory principles through effective leadership as they pertain to soliciting and rewarding desired behaviours can contribute to job satisfaction.

The level of job satisfaction achieved, in turn, can create the motivation to achieve superior customer satisfaction. Also, reinforcement theory can be used by leaders to drive a culture focused on delivering high levels of customer satisfaction. In turn, the reinforcement of behaviours which result in improved customer satisfaction can enhance organisational effectiveness.

While reinforcement theory has been referred to at times as more of a behaviour modification and control approach as opposed as a pure motivation theory, it can yield the desired results of motivating, which fosters job and customer satisfaction and ultimately improves organisational effectiveness.

2.3.12.3 Expectancy theory

This theory also had relevance in contributing to an understanding of employee motivation in the context of this study, and particularly its impact on organisational effectiveness. Since the theory postulates that employees select from possible options, the behaviours they perceive will lead to the highest valued outcomes, fostering an employee-centred job satisfaction and customer-focused culture can facilitate the attainment of high levels of organisational effectiveness.

By ensuring that the behavioural options available to an employee include performance focused on customer satisfaction, as well as rewarding behaviour that employees perceive to fulfil their job satisfaction needs, the framework evolves for maximising organisational effectiveness.

The three main dimensions of expectancy theory (valence, instrumentality and expectancy) can play key roles in the progression from employee motivation to organisational effectiveness through the paths of job and customer satisfaction and leadership effectiveness.

If an organisation can determine the valences its employees assign to particular outcomes, jobs can be designed and organisations architecturally structured to optimise the occurrence of those valued outcomes that drive employee motivation and job satisfaction. This, coupled with a culture that places high value on customer satisfaction and leadership effectiveness, and integrates this with high valence employee outcomes consistent with this culture, can promote organisational effectiveness.

In conclusion, when these valences, in turn, translate to specific instrumentality that performance will be rewarded, this reinforces the desired behaviours associated with that performance. Hence repeating these same behaviours in a sustained and consistent manner will achieve organisational effectiveness. When employees perceive that their focus on high valence outcomes will lead to a commensurate recognisable level of performance supported by organisational rewards, they tend to be further driven to sustain this same level of performance.

2.3.12.4 Cognitive evaluation theory

The cognitive evaluation theory was deemed instrumental in an understanding of employee motivation as it pertains to this study because of its perspective that extrinsic factors are not independent from intrinsic factors. Instead, the theory holds that there is a dependent relationship in the sense that extrinsic rewards can negatively impact employee motivation when applied to work that was previously intrinsically motivating.

This relationship is vital to an understanding of employee motivation and the importance of creating the type of work systems and job content that will foster the intrinsic motivation that satisfies both employee needs and customer needs. This framework relating to work, when coupled with effective leadership, can create the foundation for achieving sustainable levels of organisational effectiveness.

Since extrinsic reward factors have been and are currently widely and successfully used in organisations, it was deemed necessary to factor them in, in assessing the relevance of cognitive evaluation theory in the context of this study.

The argument here is not that extrinsic rewards should be ignored, but that they should be used with discretion and more strategically to enhance motivation. As mentioned earlier, the research supported this approach in the use of extrinsic rewards.

Also as discussed previously in this study, when extrinsic rewards are in the form of fixed salaries and unexpected bonuses independent of achieving a performed objective, they do not negate the intrinsic motivation to perform and achieve that objective.

What was deemed essential to this study was recognition of the importance to employee motivation of preserving the intrinsic character of work assignments as the primary factor in employee motivation, not as competition to extrinsic factors.

Emphasising the intrinsic dimensions of work, combined with the judicious use of extrinsic reward factors, not to supplant the intrinsic nature of motivation but to strengthen it, can serve to sustain the intrinsic motivators in a job. Once again, sustaining these intrinsic factors can facilitate employee and customer satisfaction, and ultimately, when integrated with effective leadership practices, can help to enhance organisational effectiveness.

2.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter was to emphasise the importance of employee motivation theory as a foundation for the examination of the individual and collective axis model of employee job satisfaction, leadership effectiveness and customer satisfaction, and its impact on organisational effectiveness. It was not the researcher's intention to draw direct connections from employee motivation to organisational effectiveness, even though the relationship seems natural, as that would have been a departure from the purpose of this study.

However, the stated objective was to explain employee motivation theory, which is an area not always appropriately addressed when examining variables such as those included in this study. The theory was underscored as a significant frame of reference in gaining greater insight into the underlying role it fulfils in job satisfaction, and the broader relationships and interdependencies with customer satisfaction and leadership effectiveness.

The relationship between the three variables examined in this study, in terms of their impact on organisational effectiveness, can be better understood in the context the foundation of employee motivation provides as a framework for advancing these relationships between the variables and factors impacting organisational effectiveness. Employee motivation is a prerequisite to and a driver of job and customer satisfaction, and combined with effective leadership, the premise of this study was that the axis model has an impact on organisational effectiveness.

Specific employee motivation theories were examined in this chapter, and the conclusions drawn were that each of them has been both supported and refuted in the research, a finding that comes as no surprise. No dominant theory emerges, although some may be more significant in some dimensions or under certain research conditions or applications than others. Some theories are more sophisticated, while others have encountered methodological problems.

These theories, whether they are considered need, process or cognitive, all help to broaden one's understanding of employee motivation, and they served as a foundation for the current study.

CHAPTER 3

JOB SATISFACTION

3.1 INTRODUCTION TO JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction in its most fundamental form can be defined as how employees feel about their job in general and the distinct and varied aspects thereof (Meier & Spector, 2015; Spector, 1997; 2021). The area of job satisfaction has been one of the most widely researched topics in the broader field of industrial and organisational psychology dating back to the landmark Hawthorne studies (O'Reilly, 1991; Riggio, 2015). Job satisfaction is perhaps the most prominent area of research among industrial and organisational psychologists.

Given the fact that individuals spend such a significant amount of their waking time performing their jobs, efforts to better understand and enhance the level of job satisfaction is a crucial endeavour (Aziri, 2011; Hulin, 2002).

Job satisfaction has been studied from multiple entity levels (individual, group and organisation) in order to better understand its impact. Research over the years in the area of job satisfaction has been conducted within virtually all organisational functional disciplines, including manufacturing plants, administrative offices, sales operations, research and development groups, supervisory personnel and to some extent middle as well as more senior management levels.

Historically, job satisfaction could be the topic of greatest global research interest by industrial and organisational psychologists (Judge, Parker, Colbert, Heller, & Ilies, 2001; Koppes, 2014).

The laboratories for the study of job satisfaction include a spectrum of organisations in terms of size, from start-ups to global industry leading conglomerates. These research studies have been spread over all business and nonbusiness and both private and public organisational types to include manufacturing, retail, financial services, healthcare, educational institutions, governmental agencies and other service sector entities.

In general, the common denominator in one form or another of all these research endeavours has been to either identify and better understand job satisfaction in terms of factors that cause it, the possible impact of job satisfaction on other dimensions of an organisation and interventions that could improve the level of job satisfaction in an organisation.

This chapter focuses on the historical foundations of job satisfaction, employee job satisfaction theories and conceptual frameworks, factors contributing to and dimensions of job satisfaction, job satisfaction research and the impact of job satisfaction on organisational effectiveness.

3.2 HISTORICAL FOUNDATION OF JOB SATISFACTION

The history of job satisfaction and associated research by industrial and organisational psychologists in this intriguing area of human endeavour has been rich and diverse, dating back to the origins of this academic field. In order to provide some historical context it is necessary to touch on past research.

The earliest studies by Hoppock (1935) provided a framework for studying employee attitudes towards their jobs and their resultant job satisfaction and morale through their responses (Zhu, 2013) to macro questions about their jobs, relative to likes and dislikes. These responses were analysed and categorised by means of demographic variables such as gender, job type educational level, age and organisational level.

Another historical method, in this instance, behaviourally oriented, for assessing employees' attitudes and levels of satisfaction towards their work, has its roots in the often referenced landmark Western Electric Company Hawthorne studies by Roethlisberger and Dickson (1947). According to Matiaske and Grozinger (2011), employee behaviour was observed by industrial psychologists, and based on their observations, judgements were made regarding the attitudes of the employees towards their jobs.

While these two types of earlier approaches may still have some limited use today, they were soon replaced in favour of more sophisticated and professionally developed and validated survey instruments for measuring employee job satisfaction at a micro level. These instruments, generally scaled inventory questionnaires, allow for basic and advanced statistical analysis of survey results by providing an opportunity to understand a multitude of factors and their relationship as possible causative agents of employee job satisfaction.

One such survey instrument used historically and still widely applied in modern-day research by industrial and organisational psychologists in the area of employee job satisfaction is the job descriptive index (JDI) developed by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969). According to Carter and Dalal (2010), this instrument measures five aspects of employee job satisfaction, namely pay, the nature and type of work, attitudes towards coworkers, satisfaction with the supervision received and promotional opportunities.

Another historical and widely used employee job satisfaction survey instrument is the job diagnostic survey (JDS) developed by Hackman and Oldham (1980). This was created in line

with a job characteristics aspect of the JDS, for the purpose (Snell & Bohlander, 2013) of measuring job satisfaction on five dimensions, that is, job security, growth, social aspects, pay and supervision (Snell & Bohlander, 2013).

According to Martins and Proenca (2012), another instrument worth mentioning from a historical perspective (albeit not as universally recognised), is the Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire (MSQ). This measure of job satisfaction emanated from the work of Lofquist and Davis (1969) on work adjustment. The questionnaire includes 100 items measuring 20 specific aspects of employee job satisfaction.

Other significant historical aspects of the topic of employee attitudes and job satisfaction can certainly share the stage with the information summarised in this section. However, the objective of the discussion here is to provide a brief overview of some key historical points on the topic of job attitudes and employee job satisfaction, and not to indulge in an exhaustive chronological account of the history of this subject. A point of clarification is appropriate at this time. The concepts of employee satisfaction and job satisfaction refer to the level of contentment and fulfilment employees experience in their work. These two concepts and terms are often used interchangeably in the literature. For the purposes of this research, however, and to ensure consistency, the term “job satisfaction” is used. However, this term is not to be confused in meaning with the concept of job attitude, which refers to the beliefs individuals have about their job and organisation through their actual work experiences.

3.3 JOB SATISFACTION THEORIES: RESULTS AND EVALUATIONS

This section explores theories of job satisfaction. The aim is to cover those theories generally acknowledged in the job satisfaction literature and for which a research base exists. Included in the discussion on job satisfaction theories will be a summary of research findings testing these theories followed by detailed descriptions and supporting references for each theory.

The job satisfaction theories and related research are summarised below.

Dispositional theories

Dispositional theories examine job satisfaction from the perspective of personality characteristics:

- Job satisfaction variation is a function of differences in affective personality characteristics.
- Core self-evaluation model. This theory plays a role in an individual’s inherent disposition towards job satisfaction.

- Five-factor personality model. This theory studies the relationship between each of the five separate personality factors and job satisfaction.

Characteristics

- Personality traits based
- Independent of job type
- Influenced by life satisfaction
- Individual level of job satisfaction stable over time

Four components of the core self-evaluation model include:

- general self-efficacy
- locus of control
- self-esteem
- neuroticism

Five-factor personality model comprises the following:

- extroversion
- neuroticism
- openness
- conscientiousness
- agreeableness

Results/Effectiveness

- Job satisfaction level over five years $r = .29$
- Research supportive of variation in job satisfaction attributed to differences in affective personality
- Job satisfaction levels consistent over five years factoring in job/career changes with $r = .19$
- Core self-evaluation of positive self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy, internal locus of control and low neuroticism show aggregate correlations with job satisfaction of $r = .37$
- Job satisfaction correlated with five factor personality traits:
extroversion – $r = .25$; neuroticism – $r = .29$; conscientiousness – $r = .26$;
openness – $r = .20$; agreeableness – $r = .17$

Evaluation: The research is very supportive of the dispositional theory particularly the four components comprising the core-self evaluation model and the five-factor personality model and job satisfaction.

Range of affect theory

This theory posits that job satisfaction is the discrepancy between what an employee wants from a job and what the employee has in the job. Employee value perceptions are determinant factors in the importance of a job, and the fulfillment derived from the job results in job satisfaction.

Results/effectiveness.

- Research combining facet item scores demonstrated a strong predictive value of global job satisfaction with a meaningful correlation of $r = .87$

Evaluation: This theory of job satisfaction has indicated that the discrepancy between a have and a want on a specific job facet as perceived by an employee is a reliable predictor of job satisfaction with that facet. In the perceived discrepancy between a have and a want on a specific job facet item importance is a moderating variable. Item importance is not a moderating variable of the relationship between item and global job satisfaction.

Job characteristic model theory

This theory states that by improving jobs in the five core dimensions or characteristics of; skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and task feedback organisations can improve employee attitudes and job satisfaction. The theory posits that when the five core dimensions or characteristics are optimized in a job, employees will experience three psychological states which are; meaningfulness of work, responsibility for work outcomes and knowledge of results of work activities.

Results/effectiveness

- Research has demonstrated a correlation of $r = .50$ between job satisfaction and core job characteristics
- Other studies have shown that the core job characteristics were predictive of the three psychological states presented above with a correlation of $r = .85$
- Another study indicated a correlation in the range of $r = .32-.46$ between the five job characteristics and levels of job satisfaction
- Strong correlation of $r = .68$ between position characteristics and job satisfaction when accompanied by high GNS

- A correlation of $r = .38$ when compared to those with low GNS
- A correlation of $r = .59$ was indicated in a research study of the job satisfaction characteristic, as well as organisational commitment and measures of employee effectiveness
- Job satisfaction most positively correlated with job characteristics of task identity $r = .44$ and task significance $r = .47$ and negatively correlated with role ambiguity $r = -.68$ $p < .001$

Evaluation: The job characteristic model theory has experienced broad acceptance as a reliable tool for measuring and understanding how these characteristics or dimensions affect job satisfaction levels. Research appears to appropriately validate the job characteristic model specifically, that a meaningful relationship exists between the five core job dimensions and job satisfaction. The theory is also enhanced when the moderating variable of GNS is considered.

Cornell integrative model

Integrates other job satisfaction theories into a system theory of inputs and outcomes that proposes job satisfaction is the result of the relationship between role inputs and resultant outcomes.

Results/effectiveness

- Meta-analytical study indicates job satisfaction achieved through realisation of desired outcomes based on role inputs was a good predictor of future role input contributions with $r = .59$.

Evaluation: Although not prevalent in the literature, the research identified in this study supported the theory that the perceived relationship congruence between role inputs and role outcomes is a determinant of job satisfaction. The employee perception of the importance of the outcome relative to the input also shapes insight into satisfaction. Future research on this theory is necessary.

Situational occurrences theory

Job satisfaction is determined on the basis of situational occurrences that arise in a position, and the situational characteristics or job dimensions present in a particular position.

Characteristics

- Situational characteristics are items employees become aware of prior to holding a particular position.
- Situational characteristics or job dimensions generally remain constant and impact job satisfaction.
- Situational occurrences are changing and diverse in nature.
- Situational occurrences can be either tangible or intangible, and positive or negative.

Results/effectiveness

- Strongest predictors of job satisfaction are the position presence of the situational characteristics of skill variety and role ambiguity.
- Job satisfaction and organisational commitment showed a low but positive correlation of $r = .23$ $p < .001$.
- Job satisfaction is also most positively correlated with the organisational characteristic of leadership at $r = .38$ $p < .001$.

Evaluation: While some of the findings indicate important statistical relationships regarding situational occurrences and characteristics in both job and organisational characteristics, this theory seems to be the least referenced and examined of all the theories presented in this table. Further research is necessary to determine whether this theory has potential for greater significance in the literature.

Key job satisfaction theories

The literature review conducted for this study indicated six key job satisfaction theories. The motivation hygiene theory was discussed in detail in the previous chapter on motivation identified below and will not be repeated here. An in-depth discussion of each theory and supporting research references is presented below.

- dispositional theory
- range of affect theory or value percept theory
- motivation-hygiene or two-factor theory
- job characteristic model theory
- Cornell integrative model
- situational occurrences theory

3.3.1 Dispositional theory

Dispositional theory views job satisfaction from the perspective of an employee's personality traits and disposition towards satisfaction, independent of his or her particular job. This theory holds that people who are generally satisfied with their lives will also be satisfied with their job, regardless of the type of job they do (Arshad, 2014; Judge, Heller, & Mount, 2002; Judge, Locke, Durham, & Kluger, 1998; Shah, 2014).

Research has generally supported the belief that the existence of variation in job satisfaction when comparing individuals is attributable to differences in affective personality attributes (Arshad, 2014; House, Shane, & Harold, 1996; Judge, 1992; Kumar & Bakhshi, 2010). Providing additional support for the variations in job satisfaction relating to personality differences, are two meta-analyses. The first, namely that of Connolly and Viswesvaran (2000), which examined the relationship between affective personality disposition and job satisfaction, indicated true score correlations of .49 with positive affectivity and job satisfaction and -.33 with negative affectivity and job satisfaction.

The second-meta analysis, namely that of O'Boyle, Forsyth, Banks, and McDaniel (2012), and O'Boyle, Forsyth, Banks, and McDaniel (2013) studied the dark triad personality traits of Machiavellianism, narcissism and psychopathy, and the implications for job performance and counterproductive work behaviour (CWB). It was anticipated that increases in Machiavellian behaviour would lead to a decline in performance and increased CWB, which the results confirmed with r values of -.07 and .25 respectively. While narcissism and performance showed no statistical significance with $r = -.03$, the r value of .43 between narcissism and CWB was significant. Lastly, psychopathy showed statistical significance in that both performance and CWB had r values of -.10 and .07 respectively.

The dispositional theory emanating from research findings indicated that the level of employee job satisfaction showed hardly any variation over the course of time (Judge, Weiss, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Hulin, 2017; Volmer, Niessen, Spurk, Linz, & Abele, 2011). Two studies measuring job satisfaction levels over a five-year period indicated stability, with $r = .29$. (Bowling, Eschleman, & Wang, 2010; Staw & Ross, 1985)

The extent to which job satisfaction is consistent over time and can still lead to employee tenure, may be more often associated with dispositional factors (Bowling, Eschleman, & Wang, 2010; Shah, 2014; Zimmerman, 2008). The degree to which job satisfaction levels influence tenure with or turnover in an organisation has its roots in the differentiation of dispositional factors (Bouckenooghe, Raja, Nazir, & Butt, 2013; Salgado, 2002).

Related to the idea of consistency in job satisfaction levels when examined in the context of time and career changes is the fact the research has shown that past job satisfaction may be a reliable predictor of current job satisfaction with $b = .27$, $t = 14.07$ and $p < .01$. (Adekola, 2011; Staw & Ross, 1985; Volmer et al., 2011).

Additionally, research (Judge et al., 2017; Staw & Ross, 1985; Tschopp, Grote, & Gerber, 2014;) has shown that job satisfaction measures display durability in maintaining consistent levels of correlation when factoring in changes in career and employer over this same five-year period, with $r = .19$. Research results also demonstrated consistency of job satisfaction level regardless of the type of job performed.

The relative durability in job satisfaction measures over a given time period may be more a function of the stability characteristics within the specific job rather than dispositional factors possessed and demonstrated by a particular employee (Chen, Ployhart, Thomas, Anderson, & Bliese, 2011; Gerhart, 2005).

Even when job changes occur over, for example, this five-year period of time and continue to show a correlation with job satisfaction, it is more likely to be associated with an emerging consistent pattern attributed to situational factors whereby individuals with a meaningful and secure position will find new positions with the same characteristics when job changes do occur (Hulin & Judge, 2003; Judge, Weiss, Kammeyer-Mueller, & Hulin, 2017; Keller & Semmer, 2013;).

However, in some instances, the existence of a correlation between dispositional factors and job satisfaction, when considering the variables of time and career changes, may in reality have more to do with the role the situational factors play than those of a dispositional nature.

Other research (Fiori, Bollmann, & Rossier, 2015; Shah, 2014; Weiss & Cropanzano, 1996) has indicated that an employee's affective temperament affects how he or she may process emotional situations in the workplace, which then has an influence on his or her level of job satisfaction. Others again (Brief, 1988; Shah, 2014) have proposed theories to narrow the focus on the relationship and intricacies between dispositional factors and job satisfaction.

Even in situations where an employee has had multiple career paths, the level of job satisfaction has remained fairly constant (Chen et al., 2011; Staw & Ross, 1985; Staw, Sutton, & Pelled, 1994). In other organisational research studies exploring dispositional factors, the impact of these factors on job satisfaction was also determined (Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1989; Shah, 2014).

In the last few decades, there has been a shift towards more of a research interest in the area of dispositional factors and their impact on job satisfaction. During this period of time, much fruitful research has been conducted (Arshad, 2014; Judge & Hulin, 2017; Judge & Larsen, 2001), which in some instances, has made more subtle links between dispositional factors and job satisfaction. Other researchers again have made the case for specific personality traits having an impact on job satisfaction.

One of the more notable advances in this theory, albeit from a more narrowly defined perspective, was the core self-evaluation model (Judge, Bono, Erez, & Locke, 2005; Judge, Hulin, & Dalal, 2012; Judge et al., 1998; Keller & Semmer, 2013; Wu & Griffin, 2012). The model proposes that an employee's inherent disposition regarding his or her job satisfaction is based on the following four core evaluations (Judge et al., 2005; Judge et al., 2012; Wu & Griffin, 2012):

- general self-efficacy
- locus of control
- self-esteem
- neuroticism

3.3.1.1 General self-efficacy

General self-efficacy refers to the core beliefs one has in one's own capabilities and capacity to succeed in life's endeavours. It reflects one's confidence level and realistic understanding of one's competencies.

3.3.1.2 Locus of control

Locus of control deals with the individuals' belief that they wield control over their own life and events in contrast to someone or a group having control over themselves.

3.3.1.3 Self-esteem

The core of self-esteem is the regard with which someone holds themselves or their personal sense of self-worth and value.

3.3.1.4 Neuroticism

Neuroticism is recognised as personality traits manifested in behaviour that is emotionally unstable, such as aggression, anger, guilt and so on, and confounded by situations in which the individual experiences stress.

Research evidence has demonstrated (Judge and Bono, 2001; Judge, Hulin, and Dalal, 2012; Srivastava, Locke, Judge, and Adams, 2010) that self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy,

internal locus of control, and low neuroticism, which together comprise the core self-evaluation personality trait, are correlated with job satisfaction. Others have indicated that (Obiora & Iwuoha, 2013) working condition issues can trigger personality factors leading to decreased job satisfaction.

In accordance with this theory or model of job satisfaction the four core self-evaluations impact the life-job satisfaction relationship. For example, an employee with high levels of self-esteem, locus of control, self-efficacy and low levels or an absence of neuroticism will experience high job satisfaction (Judge & Bono, 2001; Judge et al., 2012). Conversely, an employee with low levels of self-esteem, locus of control, self-efficacy and high levels or a presence of neuroticism will experience job dissatisfaction (Judge & Bono, 2001; Srivastava et al., 2012).

Other studies have examined specific personality trait dimensions and their relationship with job satisfaction. These research studies have (Judge & Klinger, 2008; Judge, Ilies, & Zhang, 2012) usually centred on the following four different typologies:

- positive and negative affectivity
- the five-factor model of personality
- core self-evaluations
- other measures of affectivity

A meta-analysis examining positive and negative affectivity and its relationship with job satisfaction indicated that although both have correlations, negative affectivity was more closely related to job satisfaction ($p = .37$) than positive affectivity ($p = .33$) was, despite the conventional wisdom on the subject (Thoresen, Kaplan, Barsky, Warren, & De Chermont, 2003).

In another meta-analysis regarding the four core self-evaluation traits of self-esteem, generalised self-efficacy, locus of control and neuroticism, and their relationship with job satisfaction, an aggregate core self-evaluation trait correlation (albeit low) of .37 with job satisfaction was indicated (Judge & Bono, 2001).

Research on the five-factor personality model (Judge et al., 2002; Judge et al., 2012) indicated moderate correlations (albeit low) in three instances of extroversion ($p = .25$), neuroticism ($p = .29$) and conscientiousness ($p = .26$). Although statistically low, the correlations represent moderate relationships. Other researchers have reported similar findings (Hahn, Gottschling, Konig, & Spinath, 2016).

To further the understanding of the dispositional theory in terms of the bridge it provides between personality factors and job satisfaction, some research (Heller, Judge & Watson, 2002; Judge, Rodell, Klinger, Simon, & Crawford, 2013) focused specifically on the behavioural theories of affectivity, five-factor personality attributes (also referred to as the big five) and the core self-evaluations. These theories are examined below.

Trait affectivity can be categorised as either positive or negative. Typically the positive affectivity type of personality displays characteristics of high ambition, extraordinary energy, enthusiasm and pleasing relationships.

By contrast the negative affectivity personality is characterised by distress, nervousness and unpleasant relationships. Research on positive and negative affectivity has shown (Agho, Mueller, & Price, 1993) a significant correlation with job satisfaction, with positive affectivity of $r = 0.44, < 0.01$ and negative affectivity of $r = -0.27, < 0.01$.

The five-factor personality attributes, also referred to as the big five theory, are generally acknowledged to be the taxonomy of personality traits with the greatest consensus of acceptance (Goldberg, 1990; Judge & Zapata, 2015). These five traits, which are included in this theory, are as follows: extroversion (surgency), neuroticism, openness (culture), conscientiousness and agreeableness.

Research by Judge et al. (2002) demonstrated that meaningful true score correlation exists between these big five personality attributes and life satisfaction as well as job satisfaction, indicated as extroversion (surgency).25, neuroticism .29, openness (culture) .20, conscientiousness .26 and agreeableness .17. In addition as a set, the big five personality traits had a multiple correlation of .41. A link and positive correlation was established between the personality trait of conscientiousness and job satisfaction (Bowling, 2010; Judge et al., 2002; Organ & Lingl, 1995). The research on the relationship between extroversion (surgency) and job satisfaction also showed a positive correlation (Watson & Clark, 1997; Zhai, Willis, O'Shea, Zhai, & Yang, 2013).

In addition, a meta-analysis showed a correlation between conscientiousness 0.26, k (actual number of correlations) = 79; neuroticism -0.29, k = 92 and extroversion 0.25, k=75 and job satisfaction (Judge et al., 2002). In another study by Furnham, Forde, and Ferrari (1999), a correlation was identified between conscientiousness 0.29, openness.236 and job satisfaction.

The core evaluation attributes as discussed earlier include the four areas of general self-efficacy, locus of control, self-esteem and neuroticism. These attributes have been shown in

the research (Judge, Heller, & Klinger, 2008; Judge et al., 2012; Judge, Locke, & Durham, 1997) to be correlated to both life and job satisfaction.

Much of the research in the literature supports the relationship between affective dispositional characteristics and job satisfaction. However, when affective dispositional factors are examined in comparison with core self-evaluations, less variance in job satisfaction could be described by affective dispositions than could be explained by core self-evaluations (Ferris et al., 2013; Judge & Heller, 2002).

Dispositional theory has provided an explanation, grounded in research, of how personality traits can affect or be linked to job satisfaction. However, as a theory it is not without flaws. It fails to recognise organisational factors and the role, as shown in the research, these factors play in determining job satisfaction.

Also, the premise of the theory that life satisfaction leads to job satisfaction independent of the particular job factors of either a content or context nature, seems unrealistic and ignores research to the contrary.

Additionally, the theory does not address robustly enough situational factors that may intervene in terms of influencing job satisfaction. The theory also fails to acknowledge employee needs that are pursued through the work employees do, and how those needs, whether fulfilled or unfulfilled, affect levels of job satisfaction/dissatisfaction.

3.3.2 Range of affect theory

The range of affect theory (also referred to as value percept theory) of job satisfaction proposes (Judge & Church, 2000; Locke, 1976; Kumar & Singh, 2011; Simon, Judge, & Halversen-Ganepola, 2010) as its major tenet that the discrepancy between what employees want from their job and what they have in a job are their level of satisfaction.

The theory (Locke, 1976; Simon et al., 2010) also posits that the value employees assign to a specific dimension of their job intervenes as a moderating variable on the level of satisfaction experienced when that specific dimension is assessed by these employees in terms of its fulfilment. In essence, an employee's values are determinant factors in job facet importance, and the fulfilment of the particular facet results in job satisfaction.

When employees have unmet valued job facets, they will encounter job dissatisfaction relative to those particular unmet job facets. In contrast, when employees have fulfilled valued job facets they will experience job satisfaction relating to those particular fulfilled job facets. When an employee has nonvalued job facets present, regardless of whether those facets are fulfilled

or unfulfilled, this will not lead to either satisfaction or dissatisfaction with those particular nonvalued job facets (Judge & Church, 2000; Kumar & Singh, 2011; Locke, 1976). The key consideration in the discrepancy between have and want is the actual value and importance the employee assigns to the particular item.

The key to the impact of valuing as a moderator on job satisfaction begins with two key considerations. The first is whether the employee places a value on the particular dimension of the job being examined. The second relates to whether the employee has the motivation to fulfil or achieve his or her expectations for being satisfied with that particular job dimension.

If, for example, the employee does not place a value on a particular job dimension such as working conditions, then this will have no effect as a moderating variable on job satisfaction. In contrast, if an employee values a particular job dimension such as job content and this is also perceived to have been met in terms of his or her level of expectation, then it has had a positive effect on job satisfaction as a moderating variable. If, for instance, this same valued dimension of job content is not fulfilled as expected by the employee, then it will have a negative impact on job satisfaction as a moderating variable.

As a generalisation, a job dimension valued by an employee but unfulfilled can become, at worst, a trigger for job dissatisfaction, and at best, reduce overall levels of job satisfaction that may be present owing to fulfilment of other job dimensions. A valued job dimension that has been fulfilled can become a trigger for job satisfaction in the best case, and at worse, improve overall job dissatisfaction, which may be attributed to other dimensions not being met according to expectations.

The range of affect or value percept theory has also been described quantitatively as indicated in the equation below (Dalal, 2012; Judge & Church, 2000; Locke, 1976; Simon et al., 2010).

$$S = (V_c - P) \times V_i$$

In this quantitative presentation of the theory, the equation components are defined as follows:

S = job satisfaction

V_c = the value the employee assigns to the particular job dimension or his or her wants

P = the employee's perception of the value that the specific job dimension provides or the value he or she receives

V_i = the level of significance of a specific job dimensions value for the employee

In essence, job satisfaction is the difference between the value an employee places on a specific job dimension (V_c) and the employee perception of the value that the particular job dimension provides (P), multiplied by the level of significance to the employee of the specific job dimensions value.

There have been numerous empirical studies on job satisfaction in support of the fundamental premise of the range of affect (value percept) theory. The research (Locke & Latham, 2015; Rice, Gentile, & McFarlin, 1991; Wu, 2011) has provided credence, especially in the area of the item-specific importance of the range of affect or value percept theory.

In particular, the research has supported (McFarlin, Coster, Rice & Cooper-Alison, 1995; Wu, 2011) the moderating impact that the value places on the relationship between a specific job dimension (want) and what the job dimension provides (deliverable). Item-specific importance has repeatedly shown a moderating effect on the indicated rating of satisfaction with that particular item (Hsieh, 2018; McFarlin & Rice, 1992; Rice, Markus, Moyer, & McFarlin, 1991; Wu, 2011).

Specifically, the discrepancy between have and want and job item satisfaction has a stronger association on items of high importance than those of low importance. However, many of the same empirical findings (Hsieh, 2018; Rice, Gentile, & McFarlin, 1991; Wu, 2011) have also indicated that the factor of item importance has already been integrated within item satisfaction, implying that weighting item satisfaction scores with item importance scales is unnecessary duplication

Hence some of the research has indicated that nonweighted satisfaction scores were just as reliable as weighted satisfaction scores in terms of predicting job satisfaction and may even be statistically detrimental (Ohana, 2012; Rice et al.; Staples & Higgins, 1998; Trauer & MacKinnon, 2001).

Research has also supported the fact that the measurement of overall levels of satisfaction can only be determined by an additive process involving the weighted scores of each of the specific job dimensions (Hurst, Scherer, & Allen, 2017; Wu, 2011; Wu & Yao, 2006).

As previously postulated regarding the range of affect theory, job satisfaction ratings made by employees have contained within those ratings a cognitive assessment of the importance associated with the particular item. When also considering the range in discrepancy between both have and want, items that are higher in importance generally result in a greater want affective reaction spreading from strong satisfaction to strong dissatisfaction (Hurst et al., 2017; Locke, 1976).

The range of affect theory has generated the following three key hypotheses (Kumar & Singh, 2011; Locke, 1976; Simon et al., 2010).

- The discrepancy between have and want on a specific item as perceived by an employee is a reliable predictor of the satisfaction with that item.
- Item importance is a moderating variable in the perceived discrepancy in the relationship between have and want.
- The relationship between item and global job satisfaction is not moderated by item importance.

In support of this, a research study (Judge, Parker, Colbert, Heller, & Ilies, 2001; Rutherford, Boles, Hamwi, Madupalli, & Rutherford, 2010; Spagnoli, Caetano, & Santos, 2012; Yalabik, Rayton, & Rapti, 2017) combining item facet scores demonstrated a strong predictive value of global job satisfaction with a meaningful correlation of $r = .87$.

3.3.3 Job characteristic model

The job characteristic model postulates that the factors which cause job satisfaction are of an objective characteristic nature. A main tenet of the theory is that by enriching jobs in the five core dimension areas, organisations can improve employee job attitudes and the quality of their performance (Ali, Said, Yunus, Kader, Latif, & Munap; 2014; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006)

According to job characteristic theory (Ali et al.; 2014; Hackman & Oldham, 1976), variation in levels of job satisfaction are a function of the degree to which the following five core job dimensions are present in a position:

3.3.3.1 Skill variety

Skill variety is the amount of diversification of tasks contained within the job.

3.3.3.2 Task identity

Task identity refers to the perception held by employees about the degree to which they can see the entire task from beginning to end.

3.3.3.3 Task significance

Task significance can be described as the level of importance that the job tasks are perceived to hold.

3.3.3.4 Autonomy

Autonomy is defined as the amount of control and decision making the individual has regarding how to perform the job tasks.

3.3.3.5 Task feedback

Task feedback includes the extent to which the nature of the job tasks is acknowledged as being performed correctly.

The job characteristic model is comprehensive in that in addition to a job satisfaction theory it also provides a basis for examining how specific job characteristics such as absenteeism and work motivation affect other factors associated with the job. For the purposes of this research study, the discussion of the job characteristics model is limited to the job satisfaction dimension only.

This job characteristic model posits that when these five core dimensions are structurally optimised in the design and enrichment of jobs, the employee experiences three important psychological states that include the following (Coelho & Augusto, 2010; Hackman, Hackman, & Oldham, 1980).

- experienced meaningfulness of work
- experienced responsibility for work outcomes
- knowledge of results of work activities

The five core job characteristics influence these three psychological states, and the greater the presence of these psychological states, the higher the level of job satisfaction will be. The presence of these three psychological states (Coelho & Augusto, 2010; Hackman et al., 1980) has an impact on work outcomes such as job satisfaction and the degree to which employees experience these three psychological states will determine their level of job satisfaction

Inherent in the job characteristic model is the belief that (Ayandele & Nnamseh, 2014; De Jonge et al., 2001) a one-directional causal relationship exists, with job characteristics influencing employee wellbeing or job satisfaction.

In general, the job characteristic model has been broadly accepted as a tool to better understand how these five core dimensions impact job satisfaction as well as other job outcomes.

These five core dimensions can be combined to create what is known as a motivating potential score (MPS) for a specific job. An MPS can contribute to making a job more intrinsically rewarding by providing greater employee autonomy, responsibility and accountability for how a job is performed and the goals established, as well as feedback on actual performance (Bakker, Demerouti, De Boer, & Schaufeli, 2003; Singh, Singh, & Khan, 2016).

The value of the MPS score is that it provides a vehicle for ascertaining how a job can have an impact on an employee's attitudes and provide an explanation for his or her behaviour. This score (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Singh, Singh, & Khan, 2016) is typically used as a (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Singh et al., 2016) barometer of how the particular job characteristics may affect an employee's attitude towards his or her level of job satisfaction.

The research on employee job satisfaction level and employees' beliefs on job characteristics has demonstrated on a consistent basis that the greater the degree of task identity, autonomy, task significance, job feedback and task variety, the greater the job satisfaction experienced will be (Ayandele & Nnamseh, 2014; Judge & Church, 2000; Spector & Jex, 1991).

In a specific research study by Frye (1996) on the relationship between employee perception of the core job characteristics, as described in the model, and the level of job satisfaction, a positive relationship was indicated with a correlation of .50 between job satisfaction and core job characteristics. Another study by Ayandele and Nnamseh (2014) reported that the core job characteristics of the model were predictive of the three psychological states, with a correlation of .85.

A meta-analysis of the effectiveness of the job characteristic model as a tool for assessing job satisfaction has consistently demonstrated some support and validity for the model (Behson, 2012; Behson, Eddy, & Lorenzet, 2000; Fried & Ferris, 1987). Another meta-analysis by Humphrey, Nahrgang, and Morgeson (2007), also showed support for the job characteristic model for determining job satisfaction, although there was a weaker relationship specifically between task significance and job performance. More recent research (Behson, 2012) introducing relative weight analysis to existing meta-analyses in order to ascertain more precisely the proportionality of explained variances in the dependent variable among a number of independent variables, indicated some results that were different from previous meta-analyses. However, the results were still generally supportive of the theory.

In yet another meta-analysis encompassing 28 research studies, the results indicated a low to moderate correlation between the five job characteristic model (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) dimensions and levels of job satisfaction in the range of .32 and .46. Task identity was at the .32 level of correlation and autonomy at the .46 level of correlation (Loher, Noe, Moeler, & Fitzgerald, 1985).

There is support for the theory that is empirically based. Research studies encompassing a multitude of job categories and a variety of organisations have provided evidence that (Ali & Zia-ur- Rehman, 2014; Hadi & Adil, 2010; Judge & Church, 2000) the core job characteristics

comprising the model, when present in a job, lead to greater satisfaction with the job. Also, when employees are asked about their level of satisfaction with different aspects of their jobs, the facet that is most often cited as being associated with job satisfaction is the inherent nature of the work itself (Hadi & Adil, 2010; Judge & Church, 2000).

Moreover, when employees are asked about their satisfaction with different facets of their job, not only is the nature of the work the most important, but the research also indicates that it is the facet that usually demonstrates the greatest correlation with overall job satisfaction and other factors stemming from job satisfaction (Behson, 2014; Parisi & Weiner, 1999; Weiner, 2000).

Other specific job characteristics and their relationship with job satisfaction have been studied as well. An example showing how perception of a particular job characteristic may influence job satisfaction is demonstrated by the results of a research study by Holtom, Lee, and Tidd (2002). The finding was that the relationship between employee preferences concerning a variety of factors comprising the details of work schedules and company policies regarding work schedule factors, had a favourable impact on job satisfaction. Similar findings have been reported (Hadi & Adil, 2010) regarding perceptions of other particular job characteristics and job satisfaction.

In another area of how specific factors can impact on the job characteristic of job satisfaction, research by Hart (1999) indicated that job satisfaction can be severely diminished when employees are confronted with consistently high levels of job-induced stress and frustration.

A study of the correlation relationship between general job attitudes comprising the job satisfaction characteristic and organisational commitment, as well as the individual dimensions of employee effectiveness (including such work behaviour as focal and contextual performance, absenteeism, tardiness and resignation from the organisation) indicated (Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006) a significantly stronger correlation at $r = .59$ than what is usually demonstrated in research findings on these variables.

Other studies such as that of Kumar, Abbas, Ghumro, and Zeeshan (2011) have reported a correlation between job characteristics and internal work motivation, with $r = .51$.

Job satisfaction as a characteristic in the model shows a relationship with a broad spectrum of employee behaviours. For example, research by Mount, Ilies, and Johnson (2006) also demonstrated a relationship between the characteristic of job satisfaction and the employee behaviour associated with organisational conflict.

Other studies have also shown (Roznowski, Miller, & Rosse 1992) a relationship between organisational citizenship as well as organisational withdrawal and the characteristic of job satisfaction. The study by Fatima, Amiraa, and Halim (2011) reported a correlation of $r = .466$ between organisational citizenship behaviour and job satisfaction.

Also, job satisfaction as a characteristic and its relationship with employee decisions to continue with an organisation or to voluntarily terminate the association with it has been widely researched (Hom, 2001; Liu, Mitchell, Lee, Holtom, & Hinkin, 2012).

Following its initial development, Hackman and Oldham (1976; 1980) enhanced the job characteristic model by introducing a variable to moderate the relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction. Aloysius and Christy (2011) introduced this modification to the original theory for the purpose of more effectively addressing those circumstances or situations where two or more different employees perform identical jobs and have the same perception of the job characteristics, but indicate differences in their level of job satisfaction.

This moderating variable is referred to (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; 1980) as the growth need strength (GNS) which can be described as the individual's ambition for personal development. Individual variation in this ambition is an explanation for the circumstances in which multiple employees performing the same job and having the same perception of job characteristics experience dissimilar levels of job satisfaction (Zargar, Vandenberghe, Marchand, & Ayed, 2014).

The theory posits that those employees with a high GNS score show higher job satisfaction levels than those with lower GNS scores (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; 1980; Zargar et al., 2014). Other researchers (Aloysius & Christy, 2011; Fisher & Ashkanasy, 2000) have supported the role of GNS as a moderating variable on the effects of the job characteristics model on job satisfaction.

The introduction of GNS as a moderating variable by Bohlander and Snell (2013), Cascio (2010) and Frye (1996) further promotes an understanding of the fact that when one employee experiences high job satisfaction and another lower satisfaction, and both perform the same job and have the same perception of job characteristics, the differential can be attributed to differences in GNS scores.

Research supports Frye's (1996) stance that employees with high GNS scores show a stronger relationship between position characteristic dimensions and job satisfaction ($r = .68$) compared to employees with lower GNS scores who manifest a weaker relationship between position core characteristic dimensions and job satisfaction ($r = .38$).

3.3.4 Cornell integrative model

The Cornell integrative model of job satisfaction (Hulin, 1991; Hulin, Roznowski, & Hachiya, 1985; Judge, Hulin, & Dalal, 2012) works toward the integration of other employee job attitude theories into a new theory of inputs and outcomes. This model or theory states that the relationship between role inputs and role outcomes is what determines an employee's job satisfaction level (Hulin et al., 1985; Judge et al. 2012).

Specifically, the Cornell integrative model suggests (Hulin, 1991; Judge et al., 2012) that the process whereby job satisfaction is determined is the result of the dynamics and engagement between the specific role inputs contributed by an employee and the derived outcomes which are generated through the deployment of those particular inputs. When role outcomes such as pay are perceived as being attained by an employee in accordance with role inputs, he or she will experience greater job satisfaction than when the outcome is not perceived as obtained (Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw, & Bruce, 2010).

The role inputs that the employee brings to this relationship include factors such as the following (Hulin et al., 1985; Judge, Piccolo, Podsakoff, Shaw, & Rich, 2010):

- experience and skills
- applied effort
- preparatory training and education
- time invested

Employees are involved in an ongoing assessment of the benefits they derive from the role inputs they bring to a job. When employees experience job satisfaction derived from the outcomes associated with the inputs they generate (Harrison, Newman, & Roth, 2006; Judge et al., 2012), they are more likely to renew the input/outcome/satisfaction cycle by continuing to deliver appropriate inputs.

The role outcomes the employee derives are as follows (Hulin et al., 1985; Judge et al., 1985):

- intrinsic rewards
- recognition earned
- pay and benefits
- organisational position or stature
- overall job satisfaction

According to Judge and Klinger (2008), the levels of satisfaction with role outcomes associated with the key five job facets of pay, promotions, relations with coworkers, supervision and the

nature of the work itself are perhaps the principal role outcomes contributing to job satisfaction. Other researchers (Ram & Prabhakar 2011) posited that satisfaction with intrinsic rewards or the nature of the work itself is the most significant outcome in the job satisfaction areas.

A meta-analytical study by Harrison et al. (2006) determined that positive job attitudes and the resultant job satisfaction derived from obtaining the desired outcomes from demonstrated role inputs was a good predictor of future role inputs with $r = .59$.

At a minimum, the perception of balance between the inputs that an individual employee is equipped to generate in a job should be congruent with the reality of the outcomes he or she receives from the job. However, the greater the outcomes an individual obtains from the job, relative to the inputs presented, the greater the level of job satisfaction he or she will experience (Judge et al., 2010).

According to this model (Hulin, 1991; Judge et al., 2012), job satisfaction is also influenced by what is deemed an employee's opportunity costs and changes that occur in terms of those costs. When employees perceive their inputs to be less valuable while still garnering the same role outputs as previously, then their level of job satisfaction will increase because their return on investment as they perceive it has improved. In other words, the employees' opportunity costs have decreased.

Of course since the theory holds the opposite, it is also true that (Hulin et al., 1985; Judge et al., 2010) if employees perceive their inputs to be more valuable while deriving the same outputs, then their level of job satisfaction will decrease because they believe that their opportunity costs have increased. The decline in employee satisfaction with particular outcomes may lead (Hulin, 2002) to job dissatisfaction that has a powerful empirical relationship with withdrawal behaviours.

A number of factors can cause an employee to perceive a decrease in his or her opportunity cost. For example, when an employee's skill and experience are in great supply in the labour market, there may be the perception of decreased opportunity costs.

Also, if an employee makes less of an effort and receives the same outcome, he or she may perceive a diminution in opportunity costs. Additionally, if there is a decline in the time required to generate the same outcome, the employee may perceive a reduction in his or her opportunity cost.

The effect of the employee's perception of opportunity cost on job satisfaction as it pertains specifically to skill and experience as mentioned above (Hulin, 1991), is a function of the conditions and realities of labour market economics at a particular point in time.

It has been posited that (Hulin, 1991) when there are low levels of unemployment in the labour market, employees perceive their inputs to have a higher value owing to the lower level of competition for a greater number of available positions which, in turn, drives the opportunity costs higher. This makes participation in that particular job category or profession more costly in terms of required inputs.

In essence, as unemployment declines, the conversion capacity requirements of inputs to generate current levels of satisfactory outputs for the particular position rises. This causes in an imbalance because the employee perceives the required inputs to be greater in order to produce the same level of output than in different economic conditions. This type of imbalance can result in deteriorating levels of job satisfaction.

Even in the scenario where employees perceive their role inputs to have increased in value, but this increased value generates only the same level of output as before the rise in input value, they would be likely to conclude that their opportunity costs have increased. This assessment of higher opportunity costs will also lead to a decrease in employees' level of job satisfaction.

Employees who experience job satisfaction as a result of attaining the desired role outcomes will (Harrison et al., 2006; Judge et al., 2010) continue to contribute valuable role inputs to their organisation and not withdraw or defer those work inputs. Also, according to Hulin et al. (1985), employees' perception of the current outcomes they receive in relation to their inputs is influenced to some degree by their previous experiences with outcomes they have received. If the past experiences have been negative, this may have a deleterious effect on the perception of their current outcomes and lead to behaviours intended to lower inputs and other withdrawal behaviours (Hulin, 2002; Judge et al., 2010).

The opposite is likely if the previous experiences have been positive. However, the influences of past outcomes are moderated by conditions in the labour market, specifically the current level of unemployment.

Job characteristics have been intertwined with the Cornell integrative model as well (Crede, Chernyshenko, Stark, Dalal, & Bashshur, 2007; Dalal & Crede, 2013). The research has also supported the blending of job characteristics into the Cornell integrative model, with job

satisfaction serving as a mediator of both internal and external antecedent variables as well as three volitional behaviours.

The three volitional behaviours (Crede et al., 2007; Dalal & Crede, 2013) are as follows:

- citizenship
- counterproductive behaviour
- job withdrawal

The actual placement of a completely mediated model that includes job characteristics has demonstrated useful job satisfaction predictive value (Crede et al., 2007; Dalal & Crede, 2013).

3.3.5 Situational occurrences theory

The situational occurrences theory posits (HajiGhasemi & Hasanzadeh, 2013; Quarstein, McAfee, & Glassman, 1992) that job satisfaction is derived through two distinct factors, namely situational occurrences and situational characteristics.

Situational occurrences are a more diverse array of dynamic and changing circumstances that take place. These incidences occurring in the job are of both a tangible and intangible nature and can also possess either positive or negative features. Situational occurrences are factors which are realised after someone has been placed in a job (Al-Shammari & Al-Am, 2018; Quarstein et al., 1992).

Examples of positive occurrences may consist of a scenario in which an employee receives special recognition for a project well done, while a negative occurrence may involve working relationship issues between an employee and his or her immediate supervisor.

An example of a situational occurrence of a tangible nature may include being selected as a team leader for a particular research and development assignment. An intangible occurrence, for instance, would be the sense of pride an employee may experience when receiving a verbal commendation from coworkers for a specific accomplishment.

By contrast, situational characteristics are a determinable number of job dimensions or features present in all jobs, and which generally remain constant over time and play a role in determining job satisfaction. These dimensions would encompass (Al-Shammari & Al-Am, 2018; Quarstein et al., 1992) typical items such as supervision, career opportunities, compensation and benefits, company policies and practices, and the working environment. However, it has been posited (Mansor & Tayib, 2010) that other situational characteristics in

addition to those mentioned above, such as organisational commitment and employee participation, can have an impact on job satisfaction as well.

These situational characteristics are present, when, say, the potential employee becomes aware or knowledgeable about these characteristics prior to accepting a position. The situational characteristics become subject to a conscious evaluation in prospective employee's decision-making process on whether to accept a position.

The theory moved on to enhancing the understanding of three specific contradictions or discrepancies in conventional thinking relative to job satisfaction discussed below (Quarstein et al., 1992).

- Why do employees performing the same or similar jobs, receiving similar pay, and working for either the same or different organisations, experience different levels of job satisfaction?
- Why do employee job satisfaction levels change over the course of time despite job characteristics such as pay and benefits being generally constant over the same period of time?
- Why do employees possessing generally recognised desirable jobs in relation to specific characteristics present in the job at times report low levels of job satisfaction?

It was previously stated that situational occurrences and characteristics are separate and distinct dimensions within the theory. However, when these two dimensions are considered collectively, they provide greater predictive value regarding job satisfaction than either dimension can predict job satisfaction levels individually (Cooray & Dissanayake, 2018; Quarstein et al., 1992).

Another perspective on the situational occurrences theory or model is one that holds the belief that (Glisson, 2010; Glisson and Durick, 1988) job satisfaction is determined on the basis of three levels of separate impact variables, which include the organisational, job and individual characteristic variables described in further detail below.

3.3.5.1 Organisational characteristics

These characteristics encompass those features that define an organisation, and include structure, culture, leadership, values, human resource philosophy, policies and practices.

3.3.5.2 Job characteristics

The characteristics in the job characteristic category comprise dimensions such as pay, benefits, autonomy in performing a job, skill requirements, job tasks and responsibilities.

3.3.5.3 Individual characteristics

Individual characteristics would include dimensions such as education level, age, skill level, motivation, abilities, personality traits, learning capability and predisposition for achieving job satisfaction. Characteristics that can be described in terms of their individual demographic nature, such as gender, work experiences, marital status and age, are also factors that may influence job satisfaction (Abdullah, Shuib, Khalid, Nor, & Jauhar, 2007; Ebeh, Sydney-Agbor, Uhiara, & Onwukwe, 2017).

An additional school of thought on the impact of these three categories of characteristics does not view them from the perspective of how they have a separate impact on job satisfaction. Instead, the belief is that (Hoy & Miskel, 1996) job satisfaction is determined on the basis of the interrelationship between job, individual and organisational characteristics.

A research study examining the three variables of organisational, job and individual characteristics, in terms of their value and impact in predicting job satisfaction and organisational commitment, indicated that while all three levels of characteristics had predictive value, the job characteristic demonstrated the greatest predictive capability of job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Glisson, 2010; Glisson & Durick, 1988).

The research specifically further delineated the three characteristic variables of organisational, job and individual characteristics into subcategories. The purpose of this was to more clearly identify what factors within each of the three characteristics had the greatest predictive effect on job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

These research results examining subcategories within each of the three characteristics of organisational, job and individual, demonstrated (Glisson, 2010; Glisson & Durick, 1988) that in the organisational characteristic, leadership and the life span of the organisation had the greatest effect on predicting job satisfaction and organisational commitment. With regard to the job characteristic dimension, the specific factor with the most significant predictive impact on job satisfaction and organisational commitment was role ambiguity and leadership.

Lastly, in the individual characteristic category, the dimension of education was determined to successfully predict organisational commitment (Hemmelgarn, Glisson, & James, 2010; Glisson & Durick, 1992). However, there was an absence of any particular factor in the

individual characteristic segment identified that showed a predictive capacity, specifically for job satisfaction.

3.4 ANTECEDENTS OR DIMENSIONS OF JOB SATISFACTION

Antecedents or dimensions of job satisfaction are those factors that are recognised as contributing to or having a role in determining job satisfaction. They are acknowledged as not only providing an explanatory rationale, but also predictive value in relation to job satisfaction.

Dimensions or antecedents of job satisfaction can be grouped into the following broad-based categories for the purpose of creating a foundation for further in-depth discussion and analysis (Levy, 2012):

Job centric. These antecedents are central to the job and include skill variety, task identity, autonomy of task requirements, task significance, job feedback, stress and workload.

Personal traits. Dimensions associated with job satisfaction in this category cover such items as affective disposition, genetics and self-esteem.

Social dimensions. The antecedents comprising this category encompass coworker relationships, organisational justice, role variables and dynamics, and subordinate/supervisory relations.

Growth opportunities. These dimensions of job satisfaction cover areas such as promotional prospects, merit pay, benefits, and training and development.

Historically, however, much of the research conducted on job satisfaction has been of an environmental nature, that is, focusing on factors associated with both the organisation and jobs. However, this emphasis, while appropriate and yielding significant research findings on the subject of employee job satisfaction, has failed to address a key area.

Since it is often the case that people with the same or highly similar jobs and working environment report a fair degree of divergence in levels of job satisfaction, researchers have examined personality factors as well in studying job satisfaction.

Specifically, the area of interest has been whether particular employee personality types (Dormann & Zapf, 2001; Li, Liang, & Crant, 2010; Newton & Keenan, 1991; Seddigh, Berntson, Platts, & Westerlund, 2016; Staw, 1986) have a propensity towards being satisfied with their jobs, while other types of employees tend to be more oriented towards being dissatisfied with

their jobs regardless of how satisfying or dissatisfying the specific job or organisational characteristics are.

Other researchers such as Spector (2011) have opted to pursue a more integrated approach utilising the environmental perspective capturing job and organisational considerations in conjunction with the personality perspective. This interrelated approach not only lends itself to a more comprehensive philosophy in conducting research into the area of job satisfaction, but perhaps also strengthens the usefulness of research results for the practitioner.

This type of approach, which is generally referred to as the person-job fit, has as its central theme and advocates the acknowledgement that individuals differ in terms of their preference for performing specific dimensions of their jobs over other job aspects (Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011; Saeed & Asghar, 2012).

Proponents of this view believe in the importance of gaining greater insight into what employee types gravitate towards and which specific job dimensions they are satisfied with. Those advocating the person-job fit believe that correctly pairing the employee type with the specific job dimensions that are compatible with the employee type will lead to greater levels of job satisfaction.

3.4.1 Environmental antecedents

Environmental antecedents of job satisfaction comprise those factors that (Levy, 2012) include job characteristics, organisational characteristics, job tasks and pay.

3.4.1.1 Job characteristics

The environmental antecedent of job characteristics has its roots in the theory of the same name. However, it can also trace its origins (Levy, 2016; Tan, 2013) to the two-factor theory developed by Herzberg (1971) and the resulting outcome strategy of job enrichment to enhance job characteristics and increase employee job satisfaction levels.

The job characteristic antecedent refers to the job-specific content dimensions as well as the particular aspect of job tasks and how these factors may influence or contribute to employee job satisfaction levels.

Core job characteristics have been shown (Demerouti, Bakker, & Fried, 2012; Ferris, Johnson, Rosen, Djurdjevic, Chang, & Tan, 2013; Fried & Ferris, 1987; Sultan, 2012) to be correlated with job satisfaction as previously indicated in general terms with reference to a meta-analysis. More specifically, this meta-analysis of research findings testing the efficacy of the relationship between job characteristics and job satisfaction indicated, according to Fried and Ferris

(1987), a correlation range of .20 for the characteristic of task identity and .45 for the job scope characteristic.

The correlation values for each of the job characteristics and job satisfaction examined in the meta-analysis ranked from highest to lowest or moderate to weak correlation are listed below (Fried & Ferris, 1987).

- 1) job scope .45
- 2) autonomy .34
- 3) skill variety .29
- 4) job feedback .29
- 5) task significance .26
- 6) task identity .20

Other studies (Katsikea, Theodosiou, Perdakis, & Kehagias, 2011) resulted in findings indicating that the job characteristics of autonomy, variety and feedback had a positive influence on export sales managers' job satisfaction with *r* values of .43, .56, and .19 respectively.

In another meta-analysis of 259 studies it was determined that correlations were in the range of .26 to .45 between the five core job characteristics and internal work motivation (Humphrey et al., 2007).

Based on the influence of cultural differences, this may be tempered. A study (Pearson & Chong, 1997) involving nurses in Malaysia healthcare centres showed no correlation between core job characteristics and job satisfaction although correlation was established between supervisory and coworker relations and job satisfaction.

Klaus, Lerouge, and Blanton's (2014) study found that meaningfulness of work, group cohesion and role stress influenced the job satisfaction of information technology staff. With the emphasis on relationships and harmony within the Asian organisational culture, this finding may not be surprising. However, when a study ((Wong, Hui, & Law, 1998) involving employees in the acknowledged more Western-oriented Asian culture of Hong Kong was examined, the research findings demonstrated meaningful support for the relationship between core job characteristics and job satisfaction.

3.4.1.2 Job task or role variable

Another environmental antecedent of job satisfaction is the job task, also referred to as the role variable. Two specific subsets of this antecedent role variable are described below.

Role conflict

Role conflict refers to the situation where an employee is asked to perform two opposing job tasks or objectives, which results in the creation of conflict when the employee actually carries out these two incongruent tasks.

Role ambiguity

Role ambiguity can be defined for the purpose of the research as the role condition that occurs when employees are unclear about their tasks or expectations of them held by others (e.g. their immediate supervisor) regarding their function. In its most deleterious form, this ambiguity can render the employee virtually unproductive in the workplace.

A meta-analysis by Jackson and Schuler (1985) of research findings examining both role conflict and role ambiguity and their respective relationship with job satisfaction showed a correlation of $-.31$ for role clarity and global job satisfaction, while role ambiguity and global satisfaction reported a correlation of $.30$. A study of nurse executives by Tarrant and Sabo (2010) indicated a negative relationship between both role ambiguity and role conflict and job satisfaction.

3.4.1.3 Pay

Pay is also a widely recognised antecedent of job satisfaction, although, according to Brasher and Chen (1999), it was more highly correlated with the specific facet of pay satisfaction, at $.36$, than it was correlated with global job satisfaction, at $.17$. In a meta-analysis of pay satisfaction, it was determined by Judge et al. (2010) that there was a $.15$ correlation between pay level and job satisfaction and a $.23$ correlation between pay level and pay satisfaction.

Generally, empirical studies (Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim, & Carson, 2002) have supported the proposition that a positive relationship, although not strong, exists between employee perceptions of job characteristics and satisfaction with pay level indicated by correlations in the range of $.14$ to $.23$ between the five core job characteristics and the job descriptive index (JDI) pay satisfaction facet.

The antecedent of pay tends to be more highly correlated with job satisfaction in particular when comparing pay and the job satisfaction level of groups of people performing the same or similar jobs, as opposed to the satisfaction level of groups of employees carrying out different jobs.

Research in support of this hypothesis is demonstrated by two studies. One of the research studies (Spector, 1985; 2011) consisted of three employee samples each in different jobs,

which resulted in a .17 mean correlation. In the other study by Rice, Phillips, and McFarlin (1990) involving a group of mental health industry employees performing the same job, a correlation of .50 was found between pay and job satisfaction.

A research study by Chaudhry, Sabir, Rafi, and Kalyar (2011) comparing private and public sector employees in Pakistan and the relationship between their pay and job satisfaction, reported a correlation of .76 and .48 respectively.

An employee evaluates his or her satisfaction level with pay predominately on the strength of how his or her pay compares with that of others performing the same job. In essence, the perception of fairness and justice should be present for an employee to experience satisfaction with pay. A meta-analysis by Cohen-Charash and Spector (2001) examining the influence of perceptions of justice on pay satisfaction indicated a significant correlation with both procedural justice .45 and distributive justice .58 and pay satisfaction.

3.4.2 Personal characteristics

Another category of antecedents of job satisfaction comprises individual characteristics. These personal characteristics take the form of the following specific attributes:

3.4.2.1 Age

Studies such as that of Siu, Lu, and Cooper (1999) have generally supported the proposition that older workers tend to experience greater satisfaction than younger workers. In one country-specific study (Clark, Oswald, & Warr, 1996), job satisfaction levels actually declined to their lowest point initially, going from individuals in their early twenties to their late twenties and early thirties. However, at this point, job satisfaction begins increasing once again and continues to do so for the remainder of the individual's working life span.

Bellou's (2010) study reported that age differences and job satisfaction were moderated by other factors such as opportunity for growth among younger employees, and stability of assignments for older employees. However, older employees in general experienced higher levels of job satisfaction even when considering these moderating factors.

Another study across a number of countries demonstrated similar results, with job satisfaction continually rising with an increase in age and career change through an individual's working career (Birdi, Warr, & Oswald, 1995; Chen et al. 2011; Khan, & Lashari, 2010).

It has been posited (Warr, 2001) that a possible rationale for older workers experiencing greater levels of job satisfaction is that older workers have adjusted to work life after many

years, and are more prone to accepting jobs with fewer intrinsic satisfiers and seeking different outputs from work than their younger counterparts.

3.4.2.2 Personality traits

As mentioned previously, there is a widely accepted school of thought that job satisfaction is correlated with personality traits. This has been supported by research (Bowling et al., 2010; Li et al., 2010; Staw & Ross, 1985) indicating stable levels of job satisfaction correlated across time and job changes. This has led to a belief that some people are predisposed to job satisfaction in a variety of situations, while others may be more inclined towards dissatisfaction, regardless of the circumstances.

Another research study examining the relationship between job satisfaction and personality traits found (Al-Shammari & Al-Am, 2018; Gupta, Jenkins, & Beehr, 1992) similar results and correlation between job satisfaction levels of employees and shifts over time in career path and direction as well as changes in the organisations that the individual is employed with.

A shortcoming of this perspective and the suppositions on the stability of job satisfaction across jobs and time being attributed to personality traits and a predisposition, is that there is hardly any reference to the various particular personality traits and their relationship with job satisfaction (Judge, 1997; Judge et al., 2017; Volmer et al., 2011).

While stability of job satisfaction levels across job and time may be a function of personality trait, and predisposition towards job satisfaction, it may not yield the optimum level of job satisfaction (Ahmad, 2014). In a meta-analysis of the research (Dormann & Zapf, 2001) on the relationship between job satisfaction sustainability and the categories of changes in jobs and same job stability, both were positively correlated to long-term job satisfaction, although the same job correlation was .42, while the job change category showed a correlation of only .18. Chen et al. (2011) reported similar findings of general job satisfaction levels with both changes and stability in jobs and careers.

3.4.2.3 Cultural demographics

Different cultures may hold varying perspectives on what job factors contribute to job satisfaction. For example, in Eastern cultures such as Malaysia where, according to Judge et al. (2002), there is greater emphasis on stricter compliance with role task requirements compared to Western cultures, there tends to be less initiative, autonomy and the desire for self-actualisation by employees. Hence the core job characteristics comprising the job characteristic model (JCM) are less likely to increase job satisfaction in this culture.

In other research (Mueller, Hattrup, & Hausmann, 2009) in Malaysia, Hong Kong, Japan and China, it was found that their differences exist between various characteristics in the JCM and their relationship with job satisfaction.

Bearing this out further, in a study by Pearson and Chong (1997) of Malaysian nursing staff it was determined that generally core job characteristics as defined by the JCM did not have a meaningful relationship with job satisfaction. Other researchers (Klaus et al., 2014) have indicated that only some characteristics such as meaningfulness of work, group cohesion and role stress influence job satisfaction levels.

In this same study (Pearson & Chong, 1997), it was determined that the interpersonal nature of engaging in social information exchanges and receiving feedback from others did contribute to job satisfaction more so in Eastern cultures such as Malaysia.

Other research suggesting cultural influences on the factors associated with job satisfaction include a study by Orpen (1983) of black South African workers and the moderating effect of the level of Westernisation on the job characteristics-job satisfaction relationship. It was determined that participants with a low orientation towards Westernisation pertaining to autonomy, task identity and skill variety had no significant relationship with job satisfaction. However, the same study (Orpen, 1983) indicated that employees with a greater affinity towards Westernisation associated with autonomy and task identity showed a meaningful relationship with job satisfaction.

In addition, the use of the JCM as a model for determining job satisfaction showed support in Western cultures involving both Canadian and Israeli workers (Barnabe & Burns, 1994; Fox & Feldman, 1988; Westover & Taylor, 2010).

Also, racial differences, particularly between blacks and whites, have been examined in terms of job satisfaction. While some research has demonstrated differences based on the race demographics between these two groups, a meta-analysis (Brush, Moch, & Pooyan, 1987) of 21 different studies comparing job satisfaction between black and white employees reported no clear distinction in job satisfaction between these two race groups.

However, other studies (Banerjee & Perrucci, 2010) indicated higher levels of job satisfaction with white workers as opposed to black workers.

3.4.2.4 Gender

The relationship between gender and job satisfaction is another area of demographics that has been researched. However, there has been a lack of any consistent evidence in the research pointing to differences between men and women and their levels of job satisfaction.

In a meta-analysis of research studies (Witt & Nye, 1992) investigating and comparing the job satisfaction levels of both men and women, there was no clear differentiation based solely on gender when examining the fairness of pay as well as promotion and job satisfaction by gender. Studies have demonstrated (Banerjee & Perucci, 2010) that women's job satisfaction is equal to and in some cases greater than men's job satisfaction, perhaps because women reported far greater coworker support satisfaction than men.

3.4.3 The person-job fit antecedent

While some antecedents of job satisfaction are of an individual characteristic nature and others are related specifically to the job and organisation, another category of antecedents is a blending of both individual and job/organisational characteristics and culture (Ahmed, 2012).

This type of antecedent is generally referred to as the person-job fit and suggests that the consistent achievement of high levels of job satisfaction occurs when the relationship and mix between the person and the job is maximised in terms of compatibility (Kristof, 1996; Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011). According to Tett, Simonet, Walser, and Brown (2013), the person-job fit perspective underscores the importance of the match between the individual and the job/organisational aspects in understanding employee job satisfaction.

The antecedent of the person-job fit has evolved as a meaningful area of interest, particularly among industrial and organisational psychologists, especially in the context of job satisfaction research (Kristof-Brown & Guay, 2011; Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005). This may be due to the fact that the person-job fit method does not single out any category of antecedent characteristics to the exclusion of any other when conducting research into job satisfaction.

Because of the holistic and balanced nature of this approach of combining personality characteristics with both job and organisational characteristics in studying job satisfaction, it is believed that this will lead to research result outcomes of a more comprehensive and realistic orientation.

A research study by Judge, Kristof-Brown, and Darnold (2005) involving a particular investigation of the person-job fit antecedent of job satisfaction, specifically introducing a test of both individual and job goal compatibility, demonstrated the occurrence of higher levels of

job satisfaction the greater the existence of harmony between the individual and the job/organisation goal fit present.

In many respects, the employee internalises the person-job fit to be the relationship between what he or she seeks from a position or his or her wants and what the job has to offer towards satisfying those wants. If the satisfaction of these wants exceeds the employee's dissatisfaction, then at least on a macro level he or she may experience overall job satisfaction.

When viewed in the manner described above, much of the research on the person-job fit can be interpreted in such a way that it leads to the conclusion that the relationship between variables becomes the benchmark for assessing job satisfaction level. More specifically, the research (Christiansen, Sliter, & Frost, 2014; Edwards, 1991) shows that the closer the relationship between employee wants and the offerings provided by the job, the greater the level of job satisfaction will be. By contrast, the wider the margin between wants and offerings, the lower the satisfaction level or existence of job dissatisfaction will be.

3.5 JOB SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

This section examines the research supporting the hypothesis that job satisfaction has a direct influence on organisational effectiveness. In this section, research supporting the presence of intervening variables that play a role in the relationship between the variables of job satisfaction and organisational effectiveness, is also examined. An in-depth discussion of the construct and dependent variable of organisational effectiveness is provided in a subsequent chapter, where it is also linked to the independent variables being examined, of which job satisfaction is one and discussed as a model. However, for the purposes of the current research, in this section on job satisfaction, a general definition of organisational effectiveness is regarded as an outcome or a state of being or wellness of an organisation in terms of its performance assessed against predetermined measurable objectives.

3.5.1 Job satisfaction impact on organisational success

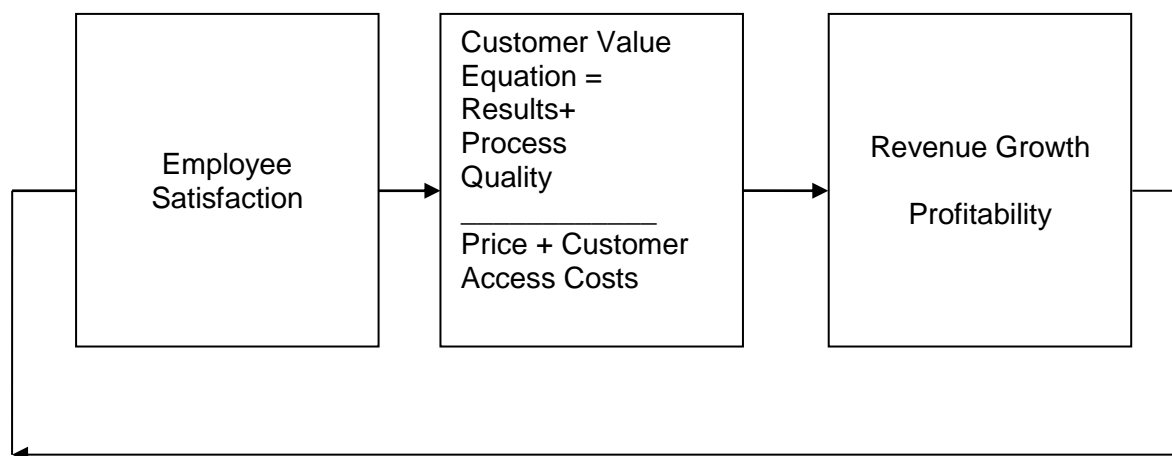
The question of whether job satisfaction and employee behaviours impact organisational effectiveness, or whether organisational effectiveness or success influences job satisfaction, has been an area of inquiry by industrial and organisational psychologists over the years. Job satisfaction in some respects can be viewed as a reflection of how effectively an organisation functions (Spector, 1997; Meier and Spector, 2015).

However, a fundamental proposition concerning job satisfaction theory supported by researchers such as Sundaray (2011) and Zhou and George (2001), is that employees who

experience high and sustained levels of job satisfaction also make contributions to organisational effectiveness through engagement. Conversely, low job satisfaction results in poor organisational performance.

As depicted in Figure 3.1, the service profit chain model (Heskett & Sasser, 2010a; Heskett, Sasser, & Schlesinger, 1997) proposes a link between employee job satisfaction and organisational outcomes associated with organisational success such as profitability, customer satisfaction, revenues growth and customer loyalty.

Figure 3.1
Employee Satisfaction Focus of the Service Profit Chain Model



Source: Heskett et al., 1997, p. 12

Positive employee attitudes concerning their perception of job satisfaction are generally recognised (Ferris et al., 1998; Sikora, Ferris, & Van Iddekinge, 2015) as having an influence on and perhaps a direct cause and effect relationship with employee performance, leading to organisational effectiveness operationalised through observable workplace behaviours.

As previously stated, it is generally accepted doctrine (Mehmood & Iqbal, 2013) that employees' attitudes and satisfaction level regarding their job and organisation are directly related to organisational effectiveness and customer satisfaction. One such study by Ryan, Schmit, and Johnson (1996) examining this premise, determined that employee job satisfaction level and resultant work attitudes as well as behaviours are correlated with organisational effectiveness and success.

As a contrarian perspective, other theorists such as Frohman (1997) have postulated that it is actually employee job dissatisfaction that serves as a stimulus among employees to become discontented with the status quo, and function in a manner that pursues other and better ways and methods of conducting their work in order to make the organisation more effective.

While this point of view may have some merit in its logic, it does not really justify further discussion in the context of this study. The reason for this is the well-established perspective in the literature supporting the hypothesis that job satisfaction has a positive relationship with organisational effectiveness.

3.5.2 The organisational citizenship behaviour link

The manifestation of employee satisfaction levels in the form of human resource metrics such as turnover and absenteeism has long been part of the history of the topic of the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational effectiveness. However, more subjective variables not as conducive to quantifiable measurement such as organisational citizenship behaviours also lend support to the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational effectiveness (Hom, Caranikas-Walker, Prussia, & Griffeth, 1992; Li et al., 2010).

It has been suggested that organisational citizenship behaviour is a linking intervening variable in the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational effectiveness. It is posited that an employee who experiences job satisfaction will demonstrate high organisational citizenship behaviours which, in turn, contribute to organisational effectiveness.

Some researchers such as Organ (1988a; 2013) investigating the link between job satisfaction and organisational effectiveness have introduced the additional variable of organisational citizenship behaviour. They suggest that employees experiencing job satisfaction will behave in a manner exemplifying organisational citizenship behaviour, which then contributes to organisational effectiveness.

A more thorough explanation of this relationship linkage (Organ, 1988a; 2013) is that employee job satisfaction through the display of particular behaviours will lead to the attainment of organisational effectiveness, and both organisational citizenship and in-job performance are two of the behaviours that promote organisational effectiveness.

Organ (1988b; 2013) stated further that making available fair procedures as well as providing fair treatment will achieve the organisational citizenship behaviour so necessary to attain organisational effectiveness.

The findings of numerous research studies (Andrew & Sofian, 2011; Karambaya, 1991; Organ, 2013; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1994; 2009; Walz & Niehoff, 1996; Welch, 2011) have consistently supported the widely held proposition that job satisfaction, employee engagement and organisational citizenship behaviour have an effect on sustainable organisational effectiveness.

One study (Koys, 2001) examined the relationship between and impact of job satisfaction, corporate citizenship behaviour and turnover on organisational effectiveness. This study also addressed the question of whether job satisfaction impacts organisational effectiveness or whether organisational success influences employee job satisfaction utilising cross-lagged regression analysis.

The results of Koys' (2001) study revealed that job satisfaction attitudes at time 1 are related to organisational effectiveness at time 2, and organisational effectiveness at time 1 has no meaningful relationship to job satisfaction at time 2.

The assertion that is generally made and, in this instance, supported by Koys' (2001) results, is recognition of the fact that workers who report experiencing job satisfaction are also contributors to an organisation's long-term effectiveness, success and economic viability (Dobre, 2013; Naumann, 1993; Rich, Lepine, & Crawford, 2010).

3.5.3 Performance as an intervening variable

It has been proposed that employee job satisfaction must translate into employee performance in order to enhance organisational effectiveness.

A number of researchers (Lawler & Porter, 2000; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2009) have argued that the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational effectiveness is not a direct one or a straight line. In other words, job satisfaction does not cause or result in organisational effectiveness in a straightforward fashion.

Instead, it has been suggested (Lawler & Porter, 2000; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2009) that the introduction of performance as a third variable perhaps intervening is needed to explain the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational effectiveness. Others (Bakotić, 2016) have indicated a weak relationship between job satisfaction and organisational effectiveness.

These researchers posited that only when employee job satisfaction and performance are linked can organisational effectiveness be actually achieved, and that it is (Dugguh & Dennis, 2014; Lawler & Porter, 2000; Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 2009) the presence of consistently high levels of job satisfaction derived through the achievement of performance results that suggests the attainment of organisational effectiveness.

It is a generally accepted belief (Christian, Garza, & Slaughter, 2011) that employees who regularly experience sustained and meaningful levels of job satisfaction become more engaged in the pursuit of long-term organisational success. In a study (Kim, 2002) supporting

this belief involving public sector employees, it was determined that those individuals who experience consistent job satisfaction, and thus become active participants in their company's strategic planning process, fulfil a contributory role in the firm achieving organisational effectiveness. Similar results have been noted in retail store organisational environments (Netemeyer, Maxham, & Lichenstein, 2010).

Other research has suggested (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Markos & Sridevi, 2010) that employee performance is a contributing factor towards organisational effectiveness by bringing a framework to the social psychological and organisational context that fosters task processes and function.

Additionally, another commonly espoused view on the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational effectiveness is (Ashraf, 2012; Laschinger, 2001; Riketta, 2002) the major intervening affect produced by not only individual but also organisational performance criteria and outcomes in a two-way linking capacity between job satisfaction and organisational effectiveness.

While the relationship between employee job satisfaction and organisational performance seems to be both natural and intuitively logical, as well as the conventional wisdom, it has not always consistently been confirmed through research on the topic (Bowling, Khazon, & Meyer, 2015; Iaffaldano & Muchinsky, 1985). Trust as a link to organisational effectiveness

Another intervening variable in the determination of the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational effectiveness worthy of examination is the level of trust employees place in management.

3.5.4 Trust as a link to organisational effectiveness

A study by Anitha (2014) examining the relationship between job satisfaction, expressed in terms of employee engagement and performance, indicated a correlation of $r = .59$.

A study by Ellis and Shockley-Zalabak (2001) covering workers in both Italy and the USA involving 60 different organisations and 2 068 employees, it was determined that trust in senior management is more significantly linked than trust in the immediate supervisor, to the fostering of job satisfaction. This, in turn, results in increased organisational effectiveness with canonical $r = .69$, $p < .001$. This also indicates a positive but moderate relationship between trust in senior management, job satisfaction and organisational effectiveness.

3.5.5 Organisational policies as an intervening variable

Job satisfaction derived specifically from positive attitudes regarding the satisfaction dimension of organisational policies and practices can also lead to organisational effectiveness.

A correlation of $r.86$ was reported in a study by Butts, Casper, and Yang (2013) after examining the relationship between work-family human resource policies and job satisfaction and organisational outcomes.

In a study by Vandenberg, Richardson, and Eastman (1999), 3 570 employees across 49 different organisations, and deploying a second-order latent variable method, were examined to determine the influence of high employee involvement work environments on organisational effectiveness utilising a structural model of high-order influences and factoring in mixed-level effects.

The results indicated that both organisational practices and policies had a positive impact on creating high employee involvement organisations, which subsequently also resulted in a positive influence on attaining organisational effectiveness (Vandenberg et al., 1999). These findings were supported by other researchers as well (Gittell, Seidner, & Wimbush, 2010).

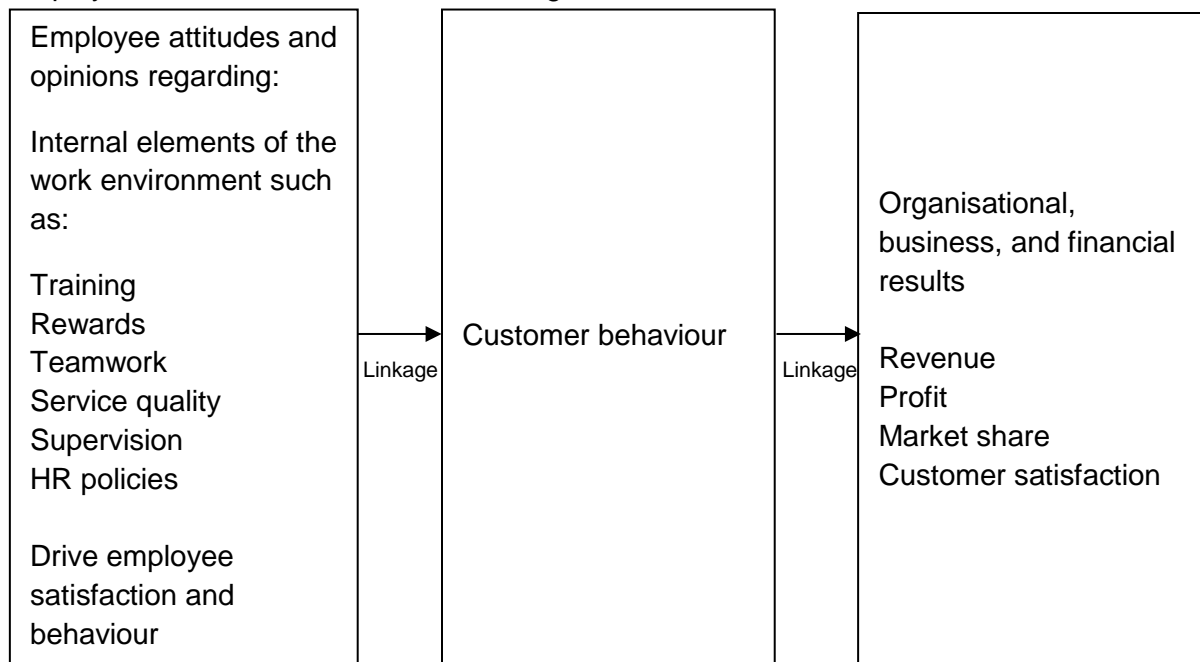
3.5.6 Linking climate, satisfaction and effectiveness

An established school of thought is that the climate of an organisation can function to facilitate employee job satisfaction by enhancing employees' comprehension of their work and its importance to the organisation, which, in turn, can enhance an organisation's performance.

Some researchers (Heskett & Sasser, 2010; Pugh, Dietz, Wiley, & Brooks, 2002; Tornow & Wiley, 1991) have suggested a model for research pertaining to service organisations, as indicated in Figure 3.2. This is linked to the internal work environment and its impact on formulating employee opinions with customer satisfaction and financial performance outcomes such as profit and revenue growth.

Figure 3.2

Employee Satisfaction Focus of the Linkage Research Model



Source: Pugh et al., 2002, p. 74

Specifically, the organisational climate and culture can intervene through the creation of an environment that fosters positive employee attitudes and satisfaction with the work and organisation, which can then lead to sustainable improvements in organisational effectiveness (Gittell et al., 2010).

Some researchers such as Castro and Martins (2010) have hypothesised that organisational climate has a direct influence on employee job satisfaction. They supported this with a study that demonstrated a correlation between organisational climate scores and job satisfaction scores of $r = 0.813$.

Brown and Leigh (1996) have suggested that there is a link between organisational climate and job satisfaction as a means of ensuring that employees who have contributed to the past and present success of their organisations remain satisfied to the extent that they will make the same level of contribution to future organisational effectiveness.

Another study (Adeniji, 2011) of academic staff at a university indicated that organisational climate was correlated to job satisfaction with an r value of .67.

A number of researchers such as Watkin and Hubbard (2003) have identified the influence of organisational climate, through employee job satisfaction, on organisational effectiveness to be responsible for as much as 30% of the differential in identified metrics of organisational performance.

It can be concluded from the literature review that there is an integrated relationship between job satisfaction and organisational effectiveness and that the research aim of examining the impact of job satisfaction on organisational effectiveness was achieved in Chapter 3.

3.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter on job satisfaction introduced the topic and provided a working definition. The significance of job satisfaction as one of the more frequent if not the most researched topic in the area of industrial and organisational psychology was explained.

The discussion moved on to the historical foundation of job satisfaction and the early proponents and theorists of the topic. The early landmark studies, which set the stage for future job satisfaction research of unprecedented proportions, were highlighted. The development of key measurement tools for assessing employee job satisfaction levels was also covered.

The job satisfaction theories of dispositional, range of affect, the job characteristic model, the Cornell integrative model and situational occurrences theories were explained in detail in terms of their particular attributes .

The next step was to conduct a thorough review of the various antecedents or causes of job satisfaction. The antecedents were broadly categorised into the three main areas of environmental, personal characteristic and what is referred to as the person-job fit antecedents. Environmental antecedents included the following: job characteristics, job task or role variable (further delineated into role conflict and role ambiguity) and pay. A summary of the personal characteristics category included age, personality traits, cultural demographics and gender.

The discussion of antecedents was followed by an analysis of the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational effectiveness. This not only included an examination of the relationship between job satisfaction and organisational effectiveness, but also explained the impact of other intervening or linking variables such as organisational citizenship behaviour, performance, employee trust, organisational policies and practices, and organisational climate.

A number of research studies on job satisfaction were discussed and examined throughout the chapter.

The next chapter contains a literature review of leadership theories and research. The impact of leadership on organisational effectiveness and its influence on both job and customer satisfaction are examined.

CHAPTER 4

ORGANISATIONAL LEADERSHIP

4.1 INTRODUCTION TO ORGANISATIONAL LEADERSHIP

This chapter discusses the subject of organisational leadership. The specific topics covered include the following: a definitional framework for organisational leadership; the conceptual foundation of organisational leadership; a detailed review of the various theories of organisational leadership; a model for comparing and analysing leadership theories; leadership from a functional and dimensional perspective; the impact of leadership development on leader effectiveness; perspectives on leadership and its effectiveness; leadership strategies and organisational effectiveness; and the impact of leadership on organisational effectiveness.

4.2 DEFINITIONAL FRAMEWORK FOR ORGANISATIONAL LEADERSHIP

It is not within the scope of this research to provide an in-depth review of the wealth of different definitions of leadership. However, as a frame of reference, a few specific proposed definitions of leadership formulated over the last 30 years in chronological order are presented in order to capture the essence of the basic meaning of this concept for foundational purposes in the current research study.

The following generally accepted generic definition of leadership was formulated by Burns (1978, p. 425): leadership is “the reciprocal process of mobilizing by persons with certain motives and values, various economic, political, and other resources in a context of competition and conflict, in order to realize goals independently or mutually held by both leaders and followers”.

Cribbin’s (1981) organisation-oriented definition of leadership refers to the concept as being highly interpersonal, and it has an effect on the attitudes and behaviours of those individuals in a subordinate relationship with the leader.

House, Javidan, Hanges, and Dorfman (2002) defined leadership as one individual’s influence over another, as well as the former’s ability to motivate and enable the latter to perform in such a way that it has a positive impact on the organisation’s effectiveness. While not necessarily endemic to this definition alone, this characterisation of leadership introduces the idea of an outcome-centred process focusing on the success of the organisation.

As suggested by Wheatley (2006), the definition of leadership has become increasingly concerned with the areas of relationships, empowered work teams, serving others, and how

the wants and needs of followers help influence this relationship-focused orientation towards the definition of leadership. Nohria and Khurana (2010) have also described leadership as individuals making adaptations to their organisational structure, mission, culture and strategy in order to have a meaningful effect on the performance and sustainability of their employees and organisations.

A more contemporary definition of organisational leadership is that of Northouse (2010, p. 3): Organisational leadership is “a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal”. Another recent definition of leadership is that of Kouzes and Posner (2017) who stated that it is an art in the form of behaviours aimed at motivating others to achieve a joint mission and purpose.

Murphy (1996, p. 10) had a different perspective of the definition of leadership intelligence specifically, namely that is “the knowledge and skills that enable a leader to use the faculty of reason to guide others to a successful course of action”.

While leadership can be defined broadly without distinction to the type of leadership, one distinction that has been made and is generally recognised is the difference between transactional and transformational leadership.

A definition of transactional leadership formulated by Burns (1978, pp. 19–20) refers to a situation in which “one person takes the initiative in making contact with others for the purpose of an exchange of valued things”. According to Bass’s (2008, p. 50) definition of transactional leadership reads as follow: “a leader exchanges promises of rewards and benefits to subordinates for the subordinates’ fulfillment of agreements with the leader”.

Burns (1978, p. 20) referred to transformational leadership as the circumstances in which “one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality”. Bass (2008, p. 50) defined transformational leadership as the situation in which “a leader asks followers to transcend their own self-interests for the good of the group, organization, or society; to consider their longer-term needs to develop themselves, rather than their needs of the moment; and to become more aware of what is really important”.

In transaction-based leadership, if the reciprocal process continues between the leader and follower, then a relationship may evolve between them. However, it does not go beyond the realm of the reciprocating process to one of a link based on mutual interest of a more significant cause.

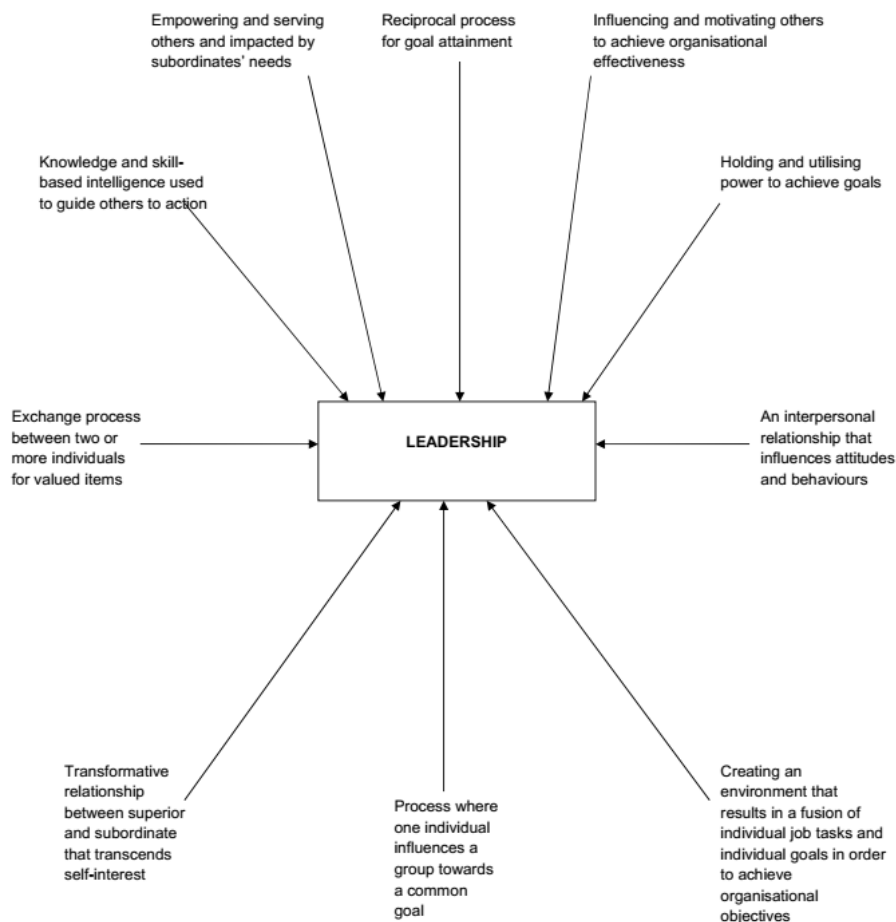
In the case of transformation-oriented leadership, a relationship is formed from the outset and continues because of its foundation and roots in a specified common goal or an endeavour of a much greater purpose.

Other researchers such as Greenleaf (1996; 2002; 2011) have proposed servant leadership, which at its core is all about serving others, and this is partly accomplished by empowering others. Greenleaf (1996; 2002; 2011) posited that at the heart of this concept of servant leadership is the leader's integrity as perceived by his or her subordinates. The level of integrity is determined on the basis of the leader's skills of persuasion, intuitiveness, listening, practical goal setting, and withdrawal and action.

Daft and Lengel (1998) suggested an additional perspective that contrasts two concepts referred to as fission and fusion leadership.

Figure 4.1 provides a review of various perspectives that have contributed to development of the definition of leadership.

Figure 4.1
Definitional Perspectives on Leadership



Source: Author

According to Daft (2014) and Daft and Lengel (1998), much of the history of organisational leadership can be classified as representing a fission philosophy of leadership, which differentiates employees and their work into different responsibilities, roles and tasks; the establishment of business goals and practices by management on behalf of employees; creating parameters in terms of how and to whom information is disseminated; and the delegation of work tasks and responsibilities according to rank or hierarchical placement within the organisation.

This fission philosophy of leadership is geared towards structure, control, predictability, reporting relationships and conformity with standards of behaviour.

However, Daft (2014) and Daft and Lengel (1998) posited that in the more recent history of organisational leadership, the thinking has shifted and evolved to more of a fusion-oriented philosophy of leadership, which encompasses the blending of employees and their work roles and tasks into a force unbridled by restrictions resulting from hierarchy and traditional and conventional wisdom.

This unlocking of subtle forces forms the foundation of a philosophy that can facilitate the management of a changing environment through effective leadership.

While the definition of leadership has maintained some core principles, it has experienced an evolution in its meaning to reflect changes in the following areas: competitive business conditions, the globalisation and cultural complexities of the business environment, the nature and design of work, subordinate employee expectations and the technological influences in the workplace.

The desire to hold and utilise power is a recognised motive of leaders in general, which may or may not occupy part of every definition of leadership. However, its existence needs to be acknowledged. Power is derived formally through organisational authority as well as informally from knowledge, interpersonal skills and vision (Pfeffer, 2010; Srivastava, 1986). Leaders exercise power through a number of channels such as delegation of work assignments, recognition and rewards, promotions, resolution of problems and decisions about reassignment and termination.

Another significant way in which the power of a leader is exercised (Daft, 2011; Daft & Lane 2011) is through control of information. This can have a significant impact on the effectiveness of not only the leader, but also the employees and the organisation.

While leaders are driven to some extent by their quest for power, Ledeen (2000) asserted that, in the writings of Machiavelli, power is a need that cannot be completely satiated since the leader will continue to seek out more and greater power. In today's world of contemporary leadership, this quest for power may at times be counterproductive to the team-oriented high-performing and effective organisation.

Other researchers such as De Pree (2003; 2011) have suggested that some of the most successful organisations lead by truly empowering their employees, and as such, they succeed by recognising that people will only follow or be committed to a leader willingly or not at all. When an individual leads without exercising traditional power, he or she enhances the prospects of contributing to achieving long-term effectiveness by empowering the members of the organisation.

In creating a definitional framework for discussing leadership, particularly in the context of this research study, whose aim was in part to examine the impact of leadership on organisational effectiveness, it is necessary to spend some time discussing what leadership is not. This can best be accomplished by distinguishing leadership from management.

The subject of leadership is probably without equal in terms of the amount of research attention focused on it by academicians, and the emphasis placed on it by global practitioners in the management ranks of organisations (Glynn & DeJordy, 2010; Luthans, 2005).

Much has also been discussed and written about leading versus managing. It would be accurate to say that leadership is not management, and vice versa. However, people in leadership positions do devote some of their energies to management functions and managers do engage in actions and behaviours considered leadership.

At times, for the sake of convenience or for reasons such as a lack of understanding or appreciation of these two distinct concepts, leadership and management are often lumped or joined together by some and used interchangeably as being one and the same.

However, some researchers such as Bennis and Nanus (2003) and Edwards, Schedlitzki, Turnbull, and Gill (2015) have argued that leadership and management are in direct contrast with one another as concepts, as well as in the functions, activities and behaviours associated with each.

Other researchers (Kouzes & Posner, 2017; Zaleznik, 1977) have suggested that leadership is distinguished from management in that leaders build consensus with their work teams, show

responsiveness to changing conditions, are engaged in visionary as well as strategic thinking about their organisations and are both externally and internally focused

Authors such as Daft and Marcic (2009; 2016) have indicated that leadership is strictly concerned with people or the human element and functions relating to their well-being and not the administrative aspects of a management position. In addition, Levy (2006; 2016), for example, has emphasised the social underpinnings of leadership as a means by which the leader engages the follower through the art of influence for the purpose of exercising control over follower behaviour. Perhaps leadership has more in common with salesmanship than it does with managing.

By contrast, Daft and Marcic (2009; 2016) proposed that managing is more of an administrative, problem resolution and report preparation function. Other researchers such as Zaleznik (1977) have also supported this view, suggesting that managers are more inclined to seek and to be more hands on in problem solving, more oriented towards predictability in their work environment, reliant on structure and hierarchy, and more heavily engaged in financial reports and more frequent follow-up meetings with their employees to assess status of work goals.

Leadership can also be distinguished from management by means of core competencies required and outcomes generated in each area. Leaders welcome opportunities to serve as a motivator and communicator to the organisation, a creator of a vision and strategy for the organisation and individuals who encourage organisational change (Kotter, 1990; 2008a; 2012; Zenger & Folkman, 2002).

Researchers such as Bennis (2015) have made the distinction between leaders and managers from the perspective that leaders deal with the uncertainties, changes in direction, resource issues and other unpredictable events, and prevail in overcoming and succeeding in this environment, while managers succumb to these issues and are defeated by them.

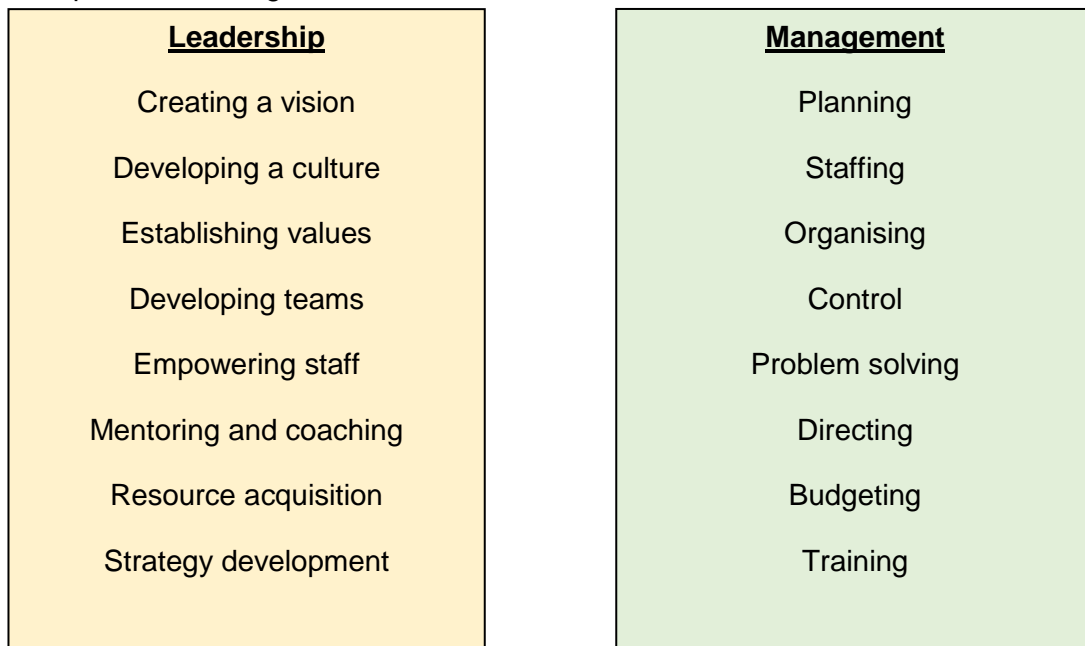
According to Jones (2001) and Kotter (1990; 2008b; 2012), the role of managers tends to be focused more on the delegation of assignments, control of resource allocation, the setting of organisational goals, conducting formal staff performance assessments, general administrative tasks and the observance of company policies, procedures and rules.

Another key distinction proposed by Hermalin (2012) and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2002) between leadership and management is that leaders are involved in creating and driving corporate culture within their organisations by focusing on and specifying values, as well as setting expectations for organisational excellence.

Figure 4.2 provides a comparison of the concept of leadership versus management.

Figure 4.2

Leadership versus Management



Source: Author

There have been countless perspectives on the true meaning of organisational leadership. In a study by Church (1998), for instance, four renowned and recognised scholars with research expertise on the subject were asked what could be summarised as the current thinking in academic circles and among practitioners in the area of organisational leadership.

All four of these experts had a different slant, according to the moderator of this discussion, in terms of their perspective on the contemporary thinking (at the time) on the status of organisational leadership. This resulted in Church (1998) concluding that there are shortcomings and a lack of a universally accepted definition of leadership, resulting in further flaws concerning the validity and reliability of research findings. Other researchers such as Gill (2011) have also concluded that there is a lack of consensus on the definition of leadership.

Bennis (2007; 2015) and Vroom and Jago (2007) also raised concern about a lack of a universally accepted theory of leadership or consensus on a predominant leadership research paradigm, and what distinguishes effective from ineffective leadership.

Historically, numerous definitions of leadership have been proffered in the literature, and at times it may appear that there are as many definitions as there are researchers involved in studying the concept.

However, in a thorough but earlier landmark review (Stogdill, 1974) of the definition of leadership it was concluded that although there may be differentiation between definitions, the majority of them encompass the idea of influence exercised by leaders over employees to direct and support their efforts to accomplish the organisation's objectives.

However, a more contemporary consensus description or definition of leadership states that the focus on influence is too restrictive (Gill, 2011; Kouzes & Posner, 2017). This has resulted in a plethora of different interpretations, and suggests instead, a shift to fundamentals of leadership in terms of showing the way and concentration on the areas of values, engagement, strategy, empowerment, vision and purpose.

For the purpose of the current study, the definition of leadership has as a foundation the dimensions of commonality identified in the landmark review cited above. However, in order to recognise the endemic qualities and purpose of this study, this definition is expanded and enhanced to include the impact of a leadership on organisational effectiveness and the interrelationship with and impact on customer, as well as job satisfaction in achieving organisational effectiveness.

This definition and the core theme of influence over others is supported by many contemporary researchers (Bass, 2008; Lussier & Achua, 2010; Northouse, 2010; Yukl, 2012).

4.3 CONCEPTUAL FOUNDATION OF ORGANISATIONAL LEADERSHIP

A method suggested by Yukl (2012) for conducting an in-depth examination of organisational leadership as a concept and classified into the following four possible categories, is presented below.

4.3.1 Dyadic processes

A dyadic process (Lussier & Achua, 2010) emphasises the importance of the relationship between a leader and a follower and the two-way nature of the influence that occurs between both parties. A leader's effectiveness is partly determined by not only how successful he or she is in influencing each individual subordinate towards attaining organisational goals, but also how effectively each subordinate influences the leader's behaviour in a positive direction.

In Bass's (2008) study, the dyadic relationship exchange between a leader and subordinate is fundamental to gaining insight into individual and organisational results derived from leadership.

Yukl's (2012) leader-exchange theory is representative of the dyadic process through the development of the relationship between the leader and the follower. This is demonstrated by

such relationship stages as a routine interchange through planned and collaborative efforts involving high levels of trust in one another.

Through a dyadic process of leadership discovery, and focusing leadership behaviours, leaders have been shown to be more successful in increasing team member trust, psychological safety and team performance (Carmeli, Reiter-Palmon, & Ziv, 2010; Hollander, 2012; Roussin, 2008; Walumbwa, Cropanzano, & Goldman, 2011).

The flaw in the dyadic process is that it does not factor in the environmental considerations that surround and give context to the leader-follower relationship.

4.3.2 Organisational processes

This process allows for examination of the concept of leadership from a wider organisational and comprehensive social systems perspective. The most prevalent and current research by Lussier and Achua (2015) at an organisational process level of leadership theory analysis is concerned with the impact of leadership on the performance and effectiveness of the organisation

Since this process represents an organisation-wide approach, the key to the leader's role is to facilitate the achievement of organisational success through its interaction with the environment and the constituents of that environment that play a role in the organisation's prospect of achieving effectiveness and sustainability. According to Bass (2008), the organisational level of analysis of leadership effectiveness also relates to how well a leader exercises his or her organisation-wide functional responsibilities towards attaining organisational objectives.

An essential leadership function, viewed through the lens of the organisational process method of examining the concept of leadership (Yukl, 2012), involves the leader's success in integrating the various internal dimensions, organisational departments and environmental considerations into a cohesive operating unit focused on the mission of achieving long-term organisational effectiveness.

Schein (2004; 2016a) suggested that another major leadership process at organisational level is the leader's role in creating and integrating throughout the organisation a culture that contributes to the attainment and sustainability of high levels of performance.

An example of this process would be the suppliers whom the organisation relies on for the raw materials needed in the manufacturing of its products. Another case in point is the customer who, through his or her ongoing purchases of products or services, helps ensure the long-

term viability of the organisation. Additional examples are the employees who contribute to creating and delivering the products and services that lead to sustainable organisational effectiveness.

4.3.3 Intra-individual processes

The focus of this area of examination and analysis on the concept of organisational leadership (Lussier & Achua, 2010; 2015) is on individuals and their traits, cognition and motivation processes that guide their leadership actions and behaviours. The theories that are trait based and self-leadership oriented fall within the intra-individual leadership process school of thought examination category.

Research (Furtner, Rauthmann, & Sachse, 2010; Riggio, 2010; Riggio & Reichard, 2008; Riggio, Riggio, Salinas, & Cole, 2003) has supported the role that intra-individual process factors such as social and emotional communication skills play in leadership effectiveness.

Also on an intra-individual process level, it has been suggested (Johnson et al., 2017; Kark & Van Dijk, 2007; Kark, Van Dijk, & Vashdi, 2018) that leaders' self-regulatory focus in conjunction with their values influences their motivation to lead and subsequently their leadership behaviour.

Research (Wallis, Yammarino, & Feyerherm, 2011; Yammarino & Dubinsky, 1994) testing the effect of transformational leadership on a sales force and sales supervisors indicated that it influences the intra-individual level only, with no extension of that boundary to the dyadic, group or organisational level. Although it is a relevant process for examining leadership effectiveness, this approach has self-imposed limitations in the sense that it fails to consider organisational or leader-follower relationships as expressed in the dyadic process. The result is serious shortcomings in gaining a thorough and broad understanding of leadership behaviour.

4.3.4 Group processes

This process for examining the concept of the leadership role (Yukl, 2012) focuses on understanding leadership effectiveness in the context of the work team and contributions to group performance opposed to the leader-individual follower relationship.

In addition, this process of examining leadership does so from the perspective of the impact of leadership on the effectiveness of the work group in terms of outcomes. Leadership behaviour (Druskat & Wheeler, 2003; Kasemsap, 2013) can have a significant impact on the performance of self-managed work teams.

The specifics of examining the impact of leadership on groups and the resultant effectiveness of the group from the leadership received, involves the following: understanding the group's structure; the resources made available to the group to accomplish the mission; the responsibilities of each member of the workgroup; the agreed-upon role of the leader; and the frequency and the circumstances that require the leader's interface with the group.

According to Bass (2008), most research in this area has been centred on the dynamics of group structure, process, and interaction in relation to leadership conceptualised at the group level.

Another dimension for examining leadership effectiveness within a group setting is when a leader through organisational design is not involved in providing the day-to-day leadership for a particular group. Instead, the leadership on a daily operational basis (Lussier & Achua, 2010) is derived through the emergence of a leader from within the group or among team members.

In this instance, the areas of interest and analyses deal with the following questions: How does a leader emerge from within the membership of the group? Does the emerging leader function in an informal or more formal manner with respect to his or her interface with the group? What is the group leader's ultimate impact on the group's achievement of desired objectives? Has the leader been successful in maintaining group cohesion?

The emphasis of the current study, as it specifically relates to the variable of leadership and its impact on organisational effectiveness, was on hierarchically defined and designed leadership. However, to the extent that self-directed work group leadership emergence has been discussed above, in the context of this study, it was only relevant from the perspective of the impact of group leadership on the attainment of work group objectives and in the maintenance of work group cohesion as a means of assessing organisational effectiveness.

4.3.5 Challenges in comparing leadership theories

One of the more perplexing and challenging problems attributed to the differing and often contradictory findings in the subject literature is in assessing and comparing leadership theories.

According to Yukl (2012), the salient approaches for analysis and comparisons of leadership theory effectiveness are from the perspective of the following three most significant variables associated with advancing one's knowledge of leadership effectiveness:

- 1) leader characteristics
- 2) follower profile

3) situational factors

The leadership research framework developed by Yukl (2012), which reflects these three variables, centres on the five broad dimensions highlighted below (Yukl, 2012). These five areas or models (Lussier & Achua, 2010) for conducting leadership research are also referred to as leadership research paradigms.

4.3.5.1 Behaviour dimension or paradigm

The behaviour dimension for analysing leadership effectiveness developed largely as a result of dissatisfaction with the trait approach (Yukl, 2012). In terms of the behaviour perspective, how a leader spends his or her time is the primary consideration. The leader's activities are analysed through observation, reporting, interviews and questionnaires.

According to Lussier and Achua (2010; 2015), this research approach focuses on the identification and testing of behaviours that distinguish effective leaders from those who are deemed ineffective. The type of behaviour displayed by a leader (Bass, 2008) serves as an impetus to the job behaviour of a subordinate which, in turn, affects the behaviour of the leader and subordinate relationship.

In addition to understanding how leaders spend their time, their actual behaviour (Muchinsky, 2011) is studied through examination of areas such as decision making, communication, problem-solving methods, delegation of work, developing organisational culture and team building. These behaviour dimensions are also studied through analysis of leadership behaviour questionnaires.

4.3.5.2 Power and influence dimension or paradigm

This dimension for comparing and assessing leadership effectiveness emphasises how leaders through their organisationally legitimised power and interpersonal skills of influence have an effect on the commitment and behaviour of their followers (Hooijberg, Lane, & Diversé, 2010; Srivastava, 1986). The impact of the leader's demonstration of power and influence on the followers' self-concept can have an effect on the degree of commitment of the follower to the mission (Lord, Brown, & Freiberg, 1999). In addition, according to Ehrhart (2015), a sensitive and charismatic leadership style has a direct effect on employee self-concept, particularly, self-esteem and self-construal, and followership.

The power and influence exerted is often not direct, say, in the form of a command. A common display of power and influence is the charismatic leader (Berson, Shamir, Avolio, & Popper, 2001; Griffin, Parker, & Mason, 2010; Kirkpatrick, Wofford, & Baum, 2002) who exercises more

subtle, nonetheless effective, power and influence over subordinates by engaging their commitment through support of the vision created and being implemented in the organisation.

Yukl (2012) posited that the significance of this dimension is to enhance one's understanding of the leader's effectiveness through the use of organisationally placed power for the greater good of the organisation's mission and the employees who carry out that mission.

It is important to understand whether leaders' exercise of power, emanating from their belief system or environmental factors, is for self-serving purposes or for the benefit of those they serve (Rus, Van Knippenberg, & Wisse, 2010). Also, significant is understanding how leaders, through the influence and power they exert, have an impact on the dynamics of their overall relationship with the peers and superiors with whom they interact.

Feedback on the effectiveness of a leader's power and influence can be measured through the use of employee surveys to gauge how well a leader utilises that power and influence in pursuit of accomplishing the mission and achieving organisational effectiveness.

The skills of a leader in terms of influence over subordinates is not always conducted within the framework of traditional organisational structure and hierarchy (Yukl, 2012). As such, leaders' effectiveness when functioning in a participative management environment with self-directed teams involved, may call for some different or additional approaches in the manner in which they wield their power and influence.

4.3.5.3 Trait dimension or paradigm

Studying leadership traits was the initial area of interest and method of examining leadership effectiveness. The research and analysis focused on identifying the personal attributes possessed by effective leaders. However, according to Yukl (1012), little could be generalised regarding the existence of a set of traits that one could possess and demonstrate in order to be an effective leader.

A shortcoming of the trait paradigm in assessing leader effectiveness is its inherent limitation of not considering factors that intervene in the relationship between leader traits and effectiveness, and which may moderate that relationship. A more adaptable view (Mueller, Goncalo, & Kamdar, 2011; Sternberg, 2007; Sternberg, Kaufman, & Roberts, 2019) would integrate wisdom, intelligence and creativity into a synthesis (WICS) since these are modifiable, and thus represent a more vibrant approach to assessing leaders from a personal attributes perspective.

Inherent weaknesses in the trait approach do exist. However, an argument has been made regarding the need for a resurgence of research efforts in trait-based leadership effectiveness (De Vries, 2012; Zaccaro, 2007; Zaccaro, Kemp, & Bader, 2004). This is because the collapse in the research on traits and leadership was unwarranted, and the result more or less of the excitement generated in the 1950s and 1960s over the research interest in behavioural styles and leadership.

Despite the shortcomings mentioned earlier, some research interest in the relationship between traits and leadership success has recently continued to appear in the literature (Zaccaro et al., 2004; 2018). A trait-based approach (Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Norris, 2017) to the examination of leadership effectiveness, which has emerged as part of this revival in trait research and shown to predict leadership potential, is the motivation to lead (MTL) model.

4.3.5.4 Situational dimension or paradigm

According to Yukl (2012), in this dimension the emphasis is on how the situation in which the leader functions may have an impact on his or her leadership effectiveness.

Situational considerations can encompass a wide array of factors, including areas such as organisational characteristics (e.g. culture and climate), the type of work performed by subordinates, external variables impacting on the leader and the profile or characteristics of the subordinates one leads.

According to Lussier and Achua (2010), in the situational paradigm, leader effectiveness is not dependent on any one style, but on the particular situation and dynamics of the interrelationships between the leader, follower(s) and environment.

The predominant research approach in examining leadership effectiveness and identifying successful behaviours under various situational conditions entails comparison studies to isolate the situational variables present to better understand their specific impact on leader effectiveness.

Also significant in assessing leadership effectiveness and situational factors is the question of whether leadership matters at all or to what degree in specific situations with regard to desired outcomes (Chan & Brief, 2005; Wasserman, Anand, & Nohria, 2010).

These comparison studies are also useful to determine how the situational variable being examined moderates other dimensional categories previously discussed such as expressed behaviour, personal traits and attributes, and power and influence. According to Antonakis and House (2002) and Stahl and Sully de Luque (2014), it is not only the situation, but also

the strength of the situational or contextual factors that shapes the rigidity or flexibility of leadership behaviour.

4.3.5.5 Integrative dimension or paradigm

Yukl (2012) postulated that this method of examining leadership effectiveness attempts to assimilate the multiple leadership theory categories of analysis into a cohesive and integrated approach.

The integrated dimension approach has been used with more frequency in recent years in the study of leadership effectiveness. Researching leadership (Avolio, 2007; Chemers, 2014) from a strategic perspective, naturally coupled with a multilevel research design, advances a more integrative approach to leadership theory development.

The pairing of the trait and behaviour dimension or the situational and power and influence dimension has added to researchers' understanding of leadership effectiveness. The integrative theory paradigm of leadership research (Lussier & Achua, 2010) most often combines the contingency, behavioural and trait paradigms in order to better understand leadership effectiveness. This approach to leadership theory research examines why certain leadership behaviours have varying effects and elicit dissimilar responses from different followers in assorted circumstances.

However, as suggested by Chemers (2000; 2014), leadership research on a more integrated theory of leadership, one that includes insights and knowledge gained from research on other leadership theories, should also be conducted. This would make it possible to consider other variables and the intervening effect they may have on the relationship between traits and a leader's effectiveness.

4.4 THEORIES OF ORGANISATIONAL LEADERSHIP

The development of leadership theories has been an evolving process. Early foundations of organisational leadership (Antonakis & Day, 2018; Grint, 2011; Spears, 2002), which have advanced to today's more contemporary models, were driven by hierarchical chain of command structures and practices largely influenced by military applications.

These earlier organisations performed many longstanding actions of a highly repetitive nature lending themselves to multiple level checkpoints. These entities and their senior management drove the corporate agenda by control and ensuring predictability through a top-down approach to what they would consider leading and decision making. However, this top-down emphasis on control (Daft, 2001; 2015) resulted in lack of attention to both engaging

employees to participate in contributing to the organisation more and to the influence of external competitive factors.

In these organisations, power was centralised in the scope of responsibilities of only a few executives at the top of what was usually a highly multilayered hierarchical bureaucracy. The management personnel in this multilayered organisation ensured that the direction set by upper management was executed, and the desired results were achieved within the dictates of imposed financial constraints and realities. Little consideration was given to process or how the outcomes were achieved relative to the impact on employees. Furthermore, no real effort was made towards shared leadership.

Owing to their organisationally recognised authority, senior management held a form of power in and of itself (Daft, 2015; Luthans, 2005). With their base of power and penchant for control and follow-up (sometimes through fear and other times more subtle coercion), top management could ensure that the objectives of the organisation, mostly short term and financial, were successfully achieved.

The lower levels of the hierarchy followed the dictates of top management, and when successful, were recognised through both compensation and noncompensation rewards for displaying loyalty to these requirements and to the organisational mission (Daft, 2015; Spears, 2002).

The various leadership theories (Bass, 2008) that have emerged over time have brought with them different conceptual foundations that provide the theoretical basis for a particular theory in comparison with others. What has also occurred is a maturation process in the evolution of leadership theories, which would suggest that some of the early theories are less relied upon as providing a sound, accepted and research supported theory of leadership.

However, there has been a convergence in leadership theory research findings, with three common themes emerging from these studies as highlighted below (Muchinsky, 2002; 2011; Yukl, 2009; 2012).

Leadership decision making. According to Yukl (2009; 2012), leaders have a great deal of influence and receive follower support when they are perceived to have a track record of sound decision making. This history of satisfactory decision making affords leaders opportunities to gain the backing of their work group into unchartered organisational areas (Muchinsky, 2002; 2011). Effective leadership is often a reflection of decision-making ability and associated skills.

Leadership influence. The ability to influence subordinates to act and maintain a high motivation level is a common theme in the findings on leadership research (Muchinsky, 2002; 2011; Yukl, 2009; 2012). This is particularly true in more complex endeavours requiring a sustained level of leader influence and follower motivation, which may be the case in driving organisational change, implementing a new vision or creating a corporate culture. The charismatic tendency of a leader and the utilisation of power contribute to leadership effectiveness.

Leadership and relationship building. Building relationships is also a common theme in the research findings on leadership effectiveness. The achievement of strong relationships relates to how effectively a leader builds trust and treats subordinates with respect (Muchinsky, 2002; 2011). Yukl (2009; 2012) suggested that placing the needs of subordinates ahead of one's own self-serving needs as a leader and exercising power sensitively, are the type of leadership behaviours which provide the basis for positive and productive relationships that contribute to leader effectiveness.

There is no universally agreed-upon alignment of leadership theories into specific categories because the profiles of some theories can fit into multiple categories, which is a process partly influenced by individual researcher preference. However, despite a lack of consensus on specific categorisation, there are generally accepted classifications that are used in the literature for distinguishing leadership theories.

For the purposes of the current research, the theories highlighted below are arranged into the following classifications:

Characteristic or trait theories. These theories include the following (Northouse, 2018): great man theory, trait theory, some aspects of charismatic theory (other aspects of the charismatic theory fall under the attribution theory category explained later), and certain features of cognitive resource theory.

Style theories. Leadership style theories fall under the broader designation of behavioural theory. According to Northouse (2018), these theories are generally focused on either the human dimension or process/activity dimension, directed or participative, some combination of these two broad dimensions, expressed in terms of a decision process, and constructed on a continuum, grid or scale. While these theories share elements of a common theme, they are presented individually to reflect their differences. The leadership style theories presented here include the following: boss centred versus subordinate centred; initiating structure or consideration;

autocratic versus democratic; job centred versus employee centred; concern for production or concern for people; the system 4 theory; and the normative model.

Contingency theories. These theories go beyond traits or styles, and introduce the importance of the situation that exists. Northouse (2018) postulated that these theories recognise that there is no one best style in and of itself, and that the particular situation in which the leadership occurs, has an influence on the optimum approach and effectiveness. The leadership theories falling under the contingency category are the LPC contingency theory, situational leadership theory and path-goal theory. Some dimensions of the cognitive resource theory mentioned previously under trait theory also fall into the contingency category.

Attribution theory. According to Northouse (2018), the attribution category consists of those leadership theories in which followers ascribe attributes to their leaders which they perceive as reflecting leadership capabilities. Theories that fall into this category would include charismatic leadership, implicit leadership theory, and to some extent, transformational leadership.

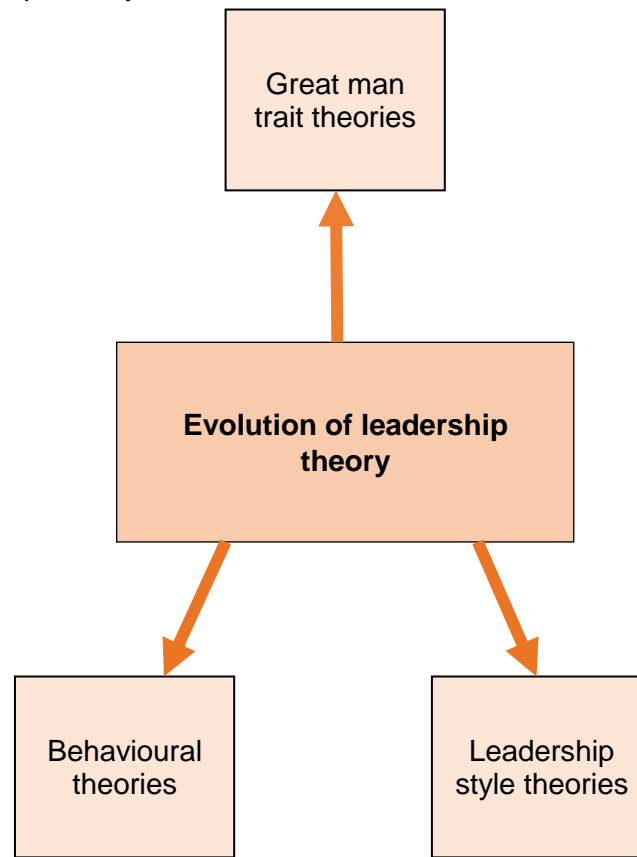
The three broad categories that have contributed in the evolution of leadership theories most commonly found in the literature are summarised in Figure 4.3.

4.4.1 Great man (person) theory

In an effort to better understand leadership and what viable explanations for it were, the initial emphasis was placed on what is referred to as the great man theory (Bass, 2008; Borgatta, Bales, & Couch, 1955; Hoffman, Woehr, Maldagen-Youngjohn, & Lyons, 2011), which appears to be generally accepted as the earliest leadership theory.

The great man theory of leadership (Glynn & DeJordy, 2010; Kest, 2006) is based on the belief that leaders are born and not made, endowed with personal attributes and characteristics that make them great leaders. These beliefs were formed on the basis of studying (Chrisler, Herr, & Murstein, 1998; Hoffman et al. 2011) great leaders in history, all being men at the time, and then drawing the conclusion that their great leadership prowess was due to their breeding or that it was inherent. Today we might refer to this as having a genetic predisposition to be a great leader.

Figure 4.3
Evolution of Leadership Theory



Source: Author

The fact (Glynn & DeJordy, 2010) that many of the people deemed to be great leaders were also from noble or aristocratic backgrounds also served to feed into and suggest that heritage, family lineage and gender were the primary factors underpinning the success of those leaders in terms of the great man (person) theory.

It is safe to suggest that today this is not considered a viable theory of leadership, although some researchers (Cawthon, 1996; Haslam, Reicher, & Platow, 2010) have re-examined the proposition.

4.4.2 Trait theory

This theory, which is based on traits, is somewhat similar to what may have been intended but not conveyed specifically by the great man theory. However, instead of being a question of breeding or inherent genetic inclination to be a great leader, this theory focuses on identifying personal traits and characteristics which would lend themselves to being an effective leader.

Research (Judge, Colbert, & Ilies, 2004a; Zaccaro, Dubrow, & Kolze, 2018) has shown that general intelligence is linked to leadership effectiveness. Other researchers such as Schmidt

and Hunter (2000) have indicated that cognitive factors, including general aptitude or intelligence, are related to leadership performance and effectiveness, and as the scope and complexity of the job expands, the strength of this link increases.

Research (Ramchunder & Martins, 2014) has also demonstrated a significant correlation between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness, while other studies (Kellett, Humphrey, & Sleeth, 2002) have shown a strong relationship specifically between an individual's emotional intelligence and leadership emergence.

Research of a meta-analytical nature on the Big Five personality traits (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002) indicated that openness and extroversion were positively correlated ($p = .24$) with leadership effectiveness, as was conscientiousness ($p = .16$). However, neuroticism was negatively correlated ($p = -.22$) with leadership.

The thinking at the centre of this theory (Judge, Piccolo, & Kosalka, 2009) is that once the personal traits and characteristics of effective leaders have been identified through the study of existing leaders, future leaders can be chosen by utilising a selection process based on criteria associated with the identified desirable traits.

While this theory has lost much of its earlier appeal due in part to the interest generated in the behavioural theory of leadership, it has been suggested (Zaccaro, 2007; Zaccaro, Kemp, & Bader, 2018) that leadership traits may be reconsidered as a viable area of research into leadership effectiveness, because it was unwarranted on a research basis to dismiss its applicability in advancing the understanding of leadership.

In support of this, Zaccaro et al. (2004; 2018) postulated that during the period, 1990 to 2003, there were a growing number of empirical studies in support of various leadership trait attributes associated with positive leadership outcomes.

4.4.3 Behavioural theory approach

The behavioural basis for theories of leadership represent a major departure from both the great man (person) and trait theories, which was the prevailing thinking at the time regarding leadership theories. The behavioural approach to leadership theories (Spector, 2003; 2016) was founded not on the types of traits possessed by a leader or in essence who they are characteristically, but on what they do or the behaviours they display as leaders.

The earliest generally recognised university-based behaviour-oriented leadership research was conducted in the late 1930s at the University of Iowa (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939).

However, historically, the behavioural approach to leadership theories gained a strong foothold with its roots in the landmark research conducted predominantly in the late 1940s, 1950s and early 1960s, at Ohio State University, Leadership Studies Institute (Fleishman, 1957; Fleishman & Harris, 1962; Fleishman, Harris, & Burt, 1955; Hemphill, 1950; Hemphill & Coons, 1950; Hemphill, Coons, Stogdill, & Coons, 1957; Stogdill & Shartle, 1948), and the University of Michigan, Institute for Social Research (Katz & Kahn, 1952; Katz, Maccoby, & Morse, 1950; Katz, Maccoby, Gurin, & Floor, 1951; Likert, 1961).

These two innovative institutions for the study of leadership became bellwethers for the development of a movement that generated a plethora of research on the subject of leadership over a number of decades. The behavioural school of thought surrounding leadership theory is also linked to the humanistic movement in psychology as well as behaviourism.

While different in terms of theory, the generic process applied to identifying effective leaders based on behaviour is similar to the process or mechanics used to identify effective leaders with the trait theory. According to Muchinsky (2002; 2011), the process entails capturing the behaviours of those in leadership positions through the supporting use of questionnaires and surveys, and then identifying the specific behaviours that effective leaders display and are recognised for by subordinates as being effective leaders.

More contemporary approaches with wide acceptance and utilisation for determining leader effectiveness through the study of leadership behaviours is the leadership exemplary practices inventory (Kouzes & Posner, 2002; 2017). Other researchers (Michel, Lyons, & Cho, 2011; Yukl, 2012; Yukl, Gordon, & Taber, 2002; Yukl, Wall, Lepsinger, Clark, & Clark, 1990) have identified a taxonomy of key leader behaviours and the managerial practices survey.

In addition, researchers such as Bass and Avolio (1990) have created the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) for identifying transactional and transformational leadership styles. According to Khan, Aslam, and Riaz (2012), the MLQ has been used to assess leadership styles and their impact on worker innovative behaviour. Furthermore, the identification of managerial roles (Mintzberg, 2002; 2019), which are also oriented towards leader behaviours, have been determined using the MLQ.

Once these behaviours have been identified, other individuals who are either already in leadership positions, or those slated for or aspiring to hold leadership roles, can be trained from a behavioural perspective to be effective leaders by adopting and demonstrating the same behaviours.

Pfau and Kay (2002) questioned whether this behaviour-based training actually resulted in sustainable behaviour change. Nonetheless, the behavioural platform of leadership theory did give rise, according to Dai, De Meuse, and Peterson (2010) to the creation of much of the management and leadership development strategies and programmes that evolved over the last half century in response to the enthusiasm for leadership theory emanating from the behaviour sciences.

This shift (Lussier & Achua, 2010) towards a behavioural paradigm of leadership theory and away from the trait theory, developed from a lack of support for the latter and enthusiasm for the potential of the former.

While the behavioural basis for leadership theory is not an identifiable theory in and of itself and has not led to a style that fits all circumstances, it does serve as an umbrella paradigm for the study of the behaviours associated with effective leadership and has spawned a host of what was to become known as leadership style theories, which are discussed in the next section.

4.4.4 Leadership style theories

The theories that comprise what is known as leadership style theories have their basis in the generic behavioural approach to leadership theory. This area of leadership theory (Levy, 2006; 2016) examines the subject in terms of the behavioural style or orientation a leader deploys in his or her leadership role. The expectation here is that understanding this will contribute to one's knowledge of how the behavioural style approach will result in effective leadership.

Any one specific leadership style (Spector, 2003; 2016) can be categorised as comprising a repertoire of closely aligned behaviours which a leader displays in his or her interaction with subordinate employees.

Although each style theory may utilise different descriptive terminology in defining the theory, for the most part, these theories have a similar meaning and common threads that can facilitate any discussion presentation and the comparison and contrasting of these theories. The leadership style theories (Belonio, 2012; Turner & Müller, 2005) are in some instances depicted as being on a continuum, grid or matrix.

Below is a summary of theories found in the literature generally recognised as being centred on leadership style, and which encompass those style theories representing the essence of the intended breadth and depth of these types of theories. This summary is intended to capture the most significant and not the obscure of the style theories, and obviously not every style theory ever discussed in the literature is included here.

4.4.4.1 Boss or subordinate centred leadership

In this behavioural leadership approach or orientation (James, 2005; Luthans, 2005; 2011; Ronald, 2014; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958; 2009; 2017), a leader's style is assessed along a continuum ranging from highly boss or leadership centred at the one end, and focused on one's own needs at the other end where the leader is subordinate centred and oriented towards the needs of his or her employees.

This continuum theory of leadership (Luthans, 2005; 2011; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958; 2009; 2017) anchored by boss- and subordinate-centred behaviours identifies seven different leadership patterns or styles that are displayed along the continuum. These leadership styles are as follows:

- The leader makes a decision and communicates it. According to this style (Luthans, 2005; 2011; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958; 2009; 2017), the leader makes a decision on his or her own and communicates it to the subordinates. There is no two-way dialogue and the leader does not request inputs from the work team.
- The leader makes a decision and sells it to the subordinates. Here the leader (Luthans, 2005; 2011; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958; 2008; 2017) makes the decision on his or her own, but instead of simply announcing it to the subordinates, he or she attempts to convince or persuade them into accepting the decision. The leader does not seek to obtain the subordinates' approval of the decision per se, but only their acceptance of the decision.
- The leader makes a decision and explains the underlying reasons. Once again he or she makes a decision on his or her own, but goes a little deeper (Luthans, 2005; 2011; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958; 2009; 2017) with the subordinates when communicating the decision by explaining the thought process behind the particular decision. The leader also encourages the subordinates to ask questions so that they will gain insight into and understand the decision.
- The leader makes a proposed or conditional decision. The leader in this scenario conveys to his or her subordinates a tentative decision he or she is considering implementing (Luthans, 2005; 2011; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958; 2009; 2017). However, the leader also invites discussion on the merits of the decision. The leader listens to the subordinates' thoughts and is open to adjustments to the initial decision. However, the final decision rests with the leader.

- The leader presents problem and seeks the subordinates' suggestions. This style breaks the pattern of the leader coming to the group with a decision already in hand. Instead, the leader presents the problem to be solved and obtains suggestions from the subordinates on possible solution alternatives (Luthans, 2005; 2011; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958; 2009; 2017). The leader may offer some possible decision options to stimulate group discussion, but only if they have difficulty identifying solutions. The leader makes the final decision through the selection of the most appropriate decision option.
- The leader communicates a problem and allows group decision making. With this pattern, the leader defines and explains the problem for subordinates to solve, as well as the parameters and limits of their actions (Luthans, 2005; 2011; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958; 2009; 2017). It is the responsibility of the subordinates to identify options and make an actual decision. The group receives full credit for their decision outcomes that successfully resolve the problem. However, the leader and not the group is solely responsible for any shortcomings with the decision the group made.
- The leader allows the group to define the problem and solution process. In this approach, the work group has the greatest amount of autonomy. The leader allows the team to actually define the problem, as opposed to him or her defining it. The leader also lets the team determine the process to follow in solving the problem, identifying alternative solutions to it, selecting the decision option they believe most appropriate in addressing the particular problem they have identified, and developing plans for implementation of the decision (Luthans, 2005; 2011; Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958; 2009; 2017). The group is allowed to operate under the same authority and parameters that the leader is granted organisationally. Once again, the group receives all the recognition for a successful decision, while the leader is held accountable for the results of a poor decision.

4.4.4.2 Initiating the structure or consideration

This leadership style theory emerged following disappointments with the results of research on the trait theory of leadership. Efforts were therefore made to study leadership behaviours instead, in order to ascertain the impact of supervisory behaviour on subordinates' attitudes and behaviour.

According to Hemphill (1950), through the development of an item list of 1 800 critical incidents that were identified as either extremely positive or extremely negative forms of supervisory

behaviours, a 150-item leader behaviour questionnaire was developed, which became known as the leader behaviour description questionnaire (LBDQ).

The upshot of this research (Fiaz, Su, Ikram, & Saqib, 2017; Hemphill, 1950; Schriesheim, Cogliser, & Neider, 1995; Velez, 2016) was the emergence of the following two predominant leadership behaviour patterns:

Initiating structure. This leadership pattern is concerned with the degree to which leaders define the role that they expect to fulfil for themselves as leaders and the specific job tasks and responsibilities of their subordinates as well. Some of the specific activities (Stogdill & Coons, 1957; Van Vugt, 2006; Velez, 2016) that fall within the initiating structure pattern include planning, organising, delegating assignments and reviewing subordinates' performance.

Consideration. This leadership pattern refers to the level of concern a leader has for the welfare of his or her subordinates (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004b; Stogdill & Coons, 1957; Velez, 2016). This concern can be displayed through the respect the leader has for subordinates, and the manner in which he or she makes the work environment pleasant and supportive for the subordinates.

According to this particular leadership style or orientation (Gangl, Prufer, & Schulz-Hardt, 2019; Schriesheim, Cogliser, & Neider, 1995; Stogdill & Coons, 1957), the leader's behaviour falls into one of four leadership styles representing a combination of the initiating structure and consideration patterns indicated as follows:

- High on both initiation of structure and consideration.

This style (Judge et al., 2004b; Lee, 2017; Littrell, Ahmadi, Dalati, Kuskova, & Snaebjornsson, 2016; Stogdill & Coons, 1957) represents leaders who show the highest concern for the well-being of their subordinates in the work context, as well as the greatest level of interest in defining their own role and that of their subordinates in terms of task, assignments and performance expectations.

- Low on both initiating of structure and consideration.

In terms of this leadership behaviour style (Judge et al., 2004b; Lee, 2017; Stogdill & Coons, 1957), leaders display both the lowest concern for the welfare of subordinates and the least amount of structure in terms of their own role and the tasks and expectations of subordinates.

- High on initiating of structure and low on consideration.

In this leadership style (Judge et al. 2004b; Lee, 2017; Stogdill & Coons, 1957), the leader demonstrates the highest degree of structure and role definition for himself or herself and subordinates and the lowest degree of concern for the welfare of subordinates.

- Low on initiating of structure and high on consideration.

The leader in this scenario (Judge et al., 2004b; Lee, 2017; Stogdill & Coons, 1957) shows the lowest interest in defining the structure of both his or her own and the subordinates' roles and the highest level of concern for the well-being of subordinates.

4.4.4.3 Autocratic versus democratic style theory

This leadership style theory or leadership behaviour orientation (Bass, 2008; Chemers, 2014; DeHoogh, Greer, & Den Hartog, 2015; White & Lippitt, 1968) aligns an individual's leadership style as being categorised along a continuum with three distinct leadership style classifications described as follows:

Autocratic style. According to Bass (2008), Chemers (2014), De Hoogh et al. (2015), Jung, Jeong, and Mills (2014), Puni, Ofei, and Okoe (2014) and White and Lippitt (1968), the autocratic style of leadership entails leaders making decisions on their own and independent of any inputs from their employees. This particular style of leadership is most appropriate in situations where the nature or predictability of work outcome is so high that decisions are relatively self-evident and therefore void of any benefit derived from others' inputs.

This style may also be appropriate where the likelihood of disappointment by employees for nonparticipation is minimal or nonexistent. This style of leadership behaviour (Schuh, Zhang, & Tian, 2013; Van Vugt & De Cremer, 1999; Van Vugt, Jepson, Hart, & De Cremer, 2004) is typically associated with the most significant amount of employee dissatisfaction with the leader and possible departure from their group. However, this may not be the case in all situations as indicated later.

Democratic style. In the democratic style (Bass, 2008; Smolović Jones, Smolović Jones, Winchester, & Grint, 2016; Raelin, 2012; White & Lippitt, 1968), leaders engage their employees as active participants in the decision-making process. The leaders seek their inputs for either decisions that they may ultimately make on their own or for decisions made based on the group's consensus after obtaining the opinions through discussion with the subordinates.

Owing to the nature of the employee involvement in the process, the democratic style can clearly yield more positive results in terms of employee satisfaction with the leadership and stronger commitment (Frischer, 2006; Jones et al., 2016). However, depending on other characteristics such as the urgency of decision required or the nature of the group, the democratic style may be time consuming and not as productive a style of leading owing to the demands placed on a leader for results and the external pressures of the competitive environment.

Laissez-faire style. This style of leadership (Bass, 2008; Chaudhry & Javed, 2012; White & Lippitt, 1968; Wong & Giessner, 2018) is more of a low key/low involvement approach, generally by design. It may be reflective of a high degree of confidence by the leader in the capacity, maturity and motivation of his or her employees to function and make decisions with minimal external leadership.

However, this hands-off leadership style may be a reflection of a disinterested and less than competent individual in a leadership role. When the latter scenario is the case (Chaudhry & Javed, 2012; Frischer, 2006; Wong & Giessner, 2018), the laissez-faire style has been shown to result in greater employee dissatisfaction than the autocratic style.

The laissez-faire leadership style may be more compatible with the characteristics of a highly independent work group in relation to the particular leader assigned organisationally, and is suited to more matrix job tasks where self-directed and project-based teams are responsible for the day-to-day leadership necessary for the project.

4.4.4.4 Job versus employee centred leadership

This leadership style (Likert, 1961; Oberer & Erkollar, 2018; Pugh & Hickson, 2007; 2012; Robbins & Judge, 2014) was originally intended as a means of distinguishing between high- and low-producing organisations. This evolved into an assessment, from a managerial and leadership effectiveness perspective, of those styles that were associated with low-producing organisations versus those associated with high-producing organisations.

An initial goal was to identify the type of leadership and managerial styles associated with increases in organisational performance. In fact this might have been without being identified as one of the earliest attempts at gaining an understanding of how leadership and management could impact organisational effectiveness.

According to the research (Likert, 1961; Oberer & Erkollar, 2018; Pugh & Hickson, 2007; 2012; Robbins, 2003; Robbins & Judge, 2014), there were two types of distinct managerial and leadership styles of behaviour at play. The first style was categorised as being job centred.

This style was concerned with the process of production, including job-specific procedures and methods to increase output with a strong element of control as well as close supervision. Managerial personnel who practised the methods associated with a job-centred style were typically in organisations that could be classified as low production.

By contrast, the second managerial or leadership behavioural style is referred to as employee centred (Likert, 1961; Oberer & Erkollar, 2018; Pugh & Hickson, 2007; Robbins, 2003; Robbins & Judge, 2014). Individuals in managerial and leadership positions displaying this style can be characterised as demonstrating greater concern for their employees on a human level, with genuine concern for the difficulties they may face.

These leaders are also focused on their employees' role and motivation to achieve high levels of performance. This type of leadership style devotes energy to creating work groups that interact successfully and achieve organisational goals. Leaders who adopt the employee-centred style or orientation management are in organisations that are categorised as high producing.

4.4.4.5 Concern for production or concern for people

This leadership behavioural style is similar to the style described above. The managerial and leadership approach discussed here is known in the literature as the managerial grid (Blake & Mouton, 1994; 2010; Luthans, 2005; Pugh & Hickson, 2007). As the name indicates, managerial and leadership style are examined through the structure of a grid, with the vertical axis representing degrees of concern for people and the horizontal axis reflecting levels of concern for production.

The emphasis is not on production in terms of only quantity or people from the standpoint of the amount of concern, but on how the concern for production or people is a reflection of the leader's attitudes which can be demonstrated by his or her own actions (Blake & Mouton, 1994; 2012; Luthans, 2005; Pugh & Hickson, 2007).

A summary of these two distinct dimensions of the managerial grid is as follows:

Concern for production

Concern for production (Blake & Mouton, 1994; 2012; Luthans, 2005; Pugh & Hickson, 2007) is in the generic sense of production, and not limited to production in the context of a manufacturing environment. Concern for production can be expressed by way of the strategic directions and plans for achieving organisational effectiveness for which leaders in senior positions are accountable.

Concern for production can encompass all functional areas of an organisation because it is really a reflection of the productivity and the quality of that productivity – for example, new customers generated, ideas that emerge concerning new products identified in the laboratories, the shortening of the number of days outstanding on accounts payable or the goods manufactured.

Concern for people

Concern for people (Blake & Mouton, 1994; 2012; Luthans, 2005; Pugh & Hickson, 2007) has many alternative directions for expression in the context of organisational life. Concern for people can be demonstrated in a variety of ways such as the way in which employees are selected for promotional opportunities, and through their participation in training and development programmes.

Concern for people also manifests itself through ensuring the compensation and rewards employees receive are commensurate with their performance, providing appropriate working conditions, soliciting their ideas and involvement in problem solving, furnishing feedback in a timely and thoughtful manner, and demonstrating respect and dignity in communications with employees.

As stated earlier, the managerial grid (Blake & Mouton, 1994; 2012; Luthans, 2005; Pugh & Hickson, 2007) is depicted by means of a grid, with concern for people on the vertical axis and concern for production on the horizontal axis. Each of the two dimensions has a nine-point scale. Number 1 represents the lowest concern, and number 9 the highest concern.

A description of the four corners as well as the middle position on the grid follows:

Management 1-1. This position on the scale (Blake & Mouton, 1994, 2012; Luthans, 2005; Pugh & Hickson, 2007) represents the lowest concern for both production and employee. A style of 1-1 demonstrates the concern for production and the concern for people from a minimalist perspective, by exerting the least amount of effort necessary in the leader's concern for production and concern for people to maintain his or her leadership position in the organisation.

Management 1-9. A leadership style fitting into this corner of the grid (Blake & Mouton, 1994; 2012; Luthans, 2005; Pugh & Hickson, 2007) exhibits the least concern for production and the maximum concern for people. The leader in this instance shows a low concern for production in terms of the effort expended.

However, leaders apply the maximum amount of concern for the people in their organisation by ensuring that they work to create a closely knit working relationship between themselves and their employees. This is in addition to ensuring that their work team as a group has a positive working relationship. Overall the culture of this organisation is collegial with a strong emphasis on employee satisfaction.

Management 9-9. The style of management in this corner of the grid epitomises what most organisations strive for optimally. Those leaders falling into this portion of the grid (Blake & Mouton, 1994; 2012; Luthans, 2005; Pugh & Hickson, 2007) have the highest concern for both production and employees.

The philosophy permeating the organisation through this leadership style stresses that the achievement of organisational objectives occurs through the diligence and commitment of a high-performing work group. This group embraces common organisational goals and builds interrelationships on a foundation of trust and mutual support. The leader's role is to help facilitate the development of the organisational objectives through employee participation, as well as creating an environment of trust.

Management 9-1. In this corner of the grid (Blake & Mouton, 1994; 2012; Luthans, 2005; Pugh & Hickson, 2007), the leadership orientation is at the highest level of concern for production and the lowest level possible level of concern for employees.

This leadership style can be categorised as being concerned with optimising the productive capacity of the organisation with the least amount of interruption, reallocation of resources or energy drain away from the focus on production to deal with people issues. Hence the aim here is to minimise as much as possible the effects of any redistribution of time, money and resources on the effectiveness of the organisation's productive capabilities.

Management 5-5. This particular leadership orientation and style occupies the middle ground of the grid. Here the leadership style (Blake & Mouton, 1994; 2012; Luthans, 2005; Pugh & Hickson, 2007) expresses an equal concern for both production and employees and is a middle-of-the-road type of leadership approach.

Leaders who practise this type of style are interested in seeking an adequate balance between their concern for production and their concern for people. It is their belief which they demonstrate through their leadership behaviour that the organisation can achieve acceptable performance by reaching a compromise between the demands

to have a productive organisation with the need to ensure an average level of satisfaction within the work group.

4.4.4.6 System 4

This philosophy of leadership (Buble & Pavic, 2007; Likert, 1967; 2012; Pugh & Hickson, 2007) referred to as the system 4 approach, classifies leadership styles into four possible styles ranging from dictatorial to collaborative approaches, which are described as follows:

Exploitive authoritative. This style of leadership (Buble & Pavic, 2007; Likert, 1967; 2012; Pugh & Hickson, 2007) is characterised as follows: displaying little concern for the needs of employees; top-down communications only; the use of coercion and threats to accomplish goals; limited use of rewards; low trust in subordinates; centralised decision making at the top of the organisation; virtually no influence by subordinates on the leader; and marginal employee productivity.

Benevolent authoritative. In terms of this style (Buble & Pavic, 2007; Likert, 1967; 2012; Pugh & Hickson, 2007), the leader fulfils the leadership role according to an authoritative style, still wielding strong dictatorial power and behaviour. However, the leader also shows some concern for employees.

The concern for people is shown through the following: allowance for limited upward communication; use of some rewards for displaying desired behaviours; some psychological closeness regarding subordinates' needs; limited trust for employees to assume a minimal level of responsibility; and work assignments allocated by the leader with possible opportunities for eliciting comments by employees.

Consultative. The consultative leadership style (Buble & Pavic, 2007; Likert, 1967; 2012; Pugh & Hickson, 2007) is most dissimilar from both autocratic approaches because of the inclusion of employee involvement in matters relating to decisions about their work. However, despite the employees' involvement, the most significant decisions continue to be made by the leader.

Consultative leaders believe that their subordinates are interested in the organisation achieving its objectives, and endeavour to demonstrate this through their performance and being trusted to some extent in doing what is best for the organisation. Communications under the consultative style of leadership are both top down and bottom up, and can be categorised as more frequent in occurrence. The leader also demonstrates more psychological closeness for employees and their needs.

Participative. The leader who adopts a participative style (Buble & Pavic, 2007; Likert, 1967; 2012; Pugh & Hickson, 2007) creates an environment and culture of high employee involvement in the areas relating to their work. A leader who embraces this leadership style strongly encourages and expects employees to participate in goal setting, decision making, initiating bottom-up communication with management and interfacing with other departments.

A participative leader also demonstrates high trust in his or her employees, provides compensation and other rewards aligned closely with performance outcomes, reinforces collaborative and cooperative working relationships, and encourages the sharing of information and team problem solving.

The participative leadership style (Buble & Pavic, 2007; Likert, 1967; 2012; Pugh & Hickson, 2007) generally results in maximum productivity among employees in the work group, and usually leads to the highest levels of both overall employee job satisfaction and specifically satisfaction with the leadership of their work unit.

4.4.4.7 LPC contingency theory of leadership

The LPC (least preferred co-worker) contingency theory of leadership is perhaps one of the most highly regarded and referenced theories of leadership effectiveness in the field of industrial and organisational psychology. It is recognised as the first proposed comprehensive contingency theory of leadership and one upon which subsequent contingency theories were built. It was the first leadership theory to incorporate situational factors and conditions as variables in explaining the type of leadership most effective in particular situations.

The theory (Fiedler, 1967; 2015; Luthans, 2005; Yukl, 2011) posits that leadership effectiveness is determined by the performance of a group, which is affected by two factors, namely the leadership style applicability and the particular situational favourability.

The premise of this theory (Fiedler, 1967; 2015; Luthans, 2005; Yukl, 2011) is that the specific work group situational characteristics, together with the particular leadership style used by the leader, will determine the degree of leader effectiveness in terms of the work group's performance.

The leadership component of the contingency theory (Fiedler, 1967: 2015; Vroom & Jago, 2007; Yukl, 2011) referred to as the leader's motivational structure includes the following two leadership orientations or styles:

Task oriented. According to Fiedler (1967; 2015), a task orientation leadership style refers to a leader's need or interest in performance of the task itself as a means of deriving satisfaction with the role by controlling work goals and tasks.

Relationship oriented. Fiedler (1967; 2015) suggested that the relationship-oriented style of leadership refers to the leader's inclination towards developing and maintaining positive interpersonal relationships with subordinates, as well as gaining power and influence stature with them as a means of achieving the desired outcomes.

The leader's particular orientation or style (Fiedler, 1967; 2015; Vroom & Jago, 2007) is determined by first asking the leader to think about all the coworkers he or she has had and to identify the one with whom he or she has worked the least well. According to Fiedler (1967; 2015) and Vroom and Jago (2007), the leader is then asked to assess this coworker by means of a measurement instrument called the least preferred coworker (LPC), which is an 18-item bipolar adjective scale. The total score on the 18 items reflects the leader's style orientation.

A leader who is considerate and benevolent in his or her assessment of the coworker will have a high LPC score, while the leader who is highly judgemental in his or her criticism of the coworker will have a low LPC score.

The components in the contingency theory (Fiedler, 1967; 2015; Vroom & Jago, 2007) that address the situational favourability factor, which is the framework for the amount of control the leader will be able to exercise over the work group, includes the following:

Leader-member relations. The leader-member relationship situational favorability factor (Ayman, 2004; Fiedler, 1967; 2015; Luthans, 2005; Pugh & Hickson, 2007; 2018) is the extent to which leaders have garnered the cooperation and support of their subordinates to perform this leadership role effectively.

Leader position power. This situational factor (Ayman, 2004; Fiedler, 1967; 2015; Luthans, 2005; Pugh & Hickson, 2007; 2018) is concerned with the amount of formal and informal authority, power and influence the leader has over his or her subordinates to include such areas as evaluate performance and administer rewards and discipline.

Task structure. The situational task structure (Ayman, 2004; Fiedler, 1967; 2015; Luthans, 2005; Pugh & Hickson, 2007; 2018) refers to the degree to which the procedural manner in which tasks are to be completed, as well performance criteria on how well the tasks are performed, are clearly indicated to the work group.

The core implication of the theory (Fiedler, 1978; 2015; Fiedler & Chemers, 1984; Vroom & Jago, 2007) is that the leader's LPC score is a determinant of the type of situation in which he or she will perform best.

A leader's style in the contingency model reflects the needs a particular leader wishes to satisfy in the context of a specific leadership situation. When that situation becomes less favourable, it becomes an obstacle to the leader's gratification of the need to lead. In this instance, Spector (2003; 2016) suggested that the leader should alter the situational factors in order to be aligned with his or her leadership characteristics or style rather than change his or her style to accommodate the situation.

From a leadership effectiveness perspective, this theory (Fiedler, 1967; 2015; Vroom & Jago, 2007) endeavours to identify what leadership style is more conducive to the best work group performance. This performance is based on the situational characteristics of the group rather than espousing a particular leadership style (irrespective of situational considerations) as in the leadership style theories. In that regard, it is not a one-size-fits-all approach. In essence, the outcome defined as group performance is the intersection of leadership orientation and the characteristics of group task situational factors.

According to Spector (2003; 2016), by introducing and interfacing the variable of situational favourableness with leader characteristics, the theory becomes multidimensional and more complex. However, it provides an opportunity to think about leadership effectiveness in a manner that other style theories of leadership lack.

The contingency theory facilitates an in-depth examination and understanding of leadership effectiveness and its predictability by analysing the dynamics of the match between situational favorability factors associated with a specific work group and the leadership orientation or needs of the particular leader. This suggests that by changing the leadership style and/or the situational characteristics of the group, performance of the work group can be manipulated or altered and the effectiveness of the leader enhanced.

The contingency model of leadership effectiveness (Ayman, 2002; Ayman & Lauritsen, 2018) has shown predictive validity through the design of experimental studies.

4.4.4.8 Situational leadership

The situational leadership theory (Ayman, 2004; Ayman & Lauritsen, 2018; Hersey, 1997; Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 2007) suggests that a generic leadership style or approach does not fit all circumstances equally well, and in some instances, a particular style might actually be inappropriate.

Instead, the researchers (Ayman, 2004; Ayman & Lauritsen, 2018; Hersey & Blanchard, 1997; Hersey et al., 2007) posited that a leader should adopt his or her style on the basis of the task and relationship behaviours called for in the particular situation. These two behaviours are then examined with the task behaviour on the horizontal axis and the relationship behaviour on the vertical axis, resulting in four leadership styles. A leader's effectiveness (Ayman, 2004; Ayman & Lauritsen, 2018) is dependent upon the degree to which a particular style is compatible with a subordinate's task and psychological maturity.

The result is a quadrant of both low and high task behaviour and relationship behaviour, which are described as follows (Ayman, 2004; Ayman & Lauritsen, 2018; Hersey & Blanchard, 1997; Hersey et al. 2007):

Style S1. The leadership style needed is characterised as high task and low relationship behaviour. A leader demonstrating high task behaviour is direct and detailed in communicating how a task should be performed (Ayman, 2004; Ayman & Lauritsen, 2018; Hersey & Blanchard, 1997; Hersey et al., 2007). By contrast, low relationship orientation is characterised as a lack of two-way communication with subordinates, encouraging questions, providing clarification or inviting suggestions.

Style S2. This style represents both high task and high relationship behaviour (Ayman, 2004; Ayman & Lauritsen, 2018; Hersey & Blanchard, 1997; Hersey et al., 2007). Once again, the high task dimension of this style reflects direct and detailed communication with subordinates, while the high relationship aspect is characterised by greater willingness to provide explanations, encourage two-way communication and invite inquiries from subordinates.

Style S3. In this quadrant, high relationship behaviour and low task behaviour are appropriate (Ayman, 2004; Ayman & Lauritsen, 2018; Hersey & Blanchard, 1997; Hersey et al., 2007). Here, the leader encourages two-way communication, seeks inputs and suggestions, and encourages suggestions from employees rather than communicate in a direct and detailed fashion.

Style S4. In this quadrant, the style calls for both low relationship and low task behaviours (Ayman, 2004; Ayman & Lauritsen, 2018; Hersey & Blanchard, 1997; Hersey et al., 2007). The leader in this scenario provides little direction and shows minimal encouragement and support to subordinates in terms of inviting suggestions or two-way communication. It would appear that this approach or style is rarely practised and valid in its purest form in organisational settings, and tends to be more

relevant in providing a parameter or boundary in the context of situational style leadership.

4.4.4.9 Normative model

The normative model (Bass, 2008; Grint, 2011; Vroom, 2000; 2003; Vroom & Jago, 1988; Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Yukl, 2011), also referred to as the Vroom-Yetton model, has a narrower application because it has been developed specifically on the basis of research associated with a leadership style relating to the decision-making process.

However, it has been referred to in the literature as a leadership theory (Bass, 2008; Grint, 2011; Vroom, 2000; 2003; Vroom & Jago, 1988; Yukl, 2002; 2011). It is included in this discussion on leadership theories since leaders devote considerable time to this decision-making function of leadership, and also because of the impact decision making has on subordinate employees.

According to this model of leadership decision-making behaviour (Bass, 2008; Grint, 2011; Vroom, 2000; 2003; Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Yukl, 2011), there are five different leadership decision-making styles, with two representing a more autocratic style, two a more shared or consultative approach, and one a consensus-driven approach. These styles are briefly discussed below.

A1. In this decision-making style (Bass, 2008; Grint, 2011; Vroom, 2000; 2003; Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Yukl, 2011), the leader utilises information that he or she has access to and then makes a decision independently. This represents the most autocratic of approaches to leadership decision making.

A2. In this decision-making approach (Bass, 2008; Grint, 2011; Vroom, 2000; 2003; Vroom & Jago, 1988; Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Yukl, 2011), leaders obtain the information they need directly from their employees and then proceed to make a decision on their own. This leadership style of decision making is also autocratic.

C1. This decision-making method (Bass, 2008; Grint, 2011; Vroom, 2000; 2003; Vroom & Jago, 2007; Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Yukl, 2011) is characterised by leaders discussing the issue or problem to be solved with each of their employees separately, soliciting their inputs and then making a decision independently. This approach to leadership and decision making is shared or consultative.

C2. In terms of this style (Bass, 2008; Grint, 2011; Vroom, 2000; 2003; Vroom & Jago, 2007; Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Yukl, 2011), the leader reviews the problem with his or

her employees collectively as a group, taking into consideration their opinions, and then decides what the best solution is on his or her own. The method described here is also a consultative form of leadership decision making.

G2. The final style (Bass, 2008; Grint, 2011; Vroom, 2000; 2003; Vroom & Jago, 1988; Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Yukl, 2011) involves the leader sharing and discussing the problem being confronted with his or her employees in a group setting. Then through a process of consensus building, the leader arrives at a decision that represents the consensus of the group. This is considered a group consensus-based leadership decision-making style.

The above five decision-making styles (Bass, 2008; Grint, 2011; Vroom, 2000; 2003; Vroom & Jago, 1988; Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Yukl, 2002; 2011) are influenced by the following situational variables, which form the environmental context in a particular decision scenario:

- Information availability is the information pertinent to the decision to be made that both the leader and his or her employees have access to.
- Decision acceptance means that the probability that the decision will be accepted by employees is a factor influencing the appropriateness of the decision.
- Employee cooperation refers to the employees' prospects demonstrating cooperation should they be asked by the leader to participate in the decision-making process.
- Disagreement on a decision relates to the extent of disagreement about individual decision recommendations on the part of employee participants.
- Problem structure concerns the degree to which the problem being evaluated for decision purposes is structured versus unstructured, and hence the amount of creativity required in the decision-making process.

In the normative model of leadership (Bass, 2008; Grint, 2011; Vroom, 2000; 2003; Vroom & Jago, 1988; Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Yukl, 2011), the effectiveness of a decision is evaluated on the basis of its acceptance in terms of the support to implement the chosen decision and the quality of the decision from the perspective of its appropriateness and relevance to the specific problem being considered.

This model of leadership decision-making style includes decision rules intended to be recommendations on which of the four decision styles would be most appropriate relative to decision acceptance and quality factors and the influences of situational variables.

4.4.4.10 Path-goal theory of leadership

This leadership theory (Day, 2012; Evans, 1996; 2002; House, 1971; 1996; Vroom & Jago, 2007; Yukl, 2011) is centred on how a leader can support his or her employees through the process of goal setting and achievement. According to House (1996) and Vroom & Jago (2007), the major leadership influences are in the area of goal clarification, dealing with obstacles on the path to attainment, and providing timely as well as motivating rewards along the way towards and the actual achievement of the goal.

The extent and depth of the leadership provided is a function of the following (Evans, 1996; 2002; House, 1971; 1996; Vroom & Jago, 2007; Yukl, 2011): the complexity of the goal; the subordinates' skills and abilities to achieve the goal; the employees' level of commitment to pursue the particular path; and other miscellaneous factors relating to the organisation's environment.

Four leadership approaches (Ayman, 2004; Ayman & Lauritens, 2018; Evans, 1996; 2002; House, 1996; House & Mitchell, 1974; Vroom & Jago, 2007) have been identified in the path-goal theory, as summarised below.

Directive leadership. The style (Ayman, 2004; Ayman & Lauritsen, 2018; House, 1988 ; 1996) advocated here is more of a hands-on approach in which the leader stresses the detail, direction, schedules and expected completion dates of the goals that have been established.

Supportive leadership. This style of leadership (Ayman, 2004; Ayman & Lauritsen, 2018; House, 1996) is focused on providing the subordinate with the tools and environment that will help him or her to realise the goals and ensure a rewarding experience.

Participative leadership. This style of leadership (Ayman, 2004; Ayman & Lauritsen, 2018; House, 1996) is characterised as more collaborative, with the leader reaching out to members of the organisation to solicit their ideas and suggestions in the planning and implementation of the path-goal method.

Achievement-oriented leadership. According to this style (Ayman, 2004; Ayman & Lauritsen, 2018; House, 1996), the leader strives to challenge and motivate members of the organisation to reach high and exceed the levels of performance they believed were possible. In harmony with the path-goal theory, this type of leader will work towards establishing stretch goals for members of the organisation to channel their energies to perform at a level that exceeds expectations. Achievement-oriented

leadership identified in the path-goal theory (Ayman, 2004; Ayman, Chemers, & Fiedler, 1995; Ayman & Lauritsen, 2018; Bass, 2008; Bass & Avolio, 1994) has been recognised as a valid approach supported by research.

4.4.4.11 Leader-member exchange theory

This theory (Erdogan & Bauer, 2010; Graen & Schiemann, 2013; Lunenburg, 2010; Luthans, 2005), also known as the vertical dyad linkage model, holds that leaders do not treat the same and do not have the same relationship with each and every subordinate. Instead they develop special bonds with certain members of their organisation to the exclusion of others. In essence, some subordinates comprise the inner circle, while others are on the periphery in their relationship with the leader.

The more favoured subordinates are referred to as “in-groups” and represent those employees with whom the leader has developed trust, and as such, they wield greater influence with the leader. The research (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Schiemann, 2013; Lunenburg, 2010) has shown that these favoured subordinates secure greater time and attention from the leader, are usually better performers with greater commitment and higher satisfaction, and have more staying power in the organisation.

Research (Burriss, Rodgers, Mannix, Hendron, & Oldroyd, 2009; Graen & Schiemann, 2013; Sahin, 2012) also indicated that members of a leader’s inner circle had a greater influence on group dynamics and wielded greater interpersonal influences. They also had their suggestion more frequently adopted, irrespective of merit, and experienced greater psychological security in the workplace, resulting in greater recognition and rewards than outer-circle members.

By contrast, the least-favoured subordinates are considered the out-group and are characterised (as the name would suggest) as being on the perimeter with regard to trust, rapport, attention and sphere of influence in their relationship with the leader. Researchers (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Graen & Schiemann, 2013; Hamstra, Van Yperen, Wisse, & Sassenberg, 2011; Kim, Lee, & Carlson, 2010) found that these individuals also tended to be the poorer performers, low in job satisfaction and loyalty, and more likely to voluntarily separate from the organisation.

The research (Burriss et al., 2009; Sahin, 2012) also suggested that those in the outer circle had less psychological workplace security, had fewer ideas implemented, cast less influence, and received fewer rewards and other forms of recognition than their inner-circle counterparts.

The precise reason for this dichotomy stems from the early interactions a leader has with subordinates and the subsequent judgements and assessments made by the leader about a

subordinate's trustworthiness, commitment and rapport, and the leader's perception of a subordinate's standing with co-workers in the in-group.

As suggested by Robbins (2003) and Robbins and Judge (2014), the basis for a leader's decision to classify a subordinate into one of these two categories is based on the degree of compatibility the subordinate shares with the leader in terms of personality and beliefs and the level of competence demonstrated by the employee.

It would be understandable in situations where a newly appointed leader steps into a crisis or short lead time turnaround situation that a quick assessment of staff into in-group and out-group categories would be essential to achieve survival objectives. Generally speaking, these subordinate assessments and categorisations are of an enduring nature.

As posited by Robbins (2003) and Robbins and Judge (2013), the determination to place an individual in an in- or out-group is as much a function of their personality characteristics and competence level and the influence that has on leaders' judgement regarding categorisation, as it is the leaders' need to form early impressions of their subordinates.

Research (Lunenburg, 2010; Maslyn & Uhl-Bien, 2001) has generally substantiated the proposition that leaders by design distinguish their subordinates along in-group and out-group designations and treat them in terms of the favourability of relationship and pursuant outcomes in accordance with these categorisations.

4.4.4.12 Cognitive resource theory

This theory of leadership (Antonakis & Day, 2017; Day, 2012; Fiedler, 2015; Fiedler & Garcia, 1987) emphasises the cognitive characteristics of a leader such as intelligence and experience, together with a directive leadership behavioural style, and how these affect work group performance and leadership effectiveness when the situational variables of stress and group task type are introduced.

The theory (Miner, 2015; Yukl, 2002; 2011) posits that stress as an intervening and moderating variable in both the relationship between leader intelligence and the performance of the work group and the leader's effectiveness, as well as the relationship between leader experience and both the work group performance and leadership effectiveness, has a different impact based on the leader's level of the stress (high/low).

Specifically, this theory advances and research supports the idea (Fiedler, 1995; 2002; 2015; Robbins, 2003; Robbins & Judge, 2014) that high intelligence leaders perform more effectively under low stress conditions. However, their performance is either not influenced at all or they

may perform poorly in high stress situations. The greater the complexity of the task, the more significant the negative impact of stress will be on leader cognitive effectiveness.

When stress has an intervening effect on the relationship between leader experience and performance, the theory proposes and research findings corroborate the theory (Fiedler, 1995; 2002; 2015; Robbins, 2003; Robbins & Judge, 2014) that leaders with greater experience perform more effectively under high stress, but their experience provides no advantage in low-stress situations and they may actually perform worse. Once again, the more complex the task, the greater the negative influence of stress will be on the role experience plays in the effectiveness of a leader.

In conclusion, the theory (Fiedler, 2015; Miner, 2015; Yukl, 2002; 2011) also suggests that for a leader's cognitive resources of intelligence and leadership to have a positive impact on the group's performance group, the leader should adopt a directive leadership style when dealing with subordinates who require advice and detailed instructions to successfully perform the task at hand.

Conversely (Fiedler, 2015; Miner, 2015; Yukl, 2002; 2011), if the leader has limited intelligence and experience and the work group demonstrates strong capabilities and commitment to the assignment, then a more participative leadership style is necessary for successful group performance.

4.4.4.13 Implicit leadership theory

The implicit leadership theory (Lord, 2000; Lord & Maher, 1991; Shondricks & Lord, 2010a; Shondrick, Dinh, & Lord, 2010) takes a contrarian view from other theories in terms of what determines leadership effectiveness by focusing exclusively on what a follower perceives as a model leader, and how that perception meshes with and shapes the actual behaviour of this leader and the follower.

In essence, this theory, also known as attribution theory (Carnes, Houghton, & Ellison, 2015; Junker & Van Dick, 2014; Muchinsky, 2002; 2011), postulated that leadership is really defined and its effectiveness determined through the thoughts, opinions and perceptions of the follower who has a prototypical concept of what a good leader is and how he or she should behave. Then through his or her actual experience with the leader, the follower makes subjective (but to him or her real) comparisons of the leader's behaviour against his or her concept of good leadership, and decides how the leader measures up.

In essence, this is more an interactive perception process (Carnes et al., 2015; Junker & Van Dick, 2014; Lord & Brown, 2004) since the leader's behaviour is the main factor in the

subordinate's perception of him or her, the opportunity exists for the leader to play a key role in shaping both the subordinate's perception and performance behaviour. Lord and Brown (2004) also determined that a subordinate's own self-concept functions in tandem with his or her perception of the leader to influence the subordinate's own behaviour and beliefs.

The implicit leadership theory has been subject to criticism (Carnes et al., 2015; Phillips & Lord, 1981). This relates to the effect in which a subordinate with general perceptions of leader effectiveness transfers these perceptions to specific leader actions without actually assessing the effectiveness of the specific action. This creates a potential halo effect. Some researchers (Meindl, 1995; Meindl & Ehrlich, 1987) reported that subordinates rated organisational performance at a higher level when they perceived it was the result of good leadership. They also rated the same actual organisational performance outcomes lower when they perceived the performance not to be related to satisfactory supervision.

According to Verlage, Rowold, and Schilling (2012), subordinates develop certain ideas and expectations they believe represent effective leadership behaviour through the socialisation process they are involved in with their leader. Attribution plays a key role in the operationalisation of this theory (Nichols & Erakovich, 2013; Verlage et al., 2012) since people tend to define their perceptions of leadership from the perspective of the degree to which they believe a leader possesses attributes such as communication ability, intellectual capacity, personality and assertiveness.

Fundamentally, leadership in this theory is defined by the leadership attributes subordinates ascribe to their immediate manager, rather than the manager's actual demonstrated leadership attributes and behaviours.

4.4.4.14 Substitute for leadership theory

This leadership theory (Luthans, 2005; 2011) originated from the frustration and dissatisfaction with the value of other existing theories at the time to provide the rationale for the impact of leader behaviour on organisational success and effectiveness. Hence a theory was proposed (Jermier & Kerr, 1978; 1997; Kroon, Van Woerkom, & Menting; 2017; Si & Wei, 2012; Yukl, 2011) suggesting that in some instances, actual leader involvement and behaviour were either not required or a duplication of effort because there are substitutes for leadership that can successfully achieve similar desired results.

In addition, according to this theory (Kerr & Jermier, 1978; 1997; Nubold, Muck, & Maier, 2013; Robbins, 2003; Xu, Zhong & Wang, 2013), in addition to substitutes, there are also neutralisers

that interact in a particular situation and serve as a deterrent to behave effectively in a leadership capacity.

More specifically (Kroon et al., 2017; Nubold et al., 2013; Robbins, 2003; Robbins & Judge, 2014), neutralisers render any leader behaviour ineffective in terms of its impact on subordinate outcomes, while substitutes for leadership completely eliminate the necessity for the leader as a factor in employee outcomes.

These deterrent conditions or neutralisers can be many things, but are mainly derived from factors associated with the organisation, subordinates and tasks. Conditions regarding these three factors may simply represent situations or structures over which a leader may have little or no control or even influence.

The theory (Kerr & Jermier, 1978; 1997; Kroon et al., 2017; Si & Wei, 2012) is further constructed on the idea that if an employee is to function productively over a sustainable period of time, then he or she requires both direction or purpose and feedback from within the organisation, which may be provided for by means other than a direct supervisory leader.

Instead, the requirement for direction or purpose may be fulfilled through the task performed and the employee's actual experience and familiarity with the task. Feedback may be received through forms of recognition or acknowledgement for a job well done, which may come from other sources, say, team members, in the organisation.

The concept of self-leadership (Manz, 1986; 2015; Neck, Manz, & Houghton, 2019; Stewart, Courtright, & Manz, 2011) has been reported to be a viable approach and an alternative to structural leadership, especially when the individual and organisation are in harmony in terms of culture, values and commitment. In addition, as indicated by the research members of self-directed project work teams (Keller, 2006; Stewart et al. 2011), such team members could function as substitutes for an actual traditional hierarchical organisational leader when they were previously followers who had developed leadership capabilities through their experience working with transformational leaders.

In essence, this leadership theory (Muchinsky, 2011; 2002; Neck et al., 2019; Stewart et al., 2011) views the traditional leader as one source from some alternative nontraditional leadership sources for the rendering of services such as direction and feedback to employees. When viewed in this manner, the leader's behaviour assumes more of a functional orientation rather than a trait, contingency or style approach.

In addition, the substitutes for leadership theory through self-leadership, self-directed work teams or other forms of substitution demystify the heroic or charismatic view of leadership. However, it does not eliminate some forms of structural organisational leaders because the role of leadership encompasses a broad spectrum of areas beyond the task-oriented dimension of leadership and for which this theory may have greater applicability.

Research on the substitute for leadership theory (Dionne, Yammarino, Atwater, & James, 2002; Yammarino, Salas, Serban, Shirreffs, & Shuffler, 2012) has generally not supported its main premise. Instead it confirms mainstream theories that leadership is not only necessary but also contributes to organisational performance, particularly from a multilevel perspective.

4.4.4.15 Transactional versus transformational leadership theory

Researchers (Bass, 1985, 1990, 2008; Bass & Avolio, 1994; McCleskey, 2014; Odumeru & Ogbonna, 2013) have suggested that the type of leadership an individual demonstrates is either transactional or transformational in character.

The transactional leader (Bass, 1985, 1990, 2008; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Diaz-Saenz, 2011; McCleskey, 2014) approaches the other party such as a subordinate as though there is a contractual connection emanating from an exchange between the parties involved. The contract connection details conditions and considerations such as monetary rewards one party can expect from the other for successfully executing the transaction. The parties entered into the agreement for mutual benefit albeit different and not of the scope to bind the parties to a longer lasting relationship.

Transformational leadership theory (Bass, 1985; 2008; Diaz-Saenz, 2011; McCleskey, 2014) is defined as leadership that elicits within the follower a level of high commitment and performance beyond standards or expectations of what was even thought possible.

The concept of transformational leadership suggested by researchers (Bass, 1985; 2008; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Diaz- Saenz, 2011; McCleskey, 2014) proposes that the leader is a role model providing inspiration, motivation, intellectual excitement and stimulation. He or she treats each member of the team as an individual, motivating them so successfully that they accomplish in excess of what they themselves initially expected or even thought was possible.

Transformational leadership theory emerged as the primary new leadership theory entering the decade of the 1980s as a result of a change in direction in leadership theory thinking towards theories constructed on the following key principles (House & Aditya, 1997; Rupprecht et al., 2013):

- There was an emphasis on how leaders can drive organisational change and achieve performance outcomes beyond expectations.
- Leader behaviour arouses employee motivation and identification with the leader and organisational mission at an emotional level. This occurs through behaviours and approaches such as inspiring communication, empowering subordinates, developing shared vision and serving as a behavioural role model.
- The focus is on attaining maximum employee commitment and loyalty to the organisation's mission and vision through high levels of participation.
- It is necessary to build follower personal identification with the leader's values, beliefs and purpose, as well as to bolster the followers' confidence and self-esteem.

This transformational theory of leadership is characterised by four key "I" dimensions highlighted below (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass, 1985; 2008; McCleskey, 2014).

Idealised influence. This refers to the leaders' ability to have their followers identify with and idealise them in terms of their personality, and to be influenced by this idealisation of the leaders and their mission for the organisation.

Inspiration. The dimension of inspiration is the motivation and enthusiasm which leaders evoke in their subordinates by challenging them to rise to higher levels of performance and commitment and a shared vision which, in the process, will elevate them and the organisation to a higher purpose.

Intellectual stimulation. In this instance, the leaders help their subordinates to see new pathways and approaches in their thinking, which expands their intellectual horizons. Leaders do this by modelling their own leadership behaviour for their subordinates.

Individualised consideration. Here leaders show concern and provide support, development and guidance for their subordinates as individuals. The leaders strive to facilitate each subordinate's attainment of his or her maximum potential in the process of achieving and exceeding organisational performance goals.

The above four dimensions work in concert with one another to arouse in individual subordinates the motivation, desire and performance to achieve results beyond what they believe is expected of themselves. In essence, a transformational leader strives to elevate his or her subordinates to new levels of confidence and accomplishment by empowering them to

perform and contribute towards the organisational mission, which is generally aimed at changing and transforming the organisation.

Some of the research in this area (Ashkanasy & Tse, 2000; Odumeru & Ogbonna, 2013; Wofford, Goodwin, & Whittington, 1998) has been of a comparative nature identifying the differences between transformational and transactional leadership.

Others researchers (Antonakis & House, 2014; Avolio, 2010; Bass, 2002; Bass & Riggio, 2006; 2010; Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012) have indicated that a full range of leadership model incorporating the four dimensions of transformational leadership, along with the transactional leadership characteristics of contingent reward, active or passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership, more realistically explains the type of leadership approaches displayed by and options available to a leader in terms of specific circumstances and diverse subordinate characteristics.

In summarising both approaches to leadership, transactional leadership (Bass, 1990; 2008; McCleskey, 2014) is such that leader and follower engage in an exchange of service and benefits towards accomplishing a specific task. The leader applies contingent reinforcement in the form of rewards for accomplishing the objective. There is no long-term relationship.

By contrast, a transformational leader (Bass, 1990; 2008; McCleskey, 2014) motivates subordinates to rise above their own expectations of themselves and feel empowered to accomplish much more and to be committed long term beyond only a transaction-oriented relationship.

According to Hansbrough and Schyns (2018) and Jung, Yammarino, and Lee (2009), the impact of transformational leadership on outcomes at the individual, dyad, group and organisational level has been a topic of wide research interest.

Research (Braun, Peus, Weisweiler, & Frye, 2013; Judge & Bono, 2000) has been supportive of favouring transformational over transactional leadership in terms of having a positive influence on employee satisfaction, commitment and performance. Other studies (Bass, 1990; García-Morales, Jiménez-Barrinuevo, & Gutiérrez-Gutiérrez, 2012) have also indicated that transformational leadership, compared with transactional leadership, results in more desirable organisational performance outcomes, particularly in the area of organisational change. In addition, research (Avolio, 1999; Gardner, Lowe, Moss, Mahoney, & Coglisier, 2010; Lowe & Gardner, 2000; Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012) also found that transformational leaders performed at higher levels than their transactional counterparts.

4.4.4.16 Charismatic leadership theory

Charismatic leadership as a theory considers follower perceptions and ascribed attribution of charismatic leader behaviour and skills (Conger, 2011; 2015; Conger & Kanungo, 1988a; Conger, Kanungo, & Menon, 2000), as well as an individual leader's self-concept of traits associated with charismatic leadership and the specific manner in which a leader influences his or followers' self-concepts (House, 1977; Mhatre & Riggio, 2014; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993).

Other researchers (Bass, 2008; Lian, Brown, Tanzer, & Che, 2011) defined the essence of charismatic leadership as a relationship between leader and follower predicated on the personal characteristics or traits, abilities and interests associated with charismatic leaders, and the motivation, commitment and desire on the part of a follower to identify with or relate to the leader.

Charismatic leadership (Lian et al., 2011; Pescosolido, 2002) creates a bond or an emotional connection between a leader and a follower which has been shown to result in the charismatic leader having strong influence over his or her followers, and in turn, a demonstrated commitment by them to align themselves with the leader and the mission.

As such, the theory is concerned with how certain leader behaviours create an impression on the part of followers that signifies leadership prowess in that individual, and traits that leaders believe enhance the likelihood that their followers will regard them as charismatic.

With the above as a foundation, charismatic leadership (Conger, 1989; 2011; 2015; Conger & Kanungo, 1988a) can be defined as the process by which followers, through interactions with or observations of their leaders, assign specific attributes (often of a heroic or superordinary nature) to their leader. Other researchers (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Mhatre & Riggio, 2014) have postulated that charismatic and transformational leadership have much in common, but charisma (i.e. charismatic style or attribute) is more realistically a component of transformational leadership.

The types of follower-ascribed charismatic leadership behaviours associated with charismatic leader include the following (Muchinsky, 2002; 2011):

- demonstration of support and belief in the talents and capabilities of followers in order to enhance the followers' own confidence
- behaviour that demonstrates the image and impression of a strong invincible leader

- effective communication of the organisational vision and goals in ideological terms
- behaviour and communication that emphasises exceptional expectations for subordinates

Traits that exemplify a self-concept orientation of charismatic leadership include the following (Muchinsky, 2002; 2011):

- a high level of self-confidence in one's leadership capabilities
- deep beliefs and a sense of meaningful purpose
- a profound need to obtain, expand, exercise and retain power

An early attempt (House, 1977; Mhatre & Riggio, 2014) to create a framework for understanding charismatic leadership focused on what differentiates a charismatic from a noncharismatic leader and the situational circumstances that favour the emergence of a charismatic style.

A number of generally recognised dimensions that characterise or identify charismatic leaders are described below (Conger, 2011; 2015; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Conger et al., 2000).

Strategic vision creation and communication. According to Conger (2011; 2015) and Conger & Kanungo (1998), a charismatic leader develops a vision that he or she believes in and communicates to and clarifies to his or her followers to influence them to embrace the vision that has been presented as an idealised goal, which leads to a better future.

Sensitivity to the needs of followers. Here leaders show concern for and sensitivity to the needs of their followers through the behaviour the leaders manifest and other expressions of such concern (Conger, 2011; 2015; Conger & Kanungo, 1998). Through this interest in the needs of others, leaders develop a base of loyal supporting followers with whom they share mutual respect, as well as the commitment and admiration these leaders receive from their followers.

Personal risk. Leaders demonstrate the courage of their convictions regarding the organisational mission and vision by taking actions that pose a great risk to themselves and the organisation (Conger, 2011; 2015; Conger & Kanungo, 1998). This behaviour might potentially even be to the leaders' detriment from a personal cost perspective should their actions fail to meet the objectives. At the very minimum, leaders' behaviour in support of their vision and objectives comes with a great deal

of personal sacrifice for the benefit of the large organisation which encompasses their own followers.

Unconventional behaviour. Unconventional leaders are not confined to traditional leadership thought, but use “out-of-the-box” or unique thinking and behaviour because it ensures the attainment of the organisational vision and objectives (Conger, 2011; 2015; Conger & Kanungo, 1998).

Sensitivity towards environmental considerations. In this dimension of charismatic leadership, leaders take into consideration the environment in which they have to function. Their behaviour incorporates their understanding of and appreciation for limitations in terms of the financial, technological and human capital available to them and their organisation.

According to Conger (2011; 2015) and Conger & Kanungo (1998), this type of leader is sensitive to other organisational realities that may manifest as opportunities or constraints. Examples would be organisational culture, the level of support the leaders can successfully garner from their superiors, peers and followers with whom they must engage and receive their commitment in order to achieve the organisational vision and goals.

Research by Agle, Nagarajan, Sonnenfeld, and Srinivasan (2006) reported a strong correlation between charismatic leadership and both performance outcomes and subordinates’ satisfaction. Another study by Vlachos, Panagopoulos, and Rapp (2013) indicated that employees’ perceptions of charismatic leadership on the part of their managers resulted in greater employee job satisfaction.

In a meta-analysis (DeGroot, Kiker, & Cross, 2000) it was determined that leader effectiveness is linked to behaviour associated with charismatic leadership. Sun, Gergen, Avila, and Green’s (2016) meta-analysis found that transformational leadership behaviour had a correlation of $r = .64$ with job satisfaction, while charismatic leadership behaviour resulted in an $r = .77$ correlation with job satisfaction.

A common question arises regarding charismatic leadership. Is charisma an innate quality one is born with or can someone be taught to become a charismatic leader? The predominant perspective of researchers (Conger, 2011; 2015; Conger & Kanungo, 1998) is that an individual can develop into a charismatic leader through education and behavioural training.

Another area of interest in the literature is the comparisons made between charismatic and transformational leadership. One research study by Rowold and Heinitz (2007) focused on the

convergent, divergent and criterion validity of the multiple factor leadership questionnaire (MFLQ) and the Conger and Kanungo scales (CKS). These researchers (2007) examined the similarities and differences between these two theories and determined that charismatic and transformational leadership had a high convergent validity. This research also demonstrated that both charismatic and transformational leadership showed divergent validity from transactional leadership. In another study by Krüger, Rowold, Borgmann, Staufenbiel, and Heinitz (2011), discriminant validity was established between transformational and transactional leadership.

With regard to criterion validity, Rowold and Heinitz's (2007) study found that both charismatic and transformational leadership had a greater impact on subjective performance than transactional leadership. However, transformational leadership had a greater impact on objective performance than either transactional or charismatic leadership.

In another study comparing charismatic and transformational leadership (Barbuto, 2005), it was determined that leader behaviour that demonstrated significant correlation with subscales of charismatic leadership also indicated significant correlation with subscales of transformational leadership. Similar results were obtained by Trépanier, Fernet, and Austin (2012) in that transformational leadership behaviour perceptions were closely aligned with social and motivational antecedents, particularly relationships at work and perceptions of self-efficacy in management abilities.

As mentioned earlier (Bass & Riggio, 2006, 2010; Mhatre & Riggio, 2014), charisma is believed to be a component of transformational leadership. However, other researchers such as Muchinsky (2002; 2011) have suggested that charisma as an attribute may actually be viewed as weak by followers of a transformational leader who empowers them, shows trust and confidence in them and secures their commitment. In so doing, this leader mitigates the dependent relationship that a follower would typically have with a charismatic type of leader.

4.4.4.17 Stewardship theory versus traditional leadership theory

Stewardship is considered by its proponents (De Pree, 2003; Greenleaf, 2002; 2011; Spears, 2002; 2010) to be an alternative to traditional hierarchical leadership approaches with its basis in the principles of being a steward in the service of others.

Some researchers (Block, 1993; Spears, 2002; 2010) have argued that the anchors of leadership practices such as setting the strategic direction, control and acting in a way that connotes knowledge or wisdom regarding what is best for others, is inconsistent with what is really needed. This is especially so as it relates to the leadership required to ignite employee

empowerment and commitment to help drive the organisational and cultural change necessary for achieving business success.

The functions and behaviours that have been traditionally expected of leaders, namely strategic planning for the future, the manner in which to navigate towards that future and defining the role to be played by each member of the team, are actually contrary to many expectations.

Instead, what has been expected is that the most effective organisations create a sense of real employee ownership and participation through individual and team responsibility for operationalising that ownership with the leadership behaviours that support this participation. Other researchers (April & Blass, 2010; April, Macdonald, & Vriesendorp, 2000) have proposed the stewardship approach as an alternative to other forms of leadership, with the emphasis on the essentials of serving fellow team members, focusing on personal growth, creating an environment of high employee involvement and underscoring the importance of ethics.

Instead of thinking of hierarchal driven leadership, with which many leaders feel more comfortable, they should view their role as more of a stewardship (Block, 1993; Spears, 2002; 2010) or as a servant leader to their work teams. This would create more of an employee empowered-oriented organisation capable of playing a significant role in driving organisational actions and effectiveness.

The reality of the practices and behaviours displayed by many leaders is in part due to perceptions of role definition and expectations, which place self-imposed artificial parameters and restrictions around the role of a leader. These perceptions tend to cloud the leaders' view of the importance of and role they can play as stewards and servants of their employees in creating that ownership mindset in the work teams they serve.

According to April, Peters, and Allison (2010), the results of empirical studies have indicated that by and large, the principles of stewardship as an alternative form to more traditional leadership approaches and theories have not gained much traction.

Many employees, including mid-level managers, are content with relinquishing to senior level executives certain leadership responsibilities associated with managing change and creating a culture of employee ownership. The reason for this is the human tendency for some to find individuals other than themselves to assume these all-encompassing responsibilities for which they may feel inadequate or ill prepared to lead.

In summary, the various trait, behavioural/leadership style, contingency and attribution theories have made great strides in researchers' understanding of leadership effectiveness. However, in the continued development in industrial and organisational psychologists' knowledge of this subject, the current thinking is that leadership effectiveness is largely best explained and understood by examining the particular conditions or surrounding circumstances in which the leadership occurs.

4.5 MODEL FOR COMPARING AND ANALYSING LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Yukl (2002; 2011) recommended an approach to analysing and comparing leadership theories along a continuum with three categorical distinctions which are explained below.

4.5.1 Leader versus follower centred theories

It is helpful in the examination of leadership theory to understand how the theory treats not only the leader but also the follower (Yukl, 2002; 2011). More emphasis has been placed on the leadership perspective than the follower side of this relationship, with a focus on leadership traits and behaviour in particular. However, a number of theories are either highly follower driven or at least the follower has some influence on the leader, which has become more prevalent.

Those leadership theories that examine concepts such as attribution, the spreading of follower-to-follower influence stemming from charisma-based theories, self-managed team theories, attribution theories and leadership substitute concepts, all take into account the follower's role in influencing and explaining leadership behaviour in this class of theories.

To some extent those theories that have some kind of behavioural options in a grid, matrix or continuum of a participative nature, such as boss centred versus subordinate centred, the normative model, system 4, job centred versus employee centred, autocratic-democratic and initiating structure or consideration, also display varying levels of characteristics of follower-influenced theories.

The theories that are more leader oriented than follower oriented tend to be those that emphasise leader behaviour or style theory and personal attributes or traits. Examples of these types of theories include the behavioural choices in the leadership style theories that are more autocratically focused, such as initiating structure, production centred, and job centred. Some aspects of attribution theories such as the leader-focused elements of charismatic leadership theory or the cognitive resource theory and trait theory also fall into being leader oriented.

In addition, while not purely concentrated on leader characteristics, the theories that fall under the broad category of contingency-oriented theories such as Fiedler's LPC contingency theory, the path-goal theory and the situational leadership theory, lean more towards leader as opposed to follower characteristics.

Owing to the relationship of mutual influence, which is the cornerstone of the leader-member exchange leadership theory, elements that are both leader and follower focused are prevalent in this theory.

4.5.2 Prescriptive versus descriptive theories

The prescriptive theories of leadership (Luthans, 2005; 2010) provide a framework for what behaviours a leader should engage in to achieve effectiveness and the circumstances that arise calling for a particular choice in behaviour. The many leadership style theories, as well as charismatic and transformational leadership theory, can be considered prescriptive in nature.

By contrast, the descriptive leadership theories explain the reasons why leaders display certain behaviours in particular situations, and also describe the array of actions and the nature of leadership behaviour. The contingency leadership theories such as the LPC contingency theory, path-goal theory and situational leadership theory can all be regarded as descriptive theories.

However, according to Yukl (2002; 2011), it is necessary to point out that these leadership theory categories are not always distinct or separate, and as such may have characteristics of both a prescriptive and descriptive nature, which may sometimes overlap even though they may still be distinguishable.

4.5.3 Contingency versus universal theory

Theories that are described as contingency based (Yukl, 2002, 2011) provide an explanation for leadership behaviours relating to specific situations or circumstances applicable at a particular time and include; LPC contingency, path-goal and situational leadership theories.

Yukl (2002; 2011) postulated that the leadership theories categorised as universal include those that account for and can be explained as reflecting leadership behaviours that are relevant to any and all situations and conditions. All the leadership style, attribution and trait or characteristic theories fall into this category. The leadership theories that are classified and considered contingency and universal theories can be both of a prescriptive and descriptive nature as well (Yukl, 2002; 2011).

The prescriptive and descriptive nature of leadership theories in terms of their classification as contingency versus universal is depicted in Figure 4.4.

Figure 4.4

A Comparison of Universal versus Contingency Based Theories and Prescriptive Versus Descriptive Application

	Universal Based Theories	Contingency Based Theories
P R E S C R I P T I V E / D E S C R I P T I V E T H E O R I E S	Universal leadership theories	Universal leadership theories
	Personal characteristic trait category	Personal characteristic trait category
	Great man theory	Great man theory
	Trait theory	Trait theory
	Charismatic theory	Charismatic theory
	Cognitive resource theory	Cognitive resource theory
	Style/behavioural category	Style/behavioural category
	Boss versus subordinate centred	Boss versus subordinate centred
	Initiating structure versus consideration	Initiating structure versus consideration
	Autocratic versus democratic	Autocratic versus democratic
	Job versus employee centred	Job versus employee centred
	Concern for production versus people	Concern for production versus people
	Systems 4	Systems 4
	Normative model	Normative model
	Attribution category	Attribution category
	Charismatic theory	Charismatic theory
	Transformational theory	Transformational theory
	Implicit leadership theory	Implicit leadership theory
	Contingency-based theories	Contingency-based theories
	Contingency-oriented category	Contingency-oriented category
	LPC contingency theory	LPC contingency theory
	Situational theory	Situational theory
	Path-goal theory	Path-goal theory
	Cognitive resources theory	Cognitive resources theory
	Leader-member exchange theory	Leader-member exchange theory
	Personal characteristic trait category	Personal characteristic trait category
	Charismatic theory	Charismatic theory
	Cognitive resource theory	Cognitive resource theory
Hybrid-oriented category	Hybrid-oriented category	
Substitute theory	Substitute theory	

Source: Author

4.6 LEADERSHIP FROM A FUNCTIONAL AND DIMENSIONAL PERSPECTIVE

A review of the responsibilities of those in a leadership capacity is one method available to enhance one's knowledge of organisational leadership. The various methods to examine these responsibilities are discussed below.

4.6.1 Broad leadership functions

In an attempt to synthesise the concepts and practices associated with organisational leadership, Truskie (2002) postulated that a leader, regardless of his or her level of responsibility in an organisation (i.e. first-line supervisor, mid-level manager or senior manager), is involved in the following two broad functions:

Creating the organisational strategic direction. This function would entail establishing and communicating a vision, developing a mission, creating the values and ensuring that the business objectives are aligned with the vision, mission and values.

Ensuring and enhancing organisational effectiveness. Leaders must ensure that they draw upon and coordinate all of the human capital, material resources, information technology and both managerial and leadership talent to drive long-term organisational effectiveness and sustainability. One of the key functions (Madan & Jain, 2017; Tichy, 2002) leaders can perform to raise the performance level of their employees and, in turn, the effectiveness of the organisation, is to share their experience-based knowledge through teachable moments.

4.6.2 Specific functions of leadership

One approach recommended by Hitt (1988) for analysing the leadership role and the importance it has in a company encompasses the following specific and delineated functions which, when executed appropriately can have a positive impact on organisational effectiveness and productivity:

- 1) creating the organisational vision
- 2) developing an effective team
- 3) clarifying the organisation's values
- 4) positioning resources
- 5) communicating effectively and often
- 6) empowering others
- 7) coaching
- 8) measuring

Other researchers such as Mintzberg (2009; 2011) have suggested that leadership is part of a larger managerial model comprising three planes or dimensions, as explained below.

Information plane. This consists of communication in all its forms and the dissemination, control and framing of information.

People plane. The emphasis here is on the leadership of an organisation and encompasses a diverse but coordinated group of functions associated with motivating followers to achieve organisational objectives and sustainable organisational effectiveness.

Action plane. Here the focus is on the actual doing or execution and accomplishment of the organisational mission, values and objectives.

Mintzberg (2009; 2011) stated that we should expect managers to be leaders of an organisation and recognise the display of leadership as contributing to effective management performance. These three interdependent areas work in harmony to achieve managerial effectiveness. Mintzberg also summarised the application of leadership and management in the workplace as historically having been under-led and over-managed, and currently being over-led and under-managed.

In a frequently cited study (Kumar, 2015; Mintzberg, 2007) of the functions of managerial work in which leadership is a fundamental factor, it was proposed that someone in a formal organisational capacity of authority performs the three interdependent roles identified below.

Interpersonal role. According to Kumar (2015) and Mintzberg (2007), there are three key elements which include being a *Figurehead* for the organisation, serving as a leader of employees and functioning as a liaison with internal and external stakeholders.

Informational role. Here the individual is concerned with the management of information and communication by performing the three key functions of monitoring and disseminating information throughout his or her area of responsibility, and representing the organisation to the external community as a spokesperson (Kumar, 2015; Mintzberg, 2007).

Decisional role. The functions embedded in this role include the following (Kumar, 2015, Mintzberg, 2007): acting as an entrepreneur of the organisation; functioning as the disturbance handler, resource allocator of capital, people and other assets in order to achieve organisational goals; and being a negotiator.

4.6.3 Principles of leadership

In a research study (Baswedan, 2010; Murphy, 1996) involving 1 029 leaders it was determined that they had the following things in common (referred to as principles):

- pragmatism
- commitment
- strategic humility
- sense of responsibility
- being motivated by achievement
- being customer focused
- developing optimism

4.6.4 Leading versus managing

It has been reported (Bârgău, 2015; Church, 1998; Kotter, 2008) that the lack of definitional clarity exacerbates the already existing difficulties in one's understanding of what differentiates leadership from management, as well as what binds these two constructs and practices. The research (Kent, 2005) contains discrepancies and confusion regarding the distinctions between leading and managing, which is only exacerbated when the terms are used interchangeably in the literature.

However, despite the efforts to differentiate between leadership and management functions, it should be acknowledged that anyone in a leadership capacity should generally spend some time performing work that also encompasses managerial functions. Also, managers should be called upon to provide sound leadership for their particular work group. In order for the leadership factor to materialise as a differentiating factor for the benefit of the organisation and its employees, leaders need to engage more of their energies in leading and spend less time managing.

One of the primary factors in creating the type of organisation that can excel in comparison to its marketplace competition is effective leadership. It has been suggested (Khan & Anjum, 2013; Menguc, Auh, & Shih, 2007) that transformational leadership and market orientation competencies are competitive advantages in the marketplace.

A key to accomplishing the transition from managing to leading is by empowering employees, thereby enlisting them in the battle for organisational excellence and superiority in the marketplace. An additional benefit of employee empowerment strategies is that they may serve to improve job satisfaction, although some level of job satisfaction may need to pre-exist

as a type of prerequisite for implementing an employee empowerment strategy to ensure that the effort has a chance during its initiation stage of implementation.

According to Kotter (1996; 2008a), the most successful organisations are those in which senior leadership teams devote more of their time to leading than managing, and creating the type of culture that empowers employees to tackle the day-to-day self- or team-directed management of their areas of responsibility.

4.7 LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT IMPACT ON LEADER EFFECTIVENESS

As stated by Day (2011) and Fulmer and Goldsmith (2001), if leaders are to contribute to the achievement of organisational effectiveness, then the senior executives in conjunction with the human resources department must ensure that their leadership development strategies are properly funded strategically and operationally, and that the design of programmes supports the quest for organisational effectiveness.

Leadership development can also facilitate change and enhance the productivity of the work group for which the leader is responsible by improving his or her capabilities as a leader of the group. Part of the goal in leadership development programmes is to enable the participant to become a successful leader of the organisation he or she is responsible for, and a valued corporate member. This can be done by utilising the increased learning and specific skills enhancements to drive the organisation's productive capacity, profitability and long-term sustainability (Van Velsor, McCauley, & Ruderman, 2010; Van Velsor, Moxley, & Bunker, 2004).

4.7.1 Strategic organisational leadership development

If leadership development experiences and programmes are to have a positive influence on organisational effectiveness, then these efforts should be linked to organisational vision, mission and concrete business objectives. To this end (Day, 2011; Fulmer & Goldsmith, 2001), leadership development programmes need to be proactive and aligned to the business model and adjusted to reflect the realities of current business culture and climate, as well as environmental conditions.

According to Day (2011) and Fulmer and Bleak (2008), in order to achieve organisational effectiveness and success through the role of effective leaders supported by leadership development programmes, the programmes should not be a one-size-fits-all cookie-cutter approach if there is to be a real impact on organisational effectiveness.

Much can be gained in furthering one's knowledge of what is effective leadership by understanding leadership traits and styles and tailoring the appropriate leadership development programmes in accordance with those styles and traits. However, it is essential (Avolio, Avey, & Quisenberry, 2010; Day, Fleenor, Atwater, Sturm, & McKee, 2014; Ulrich & Smallwood, 2003; Ulrich, Zenger, & Smallwood, 1999; Zenger & Folkman, 2002) that the knowledge gained and organisational learning that occurs during participation in these programmes, should be translated into leadership behaviours linked to the desired business outcomes for achieving organisational effectiveness.

An organisation's ability to sustain long-term organisational effectiveness is influenced by its commitment to the development of leadership talent in both its current and future leaders (Avolio et al., 2010; Day et al., 2014; Fulmer & Bleak, 2008).

Organisations that continue to outperform their competitors and achieve or exceed financial and other objectives, will typically demonstrate robust leadership development plans and strategies that are consistently implemented throughout the organisation (Avolio et al., 2010; Day, 2011; Fulmer & Goldsmith, 2001).

As reported by Day (2011) Salob and Greenslade (2005) and McCall (2010), the companies rated in the top 20 in terms of leadership development tied their development plans to business strategic directions and plans. Organisations have also utilised more appropriate means for measuring the effect of leadership development programmes.

A case in point is the report in the Corporate University Exchange's Fifth Annual Benchmarking Report (2004) that 70% of corporate universities assess the effect of leadership development programmes on customer service and service and product quality, while 48% measure the impact on profitability, 51% percent on revenues achieved and 49% on sales effectiveness.

Companies that are deemed organisations that exemplify best practices in the area of leadership development (Avolio et al., 2010; Day, 2011; Fulmer & Bleak, 2008) tend to link their leadership development processes, strategies and programmes to stated business objectives in order to ensure a high-quality leadership team capable of driving long-term organisational success.

In the strategic development and design of specific leadership programmes linked to business direction and plans, it is advantageous to incorporate the experiences, perspectives and philosophy of senior executives of the organisation into the actual programmes in order to provide learning opportunities and enrich the participants' educational experiences.

Developing future leaders is essential to the sustained competitiveness of an organisation. The efforts to develop future leaders should not be limited to only a chosen few, but they should be part of a strategic plan to enhance the entire organisation's human capital through leadership development.

Easterby-Smith and Lyles (2011a) and Vicere and Fulmer (1998) recommended that organisations invest in strategic leadership development to enhance leader effectiveness and organisational success and competitiveness by creating knowledge-based learning organisations through the deployment of learning laboratories.

Leaders have a key role to play in creating and supporting an environment of organisational learning, which is essential to sustainable organisational viability and performance (Argote & Miron-Spektor, 2011; Easterby-Smith & Lyles, 2011a; Yukl, 2009). It is through continuous organisational learning and a strategic leadership development culture that the organisation and its leaders build a knowledge-based organisation more capable of providing the leadership necessary for growth and to respond to changes in their environment.

A key focus through the use of learning laboratories and the linking of leadership development and organisational strategy is to create a competitive leadership development advantage that can lead to improved leadership performance which, in turn, may enhance organisational competitiveness (Easterby-Smith & Lyles, 2011b; Vicere & Fulmer, 1998). The emphasis, according to Collins (2001) and Kaiser and Curphy (2013), of leadership development programmes of the future should shift towards objectives of improved organisational performance.

One of the primary responsibilities of leaders is to focus on investing, nurturing and maximising the development of the human or intellectual capital of the organisation in the same way as they have historically focused on financial resources in order to gain a competitive advantage and drive organisational effectiveness.

In developing and using human assets and intellectual capital properly, leaders bring with them particularly their leadership experiences in improving organisational effectiveness and contribute to ensuring the viability and success of their organisations in the future.

4.7.2 Leadership development through organisational learning

When senior leaders make themselves available as teachers to less experienced staff in leadership positions they create an organisational learning environment. In this capacity, a leader can take advantage of teachable moments and events (Jenaabadi, Aziz, Nejad, & Esmaili, 2015; Tichy, 2002) to create organisational learning opportunities in order to develop

a competent, motivated and cohesive work group capable of outperforming their competitors and contributing to organisational effectiveness.

When organisational leaders do not make the most of the wealth of experience-based knowledge they have to share during teachable moments, they deprive their members of valuable lessons contained in these experiences (Jenaabadi et al., 2015; Tichy, 1997; 2002). They also severely limit (by design or neglect) opportunities to expand the capabilities of their employees and organisations to grow and succeed in facing similar future challenges and their own effectiveness as leaders.

Organisational leaders who incorporate learning experiences and teachable moments into their repertoire of leadership responsibilities integrate organisational and business outcomes with the development of their human resources to the benefit of the organisation (Jenaabadi et al., 2015; Tichy, 2002). This is in contrast to those who elect to focus on the business side only to the exclusion of employee growth opportunities, and hence the leadership required to ensure true and sustained organisational effectiveness.

Match (2015) and Schriesheim (2003) have suggested that while leadership research has relevance for leadership development, researchers and managers have contradictory objectives – researchers are interested in building theory, while managers are more concerned with the practical application of leadership research in the workplace.

4.7.3 Six passages of leadership development

Charan, Drotter, and Noel (2001; 2010) proposed a pipeline approach as a method of developing leadership talent in the organisation. Here the identification and development of leadership talent occurs through the use of a six-step passage approach that begins with entrance into one's first leadership position and culminating in the most senior leadership position in the organisation.

This six-phase approach (Charan et al., 2001; 2010) also calls for the measurement of progress at each of the six passages in terms of both the performance demonstrated and the assessment of competencies both developed and strengthened during each of the six passages.

Charan et al.'s (2001; 2010) proposed six-step passage approach is explained below.

- 1) *From managing self to managing others.* This is the initial leadership position where the person goes from individual contributor, often superstar status, to managing other individual contributors.

- 2) *From managing others to managing other managers.* Here the leader transitions from managing individual contributors to managing other managers who themselves are managing individual contributors
- 3) *From managing managers to becoming a functional manager.* In this step, the manager progresses from managing other managers to managing functional areas that may include not only functions in which they have direct experience, but also possibly functions in which they have had no previous involvement.
- 4) *From functional manager to business manager.* The advancement here results in going from a functional manager to a more strategic line role with greater responsibility for profit and loss. In the business manager role, the person may now be a leader over others who were once peers when he or she functioned in previous capacities.
- 5) *From business manager to group manager.* Here the leader shifts from leading a singular business unit to multiple business units all with profit and loss responsibility. The leader needs to be skilful in articulating a clear vision and leading the organisation through change.
- 6) *From group manager to enterprise manager.* This phase is characterised as having a global visionary and strategic leadership skills responsibility over the entire enterprise.

4.8 PERSPECTIVES ON LEADERSHIP AND ITS EFFECTIVENESS

The ultimate importance of leadership research is the applicability of the findings to the workplace and the various leadership structures and situations that present themselves in such a way that they improve the performance of the individual members and the organisation collectively through leadership effectiveness.

4.8.1 Defining leadership effectiveness

While there are many perspectives on how to define leadership effectiveness, due largely to the various prisms through which researchers perceive the concept, there are basic principles in defining the concept that most would probably agree on.

According to Yukl (2002; 2011), the framework for a definition that would most commonly describe leadership effectiveness centres on the notion of the impact of a leader's behaviour on the organisation's employees and external stakeholders.

The results of sustainable leadership effectiveness can generally be expressed and evaluated in terms of the following (Yukl, 2002; 2011).

- employee satisfaction in general and with the leadership specifically
- organisational performance measured by financial, nonfinancial, internal/external criteria, and through the commitment of stakeholders.
- management of organisational change
- attracting, motivating and retaining staff
- team respect and admiration for their leader
- leaders standing with the senior management of the organisation

Yukl (2002; 2011) stated that organisational performance outcomes are usually considered to have the greatest significance as a means of defining and assessing leadership effectiveness in an organisation.

Hitt (1988) suggested that a baseline approach to assessing leadership effectiveness according to the functional method for examining the leadership role, would include evaluating effectiveness in terms of the following three events:

- 1) Performing the eight key functions of leadership successfully would likely generate results.
- 2) The results achieved successfully by performing these eight leadership functions would be accomplished in a fashion acceptable to the organisation.
- 3) Achievement of results in an acceptable manner should be both short and long term.

Other researchers (Eisenbeiss, Van Knippenberg, & Fahrbach, 2015) have suggested organisational performance measures and the assessment of ethical leadership.

In a study by Murphy (1996), 1,029 individuals were identified through a process involving inputs from peers and subordinates whom they considered the most effective leaders in the organisation. These individuals were then studied through psychological inventories, assessment methods, work productivity, customer satisfaction surveys and performance measures, resulting in the following common characteristics:

- achieving superior levels of performance
- attaining superior levels of customer satisfaction
- generating high levels of productivity
- reaching outstanding levels of financial performance

Other researchers have posited the use of Kouzes and Posner (2017) 360 degree feedback as a method of assessing leadership effectiveness.

4.8.2 An approach for assessing leadership effectiveness

A strategy for assessing leadership effectiveness (Carter, Sullivan, Goldsmith, Ulrich, & Smallwood, 2013; Ulrich & Smallwood, 2007a) describes the following equation along with two broad and opposing measurement approaches:

Leadership effectiveness = efficacy x awareness

Concrete return method. This strategy (Carter et al. 2013; Ulrich & Smallwood, 2007a) attempts to assess the return on investment in terms of leader effectiveness resulting from participation in a leadership development programme. The strategy behind this approach (Ulrich & Smallwood) is not to assess the effectiveness of leadership development from the perspective of what the candidate has learned, but from how effective the participant performs in the leadership role as a result of participating in leadership development programmes.

Competency method. Here the approach to measuring leadership effectiveness is focused on leadership competencies. The idea (Carter et al., 2013; Ulrich & Smallwood, 2007b) is to first identify the specific leadership effectiveness competencies required, after which the leader's performance can be assessed and measured against them to determine where competency deficiencies exist, and then develop specific actions to address the deficiencies and improve effectiveness in those areas.

4.8.3 Five practices of leadership effectiveness

Much has been written on the subject of leadership effectiveness, ranging from ideas and definitions as to what makes a leader effective to the desired behaviours of an effective leader. One of the areas of leadership written about on the topic of effective leadership can be posed in the form of the following question: What are the practices associated with effective leadership?

One of the more interesting and instrumental answers to this question can be found in Kouzes and Posner's (2002; 2017) five practices of exemplary leadership, which are highlighted below.

Model the way. According to Kouzes and Posner (2002; 2017), leaders apply this practice by clarifying and communicating their values, beliefs, principles and standards that they hold themselves to in all their behaviours as leaders, and their expectations of the same from their employees. In order to be successful at modelling

the way, leaders should first engage in a self-exploration to ensure that the beliefs and values they are trying to model are what they truly believe in, and that they are capable of demonstrating this through their behaviour to members of the organisation.

In expressing their own belief and value system, it is imperative for leaders to demonstrate that what they are expressing are their own beliefs and values, particularly when conveying messages from their superiors, or else to reconcile any differences to avoid being insincere or inconsistent.

Inspire a shared vision. The goal of this practice (Kouzes & Posner, 2002; 2017) is to inspire the vision of the organisation's purpose for all members to share. This will help facilitate the embracing of the vision by members of the organisation in such a way that they experience the vision that is consistent with their own belief system and as if they had created the vision on their own. The buy-in should be so strong that it is transparent in terms of who initiated the shared vision.

Also, by acknowledging and rewarding employee behaviour that has demonstrated alignment with the shared vision, as well as the values and belief system, the leader will also strengthen the employees' effort to continue to embrace and be committed to the shared vision in the future.

Challenge the process. Taking the initiative as a leader to bring the best out in oneself as well as others requires challenging the process (Kouzes & Posner, 2002, 2017). By seizing the initiative to change by innovating, creating and seeking the thoughts and insights of others, leaders challenge and expand the boundaries of the process for themselves and others, not in an episodic manner, but in a continuous journey (Ashkenas et al., 2015; Ashkenas, Ulrich, Jick, & Kerr, 2002).

In seeking out opportunities to enrich the organisational experiences for themselves and others (Kouzes & Posner, 2002; 2017; Posner, 2010) leaders create challenges which, in turn, can become enriching in terms of personal growth to those involved and also from the standpoint of the organisation's advancement. To this end, leaders often have to confront conditions of adversity and extreme complexity in order to stretch and challenge the process for themselves, their employees and the organisation.

Enable others to act. According to Kouzes and Posner (2002; 2017), when leaders engage in this exemplary leadership practice, they empower members of their team

and collaborate with peers by demonstrating behaviours that elevate people and evoke a diversity of ideas and solutions to problems based on a spectrum of personal experience, not the leaders' own frame of reference.

In enabling others to act, a leader strengthens the bonds between participating members of the organisation, and in so doing, solidifies the mutual trust between individuals so necessary to succeed in the increasingly fragmented work environments requiring so much effective interdependent relationships.

Encourage the heart. This final practice of exemplary leadership emphasises the need to demonstrate real commitment to employees. Kouzes and Posner (2002; 2017) suggested that by creating a thoughtful organisation in which people are recognised in a heartfelt and personalised public manner, the leader establishes the type of culture conducive to a satisfying environment.

When leaders are viewed as a friend or ally, are seen as a positive role model who show genuine concern for their employees, and hold and convey high confidence and expectations for their employees, they create the type of climate in which an employee is eager to enter and work daily.

4.8.4 Emerging versus experienced leader effectiveness

Effective leaders have a track record of using their ambition to serve their customers and employees, and in the process create sustainable organisations. Today's leaders need to be introspective and willing to use their on-the-job leadership experiences to further the effectiveness of their team members and organisation (Tjosvold & Tjosvold, 2000; Zhang, Cao, & Tjosvold, 2011).

Bethel-Murray (1997) and Tjosvold, Wong, and Feng Chen (2014) proposed that to this end, leaders need the qualities of sensitivity and receptivity to the possibility of changing their own views and direction if others' feedback and opinions merit such a change in course, in order to maximise the potential of achieving organisational success. While highly experienced leaders who have adopted a more centralised decision-making practice may not want to alter course based on team feedback, they are more likely to be comfortable with change from necessity (Tjosvold & Tjosovld, 2000; Zhang et al., 2010). The reason for this is their real-world learned leadership experiences and the emphasis on the need to achieve organisational growth, effectiveness and sustainability.

However, it is emerging leaders who may be more reticent to accept the inputs from their team members to change direction or a decision for fear that it may be viewed as weakness, or they may perceive it as an actual challenge to their leadership skills.

In essence, for the emerging leader to continue the course that may have been set by current peers in leadership positions, or his or her predecessors in a previous generation of leadership, according to Tjosvold and Tjosvold (2000) and Zhang et al. (2010), it is essential to evolve and maintain effective teams who may be equally responsible for achieving long-term organisational effectiveness.

Fostering and leading an effective team-based organisation can become a differentiating factor in the development and attainment of an enduring competitive advantage which maximises organisational effectiveness (Tjosvold & Tjosvold, 2000; Zhang et al., 2010).

4.8.5 Leadership renewal and improved effectiveness

In order to practise effective leadership in the pursuit of organisational success, leaders must ensure their own vitality, enthusiasm and satisfaction by effectively guiding their employees and organisations towards growth and success.

When leaders do not attend to their own ongoing needs in order to maximise their leadership effectiveness, this can have an adverse effect on their employees. The end result may manifest itself in an ineffective underperforming organisation and the loss of talented employees.

These leaders become disenchanted, and this feeling, expressed through negative and detrimental behaviours, can extend to and permeate the entire organisation and the employees the leaders are responsible for.

In order to avoid such a situation or to rebound from it, leaders must go through a period of renewal, which encompasses a three-dimensional process as explained below (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005; 2013).

Mindfulness. According to Boyatzis and McKee (2005; 2013), this is the cognitive ability to exercise self-awareness and to better comprehend one's inner being, as well as the activities and events of the greater world around one. Mindfulness allows one to grow in terms of understanding oneself and the people one works with and to gain insight into oneself and the people around one in terms of aspirations and wishes.

Hope. Boyatzis and McKee (2005; 2013) defined the concept and feeling of hope as the enthusiasm and excitement people experience emotionally regarding satisfaction with their present situation as well as expectations for the future. The benefits of hope permeate individuals' consciousness and intellectual pursuits as well as their relationship with others. Hope is a cornerstone of the school of thought referred to as positivism.

Compassion. Boyatzis and McKee (2005; 2013) postulated that this dimension reflects an individual's demonstration of real interest in, concern for and empathy towards others, as well as the motivation to incorporate this compassion into their thoughts, actions and behaviours. Leaders who develop and demonstrate this compassion for their employees generally receive goodwill and commitment in return from their employees.

When leaders internalise these three dimensions in a process of self-renewal in order to enhance their own leadership behaviour and effectiveness, as well as the ultimate success of the organisation, they are practising resonant leadership (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005; 2013).

4.8.6 Psychological process and leadership effectiveness

One way of examining leadership effectiveness is through a psychological process (Pearman, 1998; Waldman, Balthazard, & Peterson, 2011). In expanding one's understanding of leadership effectiveness, and thinking about it as a process with a psychological basis for which most individuals are hardwired, it can then be regarded as something that anyone charged with the responsibility of achieving results through others can adopt.

The thinking proposed here is that individuals for the most part are prepackaged, that is, they are equipped with the raw materials to be a leader. However, what differentiates effective from ineffective leaders, according to Pearman, (1998) and Waldman et al. (2011), is the way they think, process information, perceive themselves and the perceptions they have of what others may think of them.

Researchers such as Sorcher and Brant (2002) have suggested that the majority of the characteristics of effective leadership are hardwired in individuals prior to the age of early to mid-twenties. Other researchers such as Waldman et al. (2011) have also suggested that not only are leadership characteristics hardwired in individuals, but this is particularly true in the case of inspiration leadership characteristics.

Pearman (1998) believed that this psychological process interfaces with the following dimensions of leadership to determine the effectiveness of a leader in dealing with his or her employees and the organisation as a whole:

- communication
- problem solving
- learning and development
- team building
- ethical behaviour

This is a perspective worthy of consideration in the context of enhancing one's knowledge of the psychological process that may be involved in identifying the leadership effectiveness cognitive processes manifested in behaviour.

4.9 LEADERSHIP STRATEGIES AND ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

This section contains a discussion of the various perspectives on leadership, ranging from strategies to specific practices, and their relationship with organisational effectiveness.

4.9.1 Results-based leadership

An approach to leadership referred to as results-based leadership (Ulrich & Smallwood, 2003; 2012a; Ulrich et al., 1999) focuses on four specific areas of the impact on organisational effectiveness (financial outcomes such as profits or the bottom line), which are explained below.

4.9.1.1 Organisation

This aspect of results-based leadership (Ulrich & Smallwood, 2003; 2012a; Ulrich et al., 1999) refers to an organisation's collective resources and the importance of its effectiveness to ensure that the various and diverse parts in it work in harmony. The opposite of this is victories by some units of the organisation at the expense of other parts. The leader of an organisation needs to harness this collective strength or organisational capital to ensure that the opportunities to attain organisational effectiveness are maximised.

4.9.1.2 Customer-focused leadership

According to Ulrich and Smallwood (2003; 2012a) and Ulrich et al. (1999), when organisational leaders focus on customers by understanding their short- and long-term needs, building trusting relationships that function as business partnerships, and most of all meeting customers' needs for top-quality products and services, they contribute to sustainable organisational effectiveness and viability.

4.9.1.3 Employees

Ulrich and Smallwood (2003; 2012a) and Ulrich et al. (1999) suggested that leaders who emphasise developing the talents of the individuals in their organisations by enhancing their knowledge, intellectual capital and experiences, build the organisation's inventory of capabilities, and in so doing improve organisational effectiveness.

4.9.1.4 Investors

According to Ulrich and Smallwood (2003; 2012a) and Ulrich et al. (1999), the role that leaders play in discharging their responsibilities to keep their organisation's financial health and growth prospects strong, contributes to achieving and maintaining organisational effectiveness. This occurs by satisfying the array of investors and equity holders through share price growth, dividend payments, return on equity and return on investment.

The results-based leadership approach developed by Ulrich and Smallwood (2003; 2012b) and Ulrich et al. (1999), with its focus on the four above-mentioned areas, provides an operational framework for an organisation's leadership to emphasise in its vision statement, mission, goals and objectives, and communication with its employees and external stakeholders, in order to drive home their importance in attaining long-term organisational effectiveness.

4.9.2 Leadership effectiveness during paradigm shifts

One of the key behaviours necessary to enhance leadership effectiveness during the many business paradigm shifts that occur with regularity throughout an organisation's various stages of development, focuses on the adaptability displayed by a leader.

It is imperative for leaders wishing to achieve organisational effectiveness to be willing and able to adjust their thinking and approaches to the organisational challenges they confront. This would apply even to the extent of behaving and leading in a different way to what has proven to be successful in the past if the paradigm or business conditions and realities have changed.

Hamel and Prahalad (2000) postulated that a leader must engage in a cognitive process that questions, say, whether he or she is too cautious and traditional, when instead he or she actually needs to adopt more of a risk-taking posture in decision making when challenged by a paradigm shift. This leader may need to be more proactive to prevent issues from arising when facing a paradigm shift as opposed to merely responding to issues that materialised, which could have been avoided by initially taking more initiative.

Also, a leader may need to mount a challenge to conventional wisdom in particular circumstances regarding changes in the business model by adopting a more contrarian point of view instead of following a course of action more likely associated with general consensus or groupthink.

The possibility of achieving leadership effectiveness (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2005; 2013; Hamel & Prahalad, 2000) is increased when a leader develops open-mindedness about his or her own beliefs and thoughts, thus paving the way for greater adaptability towards the type of decision making culminating in organisational success.

According to Hamel and Prahalad (2000), it may be more likely that organisations with performance shortfalls and that fail in their mission, have leaders who are rigid and cling to predictable past behaviour patterns irrespective of situations, instead of following a more adaptive approach.

It can be concluded from the literature review that there is an integrated relationship between leadership and organisational effectiveness and that the research aim of examining the impact of leadership on organisational effectiveness has been achieved in Chapter 4.

4.10 LEADERSHIP IMPACT ON ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

A company's ability to achieve and sustain organisational effectiveness is largely dependent on the way in which people in management carry out their leadership responsibilities (Boyatzis & McKee, 2005; 2013; Boyatzis, McKee, & Goleman, 2002). The approach and strategies leaders deploy in selecting, empowering and rewarding their employee teams in harmony with their use of other company resources, contributes to organisational effectiveness.

Leaders in organisations are often reluctant or incapable of making the commitment to alter their leadership approach and behaviour to align with the requirements necessary to enhance organisational effectiveness.

4.10.1 Transforming leaders and organisational effectiveness

According to Bass and Riggio (2010), it may be conventional wisdom that leaders are able to evolve from the learning that occurs through leadership development programmes and practical experience gained on the job, to become the type of leaders who can transform their companies to facilitate improvements in organisational effectiveness. Behavioural training (Bass, 2008; Murphy & Reichard, 2012) can be used to develop transformational leadership skills. However, Miles (1997) has suggested that many leaders fail to make the transition from

leadership development programmes and experience to transformational leaders who contribute to organisational effectiveness.

A study by Beer, Eisenstadt, and Spector (1990) supporting this belief, reported that executives deemed important in leading transformation to improve organisational effectiveness, who opposed change and were replaced, represented approximately 50% of all the executives studied whose companies successfully achieved the transformation to greater effectiveness

However, replaced executives in the same study (Beer et al. (1990) represented only 17% of those executives whose companies were unsuccessful in transforming and achieving organisational effectiveness.

Executives who do not embrace the transformation required to drive change and improvements in organisational effectiveness often do not exert the type of leadership required. This applies especially in the areas of communication, teamwork and empowerment necessary to create the culture required to foster greater success and effectiveness by the organisation (Burke, 2008; Conger & Riggio, 2012; Murphy & Riggio, 2003; Nadler, Shaw, & Walton, 1994).

Adopting a transformational leadership approach (Bass & Riggio, 2010; Ulrich & Wiersema, 1989; Zhu, Chew, & Spangler, 2005) can help to enhance organisational performance and capability to achieve long-term effectiveness.

4.10.2 Leadership, culture and organisational effectiveness

Some of the earliest studies (Pettigrew, 1979) on organisational effectiveness resulted in findings that demonstrated the importance of leadership practices, particularly in the development of culture, as supporting organisational effectiveness and high levels of performance. Other studies (e.g. Ogbonna & Harris, 2000) indicated that the impact of leadership on organisational performance is mediated by the type of organisational culture, with leadership being linked to competitive as well as innovative culture, resulting in a positive influence on organisational performance. More recent research (e.g. Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2011; Murphy & Riggio, 2012) has also supported transformational leadership practices with regard to a development culture having an impact on organisational effectiveness. In addition, a study by Taylor, Cornelius, and Colvin (2014) reported that visionary leadership style had the greatest effect on organisational effectiveness.

One researcher (Truskie, 2002) indicated that leaders who make it a priority to be intimately involved in and are successful at developing an integrated and balanced culture, are more

adept at managing change and achieving sustained high levels of organisational performance. Others, such as Hartnell, Ou, and Kinicki (2011) supported the positive impact of an integrated and balanced culture on organisational performance and effectiveness.

Regarding the impact of leadership on organisational effectiveness, Denison (1996; 2000) posited that the greatest effect that a leader can have on organisational performance and effectiveness is through the leadership role he or she fulfils in successfully creating an organisational culture attuned to the attainment of long-term organisational effectiveness. According to Denison, Nieminen, and Kotrba (2014), the reliability and validity of culture diagnostic surveys are critical for assessing the true impact of culture on organisational effectiveness.

4.10.3 Visionary leadership and organisational effectiveness

Nanus (1995) suggested that one of the primary areas in which a leader can influence organisational effectiveness is in the role he or she plays in crafting and maintaining a vision that motivates employees to perform at the highest levels possible in making this vision a reality. Research by Taylor et al. (2014) supported the positive impact of visionary leadership on organisational effectiveness.

Leaders can successfully motivate their followers through visionary leadership by emphasising the attainment of satisfying outcomes, as well as motivating followers to avoid dissatisfying results (Stam, Van Knippenberg, & Wisse, 2010a). According to Goleman, Boyatzis, and McKee (2002), visionary leadership develops and expands the emotional dimension of organisational climate and is catalyst in driving change and transformation

Leaders with hands-on involvement in a well-developed, articulated and executed vision can have a positive impact on inspiring employees at all levels of the organisation to achieve excellence in performance and organisational effectiveness. A leader at the helm of a properly designed and implemented vision can influence the renewal of an organisation that has faltered or has been unable to manage change successfully enough to sustain organisational effectiveness.

Stam et al. (2010a) postulated that in order for a leader to gain the commitment of his followers, the organisation's vision must be communicated and reinforced in order to develop among followers an ideal image of themselves which, in turn, serves as a motivator to make the image a reality, and in so doing achieve the vision.

According to Yukl (2008; 2012), the cooperation, adaptability and flexibility of leaders at all levels is essential to achieve effective performance. It is essential that leaders at all levels

participate in developing, embracing, supporting and implementing organisational change and the organisation's vision to ensure its successful implementation (Burke, 2008; Leavitt, 1986; Murphy & Riggio, 2012). This is most necessary for leaders at the mid-level, especially in medium and large organisations, as they are the conduit between the senior leaders and the majority of other lower-level management and nonmanagement employees.

4.10.4 Leadership, employee involvement and effectiveness

Most efforts to enhance organisational effectiveness involve implementing change strategies. These strategies are best developed and implemented through the engagement of all employees in this change process. In so doing, the efforts to improve organisational effectiveness are operationalised through these change strategies in both a top-down and bottom-up approach. This change process, which engages all employees, creates what is generally considered a high involvement organisation.

A number of researchers (Dobre, 2013; Lawler, 1992; Lawler & Worley, 2011; Riordan, Vandenberg, & Richardson, 2005; Wood, Van Veldhoven, Croon, & De Menezes, 2012) have posited that when leaders in the organisation enhance employee engagement and involvement, they facilitate the creation of individuals and work teams who become aligned with these change strategies, which are an integral part of driving organisational effectiveness.

Leaders play a key role in creating these high involvement organisations to drive organisational change and attain the desired improvements in organisational effectiveness. They can achieve this by ensuring that the business objectives are communicated thoroughly and repeatedly, and by inviting the high involvement organisation teams to participate in the formulation of the business objectives.

Research (Albrecht, Bakker, Gruman, Macey, & Saks, 2015; Beer, Eisenstat et al. 1990; Hartnell, Ou, & Kinicki, 2011; Lawler, 2006; Messersmith, Patel, Lepak, & Gould-Williams, 2011; Mohrman, Mohrman, Ledford, Cummings, & Lawler, 1989) has supported the role an organisation plays in introducing and communicating a well-articulated business rationale to drive change strategies through participation of high involvement teams in order to attain organisational effectiveness.

An empirical study by Riordan et al. (2005) of the relationship between an employee involvement climate and organisational effectiveness in the insurance industry indicated that organisations with perceived high levels of an employee involvement climate were positively related to organisational effectiveness measurements of employee morale, financial performance and turnover.

A research study by Vandenberg, Richardson, and Eastman (1999) using a second-order latent variable approach involving 3 570 participants in 49 different organisations, as well as a structural model of higher-order influences, found that high involvement work teams and processes were positively impacted by organisational practices. This, in turn, had a positive influence on organisational effectiveness measured in terms of return on equity (ROE) and employee turnover.

According to Lawler (1992) and Lawler and Worley (2011), it is necessary for organisations to identify, support and develop those individuals who will be adept as leaders in leading the type of change strategies and creation of the high involvement organisation that will increase organisational effectiveness. Leaders can have a specific impact in the financial performance area of organisational effectiveness through efficiency, adaptability, maximum deployment of human capital and supportive leadership behaviours, organisational structural issues and management programmes (Lawler & Worley, 2011; Yukl, 2008; 2012).

The research indicates (Hogan & Kaiser, 2005) that leaders can influence organisational effectiveness and outcomes through their influence over others.

It can be concluded from the literature review that there is an integrated relationship between leadership and organisational effectiveness and that the research aim of examining the impact of leadership on organisational effectiveness has been achieved in Chapter 4.

4.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented a comprehensive review of the subject of organisational leadership. An in-depth discussion of the definitional framework of organisational leadership was provided as a background for further discussion. The definition of transformational leadership in particular, which is key to the discussion on organisational effectiveness, was reviewed.

The conceptual foundation of organisational leadership was explained from the perspective of the four categories of dyadic, organisational, intra-individual and group processes. Leadership theories were compared from the three main variable perspectives of leader characteristics, follower profile and situational factors. In addition, the various paradigms, namely behaviour, power and influence, trait, situational and integrative, were highlighted by examining the leadership theory variables.

Common research themes including decision making, influence and relationship building emerging from the convergence of leadership theories were discussed. This was followed by an in-depth overview of the leadership theories and research presented in the literature and

categorised as characteristic or trait, behavioural/style, contingency and attribution-based theories.

A model was identified for examining the broad spectrum of organisational leadership theories contained in the literature, along a continuum that included leader- versus follower-centred theories, prescriptive versus descriptive theories and contingency versus universal theories.

Various functional and dimensional perspectives on organisational leadership in terms of broad and specific aspects as well as principles of leadership were explained. Leading versus managing was compared and the similarities and contrasts explained.

The relationship and impact of leadership development on actual leader effectiveness was examined. This was followed by a review of the strategic significance of leadership development and the role of the learning organisation, as well as the research on leadership development and its impact on leader effectiveness.

Perspectives on leadership and its effectiveness, starting with the key dimensions for defining leadership effectiveness, were explained. The topic of leadership effectiveness from a functional perspective was also covered. A competency and concrete return method was explored, along with a presentation of exemplary practices of leadership effectiveness. The topic of emerging and experienced leader effectiveness, as well as the importance of leadership renewal, was explored.

Leadership strategies for enhancing organisational performance were identified. A results-based leadership methodology covering the key aspects of organisation, customers, employees and investors, was examined along with the importance of preserving leadership effectiveness during paradigm shifts.

In conclusion, the impact of leadership on organisational effectiveness was discussed. The discussion included the following topics: transformational leadership and organisational effectiveness; the impact of leadership and culture on organisational success; the role of visionary leadership in organisational performance; and the relationship between leadership, employee involvement and organisational effectiveness.

The next chapter deals with customer satisfaction and its relationship with leadership and employee satisfaction, and its role in contributing to organisational effectiveness.

CHAPTER 5

CUSTOMER SATISFACTION

5.1 INTRODUCTION TO CUSTOMER SATISFACTION

Before one can attempt to articulate successfully what the meaning of customer satisfaction is, it is imperative to define what a customer is. According to Naumann and Giel (1995), a customer may be an individual or an organisation that has either obtained and used a product or service at least once in the previous 12 months or on a more regular basis, say, daily.

Other researchers (Van Doorn et al., 2010) have described customers in terms of a process of engagement, a behavioural construct that encompasses a relationship that is more than just a transaction involving the acquisition of a product or service.

In addition, a customer may be the end user of a product or service or final customer, or an organisation that procures a product, component or service feature as part of the manufacturing of its own product or service package (Camgoz-Akdag, Imir, & Ergen, 2016; Whitely, 1991). This adds value to the final product along the way to be sold to an end user. An intermediary customer may also be a distributor or retail chain that does not change or add value to the product, but serves as a conduit between the producer of the product or provider of the service and the actual end customer to purchase such goods and services.

Also, a customer may be either internal to an organisation, say, a manufacturing department that receives the specifications of the product to be manufactured from the engineering design unit, or external to an organisation, which is the case with an end user (Camgoz-Akdag et al., 2016; Whitely, 1991). This study will examine both internal and external customers in the context of organisational effectiveness.

5.1.1 The foundation of customer satisfaction

Sprengh, MacKenzie, and Olshavsky (1996) have suggested that customer satisfaction occurs when customers, through a singular or ongoing interactions with a particular product or service provider, perceive that their expectations about the product or service provided have been met at a sufficient enough level. It can also be defined (Hanif, Hafeez, & Riaz, 2010) as the relationship between a customer's perceived expectations and the actual performance of a product or service.

The organisational performance bar (Horowitz, 2005; Mittal, Kumar, & Tsiros, 1999) is of a continuous rising nature following the successful attainment of customer satisfaction as

customer expectations climb to a higher level for future performance they anticipate receiving from the organisation and its employees in the form of products and services received.

Customers dissatisfied with the goods and services received from an organisation may communicate their displeasure with the organisation's performance in the following ways:

- terminating a transaction before completion
- ending a long-term relationship with an organisation owing to negative experiences
- broadly disseminating their disappointments through word-of-mouth communications
- issuing formal complaints to appropriate organisation staff
- reducing their purchases of goods and services by doing business with other vendors

5.1.2 Antecedents of customer satisfaction

A number of researchers (Bolton & Lemon, 1999; Szymanski & Henard, 2001) have examined and identified an array of possible antecedents of customer satisfaction. According to Culiberg and Rojšek (2010) and Homburg and Rudolph (2011), some of the antecedents of customer satisfaction include the quality of customer-related processes, services and products (Gotlieb, Grewal, & Brown, 1994).

5.1.3 Basis for the employee/customer satisfaction link

The effectiveness of an organisation from the perspective of positive customer product attitudes, according to Howard and Gengler (2001) and Rychalski and Hudson (2017), is linked to customer perceptions of the positive emotions they experience from their interactions with members of the organisation's customer contact personnel. Pugh (2001) has suggested that the process in which a customer attaches an emotional basis to the employees of an organisation who are providing goods and services based on these employee affective states, is referred to as emotional contagion.

Some researchers (Whitman, Van Rooy, & Viswesvaran, 2010) have indicated that there is an affective mechanism that creates a symbiotic relationship between satisfied employees and customer service behaviour. Dietz, Joshi, and Wiley (2010) and Pugh (2001) have suggested that when a customer has direct interaction with the emotional states and behaviours of employees in organisations that are providers of goods and services to them, the customer experiences and adapts similar affective states.

5.2 CUSTOMER AND EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION LINKAGE

While research of a systemic nature exploring the relationship between customer and employee satisfaction has not been widespread historically in the literature in the domain of industrial and organisational psychology, it has gained attention in the more recent past and present as a crucial research area (Bowen, 2016; Conway & Briner, 2015; Hallowell & Schlesinger, 2000; Heskett, Sasser, & Schlesinger, 2010; Pugh, Dietz, Wiley, & Brooks, 2002; Rucci, Kim, & Quinn, 1998; Taylor, 2002; Wiley, 1991; 2010a; Wiley & Brooks, 2000).

According to Conway and Briner (2015) and Reichheld (2001a), the relationship between employees expressing satisfaction with their jobs and customer satisfaction is dual directional, with employees impacting customer satisfaction and customers influencing employee satisfaction.

Collins (2001) posited that employees and customers are inexorably linked in a pattern through which the leadership provided by the organisation can enable, facilitate and inhibit this relationship and how both employees and customers perceive and behave in this relationship.

One of the more widely recognised research studies on the relationship between customer satisfaction and employee satisfaction indicated that customer satisfaction is shown to have a direct effect on employee job satisfaction levels (Ryan, Schmit, & Johnson, 1996). Other researchers such as Bowen (2016) asserted that customer satisfaction has a linkage with and a direct influence on employee satisfaction.

In a meta-analysis of the employee job satisfaction and customer satisfaction relationship and service quality perceptions in which employee and customer data are correlated, Brown and Lam (2008) determined that the relationships are positive and statistically significant, with service quality perceived by the customer entirely mediating the employee job satisfaction-customer satisfaction relationship.

Research (Homburg & Stock, 2004) has shown a positive relationship between the level of sales personnel job satisfaction and customer satisfaction, particularly when the intensity of customer integration into the value-creating process is higher, with $r = .29$, and when product/service innovativeness is stronger, with $r = .22$.

Some of the earlier studies linking employee and customer satisfaction (Cheung & To, 2010; Schneider, Parkington, & Buxton, 1980) indicated compatibility in the perception by both employees and customers regarding both quality of service and the overall customer service climate present in the organisation.

According to Bowen and Schneider (2014) and Schneider and Bowen (1985), an organisation's human resource programmes and policies can have an impact on customer perceptions of and attitudes towards both organisational and customer satisfaction issues. Schneider and Bowen's (1985) research also indicated that customer perceptions of service quality were connected to employee perceptions of their human resource practices.

In a study of a retail organisation with multibranches, Clark (2002) found that those branches with a participative management style, a focus on group involvement, customer orientation and a greater commitment to service quality, had higher customer retention and satisfaction than those branch operations with more authoritarian styles of management, low employee participation and guarded or closed communication patterns.

Other studies (Cheung & To, 2010; Tornow & Wiley, 1991) reported compatibility between both customer and employee perceptions of organisational commitment to and results in the area of service quality. In addition, research on the linkage between customer and employee satisfaction (Schlesinger & Zornitsky, 1991; Zablah, Carlson, Donovan, Maxham, & Brown, 2016) indicated that employee attitudes towards their capabilities to render outstanding service were positively impacted as their level of job satisfaction increased. This, in turn, was positively influenced as their perceptions of service quality increased.

More contemporary research has appeared to coalesce not only on the linkages between employee and customer satisfaction and their effect on each other, but also their individual and relationship linkage with and impact on organisational effectiveness.

A study of both customer and employee attitudes in a large number of branch banks (Schneider, White, & Paul, 1998) found that customer attitudes had an impact on employee attitudes, in addition to what had previously determined that employee attitudes towards the importance of a service climate had an influence on customer attitudes towards service quality. Additional research (Frey, Bayón, & Totzek, 2013) has also supported the notion that customer attitudes have a direct impact on employee attitudes and retention.

A study (Schneider, Ashworth, Higgs, & Carr, 1996) that focused on identifying what types of employee attitudes have the greatest impact on customer satisfaction, demonstrated that the following areas had the most influence: the attitude of seeking customer suggestions; resolving customer issues correctly the first time they are raised; employees recommending the same products to others; and the frequency of feedback sought from customers on their satisfaction with products and services.

In a particular study investigating the areas of employee/customer linkage and organisational performance (Rucci, Kirn, & Quinn, 1998) in order to improve business performance measures at the retail giant, Sears, it was found that a relationship between employee attitudes to their jobs and the company was more highly related to customer loyalty than any other customer metric. The above researchers actually determined that an improvement in employee attitudes of 5 points resulted in an increase in customer satisfaction of 1.3 points and revenue growth of 5%.

Additional research (Jung & Yoon, 2013; Kim, 2011) has supported the relationship between employee attitudes and satisfaction and customer satisfaction and loyalty.

Kotter (2000) reported that organisational profits can increase in the range of 25% to 85% as a result of a 5% reduction in the rate of customer defections.

High employee involvement and a strong customer orientation have also found to be critical in achieving employee/customer satisfaction linkage and organisational performance. Studies (Jeon & Choi, 2012; Uborn & Obeng, 2000) have reported a positive relationship between participative employees meeting customer needs, to the greatest extent possible, and their level of job satisfaction, and in turn, their job satisfaction positively related to customer satisfaction.

A multilevel research study in a retail store environment (Liao & Chuang, 2004), focusing on both the individual and organisational level and concerning factors impacting both employee service performance and customer outcomes such as satisfaction and loyalty, indicated that both employee and store level dimensions were directly related to employee service performance. This research demonstrated specifically that variance in employee service performance in a store could be attributed to extroversion and conscientiousness factors, while cross-store variance in employee service performance was the result of employee involvement and service climate factors.

In addition, Liao and Chuang's (2004) research found that between-store variance in the dimensions of customer loyalty and satisfaction could be explained by store-level employee aggregated service performance.

Netemeyer, Maxham, and Lichtenstein's (2010) research examining a retail store environment reported a direct relationship between the constructs of store manager job satisfaction and performance, store customer-contact employee job satisfaction and performance, customer satisfaction with the store and customer spending with the store.

According to Conway and Briner (2015) and Reichheld (1993; 2006), when employees develop linkages with customers, the positive nature of these relationships builds strong identity with the organisation, employee/customer satisfaction and effective sustainable organisations. There is an apt example of this in the research of Bowen (2016), Frey, Bayón, and Totzek (2013) Schneider and Bowen (1985), which indicated that employee turnover tended to be lower in instances where employees had a positive perception of customer service.

Some researchers (Dabholkar, & Abston, 2008) have argued for dual role customer contact employees. The reason for this is that employees and customers outside the organisation in which there is job satisfaction, loyalty to the organisation's products and services, as well as job performance in the role of customer contact personnel, contribute to long-term relationships between both employees and customers, leading to enhanced organisational profitability.

5.2.1 Employee differences and customer service behaviour

Research by Rogelberg, Barnes-Farrell, and Creamer (1999) on the impact of employee individual differences relative to personality traits and the propensity to engage in behaviour focused on customer service, indicated that there is no direct link between individual personality traits and employee behaviour of a customer service nature, after job characteristics have been taken into consideration.

Additional research (Barrick, Stewart, & Piotrowski, 2002) in the area of the Big Five personality traits found that personality traits, particularly agreeableness and extroversion, give credence to the existence of a relationship between personality traits and service performance. Another study (Lounsbury et al., 2012) reported that conscientiousness, customer service orientation, emotional stability, extroversion and tough-mindedness were positively related to customer service behaviour and satisfaction.

In a meta-analysis of the Big Five personality traits and customer service orientation and service quality performance, Frei and McDaniel (1998) found that the personality attribute of conscientiousness had a positive relationship with customer service orientation, demonstrating an $r .50$ correlation as a predictor of service quality performance. Agreeableness demonstrated a similar relationship to customer service orientation, albeit to a lesser extent, than conscientiousness to customer service orientation.

A study by Auh, Menguc, Fisher, and Haddad (2011) indicated that employees who were conscientious, open to experience and agreeable, perceived the service climate to be positive as well as their perception of service climate to be positively related to customer satisfaction.

5.2.2 Employee impact on customer satisfaction

According to Bowen and Waldman (1999), the assessment of employee performance has become increasingly formulated from the perspective of customer satisfaction and loyalty, particularly in the service sector. Research in the banking industry (Thevaranjan & Ragel, 2016) indicated that employee performance is directly linked to service quality.

Some researchers (Herrington & Lomax, 1999; Raub & Liao, 2012) reported more refined results, determining that while employee job satisfaction does not contribute directly to customer satisfaction on the whole, employee job satisfaction does have a positive impact on the specific dimension of customer loyalty categorised as the intention to make future purchases. In another study by Lee, Lee, and Kang (2012) in a large hospital setting, it was determined that improvements in employee engagement and service quality had a direct impact on enhancing customer satisfaction and loyalty.

With regard to outsourcing business models, research (Brown & Chin, 2004) has shown that outsourced customer service responsibility to external third-party service representatives of an organisation, who perceived that the organisation supported their mission, had higher levels of job satisfaction, which had only an indirect and minor contributory impact on customer satisfaction.

According to Brown and Chin (2004), the specific impact on customer satisfaction with regard to outsourced customer service and external third-party service representatives was through common opinions of both external third-party service representatives and customers regarding service quality and performance.

The above study further determined that job satisfaction is a moderating variable on the level of mutual commonality of opinion of the external third-party representatives and customers regarding service quality and performance, to the extent that the commonality of opinion is more robust the higher the level of job satisfaction is.

The study by Hsiao, Kemp, Van der Vorst, and Omta (2010), which involved outsourced customer service and delivery in the food service industry, demonstrated comparable levels of service, particularly with regard to delivery flexibility, reliability and lead time performance, as is the case when these same services are provided by in-house employees.

A key component of attaining organisational success as measured by financial and marketing performance metrics is the level of employee engagement. Wiley (2010) defined this as the degree of employee motivation towards contributing to the organisation's success by demonstrating performance and individual judgement in the duties employees are responsible for in the overall mission of realising predetermined organisational objectives.

Wiley's (2010) research demonstrated that organisations that score higher on measures of employee engagement attain higher levels of sales profits and customer service outcomes.

Over the years, research findings (Brooks, Wiley, & House, 2006; Wiley, 2010a; Wiley & Brooks, 2000) have shown consistent support between employees' self-description of the work environment quality, the level of product and service performance, customer satisfaction associated with employees engaged in that work environment and the results generated through that work environment in the form of organisational performance outcomes and metrics achieved.

Additional research studies (Bowen & Schneider, 2014; Schneider, Hanges, Smith, & Salvaggio, 2003) have supported a positive relationship between job satisfaction and organisational outcomes, and specifically employee job satisfaction having a direct impact on an organisation's financial performance, including sales and marketing metrics.

A study by Gil, Berenguer and Cervera (2008) examined the relationship between service encounters, service value and the role of employee job satisfaction in the attainment of customer satisfaction. This research indicated that with service employee job satisfaction as a moderating variable and service value as a mediating variable in the relationship with customer satisfaction, perceived service value was an antecedent of customer satisfaction and was directly and positively influenced by service encounter, as well as service value being moderated by the level of employee job satisfaction.

Kassim and Abdullah's (2010) study indicated the influence of perceived service quality on customer satisfaction, loyalty and trust in an e-commerce setting involving Malaysian and Qatari customers.

Another study (Arbore & Busacca, 2009) of customers of a well-recognised financial institution in Italy established that an asymmetric and nonlinear relationship exists between attribute performance and customer satisfaction.

Others (Wangenheim, Evanschitz, & Wunderlich, 2007) have focused their research efforts on the following question: Does the degree of employee-customer contact inherent in a

position have an impact in terms of presence and intensity on the linkage between employee and customer satisfaction? This research relating to the extent to which the presence and intensity of employee-customer contact had an effect on customer satisfaction was conducted with dyadic data from 99 German-based retail organisations comprising 1,659 employees and 53,645 customers. The results of this research indicated that while employees with frequent customer contacts represented groups in which employee job satisfaction had a greater impact on customer satisfaction, those employee groups with no or little indirect customer contact also demonstrated a link between employee job satisfaction and customer satisfaction, although not as strong a link.

Other research (Delcourt, Gremler, Van Riel, & Van Birgelen, 2013) found that customers' perception of employee emotional competence (EEC) had a positive influence on customer satisfaction and loyalty, and the degree to which this perception exists was dependent on contact and rapport.

According to Bossidy and Charan (2002), Bossidy, Charan, and Burck (2011) and Collins (2001), employees' perceptions of their organisations' leadership, policies and practices on the development of their attitudes and behaviours with regard to customer satisfaction, provide the foundation for the terms and approach employees deploy in dealing with customers.

Furthermore, these same employees' perceptions of their organisations' leadership, policies and practices influence on the formation of employees' attitudes, behaviours and the customers' ultimate experiences, while significant, are not addressed to the extent necessary in terms of the change interventions needed in the areas to address flaws in current policies and leadership.

5.2.3 Organisational culture and service performance

According to Schneider et al. (1998), an organisational customer service climate can best be described as an organisation-wide perception by employees of the existence of the type of programmes, policies and behaviours that are supported and recognised as being aligned with the organisation's mission regarding delivery of outstanding levels of customer service. Some researchers (Towler, Lezotte, & Burke, 2011) have referred to this organisation-wide customer service focus as the service climate-firm performance chain.

If the organisational climate regarding customer service quality permeates the entire organisation (Johnson, 1996; Johnson & Gustafsson, 2006; Towler et al., 2011), then it will have a greater impact on the service quality performance of its employees.

According to Van Dyne, Jehn, and Cummings (2002), the impact of employee proactive behaviour on customer service satisfaction, which may be fundamental in understanding and possibly predicting the role of service employees specifically has not been studied to any great degree. However, some of the research that has been conducted appears to indicate findings most would consider intuitive. Srivastava and Sharma's (2013) study indicated that high levels of employee service and a reliable organisational image contribute to customer satisfaction and retention.

According to Frese and Fay (2001) and Wirtz, Tambyah, and Matilla (2010), fundamental to attaining sustainable customer satisfaction and loyalty is proactive employee performance in the form demonstrated by the following: self-initiative in going beyond customer expectations; job behaviours that anticipate long-term customer needs; encouraging team performance in the same direction; and strong repeated follow-up to ensure performance that exceeds customer expectations (including seeking information directly from customers on performance feedback).

Improvements in both service quality performance and customer satisfaction levels have been reported (Wirtz et al., 2010; Johnson, 1996) in situations where employees participate in the sharing of information and feedback regarding customer evaluations of service quality and performance received.

Studies dealing with customer service culture (Borucki & Burke, 1999; Towler et al., 2011) reported a meaningful direct relationship between the presence of an organisational customer service climate and employee commitment demonstrated through their level of service performance.

According to Heskett, Sasser, and Schlesinger (2003; 2010), a culture based on a customer service orientation can assist an organisation in its understanding of customer expectations as and value, and in so doing, increase the likelihood of enhancing both service performance and customer satisfaction, leading to prospects for a long-term relationship between the customer and the organisation.

It has been suggested in the literature (Chuang & Liao, 2010; Liao & Chuang, 2004) that a service-oriented organisational culture and climate, which is reinforced through communicated organisational expectations of outstanding employee customer service performance and supporting training and reward programmes, contributes to actual employee performance that meets the desired expectations. Additional research studies (Batt, 1999; Dhar, 2015) have

concluded that a culture of customer service excellence, enhanced in part through employee training and development programmes, contributes to employee service quality performance.

5.2.4 Organisational behaviour and customer service

One area of interest in organisations is the role played by citizenship behaviour. Models examining the relationship of employee and organisation links to organisational citizenship behaviours and resultant service quality, have been proposed (Bell & Menguc, 2002). This research found that organisational citizenship behaviours, particularly job autonomy, were positively linked to employee-organisation relationship factors such as organisational identification and perceived organisational support with customer perceptions of service quality. Another study (Yee, Yeung, & Cheng, 2010) reported that employee loyalty and behaviour are positively associated with service quality which, in turn, has an influence on customer satisfaction and loyalty.

5.2.5 Employee performance and customer satisfaction

According to Riketta (2005), organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) manifested in customer-driven performance on the job has its basis in the employee company identification dynamic. The extent to which employees identify with their organisation, particularly from a social perspective (Riketta, 2002; Van Dick, 2004), has been an effective measure for understanding and describing employee job behaviour. It has been demonstrated (Chiniara & Bentein, 2018) that cohesiveness has an impact on team performance and service OCB.

According to studies by Edwards and Peccei (2010) and Van Knippenberg (2000), employee identification with the organisation has a positive relationship with and predictive value of both employee job motivation and actual individual job performance outcomes in an organisation.

Organisational research (Coelho, Augusto, Coelho, & Sá, 2010; Miller, Allen, Casey, & Johnson, 2000) has supported a relationship between employee identification with a company and commitment to performance excellence in customer service. Hartline, Maxham, and McKee (2000) found that the basis for customer identification with an organisation centred on customer attitudes towards and perceptions of the organisation's core values, which are formed through interactions between customers and employees of the organisation who convey these organisational values.

The relationship between both supervisory and self-employee performance and customer satisfaction has led to research findings (Netemeyer & Maxham, 2007; Netemeyer, Heilman, & Maxham, 2012) suggesting that supervisory assessments of employee performance are more significantly linked to customer satisfaction and customer word-of-mouth referral than

employees' self-assessment of their own performance is related to customer satisfaction and recommendations to prospective customers.

Research (Netemeyer & Maxham, 2007; Netemeyer et al. 2012) on the source of employee performance assessment and the impact on customer satisfaction and referrals also indicated that both employee self-performance assessment and supervisory employee performance assessment are related in a linear and curvilinear manner to customer satisfaction.

Other findings of this research (Netemeyer & Maxham, 2007; Netemeyer et al., 2012) found that a decreasing rate of return at higher levels of customer in-role performance occurred with employee in-role performance, while increased rates of return at higher customer in-role performance levels were achieved with employee extra-role performance.

According to Maxham, Netemeyer, and Lichtenstein (2008) and Netemeyer, et al. (2012), there was a meaningful impact regarding employee job performance and perceptions of customer assessment of the organisation's performance in meeting their needs and actual future performance on a store-specific basis in a large retail organisation.

A study by Salanova, Agut, and Peiro (2005) reported that the mediating variable of service climate is a predictor of employee performance level and customer loyalty when service climate is influenced by both organisational resources, defined as training, autonomy and technology, and work engagement comprising vigour, dedication and absorption in a role. Another study (Hong, Liao, Hu, & Jiang, 2013) postulated that that when service climate is influenced by organisational resources such as leadership and human resource practices, it has a positive effect on employee satisfaction, performance, OCB, customer satisfaction and financial performance.

Hallowell (1996) suggested that the existence of a positive relationship through interactions between employees and customers contributes to higher sustainable levels of customer loyalty, defined as a behavioural construct, towards the organisation and a long-term business relationship. Others (Yee et al., 2010) have asserted that in positive high employee-customer contact environments, both employee and customer satisfaction and loyalty increase.

Kumar (2002) indicated further that outstanding employee performance has a direct impact and a predictive effect on the extent of customer loyalty towards the organisation.

The intensity of interaction by sales staff with customers is important to customer satisfaction, but according to Cannon and Perreault (1999) and Yee et al. (2010), quality of interaction between satisfied sales staff and customers also contributes to high customer satisfaction. In

their study, Cannon and Hamburg (2001) considered the quality of interaction between sales staff and customers, but with a mediating variable having only an indirect effect on customer satisfaction.

The results of research relating to employee and customer relationships (Salanova et al., 2005; Yee et al., 2010) demonstrated that the level of customer service quality is an outcome of the effectiveness of employee and customer interactions. Furthermore, to the extent that employees demonstrate high levels of engagement and have cohesive positive beliefs about the service quality they provide to customers, the greater the likelihood is that customers will perceive their performance as acceptable and satisfying.

Additional research (Ahearne, Battacharya, & Gruen, 2005; Bhattacharya & Sen, 2003; Yee et al., 2010) underscored the premise that the more positive the outward behaviour of customer-contact employees, as determined by a customer during interactions with employees, the greater the sense of satisfaction and identity the customer will experience with the organisation.

The organisational resources component (Hong et al., 2013; Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004) has been identified as an antecedent of employee motivation to perform which, in turn, provides a basis for employee engagement. The more relevant the organisational resources, the greater employee engagement will be.

In addition, the research on work engagement (Menguc, Auh, Fisher, & Haddad, 2013; Schaufeli, Martinez, Marques-Pinto, Salanova, & Bakker, 2002) reported a relationship with job satisfaction, employee and organisational performance, and commitment to the organisation which, in turn, could be contributory factors to customer satisfaction and loyalty.

5.2.6 Summary of research findings

A summary of the research findings (Conway & Briner, 2015; Heskett et al., 2010; Reichheld, 2001) points to a dual directional relationship between employee and customer satisfaction. Some studies (Conway & Briner, 2015; Homburg & Stock, 2004) reported a direct impact of employee job satisfaction on customer satisfaction, while others (Bowen, 2016; Ryan et al., 1996) found that customer satisfaction influenced employee job satisfaction.

The results of research have also suggested that intervening variables such as quality (Brown & Lam, 2008), leadership (Collins, 2001), service-oriented citizenship behaviour (Grandey, Goldberg, & Pugh, 2011) and commitment to service quality (Clark, 2002), mediate the relationship between employee and customer satisfaction. Additional research (Jeon & Choi, 2012; Unborn & Oberg, 2000) also found that the degree of employee involvement influenced

employee job satisfaction and, in turn, customer satisfaction. The results of research have indicated that high levels of employee engagement contribute to customer satisfaction, which leads to organisational success.

Research has shown mixed results on the role of individual personality differences in employee demonstration of customer service-oriented behaviour. On the one hand, research (Rogelberg et al., 1999) reported no impact of individual personality trait differences on customer service behaviour, while on the other, a study by (Barrick et al. (2002) reported findings supporting the personality traits of agreeableness and extroversion having an impact on employee customer service performance. A study by Lounsbury et al. (2012) determined that conscientiousness, customer service orientation, emotional stability, extroversion and tough-mindedness were positively related to customer service behaviours and satisfaction.

Research (Frese & Fay, 2001; Yee et al., 2010) has also demonstrated that the higher the degree of employee service behaviour and performance, the greater the level and sustainability of customer satisfaction will be. Johnson's (1996) study suggested that the more the level a customer service orientation permeates the organisational culture, the greater its impact will be on service quality performance and customer satisfaction.

5.3 OUTCOMES ATTRIBUTED TO CUSTOMER SATISFACTION

There have been a wide range of outcomes derived as a direct result of customer satisfaction. A comprehensive research study by Luo and Homburg (2007) examining the outcomes emanating from customer satisfaction, identified four specific categories, which are discussed below.

5.3.1 Customer-related outcomes

According to Luo and Homburg (2007), customer-related outcomes are associated with future commitment and behaviours demonstrated by customers in their relationship with the organisation.

Research by Martisiute, Vilutyte, and Grundey (2010) and Olsen (2002) suggested that a key customer satisfaction-related outcome is improved customer loyalty demonstrated by customer behaviours such as continued purchasing from the particular organisation. Not only do customer satisfaction-related outcomes lead to loyalty as demonstrated by employees' ongoing purchases, but, according to Mathies and Gudergan (2012) and Stock (2005), the customer is often willing to pay premium prices for those goods and services from the organisation, which (Luo & Homburg, 2007) may have a positive effect on long-term customer

satisfaction with an organisation's overall performance in terms of meeting or exceeding customer expectations.

5.3.2 Employee-related customer satisfaction outcomes

According to Luo and Homburg (2007), these types of outcomes are related to the well-being, satisfaction, performance and attraction of employees, and the resultant ultimate advantages achieved by organisations that have and continue to attain high levels of customer satisfaction through these employees.

Employee-related customer satisfaction outcomes (Mandhanya & Shah, 2010; Schneider, Macey, Lee, & Young, 2009; Spencer & Albergott, 2004) might include enhanced capability to attract and retain employees because of the organisation's reputation for satisfied customers. Also related to this, is the calibre of talent (Dess & Shaw, 2001; Mandhanya & Shah, 2010) that may be of a higher quality. This would also stem from the organisation's reputation for superior customer satisfaction, which may play a positive role in attracting individuals motivated by and committed to excellence in rendering quality customer service.

Another employee-related outcome arises from the relationship between customer satisfaction and an organisation's financial performance (Anderson, Fornell, & Mazvancheryl, 2004; Dotson & Allenby, 2010). This outcome is likely to extend the premise that an organisation's ability to offer more lucrative compensation and other forms of financial recognition programmes to employees is partly linked to the level of customer satisfaction and loyalty.

The financial leverage and competitive advantage gained by the organisation through attainment of meaningful customer satisfaction and loyalty (Dotson & Allenby, 2010; Fornell, Mithas, Morgeson, & Krishnan, 2006), when used to financially reward employee behaviour, which contributes to these high levels of customer satisfaction, moves in the direction of enhancing a company's capability to retain and attract highly talented and customer-focused employees in the future.

According to Hitt, Bierman, Shimiuzu, and Kochhar (2001), the employee-related customer satisfaction outcomes are built on the collective basket of experiences, skills base, aptitudes and abilities of the organisation's human capital.

The link between customer satisfaction, employee satisfaction and organisational performance has been researched and examined by a number of researchers (Frey et al., 2013; Luo & Homburg, 2007). The findings indicated that enhancements in the level of customer satisfaction have a positive impact on both management and nonmanagement employees in terms of staff retention and development.

5.3.3 Performance-related customer satisfaction outcomes

Numerous customer satisfaction outcomes are related to performance. These outcomes are all financial, market, employee and shareholder oriented (Heskett et al., 2010; Luo & Homburg, 2007).

However, as the research has demonstrated, the dimension of financial performance as a customer satisfaction outcome has received significant attention by both the academic and business community. This applies particularly to the research of Heskett et al. (2010) and Rust, Moorman, and Dickson (2002), which has shown the positive impact of customer satisfaction on financial performance metrics such as return on assets (ROA) and return on investment (ROI).

Additionally, other research studies (Fornell et al., 2006; Gruca & Rego, 2005) have established the relationship of the impact of customer satisfaction on the financial performance measures of cash flow and shareholder value in an organisation. The results of other research (Sun & Kim, 2013) demonstrated a direct relationship between customer satisfaction and ROA, ROE and PM.

5.3.4 Efficiency-related outcomes of customer satisfaction

The fourth and final category of customer satisfaction outcomes is considered efficiency related in terms of cost benefit relationships (Luo & Homburg, 2007; Soliman, 2011).

Fundamentally, efficiency-related outcomes can be described as the value of outcomes derived from the cost of inputs acquired, developed and maintained (Luo & Donthu, 2006). The greater the benefit derived in relation to the cost to generate the benefit, the more financially effective the benefit will be.

Research in the area of customer satisfaction efficiency-related outcomes (Anderson, Fornell & Rust, 1997; Fornell, Rust, & Dekimpe, 2010) reported that customer satisfaction has a direct impact on sales level outcome to employee ratio.

Another efficiency-related customer satisfaction outcome supported by research (Brown, Barry, Dacin, & Gunst, 2005) is the positive impact derived from high levels of customer satisfaction. This outcome is in terms of lower marketing costs resulting from free word-of-mouth referrals or advertising by customers and the resultant favourable ratio of sales to advertising. Research by Jan, Abdullah and Shafiq (2013) in the banking industry also supported the impact of customer satisfaction on word-of-mouth advertising and the organisational benefits derived from it.

Vorhies and Morgan (2003) postulated that the degree to which an organisation can generate higher sales to sales cost ratios, the more efficient the result will be as a by-product of customer satisfaction.

Research (Gustafsson, Johnson, & Roos, 2005; Thaichon & Quach, 2015) has demonstrated that customer satisfaction and the marketing costs associated with communicating this satisfaction lead to the type of efficiency in this area of marketing. This efficiency contributes to greater sales through the repurchasing behaviour of loyal existing customers and first-time purchases by new customers.

According to Keiningham, Aksoy, Komarova, and Nejad (2015) and Rust, Ambler, Carpenter, Kumar, and Srivastava (2004), the extent to which customer satisfaction has a positive effect on marketing efficiency in communicating customer satisfaction information to internal employees and the external market, also influences sales level and organisational success.

5.3.5 Summary of research

The research (Lee, Lee, & Kang, 2012; Luo & Homburg, 2007; Olsen, 2002; Raub & Liao, 2012) has supported the premise that customer satisfaction drives customer loyalty. Other researchers (Frey et al., 2013; Schneider, Macey, Lee, & Young, 2010; Spencer & Albergott, 2004) have asserted that organisational benefits such as attracting and retaining employees are influenced by customer satisfaction, as well as the calibre of talent attracted by an organisation (Dess & Shaw, 2001; Frey et al., 2013). In addition, customer satisfaction has been shown to have a positive impact not only on employee retention but also on staff development (Luo & Homburg, 2007; Mandhanya & Shah, 2010).

The results of research have also indicated that customer satisfaction has a positive effect on financial performance measures such as return on assets and return on investment (Heskett et al., 2010; Rust et al., 2002). In addition, studies by Fornell et al. (2006) and Gruca and Rego (2005) indicated that increases in cash flow and shareholder value are outcomes of customer satisfaction, as are increases in ROA, ROE and PM, as reported in Sun and Kim's (2013) study.

The research literature has underscored the fact that customer satisfaction has an impact on organisational efficiency outcomes such as the following: the level of sales to employee ratio (Anderson, Fornell & Rust, 1997), sales to sales cost ratio (Vorhies & Morgan, 2003) and customer loyalty and new customer growth (Aksoy et al., 2012; Gustafsson et al., 2005; Martisiute et al., 2010), as measured by repeat business and return on marketing costs respectively.

5.4 CUSTOMER SATISFACTION AND ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

A number of research studies (Anderson, Fornell, & Lehmann, 1994; Bernhardt, Donthu, & Kennett, 2000; Hartnell, Ou, & Kinicki, 2011; Rust & Zahorik, 1993; Sundaray, 2011) have supported theoretically and empirically the proposition that organisations that are successful in attaining high levels of customer satisfaction achieve higher levels of organisational effectiveness and financial performance.

Kozlowski and Klein (2000) posited that the achievement of high levels of customer-centric performance outcomes is based on the understanding that the collective success of attaining organisational and individual employee outcomes is contingent upon the integrated performance of employees at multiple vertical levels of the hierarchy and across all functional areas of the organisation.

According to Arnett, German, and Hunt (2003), Hartnell et al. (2011) and Sundaray (2011), a link is intuitively logical between customer satisfaction, loyalty and commitment, as well as an organisation's effectiveness (Mathies & Gudergan, 2012), as measured specifically by financial performance criteria such as willingness to pay higher price points for the products and services purchased from the organisation.

In Koys' (2001) study of a regional US-based restaurant chain utilising employee, manager and customer satisfaction surveys, as well as other organisational data involving the participation of 774 employees and 64 managers, it was determined, using cross-lagged regression analysis, that employee behaviours and attitudes at time 1 were linked to organisational effectiveness at time 2.

Koys (2001) also established in the same survey that there was no meaningful relationship between organisational effectiveness at time 1 and employee behaviours and attitudes at time 2. In summary, this research has contributed to the hypothesis that behaviours and attitudinal factors have an effect on organisational outcomes such as effectiveness, but organisational effectiveness has no direct impact on future attitudes and behaviours.

A meta-analysis by Harter, Schmidt, and Hayes (2002) of 7 939 business units spanning 36 companies, which focused on the relationships between employee perceptions of work environmental issues and organisational performance criteria such as satisfaction and customer loyalty, demonstrated minor but meaningful correlations between productivity and profitability and employee engagement factors and customer satisfaction metrics.

In their study, Bowen and Schneider (2014) suggested that a service climate environment indicated a positive influence on organisational citizenship behaviour customer satisfaction and loyalty and employee engagement and performance.

Other studies (e.g. Borucki & Burke, 1999) have shown that a focused service climate had a meaningful positive relationship with and impact on the financial performance of individual stores within a retail organisation.

A study of 900 front-line service employees (Raub & Liao, 2012) indicated that general self-efficacy at the individual level predicted proactive employee service performance.

The results of Simons and Roberson's (2003) study showed that a relationship exists between employee attitudes and behaviour, performance, citizenship and increases in organisational productivity and effectiveness.

Another study (Walumbwa, Hartnell, & Oke, 2010) involving 815 employees, suggested that employee attitudes and organisation citizenship behaviour were improved in an effective service climate.

According to Paulin, Ferguson, and Bergeron (2006), the extent to which overall employee job satisfaction influences customer satisfaction and organisational performance is not as important as customer-linked job satisfaction. The latter has a stronger connection to organisational commitment which, in turn, positively affects both customer-linked and citizenship behaviours, as well as employees' disposition to refer new customers to the organisation.

There may be a common belief that there are significant differences in customer satisfaction and loyalty between those customers who maintain sustainable relationships with an organisation and those who opt to no longer do business with it.

However, research (Williams, Khan, Ashill, & Naumann, 2011) has shown that while differences do exist between current and former customers in terms of behavioural intentions, service quality and customer satisfaction, these differences are minimal with the exception of the issue of price, which is a more meaningful differentiating factor with former customers indicating greater concern than existing ones.

According to Maranto and Reynoso (2003), the value of goods and services has been shown to have a strong influence on and relationship with an organisation's financial metrics such as profitability. This value dimension facilitates the linkage of organisational growth and

profitability with customer satisfaction and loyalty (Heskett et al., 2010; DeRuyter & Bloemer, 1999).

Research (Netemeyer et al., 2012) has indicated that management's role in creating a service climate that enhances their job satisfaction and the satisfaction of their employees, leads to store level customer satisfaction which, in turn, results in store customer spending growth.

McKenzie (2001) posited that an important tool in building a commitment to customer service and engendering customer loyalty built on satisfaction is customer relationship management (CRM). According to Keramati, Mahrabi, & Mojir (2010), improved CRM has long been viewed as a key component contributing to customer retention and organisational effectiveness, including financial performance, as the research has shown.

However, in a study (Becker, Greve, & Sonke, 2009) examining the impact of customer relationship management (CRM) on organisational performance across three dimensions of the CRM process (i.e. initiation, maintenance and retention of customer relationships), the results indicated that its influence is dependent on company members' support. In addition, CRM influenced organisational performance unequally across the three customer relationship management dimensions studied.

5.4.1 Customer retention and organisational effectiveness

According to Heskett et al. (2010) and Reichheld (1996; 2001a), the importance of customer retention in the attainment and sustainability of organisational effectiveness serves as a pathway to lower marketing and sales costs, as well as improved employee job satisfaction and customer retention.

Retention of satisfied existing customers can also contribute to greater fixed market share and revenue on account of repeat business, higher marketing productivity, minimal customer sensitivity to pricing and a higher level of customer referral business (Keramati et al., 2010; Zineldin, 2006). Palmer (2010) asserted that increases in profitability are positively related to increases in both customer and employee retention levels.

Satisfied retained customers contribute to an organisation's bottom-line results (Keramati et al., 2010; Zeithaml & Bitner, 2003) through word-of-mouth endorsements and recommendations (solicited and volunteered) to potential and relatively new customers. This carries with it a level of credibility that may be unrivalled compared to other marketing approaches to cost effectiveness in terms of increasing the customer base.

With regard to customer loyalty and its impact on an organisation's financial performance, it is generally recognised (Mooradian & Oliver, 1997; Rai & Srivastava, 2012) that a loyal customer should have a tendency to make repeat purchases of similar products, as well as the next generation of products or upgraded services. The suggestion here is that other customers should also purchase from the organisation.

The research of Stokes and Lomax (2002) and Williams and Buttle (2011) proposed that the satisfied customer word-of-mouth form of marketing of an organisation's products and services to potential new customers is often deemed the more reliable, cost beneficial marketing strategy to improve organisational financial performance. This makes the customer satisfaction to organisational success linkage an important and effective relationship in which to build market competitiveness.

5.4.2 Role of customer perception in customer satisfaction

Cronin, Brady, and Hult (2000) posited that customer perceived quality has both a tangible and intangible element, which includes the quality associated with the actual service or product outcome received and the manner in which the service was rendered. Customers' assessment of the value of the products and services they receive compared to their expectations (Eggert & Ulaga, 2002; Heskett et al., 2010) is the central driving force of ultimate customer satisfaction and loyalty to an organisation.

Further research (Cronin et al., 2000; Heskett et al., 2010) supported the service profit chain core proposition that the perception of process quality, in addition to the actual quality and value assigned by the customer, has a direct effect on the customer service experience.

The value component plays a dual role, as some researchers (Woodall, 2003) have suggested, that value is both intrinsic to the quality of services or products provided and the manner in which they are provided. At the same time, customers assess and evaluate value in terms of their experiences with the products or services.

According to Huber and Morgan (2001), the concept of value is determined by customers through a cost benefit analysis and an assessment made by a customer regarding the value offered by the product or service and the actual value received from the same product or service.

Research (Bowen & Schneider, 2014; Heskett et al., 2010; Loveman & Heskett, 1999; Payne, Holt, & Frow, 2000; 2001; Reichheld, 1996) has demonstrated that customer perceptions and assessment of service quality experiences influence a customer's level of satisfaction, long-term commitment to future business with the organisation and profitability. This lends credence

to the premise that a direct cause-and-effect relationship exists between service quality performance, customer satisfaction, loyalty and organisational performance.

A research study (Donovan & Hocutt, 2001) across 219 restaurants emphasising customer perceptions of the degree of employee orientation rather than employee self-assessment of their own customer orientation, indicated that employee–customer-oriented behaviours had a positive impact on both customer commitment to the organisation and customer satisfaction with specific service-related interactions with contact employees. Mei-Liang and Kuang-Jung's (2010) research demonstrated that customer-oriented behaviour has a direct influence on service quality.

5.4.3 Product versus service customer satisfaction

The question of whether factors contributing to customer satisfaction are universal across product versus services organisations may provide an additional perspective in furthering one's knowledge of customer satisfaction.

A study by Nilsson, Johnson, Gustafsson, and Anders (2001) examined customer satisfaction differentiation between organisations rendering a service and those with product offerings, in terms of how the specific quality practices of customer orientation, process orientation and employee management influence customer satisfaction and business outcomes could be identified. The results of the study indicated that both process and customer orientation have a direct influence on customer satisfaction, while employee management quality practices have an effect on business outcomes in service organisations.

Nilsson et al.'s (2001) study of differentiation also found that the quality practice of customer orientation has a direct impact on customer satisfaction and business outcomes in product organisations. The results supported the premise that developing a strong customer orientation is facilitated by the presence of a quality focus.

5.4.4 Value proposition and customer satisfaction

The area of customer value and its role in the dynamics of customer satisfaction has been studied and even presented as a model (Heskett et al. 2003; 2010) for understanding how customers psychologically process and determine their satisfaction with the services and products they receive.

The strategy of building a loyal and satisfied customer base leading to sustained organisational effectiveness considers the customers' wants and needs as the central theme of an organisation's mission. This approach (Heskett et al., 2010; Thomson, 2000), also

referred to as customer value management, can be considered a portfolio of methodologies, strategies and interventions that integrate customer needs into the design process of products and services, as well as the management and organisational culture and practices.

According to Bowen and Schneider (2014), Heskett et al. (2010) and Schneider, Bowen, Ehrhart, and Holcombe (2000), customers and employees share in an interaction of their respective perceived value propositions, which influence attitudes and behaviours in respect of the organisational leadership commitment to the work and loyalty to the organisation's goods and services. In other words, employee perceptions of the organisation's policies, practices and leadership shape their attitudes. This, in turn, manifests in their behaviours in relation to providing goods and services, which further frames how customers define their level of satisfaction with the organisation.

Khalifa (2004) asserted that there has been a greater focus on customer value management as an integrated approach to differentiate objectively the product and service needs across a broad range of customers, in order to develop more of a pinpointed approach as opposed to a broad brush in identifying individual customer requirements. This approach therefore results in the type of deployment of organisational resources that are far more productive because they are aligned with each customer's wants and needs. However, much is required to resolve the typical organisational impediments that inhibit a customer value management strategy from being successfully implemented.

The methods available for implementing a customer value management philosophy promoting sustained organisational growth entail inviting customers into the organisational planning process (Fundin & Bergman, 2003; Heinonen et al., 2013) through participation in product and service planning via customer surveys for identifying product and service needs, and through customer satisfaction questionnaires to determine how successfully the organisation is meeting customer expectations of current goods and services.

Researchers such as Heskett et al., (2003; 2010) have suggested a performance trinity comprising leadership, management values, culture, vision and strategy as a starting point for a model known as the value profit chain.

According to (Heskett et al., 2003; 2010), the performance trinity operates within the sociological, regulatory, technical and economic change sphere, and serves as the initiation for sustainable organisational change. The trinity also facilitates the five value profit chain virtues of trust, leverage, fit, adaptability and focus, generating an additional value associated with employees, customers, partners and investors.

This chain is operationalised, delivered and maintained through an approach that generates outcome to cost favourability by deploying processes, organisation, controls, practices, incentives, policies and measures that create beneficial results for employees, customers, investors and other business partners.

Customer value management is a method of operationalising the concerns and interests of customers in terms of the products and services they desire into the fabric of how an organisation conducts its operations. Thompson (2000) described it is a leap from traditional ways of thinking on how to practise organisational growth and renewal strategies beyond the internally focused approaches of re-engineering and quality management, in favour of the externally focused method of incorporating the customer into the mainstream of organisational strategy for growth and development.

Research by Flint, Blocker, and Boutin (2011) studied the extent to which organisations anticipate customers' value perspective and the degree to which customers are influenced by this practice in terms of their loyalty to an organisation through their level of satisfaction with the dimension of value.

Research (Flint et al., 2011) specifically exploring the idea that organisations are adept at anticipating customer value preferences will reap the benefits of higher levels of customer satisfaction and loyalty. Such organisations are determined that demonstration of customer value anticipation has a meaningful impact on both customer satisfaction and loyalty with customer satisfaction mediating loyalty.

5.5 MODELS OF CUSTOMER SATISFACTION

Three of the most recognised and similar research paradigms referred to previously in this research study, and which focus on the relationships between employee satisfaction, leadership, customer satisfaction and organisational outcomes, are as follows: the service profit chain model (Heskett, 2008; Heskett et al., 1997; 2010); the employee-customer linkage research model (Dietz et al., 2010; Pugh, Dietz, Wiley, & Brooks, 2002; Wiley, 2010a; Wiley & Brooks, 2000); and the high performance engagement model (Wiley, 2010a; Wiley & Brooks, 2000; Wiley & Campbell, 2006). These models are depicted in *Figures 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3* respectively.

Studies (Bernhardt, Donthu, & Kennett, 2000) in specific industries such as fast-food restaurants have reported a positive relationship between the employee and customer satisfaction components of the service profit chain model.

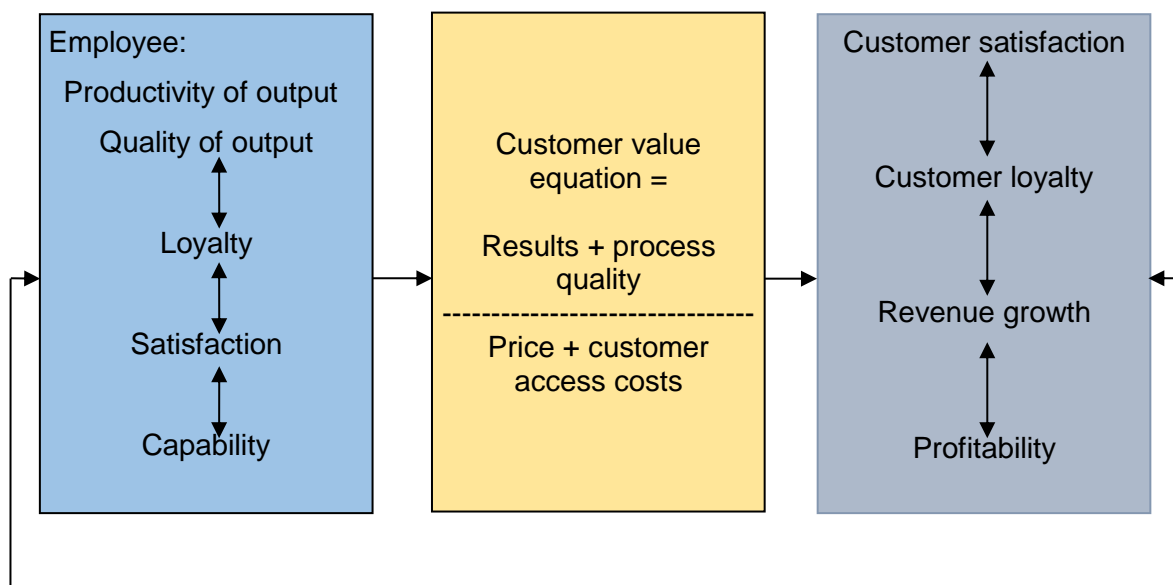
While highly similar in nature, the service profit chain also examines the role of both customer loyalty and value within the model. However, owing to the similarities surrounding employee and customer satisfaction, as well as their impact on organisational outcomes such as financial performance, in the current study they were examined together.

5.5.1 Service profit chain/employee-customer linkage

The service profit chain model creates (Heskett, Jones, Loveman, Sasser, & Schlesinger, 1994, 2001; Heskett et al., 2010; Sasser, Schlesinger, & Heskett, 1997) a paradigm or theoretical structure for understanding connections between customer satisfaction, loyalty, value, organisational profits, and employee satisfaction, productivity and loyalty. Heskett et al. (1997; 2003; 2010) posited that the framework presented by the service profit chain creates an opportunity for developing a strategic direction and vision tailored to the particular objectives of the situational factors of an organisation.

The service profit chain model is depicted in Figure 5.1.

Figure 5.1
Service Profit Chain Model



Source: Author

While part of the dialogue in the lexicon of management research (Allen & Grisaffe, 2001), the service profit chain model or concept should also be of research interest in the area of industrial and organisational psychology.

According to Heskett et al. (2003; 2010) and Rucci, Kirn, and Quinn (1998), the service profit chain is intuitive in that effective business practices should align with the principle that satisfied employees, behaving in a manner that reflects this satisfaction in their interaction with

customers, should contribute to customer satisfaction and loyalty. This, in turn, should generate effective organisational financial performance such as profit and revenue growth.

The basis of the service profit chain model is the premise that employee and customer satisfaction share or maintain a relationship (Wiley & Brooks, 2000) supported by research demonstrating correlations between employee attitudes and their perceptions and customer satisfaction. Furthermore, employee job satisfaction and commitment are positively related to increases in customer satisfaction.

The service profit chain (Heskett et al., 2003; 2010) posits that service quality drives employee job satisfaction. This leads to employee commitment and productive performance, which contributes to service value, influencing customer perceptions and satisfaction, which shape customer loyalty-based behaviours that have a direct impact on organisational performance as measured by growth in revenue, profitability and market share.

According to Payne and Webber (2006), the research viability of the service profit chain paradigm for analysis and study of performance and organisational effectiveness is enhanced by the integrated and holistic nature of linking employee, organisational and customer dimensions with supporting data, providing an opportunity to assess and analyse effectiveness across multiple levels.

A major tenet of the service profit chain model is that the linkage between employee satisfaction and an organisation's financial performance is mediated by customer satisfaction and loyalty (Anderson & Mittal, 2000; Heskett et al., 2010).

Lau (2000) suggested that as a strategy for contributing to organisational long-term success and viability, the service profit chain has successfully demonstrated that it has achieved its mission, particularly in the services industry.

According to Heskett (2002) and Heskett et al., (2010), the service profit chain focuses a great deal of attention on and emphasises the linkage of employee job satisfaction and loyalty to customer satisfaction and loyalty as the channel for achieving and maintaining organisational growth, sustainability and effectiveness.

As a practical model (Heskett et al., 2010; Silvestro & Cross, 2000), the service profit chain provides a blueprint or prototype for examining the relationship and correlations between customer satisfaction, profit, service value, output quality, customer loyalty, internal service quality and productivity. As an organisational strategy for sustained competitiveness (Andreassen, 1994; Heskett et al., 2010; Silvestro, 2002), the service profit chain is built on

the premise that there is a direct and positive relationship between customer satisfaction, loyalty, financial performance and perceived value of goods and services received.

Heskett (1997; 2003) stated that the service profit chain holds as a key tenet that when employees experience job satisfaction and are motivated to perform, this will lead to customers being satisfied with the products, services, employees and organisation. This results in their demonstrating loyalty to continued purchases which, in turn, generates greater revenue and profitability for the organisation.

In order to be a successful strategy, the service profit chain must function within a greater more encompassing arena, which would include support programmes in human resources, training and development, and culture (Heskett, 1997; 2002; Loveman, Sasser, & Schlesinger, 2011). These support structures drive employee commitment and motivation towards the organisational mission, vision and objectives, which can manifest in providing customer-valued products and services. This contributes to immediate and sustainable organisational performance, effectiveness and growth.

The linkage between employee and customer wants has been addressed by some organisations under the strategy espoused by some researchers (Lawler, 2003; Lawler & Worley, 2011; Ulrich & Smallwood, 2003) of providing mutual beneficial value propositions to both their employees and customers.

5.5.1.1 Research relating to the service profit chain

The service profit chain model has received widespread appeal supported by research studies (Heskett et al., 2010; Kamakura, Mittal, De Rosa, & Mazzon, 2002). It is particularly effective as a framework for achieving organisational success when both the employee and customer dimension are successfully nurtured by providing effective leadership.

While many of the research studies on the service profit chain (Harter, Schmidt, & Hayes, 2002; Heskett, 2002; Heskett et al., 2003; 2010; Migliore & Chinta, 2016) have supported its core premise, others (Brown & Chin, 2004; Herington & Johnson, 2010; Szymanski & Henard, 2001) have not confirmed the basic principles of the model, indicating only minimal cause-and-effect relationships or results, revealing no meaningful support of the service profit chain model.

However, a study by Yee et al. (2011) of the service profit chain in a high customer contact service environment demonstrated support for the model, especially as it pertains to improvements in employee satisfaction and loyalty, which leads to increased customer satisfaction and loyalty, as well as increased sales revenue.

Some research studies (Homburg & Stock, 2004) on the service profit chain have indicated that the construct identified as customer orientation serves as a mediating variable functioning between both employee and customer satisfaction. According to Stock and Hoyer (2005), the construct of customer orientation can be defined as the type of employee job behaviour that facilitates the attainment of satisfactory levels of customer service needs.

In their study on the service profit chain, Hong, Liao, Hu, and Jiang (2013) reported that employee attitudes and service quality performance were positively related to customer satisfaction and financial outcomes.

A research study (Brown & Mitchell, 1993) in a retail banking organisation was designed to test a model examining three categories of organisational performance metrics or outcomes, namely employee job satisfaction, customer satisfaction and financial performance, in order to determine the presence of organisational obstacles. The results indicated the following: First, there was a minimum relationship between the lower-skilled bank teller position employees in high customer contact jobs with regard to their perceptions of organisational obstacles and customer satisfaction. Second, these same high customer contact employees reported that the obstacles were associated with scheduling of work breaks, coworker relationship problems and work environment issues, all of which are related to lower customer satisfaction levels.

Moreover, according to Brown and Mitchell (1993), higher customer satisfaction was perceived to be related to obstacles centred on information timeliness issues in more skilled account representative employee customer position contact groups. Also, lower customer satisfaction was perceived to be linked to obstacles such as work environment, job materials and office space issues with the same more skilled account representative employee customer contact group.

Studies by other researchers (Hong et al., 2013; Snipes, Oswald, La Tour, & Armenakis, 2005) in the context of the service profit chain model, suggested that employee job satisfaction influences an organisation's own service quality. Additional research studies (Bowen & Schneider, 2014; Heskett & Sasser, 2010a; Hartline & Ferrell, 1996) have indicated that employee job satisfaction level is an antecedent of customer perceptions of the level of service quality they receive.

Further research (Anderson, Fornell, & Rust, 1997; Hong, Liao, Hu, & Jiang, 2013) also reported a positive relationship between both customer satisfaction and loyalty and an organisation's performance as measured in financial terms.

Loveman's (1998) study did not provide thorough empirical evidence of the existence of the service profit chain as a successful model of a direct causal relationship between employee and customer satisfaction in the banking industry. However, it did suggest an implied relationship between employee and customer satisfaction. Direct evidence of the service profit chain may have been hindered in being more explicit and direct because of design issues with the study.

Other research (Loveman, 1998; Yee, Yeung, & Cheng, 2011) reported relationships between internal service quality and employee satisfaction, employee loyalty and satisfaction and customer satisfaction, and customer loyalty and organisational profitability.

Research studies such as that of Harter et al. (2002) have also supported the premise that in the service profit chain model there is a linkage between employee satisfaction and specific constructs such as organisational financial performance, customer satisfaction and employee productivity.

Others (Grandey et al., 2011) suggested a linkage between employee satisfaction and customer service responsiveness and satisfaction in the context of a multistore business, and that this connection is dependent upon the volume of sales transaction that occurs.

According to Brown and Mitchell (1993), the more highly skilled account representative employee-customer contact group perceived that a great many of their perceived organisational obstacles had more of a negative than positive impact on their level of job satisfaction.

A study by Yee et al. (2011) involving high contact service employees in 210 Hong Kong organisations, for the purpose of testing the service profit chain concept with particular emphasis on employee attributes, organisational operating performance and organisational outcomes, indicated that employee satisfaction and loyalty contributed to both customer satisfaction and loyalty. This, in turn, leads to increases in sales revenue. The above study also suggested that employee satisfaction and loyalty fulfil a significant role in improving operational performance.

Another research study (Chi & Gursoy, 2009) of the service profit chain in a hospitality company investigated the relationship between customer satisfaction and employee job satisfaction and their influence on an organisation's financial performance. The study examined the relationships between the following four key variables:

- the direct relationship between employee satisfaction and customer satisfaction

- the direct relationship between customer satisfaction and financial performance
- the direct relationship between employee satisfaction and financial performance
- the indirect relationship between employee satisfaction and financial performance

The results of the above study confirmed that employee job satisfaction does not have a direct positive effect on financial performance. However, customer satisfaction does have a positive effect on an organisation's financial performance. This research also suggested that customer satisfaction mediates the indirect relationship between employee job satisfaction and financial performance.

The aim of a study by Evanschitzky, Wangenheim, and Wunderlich (2012) of the service profit chain was to clarify the model in terms of time lag and feedback loops. The results demonstrated time lag considerations in the cause-effect relationships of the components of the service profit chain, such as investments, in order to achieve employee job satisfaction leading to customer satisfaction and the resultant operating profits, which should be considered in the standard service profit chain paradigm.

Specifically, the time lag feedback loop research of the above-mentioned profit chain model indicated that the lag effects were present in the positive relationships between customer satisfaction and performance and between operational investment and employee job satisfaction, as well as a negative effect of employee satisfaction on the current performance to future operational investment relationship.

5.5.1.2 Summary of service profit chain research findings

In summary, many studies (Harter et al., 2002; Heskett et al., 2003; 2010; Hong et al., 2013; Yee et al., 2011) have supported the framework of the service profit chain model, while others (Brown & Chin, 2004; Szymanski & Hennard, 2001) have concluded that there was minimum or no support for the service profit chain model.

The construct of customer orientation was identified as a mediating variable between employee and customer satisfaction in the service profit chain model (Heskett & Sasser, 2010; Homburg & Stock, 2004). Other research (Anderson et al., 1997; Hong et al., 2013) reported a positive relationship between an organisation's financial performance and both customer satisfaction and loyalty.

Additional research by Heskett and Sasser (2010b) and Loveman (1998) suggested an implied relationship between employee and customer satisfaction and support for the service profit

chain model. The research (Harter et al., 2002; Hong et al., 2013) also showed support for the underlying premise of the service profit chain model that there is a linkage between employee satisfaction and metrics such as financial performance, employee productivity and customer satisfaction.

Further research by Yee et al. (2011), which tested the service profit chain model, concluded that employee satisfaction and loyalty have a positive impact on enhancing operational performance. Some studies (e.g. Chi & Gursoy, 2009) reported that while customer satisfaction has a direct positive impact on organisational financial performance, employee job satisfaction does not have that same direct positive effect on financial performance. However, Chi and Gursoy (2009) concluded that employee job satisfaction has an indirect effect on financial performance, which is mediated by customer satisfaction.

There appears to be overall support for the service profit chain model, either in its entirety or as it relates to specific elements in the model such as employee job satisfaction, customer satisfaction, leadership and the impact on financial and nonfinancial performance metrics.

5.5.2 The employee-customer linkage research model

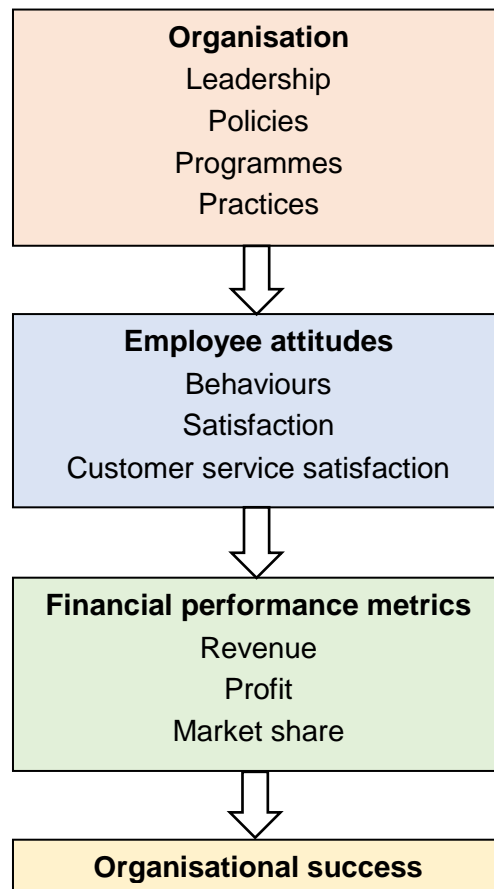
The linkage research model (Heskett et al., 2010; Pugh et al., 2002; Rucci et al., 1998; Wiley, 2010a; Wiley & Brooks, 2000) advances the concept that aspects of the workplace such as leadership, policies, programmes and practices serve as factors that influence employee attitudes, behaviours and satisfaction, as well as customer service and satisfaction. This, in turn, has a direct impact on organisational and financial performance metrics, which ultimately drive organisational success (Martinez & Madigan, 2001; Pugh et al., 2002; Wiley, 2010).

The linkage research model is depicted in Figure 5.2.

According to Wiley (2010a), in order to understand the dynamics of this paradigm in an organisational setting, it is necessary to integrate both employee and customer satisfaction surveys, to determine possible correlations between organisational factors such as leadership and both employee and customer satisfaction, and the statistical significance of these correlations.

The more significant the relationship between organisational factors such as leadership and both employee and customer satisfaction (Wiley, 2010b), the greater the possible impact will be on organisational success, as measured by financial and other organisational performance metrics.

Figure 5.2
Linkage Research Model



Source: Author

The linkage research model (Pugh et al., 2002; Wiley, 1991; 1996; 2010a; Wiley & Brooks, 2000; Zimmermann, Dormann, & Dollard, 2011) demonstrated the following findings through the testing of its principles and assumptions across multiple industries:

- Product and service quality and customer satisfaction are positively linked to customer retention, organisational profitability and market dominance.
- There is a linkage between employee and customer satisfaction.
- Customer satisfaction levels are correlated to employee retention, and long-term organisational success is positively linked to leadership practices that contribute to product and service quality.
- Leadership practice is the lynchpin or conduit in the linkage between employee and customer satisfaction.

Research (Conway & Briner, 2004; Schneider et al., 2000) on the subject of the linkage between job satisfaction and employee commitment to the organisation and its customers, generally reported a meaningful positive relationship with customer satisfaction.

Additional research by Dietz, Pugh, and Wiley (2004) on the employee and customer satisfaction linkage in a multibranch banking organisation indicated a positive relationship between service climate and customer satisfaction. However, this relationship was stronger in the branches with more significant levels of customer contact.

According to Wiley (2010a) and Wiley and Campbell (2006), the linkage research model for examining relationships between employee job satisfaction, as determined through employee-based surveys, customer satisfaction and organisational performance, has evolved into what is now referred to as the high performance model.

The purpose of the development of the high performance model as an extension of linkage research (Wiley, 2010a) was to provide a more thorough and integrated analysis of linkage research and a taxonomy of the high performance organisational climate.

This high performance model focuses on four leadership practice areas that emphasise quality, customer orientation, training, and employee engagement and involvement (Wiley & Brooks, 2000). Wiley (2010b) posited that the focus on these four areas results in enhanced employee satisfaction, commitment and engagement in the organisation, and in so doing, attains high levels of customer satisfaction and loyalty, which contribute to achieving organisational performance objectives.

The high performance engagement model is depicted in Figure 5.3.

In the high performance model, the emphasis in the taxonomy shifts from the original linkage research model (Wiley & Brooks, 2000) by focusing on how high performance business units differ from low performance business units in the same overall business entity.

Figure 5.3

High Performance Engagement Model



Source: Author

5.6 HUMAN RESOURCE PRACTICES AND CUSTOMER SATISFACTION

The development and implementation of human resource practices may provide another dimension in understanding factors associated with customer satisfaction. In one particular study (Rogg, Schmidt, Shull, & Schmitt, 2001) examining the impact of human resource practices on organisational outcomes, specifically customer satisfaction, it was concluded that organisational climate mediates the relationship between human resource practices and programmes and organisational outcomes, with human resource practices having a meaningful indirect impact on customer satisfaction. Some researchers (Gracia, Cifre, & Grau, 2010) have posited that human resource practices and policies when integrated with organisational strategy, influence organisational outcomes, including favourable customer outcomes and other financial results.

In addition, Rogg et al.'s (2001) research on the impact of human resource practices on organisational outcomes concluded that there was virtually no identifiable or measurable direct human resource practices impact on customer satisfaction. This contradicts the other research findings presented in this area. In fact, Cascio's (2012) findings indicated that human resource practices have an impact on organisational outcomes, including customer satisfaction.

Regarding the importance of human assets as a significant dimension in achieving a sustained level of organisational effectiveness, it is generally recognised (Hatch & Dyer, 2004; Jiang et al., 2012) that forward-thinking human resource programme and policy development aligned with a corporate culture and vision are essential factors to achieve the highest levels of organisational success.

Jiang et al.'s (2012) study demonstrated that effective human resource practices and systems were related to organisational and financial outcomes, particularly in relation to influencing both human capital and employee motivation.

The appropriate deployment of human assets can be instrumental in achieving organisational success and gaining a competitive advantage. Research by Benson, Finegold, and Mohrman (2004) concluded that a broad base of human assets, ranging from general skill-base employees, highly technical staff and general management of an organisation, have a contributory effect on a company's effectiveness, particularly in terms of its profitability.

5.7 ADDRESSING CUSTOMER DISSATISFACTION AND ITS IMPACT

The concern for customer attrition is a major one for organisations, particularly in the highly competitive global marketplace in which most businesses operate. While some customer defections occur even in those organisations with high levels of support and proactive customer-focused strategies, according to Andreassen (2000) and Heskett and Sasser (2010a), many occurrences of customer dissatisfaction and ultimate departures may be avoidable and preventable.

In order to achieve stability with customers and ensure their continued satisfied relationships with the organisation, it is imperative to establish the essential building blocks of a culture that achieves and maintains customer loyalty (Schneider et al., 1998). This is especially true of programmes (Michel, Bowen, & Johnston, 2009) whose intent it is to correct customer issues not add to them.

One approach to building this culture (DeTienne & Westwood, 2019; Timm, 2001) involves the development of key strategies that support the achievement and growth of a customer loyalty-based culture.

In order to begin the process of enhancing customer loyalty, it is crucial to understand the type of organisational behaviour which, according to Reichheld (1996) and Heskett et al., (2010), causes or has an impact on customer defections, and to replace this behaviour with behaviours that foster customer loyalty.

In a study (DeTienne & Timm, 1995) to ascertain what organisational behaviours or actions cause customer dissatisfaction, open-ended responses to the question about what turns customers off, indicated from a review of approximately 2 000 responses, three major categories of behaviours and practices that turn customers off and are therefore impediments to creating a culture of customer loyalty. These three areas of customer turn-offs included people, value and system turnoffs.

Of the survey responses, 97% of the 2000 responses were content analysed (DeTienne & Timm, 1995). The responses were reflected in the various item comments below:

People causes

- lack of courtesy, friendliness or attention
- employees who lack knowledge or are unhelpful
- employee appearance and mannerisms

Value causes

- poor guarantee or failure to back up products
- quality not as good as expected
- price too high for value received

System turnoffs

- slow service or help not available
- business place disorganised and cluttered
- minimal selection or poor availability of products
- inconvenient location, layout, parking or access

5.7.1 Organisational impact from dissatisfied customers

For dissatisfied customers who cannot turn to other organisations for their services or products, for example, public utilities, they could instead take out their frustration on employees providing the services or products. This, in turn, would lead to employee job dissatisfaction (Michel et al., 2009; Timm, 2001).

According to Edvardsson (1998) and Groth and Grandey (2012), it is necessary for organisations to avoid these customer service behaviours, and where they exist, to remedy the situation causing the issues that lead to customer dissatisfaction and discontentment with the organisation.

Dissatisfied customers have a direct impact on employee satisfaction and perhaps employee job security (Allen & Wilburn, 2002). Revenue is lost when enough dissatisfied customers move on to another provider for their services and products. This lost revenue, in turn, means the organisation may not be able to support the same number of employees, leading to staff reductions. In addition, the remaining employees may have to do extra work to try and generate new customers in an effort to replenish the lost revenue resulting from the departure of previous customers.

5.7.2 Recapturing dissatisfied customers

Mbawuni and Nimako (2016) and Venetis and Ghauri (2004) suggested that while customers who turn to other providers of their services and products create far-reaching problems for employees and the organisation, as previously discussed, the customers who decide to remain and are equally dissatisfied, (2004) can pose a host of other challenging problems.

Organisations have two choices: they either ignore customer complaints which, while not beneficial to the short- and long-term success of the organisation, is still a common behaviour of what may be dysfunctional organisations; or they address the complaints causing customer dissatisfaction. All organisations, even the best-in-class companies, have some level of dissatisfied customers.

However, what often distinguishes the organisation with continual short-/long-term performance and growth from those organisations that falter in this regard is the culture and mindset that exists and is applied in alleviating and avoiding customer dissatisfaction (Dauber, Fink, & Yolles, 2010; Homburg & Pflesser, 2000). Those organisations that regard customer dissatisfaction as an annoyance or some type of personality issue in customers, are likely to repeat their unproductive behaviour.

However, according to Homburg and Fürst (2005) and Homburg, Fürst, and Koschate (2010), the organisations that view customers' dissatisfaction and their complaints underlying this discontentment with the organisation as an opportunity to improve the customers' experiences with the organisation, are likely to achieve the long-term sustainability and effectiveness of the organisation.

Often dissatisfied customers who have had their issues and complaints resolved favourably by the organisation may generally be more disposed to demonstrate loyalty to the organisation than customers who may not have experienced any dissatisfaction or complaints to begin with. Andreassen (1999; 2000) and Michel et al. (2009) postulated that considering the effect and resources required to generate new customers, the investment in turning around an existing dissatisfied customer in terms of building and solidifying a long-term relationship based on loyalty with that customer, may be well worth the effort.

5.7.3 Customer complaint resolution organisational impact

An additional benefit of resolving customer concerns may also be the lessons learned organisationally, which can become the standard by which future employee and organisational behaviour is shaped in terms of either preventing dissatisfaction or reversing it in similar customer dissatisfaction scenarios. It is essential to create the culture and processes that support open and direct communication between customers and the organisation, allowing customer grievances to surface so that any dissatisfaction a customer may be experiencing is dealt with timeously and effectively.

Research (Karatepe, 2006; Michel et al., 2009) has demonstrated that the timely and effective resolution of customer complaints can influence the customers' perception of justice, particularly when the organisation displays attentiveness, is apologetic where appropriate and provides an explanation when addressing customer concerns. Creating a system of communication that allows customers to air their complaints and dissatisfaction can be both of an immediate informal and or delayed formal nature. The reason for both immediate and delayed in an informal and formal manner of communication by customers is to be able to receive feedback from customers at both the point of contact (informal) and after they have been able to experience the service or product they have acquired for a period of time (formal).

The relevance of point-of-contact feedback from customers is to address potential dissatisfying experiences as close to the actual occurrence of the event in order to avoid issues from festering with the customer until a more formal feedback mechanism is utilised.

Vázquez-Casielles, Suarez Alvarez, and Diaz (2010) and Zairi (2000) underscored the importance of a culture that encourages complaint resolution through point-of-contact feedback from customers, as stated in the previous paragraph. This immediate form of customer feedback can go a long way in developing the foundation for positive relationships with the customer and setting the stage for the potential of a long-term commitment by the customer to continue acquiring products and services from the organisation.

Conversely, the more formal and delayed form of soliciting customers' feedback and gauging their level of satisfaction is equally significant as a means of instilling in them a sense that the organisation is interested in their opinions about their buying experiences and creating a sustainable beneficial relationship.

By receiving customer feedback periodically and acting on any dissatisfaction over service failures, the organisation can rebuild initial levels of customer satisfaction and loyalty and even create greater loyalty (Miller, Craighead, & Karwan, 2000; Vázquez-Casielles et al., 2010). This rebuilding of customer loyalty is essential for long-term business dealings and may benefit the organisation in terms of customers spreading the word to potential customers about their positive experiences with the organisation, and in essence serving as de facto sales representatives contributing to new customer additions and organisational growth.

Andreassen (1999; 2000) and Homburg et al. (2010) suggested that resolution of customer complaints can have a positive influence on not only customer satisfaction level, but also favourably impact customer loyalty towards the organisation and engaging in future business transactions with it.

5.8 CUSTOMER SATISFACTION AND ITS IMPACT ON LOYALTY

It is difficult to establish a correlation between customer satisfaction and repeat business as a result of customer loyalty owing to the potential for intervening variables, especially customer satisfaction, which may mediate this relationship and correlation (Mittal & Kamakura, 2001). Flint et al. (2011) proposed another intervening variable that mediates this relationship, that is, whether customer value is a perception. A customer may have a satisfying experience that may go no further in terms of achieving a loyalty-based long-term relationship with the organisation.

In essence, much like what has been proposed by others (Guinn, 2013), who postulated that a satisfied employee may not necessarily be a motivated employee, as satisfaction and motivation exist on different planes, a customer may only be satisfied with the transaction, but not motivated beyond that to pursue a commitment to purchasing an organisation's products and/or services on a repeated and long-term basis.

5.8.1 Customer satisfaction impact on repeat business

With regard specifically to the motivation for building a long-term relationship as a repeat customer with the organisation, there may be little that distinguishes satisfied from dissatisfied customers who, despite their dissatisfaction, continue at least in the short term to acquire products and services from the organisation. However, according to Rauyruen, Miller, and

Groth (2009), dissatisfied customers are less likely to spend premium dollars on goods and services. By contrast, satisfied and motivated customers are willing to repurchase (Fang, Chiu, & Wang, 2011). In essence, there is a gap between this state of merely being satisfied minimally, or in other words, not dissatisfied, and being motivated.

Meaningful research evidence (Fang et al., 2011; Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996) has suggested a relationship between service quality and indicators of customer loyalty, including sustainable repeat business with the organisation and amenability to pay for quality products and services.

The challenge for an organisation (Aydin, Ozer, & Arasil, 2005; Pan, Sheng, & Xie, 2012) is how to take the customer relationship to the next level and help build an environment that creates and maintains the type of customer loyalty built on antecedents of loyalty such as organisation image, perceived service quality and trust that transcends the inevitable difficulties along the way and enhances the prospects for a sustained long-term relationship.

To this end, the organisation needs to go beyond simply meeting customer expectations. Instead, it should endeavour to exceed those expectations to enable it to move up the chain from what customers have anticipated, based on their previous experiences with the organisation about what it will do to meet their expectations, to customers being unexpectedly surprised by the organisation exceeding what they had expected.

5.8.2 Employee role in contributing to customer loyalty

Frese and Fay (2001; 2015) posited that employees who interface with customers need to develop the capabilities and demonstrate the personal initiative and proactive behaviours required to work towards better understanding and identifying what customers perceive as experiences with the organisation that exceed their expectations and create loyalty.

Employees play a key role in learning to judge what a customer anticipates from the organisation and then to provide product and service experiences that exceed customer expectations. According to Heskett and Sasser (2010b), Heskett et al. (2003; 2010) and Payne, Holt, and Frow (2000), this imbalance between what customers expect or anticipate from the organisation and what the organisation actually does, contributes significantly to whether the customer is motivated to achieve a long-term relationship, be minimally satisfied or perhaps even dissatisfied. When customers perceive the organisation's actions as exceeding what they had anticipated, the imbalance is positive from the customers' perspective.

When organisational actions are deemed by the customer to have met, not exceeded their expectations, equilibrium exists between customer expectations and actual performance (Lin, Tsai, & Chiu, 2009). This has a positive impact on customer loyalty without necessarily any additional motivation on the part of the customer for achieving a long-term relationship with the organisation other than expectations having been met. Finally, if the organisation's interface and business dealings with customers are less than what customers expected or anticipated from the organisation, then the imbalance moves in a negative direction resulting in dissatisfaction and possible customer defection if the situation is not remedied.

5.8.3 Customer value, satisfaction and loyalty

According to Flint et al. (2011), it is important for customers to perceive that they are receiving meaningful value in terms of the products and services they receive for the cost they have incurred from doing business with an organisation. Value may come in the form of a product or service that, for example, exceeds customer expectations in terms of the cost/benefit customers receive. The value may be of a tangible or intangible nature as well. The value that customers perceive they are receiving has its origins as early as in the design stage of a product's development or the concept phase of a service to be rendered.

Fay and Sonnentag (2010) and Frese and Fay (2001; 2015) have suggested that the role played by employees who are proactive in their job performance and discretionary work behaviours, over and above their core job tasks at various levels and segments of the organisation, in delivering products and services, is crucial. This is especially so if customers perceive that the employees' role has exceeded their expectations from a value perspective in terms of the effect it has on customer satisfaction, retention, long-term business relationships and ultimate sustainable organisational effectiveness.

An imperative in today's global competitive business environment is for organisations to build and reward the kind of culture and employee behaviour that focuses on delivering high value to their customers in terms of the products and services provided (Heskett & Sasser, 2010; Heskett et al., 2003, 2010; Johnson, 1996). This constant and ingrained focus of providing value to customers is what results in differentiation and a competitive advantage in comparison with organisations lacking in this type of commitment to their customers.

Rarely does a market- or industry-leading organisation reach such a high level of competitiveness as well as sustain it without a culture that focuses on delivery of value and service to customers (Treacy & Wiersema, 1995; Zacharias, Nijssen, and Stock, 2016). Creating this type of culture (Liden, Wayne, Liao, & Meuser, 2014; Schneider et al., 1998; Shah & Jain, 2015; Ulrich & Smallwood, 2007b) starts with the top leadership of the

organisation in terms of philosophy, vision and the type of actions that model this customer-focused behaviour.

This same customer-focused model initiated at the top levels should be patterned and permeate the various ranks of the organisation in a coordinated and undistinguishable fashion in order to build a single cultural mindset focused on delivering services and products of high value to customers (Johnson, 1996; Liden et al., 2014; Ulrich & Smallwood, 2007). Creating the type of culture that stresses customer value is only one approach, but a key factor in achieving customer satisfaction and loyalty.

At least equally and perhaps more important is sustaining this type of culture through the various changes and stages in an organisation's evolution. According to Cameron and McNaughtan (2014) and Chatman and Cha (2003), managing this evolution and the change process is the most critical factor impacting an organisation's ability to continue a culture (once created) committed to providing high customer value in products and services.

The continuous focus on customer value as a means of solidifying customer satisfaction and contributing to loyalty and organisational effectiveness should occur through various potentially negative mediating events in the life of an organisation. Chuang, Judge, and Liaw (2012) and MacKenzie, Podsakoff, and Rich (2001) asserted that leadership can play a significant contributory role in ensuring customer value through this because it has an effect on marketing and salesperson performance.

These mediating events, which may include management team changes, shifts in employee population eroding a customer-driven culture, product and service changes, operational relocations, acquisitions and mergers, dismantling employee teams due to product and service changes, and the formation of new teams, could subvert customer support programmes.

In addition, cultural integration of new international operating units, employee dislocations due to divestures, fluctuations in demand for products and services, economic performance of the organisation and internal business unit competition for organisational resources and capital might derail investments in customer support programmes.

According to Shah, Rust, Parasuraman, Staelin, and Day (2006), impediments and events such as those associated with structure, financial metrics, culture and processes, inhibit the viability of a customer-centric value-focused organisation. This creates difficulties in sustaining a culture and the organisational behaviour that supports a mission focused on maintaining the kind of customer value propositions that drive outstanding customer satisfaction, which

ultimately leads to organisational effectiveness. As a result of these issues, which may arise in the course of an organisation's existence (Schein, 2004; 2016b), the challenges faced by leaders and employees alike is to overcome these obstacles and demonstrate continuous commitment to providing customer value.

Zeithaml et al. (2012) and Zeithaml, Parasuraman, and Berry (1985) argued that customer integration into value proposition development is only a foundational consideration, and the real impact is derived from the degree of intensity of customer integration.

These value proposition strategies focus on and enforce practices, policies, services and programmes that create high value as perceived by both customers and employees. The effect of this, according to Lawler (2003; 2011) and Ulrich and Smallwood (2003) is that in the case of customers, they elect to continue to purchase goods and services (in some instances greater quantities). Employees, however, may decide to develop and maintain a long-term productive and effective commitment to the organisation as demonstrated in their performance to exceed customer expectations.

Lowery (2013) and Schneider et al. (2000) postulated that in the case of customers and employees, there is an interaction of their respective perceived value propositions, which influences attitudes and behaviours regarding the organisational climate, leadership, commitment to the work and loyalty to the organisation's goods and services.

As such, employee perceptions of the organisational policies, practices and leadership shape their attitudes which, in turn, manifest in their behaviours relating to providing high-value goods and services to customers. This further frames how customers define their level of satisfaction with and their loyalty towards the organisation.

5.9 LEADERSHIP, LEARNING AND CUSTOMER SERVICE CULTURE

This section focuses on the effect of leadership and learning on the formation of a customer service culture. A review of the relationship between employee pay, rewards and service quality culture are presented, followed by a discussion of the role of employee performance appraisals and customer satisfaction. The section concludes with an overview of employee service response and customer satisfaction.

5.9.1 Leadership and learning effect on customer service

When an organisation's leadership has laid a strong cultural foundation, anchored partly in exceeding customer expectations, according to Treacy and Wiersema (1995) and Zacharias et al. (2016), the culture itself can transcend any changes that may occur, which may

otherwise have the effect of derailing or distracting the focus on achieving customer satisfaction.

Research (Dong, Liao, Chuang, Zhou, & Campbell 2015; Schneider, Erhart, Mayer, Saltz, & Niles-Jolly, 2005) has lent credence to major elements in the service profit chain, specifically the impact of service leadership on both the organisational service climate as well as customer-focused behaviour and the ultimate effect on improving customer satisfaction levels and sales volume.

Organisational leadership that focuses on fostering an environment in which all employees, and especially those who have direct interface or contact with customers, are thoroughly engaged in their job assignments and tasks, is essential in creating and sustaining a service quality culture (Dong et al., 2015; Leiter & Maslach, 2001).

Dong et al. (2015) and Liao and Chuang (2004) suggested that a key strategy in maintaining a customer-focused environment that can overcome the potential destruction of the various events previously discussed, focuses on leadership-centred strategies such as communication, training, recognition and reward programmes, which reinforce behaviours that support a customer-focused culture.

It is vital for the organisation's leadership to continuously communicate its strategy and vision as it pertains to serving customers. According to Batt (1999), the learning and reinforcement that takes places through clear and repeated training and communication throughout the organisation regarding delivering value to customers' overtime, becomes a deeply anchored dimension of the organisation's culture and well as expectations of its employees.

Reinforcing the commitment to customer service through transformational leadership initiatives (e.g. organisation-wide meetings or one-on-one discussions between a manager and his or her employee) will help to ensure that even with the periodic and expected attrition, the customer-focused culture becomes ingrained by those continuing with the organisation to a sufficient aggregate level in the aggregate. Transformational leadership (Chuang et al., 2012) has been shown to influence both customer satisfaction and service performance.

Maintaining high levels of customer service performance aided by a transformational leadership culture can occur while still integrating new members into the organisation with the proper introduction and training in the expectations of the organisation with regard to delivering customer value in terms of products and services.

Gustaffson, and Johnson, and Roos (2005) and Wirtz et al. (2010) asserted that sharing any customer feedback (positive and negative) that the organisation receives, with all members of the organisation, is also a key leadership factor in using communication as a learning strategy to enhance a culture of customer service.

As a follow-up to this, when the organisation works through customer issues that have been referred back to it, which the customer has accepted as satisfactorily resolved, this information should also be shared because this display of leadership contributes to organisational learning (Weintraub, 1995; Wirtz et al., 2010). According to Filip (2013), Reichheld (2001a) and Yilmaz, Varnali, and Kasnakoglu (2016), it is organisational learning that adds value by understanding customer failures and corrective action and enhancing long-term sustainability and effectiveness. Resolving any issues a customer has raised, which leads to customer satisfaction beyond their initial expectation, becomes an institutional learning experience for participating members of the organisation for which they can receive special recognition.

An organisational learning culture (Filip, 2013; Skerlavaj, Stemberger, Skrinjar, & Dimovski, 2007) influenced by communication that results in the acquisition of customer information has been shown to have a direct effect on customer perceptions of satisfaction.

It is also necessary to share the details of customer issues, which despite solutions provided by the organisation, lead to ongoing customer dissatisfaction and ultimately departure. Despite efforts by an organisation to resolve customer grievances, it is inevitable that some attrition of customers is to be expected, and in some circumstances this is healthy.

However, the organisation should not be reticent to also discussing and making public internally the circumstances of customer departures since this also provides an opportunity for organisational learning. As asserted by Lapre and Tsikritksis (2006), institutionalised learning can be developmental for the culture of the organisation to grow and reduce customer dissatisfaction and defections. The lessons learned, especially if codified and documented, can serve as a catalyst for change and a means of avoiding similar issues in the future with other customers.

5.9.2 Employee pay, rewards and service quality culture

Another important focal point for ensuring the long-term viability of a customer-oriented culture and organisational performance, according to Banker, Potter, and Srinivasan (2000) and Lages and Piercy (2012), is in the area of nonfinancial employee incentive and recognition for exceeding customer satisfaction.

Heskett et al. 2003; 2015) suggested that in building this type of customer-oriented culture that contributes to growth and long-term viability, the organisation should recognise consistently, thoroughly and publicly, the behaviour of specific employees or work group teams who, through their actions, decisions and performance of their assigned work, contribute to providing exceptional customer value, service and satisfaction. As posited by Chen and Gogus (2008) and Xu, Liu, Guo, Sinha, and Akkiraju (2017), work teams engaged in customer-driven activities have become more commonplace and central to organisations focused on service quality performance.

This recognition can be accomplished through employee service achievement award programmes in which employees are recognised through management or peer nomination and receive some type of certificate to celebrate their contribution at a formal ceremony, attended by their work team and management. Organisation-wide newsletters are a way of ensuring publicly that employee service performance is recognised in terms of its positive outcome on customer satisfaction.

As the research of Salanova et al. (2005) and Siddiqi (2015) has demonstrated, performance that exemplifies a service climate culture contributes to employee performance which, in turn, influences customer loyalty.

Problem-solving empowered teams in harmony with management and the organisational vision, and a supporting leadership culture, can enhance customer service quality (Boxall & Macky, 2009). These teams comprising employees and perhaps management, through their experiences with providing outstanding customer value and service quality, can share specific information on the successful actions and behaviours they displayed and receive recognition for this.

According to Chiang and Birtch (2011), an approach for building a customer-based culture centres around financially rewarding those members of the organisation who exemplify through their behaviour a strong commitment to customer satisfaction. This differs from the previous approach, which stressed nonfinancial methods, by creating compensation strategies and programmes that reward those employees who contribute to the delivery of customer service quality and value, resulting in customer satisfaction and loyalty. Employees need to understand that rendering quality service will lead to personally rewarding outcomes (Bowen & Schneider, 1995, 2014).

The aspect of loyalty can be measured through customer commitment demonstrated by repeated and long-term business dealings with the organisation as measured financially.

Research by Zhang, Dixit, and Friedmann (2010) supported the premise that customer loyalty is a predictor of customer long-term profitability. The loyalty factor may also be demonstrated in some organisations by the degree to which customers move upwards in the food chain through their acquisition of higher financially valued products and services from the organisation.

A compensation programme rewarding employees based partly on their success in contributing to customer satisfaction and loyalty can go a long way in ensuring success in retaining customers in a long-term relationship (Heskett et al. 2010; Towler et al., 2011). The compensation programme, according to Fornell et al. (2006), is a viable tool in accomplishing this by tangibly reinforcing the type of employee behaviours the organisation values as it relates to ensuring customer satisfaction by providing financial recognition for this desired behaviour. In order for a compensation programme to be successful in rewarding employees for desired behaviours, it should be designed and structured by incorporating clearly defined financial parameters and components relating to the customer satisfaction dimension.

Banker, Potter, and Srinivasan (2000) and Banker, Lee, Potter, and Srinivasan (2015) asserted that an effective compensation programme that recognises customer-driven behaviour should be linked to a goal-setting process that establishes specific targets and objectives that relate to attaining high levels of customers satisfaction and loyalty and supports this through a formal performance appraisal measurement and feedback system. This objective setting and performance assessment process allows for a framework whereby the organisation's leadership and employees can agree on objectives and purpose to achieve customer satisfaction.

According to Locke and Latham (2002; 2013a), the goal-setting process once agreed upon facilitates goal alignment with organisational strategies that tie the achievement of specific goals to financial rewards. Rewards of this kind (Milkovich & Newman, 2004; 2007; Newman, Gerhart, & Milkovich, 2016) can be integrated with performance or merit pay increases as part of an annual compensation programme or be awarded at the time of the achievement of a specific customer goal, milestone or even unplanned employee action that results in attaining customer satisfaction.

In the case of unplanned employee action resulting in achievement of customer satisfaction goals, an option would be treatment as a performance bonus and not added to an employee's base annual compensation through a merit pay adjustment. Luo and Homburg (2007) and Luo, Wieseke, and Homburg (2012) suggested that the disadvantage of not including it as part of base pay through a merit increase is that it loses permanent and long-term reinforcement

value and focuses on rewarding attainment of customer-oriented objectives through higher fixed compensation rewards.

The financial rewards for attaining customer satisfaction as part of employees' compensation programme provides reinforcement for desired behaviours demonstrated in achieving success in delivering the kind of products and services that meet or exceed customer expectations to continue those same desired behaviours (Anderson et al., 2004; Luo & Homburg, 2007; Mittal & Frennea, 2010). According to Mercer Consulting (2007), customer satisfaction survey results as an organisational tool are included in factors evaluated when making employee compensation reward decisions in over two-thirds of the organisations surveyed.

A blending of rewards for attaining both planned customer satisfaction objectives and the spontaneous achievement of customer satisfaction through a response to an issue could perhaps coexist as a part of the compensation programme. This would allow for both a short-term responsiveness and long-term (planned) recognition approach.

5.9.3 Performance appraisal and customer satisfaction

The performance appraisal process is an important link to customer satisfaction goals and objectives and compensation and award programmes that recognise employees for achieving customer satisfaction. Banker, Huang, and Natarajan (2011) and Banker et al. (2000) suggested that performance appraisal is the bridge between individual and cumulative organisational objectives for delivering products and services that exceed customer expectations. The result is customer satisfaction and employees receiving rewards through compensation and other financial recognition programmes.

Manoharan, and Muralidharan and Deshmukh, (2011) posited that a performance appraisal programme can provide the process and method for measuring the relationship and actual employee performance in relation to the impact on and achievement of desired customer satisfaction behavioural outcomes against agreed-upon goals in this area.

Incorporating customer satisfaction assessment into the appraisal phase of the goal-performance-reward cycle, solidifies the significance of achieving customer satisfaction, thus adding credibility to a customer-driven culture.

Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, and Blume (2009) stated that organisational citizenship behaviours, which may not be included in pre-established goals, but can still influence organisational effectiveness measures such as customer satisfaction, can also be factored in as part of an individual employee's performance appraisal.

According to Hagan, Konopaske, Bernardin, and Tyler (2006), in the performance appraisal process, customer satisfaction survey results have been used much more widely as a means of feedback and evaluation of employee performance.

The performance appraisal process is the gatekeeper that legitimises the customer satisfaction/employee behaviour performance relationship with reinforcement provided through the compensation and related recognition programmes (Manoharan Muralidharan, & Deshmukh, 2011). Banker et al. (2015) and Kennedy Goolsby, and Arnould (2003) asserted that periodic and thorough employee performance evaluation against predefined customer satisfaction objectives helps to achieve the type of customer-centred organisational culture needed to enhance customer satisfaction and achieve long-term sustainable organisational effectiveness.

5.9.4 Employee service response and customer satisfaction

Providing customers with information they need during the sales process can help build loyalty and contributes to long-term organisational effectiveness. The loyalty chain link assessment can be a key organisational endeavour during the post-sales period (Gallarza, Ruiz-Molina, & Gil-Saura, 2016). According to Daugherty, Ellinger, and Rogers (1995), this can be achieved when an organisation displays sensitivity through responsiveness to customers by spending time reviewing any feedback concerns they may have, answering any post-purchase questions or providing guidance through their initial orientation with the new product or service. Customers perceive quality service as having value for them. This is clearly linked to loyalty which, in essence, becomes a means by which customers evaluate the level of value they receive (Heskett et al., 2010; Reichheld, 2001b).

The quality of customer service-related processes has been studied and shown by Gandhi and Kang (2011) and Homburg and Rudolph (2001) to be a contributing factor towards the sales representatives' job satisfaction level which, in turn, has a positive influence on customer satisfaction.

Ongoing post-sales customer support is a way of reinforcing a culture which places the focus on customer satisfaction and sends a clear message to customers that the organisation takes their issues and concerns seriously. Personal interaction with customers, according to Gallarza et al. (2016) and Garcia and Annabi (2002) is beneficial to the organisation in providing customers with updates on changes or enhancements to their products and services. It is also another means for the organisation to build long-term loyalty with customers.

Engaging in personal interactions sends a message that the organisation is concerned and thinking about the customers, and taking the initiative of offering product and service information to the customer, as opposed to the customer having to search for this information and initiate the contact. As research (Delcourt et al., 2013; Van Dolen, Ruyter, & Lemmink, 2004) has indicated, positive employee emotions during direct customer interaction have a meaningful influence on encounter and relationship satisfaction.

Ensuring that customer inquiries are encouraged by the organisation is another method of building the type of loyalty that leads to long-term customer satisfaction. However, while this is a key aspect of the loyalty-building process, it is equally if not more significant to ensure that customer inquiries for information or questions on the use of products and delivery of service are dealt with in a thorough and responsive manner (Chandrashekar, Rotte, Tax, & Grewal, 2007; Roberts & Alpert, 2010). This process should be supported by accurate information and/or instructions to develop and solidify customer confidence and trust in the organisation, which is another factor in building loyalty and sustainable levels of customer satisfaction.

Another area that can contribute to building a lasting relationship based on customer loyalty is to portray to customers a positive and “can do” attitude by the behaviour and demeanour displayed by representatives of the organisation to its customers.

Day and Crask (2000) and Scridon (2012) asserted that customers’ assessment will be based on their determination of whether there is quality and value obtained from the goods and services acquired, the level of potential risk relying on the organisation, and whether there is any chemistry between themselves and the organisation. Customers assess the manner in which they and their concerns are treated by the organisation, the sense of the commitment they believe the organisation has made to their relationship, and whether there is a productive and long-term personality fit that will ensure their satisfaction.

According to Roberts and Alpert (2010), an organisation’s role in ensuring full engagement with customers requires effective multichannel marketing communication strategies to facilitate a sense with the customer of a committed and special relationship.

Projecting a positive image, one of absolute and genuine interest in helping customers meet their product and service needs is vital. Verbal communication in terms of style as well as content can be important factors in interactions with customers and may contribute to customer satisfaction. Research (Abu EISamen, Akroush, Al-Khawaldeh, & Al-Shibly, 2011; Ball, Coelho, & Machas, 2004) has found that customer loyalty is positively impacted by communication as well as satisfaction and trust.

Babbar and Koufteros (2008) suggested that enhancing customer loyalty, long-term commitment and customer satisfaction that exceeds customer expectations can be facilitated through verbal communication by customer contact personnel, especially displaying individual attention and being courteous, helpful and timely.

These communication considerations are equally relevant because they pertain to written organisational communication, which also influence customer loyalty (Abu El-Samen et al., 2011; Ball et al., 2004). Nonverbal and nonwritten communication in the form of body language and demeanour can also convey messages to customers in terms of how interested, supportive and connected the organisation may be to meeting their needs, building loyalty and providing products and services that exceed their expectations and drive high levels of customer satisfaction.

In line with this, another appropriate communication strategy in dealing with customers is for organisations to ensure that their culture and behaviour in dealing with customers includes demonstration of listening skills. According to Leonard (2002) and Reed, Goolsby, and Johnston (2016), it is absolutely essential for organisational representatives to actively listen to customers' end needs and recommendations for outcomes they are expecting from new products and services in addition to their concerns.

At times, what the customer is communicating about his or her concern for products and services may be more indirect or hidden between the lines, and thus require more attentive listening skills. Various customer listening tools, as reported by Caemmerer and Wilson (2010) and Garver (2001), such as focus groups, in-depth interviews, sales and customer service representative feedback, verbatim comments from surveys, quantitative tools, critical incident surveys, relationship surveys, customer complaints, life cycle, won/lost analysis and problem resolutions, allow for a thorough understanding of customer experiences and perspectives, which may yield competitive advantages.

As indicated in the research literature (Drollinger & Comer, 2013; Singh & Wilkes, 1996), organisations that listen to customer concerns and practise problem solving and complaint resolution timeously experience improvements in general customer satisfaction. A customer may be more subtle, whether intentional or unintentional, in communicating information that may be below the surface and appear innocuous or insignificant.

However, as postulated by Arokiasamy (2013) and Zairi, (2000), with careful and purposeful listening, these messages may reveal more relevant and bona fide concerns that a customer may be having, which, if addressed and resolved quickly and effectively, may lead to

improvement in the customer experience and satisfaction as well as retention issues for the organisation.

Using follow-up and probing questions with customers may result in greater clarification and insights on what actual outcomes the customer is really interested in with regard to products and services, as well as resolution of concerns (Heskett & Sasser, 2010; Ulwick, 2002). This action allows the organisation to address issues with a customer and avoid the matter escalating to the extent of jeopardised loyalty, customer satisfaction and a long-term relationship.

According to Hammond, Neff, Farr, Schwal, and Zhao (2011) and Van Dyne et al. (2002), a culture of proactive communications with customers, in conjunction with other customer-oriented employee behaviours, is an area likely to benefit from additional research. It is an investment in ensuring that the organisation anticipates or is at least in lockstep with what customers seek in terms of products and services, expectations for ongoing support and how attuned the organisation is to resolving customers' problems.

A final key area for building long-term business relationships with customers (Fay & Sonnentag, 2010; Frese & Fay, 2001; 2015) centres on ensuring the productive use and engagement of the customer's time in a manner that creates the real perception that he or she clearly is front and centre in the organisation's mind in providing service and product quality.

This can result in the customer forming the opinion that the organisation has an effective and efficient quality service process (Cronin et al., 2000). Listening to customers, learning from them and using their feedback, according to Maguire, Koh, and Huang (2007) and Wirtz et al. (2010), can contribute to an organisation's knowledge in developing products and services to meet customer needs and enhance satisfaction.

5.10 SERVICE SATISFACTION IMPACT ON CUSTOMER LOYALTY

The specific role of customer contact and service centre employees in achieving service quality, and the impact of this on both the development and evolution of customer opinions, perceptions and behaviours with regard to customer loyalty, is supported by the research of Bitner (1990), Bitner, Booms, and Mohr (1994) Cronin et al. (2000) and Van Dun, Bloemer, and Henseler (2011).

Salanova et al. (2005) and Siddiqi (2015) asserted that customer contact employee work team perceptions regarding both their jobs and environment are a major contributory factor to the development of a service climate in the organisation, which fosters sustainable organisational growth and effectiveness, thus ensuring customer satisfaction and loyalty.

Research (Salanova et al., 2005; Siddiqi, 2015) has indicated that the existence of a positive service climate contributes to positive customer perceptions of the performance of the employee group as a whole, which further leads to customer loyalty and sustained levels of organisational performance. Additional research by Kumar (2002) and Kumar, Dalla Pozza, and Ganesh (2013) demonstrated that customer perceptions of positive employee performance behaviours contribute to customer loyalty and long-term mutually beneficial relationships with the organisation.

Other researchers (Liden et al., 2014; Snow, 2002) reported a link between a positive culture and service climate and actual employee job performance without consideration of customer perceptions of employee performance in an organisation demonstrating a positive service culture.

In essence, the above-mentioned studies on service culture, employee performance and customer loyalty indicated that the relationship between a positive service climate and customer loyalty is mediated by employee performance.

According to Bowen and Schneider (2014) and Schneider et al. (1998), when customers perceive high service quality, as well as the organisation's efficiency in providing quality goods and services, they are likely to be motivated to continue their loyalty to the organisation through their interest and action of continuing to engage in business with the organisation they perceive as effective. By being considerate and efficient about the time expended in dealing with customers, the organisation conveys a message to customers that it respects them and the limits on their time.

It also indicates that the organisation is well managed, serious, productive and diligent in the use of its time and is likely to be viable in the future as a provider of the goods and services the customer is counting on in the long term. Ulwick (2002) and Van der Hoven, Michea, Varnes, and Goffin (2013) suggested another way in which the organisation can build customer loyalty in terms of its efficiency in interactions with its customers in respect of the products and services, and the support it provides, is by integrating the customer into the planning sessions relating to the next-generation products and services it is considering offering.

Through the planning process, the organisation benefits by obtaining the perspective of the end user before the product is offered to the customer in terms of the outcome needs he or she is seeking to satisfy on the basis of the products and services (Ulwick, 2002; Van der Hoven et al., 2013). This partnering communicates to customers that the organisation

considers them important to the product planning process. Certainly, at the very least, the message the organisation conveys to customers is that it values their opinions and perspectives.

By encouraging customers' participation in the product and service planning process, the organisation is once again demonstrating its commitment to a long-term relationship. Cronin et al. (2000) and Van der Hoven et al. (2013) asserted that it is the process quality and the quality and value of the actual products and services that contribute to the customer's level of satisfaction.

The impact of including the customer in a partnering planning capacity with the organisation is likely to contribute to a sense of loyalty towards the organisation, the level of customer satisfaction and continuing commitment to growing purchases of the company's products and services by customers. The inclusion of customers in this planning process (Van der Hoven et al., 2013; Woodhall, 2003) contributes to their understanding and assessment of the way in which the products and services are developed and their perception of value.

By eliciting the participation of customers on the front end in the product planning phase, the organisation is once again demonstrating its commitment to customer-centric marketing principles by being both efficient, that is, doing the right things, and being effective by doing things right (Sheth, Sisodia, & Sharma, 2000; Van der Hoven et al., 2013). Utilising customer time on the front end of planning, as opposed to the back end, could result in customer problem avoidance.

In addition, according to Xia, Monroe, and Cox (2004), anytime the organisation can provide to its customers product features or service levels that do not have extra itemised fees associated with them, the customer's level of expectation will be met because the price for value is likely to be perceived as fair, which could be a contributory factor towards loyalty and increased prospects for a long-term business relationship.

5.11 COMPLAINT PROCESSING AND CUSTOMER SATISFACTION

While it is critical to resolve customer complaints correctly the first time they surface, this is not always possible. Maxham and Netemeyer (2002) posited that most organisations are unable to ensure a complaint-free transaction or relationship with customers, but they are able to demonstrate effectiveness in responding to and resolving disputes.

According to Zairi (2000), there might be, for example, organisationally imposed restrictions on certain levels of staff in the organisation to apply the type of solution that will resolve the issue completely for the customer the first time. However, customers should expect to have

any issue resolved as expeditiously as possible (Arokiasamy, 2013). Customers may understand these limitations on representatives whom they initially interact with in order to resolve their concerns.

Research (Bowen & Schneider, 2014; Schneider & Bowen, 1999) has indicated that customer perceptions of justice in resolving complaints are important as customer responses to unjust service are more negatively significant than their response is positive to only services.

According to Maxham and Netemeyer (2000) and Zhao, Lu, Zhang, and Chau (2012), a key consideration in achieving high levels of customer satisfaction is to ensure that a consistent equitable approach is adopted, communicated to all appropriate employees, supported by training and development and implemented, which stresses justice in the of treatment customers.

However, customers are less likely to accept an unproductive use of their time by being passed from one organisational representative to the next without resolution and having to reiterate their problem and the steps taken to resolve it (Patterson, McColl-Kennedy, Smith, & Lu, 2009). Filip (2013) and Rust, Zahorik, and Keiningham (1996) suggested that ineffective and poorly conceived channels of communication create obstacles for customers to voice complaints in an effective and cost-sensitive manner.

It is essential for organisations to consistently implement customer service and complaint resolution-friendly policies, which allow the authority to resolve issues as much as possible at the first contact point and limit organisational decisions placing restrictions on customer contact staff. Research (Fornell, Johnson, Anderson, Cha, & Bryant, 1996; Varela-Neira, Vázquez-Casielles, & Iglesias, 2010) has indicated that significant customer dissatisfaction occurs when deficient customer complaint procedures are applied. Studies by Salanova et al. (2005) and Siddiqi (2015) concluded that when employees feel structural and other work obstacles have been removed, they become more focused on service quality, and customers, in turn, report through assessment feedback that the quality of service has indeed improved.

Research studies have demonstrated that effective handling of customer complaints contributes to high levels of customer satisfaction (Filip, 2013; Smith, Bolton, & Wagner, 1999; Varela-Neira et al., 2010). According to Estelami (2000), almost half of customers who register complaints indicate dissatisfaction with the manner in which complaints are handled. Organisations need to provide the framework in terms of decision-making processes and structure, as well as customer service training and development that uses most efficiently the customer time commitment to resolve problems in order to enhance service quality.

Organisations often go to great lengths to impress upon their staff (during orientation and training) the need to focus on customers and resolve their complaints quickly and satisfactorily (Guangjie, Junmin, Meng, & Yumin, 2015; Nilsson et al., 2001). However, this is not always supported because of decision-making processes being misaligned with that type of philosophical culture. In these situations, employees should mention clearly to customers their restricted decision making powers as the reason they have to refer customers to someone who can actually resolve their issue.

Training in customer service quality and complaint processing is necessary to enhance employee sensitivity and recognition of the importance of dealing with disenfranchised customers (Guanjie et al., 2015; Maxham & Netemeyer, 2002). It would probably more appropriate when there is a gap between intent and the restriction on actual decision-making action, to rather train customer service staff to communicate to customers if they are unable to resolve their issue owing to restrictions on their authority to do so, and to indicate that they will refer them at that time to someone who can.

According to Kamin (2004; 2013), implicit in this approach is the fact that staff are trained in the hierarchy of customer service resolution parameters, often financial, and the appropriate contacts who bear that authority. When organisations provide the appropriate training, particularly to those members of the organisation who communicate directly with customers, they are, according to Dong et al. (2015) and Liao and Chuang (2004), contributing to a culture that focuses on driving and achieving optimum customer satisfaction.

Research by Bhat and Darzi (2016) and Eggert and Ulaga (2002) concluded that customers, while perhaps interested in demonstrating loyalty to the organisations' products and services, generally only do so if their product, service and complaint resolution expectations are met or exceeded.

It can be concluded from the literature review that there is an integrated relationship between customer satisfaction and organisational effectiveness and that the research aim of examining the impact of customer satisfaction on organisational effectiveness has been achieved in Chapter 5.

5.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter began with a definition and foundation for understanding customer satisfaction. The antecedents of customer satisfaction were also discussed.

The area of employee and customer satisfaction linkage was discussed with specific reference to employee differences and the effect thereof on customer service behaviours, the employee

impact on customer satisfaction, organisational culture and behaviour and their effect on customer satisfaction, and the influence of employee performance on levels of customer satisfaction.

The outcomes attributed to customer satisfaction were then investigated, particularly customer-, employee- and performance-related customer satisfaction outcomes.

Customer satisfaction and its relationship with organisational effectiveness, especially as it pertains to retention, customer perceptions, product versus service environments and value proposition, were explored in relation to customer satisfaction.

Models of customer satisfaction in the context of the research perspective in the current study were also investigated, namely the service profit chain and employee/customer linkage and related research.

A review of the relationship between human resource practices, policies and programmes, and customer satisfaction was also included in this chapter.

In conclusion, this chapter explored the area of customer satisfaction strategies with the emphasis on understanding various strategy dimension areas such as customer retention, service culture, complaint resolution, individual and group performance, loyalty, pricing and the organisational role of marketing.

The next chapter focuses on the dependent variable and construct of organisational effectiveness. The axis of the organisational effectiveness model, which is at the core of this study, is examined as a whole. It integrates the research in the preceding chapters in terms of how the independent variables of employee satisfaction, customer satisfaction and leadership in this model influence organisational effectiveness. Chapter 6 lays the foundation for Chapter 7, which deals with the empirical research phase where this model was actually tested in an organisation.

CHAPTER 6

ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

6.1 HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE ON ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

The earlier organisational work of Barnard (1938) on corporate systems, Roethlisberger and Dickson (1947) in the area of human relations, Selznick (1948) with the institutional school of thought and Cyert, Simon and Trow's (1956) work on decision making laid the foundation for what would eventually become organisational effectiveness.

These foundational precursors to contemporary organisational effectiveness theories were bureaucratic, with the emphasis on organisational efficiency as a metric of performance (Cameron, 2010; 2013; & 2015; Cameron & Quinn, 2005; Sparrow & Cooper, 2014). According to Kanter (2019) and Perrow (1986), bureaucratic organisations are characterised by highly centralised management with carefully detailed procedures, policies, decision making and task-oriented work, the idea being that the greater the degree of bureaucracy, the higher the efficiency will be.

However, as the academic thinking on management expanded, more contemporary views on the organisation and effectiveness emerged. Ultimately, appropriate standards for measuring organisational effectiveness emerged such as congruence (Nadler & Tushman, 1980; O'Reilly, Nadler, & Tushman, 2016) and goal setting and attainment (Locke & Latham, 2013a; Price, 1972).

Owing to the variation in the type of standards proposed, organisational researchers such as Lawrence and Lorsch (1967; 2015) proposed a contingency approach suggesting that an organisation's effectiveness is the result of the compatibility between the environmental conditions present and the attributes of an organisation.

Other researchers (Van de Ven & Ferry, 1980; Van de Ven, Leung, Bechara, & Sun, 2012) supported the position that organisational effectiveness is related to the environmental factors and conditions in which the organisation operates.

As the thinking on organisational effectiveness continued to evolve, consideration was given to the different organisational stakeholders that define and judge an organisation's level of effectiveness. What started to emerge, in particular, was the fact that the various stakeholders may have criteria that are diametrically opposed in terms of assessing organisational effectiveness (Cameron, 2010; 2013; 2015; Sparrow & Cooper, 2014; Zammuto, 1984).

According to Cameron (2005; 2010; 2013; 2015) and Sparrow and Cooper (2014), these stakeholders, which include employees, customers, stockholders (internal and external), governmental regulating agencies, environmental organisations and union blocks, can have the effect of diverting organisations' attention in various contrary directions as they operate to serve what is often their own individual narrowly defined interests.

This had the effect of producing effectiveness assessments from the perspective of an organisation's ability to be responsive to special interest stakeholders' ability to learn and adjust to circumstances generated by demands imposed by stakeholders, and the capability to think of stakeholder interests in terms of strategic planning decisions.

6.2 ORGANISATIONAL THEORIES AND ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Models of organisational effectiveness emanated from the early organisational theories, which examined organisations from the perspective of the key aspects of effectiveness. Initially, five distinct theories of organisational effectiveness models could be identified, as proposed in the literature.

These six model theories of organisational effectiveness are discussed as follows and depicted in Figure 6.1.

6.2.1 Goal model theory

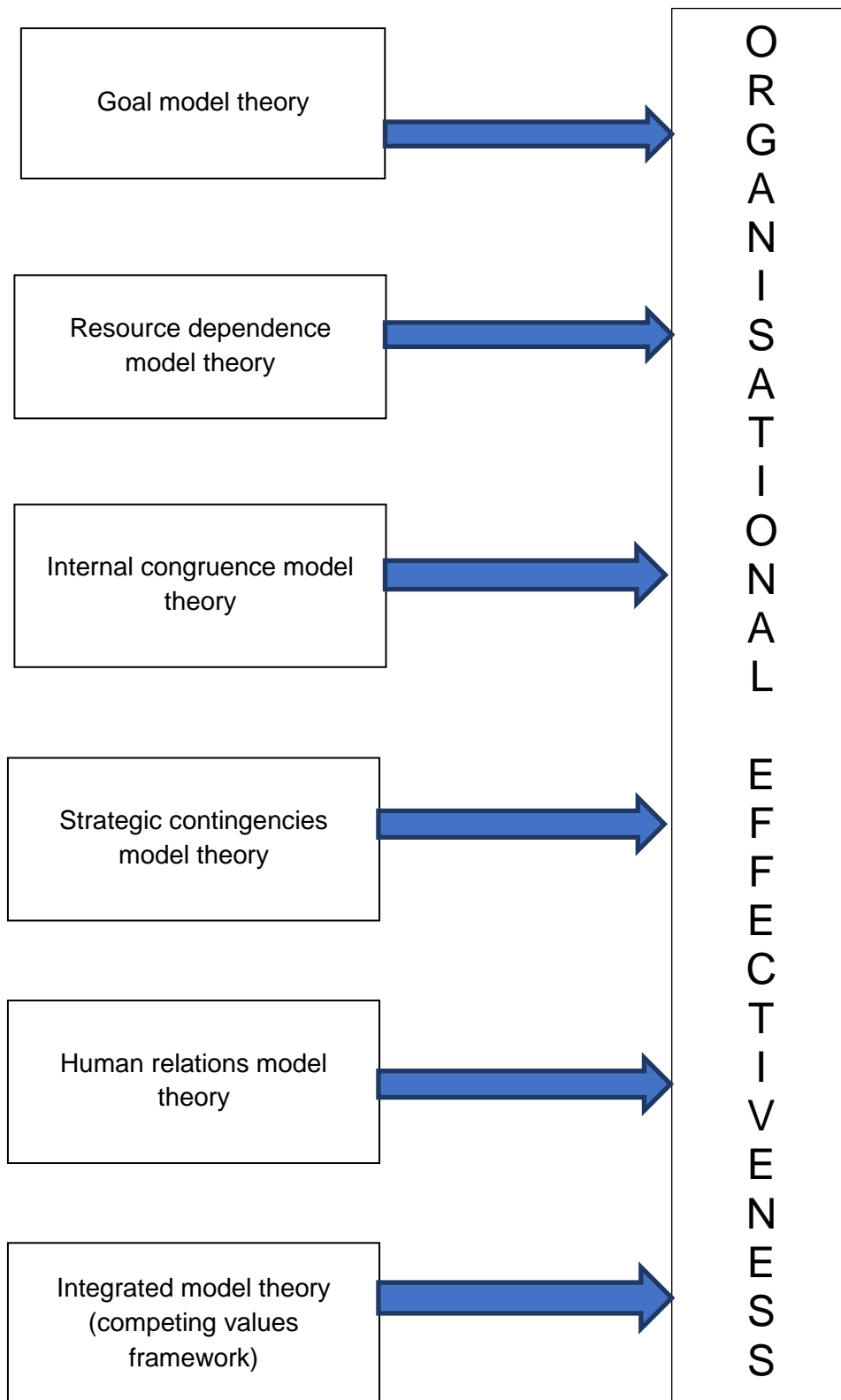
This model of organisational effectiveness (Ashraf, 2012; Cameron, 2010; 2013; 2015; Price, 1972) suggested that an organisation's effectiveness is a function of the internal goal-setting process utilised in the organisation and the degree to which an organisation successfully achieves its pre-established objectives.

6.2.2 Resource dependence model theory

The thinking at the core of this model of organisational effectiveness (Pfeffer & Salanick, 1978), also known as the natural systems model (Ashraf, 2012; Cameron; 2005; 2010; 2013; 2015), was that an organisation's effectiveness is contingent upon it obtaining and deploying resources in such a way that sustainable optimum organisational performance is achieved.

Lunenburg (2001) and Ouchi and & Price (1993) suggested that both organisational effectiveness and performance as outcomes are capable of being predicted to the extent that an organisation develops human resource assets that are unique to itself.

Figure 6.1
Organisational Effectiveness Model Theories



Source: Author

6.2.3 Internal congruence model theory

This model of organisational effectiveness, also known as the process model (Ashraf, 2012; Cameron, 2005; 2010; 2013; 2015; Lewin & Minton, 1986), proposes that the effectiveness of an organisation is a function of the degree to which it achieves the efficiency, harmony and commonality of purpose with regard to its internal processes and operations.

6.2.4 Strategic constituencies model theory

This model of organisational effectiveness more closely parallels contemporary organisational effectiveness modelling or theory thinking, and is also more aligned with the model suggested in the current study. The reason for this is that it is focused on satisfying the needs of an organisation's key stakeholders (Ashraf, 2012; Cameron, 2005; 2010; 2013; 2015; Tsui, 1990). These key stakeholders include customers, employees, shareholders and the community in which the organisation conducts business.

Researchers such as Cameron (2010; 2013; 2015) and Quinn (1988) argued that because of the conflicting constituencies (e.g. employees, customers and management) served by an organisation, by its very nature organisational effectiveness is paradoxical.

6.2.5 Human relations model theory

This model of organisational effectiveness advances the school of thought that effectiveness is a by-product of the extent to which, according to Likert (1961), an organisation's culture optimises employee participation in the organisation and supports a cooperative working climate across all segments of the organisation.

6.2.6 Integrated model theory (competing values framework)

A method of consolidating and integrating these six theories of organisational effectiveness, known as the competing values framework (Cameron & Quinn, 1999; 2011; Hartnell, Ou, & Kinicki, 2011), is based on a number of generally accepted criteria for determining organisational effectiveness, which fall into one of four categories assembled along both a vertical and horizontal plane. These criterion categories, in some instances, support the premise that organisations are effective when they are orderly, controlled and stable, while other organisations exemplify effectiveness when they demonstrate adaptability, flexibility and change.

The horizontal plane has its basis in both its position from an external perspective at the one end, and internal maintenance at the opposite end. The vertical plane has its foundation in mechanistic, predictive capacity and consistency criteria of effectiveness, on the one hand,

and criteria effectiveness such as organic processes, dynamism and adjustment effectiveness criteria, on the other. Both the horizontal and vertical plane characteristics of conflicting and competing factors formulate the core of the competing values framework.

According to Cameron (2005; 2010; 2013; 2015) Cameron and Quinn (2011) and Eydi (2015), the four categories of clustered effectiveness criteria along the horizontal and vertical planes represent four quadrants of either an opposite or competing nature. The left upper quadrant shows compatibility with the human relations paradigm, while the lower left quadrant represents characteristics similar to the internal process model.

By contrast, the upper right quadrant shows patterns similar to the resource acquisition model, while the lower right quadrant shows commonality with both the external constituent and goal attainment models (Cameron, 2005; 2010; 2013; 2015; Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Eydi, 2015).

According to the above-mentioned researchers, the opposing aspects of these quadrants within the competing values framework create what can best be described as paradoxical. This lends itself to what has been suggested by Eisenhardt and Westcott (1998) as the essence of the construct of effectiveness.

It is the paradox between various dimensions of an organisation, which according to Cameron (1986; 2005; 2010; 2013; 2015) and Cameron and Quinn (2011), creates and drives competing values that contribute to organisational effectiveness.

The competing values framework (Cameron, 2005; 2010; 2013; 2015; Cameron & Quinn, 2011; Cameron, Quinn, DeGraff, & Thakor, 2005; Eydi, 2015) posits theoretically that higher levels of organisational effectiveness may occur when all four quadrants demonstrate innovation and creativity.

This framework of competing values also suggests theoretically that greater organisational effectiveness is possible when greater compatibility is present in those quadrants indicating both the most significant strengths in terms of culture and management excellence (Ashraf, 2012; Cameron; 2005; 2010; 2013; 2015; Cameron & Quinn, 2011; 2005). In addition, when all quadrants pursue aggressive financial strategic directions, financial performance as a measure of organisational effectiveness can be optimised.

6.3 CLARIFYING THE ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS CONSTRUCT

Cameron and Smart (1998) proffered five suggestions for minimising confusion about organisational effectiveness research and encouraging research in this area in the context of organisational studies. This was an attempt to provide clarity on the construct of organisational

effectiveness as a means to reinvigorate interest in organisational effectiveness research following its cessation as an area of organisational interest for many years.

6.3.1 Theoretical core of organisational research

Firstly, the organisational effectiveness construct is at the core of both the theoretical basis and research in the organisational sciences because most organisational theories attempt to deal with the area of performance effectiveness (Cameron, 1986; 2005; 2010; 2013; 2015; Whetten & Cameron, 2013). In addition, according to Eydi (2015), organisational effectiveness is a common and likely the most significant dependent variable in organisational science research.

6.3.2 Adaptability to changing organisational conditions

Secondly, as suggested by Cameron (1986; 2005; 2010; 2013; 2015) and Cameron and Whetten (2013), owing to the ever-changing nature of an organisation, the requirements for defining or modelling organisational effectiveness may also be subject to changes in order to align with the alterations that take place in an organisation's purpose and concept at a given stage of its evolution. Lack of commonality in organisational effectiveness models is a function of the changes and differentiation across organisations.

6.3.3 Variability of organisational effectiveness measures

Thirdly, general consensus on factors considered measures of organisational effectiveness is difficult to reach, if not completely impossible, because effectiveness factors are a by-product of the values held by individuals and have no generic parameters (Cameron, 1986; 2005; 2010; 2013; 2015; Matthews, 2011; Whetten & Cameron, 2013). As a construct, organisational effectiveness is a means by which individuals can employ an abstract construct to give meaning and understanding, as well as a reality, to actual corporate performance. Organisational effectiveness assessments originate from these individual values.

The other reason uniformity of organisational effectiveness measures has been difficult to achieve is because of the various often opposing perspectives by the organisational constituents of measures of organisational effectiveness, which can shift as a result of business conditions (Cameron, 2005; 2010; 2013; 2015; Matthews, 2011; Whetten & Cameron, 2013). However, a most interesting aspect of organisational effectiveness criteria, in addition to their purposefulness in various organisations, is the elasticity of their divergent applicability across a wide spectrum constituent base concurrently.

Clearly defining effectiveness is fundamental to valid research, particularly in relation in identifying and explaining the terms associated with effectiveness such as outcomes,

indicators and predictors of organisational effectiveness (Cameron, 2005; 2010; 2013; 2015; Matthews, 2011; Whetten & Cameron, 2013). The absence of agreed-upon standards for the construct of organisational effectiveness and the high degree of variation among researchers has served as an impediment to accepted research in the past. In fact, some researchers (Cameron, 2005; 2010) have suggested that only a small percentage (20%) of research indicates commonality in the definition of organisational effectiveness, notwithstanding the type of effectiveness criteria problem relating to whether the criteria are outcome, indicator or predictor in nature.

6.3.4 Environmentally specific measures of effectiveness

Fourthly, according to Cameron (1986; 2005; 2010; 2013; 2015) and Whetten and Cameron (2013), the utility of organisational effectiveness research is a function of the situation and condition present in the particular environment of the research. Hence this calls for organisational effectiveness research models to be aligned with the specific research setting. The various models are not interchangeable for research purposes as their applicability is influenced by objectives and restrictions associated with the specific organisational effectiveness research being conducted.

6.3.5 Problem-driven organisational effectiveness measures

Fifthly, rather than categorising organisational effectiveness and its associated research as being grounded in theory, it might be better placed as a construct that is problem oriented as a result of inconsistency among organisational effectiveness criteria. Once again, this inconsistency (Cameron, 2005; 2010; 2015; Matthews, 2011; Whetten & Cameron, 2013) is the result of uniformity and the variation of organisational effectiveness models, as well as an absence of a uniform theory, which has been out of reach by management academicians and theoreticians.

6.4 ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS CRITERIA SELECTION

This lack of an accepted uniform theory has made it difficult to achieve comparative analysis of organisational effectiveness research findings. However, the theoretical issues notwithstanding, the more significant concern may be related to organisational effectiveness criteria selection.

6.4.1 Criteria selection process

The criteria selection process varies as a result of the particular organisational effectiveness problem being examined, making the pursuit of organisational effectiveness research highly practical and application specific. The specificity of the application is related to what a

particular organisation values and is attempting to capture or satisfy when it endeavours to determine its effectiveness.

Criteria selection variation and a lack of commonality, which prevent generalisation of specific research findings in a given organisation to other like entities, is an additional concern when it comes to organisational effectiveness criteria.

Owing to the above concerns, it imperative to clearly specify the criteria or factors associated with organisational effectiveness. Criteria are often selected to represent organisational effectiveness which are less about measurable organisational performance measures such as profitability and more about other factors such as individual accomplishments or group camaraderie. In other instances, variables used to depict organisational effectiveness may be considered in some research studies (Cetin & Cerit, 2010; Cummings, 1983b; Nord, 1983) to be antecedents of organisational effectiveness, while in other studies the same variable may be viewed as a consequence of organisational effectiveness.

This lack of generally accepted standardisation of organisational effectiveness once again poses problems in drawing comparisons across research and their particular findings, as well as making it difficult to generalise from specific research findings.

6.5 ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS GUIDELINE STANDARDS

Some researchers (Cameron, 2013; Cameron & Whetten, 1996) have proposed a set of guidelines in the form of questions for researchers to consider in conducting organisational effectiveness research. The aim here is to aid in developing commonality of criteria for the purpose of building a core of organisational effectiveness research studies with like characteristics to facilitate comparative analysis of design and findings, and to also help refine organisational effectiveness theory formulation.

The organisational effectiveness standardisation guideline questions proposed by Cameron (2013) and Cameron and Whetten (1996) are presented below under each guideline category.

6.5.1 Clarity of organisational level under examination

Have clarity and consistency been established in identifying the level in an organisation in which (Cameron, 2013; Cameron & Whetten, 1996) an analysis is to be conducted such as organisation wide, individual specific and/or any level in between such as group, team, division, business unit, etcetera?

6.5.2 Organisational effectiveness domain area studied

Is the organisational effectiveness area under investigation, such as customer satisfaction versus organisation financial metrics (e.g. profit margins), being considered (Cameron, 2013; Cameron & Whetten, 1996)?

6.5.3 Source of organisational effectiveness data used

What is the source of organisational effectiveness data being utilised (Cameron, 2013; Cameron & Whetten, 1996), such as survey results, interviews, review of financial metrics or other sources of organisational effectiveness information?

6.5.4 Short- versus long-term effectiveness assessment

Is the organisational effectiveness assessment (Cameron, 2013; Cameron & Whetten, 1996) focused on long- or short-term considerations?

6.5.5 Organisational effectiveness constituency base

From which constituency base is the organisational effectiveness assessment being made (Cameron, 2013; Cameron & Whetten, 1996), as care should be exercised in understanding that differences in constituencies may have significant variations in organisational effectiveness criteria?

6.5.6 Purpose of organisational effectiveness assessment

For what purpose is organisational effectiveness being assessed (Cameron, 2013; Cameron & Whetten, 1996), as differences in purpose may yield decidedly incompatible results?

6.5.7 Benchmark for organisational effectiveness

Has the standard or reference point against which organisational effectiveness is being assessed been determined (Cameron, 2013; Cameron & Whetten, 1996), as comparing organisational effectiveness against different or inconsistent standards may result in opposing perspectives on actual attainment of effectiveness?

6.6 RATIONALE FOR ORGANISZATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS GUIDELINES

The main reasons for advocating these organisational effectiveness standardisation guidelines for research in this area include the following (Cameron, 2005; 2013; Cameron & Whetten, 1996):

- There is a need for organisations and individuals to address how effective their organisations are.

- The fundamental theme of all theories of organisation is ultimately determining organisational effectiveness.
- Utilising the seven guideline questions discussed above creates an opportunity for comparison of organisational effectiveness research findings.
- Organisational effectiveness is the most likely common dependent variable in organisation studies.

6.7 RE-EMERGENCE OF ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS RESEARCH

Organisational effectiveness research began to wane in the 1990s largely because of the lack of consistency and standardisation of both the meaning of organisational effectiveness as a construct and in criteria selection. Greater emphasis on pragmatic assessment in organisational studies in the early 2000s (Pfeffer & Sutton, 2000; Spencley et al., 2018; Weick & Sutcliffe, 2001; 2015) shifted the focus of research on managerial influences and comparisons of internal organisational practices.

However, over the last decade, a new direction has emerged that has reignited interest in organisational effectiveness research. As some researchers (Cameron, Dutton, & Quinn, 2003; Cameron, Mora, Leutscher, & Calarco, 2011) have posited, while the notion of organisational effectiveness was in essence abandoned by researchers around the early 1990s, the idea of understanding what contributes to an organisation's ability to perform and the effects of positive practices on organisational effectiveness, has always been an area of strong academic research interest in organisational studies.

According to Cameron and Spreitzer (2011), Cameron et al. (2003) and Cameron et al. (2011), the most notable shift in last ten years or so has been the introduction of the research area known as positive organisational scholarship. This (Bright & Miller, 2012) has provided a new and to some degree a different focus in the resurfacing of organisational effectiveness and performance as an area of importance in organisational research.

The term "positive organisational scholarship" is defined by Bright and Miller (2012), Cameron and Spreitzer (2011), Cameron et al. (2003) and Cameron et al. (2011)) as a research focus concerned with the areas of organisational attributes, outcomes and processes of a positive nature. According to the above researchers, positive organisational scholarship is highlighted by interest in positive human potential with particular attention focused on those areas that provide a supportive framework to enhance positive human potential such as structures, process, methods and capabilities.

The research (Bright & Miller, 2012; Cameron, 2005; Cameron & Spreitzer, 2011) has also concentrated on outcome factors such as those dealing with quality relationships, meaningfulness, management virtue and viability. In addition, positive organisational scholarship examines motivations that include selflessness, making contributions to the organisation and providing high-quality services and products. Its greatest linkage with organisational effectiveness is a focus on unexpected positive variation in the form of truly top-quality successful results.

According to Berg, Dutton, and Wrzesniewski (2013) and Wrzesniewski (2003), organisational practices can have a positive impact on employees by creating positive work experiences that promote organisational effectiveness. Organisations that capitalise on their existing strengths create an environment (Clifton & Harter, 2003; Harter & Blacksmith, 2010) that can lead to more effective outcomes such as strengths in leadership, employee involvement, commitment and financial resources.

Researchers (Sonenshein, Dutton, Grant, Spreitzer, & Sutcliffe, 2013; Spreitzer, Sutcliffe, Dutton, Sonenshein, & Grant, 2005) have shown that the idea or concept of thriving gives context to organisational effectiveness. According to Searle and Barbuto (2011), this concept or idea does so mainly by addressing the dynamics of organisational outcomes, processes, and where present, the positive nature of these dynamics in an organisation. A study on thriving related to performance analysis of an organisation tasked to conduct a nuclear arsenal cleanup expected to take 70 years at a cost of 36 billion dollars, revealed the following (Cameron & Lavine, 2006): outcomes that far exceeded expectations from the standpoint of cost (30 billion dollars under budget) and time (26 years) were positively affected by organisational processes that typically are not factors usually considered in research in the area of organisational effectiveness.

In another research study (Fredrickson, 2013; Losada & Heaphy, 2004) that examined thriving organisational performance in terms of profitability, productivity and ratings of top management by employees, it was determined that high-performing organisations differed markedly from both medium and low performing organisations in terms of the number of positive communications, which were shown to be a meaningful predictor of organisational high performance.

Research (Cameron, 2003; Searle & Barbuto, 2011) has also indicated that organisational virtue factors such as trust, integrity, optimism, compassion and forgiveness show meaningful predictive power of organisational performance in terms of metrics such as quality, profitability, productivity and employee commitment.

Specific research was conducted in the area of virtue-based factors and organisational effectiveness during difficult economic times in the US airline industry following the 9/11 attacks. The study (Gittell, Cameron, Lim, & Rivas 2006) indicated that in the case of the only two airlines that did not react to the events of that day by reducing staff (due to a 20% reduction in business volume), resulting in declines in profits and stock prices, favourable outcomes were achieved. These outcomes included increased trust, loyalty and security having a positive effect on organisational effectiveness, in terms of improvements in profitability and stock price, compared to those competitor organisations that had conducted major reductions in staff.

Other researchers (Colquitt, Conlon, Wesson, Porter, & Ng 2001; McDevitt, Giapponi, & Houston, 2013) have supported the positive impact of employee reduction avoidance during periods of organisational economic decline and financial profitability stress through enhancements in organisational effectiveness, as indicated by increased trust and loyalty, leading to more rapid financial recovery.

Research by Fredrickson (2003; 2013), Masten and Reed (2002) and Searle and Barbuto (2011) revealed that organisations that practise positive communication and consistency in terms of the virtue they display in dealing with employees, have both an expanding impact and a protective effect, which contributes to further positive organisational outcomes and a provides a shield against undesirable outcomes respectively. Other researchers such as Bright, Winn, and Kanov (2014) have referred to organisational virtue as an ideal on a continuum of states to strive for in terms of ethics and character.

Other researchers (Bright, Stansbury, Alzola, & Stavros, 2011; Cameron & Winn, 2012; Cameron, Caza, & Bright, 2004) have suggested that deploying the two organisational positive virtue practices of both positive communication and consistency creates a barrier against negative outcomes. This also builds an organisation's strength capacity to absorb future negative outcomes in a manner that avoids any potential undesirable financial outcomes.

According to Cameron (2005; 2010), the decline in research interest in organisational effectiveness, which began in the 1990s, was the result of the perceived deficiencies explained below. One perceived deficiency was a change of focus in organisational studies in the direction of pragmatism and away from conceptual interest in the various organisational effectiveness models. Another shortcoming involved confusion and disagreement over the definitional parameters of organisational effectiveness. Also, of concern were deficiencies associated with a lack of consistency or a standard for measuring organisational effectiveness.

Cameron (2005; 2010), Cameron and Winn (2012) and Spreitzer and Cameron (2012) postulated that a focus on positive organisational scholarship and attention to variables aligned with virtuous performance, as opposed to the attention on either negative deviant organisational performance or normal standard performance, could play a role in revitalising research interest in the area of organisational effectiveness.

The relationship between positive organisational scholarship and organisational performance (Cameron & Spreitzer, 2011; Dutton & Ragins, 2017) focuses on exceptional positive performance and the outstanding aspects of human nature and performance, as well as work activities that also enhance the human experience.

This emphasis on positive organisational scholarship and its relationship to improving one's knowledge of organisational effectiveness gives one a lens into the higher-level aspirations that individuals and organisations seek. When attained, they create organisational sustainability as a result of the increased fortitude, flexibility and resiliency capabilities the organisation gains by attaining exceptionalism.

Relevant areas of questioning for organisational effectiveness research that have emerged under the focus of positive organisational scholarship, include the following (Cameron, 2005; 2010; Cameron & Spreitzer, 2011; Spreitzer & Cameron, 2012):

- What are the best means for defining, explaining and measuring variables and positive deviant constructs?
- Which positive deviant concept cause-and-effect relationship can be defined in order to more clearly understand the distinction between predictive variables and effect variables?
- What positive dynamics are evolving in organisational effectiveness research and how do reinforcing cycles occur involving these dynamics?
- What aspects of new organisational and individual phenomena need to be explored to better understand and explain performance, and what variables need to be emphasised when positive deviance is identified as an indication of organisational effectiveness?
- What definitions in the positive organisational scholarship focus on organisational effectiveness conceptual parameters such as resiliency, high quality, relationships, virtuousness and positive energy; and what organisational studies and associated research literature can they expand on and contribute to?

- What relationships exist between historical organisational effectiveness models and positive deviant factors associated with positive organisational scholarship? Can these historical organisational effectiveness models be adjusted and integrated to recognise the presence of organisational effectiveness outcomes of a positive deviant nature, or will new positive organisational scholarship-oriented organisational effectiveness models be needed?
- What positive deviant organisational effectiveness factor enablers are identifiable, and what attributes of the leadership behaviours, structures, resources, processes, environments and cultures are resistant or conducive to organisational positive dynamics?
- What are the relationships between the various positive deviant positions on the organisational effectiveness continuum including ineffectiveness, effectiveness and excellence? Are these various positions on the continuum independent of each other or does the particular position on the positive deviant organisational effectiveness continuum depend on achieving a fundamental level of effectiveness?
- To what degree does extraordinary organisational performance lead to extraordinary individual performance, and/or extraordinary individual performance lead to extraordinary organisational performance? In addition, do positive organisational dynamics influence positive individual dynamics, and vice versa?
- How much time is needed for positive dynamics to surface, be visible through actual behaviour and make an impact on as well as evolve into actual positive deviance?

6.8 UNDERSTANDING MODELS OF ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

There is no one all-encompassing model of organisational effectiveness. Models of organisational effectiveness are grounded in different theoretical frameworks and philosophical perspectives of organisations. Some perspectives of models of organisational effectiveness are industrial and organisational psychology oriented, some sociologically focused, others economically driven, while still others may stem from a social psychology or management point of view.

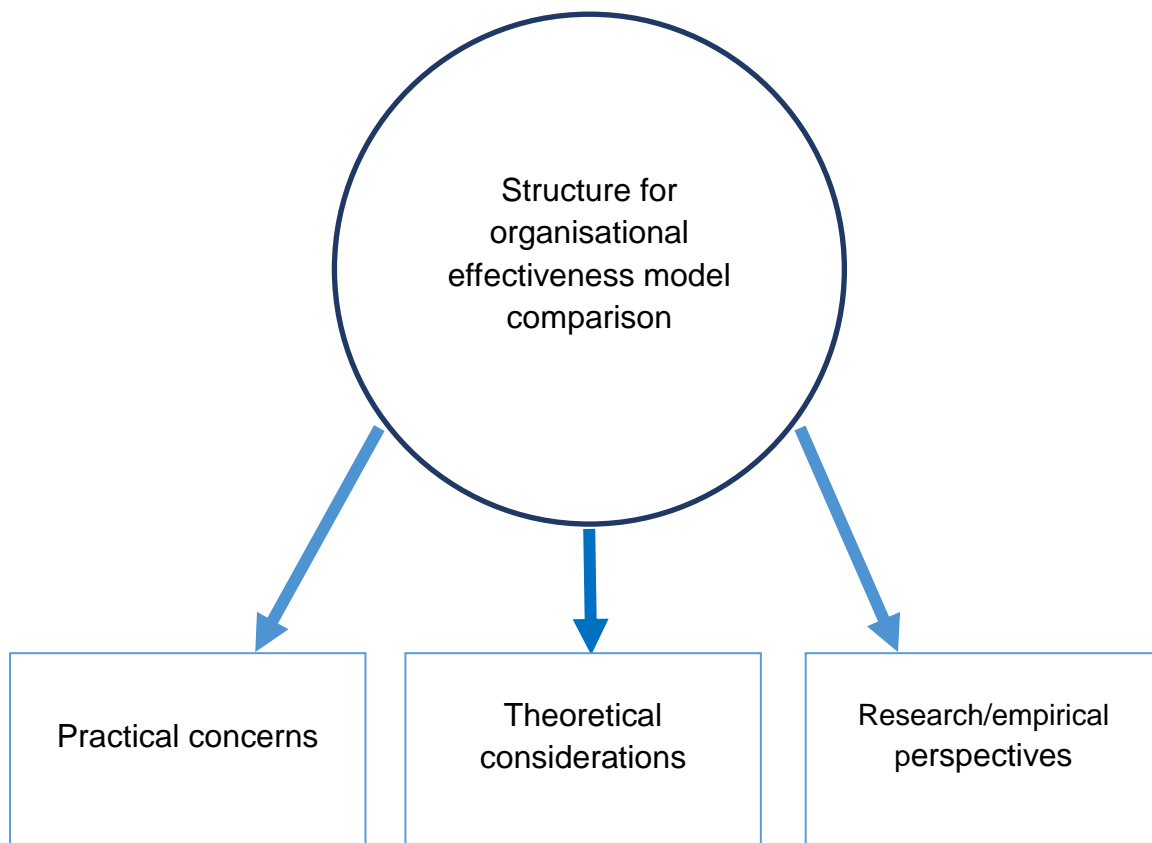
Although models of organisational effectiveness may have their basis in different theoretical disciplines, they may also share points of commonality, thus providing an interdisciplinary perspective as well. Some researchers (Cameron & Whetten, 1983; 2010; 2013) have

suggested a structure for comparing various models of organisational effectiveness. This structure includes nine questions organised into three categories that include practical concerns, theoretical considerations and research/empirical perspectives. Each of these three categories covers three questions for a total of nine questions to provide a framework for comparing the various organisational effectiveness models.

This structure for comparing organisational effectiveness models is depicted in Figure 6.2.

Figure 6.2

Structure for Comparing Organisational Effectiveness Models



Source: Author

Others (Cummings, 1983) have conducted an analysis of the relationship between organisational effectiveness and organisational behaviour. In addition, some (Schreiber, 1983) have examined the six organisational effectiveness models from the perspective of their impact on management practices. Others such as Brewer (1983) have reviewed these six organisational effectiveness models from the purview of evaluating the outcomes of organisational effectiveness.

6.9 PERSPECTIVES ON ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

This section provides insights into five different foundational organisational effectiveness perspectives (Cameron & Whetten, 1983; 2010; 2013) in terms of their disciplinary foundation, and theoretical, research/empirical and practical perspectives. Comparisons of organisational effectiveness models are also drawn as a means of identifying points of commonality as well as clear areas of distinction across the various organisational effectiveness models.

The five organisational effectiveness perspectives are discussed below.

6.9.1 Sociological and system theory model of organisational effectiveness

According to Seashore (1983), this organisational effectiveness approach provides an integrated model with due consideration for the constituents representing the individual members and the organisation as a whole, and the relationship between the individual and the organisation. This theory of organisational effectiveness (Ashraf, 2012; Cameron & Whetten, 1983; 2010; 2013; Eydi, 2015; Seashore, 1983) is aligned with systems theory as it pertains to human organisations. The relationship in this model between the organisation as a whole and its individual members recognises that the organisation itself and its sustainability and effectiveness are dependent on the tasks and functions performed by individual members. At the same time these members are individuals with their own characteristics and self-purposes that are separate and distinct and not an outcome of their relationship with the organisation.

This approach is highly pragmatic in that the likelihood of continued effectiveness of the organisation is considered by individual members and shapes their behaviour in terms of the level of performance they are willing to demonstrate. Hence the criteria selected for assessing the organisation's effectiveness are compatible both in the short and long term with an individual member's desires. The model (Cameron & Whetten, 1983; 2010; 2013) endeavours to create an integrated framework for understanding organisational effectiveness, which considers three somewhat distinct approaches, namely a natural system emphasis, a goal focus and a decision process module.

The sociological and system theory integrated framework model of organisational effectiveness through the three points of emphasis (i.e. the natural system, goal orientation and decision-process focus) by design endeavours to make the case that organisational effectiveness variables should be balanced by representing factors across all three areas without dominance by any one area.

The natural system emphasis of this model, according to Katz and Kahn (1978), Scott and Davis (2015) and Cameron and Whetten (2013), is a relatively independent system concerned with system boundaries. These boundaries comprise identifiable parts focused on processes (Katz & Kahn, 1978; Scott & Davis, 2015; Cameron & Whetten, 2013) that support the functioning of the overall organisational systems. Examples of these processes are those that maintain the systems effectiveness, those that deal with the organisation's input/output transactions and those that clearly define the behavioural parameters of the organisation.

Some researchers (Guastello, 2013; Miller, 1978) have suggested that organisational effectiveness and processes are associated with the degree of balance and the sustainability of the natural system as opposed to attainment of specific outcome goals. In another study by Cetin and Cerit (2010) and Seashore and Yuchtman (1967) relating to the natural system focus of the sociological system integrated model of organisational effectiveness, it was determined that through a factorial analysis of characteristic items associated with organisational effectiveness, system adaptability and maintenance factors, as opposed to specific objective or goal factors, were more relevant in assessing organisational effectiveness.

The natural system emphasis provides insights into organisational effectiveness from various perspectives. This model suggests that individual indicators of organisational effectiveness may be contingent on contextual considerations, which may yield variable or even diametrically opposed value outcomes. This natural system emphasis indicates that effectiveness is linked to the full spectrum of organisational system attributes, which play a meaningful role in the transformation processes that occur, adaptability behaviour and maintenance of the organisational system.

Moreover, the natural system emphasis of this model mediates the differences between causal and outcome variables of organisational effectiveness through the existence of internal networks and linkages of these variables. The natural system emphasis also suggests that factors associated with organisational effectiveness should be considered as a fixed coherent group and considered or assessed independently.

The goal focus of the sociological and system theory model holds that organisational effectiveness is attained and assessed on the basis of the attainment of goals and/or the periodic review of the achievement of goals.

This framework functions in such a manner that goals across the organisation, both those that are horizontally and vertically aligned within the organisation, are the measure of an

organisation's effectiveness. The assessment of actual performance against these organisational effectiveness objectives is the determining factor as to whether and the degree to which organisational effectiveness is achieved.

The organisational effectiveness objectives selected are determined by individual members of the organisation, managers, outside constituents and a combination of all relevant parties associated with the organisation's mission. The goal emphasis of the integrated framework sociological systems model of organisational effectiveness (Cameron & Whetten, 2013) is quite focused and highly aligned in theory with the functions that employees engage in within the organisation.

In many instances, this goal focus also lends itself to quantifiable measurement, providing a common language for members of the organisation to understand, discuss and demonstrate the organisation's performance and progress against organisational effectiveness measures.

However, the goal focus inherently has its share of shortcomings and distractions. Firstly, not all necessary and purposeful behaviours in an organisation lend themselves to definition or measurement as an organisational effectiveness-oriented goal. A case in point would be the degree to which an individual participates and contributes as a team member to a quantifiable goal. While performance of the overall team's organisational effectiveness goal may be evaluated, the way in which a particular member participated with this goal in mind, might be more difficult or unlikely to determine.

A second problem characteristic of the goal focus approach to the integrated sociological and system theory framework model of organisational effectiveness is the changing nature of the business operating environment, which as a result of changes, can render previously pertinent goals irrelevant. In some instances, the business changes may not cause previously established goals to be irrelevant, but the changes may cause the importance hierarchy of goals to alter.

A third difficulty with the goal approach to this model is the lack of cohesiveness and congruence between goals in the organisation. Not only may organisational goals be incongruent when examined, but in some instances, they may also be juxtaposed when comparisons are made.

An example of this scenario might be a research and development goal to design and develop a technological state-of-the-art automobile. However, the marketing and sales department has determined that the marketplace will support a price point for the introduction of a new car that

will only break even when compared to the cost of the research and development required to bring the new automobile to market.

Furthermore, contraindications are often present between the organisational effectiveness goals, values, culture and mission established in an organisation and the actual employee and leadership behaviours exemplified by members of the organisation. These contraindications are not supportive of an environment desiring the achievement of goals deemed to be indicators of organisational effectiveness.

Additional difficulties with the goal emphasis in this model relate to misalignment and incompatibility between the design and implementation of the reward system and the organisational effectiveness goals formulated. In essence, the reward system does not reinforce the goals that need to be achieved, and is not representative of organisational effectiveness measures. An example of this might be organisational effectiveness goals that are related to measures of team performance, but the organisation deploys reward systems such as direct compensation programmes that recognise and reward only individual performance and accomplishments.

Finally, it can be a challenge to develop and implement organisational effectiveness goals for which there is a lack of consensus throughout the organisation on how to achieve these goals. Hence the lack of buy-in by members of the organisation creates difficulties in attaining goals that reflect organisational effectiveness. The power and influence of goals as a means for linking individuals to an organisation can be significant in the organisation's attempt to achieve effectiveness measures.

The decision process module of the sociological and system theory model posits that organisational effectiveness is a function of the degree to which an organisation obtains, maintains, distributes, utilises, adopts, comprehends and applies the processes associated with these characteristics or actions in the organisation's strategic and operational performance. Cameron (2013) and Savage-Austin and Honeycutt (2011) posited that information on the processes used to manage and deploy this information in the decision-making process is integral to the achievement of organisational effectiveness.

Information used in the decision-making process can be assessed in terms of the organisational effectiveness goals established and the performance in attainment of these goals. Information management is not only instrumental in the decision module, but is also particularly pertinent to solving problems relating to organisational effectiveness, and well as

a means of directing and influencing employee organisational behaviour towards organisational effectiveness objectives.

Some researchers (Pettigrew, 1973; 2014; Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Vroom, Yetton, & Jago, 2015) have argued that at the core of all organisations and their level of effectiveness are their decision-making and information-processing regimens. These are assessed from the purview of their influence on achievement of objectives, the nature and quality of decisions made and the level of the internal decision process relevance.

A specific characteristic unique to the decision process module of organisational effectiveness is that the outcome of decisions and use of information are forward looking in the sense that the effectiveness of outcomes external to the decisions made, do not usually lend themselves to evaluation until sometime in the future – hence the postponement of organisational effectiveness evaluation.

This is consistent with both the natural system emphasis component of the integrated framework model, with its focus on adaptability and change management, and the goal orientation focus component of the same integrated framework model, which is based on establishing future goals and then looking at actual performance to evaluate goal attainment in order to assess organisational effectiveness.

The three points of emphasis in the integrated framework model of organisational effectiveness are compatible approaches which allow a common platform for communicating and assessing organisational effectiveness over the long term. Members of an organisation, through their own value-based perspectives and job performance, serve as influencers of organisational effectiveness. This occurs through their behaviour, which is associated with the three focus areas of the natural system, goal achievement and decision process in the sociological and system theory integrated framework model of organisational effectiveness.

The nature of the organisation in terms of its level of maturity, the relevance of the organisational environment in goal development, accessibility to timely information and the appropriateness of decision-making processes, are all factors that influence the degree to which anyone of the three points of emphasis may be more dominant in an organisation that uses this model. The common language this model offers provides the means to break down complex organisations in order to evaluate their organisational effectiveness.

Some researchers (Cameron & Whetten, 1983; 2010) have suggested that effectiveness is situation specific according to whatever a given researcher who is making attributions to a group of constituents, indicates effectiveness is.

In essence, researchers make value-based judgements on what they consider in individual research situations to represent organisational effectiveness. In the sociological and system theory integrated framework model, organisational effectiveness is a collection of variables whose meaning is determined through the manner in which they are utilised for the purpose of describing and examining the extent to which organisational effectiveness is achieved.

According to Cameron and Whetten (1983; 2010), researchers select from an array of variables associated with organisational effectiveness, the specific variables they deem relevant to the nature of their research. Hence most, if not all, research in the area of organisational effectiveness is only a segment of the broader universe of organisational effectiveness variables that could be examined.

Ashraf (2012) and Eydi (2015) asserted that the sociological and system theory integrated framework model of organisational effectiveness lends itself structurally, and through its content offering, to the testing of hypotheses relating to identification of specific conditions and variables and their impact on organisational effectiveness.

As suggested by Cameron and Whetten (1983; 2010), the model identifies organisational effectiveness as a construct that is relational from the context of the value system of the pertinent specified members of the organisation under study, such as employees, customers or the leadership of the organisation. Each one of these constituents, through their own value systems, which differ in some areas and are compatible in others, have their own perspective on the variables that should be pursued and achieved that reflect organisational effectiveness.

This sociological and system theory model, with its long-term orientation (i.e. goal development and attainment, decision making on future outcomes and change management associated with the natural system), would likely generate more positive assessment of organisational effectiveness attainment from a long-term perspective. The model would also serve as a meaningful method for making midstream adjustments to organisational effectiveness performance efforts, based on an interim periodic review of actual performance against organisational effectiveness variables previously identified in the three focus areas.

Proper implementation of the model properly will require a change in direction (Ashraf, 2012; Cameron, 2010; Cameron & Whetten, 1983, 2010). According to the above-mentioned researchers, this change of direction is necessary because empirical research has indicated that the typical variables of organisational effectiveness are usually associated with goal development and attainment only. Also, they are generally short-term instead of long-term

oriented, they are derived mostly from a leadership value perspective as opposed to an employee perspective, and there are only a few of them.

This is contrary to the tenets of the sociological and system theory integrated framework model of organisational effectiveness, which holds that variables of organisational effectiveness should be comprehensive (Cameron, 2013). These variables of organisational effectiveness should include the following (Cameron, 2013):

- They should be broad in number and diverse in content.
- They should be measured over long-term periods with periodic status reviews.
- The units of measurement can be broad and include individuals, teams, business sectors and the whole organisation.
- They may have the capacity to allow for both analysis and prediction.
- They may represent the three focus areas of goal orientation.
- They may reflect components of change present in the natural system emphasis, and information processing and decision process emphasis.
- They can represent the perspectives and needs of all members and constituents associated with the organisation.

As stated earlier, this model has characteristics that are both prescriptive and descriptive. According to Cameron (2013), while the model is for the most part descriptive, it provides only general not specific predictive value. The model rigorously supports and utilises measurement tools that cover all three focal areas of goals, decision and information processes and the natural system with its change orientation.

When specific measurement tools are included, this integrated framework model can afford organisations and specifically the leadership and managers of the entity, an opportunity to examine relationships between the variables. They can also explore the cause-and-effect hypothesis, which may be meaningful to them in both their strategic and operational management of the organisation. The model, including the measurement tools that are used, can facilitate decision making and the ability to predict potential outcomes associated with specific behaviours and actions.

This model posits balance along the three areas of focus in terms of identifying and measuring organisational effectiveness variables in the management of the organisation. When organisational effectiveness improvements are implemented in one of the three focus areas, the process should be done without having a negative effect on the other focus areas. For example, actions to change a goal metric in respect of shortening the timeframe for the release

of a new product, based on a review of historical information and problems detected in this area, may result in deterioration in the use of information and the decision-making process as a result of shortening the timeframe of new product releases.

Identifying multiple variables associated with organisational effectiveness in each of the three focus areas in the model will allow for a means of early notification to the relevant members of management of any issues that might arise. These problem areas can then be addressed before they escalate, in order to act proportionately to larger issues that might require greater resources to rectify, and which may have the potential for more significant harm to the organisation.

According to Hartnell et al. (2011), organisational effectiveness variables in the goal attainment focus area are an aspect in which many organisations have some level of experience. Perhaps the information and decision process focus may be an area in which some organisations have minimal familiarity with organisational effectiveness variables. However, as suggested by Cameron and Whetten (2013) the natural system change focus area is one in which organisations have the least experience with organisational effectiveness variables. Hence they will likely need further development before a level of proficiency can be attained that will help to establish viable organisational effectiveness variables in this area.

6.9.2 Operations research/management science model of organisational effectiveness

This model of organisational effectiveness includes facets of both the goal attainment and system methodology of organisational effectiveness (Campbell, 1977; 2012 Dobre, 2013; Hartnell et al., 2011). Operations research and management science at their core are concerned with optimisation of organisations' operational performance. According to Dobre (2013), Hartnell et al. (2011) and Pennings and Goodman (1977), the goal attainment facet has been a key component of organisational management and effectiveness from both a practical and theoretical standpoint.

However, the manner by which organisational decision making occurs has not been managed or developed from the operations research or management science perspective to the extent that it would contribute successfully to organisational effectiveness (Shumway et al., 1975). The operations research and management science model, with optimisation as its strongest theme, has not clearly established how this optimisation focus could be applied to the natural system/change management scenario.

Organisations can be characterised as possessing elements of incompatible interests, varying levels of uncertainty and differing levels of ambition regarding the optimisation of goals. As such, the different models of organisational effectiveness will advocate varying perspectives on organisational effectiveness. In essence, the sociological model differs from the operations research and management science model because they both diverge from the industrial and organisational psychology school of thought. These models all have unique characteristics as well as aspects of commonality.

In relation to the construct of organisational effectiveness, any disagreements and differences of opinion over definition and goals can be beneficial in the evolution of the construct itself. It is the lack of complete harmony in thought or ambiguity that can contribute to a richer and broader perspective of organisational effectiveness. As Cameron and Whetten (1983; 2010) have indicated, interpretations and judgements concerning organisational effectiveness may be less about the actual performance of the organisation being studied, and more indicative of and related to the theories espoused by the researcher.

Assessments of organisational effectiveness in the operations research/ management science model are often lacking in terms of learning and improvement potential because they are sometimes interpreted in strict terms such as achieving or failing in the optimisation of goals (Cameron, 2013). Attainment of organisational effectiveness measures that are less than optimal may provide insights and organisational learning as a result of data obtained through the process of assessment. This could lead to more appropriate approaches to organisational effectiveness.

Research (Easterby-Smith & Lyles, 2011b; Nystrom, Hedberg, & Starbuck, 1976) has suggested that managers erroneously conclude that they have already achieved optimisation of organisational effectiveness and have significant knowledge of repeatedly reaching this level of organisational effectiveness, only to create future difficulties. These organisational difficulties stem from a lack of recognition of instability, changing conditions and management's ability to deal with the changes that have altered the true meaning of organisational effectiveness. This is akin to the future failures associated with complacency, which may result from past successes.

The operations research/management science model of organisational effectiveness from its origin has been influenced by leadership and technical management constituents in the identification of organisational effectiveness variables. These same constituents have therefore demonstrated a heavy reliance on internal operational research and management science measures of organisational effectiveness, which have been deemed to be what

leaders in organisations have been interested in. This has been to the exclusion of other constituents or members linked to the organisation such as customers and employees.

Researchers such as Frielander and Pickle (1968) have posited that the interests of constituents are not necessarily in competition with one another. In other words, they can coexist in such a way that multiple diverse constituents or members can be satisfied that their interests associated with variables of organisational effectiveness can be met without this happening at the expense of other organisation members. According to Cameron (2013) and Cameron and Whetten (1983; 2010), a shortcoming in attempts to formulate a coherent and acceptable definition or explanation of organisational effectiveness is that there are far too many divergent characteristics that may not always lend themselves to measurement. Individuals are profoundly influenced by their experiences and training to judge and value only those criteria or variables for which they have had those experiences.

Because empirical relationship studies of organisational variables are descriptive in nature, they only recount what has been learned about variable relationships in organisational effectiveness; not what could have been gained knowledge wise outside of their past experiences and value system regarding variables.

Owing to the role played by individual experiences and the values formulated on the basis of those experiences, organisational member classifications (i.e. leaders, managers, employees and customers) may differ meaningfully in what they perceive as organisational effectiveness (Chintakananda, McIntyre, & Chen, 2015; Lawrence & Lorsch, 2015; Tosi, Aldag, & Storey, 1973). In addition to being different from one another, their individual preferences may be different than actual objective criteria and measures that their organisations utilise in assessing the attainment of organisational effectiveness.

Despite these differences, organisational constituents may still have an influence on organisational effectiveness in their companies. Some researchers (Rolland & Roness, 2011; Starbuck & Nystrom, 1981) have argued that organisational effectiveness is more properly identified, consistent with the accepted proposition, through prescriptive methods prior to attempts to comprehend organisational effectiveness through observation. In essence, according to Crawford (2012), the idea is that organisational effectiveness is better understood from the operations research and management science model through prescriptive means. These include predictions of organisational events and outcomes, organisational change interventions, and assessment and interpretation of outcomes.

Organisational effectiveness is more accurately discussed and examined through internal organisational dynamics coupled with change interventions aimed at actually changing organisational effectiveness (Cameron, 2013; Cameron & Whetten, 1983; 2013; Jones, 2013). Interventions to change organisational effectiveness are likely to facilitate the body of knowledge needed to interpret and understand the concept.

Through experimentation, the operations research/management science model of effectiveness can improve organisational effectiveness theory and understanding by analysing how changing conditions can affect reactions and outcomes and their impact on organisational effectiveness. The knowledge gained through this type of experimentation can help to enhance predictive capability and value with regard to organisational effectiveness.

One of the shortcomings of the operations research/management science model is the emphasis on achieving optimisation through rational decision making. This can be fairly time consuming and also result in lost opportunities because the organisation bypasses pragmatic approaches while waiting to find the optimum course of action. Another difficulty with this model is that rational decision making is at its core, which unfortunately invariably occurs in sometimes irrational organisational environments or conditions.

This rational decision-making process that drives optimisation strategy does so at a cost, which discourages or retards growth through diversification of ideas, learning and opinions in favour of singularity of view. According to Hedberg, Nystrom, and Starbuck (1976) and Starbuck (2017), the restriction on dissension of views and opinions leads to groupthink rigidity and status quo.

Experimentation is essential to improve both organisational effectiveness theory and learning (Easterby-Smith & Lyles, 2011b; Starbuck, 2017). An organisation must encourage and reward not only risk-taking behaviours, but also create the type of environment that supports diversity of thought and conflicting points of view. The organisational culture and environment should accept ambiguous circumstances and conditions that may result from diversity of opinion as a preferable alternative to rigid goal-setting strategies to solve organisational dilemmas and issues.

The operations research model is not a model of containment of thought or approaches to achieving organisational effectiveness. It is a model that finds paths beyond the boundaries of bureaucratic constraints which are at times perception based and artificial.

The central theme is action-oriented experimentation, which leads to learning, change, growth and effectiveness. Calhoun, Starbuck, and Abrahamson (2011) and Peters and O'Connor

(1980) postulated that those organisations that obtain key pieces of information to take particular actions, analyse outcomes and make alterations based on the learning and analysis of outcomes, are likely to achieve greater consistent levels of organisational effectiveness than organisations that avoid such actions.

Experimentation through action, observing and evaluating results and altering future actions based on evaluations, can provide a mechanism for ensuring that measurements and assessments of organisational effectiveness are adaptive and nimble enough to respond to changing conditions. In support of this, researchers like Grinyer and Noburn (1975) and McIlquham-Schmidt (2010) have asserted that those companies with lower profitability tend to evaluate organisational effectiveness in terms of financial metrics, while organisations with higher profitability adopt a broader array of organisational effectiveness measures.

According to Cameron (2013) and Cameron and Whetten (1983; 2010), future efforts to enhance the operations research/management science model of organisational effectiveness may be better served to include more simplified and action-oriented resolutions to difficult problems rather than complex solutions to basic problems.

6.9.3 Attraction-selection-attrition framework model of organisational effectiveness

This model is built on principles in the industrial and organisational psychology domain. The foundation of this model of organisational effectiveness (Schneider, 1983; Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2013; Wright & Christensen, 2010) has three areas of focus, which are discussed below.

According to Schmidt and Hunter (1999; 2013), research supports the relationship between enhancements to an organisation's personnel selection process and improved individual employee performance. However, there is a paucity of research into the relationship between the selection of personnel and improvements in organisational effectiveness (Schneider, Smith, & Sipe, 2000).

In a meta-analysis (Schmidt & Hunter, 1999; 2013) investigating the validity of 19 different selection procedures in predicting employee work performance, it was determined that structured interviews, work samples and cognitive ability tests have strong predictive value of job performance.

According to Barrick and Parks-Leduc (2019), Schneider (1983) and Schneider et al. (2013), the first focus area is on the types of individuals who are attracted to an organisation, selected by the entity and retained because they have the key elements which serve to define an organisation.

A second area of focus is that organisations are likely to be identified as homogeneous and rigid with limitations in terms of their ability to adjust and implement change as a result of the attraction, selection and retention process (Barrick & Parks-Leduc, 2019; Schneider, 1983; Schneider et al., 2013).

In conclusion, the third area (Barrick & Parks-Leduc, 2019; Schneider, 1983; Schneider et al., 2013) involves organisations that attract, select and maintain individuals who are both focused on the future and have an external perspective, providing for continued growth, development and success, in a sustainable fashion, during times of uncertainty and changing conditions.

These three above-mentioned areas have at their core the principles of personality theory, specifically the area of interactionism, with the emphasis on the individual to situation relationship. Interactional psychology examines the relationship and behaviours emanating from the interactions and transactions that occur from the perspective of the individual and the situation. This is a behavioural psychological perspective on account of the emphasis on how a particular situation has an effect on individual behaviours.

Hyland (2013) and Mischel, Jeffrey, and Patterson (1974) stated that this behavioural psychological perspective is situation specific and does not attempt to draw broader conclusions about behaviours or attributes outside of the specific impact of a particular situation on the individual's behaviour.

Some researchers (Hyland, 2013; Mischel, 1968; 1973) have posited with regard to interactionism and the relationship of individual personal attribute and situation, that personality as a function of social learning theory generated additional exploration of interactional psychology as opposed to individual personality attributes.

However, others (Bowers, 1973; Endler & Magnusson, 1976; Magnusson, 2013) have argued that the individual/situation interaction theory of behaviour is more thorough and holistic in that it recognises an interactive bidirectional cause-and-effect feedback loop relationship with dual influence paths that have an effect on individual behaviour. In essence, the individual and situation dynamic is fundamentally linked as opposed to being separate.

According to Kidwell, Bennett, and Valentine (2010) and Terborg (1977), interactional psychology has had a history in some circles among researchers in the industrial and organisational psychology domain as it pertains to the relationship between individual differences, attributes and performance in the workplace. Further, examples of the role of interactionism in the area of industrial and organisational psychology can be acknowledged in the research focus on employee selection, retention and attrition.

The effort to match individual abilities and skills to specific job requirements is one important area associated with interactionism. Another key aspect of interactionism in the attraction, selection and attrition framework model of organisational effectiveness is identifying individual training deficiencies in relation to the skills required to perform a given task.

Also, as asserted by Schneider et al. (2013), a great deal of effort has been expended in the field of industrial and organisational psychology on the attraction, selection and attrition framework model in an effort to understand the role that conflict between individual attributes and the work situation play in contributing to dissatisfaction, as well as separation from the organisation.

This model of organisational effectiveness is grounded in interactionism theory (Schneider, 1983; Schneider et al., 2013). It posits that the individual and situation become integrated because of individual to individual interaction, which stems from the attraction, selection and attrition process. This process indicates causal relationships that demonstrate this integration of individual and situation as well as less than desirable organisational outcomes, from an effectiveness perspective, when this integration is not available through organisational actions.

According to Schneider (1983) and Schneider et al. (2013), this model of organisational effectiveness is actualised when an organisation prevents the homogeneity that occurs when it hires like individuals. They all integrate into a situation in favour of attracting, selecting and retaining employees of varying skill level experiences with capabilities to discern, identify and understand the organisation's culture, mission, values and objectives, and deliver performance aimed at achieving organisational effectiveness.

This model fills a void in organisational effectiveness (Campbell, Bownas, Peterson, & Dunnette, 1974; Schneider et al., 2013). The reason for this is that the three-part cycle has not received much attention in the context of understanding how this dynamic impacts the effectiveness of an organisation and how variations in attracting, selecting and retaining employees may in fact alter organisational effectiveness.

With regard to the attraction phase of this model, some researchers like Schneider and Schmitt (1976), Schneider et al. (2013) and Wright and Christensen (2010) have suggested, that potential employees are attracted to specific career paths and organisational cultures as a result of the attributes associated with a particular career as well as perceptions of the organisation's cultural values.

DeArmond and Crawford (2011) and Tom (1971) postulated that the individual-organisation fit as it pertains to attraction, demonstrates that organisational choice decision showed a strong relationship between an individual's choice of occupation (in the context of his or her organisational personality perception) and his or her most desired organisation than any other organisation, regardless of whether the attributes or characteristics present in the other organisations were a determining decision factor.

Additional research by Holland (1973) and Nauta (2010) indicated that an individual's occupational choice is a function of his or her occupation compatibility type, as well as the organisation's environmental characteristics, and that the kinds of individuals who join and fit the organisation further develop its culture and character.

Other research in the area of expectancy theory (Lloyd & Mertens, 2018; Vroom, 1966) has also supported the idea that individuals' ultimate decision to join an organisation is predicated on the basis of both the fit between the outcomes they desired in the position and their perceptions of instrumentality for the organisation chosen.

According to Mowday, Porter, and Steers (2013) and Porter and Steers (1973), the attraction factor is not only significant in the area of organisational choice decisions made when an individual joins an organisation, but is equally important in organisational choice decisions regarding remaining with an organisation or ultimately succumbing to attrition when the individual no longer feels the organisational attraction, particularly with reference to job and work environmental issues.

Further to this concern and linked to the interactionism perspective (Mowday et al., 2013; Wanous, 1980), it has been noted that job and work environment issues relating to interpersonal relationships, job characteristic factors, and compensation and reward programmes provided to employees by an organisation, require compatibility (Shibly, 2019) with the actual needs of employees to avoid job dissatisfaction and ultimate attrition from the organisation.

Research (Mowday et al. 2013; Porter & Steers, 1973) has demonstrated this interactionist perspective in that employees who join organisations where the fit between their career needs and the jobs are not meaningful, will tend to be more interested in leaving the organisation. While it is desirable to attract and retain employee groups who share similar backgrounds and compatibility with the specific job or career skill requirements, when organisations fail to attract and retain the complete spectrum of skills required for each job in the organisation, limitations

are created and the organisation does not benefit by having the full complement of skills to perform effectively (Schneider, 1976; Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2013).

However, from the interactionism point of view, this scenario of attracting excessively similar employee groups would result in too many of the same, like-minded and similar skill type employees who remain with the organisation. The result is a paucity of wider perspectives and dissenting opinions owing to a lack of representation of the full spectrum of skills and people required.

This practice of limiting skills coverage could have significant ramifications for an organisation's ability to respond to changes in the business landscape (Schneider, 1976; Schneider et al., 2013). This is because the level of employee homogeneity may leave the organisation vulnerable to the absence of employees with the experiences and skills outside of the skill set possessed by other employees in the same work group. This relates to the skills that would be needed to successfully take advantage of the changing business conditions being experienced.

A shortage of skills could mean that the organisation is unable to sustain its viability and effectiveness in both the short and long term (Bishwas, 2015). This situation suggests that organisations are likely to experience various shifts through their evolution and life cycles that might be highly dependent on this whole area of homogeneity versus heterogeneity as it relates to the variation of skill sets in career and job groupings. In fact, according to Kimberly and Miles (1980), the whole idea of the organisational life cycle is a research area that has been severely underrepresented in the literature, and it is in need of further exploration.

This may be particularly relevant when it comes to understanding sustainable and long-term organisational viability and effectiveness. As some researchers (Schneider, 1976; Schneider et al., 2013) have posited, in order to sustain viability, organisations need to maintain the health and vitality of whole-system-centric entities, to allow and encourage growth and development through leading in and reacting to changing conditions.

Schneider (1976) and Schneider et al., (2013) have suggested that by developing and managing organisational goals, organisations can thrive and avoid their potential demise as a result of the homogeneity of skill set and like-minded individuals who remain with the organisation, combined with the lack of heterogeneity among employees

In this context, according to Locke and Latham (2013), the starting point for goal development is initiated by those members of the most senior management who are responsible for formulating the organisation's overall mission and objectives.

This then generates action through the layers of the organisation to create goals consistent with the overall objectives of the organisation. These goals that permeate and link up with various levels of the organisation must also be compatible and coexist horizontally across the various departments in the organisation so as not to interfere with the achievement of both their respective goals and the overall objectives of the organisation.

Over time, the sustainability of an environment of goal development and management becomes less about the senior management and their initiation, direction and control within the organisation. It is more about the behavioural nature of the organisation in terms of the management culture, organisation design and structure, employee compensation and recognition programmes, human resource practices and deployment of resources such as technology (Schneider, 1976; Schneider et al., 2013). Some of the above factors and the way in which they are implemented and managed through the behaviours of individuals, are likely to have the greatest effect on the goal environment in the organisation.

The attainment of organisational effectiveness is derived (Steers, 1977; Steers and Lee, 2017) through leadership processes, organisational structure and communications. The way in which employees in the organisation interact in pursuing the achievement of organisational goals is a result of (Weick, 1979; 2015) the processes and structures that contribute to organisational effectiveness.

The key areas of interest in the analysis of organisational effectiveness (Schneider, 1976; Schneider et al., 2013) are the factors and relationship patterns of goal identification and definition, organisational design, attraction, selection, attrition, comprehension and goal confirmation or redefinition in an organisation.

Organisational effectiveness as a research construct has focused on areas such as environmental dimensions, hierarchical considerations and technology (Campbell, 1974; 2012). Some researchers (Schneider, 1976; Schneider et al., 2013) have suggested that the greater the emphasis an organisation places on the significance and need for managing organisational requirements, creating systems for goal development and definition enhancement, and interventions for managing organisational change and growth, the more likely it is able to achieve sustained organisational viability and effectiveness.

The selection process component in the attraction-selection-attrition framework model of organisational effectiveness is the most integral aspect of the model as it pertains to the attainment and long-term maintenance of organisational effectiveness.

6.9.4 Interpretation systems model of organisational effectiveness

In the interpretation systems model of organisational effectiveness, the individual researcher or organisation being studied has the greatest influence in determining the actual model or definition of organisational effectiveness (Daft, 2017; Mills, Thurlow, & Mills, 2010; Weick & Daft, 1983). This is based on their own orientation, interpretation and preferences relating to the context of organisational effectiveness. Some researchers and organisations may view the context by attributing different characteristics to the organisation. According to Weick and Daft (1983; 2010), for example, the context of the organisation can be classified as human systems, input-output systems, transformative systems, goal systems and resource allocation systems.

The interpretation system model of organisational effectiveness (Pinder & Moore, 2012; Pondy & Mitroff, 1979) goes a step further by recognising that organisations possess complicated human characteristics that require corresponding organisational effectiveness factors and considerations.

It has been postulated by Mills et al. (2010) and Weick and Daft (1983; 2010) that these complex systems, with an array of ambiguous as well as compatible goals, have a number of distinguishing features as they relate to how the interfaces with information, managements, environments, goal establishment and decision processes occur.

The interpretation systems perspective of organisational effectiveness supports the idea (Sparrow & Cooper, 2014; Steers, 1975) that organisational effectiveness is both multidimensional and complex. Interpretation systems are dynamic and an integral part of an organisation's ability to strive for understanding the roadmap of organisational effectiveness.

Interpretation systems and the consensus building that can take place around them instil discipline in an organisation in its quest to identify action, past and present, as well as predict future behaviours necessary to achieve organisational effectiveness.

According to Mills et al. (2010) and Weick and Daft (1983; 2010), organisational effectiveness interpretation systems function in such a way that they inform participants and make adjustments to the behaviours they are supposed to describe. These systems become organisational sense-making mechanisms, and frequently focus on past decision outcomes as a means for informing current decisions and actions.

Interpretation systems of organisational effectiveness lend themselves to measurable variables, performance-metric analysis and thoroughness in measurement when the environment is assessed objectively. However, when the environment is assessed

subjectively, then effectiveness may be determined on the basis of interpersonal, adaptability, variable, and generally, less measurable performance terms.

Some organisations assess organisational effectiveness within environment boundaries and are considered test avoiders with regard to organisational effectiveness (Mills et al., 2010; Weick, 1979). However, organisations that assess organisational effectiveness outside of boundaries are considered test makers in relation to organisational sense-making.

According to the interpretation system, organisational effectiveness is determined on the basis of environmental insights and signals. Sound interpretation systems of organisational effectiveness possess the following characteristics (Mills et al., 2010; Weick & Daft, 1983; 2010):

A detailed awareness of specifics. A strong knowledge of organisational and environmental information and conditions can result in clarity in defining and assessing organisational effectiveness.

Taxonomies at various levels. The presence of various multi-tiered classification systems contributes to greater predictability of actions based on behaviours and provides for an orderly environment. This, in turn, allows for facilitation of interpretations that enhance organisational effectiveness.

Predominance of causal linkages. The existence of causal linkages that tie the various classification systems and categories together strengthens the predictability of current and future actions, as well as interpreting and analysing past actions. These causal linkages and relationships, as well as the interpretive statements they provide, are the cornerstone of organisational effectiveness.

Input redefinition. Interpretation systems organisational effectiveness models provide ongoing opportunities for individuals in an organisation to redefine and reconstruct the array of organisational inputs that they interpret. This process of re-establishing organisational inputs supports these models.

Complex nature of characteristics. Owing to the degree of difficulty and complexity of interpretation systems organisational effectiveness models arising from different interpretations thereof, most interpretations lack both thoroughness and completeness.

As a result of this and to further the ambitions of organisations to achieve and maintain effectiveness, interpretations eventually tend to represent compromises of

divergent interpretation perspectives. These interpretation systems models of organisational effectiveness are adjustable and flexible, based on changes stemming from analysis of interpretation outcomes.

Diversity of interpretation reducing consensus. Interpretation systems effectiveness allows for diversity of interpretation (Mills et al., 2010; Weick & Daft, 1983; 2010), as opposed to consensus of interpretation, although this is counterintuitive and contradicts studies on group behaviour. According to Keesing (1974) and Zhang and Iles (2014), this diversification of interpretation of systems of organisational effectiveness enhances the development and sustainability of social relationships in an organisation.

Interpretation systems provide a framework for analysing, understanding and assigning meaning to organisational activity such as effectiveness. Organisational effectiveness in this framework is judged from the perspective (Mills et al. 2010; Weick & Daft 1983: 2010) the quality of the interpretation as opposed to pure and measurable performance metrics.

The interpretation model of organisational effectiveness is less rigid and more flexible in making sense of organisational activity and behaviour (Mills et al., 2010; Weick, 1979). Hence it is broader in scope than simply a means of evaluating inputs and outputs from an effectiveness perspective.

Interpretation models of effectiveness place greater focus on complex organisational processes (Pinder & Moore, 2012; Pondy & Mitroff, 1978). These models, according to Mills et al. (2010) and Weick and Daft (1983; 2010), provide an organisation and its members with a semblance of order by processing the ambiguity that occurs in organisations into a more understandable format. This adds to the potential sustainability of the organisation.

An organisation's maturity level may play a role in how the interpretation model of organisational effectiveness evolves and functions. For example, a newer organisation would start to create an interpretive frame of reference as organisational behaviour and activity occur. However, an established organisation, in a sense, would have a catalogue of past organisational activity, and therefore previous interpretations it could refer to as new behaviours and activities arise that require interpretation.

Managers play a key role in interpreting organisational behaviours and activities for the benefit of organisational members. The interpretation model of organisational effectiveness (Mills et al., 2010; Weick & Daft, 1983; 2010) provides a process-oriented alternative to other more quantifiable models of organisational effectiveness and requires managers to become more

adept at identifying, evaluating and assessing interpretations, often of a subjective nature, as opposed to evaluating typical measurable financial metrics inherent in other organisational effectiveness models.

Mills et al. (2010) and Weick (1979) have suggested that while organisational dilemmas are inevitable, managing them to a successful conclusion is imperative in order to achieve effectiveness within the interpretation perspective of organisational effectiveness.

6.9.5 Economic and political model of organisational effectiveness

The economic and political perspective of organisational effectiveness (Nord, 1983; 2012) has at its core an emphasis on both economic (value) and political factors, and provides perhaps a more comprehensive perspective of organisational effectiveness.

Goodman and Pennings (1977) have proposed that effectiveness is tied to value choices and reflects decisions of an economic and political nature, based on the effectiveness criteria that are examined in a particular research situation at a particular time. Other researchers such as Kataria, Rastogi, and Garg (2013) and Whetten and Cameron (2013) have supported this view.

Researchers like Claxton, Rana, Ardichvilli, and Tkachenko (2014) and Dubin (1976) have suggested that the definition of organisational effectiveness developed internally in organisations, and is incompatible with the external perspective of organisational effectiveness. Others (Scott 1977; Scott and Davis 2015) have argued that owing to the value and political nature of this model, organisational effectiveness criteria reflect the values and preferences of that particular constituent group.

One area that the economic and political perspective of organisational effectiveness attempts to address, which is absent in other organisational effectiveness perspectives discussed, is the macro-effectiveness variables that have an impact beyond the organisational level and extend into the larger society.

In essence a conflict is often inherent between (Nord, 1983; Upadhaya, Munir, & Blount, 2014) micro effectiveness factors (those within the organisation) and macro effectiveness factors (those with an impact outside the organisation) in assessing organisational effectiveness.

An example of this conflict would be having knowledgeable consumers, which would be an advantage from a micro-effectiveness standpoint because it benefits general society. However, educated consumers are often problematic for organisations at a micro-

effectiveness level, causing them to divert resources from more desirable internal-driven needs.

Owing to this conflict, some researchers (Dewar and Hage, 1978; Hage, 2018; Nord, 1983; 2012; Pondy, 1977; 2011) have proposed evaluating effectiveness on the basis of the results of effectiveness across families of organisations or all organisations. This is referred to as the population perspective.

One grouping of macro-effectiveness criteria centres on the area of providing goods and services, more specifically, on how successful organisations are in satisfying the economic needs of societal members. The determination of this success is based on factors such as quality, price, diversity of services and goods, and supply.

However, Nord (1983; 2012) mentions three conditions that could compromise the positive impact of macro-effectiveness criteria. One condition is associated with the behaviour of organisations, which can be deemed oligopolistic or monopolistic since these environments often perform poorly in allocating resources efficiently and productively from a macro-level of effectiveness.

Another impediment to macro-effectiveness criteria success has to do with the degree to which consumers can influence the decisions of producers of goods and services in society. However, according to Nord (1983; 2012), organisations can mitigate the potential effects of consumer influence by limiting the diversity and supply of goods and services and focusing instead on micro-effectiveness measures that are more profitable and cost effective.

An additional mitigating factor as it relates to consumer influence and autonomy is the knowledge imbalance that exists between organisations and the consumers they provide goods and services to (Nord, 1983; 2012). With this knowledge advantage, organisations can often control the goods and services provided from a quantity, and to lesser extent, quality perspective, as well as to artificially manufacture (or create) consumer demand for products simply by making marginal changes to product or service features. Organisations exercise control by also creating markets for products and services that only a specific organisation can provide as a result of technological breakthroughs.

Nord (1983; 2012) suggested a final area in which the benefits to society of macro-effectiveness success may be offset, in examining the sum effectiveness of the population of organisations. This relates to the issue of profitable yet inefficient organisations being allowed to fail because the disruption this causes to society through unemployment, dislocation of

workers and families, and the decay of cities, may be greater in terms of economic, political and social costs than the continued existence of the inefficient firm.

The deleterious consequences to society of allowing an inefficient firm to fail has negative repercussions for the total organisational effectiveness of an industry family (e.g. the automotive industry in the USA, particularly in Detroit) or the sum total of effectiveness of all industries from an economic and political perspective.

In terms of the political side of the economic and political perspective of organisational effectiveness, Nord (1983; 2012) posited that organisational success may in some part be attributable to the political relationships and influence the organisation may wield over governmental institutions.

Organisations have played a role in influencing governmental institutions and in this way have had an impact on macro-factors of effectiveness. It has been argued (Fleming & Spicer, 2014; Perrow, 1972) that organisations are social instruments, with the leadership of these organisations wielding the power which they hold to effect political and government decisions.

According to Mintzberg (1979; 2016), with organisational power residing predominantly with those individuals holding key leadership roles, there has been a weakening of broader democratic representation in organisations, and the area of leadership influence has grown outside the internal organisation.

Others (Lindblom, 1977; 2018; Mintzberg, 2016) have posited that in terms of micro-organisational effectiveness criteria, there is a consolidation of economic and political power in the hands of a small group of corporate leaders, which results in significant influential capability.

Micro-effectiveness criteria have an impact on fulfilling employee needs for job satisfaction, and may also lead to other positive outcomes such as low turnover. Areas such as employee turnover, unemployment and dislocation should be of interest on a macro-effectiveness basis when, according to Nord (1983; 2012), the populations of organisations are examined from an effectiveness perspective, since these are clearly measures of organisational effectiveness on a macro-effectiveness basis.

Unemployment metrics can be regarded as a macro-organisational effectiveness criterion because the impact of unemployment on the quality of life from a societal perspective is significant (Zoogah, Peng, & Woldu, 2015). The resultant turnover and dislocation can also be

regarded as a legitimate measure of macro-organisational effectiveness when the overall population of industry is considered from an effectiveness perspective.

6.10 DIAMOND MODEL OF ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

Organisational effectiveness is dependent on having both the (Lawler 2003, 2010; Mohrman and Lawler, 2014) appropriate capabilities matched with relevant core competencies.

6.10.1 What makes organisations successful?

The diamond model of organisational effectiveness identifies the four key factors integral in determining organisational effectiveness. The four key factors are strategy, organisational capabilities, core competencies and environment, and they are the lynchpins of the diamond model.

Lawler and Ledford (1997) posited that an organisational effectiveness model and the attainment of effectiveness occur when there are linkages across such factors as capabilities, strategy, environment and competencies. Other researchers (Burton, Obel, & Håkansson, 2015) have supported the components comprising the diamond model from an organisational design and effectiveness perspective.

Four variables are instrumental in organisational design, namely structure, process, people and rewards, and they are defined by the four factors of organisational effectiveness contained in the model. The level of an organisation's effectiveness (Burton et al., 2015; Lawler & Ledford, 1997) is a function of the compatibility between each of the four variables of organisational design, and the same four variables and the four corners of the diamond model of organisational effectiveness.

6.10.2 Strategy factor

The strategy factor of the diamond model determines what an organisation must do or accomplish to be successful. Organisational strategy includes the objectives, mission, design and the business the organisation is involved in from the perspective of the business model for products and services.

Strategy must be developed in such a way that it is in harmony with the other three corners of the diamond model. According to Burton et al. (2015) and Lawler and Ledford (1997), the strategy should be reality based and recognise the breadth and limitations present in terms of organisational capabilities, core competencies and the environmental factors, because organisational effectiveness is partially dependent on whether the strategy is implementable.

6.10.3 Organisational capability factor

Organisational capability is the essential element that allows the organisation to successfully implement the strategy in order to achieve organisational effectiveness. Organisational capabilities are essentially what defines the organisation's existence and its operating purpose (Burton et al., 2015). They encompass a wide array of operational dimensions covering all aspects of business.

The degree to which these capabilities demonstrate cohesion with strategy, core competencies and environmental considerations will determine the level of organisational effectiveness (Burton et al., 2015; Lawler & Ledford, 1997). The challenge facing all organisations is to not only maintain their existing capabilities, but also incorporate new ones necessary in order to successfully implement changes associated with environmental shifts.

According to Schuler and Jackson (2014), many of these new organisational capabilities require different skill sets from employees as well as other human resources capabilities that represent challenges for an organisation and are necessary for ongoing organisational effectiveness.

6.10.4 Core competencies factor

Core competencies are another element of the diamond model of organisational effectiveness. Enginoglu and Arıkan (2016) and Hamel and Prahalad and Hamel (1990) initially described core competencies as the integration of an organisation's production skill capabilities and technological strengths, which underpin its services and products.

Core competencies need to be incorporated into an organisation's strategic plan. An organisation's core competencies in the area of production, skills and capabilities (Burton, Obel, & Hakonsson, 2015; Lawler, 2010; Lawler & Ledford, 1997) are potentially the most vulnerable to an organisation's effectiveness. This is because the skills represent the human and intellectual capital, which is subject to offers by other organisations, and if employees are not satisfied with their organisation, can depart for other opportunities if they perceive they are not being treated properly.

Organisational core competencies go beyond the early descriptions that focused on technological capabilities and production skill sets, and now include customer-focused strengths and ensuring quality product and service delivery and support.

6.10.5 Environmental factors

The fourth corner of the diamond model represents environmental considerations in the form of the economic factors present, the actual physical resources, the business operating climate the qualifying human resources available to the organisation, and the commitment to research and development into new technologies.

The four interior organisational design pillars of the diamond model, through their interfacing, provide the basis for the way in which an organisation is operationalised in order to influence how it initiates and manages the capabilities and competencies required to successfully implement its strategy (Burton et al., 2015; Lawler & Ledford, 1997).

These four organisational design issues are as follows (Lawler, 2003; 2010):

Structure. This design aspect is concerned with the way in which the organisation's human resources are aligned in terms of assignments, work groups and job task requirements, reporting relationships, decision-making authority and the degree or level of the organisational hierarchy.

Process. This area focuses on the elements of communication, managing, controlling and directing employee behaviour through the management systems that operationalise these areas. These processes must be aligned with the organisation's strategy, people, structure and rewards.

People. The area of human resources is centred on attracting and developing the people with the skills that fit the organisation's mission and job requirements and demonstrate consistent high-level performance. High levels of individual performance are achieved when people, through their abilities, which are a combination of their competencies, knowledge and skill sets, together with their motivation, perform at high levels.

Reward. This represents the fourth interior organisational design pillar in the diamond model. The various awards systems used by the organisation as a means of recognising high levels of performance must be coordinated and in harmony with both the reward philosophy and objectives, as well as the overall organisational strategy (Lawler, 2003; 2010). The reward system must support the organisation's ability to attract, motivate and retain the best talent available to pursue the organisation's strategy and mission. In order to enhance its organisational effectiveness, the reward system must be designed on the basis of sound employee motivation theories and principles.

These four organisational design pillars in the diamond model together are the foundation for the development of the organisational culture which, in turn, influences organisational effectiveness and performance (Burton et al., 2015; Lawler, 2003; 2010; Lawler & Ledford, 1997). It is also necessary to understand how the organisational culture relates to the four corners of the diamond model.

The following pertinent questions need to be asked: In analysing how the culture fits in with the environment, does the culture support the development of staff to ensure that their core competencies are being effectively used? Does the culture support and recognise the importance of the behaviours required to achieve its strategy? Is the culture in harmony with its capabilities? According to Mohrman and Lawler (2014), these are all vital considerations in judging how supportive the culture is of the four corners of the diamond model. Knowledge of any gaps in this analysis will help to determine the strategies and actions needed to alter the culture to properly align it with the diamond model.

One of the greatest impediments to achieving organisational effectiveness is the existence of an incompatible or dysfunctional culture. Another factor that causes failure in organisational effectiveness is the resistance to change culture, which may occur when business conditions, assumptions and/or strategies have changed to the extent that the existing culture is no longer compatible with the new business environment.

Burton et al. (2015) and Lawler (2003; 2010) have argued that when the four corners of the diamond model (i.e. competencies, strategy, environment and capability) are incompatible with and not supported by the appropriate interior organisational design pillars of the model, the organisation will be unable to achieve sustainable effectiveness.

Reward systems should be designed to facilitate and enhance organisational effectiveness in addition to attracting, retaining, motivating and recognising individual employees. The positive influence of reward systems on organisational effectiveness can be attained by ensuring that the design, implementation and maintenance of these reward systems are in harmony with the organisation's strategy, culture and structure (Burton et al., 2015; Lawler, 2003; 2010).

An organisation's reward system impacts culture by the type of reward programmes used, who the recipients are and the kinds of work behaviours that are rewarded (Guzak, Crandall, & Alavinejad, 2017). This gives employees an idea of the organisation's values and expectations concerning performance and the type of place the organisation is as an employer.

According to Guzak et al. (2017), reward systems are such an integral and powerful component in shaping an organisation's culture, that any attempts to change the culture in a direction contrary to that which is supported by the current reward system, will likely not succeed unless the reward system is revamped in order to align it with the new culture that is being created.

One of the most important considerations is for employees to perceive compatibility between how employee performance is rewarded and the organisation's performance outcomes (Guzak et al., 2017). The more traditional pay systems did not focus on organisational effectiveness and performance based on core competencies, but instead were oriented towards higher hierarchical bureaucratic structures and compliance based on narrowly defined individual skills.

Upgrades that enhanced promotions in the hierarchical structure, and rewards in the form of more pay, higher status and additional benefits, the higher the level in the hierarchy, perpetuated these hierarchical structure systems. Guzak et al. (2017) suggested that these traditional systems failed to encourage and support the lateral integration of the organisation and the skills needed for teamwork across individual units, and the development and appropriate reward systems for enhancing an organisation's core competencies needed to achieve outstanding organisational performance and effectiveness.

Organisational strategy should be aligned with the reward system as well, in order to ensure achievement of organisational effectiveness and performance (Guzak et al., 2017). The organisational strategy is what determines the reward system and not the other way around.

If the strategy includes attainment of group performance objectives, say, as part of a strategy for a new product launch, then the reward system must be designed and flexible enough to recognise attainment of these performance objectives. The reward system should still be able to recognise and reward the same employee contributors for attainment of other performance objectives relating to ongoing products performance objectives as well.

6.11 LINKING REWARD SYSTEMS TO ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE

If the organisational structure is designed to focus on highly skilled and autonomous individual contributors, then the reward system must be tailored to individual performance. However, if the organisational structure is less hierarchical and represents more of a flat structure based on self-directed work teams, then the reward system must support the team performance outcomes.

6.12 EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE AND ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

According to Poling and Braatz, (2001) and Robertson, Birch, and Cooper (2012), it is generally agreed that individual members of an organisation need to learn, engage and have positive job and work attitudes to achieve the performance level to attain organisational effectiveness.

6.13 CULTURAL CONTEXT OF ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS

The theoretical link between culture and organisational effectiveness begins with the idea that the organisation's principles, values and belief system are the basis for the development of a motivated workforce resulting in performance excellence (Denison, 1997; Denison & Mishra, 1995). Others (Peterson, Ashkanasy, & Wilderom, 2011; Schneider, Ehrhart, & Macey, 2013) have posited that there is a link between culture and organisational effectiveness based on specific performance-related outcomes of effectiveness.

According to Bezrukova, Thatcher, Jehn, and Spell (2012) and Schneider et al. (2000), the role of organisational culture in many instances moderates the relationship between individual employee work behaviour and organisational performance and effectiveness. Others (Zheng, Yang, & McLean, 2010) have found that variables such as knowledge serve as moderators of the organisational culture and effectiveness relationship.

In order to enhance organisational effectiveness, researchers such as Cartwright and Baron (2002), Hartnell et al. (2011) and Tüfekci and Uysal (2017) have proposed that organisations should ensure that the culture is both in harmony with organisational goals and at the same time flexible and adaptable to the organisation's changing needs.

According to Cartwright and Cooper (2000; 2009), the culture of an organisation has a meaningful impact on the type of psychological environment it develops and maintains for employees.

In a study (Denison, 1997; Hartnell et al., 2011; Schneider & Ehrhart, 2013) it was established that organisational effectiveness outcomes have a positive relationship with organisational culture and that specific measures of organisational behaviour have meaningful predictive value of an organisation's financial performance.

The earliest studies linking culture and management practices and organisational performance showed promise and a positive relationship (Denison, 1984; Denison, Nieminen, & Kotrba, 2014; Gordon, 1985; Martin, Sitkin, & Boehm, 1985). A model or framework for studying the relationship between organisational culture and effectiveness (Denison, 1997;

Denison & Mishra, 1995; Schneider & Ehrhart, 2013) suggested that organisational effectiveness is the result of the relationship between both values and beliefs and practices and policies in the greater context of the organisational environment.

The areas of organisational effectiveness and organisational culture have been closely aligned in situations where organisational success and sustainability are achieved (De Witte & Van Muijen, 1999; Heidrich, Almeida, & Jones, 2016). A research study involving employees in the manufacturing sector by Goodman and Svyantek (1999) demonstrated that employee perceptions of organisational culture had a direct influence on organisational performance. Similar results were reported by Kirkman, Lowe, and Gibson (2006; 2017) and MacIntosh and Doherty, (2010) regarding the perception of culture in other industries as well.

Research (Saha & Kumar, 2018; Woolliams & Mosely, 1999) also found that organisational cultures that encourage freedom of work behaviour and autonomy in performing work tasks lead to greater employee satisfaction and organisational performance which, in turn, contribute to greater effectiveness.

In another research study (Denison, 1997) examining the organisational performance metric of return on investment (ROI) over a five-year period, it was determined that organisations characterised as having a participative culture performed substantially better than their competitors on the performance metric of ROI during the period between the second and fifth years. Prajogo and McDermott's (2011) study using the competing values framework demonstrated that dimensions of organisational culture, had a favourable impact on such performance metrics as product and process quality and innovation.

Research by Ahmed and Shafiq (2014) in the telecom industry using the balanced scorecard to collect and measure performance data found that organisational culture had a direct impact on organisational performance.

A conclusion can be made from the literature review on organisational effectiveness that there is a need for an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness centered on the relationships between job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction representing organisational effectiveness. Such an integrated model would provide a common platform from which to bring research interests back to the area of organisational effectiveness. The integrated theoretical model is portrayed in chapters 8 and 9 where the theory is meaningfully integrated with the empirical results.

6.14 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter included discussions on the meaning and the early years of the concept of organisational effectiveness. Various models of organisational effectiveness were reviewed and gaps and differences identified. The influence of organisational theories on effectiveness was discussed, as well as the importance of clarifying the concept of organisational effectiveness.

This was followed by an overview of organisational effectiveness criteria. The re-emergence of organisational effectiveness was touched on, as well as different perspectives of the concept.

It can be concluded from the literature review that there is a need for an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness based on the relationships between job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction representing organisational effectiveness.

The case has been presented and made for the organisational effectiveness model developed for this research comprising the variables of job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction in part on the conclusion drawn from the literature that an existing model does not currently exist.

While other approaches that at least indirectly suggest an organisational effectiveness blueprint, such as the profit service chain approach and the employee-customer service linkage model, while not models per se, share some similarities which were discussed in the literature review. However, neither of these two approaches encompass the construct variables of job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction into a coherent integrated model of organisational effectiveness and as a result fall short replicating the model being proposed and examined in this study.

The next chapter focuses on the research methodology used in this study.

CHAPTER 7

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

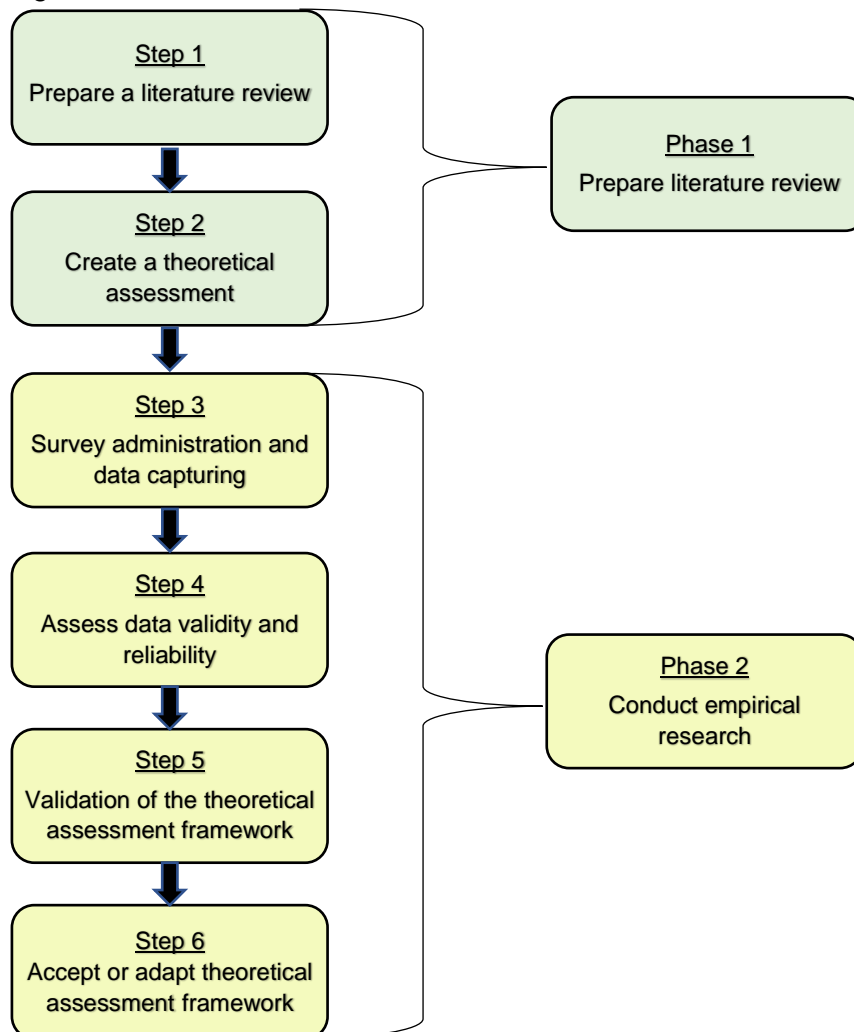
7.1 INTRODUCTION TO RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

The goal of this chapter is to explain all aspects of both the research methodology and design in this study. More specifically, the chapter focuses on the statistical methodology deployed in assessing the instruments used to determine the impact of employee satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction on organisational effectiveness in a large cable television, internet and telecommunications service provider.

A diagram depicting both the research design process and the structural equation modelling process are provided in Figures 7.1 and 7.2.

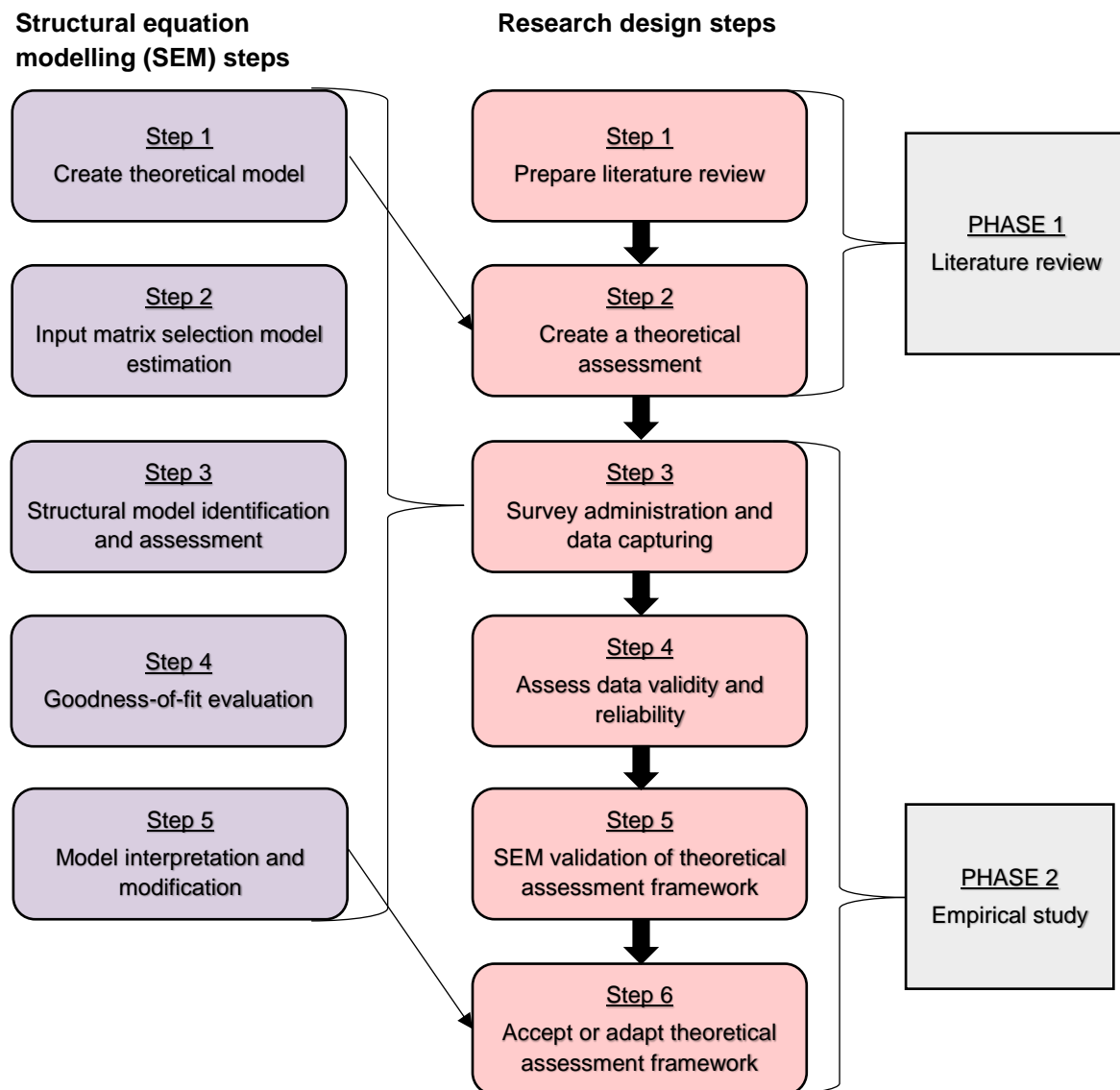
Figure 7.1

Research Design



Source: Hair et al., 1995. p. 226

Figure 7.2
SEM and the Research Design



Source: Hair et al., 1995 p. 226

The chapter begins with a description of both the population and sample. It goes on to explain the data collection process and the rationale for the approach, with particular emphasis on the various instruments used and the motivation for why they were selected for this study.

The methodology and statistical analysis that were used in this research are then discussed, followed by a summary of the chapter. This empirical research study was a quantitative as opposed qualitative.

Quantitative research can be described (Rogelberg, 2002; Rogelberg, & Olien, 2015) as an empirical study involving the collection and statistical analysis of measurable data in support

of a particular hypothesis. Given the interest in measuring variable relationships a quantitative study was chosen. According to Brannen (2017), the process of quantitative research involves identification of specific variables to study in a measurable way. These variables are singled out and defined, and then categorised and connected in order to create hypotheses, which are then tested.

This study formulated a central hypothesis that was supported and designed on the basis of a theoretical foundation developed after a thorough literature review.

7.2 FORMULATION OF THE RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The research hypotheses were formulated in the introductory chapter, and in this chapter are linked to and incorporated into the research methodology process.

According to Babbie (2015), research hypotheses represent assumptions about the research construct variables being studied and their interrelationships. These hypotheses are critical to achieving the mission of the research.

The research hypotheses formulated for the current study were as follows:

- **H01:** A new integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness, based on the interdependencies and relationships between the research construct factors of job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction, cannot be established and empirically supported.
- **Ha1:** A new integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness, based on the interdependencies and relationships between the research construct factors of job satisfaction, leadership, and customer satisfaction, can be established and empirically supported.
- **H02:** Job satisfaction does not have an impact on organisational effectiveness in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness, which also includes the research construct factors of leadership and customer satisfaction.
- **Ha2:** Job satisfaction does have an impact on organisational effectiveness in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness, which also includes the research construct factors of leadership and customer satisfaction.
- **H03:** Leadership does not have an impact on organisational effectiveness in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness, which also includes the research construct factors of job satisfaction and customer satisfaction.

- **Ha3:** Leadership does have an impact on organisational effectiveness in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness, which also includes the research construct factors of job satisfaction and customer satisfaction.
- **H04:** Customer satisfaction does not have an impact on organisational effectiveness in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness, which also includes the research construct factors of job satisfaction and leadership.
- **Ha4:** Customer satisfaction does have an impact on organisational effectiveness in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness, which also includes the research construct factors of job satisfaction and leadership.
- **H05:** The interdependencies and relationships between job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction and how they collectively impact organisational effectiveness, cannot be tested and proven empirically in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness.
- **Ha5:** The interdependencies and relationships between job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction and how they collectively impact organisational effectiveness, can be tested and proven empirically in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness.

7.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

According to Schwab (2004; 2013), research methodology is the framework used to perform the essential steps in the research programme in order to achieve the stated objectives of a research study. Some researchers (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011) prefer to refer to research methodologies as strategies of inquiry.

Brewerton and Millward (2001; 2010) postulated that a research methodology includes a number of key steps such as data collection processes, statistical analysis, review of data analysis results, and the assessment and interpretation of results based on the research goals and central hypotheses. This research study incorporates these aforementioned steps.

Other researchers (Austin, Scherbaum, & Mahlman, 2004; Rogelberg & Olien, 2015) have emphasised that the key components of a successfully developed research methodology lie in the measurement, design and analysis stages of the research. These will also be discussed.

Babbie (2001; 2015) has suggested that in its most basic terms, the design of the research study represents the layout or outline of what, why and how the researcher will conduct the research project, culminating in a plan of the methods to be deployed.

The methodological design of this study was based on empirical research of a quantitative nature. According to Goodwin (2005), an empirical research study has its foundation in observable and measurable phenomena and data gathered by the researcher in which new knowledge and information are acquired from experience rather than from untested theories or anecdotal evidence. Schwab (2013) argued that empirical research is a test of anticipated relationships between variables in order to confirm an existing theory or create a new one.

A sound research methodology provides the researcher with a framework for describing, predicting, analysing and interpreting both individual and group behaviour in an organisation (Austin et al. Mahlman, 2004). The research methodology, according to Kumar (2019), is a step-by-step guide for conducting an empirical study involving the collection, categorisation, analysis and presentation of statistical findings.

An empirical research study can be either quantitative, qualitative or a combination of the two. As stated previously, the current study was quantitative.

Creswell (2014) posited that a quantitative research study integrates the elements of theory, measurement, observation, hypotheses, research questions, statistical analysis of the relationship between independent and dependent variables, in which content and statistical information are intertwined. At its core, it is a cause-and-effect proposition.

According to Brannen (2017), quantitative research involves identifying specific and measurable variables to study and analyse in order to determine relationships such as cause and effect and to formulate and test hypotheses.

Bryman (2007; 2016) has described quantitative research as an empirical investigative process involving both the collection and analysis of measurable data for the purposes of testing a research hypothesis or theory.

As it relates to the research methodology and explained previously, the aim of this research was to examine the impact of the independent variables of employee satisfaction, leadership effectiveness and customer satisfaction on the dependent variable, organisational effectiveness. For the purposes of this research, organisational effectiveness was designed as an integrated theoretical model and examined in the context of an operational business unit.

The business unit involved in this study functions independently as a profit-and-loss centre and is a completely autonomous operation. The unit is measured by the same corporate organisational metrics applied to all operations.

A key element of this research study was to determine whether the three independent variables influenced the dependent variable, organisational effectiveness.

The research methodology involved administering a survey with three different focus areas to measure the levels of job satisfaction, leadership effectiveness and customer satisfaction, and their respective relationship in the achievement of organisational effectiveness in the context of an integrated theoretical model.

The survey was administered to the appropriate respondent groups in a US-based organisation providing cable television, internet and telecommunication services.

The objective of this study was to determine whether the degree of organisational effectiveness outcomes could be attributed to the levels of employee satisfaction, leadership effectiveness and customer satisfaction.

7.4 ORGANISATIONAL PROFILE

The organisation chosen for this research study is an autonomously operating business unit functioning as a profit-and-loss centre within a region of a larger corporate entity in the multimedia industry.

The operational business unit provides cable television, internet and telecommunication services to a geographical region in the USA, servicing residential and commercial business customers. The business unit has exceeded expectations as measured by performance in terms of financial metrics.

7.5 TARGETED SURVEY POPULATION

In this study, survey questionnaires were used to collect data. According to Fowler (2014), the fundamental purpose of utilising surveys as a method of data collection is to afford researchers the opportunity to make generalisations about a population from the sample of survey respondents.

This empirical study focused on three survey areas, with each of the variables that define organisational effectiveness represented (i.e. job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction) in terms of their effect on and relationship with the dependent variable, organisational effectiveness. The three survey population targeted groups were employees, leaders and customers. Customers were further delineated into employees providing internal customer satisfaction opinions regarding the organisation and external customers (end users) who purchase goods and services from the organisation.

7.5.1 Employee satisfaction survey group

According to Wiley (2010a), an employee satisfaction survey strategy can provide significant insight into enhancing the effectiveness of an organisation and ensuring its long-term competitiveness.

The sampling strategy for this group was to survey all non management employees. The employee survey group population size of the business unit was 581, while the employee sample population size participating in the survey numbered 572. The difference was due to absenteeism for a variety of reasons, as well as telephone and reception coverage during the onsite administration of the survey.

All of these employees participated in the job satisfaction survey portion of the empirical research. The survey participant employees were in jobs covering customer service via telephone, fax and email communication, administrative tasks and technical support.

7.5.2 Leadership effectiveness survey population

The survey sampling strategy for participation and analysis in the leader survey group included all individuals in a management position. In essence, any individual in the business unit with responsibility for managing employees in their respective organisation was included.

The strategy was to examine the collective macro-leadership impact in the business unit and not to research on a granular basis the influence of each level of leadership separately in terms of the impact on organisational effectiveness. In total, 25 individuals were in positions responsible for managing others in the business.

An observer version of the leadership effectiveness survey was also administered to a combination of each leader's direct reports (subordinates/managers, employees and customers) as a means of measuring leadership effectiveness in the business unit.

A total of 250 employees participated in the leadership effectiveness survey observer-direct report category, ten individuals participated in the observer-manager group and 124 individuals took part in the observer-other (customer) category. Also, the 25 members of the management team participated in the self-assessment segment survey of leadership effectiveness.

7.5.3 Customer satisfaction survey participants

The sampling strategy for the customer satisfaction survey targeted population for this survey is best described as a stratification strategy consisting of a sample of external customers to

whom the organisation provides and supports products and services. The survey included selected end user customers of the business unit being researched within a multistate geographical region. Criteria for the sample selected through this stratification sampling strategy is discussed in the following paragraphs. Employees providing customer service in the organisation were selected as internal customer satisfaction survey participants.

Approximately 1,879 external customers were identified as possible candidates meeting the selection criteria who could participate in the customer satisfaction survey serviced by this geographical business unit. From that number, 679 external customers (36.1%) were invited to participate in the survey. It was anticipated that a 45% to 55% response rate would be achieved. The number of external customers completing the survey numbered 354, which was a 52.1% participation rate.

Participating external customers were selected from a database of all customers in the region being studied. Selection criteria for participation in the survey included geographical representation, in this instance, being part of a multistate geographical region of the USA. The organisational goal would be to consider duplicating this research for other geographical areas in the organisation in the future.

Another selection criterion for external customer participation was a range of external customers in terms of dollar revenues generated from low to high. Also, there was a cross-section of external customers in terms of length of relationship with the organisation from less than one year to over 15 years. Also, the external customers invited to participate in the survey were equitably distributed to represent the three different service offerings of internet, cable television and telecommunications.

While some of the states within the geographical region participating in the survey had a larger customer base by sheer numbers and revenue generated, this factor was considered when selecting customers to participate in the survey so as not to be influenced or dominated by a state demonstrating these characteristics which might skew the results.

The sampling strategy for the internal customer satisfaction group was to survey all non management employees. The employee survey group population size of the business unit was 581, while the employee sample size participating in the survey numbered 572. The difference attributed to phone coverage and absences.

7.6 SURVEY INSTRUMENTS USED IN THE STUDY

In its most basic form, an organisational survey can be described as a data collection process or method to measure quantitatively, individual perspectives, opinions and experiences

regarding various dimensions of organisational life (Bracken & Church, 2013; Bracken, Rose, & Church, 2016; Church & Waclawski, 1998). The aim is to gain new knowledge and take future actions to make improvements in organisations.

Organisational surveys are appropriate measurement instruments comprising properties that allow for the following (Higgs & Ashworth, 1996; Kraut, 2020): initiation of organisational research; diagnosis of organisational problems; measurement of experiences and beliefs; prediction of future outcomes; and implementation of enhancement programmes. The surveys utilised in this research study were aligned with these properties.

According to Smith (2003; 2014), a universal goal of organisational survey instruments is to identify and give the management team insights into organisational health and provide a rationale and platform from which to build consensus in order to initiate corrective action.

This section describes the survey instruments used in this study and their statistical properties. Once again, the independent variables to be measured in this study included employee satisfaction, leadership effectiveness and customer satisfaction.

In the employee satisfaction part of the survey the job descriptive Index (JDI) was used. For the leadership survey, the leadership practices inventory (LPI) (both the self and observer version) was employed, while the customer satisfaction index from Organizational Diagnostics, Inc. was used to measure the satisfaction of customers.

The three-part focus point instrument was utilised to statistically test and measure the validity and reliability of these instruments in measuring the mutual influence of the three independent variables (employee satisfaction, leadership effectiveness and customer satisfaction), and as a model of organisational effectiveness. Each of the three survey instruments is explained in further detail below.

7.6.1 Rationale for and background on the job descriptive index (JDI)

Organisational surveys of employee satisfaction are the key tools in providing data to better understand how to improve organisational results and effectiveness (Bachiochi & Weiner, 2002; Wiley, 2010a). The JDI has had a long history in this challenge as an instrument for capturing important information on employee job satisfaction.

Foundational research that ultimately led to the development of the JDI occurred over 50 years ago when Lake, Gopalkrishnan, Sliter, and Wintrow (2006; 2010), a group of industrial psychologist at Cornell University, engaged in the study of employee job satisfaction.

The actual JDI is the survey that was eventually developed by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) from the earlier research at Cornell. A book was published, as an instrument to statistically assess employee satisfaction in the workplace by better understanding the feelings employees have about their jobs.

According to Edwards (2001) and Rosenfeld, Edwards, and Martin (2015), the statistical measurement and quantitative analysis of employee job satisfaction has been a major cornerstone in applied industrial and organisational psychology.

During its initial years of introduction, the consensus thinking (Blood, 1969; Lake et al., 2010; O'Reilly & Roberts, 1973; Waters & Waters, 1969) was that the instrument, living up to its promise, was extremely thorough and applicable for advancing knowledge on employee job satisfaction across all industries in the private and public sectors.

It is believed that the JDI is considered the most frequently and broadly used instrument for measuring employee job satisfaction, both today and historically (Bowling, Hendricks, & Wagner, 2008; DeMeuse, 1985; Lake et al., 2010). More recently, others (Grobler, Warnich, Carrell, Elbert, & Hatfield, 2011) have indicated that the JDI is a widely used employee job satisfaction survey.

According to Ramayah, Jantan, and Tadisina (2001), estimates indicate that more than 50% of all research studies and resultant published articles on the subject of employee job satisfaction measurement have used the JDI. It is also the only survey of its kind that provides US national norms (Gillespie et al., 2016).

The JDI is a facet-oriented job satisfaction survey as opposed to an overall job satisfaction measurement instrument only (Saari & Judge, 2004). According to Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane, and Ferreira (2011), facet job satisfaction surveys focus on specific aspects of a job in which feelings of job satisfaction can be identified and measured.

More specifically, the JDI appears to be one of the more widely used types of job-facet job satisfaction measurement instruments (Bowling et al., 2008; Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005; Lake et al., 2010; Rain, Lane, & Steiner, 1991).

The JDI includes 90 items requiring a response indicating either agreement, disagreement or uncertainty. All 90 survey items listed are in the form descriptive words presented as adjectives or phrases that best describe respondents' feelings about a particular description of the job.

The participant responds in one of the following three ways:

- Yes (Y) if respondent agrees
- No (N) if respondent disagrees
- A question mark (?) if respondent is undecided

The original JDI comprises the following five specific dimensions or facets of satisfaction with the job (Carter & Dalal, 2010; Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969):

- 1) Nature of the work itself
- 2) Co-worker relations
- 3) Supervision
- 4) Opportunities for promotion
- 5) Pay

Within each of the five areas of satisfaction are a list of the descriptive item statements and phrases. Each of the five areas of the JDI do not contain an equal number of item statements. Respondents are asked to select one of three choices which best describes that part of their job as described above.

The JDI contains 18 descriptive words or phrases each in the coworker, job in general, the work itself and supervision dimensions. The job facets of pay and promotion contain nine descriptive words or phrases.

7.6.1.1 Validity of the JDI

According to Smith, Kendall and Hulin (1969; 1985), job satisfaction as a construct is dynamic and can be subject to change as a result of altering organisational and individual conditions.

Diener, Suh, Lucas, and Smith (1999) have suggested that the JDI is an excellent instrument with strong construct validity for measuring job satisfaction and its relationship with overall life satisfaction, with all the job facets measured and the facet of the nature of the work itself in particular.

The JDI was selected as the job satisfaction survey for this research study because, according to McIntyre and McIntyre (2010) and Ramayah et al. (2001), over many decades, it has demonstrated through extensive research to be a valid and reliable measurement instrument for this purpose.

Lopes, Chambel, Castanheira, and Oliveira-Cruz (2015) and Saari and Judge (2004) have asserted that the JDI has a rich history of validity, specifically as a facet-oriented employee job satisfaction measurement instrument.

The JDI has been extensively and critically reviewed over the years, resulting in the three meaningful enhancements that have led to its strengthening because of the amount of supporting data for its construct validity. In 1985, the first review resulted in the replacement of 11 of the original 72 items, as well as an update to the JDI norms by equipercentile equating as opposed to collecting a national sample (Smith et al., 1987).

A second major analysis and update to the JDI occurred in 1996 when norms were developed for the first time for the job in general (JIG) scale. The JIG facet scale was developed as a companion to the JDI, and to resolve what was often deemed one of the few shortcomings of the JDI, namely the lack of a means to measure overall job satisfaction.

The development of the JIG facet scale provided an overall employee job satisfaction measure. According to Kihm, Smith, and Irwin (1997), the second update also resulted in the establishment of new current norms for the JDI, as well as other enhancements such as introducing nine additional survey facet items to the nature of the work itself facet subscale category.

Kinicki, McKee-Ryan, Schriesheim, and Carson (2002) postulated that the various factors taken into consideration in updating the instrument over the years have both individually and collectively had an impact on strengthening the JDI item content and its validity and reliability as a measuring instrument.

There have been additional supporting reviews of the JDI's construct validity (Kinicki et al., 2002), and the strength of the psychometric characteristics of the JDI has been significant and impressive (Cooper-Hakim & Viswesvaran, 2005).

In conclusion, according to Lake et al. (2010), the third major update to the JDI began in 2008 when researchers at Bowling Green State University (BGSU) were responsible for further enhancements to the JDI scales after obtaining data in support of new norms and improvements to the scales themselves.

This group of JDI researchers (Lake et al., 2010) at BGSU have ensured that through these various updates, the instrument maintains its high level of validity and reliability by recognising that the facet scale requires periodic modifications.

According to Lake et al. (2010) these updates have been necessary to take into consideration the cultural dimension changes in jobs in respect of overtime, shifts in the global nature of organisations, the impact of technological change and the greater impact of human resources policies and programmes on employees and their attitudes.

Manzoor (2012) and Spector (1997) have suggested that to the extent that research supports the proposition that job satisfaction can lead to outcomes such as employee motivation and higher levels of performance, valid and reliable survey measurement instruments are essential to determine the impact employee satisfaction has on organisational effectiveness.

Measuring and analysing employee attitudes towards job satisfaction through valid and reliable survey instruments, according to Colihan and Saari (2000), Scherbaum and Saari (2011) and Subramanian (2016), provides an important foundation for better understanding and predicting its impact on future measures of organisational performance.

Construct validity was a vital consideration in the original development of the JDI (Smith et al., 1969), and through its early years of application (Dunham, Smith, & Blackburn, 1977). Tasios and Giannouli (2017) have postulated that the JDI has been strengthened as a result of the amount of supporting data for the construct validity of the instrument.

7.6.1.2 Reliability of the JDI

According to Golembiewski and Yeager (1978), the JDI has also shown strength and consistency in terms of the applicability of the various job satisfaction scales across divergent job classification categories.

Hackman and Oldham (1980) have strongly suggested that intrinsic motivation has a more substantive link to employee job satisfaction, which is the foundation for achieving organisational results, than to extrinsic factors such as compensation.

A research study (Balzar, Parra, Ployhart, Shepherd, & Smith, 1995) to determine the relative comparability between the original and the revised JDI involving 1 800 participants across numerous industries, indicated that the two versions of the JDI had correlations ranging from .96 to .99 across all items in the survey.

A number of researchers (e.g. Guion & Schriesheim, 1997) have supported the notion that meta-analysis because of its capacity in assessing a large amount of data, is a preferred method of assessing the construct validity of a measurement instrument.

A study (Balzer et al., 1997) involving a sample size of 1 629 US-based participants to determine the reliability of both the JDI and JIG as a measurement instrument for job satisfaction, indicated Cronbach alpha reliability in the range of .86 to .92. The five specific facets and JIG reliability showed the following Cronbach alphas: work .90, pay .86, promotion .87, supervision .91, co-worker .91 and JIG .92.

In a study by Brief (1998) on the theoretical construct of job satisfaction, it was found that a strong correlation exists between the job facet dimensions of the JDI and employee commitment to the organisation. This commitment is fundamental to organisational effectiveness.

In Ramayah et al.'s (2001) study of the reliability of the JDI and other job satisfaction survey instruments, Cronbach alphas ranging from .74 for the facet of the nature of the work and .91 for the supervision factor were reported. The Cronbach alpha reliability for the other job facets in the same study were .81 for the pay job facet, .83 for the job facet of promotional opportunities and .85 for relations with coworkers.

According to Kinicki et al. (2002), the correlation patterns of the JDI items underscore the suggestion about the intrinsic motivation/worker satisfaction relationship.

Overall, the results of Kinicki et al.'s (2002) meta-analysis demonstrated that construct validity for the JDI is supported by reliability findings. However, as asserted by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), a measurement instrument's reliability may not always be an adequate requirement for its construct validity. Kinicki et al.'s (2002) meta-analysis also indicated that the JDI demonstrates internal consistency reliability and test-retest reliability.

The original JDI was revised by Smith et al. (1985) to include a sixth dimension of satisfaction, namely the job in general. According to Balzar et al. (1990) and Lake et al. (2010), the addition of this new dimension was intended to capture employees' overall satisfaction with their job. The revised version of the JDI was selected for the current study.

Research (McIntyre & McIntyre, 2010) conducted in Portuguese hospitals and other healthcare facilities demonstrated the reliability of the JDI and JIG with Cronbach alphas ranging between .75 and .90, with specific Cronbach alpha reliability for each of the five facet categories as follows: work .87, pay .75, promotion .82, supervision .90 and co-workers .90. The Cronbach alpha reliability for the JIG was .85.

There have been various updates to the JDI over the many decades since its inception (Dunham et al., 1977; Judge, Hulin, & Dalal, 2012), in which studies have demonstrated the instrument to be highly correlated with other important job satisfaction measures, thus enhancing its validity.

In a research study in a military organisation (Lopes et al. 2015), the five-facet JDI survey reliability indicated Cronbach alphas ranging between .76 and .92, with the specific facet

Cronbach alphas as follows: work .92, pay .79, promotion .76, supervision .92 and co-workers .89. The JIG had a Cronbach alpha of .92.

Other research (Tasios & Giannouli, 2017) on the reliability of the JDI and the JIG as measurement instruments of job satisfaction reported Cronbach alphas between .88 and .92 for the five JDI job facet categories and .92 for the JIG survey. In the same study, strong reliability was indicated, with Cronbach alphas for each of the five JDI facet categories as follows: work .92, pay .88, promotion .91, supervision .92 and co-workers .92. Once again, the JIG showed an overall Cronbach alpha of .92.

7.6.2 Rationale for and background on the leadership practices inventory (LPI)

The leadership survey selected for this research study was the LPI. This inventory has multiple uses and perspectives, and when used to its fullest capacity, provides a 360 degree feedback tool to assess leadership effectiveness.

Much has been written on the subject of leadership effectiveness, ranging from ideas and definitions about what makes a leader effective to the desired behaviour of an effective leader. One of the areas of interest written about on the topic of effective leadership can be posed in the form of the following question: What are the practices associated with outstanding leadership effectiveness?

One of the more interesting and instrumental answers to this question evolved from the leadership challenge work of Kouzes and Posner (2008; 2010; 2017). The LPI is intended through a focus on self-assessment and analysis, as well as observations and feedback from others, to grow and enhance leadership effectiveness.

The LPI has been broken down into a self and observer assessment inventory completed by specific leaders who are being studied for their effectiveness, and to identify developmental needs (Kouzes & Posner, 2008; 2017).

With regard to the self-assessment, it is designed to capture an individual's own perception of his or her effectiveness in leading his or her segment of an organisation.

The second questionnaire, which is an observer inventory, is used to incorporate the perceptions and assessments of internal employees such as managers, direct reports and co-workers, regarding the effectiveness of the individual leader completing the LPI self-version with whom they have operational interface.

In addition, the observer questionnaire allows for perceptions by individuals outside the organisation classified as others (usually customers), who also are engaged in contact with the particular leader being assessed.

These customers have opportunities to interface with and observe the behaviour of leaders of the organisation, often in problem-solving scenarios and conflict situations. The manner in which the leader deals with his or her customers provides valuable insight and first-hand feedback on leadership effectiveness from an external customer perspective.

The LPI can be categorised as an evidence-driven instrument based on original scientific inquiry, which has been utilised for over 30 years. During this time it has been successfully subjected to testing and challenges.

The LPI was originally based on a five-point Likert response scale, which was later amended to a ten-point scale. Initially, the LPI did not distinguish between participants in the observer group, but treated the respondents collectively.

However, a change was made to differentiate between participants in the observer category, leading to the subcategories of observers to include managers, direct reports, coworkers and others (generally those outside the organisation such as customers).

The LPI was also revised from the original five-point to a ten-point Likert rating scale. There are six (6) statements for each of the five practices of exemplary leadership for a total of 30 items, which the respondent rates using the ten-point response scale. The 30-item response statements are in both the self and observer versions of the LPI. The Likert rating scales are the most widely used in research studies such as this (Borg & Mastrangelo, 2008).

Specifically, the LPI is composed of the following five practices of exemplary leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2008; 2016; 2017):

- 1) Model the way

According to Kouzes and Posner (2008; 2010; 2017), this refers to the need of leaders to set the example in terms of modelling the desired behaviours they wish their subordinates to practise and demonstrate in order to attain the type of behaviour needed to achieve both individual and organisational success, and at the same time enhance leadership effectiveness.

The most effective way for all leaders to accomplish modelling the way is for them to find opportunities through consistent words and actions to articulate and clarify their own values to employees in the organisation.

In clarifying values, leaders set and define for themselves what beliefs, principles and standards they will embrace, and these will also form the basis of their behaviours as organisational leaders.

For a leader to gain an understanding of these areas, he or she needs to undergo a process of self-introspection in order to arrive at important insights of what he or she stands for and what is negotiable and non-negotiable. The leader also has to validate that he or she is actually capable of manifesting the type of behaviour that supports the values being espoused.

Another dimension of modelling the way requires leaders to communicate to their followers what they believe, not what others believe, or what they think their followers would like to hear.

Leaders must ensure that their followers perceive that what they communicate and how they behave reflect what they truly believe. In so doing they model the way through their behaviour. This essentially means that the leaders' beliefs and actions are synchronised.

When leaders express themselves in terms of beliefs and values, it is crucial for them to appear that they are expressing their own beliefs and values when they are conveying a message from others (e.g. superiors) in the organisation. Leaders must not only communicate these values, but they must also consistently behave in a manner that gives credibility and credence to these communicated values.

By modelling the type of behaviour consistent with the vision expressed to and supported by employees, leaders bring life to their leadership position and responsibilities, and in so doing display a human quality and presence.

In essence, by modelling the way through consistent behaviour and communication, the leader becomes the face of the organisation in terms of the values and expected behaviours.

2) Inspire a shared vision

The second exemplary leadership practice, according to Kouzes and Posner (2010; 2017), is to inspire a vision of the organisational purpose that can be shared by all members. What becomes important here is to ensure that leaders are reinforcing their own strong belief regarding the organisation's vision, and behaving in a way that is apparent and credible to members of the organisation.

It is paramount that leaders demonstrate through behaviour their beliefs regarding their vision for the organisation in all their interactions and behaviours, particularly in their communication with the organisation about the vision. In reinforcing their vision of the organisation through their behaviour, leaders facilitate the embracing of that vision by members of the organisation in such a way that they experience the vision as consistent with their own belief system, as if it were their own creation.

Supporting this by rewarding employee behaviour aligned to the organisational vision, also strengthens the employees embracing and sharing in the vision.

3) Challenge the process

According to Kouzes and Posner (2016; 2017), taking the initiative to bring the best out in oneself as a leader as well as the best in others requires challenging the process, which is the third practice of exemplary leadership. By taking the initiative, innovating, creating and seeking the thoughts and perspectives of others, leaders are challenging the process for themselves and others.

In seeking out opportunities to enrich the organisational experiences for themselves and their teams, leaders create challenges which, in turn, can become fulfilling from a people growth standpoint and also from the perspective of the advancement of the organisational mission.

To this end, leaders often have to confront conditions of adversity and extreme complexity in order to stretch themselves, their subordinates and the organisation. When leaders can successfully accomplish this in challenging the process, they can clearly bring out the best in themselves and others.

4) Enable others to act

The fourth practice of exemplary leadership centres on creating the situation and conditions that support and enable others in the organisation to act.

According to Kouzes and Posner (2016; 2017), when leaders empower members of their team and collaborate with peers, they engage in behaviour that elevates people and evokes a diversity of ideas and solutions to problems based on a spectrum of personal experiences, not just their own frame of reference.

In this way, leaders strengthen the bonds between participating members of the organisation. This therefore solidifies the mutual trust between individuals. This is a necessary achievement

to succeed in the ever-increasing fragmented work environments requiring so much effective interdependent relationships.

5) Encourage the heart

This final exemplary leadership practice stresses the need to demonstrate real commitment to employees by actions of recognition.

Leaders also encourage the hearts of their employees by conducting group events that acknowledge the accomplishments and efforts of the group and to show appreciation in a public way. By creating a thoughtful organisational culture in which employees are recognised and celebrated in a personalised and public manner among their peers for their accomplishments and contributions to the organisation, leaders can succeed by being viewed by the team as a friend or ally.

In addition, rewarding performance through this type of public recognition can be quite reinforcing and motivating to all employees in terms of achieving future desired performance. Kouzes and Posner (2010; 2017) have suggested that demonstrating in a genuine manner this kind of interest in employees, leaders become positive role models who hold and convey high confidence and expectations for members of their team. This kind of behaviour fosters the kind of climate in which individuals are eager to participate and make contributions towards the organisation's success and sustainability as a good place to work.

This type of exemplary leadership practice and behaviour must be perceived by employees as grounded in sincerity and part of a sustainable culture, not merely a perfunctory or shallow attempt to motivate employees to accomplish some future work-related objective only.

7.6.2.1 Validity of the LPI

A psychometric instrument demonstrates face and content validity respectively if, according to Babbie (2001; 2015), it is perceived to measure what it is supposed to measure by those participating in the survey, and actually measures what it intends to measure.

The LPI demonstrates face and content validity. As a survey questionnaire, not only is it perceived subjectively to be an appropriate measurement of leadership effectiveness by those participating in the survey, but it also is a proven objective measure of leadership effectiveness. Kouzes and Posner (2017) have suggested that the face validity of the LPI is supported by qualitative means derived through commentary by those participating in workshops, as well as through interviews with those in leadership roles regarding their own practices and experiences.

The LPI also possesses content validity. Assessments of LPI validity through factor analysis to ascertain the effectiveness of survey statement items in measuring commonality and differences in item content, have demonstrated that the LPI has five leadership factors with strong relationships between statement items in each of the five practices of exemplary leadership factors (Kouzes & Posner, 2017; Nuosce, 2007; Posner, 2016; Vito & Higgins, 2010). In another study of the LPI validity with supervisory and middle management participants, a confirmatory factor analysis indicated five leadership factors consistent with the five LPI factors, with the a priori hypothesis containing five factors confirmed as correct by way of a scree plot (Adcock-Shantz, 2011). Utilising varimax rotation on the five factors resulted in the five LPI factors of model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act and encourage the heart, which collectively represented 90% of the item variance.

According to Kouzes and Posner (2017) and Nuosce (2007), the LPI questionnaire items in each of the five identified leadership factors were more closely aligned with each other than they were with questionnaire items in the other four factors.

A principal factor method including both iteration and varimax rotation was used to examine responses to the 30 LPI statement items across the five leadership factors (Kouzes & Posner, 2002; 2017). These five factors were extracted with eigenvalues greater than 1.0, which accounted for 60.5% of the total factor variance.

In addition, by conducting further analysis from this validity assessment, Kouzes and Posner (2002; 2017) reported identifying five different leadership factors. They were consistent with the same factors of the LPI model representing the five practices of exemplary leadership. An insignificant number of item factor loadings did share in some common variance across at least more than one leadership factor.

In addition, data from different subsamples was studied by utilising factor analysis to validate the strength of the five leadership factors identified (Kouzes & Posner, 2002; 2017). In every instance, subsamples were fundamentally comparable to the full sample in terms of the factor structure. These analyses indicated that the LPI has extremely strong construct validity.

In particular, strong concurrent and predictive validity has been demonstrated in various studies (Kouzes & Posner, 2002; Posner, 2016) examining relationships between LPI scores and variables associated with organisational effectiveness, employee commitment, job satisfaction, operational performance, perceptions of management credibility, employee-leader relationship and team cohesiveness.

Other studies (Bauer, 1994; Ruethaivanich & Scott, 2017) have demonstrated strong concurrent and predictive validity measuring the relationship between practices of exemplary leadership. The level of leadership effectiveness measured by responses from LPI observers only (not self-assessments by the subject leaders), resulted in 55% of the variance of observers' assessments of their leaders effectiveness explained by the leadership practices. The results of different studies examining the reliability of the LPI showed it to be consistently above 0.06.

7.6.2.2 Reliability of the LPI

According to Bobko (1995; 2015), reliability at the most basic level refers to the degree to which a measurement instrument such as a survey demonstrates consistent and stable outcomes or scores, regardless of the characteristics of the survey participants. In essence, the greater the consistency of scores, the more reliable the survey instrument is. The empirical determination of a measuring instrument's reliability can be achieved in different ways.

One way of assessing reliability empirically would be through a test-retest approach. This approach is used to determine whether a measurement instrument is sensitive to changing test environmental conditions and events, and the possible outcomes of these changes on a particular respondent's scores when the same test is administered to the respondent multiple times over a given period. The higher the consistency or the test-retest reliability, as demonstrated by the participants' scores, the less affected by changing test conditions these participants are.

Administration of the LPI has demonstrated correlations at .90 or greater and statistically significant test-retest reliability. Such conditions or environmental factors that can affect a respondent's scores on multiple administrations of the same test may include, inter alia, personality factors, stressful events, time of administration and the physical environment of the test facility.

The test-retest approach is also a valuable tool to assess desired changes in leadership practices learned as a result of training and development interventions. However, these changes would be planned or purposeful changes in test results on the part of the participant respondent.

Another method of determining the reliability of a measurement instrument is to take a respondent's survey responses and split the items into groups and determine the statistical extent to which the responses are consistent. The closer the correlation coefficient is to 1.0, the greater the internal reliability of the instrument.

The LPI rating scales tend to be above the .80 level of correlation, which indicates significant internal reliability of the instrument.

Another approach in achieving the most statistically significant level of reliability is to ensure a survey instrument includes multiple questions on a specific behaviour. As explained below, the LPI achieves this high internal reliability through multiple questions.

The LPI has been designed and administered to include six different statements in each of the five categories of practices of exemplary leadership to which participants respond by selecting one of the ten rating scale descriptors that best depicts their perception. The specific questionnaire items contained in the LPI are highly correlated within each of the five scales' practices of exemplary leadership.

The Cronbach alpha coefficient is used to determine the reliability of the questionnaire. This coefficient is also utilised to determine the internal consistency reliability of the LPI questionnaire. A Cronbach alpha coefficient of 1 would be reached when all questionnaire items measure the same thing and are completely reliable.

According to Kerlinger (2011), a Cronbach alpha coefficient is appropriate for questionnaire items with two-way or greater scales. Comparisons of the sum scale variance with the sum of item variances through utilisation of the Cronbach alpha coefficient enable one to estimate true score variance that is captured by the scale items.

The questionnaire items contained in the LPI show strong test-retest reliability. Also, the LPI demonstrates strong internal reliability since all five scales of the practices of exemplary leadership are above the level of .75 reliability, as measured by the Cronbach alpha (Kouzes & Posner, 2002; 2017).

There were no significant statistical differences when empirical tests comparing the differences between the exemplary leadership practices of modelling the way and challenging the process between leaders surveyed, using the self-version of the LPI, and those participants who completed the observer version, when measured at the .001 level of probability, were examined.

The mean differences between the leaders who completed the LPI self-version and the observer group participating in the survey were statistically significant at the .001 level of probability, when comparing the practices of exemplary leadership of encouraging the heart, inspiring a shared vision and enabling others to act.

However, these statistical differences in the mean had virtually no practical value, with the exception that the observer group perceived the leaders to demonstrate less on enabling others to act and more on both inspiring a shared vision and encouraging the heart, than the leaders responding to the survey perceived about themselves.

When specific categories of observers who participated in the questionnaire were examined in comparison with leaders completing the self-version of the LPI at the .001 level of probability, no statistically significant differences were observed in the practice of exemplary leadership of model the way and challenge the process.

When comparing the observer category of direct report responses with those of their leaders who participated in the self-survey, on the exemplary leadership practice of encouraging the heart, there were no statistically significant differences at the .001 level of probability.

Co-workers, managers and others in the observer category indicated greater encouraging the heart than leaders responding to the LPI self-questionnaire report.

However, when comparing leaders to both their manager and direct reports on the practice of exemplary leadership of enabling others to act, the results for managers and direct reports demonstrated less on enabling others to act than the leaders themselves indicated on the same exemplary practice.

Studies conducted by Stoner-Zemel (1988) in a telecommunications organisation involving first-line supervisors participating in the LPI, along with others completing the observer version of the LPI, demonstrated reliability in the range of .80 to .90.

In a research study by Ottinger (1990) of banking and education industry executives responding to the LPI self-questionnaire and participants completing the observer LPI categories, the results demonstrated reliability ranging from .71 to .82.

Berumen's (1992) study of Mexican managers and other employee groups in responding to the LPI self and observer questionnaires respectively, reported reliabilities ranging from .81 to .89.

In a research analysis (Berumen, 1992) in which the scores of managers in the USA were compared to the LPI scores of managers in Mexico, the results indicated that the US managers scored higher on all five practices of exemplary leadership than their Mexican manager counterparts. However, according to Berumen (1992), the same US and Mexican manager groups reported identical results in terms of how they compared in the order or ranking of their scores on the five practices of exemplary leadership.

Another study (Crnkovich & Hesterly, 1993) involving a cross-section of middle-level managers completing the LPI self-survey and representatives participating in the LPI from the various observer groups showed results ranging from .78 to .90 reliability.

A group of researchers (Herold, Fields, & Hyatt, 1993) investigating engineering managers participating in the self-version and the various categories of observer respondents of the LPI reported results ranging from .80 to .92 reliability.

Moreover, a research study by Carless, Wearing, and Mann (1994) focusing on bank branch managers in Australia demonstrated a range of reliability from .70 to .82 for those participating in the self-version of the LPI, and reliability ranging from .81 to .94 in the observer groups responding to the LPI.

Singh's study (1998) in the hospitality industry of hotel unit managers completing the self LPI along with participants of the LPI in the observer categories, indicated a range of .82 to .94 reliability.

These outstanding reliability results are not limited to US participant populations only, where the LPI has been most widely used. A number of research studies conducted internationally have also yielded strong reliabilities for the LPI survey instrument across a number of industries.

Additional research in Hong Kong (Man, 2000) on the management of radiographers, with participation from members responding to both the self and observer categories of the LPI, reported a reliability range of .82 to .93.

Strack's (2001) study of healthcare managers employed in a large university teaching hospital with members of the organisation completing the LPI questionnaire, demonstrated reliability in the .73 to .90 range.

Another study examining the LPI score rankings of managers in the USA in comparison to the LPI score rankings of managers in Pacific Rim countries (including specifically Taiwan, South Korea, Malaysia and Philippines) on the five practices of exemplary leadership, indicated comparable score rankings.

According to Kouzes and Posner (2002; 2017), over the years, a database of over 100 000 LPI survey respondents has been collected and used to make periodic enhancements to the questionnaire. This rich history of data on the LPI and the associated research have provided meaningful information on the reliability of the instrument as an appropriate measurement tool of leadership effectiveness.

7.6.3 Rationale for and background on the customer satisfaction index (CSI)

The customer satisfaction portion of this research study was structured in a manner that reflects through the conduct and administration of the survey, the opinions and perceptions of customers regarding their satisfaction with the products and services they receive from the organisation.

A customer satisfaction survey (Heskett & Sasser, 2010; Heskett, Sasser, & Schlesinger, 1997; 2010; Heskett, Jones, Loveman, Sasser, & Schlesinger, 2011) can be especially effective in providing meaningful feedback and the perspectives of customers on the effectiveness of an organisation from an important external constituent, particularly when conducted in harmony with employee satisfaction surveys.

The survey measurement instrument used to capture customer feedback and perspectives on an organisation's effectiveness in meeting customer needs is the customer satisfaction index (CSI). This instrument was developed by Organizational Diagnostics in 2001. The survey comprises two scales for participants to record their responses. Each scale contains identical questions.

Scale 1 focuses on customers' perceptions of the current level of service received by the organisation. Scale 2 is concerned with the importance the customer attaches to the particular service. Both are five-point Likert scales. For the purposes of this study, the focus of analysis will be with scale 1.

A Likert scale is a widely used psychometric method found in questionnaires (Boone & Boone, 2012; Drasgow, Chernyshenko, & Stark, 2010; Fowler, 2009; 2014), which involves respondents indicating their level of agreement/disagreement with items contained in a survey.

According to Boone and Boone (2012) and Netemeyer, Bearden, and Sharma (2003), in the measurement of attitudes and opinions, Likert scales have been quite effective and appropriate by providing a range of clear response choices to each survey item statement or question.

All Likert scales possess certain properties of summated scales (Drasgow et al., 2010; Spector, 1992). For example, each item in the questionnaire has a quantitative measurement at its core and may vary quantitatively. Items in the scale are statements requiring ratings reflecting the respondents' opinion, they comprise multiple scale items and there are no correct or incorrect responses.

The response choices for scale 1 concerning the current level of support include the following:

- 0 = Not applicable
- 1 = Strongly disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Agree
- 4 = Strongly agree

Possible responses for scale 2 regarding the importance of the service to the customer are as follows:

- 0 = Not applicable
- 1 = Not important at all
- 2 = Not really important
- 3 = Important
- 4 = Very important

The questionnaire comprises 61 items for each of the two scales, presented in the form of statements. Once again, each scale contains the same 61 statement items, which are arranged in one of the following nine subject areas:

- Image of the organisation
- Contact with clients
- Client relations
- Value added
- Competence
- Quality of service
- Cost effectiveness
- Decision making
- Focus

The survey concludes with a general comments section affording respondents the opportunity to provide feedback on the relationship with the organisation and its members deemed important by the customer and not addressed within the 61 items.

7.6.3.1 Validity of the CSI

Since the CSI had not been validated prior to conducting this study, as a part of this research, steps were taken to attain an acceptable level of validity by following generally agreed-upon

processes for determining validity. A test of validity was conducted from a small sample size, which is presented along with the validity of the entire sample of participants in the CSI.

Validation can simply be described as a process of establishing that a measurement instrument or test measures what it intends to measure. Specific questions to be asked when determining a measurement instrument's validity include the following (Drost, 2011):

Does the survey measure what it is intended to measure?

Does the measurement instrument represent the content?

Is it appropriate for the sample population being studied?

Is it broad enough to capture the subject matter?

Does the instrument look like a survey?

Below is an outline of various steps taken as part of the content validation process for the CSI.

A literature review of customer satisfaction measurement tools

Focus group interviews to gather qualitative data on the CSI

A review of the CSI with selected group of customers

Obtaining inputs from peers on the efficacy of the CSI

These initiatives both individually and collectively provided input and feedback in support of both face and content validity.

According to Foxcroft, Paterson, Le Roux, and Herbst (2004), content validity can also be improved by using focus groups to review the specifics of a survey instrument, particularly with regard to item statements contained in the survey.

In the current study, a process was also implemented to determine quantifiably the construct validity of the CSI. A group of ten customers were asked to participate in a pilot test of the CSI. Meetings with the customers were conducted in order to discuss the purpose and goals of the survey and review the actual content thereof.

Also discussed was the interest in having participants in this pilot test group provide feedback to the researcher/consultant after they had completed the CSI.

Attributes contributing to the validity of the CSI include the following:

Identify the construct to be measured.

Establish the domain content of the construct to be measured.

Operationalise the abstract construct into survey statements.

Ensure that the survey item statements are clear and concise.

Make sure that the questionnaire is relevant to the research being conducted.

Check that the rating scale comprises clear and differentiated choices.

Ensure that the item statements do not lead to a desired conclusion.

Conduct a literature review.

The CSI has face validity in that on its surface it appears to be well organised and presents itself in a clear fashion as an instrument to measure customer satisfaction.

A review of the 61 items contained in the survey supports the content validity in that the statements can be categorised as encompassing the customer satisfaction subject area being researched.

The CSI is designed to operationalise the construct of customer satisfaction. The greater the degree to which the process of construct operationalisation effectively measures what the hypothesis sets out to measure, the greater the construct validity will be (Drost, 2011; Foxcroft et al., 2004). According to Westen and Rosenthal (2003), construct validity is central to research in the area of industrial and organisational psychology.

The current study set out to demonstrate that the CSI actually measures what it purports to measure, which is the abstract or psychological construct of customer satisfaction supporting its construct validity.

The extent to which a measuring instrument effectively determines the construct it purports to assess, the greater the construct validity will be (Westen & Rosenthal, 2003; Yusoff, 2013). Other researchers like Bobko (2001; 2015) have suggested that construct validity is determined through an experimental demonstration that a survey instrument is effectively measuring a construct it claims to endeavour to measure.

The goal of construct validity (Burnett, 2012; Cronbach & Meehl, 1955; Westen & Rosenthal, 2003; Yusoff, 2013) is to include the measure of a construct in a nomological network, thereby creating its relationship with other variables to which it should be connected.

7.6.3.2 Reliability of the CSI

Since the CSI has never been used in a research study of this specific kind, the reliability test of this measurement instrument is presented in the statistical results chapter along with the statistical findings for the entire sample in the CSI measured in this research.

7.7 SURVEY ADMINISTRATION AND DATA COLLECTION

As previously mentioned, three separate survey instruments were selected to measure the perceptions and opinions of three distinct survey populations. The three surveys that were administered and the specific groups are summarised below.

JDI

Employee participants

LPI

Self-leaders being studied

Observer–immediate manager, direct reports, customers

CSI

Customers (external)

Customers (internal)

The overall direction of the administration of the surveys was conducted by the researcher with the participation of the senior management, human resources staff and administrative support personnel from the subject organisation. Invitation letters to voluntarily participate in the research were sent to each eligible participant. Confidentiality was assured to all those participating in the surveys. To maintain anonymity no participant personal identifying information was solicited. The letter also explained the purpose of the survey, intended use of results, the potential benefit to the organisation and the type of questions contained in the survey. It was further indicated that the results of this research could be published and that their anonymity would not be compromised nor their privacy violated. Participants were also advised in the letter that responding to the survey would serve as their informed consent.

The administration and data collection process for each of the three measurement instruments is described below.

7.7.1 Survey administration and data collection: JDI

This section explains the approach and methods used to administer and collect the survey data for the JDI.

7.7.1.1 Administration and collection

Introductory letters were sent to all employees eligible to participate in the JDI survey from the senior executive of the business unit in this research study.

The letters covered subjects such as the following: the objectives of the survey, understanding how effective the organisation is in the area of job satisfaction, the opportunity to provide feedback to management and possible improvements.

The letters also covered the question of confidentiality and the importance of participating in this survey. The researcher/consultant directing and administering the survey was also introduced.

Employee-wide meetings were also held by the senior management of the business unit and the researcher/consultant, along with members of the human resource staff, in order to further introduce and explain the rationale for conducting the survey.

The organisational objectives for conducting the JDI were explained. Employees were encouraged to ask questions about the survey, its purpose and any concerns relating to the survey and its administration.

Staff meetings and emails were also used as communication tools to generate enthusiasm and support for the importance of the survey.

A letter was sent to employees describing the JDI itself, along with instructions on how to complete the survey approximately a week before on-site sessions to participate in the survey were scheduled. Scheduled meetings were held at the company location to allow employees to participate in completing the survey. They were allowed as much time as they needed to complete the confidential surveys.

Prior to completing the surveys, written instructions and directions were given to all participants in attendance at these sessions, and they were afforded an opportunity to ask questions before starting.

These meetings were conducted by the researcher/consultant with the assistance of other external administrative support personnel. As soon as the participants had finished completing the survey, they handed them to the researcher/consultant or one of the external administrative staff before exiting the room. All of the survey data remained in the possession of the external researcher/consultant to ensure anonymity and confidentiality throughout the process.

For those employees unable to attend the sessions to complete the survey, subsequent dates were scheduled for their participation.

Following the survey data collection, the information was analysed and an executive briefing on the survey process provided to the management.

Responses from the survey were captured and tabulated on a spread sheet. Only surveys that were 100% complete were used in the research. Any survey not meeting this requirement was eliminated and not included in the tabulations and statistical analysis.

The data inputs were then processed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 2013, version 21) and reviewed in preparation for statistical analysis.

7.7.2 Survey administration and data collection: LPI

In this section, the rationale, methodology and implementation of the survey administration for the LPI is discussed.

7.7.2.1 Administration and collection

Members of the organisation in management positions were notified by letter of the plan to enlist their participation in the LPI.

Management meetings were also used to discuss the goals of the survey and review the questionnaire itself. The history of the LPI was explained as a highly respected survey instrument with wide appeal and a sound track record of effectiveness.

During this meeting and any time thereafter, the management team was encouraged to ask questions and raise any concerns or suggestions they might have regarding the survey and its implementation. Human resources staff were also present at the meetings.

The importance of understanding the collective leadership effectiveness through participation in the LPI and its relationship with the strategic and operational effectiveness of the organisation was a key focal point of the communications. Both the LPI self and LPI observer instruments were explained.

Confidentiality of participation and data collection and analysis was also stressed and supported through the introduction of the role of the researcher/consultant.

Once the LPI self-version had been introduced, participants in the LPI observer version categories of direct reports and immediate manager were identified.

Introductory letters were issued to all of these individuals, explaining the goals of and rationale for conducting the survey and what their roles as participants would be in the LPI observer

version of the survey. Meetings were also held with these individuals at which the importance of the LPI programme was discussed and a review of the actual survey presented.

Finally, those individuals identified to participate in the LPI observer version classified in the other category, in this instance, customers, were identified. The importance of ensuring confidentiality at all times was reiterated.

A letter of invitation was sent to these customers describing the purpose of the LPI survey and the importance of their participation in providing insight into and feedback on the leadership effectiveness of the organisation, from their perspective. These customers were also invited to attend a meeting at which the actual LPI observer survey was discussed and reviewed. In all communications, the goal of confidentiality was underscored.

In conclusion, the LPI self and observer versions were provided to all participants, along with instructions for completing the surveys, as well as directions on returning the completed surveys to the external researcher/consultant.

7.7.3 Survey administration and data collection: CSI

This section covers the steps taken in the administration of the CSI, including communication of the rationale for the survey, the importance of customer participation and instructions for completing the survey including direction to complete scale one only.

7.7.3.1 Administration and collection

Initially, the external customers who were identified to participate in the CSI were sent introductory letters covering the survey. These letters dealt with the rationale, objectives and importance of the role customer feedback plays in ensuring that the organisation makes continuous improvements in both the products and services provided.

The significance and effectiveness of how these same products and services are delivered and customer concerns and problems are resolved, were also a focal point of the introductory letter. Confidentiality and anonymity of participation were discussed along with comments on the external researcher/consultant employed to manage the survey process.

The company hosted meetings where the survey and its purpose were discussed. The researcher/consultant was introduced and questions/concerns on the survey were encouraged and addressed. Surveys along with a cover letter and detailed instructions on completing the survey were mailed to customers with a prepaid returned envelope included. Customers were instructed that the survey was being administered by an external researcher/consultant and the completed surveys should be returned to him.

Once the respondents had completed and returned the surveys, they were reviewed, scored and analysed according to the same administration process of both the employee job satisfaction and leadership effectiveness surveys used in this study.

Internal customer satisfaction survey participants were given like instructions and purpose focused on their opinions as internal employee survey participants in terms of how they saw their delivery of customer service.

7.8 DATA CAPTURING AND CLEANING

The data were analysed using the statistical program Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 2013 version 21.0 for Microsoft Windows and Amos 21 (Arbuckle,1995-2012). A prevention approach was adopted for data capturing. Data inputs were checked to capture errors by having each piece of data input examined by a group of individuals for errors at the time of entry. This was imperative because paper-based surveys can be susceptible to errors at the point of data entry, such as the wrong response captured and data omissions. Data was also examined at the time of capture for instances of multiple response to each individual survey question and the same response value to all questionnaire items.

7.9 ANALYSIS OF SURVEY DATA

The statistical analyses used in this research were both descriptive and inferential. These analyses were used to ascertain whether the independent variables of employee job satisfaction, leadership effectiveness and customer satisfaction influence and contribute to the dependent variable of organisational effectiveness.

7.9.1 Descriptive statistical analysis

According to Aron, Coups, and Aron (2012) and Urdan (2016) descriptive statistical analysis involves quantitatively summarising and understanding the sample that has been studied. In this study it was used to determine the means, variance and standard deviations of the sample group participating in each survey.

7.9.1.1 Mean analysis

Aron et al. (2012) defined the mean as the average score of a group of scores. The mean score also demonstrates the central tendency of the group of scores, which is more meaningful than the medium or mode. In this study, the mean was used to understand the scores derived from the question asked in each of the LP1, JDI and CSI survey instruments.

7.9.1.2 Variance analysis

Variance is a tool used in both descriptive and inferential statistical analyses. In descriptive statistics, it is a measurement of the average distance of a dataset from its mean (Aron et al., 2012). The variance measures the spread or dispersion of a set of data points from the average value of those data points. It is the square value of the standard deviation.

7.9.1.3 Standard deviation

Standard deviation is a mathematical representation of the dispersion around a central tendency (Aron et al., 2012). The standard deviation explains the relationship of a dataset of scores to the mean score of a sample population. It is the average distance between each item in the dataset scores and the mean. Data point scores spread over a wider range from the mean reflect a higher standard deviation, while scores in the dataset more narrowly spread from the mean score result in a lower standard deviation.

7.9.1.4 Kurtosis

According to Aron et al. (2012), kurtosis is a more detailed analysis of the skewness of a set of data points in terms of a normal distribution. It examines the degree to which the skewness of a curve displays a lack of outliers in its dataset distribution, which would indicate that it is light handed, or whether it shows a number of outliers in the data which would indicate a heavy-handed tail in the skewness.

7.9.2 Inferential statistical analysis

Aron et al. (2012) argued that inferential statistical analysis is associated with probability theory and attempts to make inferences and generalisations about an entire population from the results of the sample being studied.

The inferential statistical analyses conducted in this study included the hypothesis test, confidence intervals, multiple regression and correlation, and structural equation modelling (SEM) for the data collected from the JDI, LPI and CSI measuring instruments.

The various inferential statistical analyses available and those used in this research are briefly explained in the subsections below.

7.9.2.1 Hypothesis testing

According to Aron et al. (2012), hypothesis testing is a process used to ascertain whether the results of an empirical study involving a sample of a larger population support the theory being tested. It can also be an attempt to develop a new theory. This test was conducted as a part of the research.

7.9.2.2 T-test

A t-test is a form of hypothesis testing (Aron et al., 2012). Its purpose is to compare two means to determine whether the differences between them are significant. This test was not required.

7.9.2.3 Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

ANOVA is another approach to hypothesis testing. It is a statistical method that allows the researcher to compare and measure the variability of mean scores across several groups of variables (Aron et al., 2012). It differs from a t-test, which is used when comparing only two sets of mean scores. Researchers use ANOVA to try to understand the impact of the Independent variables on a dependent variable. Given that SEM was used ANOVA was not necessary.

7.9.2.4 Confidence intervals

Confidence intervals address both sampling errors and the uncertainty regarding the population being studied, and create a range of values within which the actual population is statistically likely to fall (Aron et al., 2012). This tool was utilized as part of the research.

7.9.2.5 Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA)

ANCOVA is a statistical tool used with SEM to understand differences between group means and to provide further explanation and clarification of ANOVA (Aron et al., 2012). ANCOVA allows for the elimination of variables that are unnecessary, controlling statistically for the impact of those variables and their effect on the direct variable. Given the use of SEM ANCOVA was not needed in this study.

7.9.2.6 Multiple regression and correlation

Multiple regression and correlation indicate the statistical relationship or connection between a minimum of two independent or predictor variables and a dependent variable. This type of statistical tool, according to Aron et al.(2012) affords the researcher an opportunity to examine how independent or predictor variables explain or influence a dependent variable. The dependent variable that was influenced or predicted in this research was organisational effectiveness. The predictor or independent variables examined in this study were job satisfaction, leadership effectiveness and customer satisfaction. These analyses were used.

7.9.2.7 Structural equation modelling (SEM)

SEM is an array of mathematical formulas and statistical methods used to understand unobservable variables (latent variables) through observable variables (manifest variables) (Aron et al., 2012). SEM can be regarded as an extension of path analysis which, in turn, is considered to be similar to aspects of multiple regression analysis. SEM is generally classified as a causal modelling technique in the literature (Wen, Hou, & Marsh, 2004).

According to Aron et al. (2012) and Kline (2011), an advantage of SEM as an alternative to the older path analysis is that it provides information on the data being analysed and the model theory fit.

Another advantage of SEM over path analysis is the use of the unobservable or latent variable, which represents the actual desired variable to be researched (Aron et al., 2012; Kline, 2011) but is not measurable in the real world. It can only be estimated through the relationship with observable or manifest variables, in essence, through the estimation that provides a form of measurement.

SEM allows for determination of factor loadings in order to understand the influence of manifest variables on latent variables (Aron et al., 2012). Also, through SEM, the manifest variables' estimation of error variance can be assessed.

Owing to the major inherent advantages discussed above and the widespread use of SEM in behavioural and social sciences research, SEM, as opposed to the older path analysis method, was selected for this study.

7.9.2.8 Chi-square (CMIN)

According to Aron et al. (2012) and Kline (2011), this test is used in research studies to identify differences between the observed and expected covariance matrix. Kline (2011) suggested that chi-square values near zero would not be statistically significant, and as a result would be deemed a good fit.

7.9.2.9 Goodness-of-fit index (GFI)

This is a statistical tool with a value range of 0 to 1, which measures the fit between the observed covariance matrix and the hypothesis model (Aron et al., 2012; Kline, 2011).

7.9.2.10 Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)

According to Aron et al. (2012) and Kline (2011), this tool allows for an examination of disparity between the population covariance matrix and the parameter estimates of the hypothesis model, with an acceptable model fit at a value of 0.06 or less and a range of 0 to 1, with values closer to zero being the optimal fit.

7.9.2.11 Normed fit index (NFI)

This statistical method (Aron et al., 2012; Kline, 2011) identifies and analyses the chi-square value of the null hypothesis model and the chi-square value of the hypothesis model for discrepancies between the two. It has a range between 0 and 1 and an accepted good fit of 0.09.

7.9.2.12 Tucker Lewis index (TLI)

This is a non-normed index with a range of 0 to 1, with a suggested good fit value of 0.09 which, according to Aron et al., (2012) and Kline (2011), measures and analyses discrepancies between the chi-square value of the null hypothesis model and the chi-square value of the hypothesis model. However, since this is also an incremental fit index it was not necessary to use this and the comparative fit index (CFI), so the CFI was chosen.

7.9.2.13 Comparative fit index (CFI)

This statistical tool enables one to identify discrepancies that may be present between the data and the hypothesis model, and at the same time adjust for sample size, which is a structural flaw in the chi-square tool. The suggested range for the CFI is 0 to 1, with levels at the low end an indication of poor fit and levels at the high end of the range, especially values greater than 0.90, deemed a good fit. The CFI was chosen for this research

7.10 MEASURES OF RELIABILITY IN THIS RESEARCH

7.10.1 Reliability analysis

A focus of statistical analysis for research in general, and this study in particular, is reliability. According to Brennan (2010), reliability is a statistical method of quantifying the consistencies and deviations in observed responses or scores. Reliability is an analysis focused on the consistency of a measurement instrument. It is present if the instrument when administered under similar conditions yields the same or similar results.

7.10.2 Internal consistency reliability

Internal consistency reliability is an assessment of the extent to which different survey items measure the same construct. In essence, it is the degree of interrelatedness of response items and is relevant information in a multi-item instrument.

The reliability of a measurement instrument is concerned with the degree to which a measurement instrument produces outcomes that are accurate, consistent and stable (Kerlinger & Lee, 1999) – in other words, how well the instrument performs as a measurement tool.

Brennan (2010) posited that classical test and measurement theory is at the core of and often the basis for addressing reliability issues. Using the reliability coefficient, an observed score can be analysed and delineated into a true score and a single random error.

7.10.3 Cronbach alpha coefficient

Reliability is measured by utilising the Cronbach alpha coefficient, which is a statistical analysis tool that allows for an examination of the degree of internal consistency of response items (Gorard, 2003). Statistically, the Cronbach alpha can be described as the sum of the variances of the survey items divided by the variance of the scale.

The Cronbach alpha value can be affected by a number of conditions such as the following (Dragow & Schmitt, 2001; Cortina, 1993): the number of items contained in the instrument, the degree of intercorrelation between the survey items and the dimensionality of the instrument (unidimensional and multidimensional), which, in many instances, is a point that is not understood fully.

The Cronbach alpha value can be between 0, which signifies a lack of any internal consistency, and 1, which indicates full internal consistency. A range of an acceptable Cronbach alpha of 0.70 to 0.95 has been suggested by some researchers (Aron et al., 2012; DeVellis, 2003; DeVellis & Thorpe, 2021; Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994).

However, Aron et al. (2012) and Cortina (1993) have acknowledged that a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .70 is deemed an acceptable level of internal consistency of item responses for measurement instruments such as those used in the current research study.

7.11 MEASURES OF VALIDITY IN THIS RESEARCH

Validity testing is a method of determining whether an instrument measures what it is intended to measure (Aron et al., 2012). The most basic form of validation testing is face validity in which a general review of the instrument is made to determine whether it appears to measure the area of interest. Another nonstatistical approach to testing is content validity in which a review is conducted of the specific questions and topics in the measurement instrument to establish whether it measures what it is intended to measure.

Statistically oriented forms of validation testing include construct validity which, according to Aron et al. (2012) is used to test a theory and constructs or factors deemed to validate it by conducting an empirical study. More detailed discussions of the specific tools used for validity testing in this research are provided in the section on measures of validity.

The research design included a number of statistical tools to validate the measurement instruments and data captured through the questionnaires. These tools are highlighted below.

7.11.1 Factor analysis

Aron et al. (2012) defined factor analysis as a statistical tool that helps a researcher, who is studying a number of variables representing a specific factor, to determine the possible relationship between such variables. This is done in terms of their correlation to other variables in the same factor, and their correlation to other variables outside of that factor and grouped together as part of another factor.

Two types of analyses are available to researchers. An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is generally recommended when the instrument is new and has never been validated, and a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) when using survey instruments that have been used and validated previously.

Both exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis are conducted, in order to, in the case of the former, determine the factor structure and the relationships between the measured variables being researched. Confirmatory factor analysis is done to confirm the validity and reliability of the measured research variables and factor structure. The confirmatory factor analysis is a statistical technique to confirm the relationships between latent variables and to conduct structured equation modelling.

Confirmatory factor analysis of the data is conducted to confirm the factor structure and validity and reliability of the research constructs. These three survey instruments have a rich history of validity and reliability and their constructs and factor structure are well known. When the constructs or factors are already known to the researcher, and the aim is to test whether the measures of a construct are consistent with the researcher's understanding of the construct or factor, it is not always necessary to conduct exploratory factor analysis. This is because exploratory factor analysis is usually required if the constructs are not known or tested previously in terms of validity and reliability. There may be a need to conduct exploratory factor analysis if a survey instrument is being used with a new or different survey population group to determine whether the factor structure is repeatable. However, this is at the discretion of the researcher. Again the confirmatory factor analysis serves as a statistical technique to confirm relationships between latent variables and for conducting structured equation modelling.

For this analysis, a varimax rotation is used because it is considered an orthogonal rotation which, according to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007; 2013) is more suitable than a direct oblimin rotation, given that the factor correlations are below the .32 level. Varimax rotation is deemed the most frequently used of the orthogonal rotation methods (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; 2013)

due in part to its advantage of maximising the variance of the loadings within a factor, while also maximising differences between high and low loadings on a particular factor.

7.11.2 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test

The KMO is used to measure how adequate the samples are from the standpoint of the distribution of values for the purpose of conducting exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis. KMO values above .50 and below 1.00 indicate that factor analyses will be helpful.

7.11.3 Bartlett's test of sphericity

This test is used to determine whether the sample populations being studied contain equal variances. In essence, it is used to test the degree of homogeneity of variances. Bartlett test values of 0.05 or less significance indicate that a factor analysis of the data would be helpful.

7.11.4 Levels of statistical significance

These levels indicate the probability or likelihood an outcome is not going to happen by chance. Statistical significance for purposes of this study was at 0.05 level, which is deemed the most acceptable level of statistical significance.

7.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter described the framework of the research methodology. The organisational characteristics of the host company were outlined, followed by a profile of the three target survey groups. The survey instruments used were reviewed. Validity, reliability, and survey administration was discussed and explained. The chapter concluded with a discussion of descriptive and inferential statistical tools. Chapter 8 deals with the statistical results of the research.

CHAPTER 8

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH RESULTS

8.1 INTRODUCTION

The focus of this chapter is a discussion and analysis of the statistical findings of the research. The outcomes of the statistical results are examined in the context of both the research hypotheses and empirical aims of this study. The complete spectrum of statistical measures and analyses deployed in this study to test the research hypotheses is reviewed in depth.

The previously discussed empirical research aims of the study are presented below.

- Research aim 1. To explore empirically whether there are interdependencies and the relationships between job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction, as axis indicators of the latent variable and how they collectively and in an integrated way affect organisational effectiveness
- Research aim 2. To empirically examine the effect of job satisfaction in an integrated model of organisational effectiveness
- Research aim 3. To empirically examine the effect of leadership in an integrated model of organisational effectiveness
- Research aim 4. To empirically examine the effect of internal customer satisfaction in an integrated model of organisational effectiveness
- Research aim 5. To empirically examine the effect of external customer satisfaction in an integrated model of organisational effectiveness
- Research aim 6. To identify whether an organisational effectiveness model survey is a valid and reliable instrument for measuring job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness

8.2 PREPARING SURVEY RESULTS FOR STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

In order to ensure the highest quality of survey data for statistical analysis, three major focal points were developed and any appropriate actions taken if necessary.

Firstly, the integrity of the survey data was ensured prior to entering the information onto Excel spreadsheets for analysis. Secondly, the survey data was reviewed for any anomalies and further action, such as removal, if necessary which was not the case. Thirdly, both a kurtosis analysis of the survey data was conducted and a determination of any deviation in normality in the data.

The data was examined thoroughly question by question to determine completeness of responses. The results of this examination were that all survey questions were answered completely and thus ready for statistical analysis. The statistical means and standard deviations were examined to ensure appropriateness of the survey data. Additional analysis of the survey data was conducted to determine situations for absence of response dissimilarity, and whether all survey questions were responded to with the same rating by an individual respondent across all constructs being measured. No such instances of this type of response pattern were observed.

The final step in ensuring the integrity of the data was an analysis of kurtosis ratios and the standard error of kurtosis. According to George and Mallery (2016), all kurtosis ratios below 2 are considered to be a normal univariate distribution. Any ratios greater than 2 were subjected to further examination of the actual distribution of responses. This analysis concluded that no deviations were unreasonable compared to the norm, and were thus deemed sufficient.

This allowed the research to proceed to the next step, which started with an exploratory factor analysis, followed by a confirmatory factor analysis. At this stage of the process, the researcher could start building a structural equation model.

8.3 DETERMINING THE VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Both exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis were conducted, in order to, in the case of the former, determine the factor structure and the relationships between the measured variables being researched. Confirmatory factor analysis was done to confirm the validity and reliability of the measured research variables and factor structure, as well as to confirm the relationships between latent variables and to conduct structured equation modelling.

Confirmatory factor analysis of the data was conducted to confirm the factor structure and validity and reliability of the research constructs. These three survey instruments have a rich history of validity and reliability and their constructs and factor structure are well known. When the constructs or factors are already known to the researcher, and the aim is to test whether the measures of a construct are consistent with the researcher's understanding of the construct or factor, it is not always necessary to conduct exploratory factor analysis. This is because exploratory factor analysis is usually required if the constructs are not known or tested previously in terms of validity and reliability. There may be a need to conduct exploratory factor analysis if a survey instrument is being used with a new or different survey population group to determine whether the factor structure is repeatable. However, this is at the discretion of the researcher. Again the confirmatory factor analysis serves as a statistical

technique to confirm relationships between latent variables and for conducting structured equation modelling.

8.3.1 Rationale for exploratory factor analysis

The exploratory factor analysis was used in the research to better understand the questionnaire items and the factor structure of the measured research variables in this environment. In this study, each variable was examined to determine communalities and scale items that were not related to the factors. Results of the Kaiser-Meyer-Okin (KMO) value and Bartlett's test for sphericity were also examined to assess the adequacy of the sample of each variable examined. In addition, both convergent and discriminant validity and reliability were assessed. Also, internal consistency reliability through the Cronbach alpha coefficient was determined to assess the intercorrelation between the questionnaire items.

8.3.1.1 Results of the exploratory factor analysis

Data consistency analysis was conducted along with a review of discriminant and convergent validity for the leadership effectiveness, job satisfaction and customer satisfaction constructs.

The various analyses for the independent variables or factors included a review of communalities in conjunction with Bartlett's test of sphericity, the Kaiser-Meyer-Okin value and the goodness of fit test for conducting structured equation modelling.

An examination of communality scores was performed to identify and evaluate whether any scores $\leq .3$ were evident, as that would appear to show a weak correlation with other factor items (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001; 2013). The cutoff of $< .3$ for communalities was chosen since most researchers (Field, 2009; Pedhazur & Pedhazur-Schmelkin, 1991; Yong & Pearce, 2013) prefer high and meaningful loadings. Setting lower cutoff points allows for more items to be loaded on a factor – hence the use of $< .3$ to $< .4$ as a cutoff for item elimination. Face validity was examined for those items that appeared problematic, and confirmed before any items not demonstrating face validity were removed as the item was determined not to measure the independent variable being researched.

The LPI comprises 30 items. Following the completion of the item analysis, all survey items remained intact. The JDI consists of 90 survey items and all those items were deemed acceptable following the item analysis. Finally, 61 items made up each of the internal and external CSI, and following the analysis of those survey items, all items were retained and included in the research study. All of these analyses are presented in summary format in the various tables below.

Further analysis of the KMO, Bartlett's test of sphericity and divergence of data for each of the three independent variables is provided in Table 8.1. Based on the results of the item analyses conducted, all survey items were retained for all three independent variables being measured.

Table 8.1 shows that the LPI comprised five factors or subscales, the JDI had six factors or subscales, and the CSI (internal and external) consisted of nine factors or subscales. The outcome of the analyses indicated that all factors or subscales for the LPI, JDI and CSI were maintained.

Table 8.1
Results: KMO, Bartlett's Test and Percent of Variance for Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Research Factors	KMO	Bartlett's test of sphericity	Percent of explained variance
Leadership practices	.82	.00	81.34
Model the way			
Inspired a shared vision			
Challenge the process			
Enable others to act			
Encourage the heart			
Job descriptive index	.88	.00	78.45
Work on present job			
Pay			
Opportunities for promotion			
Supervision			
People in your present job			
Job in general			
Customer satisfaction index - internal	.77	.00	74.72
Image of the company			
Contact with clients			
Client relations			
Value added			
Competence			
Quality of service			
Cost effectiveness			
Decision making			
Focus			
Customer satisfaction index - external	.79	.00	76.57
Image of the company			
Contact with clients			
Client relations			
Value added			
Competence			
Quality of service			
Cost effectiveness			
Decision making			
Focus			

The KMO value for the LPI was .82 and for JDI .88, while the CSI (internal) was .77 and the CSI (external) .79. All the variables' or constructs' KMO values exceeded the generally recognised standard of .5 and were therefore deemed acceptable (Babbie, 2015; Child, 2006;

Hair, Anderson, Babin, & Black, 2010). The independent variables or constructs produced a Bartlett's test of sphericity score of 0. According to Hair et al. (2010), scores of this nature indicate statistical acceptability.

Kline (2002; 2011) has suggested that the factor structure in a research study such as this is used to describe how questionnaire items are related to or dependent on survey construct factors, more specifically examining if and how an item loads on a specific factor and the loading pattern that forms.

In relation to the factor structure for the LPI, there are five factors, namely model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act and encourage the heart. Each of these factors contains six items which were analysed for loading on that particular factor.

Regarding the factor structure for the JDI, there are six factors. The JDI factors of work on current job, pay, supervision, opportunities for promotion, people in your present job and job in general, each contain 18 items that were studied for loading on each of those specific factors. The JDI factors of pay and opportunities for promotion each have nine items, which were examined for loading on those factors.

The CSI (internal) and (external) factor structure for each of the nine factors and the number of items that were researched for loading on each of those factors were as follows: image of the company – 9, contacts with clients – 6, client relations – 7, value added – 3, competence – 6, quality of service – 12, cost effectiveness – 5, decision making – 5 and focus 8.

As stated earlier, a cutoff of $< .3$ is used as researchers (Field, 2009; Kline, 2002; Pedhazur & Pedhazur-Schmelkin, 1991; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001; 2013; Yong & Pearce, 2013) have indicated that high and meaningful loadings and lower cutoffs such as $< .3$ allow for more items to be loaded on a factor. While there are no hard-and-fast rules, most researchers use cutoffs of $< .3$ or $< .4$.

Rotation can best be defined as a method whose objective is to achieve simplification in the factor loading process (Fabrigar, Wegner, MacCullum, & Strahan, 1999; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; 2013). For this analysis, a varimax rotation is used because it is considered an orthogonal rotation which, according to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007; 2013) is more suitable than a direct oblimin rotation, given that the factor correlations are below the .32 level. Varimax rotation is deemed the most frequently used of the orthogonal rotation methods (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007; 2013) due in part to its advantage of maximising the variance of the loadings

within a factor, while also maximising differences between high and low loadings on a particular factor.

8.3.1.2 Analysis of the internal consistency reliability

The internal consistency and item reliability analysis of the questionnaires were examined using Cronbach alpha coefficients. This analysis was performed partly to determine the consistency of response of all questionnaire items within a factor being measured (Green & Salkind, 2014). In addition, an analysis of the inter-item correlation was conducted (Babbie, 2015; Clark & Watson, 1995; DeVellis, 2003; Hair et al., 2010) to assess item score relationships in an effort to determine whether there were redundant items measuring the same construct.

The Cronbach alpha coefficients and the inter-item correlations for each of the independent construct factor measurement instruments are set out in Table 8.2.

Table 8.2
Cronbach Alpha Coefficients and Inter-item Correlation Analysis

Factors	Number of items	Alpha coefficients	Inter-item correlations
LPI			
Model the way	6	.92	.37
Inspire a shared vision	6	.87	.35
Challenge the process	6	.77	.29
Enable others to act	6	.85	.31
Encourage the heart	6	.79	.34
LPI totals	30	.84	
JDI			
Work on current job	18	.88	.39
Pay	9	.79	.30
Opportunities for promotion	9	.85	.32
Supervision	18	.84	.34
People in your current job	18	.80	.37
Job in general	18	.78	.28
JDI totals	90	.74	
CSI (internal)			
Image of the company	9	.87	.30
Contacts with clients	6	.79	.28
Client relations	7	.85	.32
Value added	3	.77	.26
Competence	6	.84	.31
Quality of service	12	.82	.29
Cost effectiveness	5	.78	.25
Decision making	5	.81	.29
Focus	8	.76	.24
CSI (internal) totals	61	.81	

Table 8.2: Cronbach Alpha Coefficients and Inter-item Correlation Analysis (continued)

LPI factors	Number of items	Alpha coefficients	Inter-item correlations
CSI factors (external)			
Image of the company	9	.84	.28
Contacts with Clients	6	.77	.27
Client relations	7	.89	.29
Value added	3	.78	.28
Competence	6	.81	.31
Quality of service	12	.85	.34
Cost effectiveness	5	.75	.26
Decision making	5	.82	.32
Focus	8	.79	.30
CSI totals (external)	61	.83	

It is generally agreed (DeVellis, 2003; Hair et al., 2010) that Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliability coefficients should be $>.70$ to be considered acceptable.

Average inter-item correlation of $.15$ to $.50$, according to Clark and Watson (1995), DeVellis, 2003; Hair et al., 2010), is generally recognised as acceptable and an indication of meaningful variance between items. Inter-item correlations $<.15$ indicate a lack of meaningful correlation, and those item-correlations $>.50$ show that the variables may be too redundant in their measurement of a construct. Other researchers (Mead & Craig, 2012) have suggested inter-item correlations of $.22$ to $.60$ as the preferred range for variance between survey items.

In the case of the LPI, the range for the Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliability coefficient was $.77$ to $.92$, and the internal consistency reliability coefficient for the total LPI scale was also considered extremely good at $.84$ level (Hair et al., 2006; 2010; Litwin & Fink, 2003).

The LPI scale mean scores for the inter-item correlation were in the range of $.29$ to $.37$, which is considered to demonstrate statistically meaningful variability between items (Clark & Wesson, 1995; Hair et al., 2010; Mead & Craig, 2012).

The JDI Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliability coefficient was in the $.78$ to $.88$ range. The internal consistency reliability coefficient for the total JDI scale was $.82$, which is deemed good (Hair et al., 2010; Litwin & Fink, 2003). In addition, the JDI scale mean scores for the inter-item correlation were in the $.28$ to $.39$ range, which according to Clark and Watson (1995), Hair et al. (2010) Mead and Craig (2012), indicates a statistically acceptable variability range.

With regard to the CSI (internal) results, the Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliability coefficients were in the .76 to .87 range, and for the total CSI (internal), the Cronbach alpha was .81, which can be categorised as good (Clark & Watson, 1995; Hair et al., 2010).

The CSI (internal) inter-item correlation mean score was in the .24 to .32 range, which again (Clark & Watson, 1995; DeVellis, 2003; Mead & Craig, 2012) was deemed a desirable outcome for the measure.

An analysis of the CSI (external) results indicated the Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliability coefficients were in the range of .75 to .89, and the total CSI (external) Cronbach alpha of .82, which Clark and Watson (1995), Hair et al. (2010) and Mead and Craig (2012) considered statistically good.

The inter-item correlation mean score for the CSI (external) was in the range of .26 to .34, which is deemed acceptable (Clark & Watson, 1995; DeVellis, 2003; Mead & Craig, 2012).

8.3.2 Rationale for confirmatory factor analysis

The rationale for having conducted confirmatory factor analysis as part of structured equation modelling is that it provided a statistical method to confirm the factor structure of a set of the observed variables. This, in turn, allowed the researcher to test the research hypotheses pertaining to relationships between the observed variables and latent constructs. Confirmatory factor analysis with a new sample is done to determine whether the exploratory factor structure is repeatable or comparable and in so doing confirm the exploratory factor analysis.

8.3.2.1 Results of the LPI confirmatory factor analysis

The results of the confirmatory factor analysis for the leadership practices (LPI) model are shown in Table 8.3. A statistical analysis for the goodness of fit of the model is provided in Table 8.4. The leadership practices inventory CFA validity and reliability results can be viewed in Table 8.5, and the analysis of the LPI latent factors covariance is presented in Table 8.6.

The results of the confirmatory factor analysis for the leadership practices (LPI) model are shown in Table 8.3.

Table 8.3

LPI: Standardised Maximum Likelihood Estimates Factor Loadings Regression Weights

Manifested variable	Latent variable	Factor loading estimates regression weights
Q7	1 Model the way	0.840
Q12	1 Model the way	0.785
Q17	1 Model the way	0.812
Q22	1 Model the way	0.804
Q27	1 Model the way	0.789
Q32	1 Model the way	0.793
Q8	2 Inspire a shared vision	0.821
Q13	2 Inspire a shared vision	0.764
Q18	2 Inspire a shared vision	0.773
Q23	2 Inspire a shared vision	0.815
Q28	2 Inspire a shared vision	0.863
Q33	2 Inspire a shared vision	0.834
Q9	3 Challenge the process	0.767
Q14	3 Challenge the process	0.794
Q19	3 Challenge the process	0.818
Q24	3 Challenge the process	0.804
Q29	3 Challenge the process	0.759
Q34	3 Challenge the process	0.821
Q10	4 Enable others to act	0.834
Q15	4 Enable others to act	0.798
Q20	4 Enable others to act	0.773
Q25	4 Enable others to act	0.817
Q30	4 Enable others to act	0.759
Q35	4 Enable others to act	0.768
Q11	5 Encourage the heart	0.749
Q16	5 Encourage the heart	0.786
Q21	5 Encourage the heart	0.805
Q26	5 Encourage the heart	0.810
Q31	5 Encourage the heart	0.793
Q36	5 Encourage the heart	0.778

The results of the standardised maximum likelihood estimates demonstrated high factor loadings between the manifest and latent variables for the LPI, which is in line with generally accepted levels.

A statistical analysis for goodness of fit of the model for the LPI can be found in Table 8.4.

Table 8.4

Model Fit of the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI)

CMIN/DF	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	PCLOSE
1.45	.98	.92	.97	.04	.43

The statistical analysis of the model fit for the LPI indicated a satisfactory goodness of fit. The various statistical measurements all fell within the acceptable levels (Babbie, 2015; Hair et al., 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Marsh, Hau, & Wen, 2004; Sharma, Murkherjee, Kumar, & Dillion, 2005). The CMIN/DF was less than 3, the GFI greater than .95, the AGFI larger than .80, the CFI greater than .95, the RMSEA below .05 and the PCLOSE greater than .05.

The analysis of the LPI model validity and reliability is demonstrated in Table 8.5.

Table 8.5
LPI Validity and Reliability Analysis

	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV
Model the way	.87	.86	.19	.19
Inspire a shared vision	.91	.84	.17	.17
Challenge the process	.84	.74	.23	.16
Enable others to act	.89	.81	.20	.18
Encourage the heart	.82	.78	.22	.18

Examination of the LPI validity and reliability analysis indicated that composite reliability (CR) was above the suggested level of .70 (Hair et al., 2010). With regard to the convergent validity (AVE) analysis, all the constructs were above the .50 recommended acceptance guideline (Hair et al., 2010). In addition, discriminant validity was within the recommendation of $ASV < AVE$ as well as $MSV < AVE$. Based on these results, it was deemed acceptable for conducting structural equation modelling.

Table 8.6 contains a summary of the LPI latent factors covariance.

Table 8.6
LPI Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Factor Covariance

	Model the way	Inspire a shared vision	Challenge the process	Enable others to act	Encourage the heart
Model the way	-	.45	.46	.43	.39
Inspire a shared vision	.48	-	.50	.38	.47
Challenge the process	.50	.52	-	.49	.45
Enable others to act	.43	.48	.38	-	.50
Encourage the heart	.42	.39	.50	.45	-

The results of the five LPI latent factors covariance indicated a meaningful variance between the latent factors, with a covariance range between .38 and .50. This signifies that the joint variability between variables was statistically appropriate.

Table 8.7 contains the results of the confirmatory factor analysis for the JDI model. An analysis

of the model goodness of fit is provided in Table 8.8, and the CFA validity and reliability results depicted in Table 8.9. Table 8.10 contains an analysis of the JDI latent factors covariance.

The results of the confirmatory factor analysis for the JDI model are provided in Table 8.7.

Table 8.7

JDI: Standardised Maximum Likelihood Estimates Factor Loadings Regression Weights

Manifested variable	Latent variable	Factor loadings
Q33	6 Work on present job	0.874
Q34	6 Work on present job	0.839
Q35	6 Work on present job	0.813
Q36	6 Work on present job	0.856
Q37	6 Work on present job	0.802
Q38	6 Work on present job	0.793
Q39	6 Work on present job	0.791
Q40	6 Work on present job	0.788
Q41	6 Work on present job	0.774
Q42	6 Work on present job	0.746
Q43	6 Work on present job	0.790
Q44	6 Work on present job	0.785
Q45	6 Work on present job	0.769
Q46	6 Work on present job	0.783
Q47	6 Work on present job	0.837
Q48	6 Work on present job	0.858
Q49	6 Work on present job	0.842
Q50	6 Work on present job	0.861
Q51	7 Pay	0.747
Q52	7 Pay	0.772
Q53	7 Pay	0.785
Q54	7 Pay	0.769
Q55	7 Pay	0.797
Q56	7 Pay	0.804
Q57	7 Pay	0.816
Q58	7 Pay	0.789
Q59	7 Pay	0.782
Q60	8 Opportunities for promotions	0.794
Q61	8 Opportunities for promotions	0.847
Q62	8 Opportunities for promotions	0.812
Q63	8 Opportunities for promotions	0.824
Q64	8 Opportunities for promotions	0.797
Q65	8 Opportunities for promotions	0.794
Q66	8 Opportunities for promotions	0.816
Q67	8 Opportunities for promotions	0.783
Q68	8 Opportunities for promotions	0.774
Q69	9 Supervision	0.867
Q70	9 Supervision	0.839
Q71	9 Supervision	0.841

Table 8.7: JDI: Standardised Maximum Likelihood Estimates Factor Loadings Regression Weights
(continued)

Manifested variable	Latent variable	Factor loadings
Q72	9 Supervision	0.857
Q73	9 Supervision	0.798
Q74	9 Supervision	0.804
Q75	9 Supervision	0.827
Q76	9 Supervision	0.847
Q77	9 Supervision	0.828
Q78	9 Supervision	0.785
Q79	9 Supervision	0.773
Q80	9 Supervision	0.812
Q81	9 Supervision	0.857
Q82	9 Supervision	0.864
Q83	9 Supervision	0.838
Q84	9 Supervision	0.779
Q85	9 Supervision	0.824
Q86	9 Supervision	0.847
Q87	10 People in your present job	0.784
Q88	10 People in your present job	0.792
Q89	10 People in your present job	0.831
Q90	10 People in your present job	0.817
Q91	10 People in your present job	0.824
Q92	10 People in your present job	0.746
Q93	10 People in your present job	0.782
Q94	10 People in your present job	0.814
Q95	10 People in your present job	0.835
Q96	10 People in your present job	0.769
Q97	10 People in your present job	0.758
Q98	10 People in your present job	0.791
Q99	10 People in your present job	0.843
Q100	10 People in your present job	0.772
Q101	10 People in your present job	0.747
Q102	10 People in your present job	0.784
Q103	10 People in your present job	0.846
Q104	10 People in your present job	0.817
Q105	11 Job in general	0.743
Q106	11 Job in general	0.761
Q107	11 Job in general	0.798
Q108	11 Job in general	0.754
Q109	11 Job in general	0.812
Q110	11 Job in general	0.823
Q111	11 Job in general	0.809
Q112	11 Job in general	0.754
Q113	11 Job in general	0.773
Q114	11 Job in general	0.758
Q115	11 Job in general	0.821
Q116	11 Job in general	0.830

Table 8.7: *JDI: Standardised Maximum Likelihood Estimates Factor Loadings Regression Weights (continued)*

Manifested variable	Latent variable	Factor loadings
Q117	11 Job in general	0.819
Q118	11 Job in general	0.794
Q119	11 Job in general	0.771
Q120	11 Job in general	0.837
Q121	11 Job in general	0.759
Q122	11 Job in general	0.778

The results of the JDI standardised maximum likelihood estimates indicated strong factor loadings between the manifest and latent variables, which is consistent with the statistically recommended guidelines.

The analysis of the JDI goodness of fit model is presented in Table 8.8.

Table 8.8
Model Fit of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI)

CMIN/DF	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	PCLOSE
1.79	.97	.94	.98	.04	.35

A review of the statistical analysis of the JDI goodness of fit model indicates an acceptable goodness of fit. The table shows that all of the measurements fell within acceptable levels (Babbie, 2015; Hair et al., 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Marsh et al., 2004; Sharma et al., 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The CMIN/DF was less than 3, the GFI greater than .95, the AGFI larger than .80, the CFI greater than .95, the RMSEA below .05 and the PCLOSE greater than .05.

Table 8.9 shows the analysis of the JDI validity and reliability for the model.

Table 8.9
JDI Validity and Reliability Analysis

	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV
Work on present job	.88	.82	.18	.17
Pay	.84	.85	.16	.16
Opportunities for promotion	.89	.75	.21	.20
Supervision	.86	.83	.20	.18
People in present job	.80	.80	.23	.19
Job in general	.82	.79	.19	.17

A review of the JDI validity and reliability analysis indicated that the composite reliability (CR) was above the suggested level of .70 (Hair et al., 2010). With regard to the convergent validity (AVE) analysis, all the constructs were above the .50 recommended acceptance guideline (Hair et al., 2010). In addition, discriminant validity was within the recommendation of $ASV < AVE$ as well as $MSV < AVE$. These statistical outcomes therefore indicated that it was appropriate to conduct SEM.

Table 8.10 contains a summary of the JDI factor covariance.

Table 8.10
JDI Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Factor Covariance

	Work on present job	Pay	Opportunities for promotion	Supervision	People in present job	Job in general
Work on present job	-	.52	.51	.48	.43	.38
Pay	.50	-	.49	.52	.50	.40
Opportunities for promotion	.38	.45	-	.49	.37	.42
Supervision	.47	.38	.47	-	.45	.44
People in present job	.43	.41	.44	.37	-	.49
Job in general	.45	.43	.39	.46	.39	-

The results of the six JDI latent factors covariance indicated a meaningful variance between the latent factors, with a covariance range between .37 and .52. This signifies that the joint variability between variables was statistically appropriate.

The results of the confirmatory factor analysis for the CSI (internal) model is shown in Table 8.11. A statistical analysis for goodness of fit of the model is provided in Table 8.12 and the CFA validity and reliability results can be seen in Table 8.13. Table 8.14 contains an analysis of the CSI latent factors variance

The confirmatory factor analysis results for the CSI (internal) model are provided in Table 8.11.

Table 8.11
CSI (Internal): Standardised Maximum Likelihood Estimates Factor Loadings Regression Weights

Manifested variable	Latent variable	Estimate
Q123	12 Image of the company	0.771
Q124	12 Image of the company	0.784
Q125	12 Image of the company	0.832
Q126	12 Image of the company	0.814
Q127	12 Image of the company	0.769
Q128	12 Image of the company	0.790
Q129	12 Image of the company	0.823

Table 8.11: *CSI (Internal): Standardised Maximum Likelihood Estimates Factor Loadings Regression Weights (continued)*

Manifested variable	Latent variable	Estimate
Q130	12 Image of the company	0.774
Q131	12 Image of the company	0.797
Q132	13 Contact with clients	0.857
Q133	13 Contact with clients	0.819
Q134	13 Contact with clients	0.794
Q135	13 Contact with clients	0.788
Q136	13 Contact with clients	0.831
Q137	13 Contact with clients	0.820
Q138	14 Client relations	0.832
Q139	14 Client relations	0.864
Q140	14 Client relations	0.828
Q141	14 Client relations	0.809
Q142	14 Client relations	0.786
Q143	14 Client relations	0.791
Q144	14 Client relations	0.813
Q145	15 Value added	0.787
Q146	15 Value added	0.825
Q147	15 Value added	0.817
Q148	16 Competence	0.784
Q149	16 Competence	0.779
Q150	16 Competence	0.802
Q151	16 Competence	0.754
Q152	16 Competence	0.761
Q153	16 Competence	0.775
Q154	17 Quality of service	0.853
Q155	17 Quality of service	0.827
Q156	17 Quality of service	0.821
Q157	17 Quality of service	0.816
Q158	17 Quality of service	0.794
Q159	17 Quality of service	0.789
Q160	17 Quality of service	0.792
Q161	17 Quality of service	0.853
Q162	17 Quality of service	0.838
Q163	17 Quality of service	0.824
Q164	17 Quality of service	0.767
Q165	17 Quality of service	0.783
Q166	18 Cost effectiveness	0.749
Q167	18 Cost effectiveness	0.721
Q168	18 Cost effectiveness	0.786
Q169	18 Cost effectiveness	0.755
Q170	18 Cost effectiveness	0.772
Q171	19 Decision making	0.742
Q172	19 Decision making	0.794
Q173	19 Decision making	0.805
Q174	19 Decision making	0.778
Q175	19 Decision making	0.739

Table 8.11: *CSI (Internal): Standardised Maximum Likelihood Estimates Factor Loadings Regression Weights (continued)*

Manifested variable	Latent variable	Estimate
Q176	20 Focus	0.768
Q177	20 Focus	0.781
Q178	20 Focus	0.757
Q179	20 Focus	0.810
Q180	20 Focus	0.814
Q181	20 Focus	0.743
Q182	20 Focus	0.783
Q183	20 Focus	0.764

The results of the CSI (internal) standardised maximum likelihood estimates suggested meaningful factor loadings between the manifest and latent variables, which are deemed appropriate in the statistically recommended guidelines.

Table 8.12 indicates the CSI (internal) goodness of fit model.

Table 8.12

Model Fit of the Customer Satisfaction Index CSI (Internal)

CMIN/DF	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	PCLOSE
2.28	.96	.91	.97	.04	.32

The CSI model (internal) fit revealed a satisfactory goodness of fit. As indicated in the statistical analysis, all of the measurements fell within the recommended levels of acceptance, with the CMIN/DF less than 3, the GFI greater than .95, the AGFI larger than .80, the CFI greater than .95, the RMSEA below .05 and the PCLOSE greater than .05 (Hair et al., 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Marsh et al., 2004; Sharma et al. 2005).

The CSI (internal) validity and reliability analysis is provided in Table 8.13.

Table 8.13

CSI (Internal) Validity and Reliability Analysis

	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV
Image of the company	.80	.79	.24	.20
Contact with clients	.75	.84	.18	.17
Client relations	.82	.83	.21	.19
Value added	.78	.74	.16	.17
Competence	.79	.77	.19	.18
Quality of service	.83	.81	.23	.19
Cost effectiveness	.76	.78	.20	.20
Decision making	.81	.80	.22	.21
Focus	.74	.76	.17	.16

An examination of the CSI (internal) validity and reliability analysis indicated that composite reliability (CR) was above the suggested level of .70 (Hair et al., 2020). With regard to the convergent validity (AVE) analysis, all constructs were above the .50 recommended acceptance guideline (Hair et al., 2010). In addition, discriminant validity was within the recommendation of $ASV < AVE$ and $MSV < AVE$. These statistical outcomes therefore indicated that it was appropriate to conduct SEM.

Table 8.14 contains a summary of the CSI (internal) latent factors covariance.

Table 8.14
CSI (Internal) Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Factor Covariance

Factors	Image of the company	Contact with clients	Client relations	Value added	Competence	Quality of service	Cost	Decision making	Focus
Image of the company	-	.43	.47	.41	.38	.35	.43	.51	.44
Contacts with clients	.50	-	.49	.44	.42	.39	.40	.43	.37
Client relations	.47	.46	-	.46	.44	.42	.41	.39	.40
Value added	.39	.41	.36	-	.41	.40	.42	.45	.41
Competence	.37	.40	.44	.39	-	.44	.45	.48	.45
Quality of service	.44	.45	.50	.43	.40	-	.38	.41	.39
Cost effectiveness	.35	.38	.43	.37	.41	.42	-	.37	.47
Decision making	.42	.51	.39	.40	.36	.45	.37	-	.44
Focus	.40	.37	.41	.42	.48	.47	.43	.44	-

The results of the nine CSI (internal) latent factors covariance indicated a meaningful variance between the latent factors, with a covariance range between .35 and .51. This signifies that the joint variability between variables was statistically appropriate.

The results of the confirmatory factor analysis for CSI (external) model is indicated in Table 8.15. A statistical analysis of the goodness of fit of the model is contained in Table 8.16, while

the CFA validity and reliability results are presented in Table 8.17. Table 8.18 contains an analysis of the CSI latent factors variance.

Table 8.15 provides the confirmatory factor analysis results for the CSI (external) model.

Table 8.15

CSI (External): Standardised Maximum Likelihood Estimates Factor Loadings Regression Weights

Manifested variable	Latent variable	Estimate
Q123	12 Image of the company	0.794
Q124	12 Image of the company	0.762
Q125	12 Image of the company	0.817
Q126	12 Image of the company	0.798
Q127	12 Image of the company	0.775
Q128	12 Image of the company	0.803
Q129	12 Image of the company	0.836
Q130	12 Image of the company	0.789
Q131	12 Image of the company	0.825
Q132	13 Contact with clients	0.834
Q133	13 Contact with clients	0.782
Q134	13 Contact with clients	0.827
Q135	13 Contact with clients	0.763
Q136	13 Contact with clients	0.857
Q137	13 Contact with clients	0.789
Q138	14 Client relations	0.805
Q139	14 Client relations	0.838
Q140	14 Client relations	0.793
Q141	14 Client relations	0.826
Q142	14 Client relations	0.802
Q143	14 Client relations	0.774
Q144	14 Client relations	0.785
Q145	15 Value added	0.817
Q146	15 Value added	0.849
Q147	15 Value added	0.796
Q148	16 Competence	0.873
Q149	16 Competence	0.758
Q150	16 Competence	0.782
Q151	16 Competence	0.775
Q152	16 Competence	0.794
Q153	16 Competence	0.757
Q154	17 Quality of service	0.839
Q155	17 Quality of service	0.851
Q156	17 Quality of service	0.806
Q157	17 Quality of service	0.793
Q158	17 Quality of service	0.827
Q159	17 Quality of service	0.762
Q160	17 Quality of service	0.814
Q161	17 Quality of service	0.835

Table 8.15: *CSI (External): Standardised Maximum Likelihood Estimates Factor Loadings Regression Weights (continued)*

Manifested variable	Latent variable	Estimate
Q162	17 Quality of service	0.858
Q163	17 Quality of service	0.799
Q164	17 Quality of service	0.746
Q165	17 Quality of service	0.803
Q166	18 Cost effectiveness	0.778
Q167	18 Cost effectiveness	0.754
Q168	18 Cost effectiveness	0.761
Q169	18 Cost effectiveness	0.785
Q170	18 Cost effectiveness	0.759
Q171	19 Decision making	0.773
Q172	19 Decision making	0.827
Q173	19 Decision making	0.832
Q174	19 Decision making	0.756
Q175	19 Decision making	0.761
Q176	20 Focus	0.795
Q177	20 Focus	0.753
Q178	20 Focus	0.787
Q179	20 Focus	0.841
Q180	20 Focus	0.829
Q181	20 Focus	0.774
Q182	20 Focus	0.808
Q183	20 Focus	0.792

The results of the external CSI standardised maximum likelihood estimates suggested meaningful factor loadings between the manifest and latent variables. These are acceptable according to the statistically recommended guidelines.

The CSI (external) goodness of fit model is indicated in Table 8.16.

Table 8.16
Model Fit of the Customer Satisfaction Index CSI (External)

CMIN/DF	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	PCLOSE
2.54	.97	.93	.96	.03	.37

The CSI (internal) model fit showed a satisfactory goodness of fit. As indicated by the statistical analysis, all of the measurements fell within the recommended levels of acceptance (Hair et al., 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Marsh et al., 2004; Sharma et al., 2005). The CMIN/DF was less than 3, the GFI greater than .95, the AGFI larger than .80, the CFI greater than .95, the RMSEA below .05 and the PCLOSE greater than .05.

The CSI (external) validity and reliability analysis is indicated in Table 8.17.

Table 8.17

CSI (External) Validity and Reliability Analysis

	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV
Image of the company	.77	.81	.27	.21
Contact with clients	.80	.83	.21	.19
Client relations	.84	.86	.24	.22
Value added	.76	.76	.18	.16
Competence	.81	.79	.22	.20
Quality of service	.85	.78	.26	.23
Cost effectiveness	.74	.75	.19	.18
Decision making	.82	.82	.25	.24
Focus	.78	.74	.18	.17

An examination of the CSI (external) validity and reliability analysis indicates that composite reliability (CR) was above the suggested level of .70 (Hair et al., 2010). With regard to the convergent validity (AVE) analysis, all the constructs were above the .50 recommended acceptance guideline (Hair et al., 2010). In addition, discriminant validity was within the recommendation of $ASV < AVE$ and $MSV < AVE$. Hence these statistical outcomes were deemed appropriate for conducting SEM.

Table 8.18 provides a summary of the CSI (external) latent factors covariance.

Table 8.18

CSI (External) Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Factor Covariance

Factors	Image of the company	Contact with clients	Client relations	Value added	Competence	Quality of service	Cost	Decision making	Focus
Image of the company	-	.47	.42	.43	.36	.37	.40	.49	.41
Contacts with clients	.46	-	.50	.42	.45	.36	.43	.41	.39
Client relations	.50	.43	-	.48	.41	.45	.40	.37	.42
Value added	.42	.39	.38	-	.45	.37	.40	.48	.44
Competence	.41	.38	.47	.40	-	.48	.46	.50	.42
Quality of service	.41	.42	.48	.47	.39	-	.36	.44	.37
Cost effectiveness	.38	.37	.40	.39	.44	.45	-	.36	.49

Table 8.18: CSI (External) Confirmatory Factor Analysis: Factor Covariance (continued)

Factors	Image of the company	Contact with clients	Client relations	Value added	Competence	Quality of service	Cost	Decision making	Focus
Decision making	.47	.49	.37	.42	.38	.48	.35	-	.46
Focus	.41	.39	.43	.45	.46	.50	.47	.42	-

The results of the nine CSI (external) latent factors covariance indicated a meaningful variance between the latent factors, with a covariance range between .35 and .50. This signifies that the joint variability between variables was statistically appropriate.

This section focuses on an analysis of the three organisational effectiveness model constructs and their direct variables. The statistical analyses that follow include a review of the variable factor loading estimates/regression weights.

Table 8.19 contains an analysis of the LPI construct variables model.

Table 8.19

LPI Construct Variables Maximum Likelihood Estimates - Regression Weights

Construct	Variable	Factor loading estimates regression weights
Leadership practices	Model the way	0.819
	Inspire a shared vision	0.824
	Challenge the process	0.807
	Enable others to act	0.791
	Encourage the heart	0.782

The analysis of the LPI construct variables maximum likelihood estimates regression weights indicated extremely strong factor loadings on the associated variables that exceeded the .70 recommended level (Hair et al., 2010). The highest load of .824 for the variable, inspire a shared vision, suggests a strong relationship. The factor loadings ranged from .782 to .824 for the LPI construct.

Table 8.20 indicates the analysis of the JDI construct variables model.

Table 8.20

JDI Construct Variables Maximum Likelihood Estimates - Regression Weights

Construct	Variable	Factor loading estimates regression weights
Job satisfaction	Work on present job	0.851
	Pay	0.774
	Opportunities for promotion	0.817
	Supervision	0.808
	People in your present job	0.835
	Job in general	0.793

An analysis of the factor loadings on the JDI construct and the related variables indicated the highest load on the variable, work on present job, at .851, which demonstrated an extremely strong relationship. The JDI had a factor loading range of .774 to .851.

The statistics for the CSI construct variables model (internal) are provided in Table 8.21.

Table 8.21

CSI (Internal) Construct Variables Maximum Likelihood Estimates - Regression Weights

Construct	Variable	Factor loading estimates regression weights
Customer satisfaction	Image of company	.794
	Contact with clients	.832
	Client relations	.825
	Value added	.807
	Competence	.786
	Quality of service	.813
	Cost effectiveness	.769
	Decision making	.758
	Focus	.771

A review of the statistical analysis for the CSI (internal) construct variables model indicated that the highest load of .832 was on the variable of contact with clients, providing evidence of a meaningful relationship. The factor load range for CSI (internal) construct and the related variables was .758 to .832.

The statistics for the CSI (external) construct variables model are provided in Table 8.22.

Table 8.22:

CSI (External) Construct Variables Maximum Likelihood Estimates - Regression Weights

Construct	Variable	Factor loading estimates regression weights
Customer satisfaction	Image of company	.803
	Contact with clients	.825
	Client relations	.849
	Value added	.776
	Competence	.814
	Quality of service	.791
	Cost effectiveness	.787
	Decision making	.778
	Focus	.765

A review of the statistical analysis of the CSI (external) construct variables model (external) indicated that the highest load of .849 was on the variable of client relations, which was evidence of a meaningful relationship. The factor load range for CSI construct (external) and the related variables was .765 to .849.

8.3.3 Conducting the structural equation modelling phase

The leadership practices, job satisfaction and customer satisfaction models were integrated to form a singular model fit. The purpose of creating this model was to advance this research to the structural equation modelling phase. This, in turn, would allow the researcher to investigate whether and how these variables or constructs might influence and enable the attainment of organisational effectiveness in an integrated and independent manner.

8.3.3.1 Statistical analysis of the structural model

The statistical analysis of the integrated LPI, JDI and CSI structural equation model is provided in Table 8.23. A statistical analysis of the goodness of fit model is provided in Table 8.24, followed by statistical outcomes for reliability and validity in Table 8.25.

A single structural equation model for leadership practices, job satisfaction and customer satisfaction was selected for examination.

The integrated LPI, JDI and CSI organisational effectiveness structural model factor loading estimates regression weights can be seen in Table 8.23.

Table 8.23

Integrated LPI, JDI, and CSI Organisational Effectiveness Structural Model Factor Loading Estimates Regression Weights

Latent variables (constructs)		Factors	Estimates	Significant	Covariance
Leadership practices	→	Job satisfaction	.91	Yes	.34
Leadership practices	→	Customer satisfaction	.87	Yes	.28
Job satisfaction	→	Customer satisfaction	.83	Yes	.33
Job satisfaction	→	Leadership practices	.81	Yes	.31
Customer satisfaction (internal)	→	Job satisfaction	.78	Yes	.29
Customer satisfaction (internal)	→	Leadership practices	.75	Yes	.30
Customer satisfaction (external)	→	Job satisfaction	.82	Yes	.32
Customer satisfaction (external)	→	Leadership practices	.77	Yes	.29

This model was chosen on the basis of the empirical evidence that emerged in the previous statistical results presented in this study. The results underscored the relationships between the constructs or variables that were examined. These demonstrated statistical significance, based on the results of regression weights and factor loadings per construct, that the three constructs of LPI, JDI, and CSI were positively correlated.

The structural equation model for organisational effectiveness as depicted in Table 8.23 is discussed in further detail.

Regarding this structural equation model for organisational effectiveness, the path coefficient estimates between each of the three constructs of leadership practices, job satisfaction and customer satisfaction within the organisational effectiveness model were significant at the $p \leq .001$ level. This model showed strong factor loadings above the .70 recommended level (Hair et al., 2010).

A closer look at the findings revealed a factor loading range of .75 for customer satisfaction (internal) on leadership practices and .91 factor loading for leadership practices on job satisfaction. This indicates that the construct of customer satisfaction (internal) influenced and had a positive correlation with the leadership practices construct. An additional result was that the leadership practices construct influenced another construct (job satisfaction) the most, and therefore had the most significant positive correlation in the context of this model of organisational effectiveness. This indicates the key role that leadership plays in the effectiveness of an organisation. The data in Table 8.23 indicated an extremely strong and statistically significant correlation between all the constructs.

The model demonstrates once again, that 91% of the leadership practices construct explained the job satisfaction construct. The leadership practices construct also explained 87% of the customer satisfaction construct (internal). This latter finding demonstrates a highly statistically significant positive correlation and the extent to which effective leadership influences perceptions of customer satisfaction in the organisation involved in this study.

Upon further review of the model, the job satisfaction construct explained 83% of the customer satisfaction construct (internal) and demonstrated a positive correlation. The job satisfaction construct explained 81% of the leadership practices construct and indicated a positive correlation as well. Of interest is the positive relationship and the role of job satisfaction in explaining leadership practices. It appears to indicate a loop containing employees' opinions of satisfaction with various aspects of their job, and how, when those attitudes are expressed in surveys or other media, it affords leaders in the organisation an opportunity to address those areas and, in turn, work towards increasing the levels of job satisfaction.

These two findings are fairly significant and provide valuable insight into the link between the job satisfaction construct and the customer satisfaction construct (internal) and the job satisfaction construct and leadership practices construct in terms of the organisational effectiveness model fit (Wiley, 1996). It also provides direct information on the importance of job satisfaction in contributing to perceptions of customer satisfaction (internal) and leadership practices directly.

Examination of the model indicated that 78% of the customer satisfaction construct (internal) explained the job satisfaction construct, thus showing a positive correlation. In addition, the customer satisfaction construct (internal) explained 75% of the leadership practices construct, also indicating a positive correlation.

The positive relationship and the contribution that customer satisfaction (internal) makes to influencing job satisfaction is a crucial feedback loop that may serve as motivation for employee perceptions of providing quality service, timely decision making and enhanced client contact and relationships. These may, in turn, actually increase customer satisfaction and loop back to possibly even greater job satisfaction as well.

The same rationale seems to apply to the positive correlation, relationship and influence customer satisfaction (internal) has in explaining leadership practices. The perception of the client relationship, client contact, expectations for high levels of quality service and cost effectiveness can all play a role in the way leaders in an organisation learn from perceptions of customer service and where necessary recalibrate their leadership strategies and actual

actions to align more closely with customer satisfaction expectations. Customer service perceptions can play a vital role in driving change in the organisation and the leaders who provide customers with goods and services.

A review of the model also indicated that 82% of the customer satisfaction construct (external) explained the job satisfaction construct and showed a positive correlation. Moreover, the customer satisfaction construct (external) explained 77% of the leadership practices construct, also indicating a positive correlation.

The positive relationship and the contribution that customer satisfaction (external) makes in influencing job satisfaction is integral to this type of feedback loop. This may serve as motivation for employee performance and organisational effectiveness with regard to providing quality service, timely decision making and enhanced client contact and relationships which, in turn, may actually further increase customer satisfaction further and loop back to possibly greater job satisfaction as well.

This same rationale seems to indicate the positive correlation, relationship and influence customer satisfaction (external) has in explaining leadership practices. Customers' perceptions of their relationships and contact with the organisation, as well as their expectations of high levels of quality service and cost effectiveness, can all play a role in the way leaders in an organisation can learn to continue providing and enhancing customer service, and where necessary recalibrate their leadership strategies and actual actions to align more closely with customer satisfaction expectations. Customer service satisfaction can play a key role in driving change in the organisation and the leadership practices in providing goods and services.

The covariance for all the constructs was in the range of .28 to .34 and also within the recommended levels (Clark & Watson, 1995; DeVellis, 2003; Hair et al., 2010; Mead & Craig, 2012).

The integrated model fit for the LPI, JDI, and CSI (internal and external) is indicated in Table 8.24.

Table 8.24
Integrated Model Fit for the LPI, JDI and CSI (Internal and External)

CMIN/DF	GFI	AGFI	CFI	RMSEA	PCLOSE
1.90	.97	.93	.97	.04	.36

The analysis of the integrated model fit for the LPI, JDI and CSI (internal and external) shown in Table 8.24 indicated an appropriate goodness of fit level. As demonstrated by a review of the analysis, all the measurements fell within the recommended levels of acceptance (Babbie, 2015; Hair et al., 2010; Hu & Bentler, 1999; Marsh et al., 2004; Sharma et al., 2005;). The CMIN/DF was less than 3, the GFI greater than .95, the AGFI larger than .80, the CFI greater than .95, the RMSEA below .05 and the PCLOSE greater than .05.

Table 8.25 indicates the LPI, JDI, and CSI integrated validity and reliability analysis.

Table 8.25
LPI, JDI and CSI Integrated Validity and Reliability Analysis

	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV
Leadership practices	.88	.84	.21	.20
Job satisfaction	.86	.82	.20	.18
Customer satisfaction (internal)	.82	.78	.18	.17
Customer satisfaction (external)	.84	.80	.17	.19

8.3.3.2 Analysis of the LPI, JDI and CSI validity and reliability

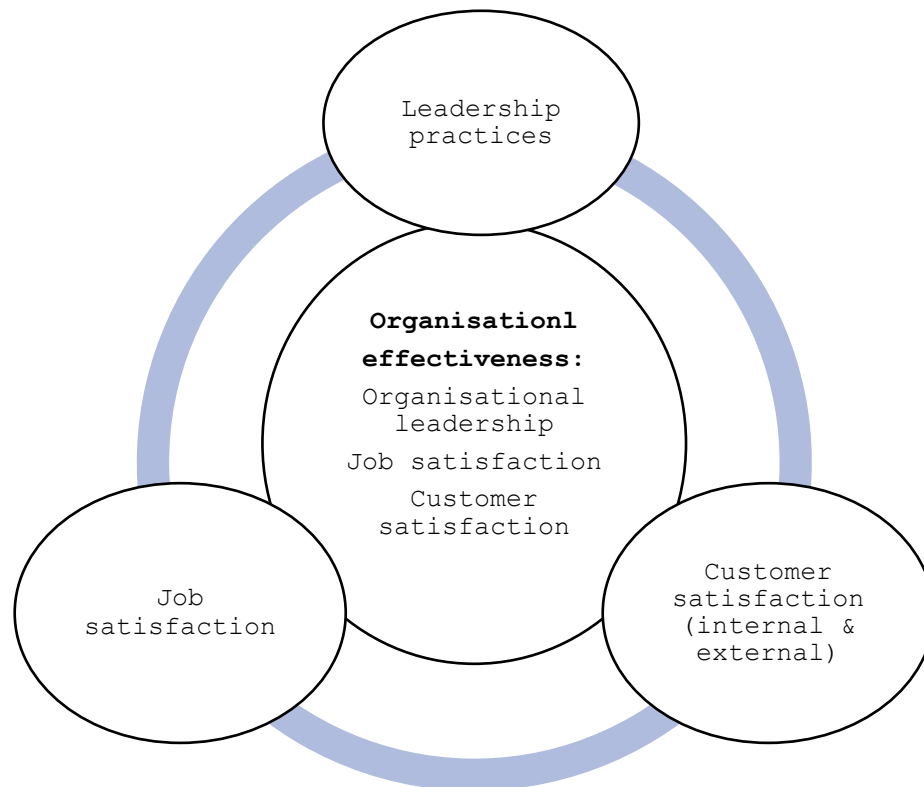
The results of the CSI validity and reliability statistics for the model are set out in Table 8.25. A review of the analysis indicates that composite reliability (CR) was above the suggested level of .70 for all the constructs (Hair et al., 2010). In the case of the convergent validity (AVE) analysis, the constructs were also above the .50 recommended acceptance guideline (Hair et al., 2010). Also, discriminant validity was within the recommendation of $ASV < AVE$ and $MSV < AVE$. Based on the results of both the model fit and the validity and reliability analysis, the model was deemed appropriate in realising the aims of this research.

The theoretical structural measurement model of organisational effectiveness is depicted in Figure 8.1.

In essence, this is a loop type of self-contained and closed structural model of organisational effectiveness comprising latent constructs or variables of leadership practices, employee job satisfaction and customer satisfaction in an axis relationship consistent with the approved title of this research together with the research hypotheses.

Figure 8.1

Theoretical Measurement Model of Organisational Effectiveness



The theoretical model of organisational effectiveness is confirmed by the empirically based result statements below.

- Leadership practices have a positive effect on employee job satisfaction.
- Leadership practices have a positive effect on customer satisfaction.
- Employee job satisfaction has a positive effect on customer satisfaction.
- Employee job satisfaction has a positive effect on leadership practices.
- Customer satisfaction (internal) has a positive effect on employee job satisfaction.
- Customer satisfaction (internal) has a positive effect on leadership practices.
- Customer satisfaction (external) has a positive effect on job satisfaction.
- Customer satisfaction (external) has a positive effect on leadership practices.

8.4 SUMMARISING AND MERGING THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

Important information on the research findings came to light in this study. Relationships between the independent variables of leadership practices, job satisfaction and customer

satisfaction, and their role in the organisational effectiveness model, was determined empirically through this research and explained in earlier sections.

8.5 ASSESSMENT OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS)

The analysis of the descriptive statistics results and the Pearson product moment correlations is unpacked in this section for the construct variables (LPI, JDI and CSI) being measured and their respective subscale factors. This includes analysis of the means, standard deviations and correlations. Means are used to measure central tendency of the 20 subscale factors of the three survey instruments. Also, standard deviations are examined to understand the degree to which each mean score of the 20 subscale factors is dispersed from the mean of the dataset factor mean scores.

8.5.1 Descriptive statistics: LPI means and standard deviation analyses

This section explains the descriptive statistics results, and includes the means, standard deviations minimums and maximums, for the five leadership practices inventory factor subscales in the measurement instrument.

8.5.1.1 Results of the descriptive statistics for the LPI

The descriptive statistics for the LPI are indicated in Table 8.26, and include minimums, maximums, means and standard deviations for the five LPI factor subscales.

Table 8.26
LPI Factors Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Model the way	4.32	.68	1.00	5.00
Inspire a shared vision	4.14	.65	1.00	5.00
Challenge the process	3.91	.72	1.00	5.00
Enable others to act	4.25	.88	1.00	5.00
Encourage the heart	4.08	.77	1.00	5.00

The analysis shows that the range in the mean scores was 3.91 to 4.32. The highest participant score was the factor subscale for model the way, with a score of 4.32, and the standard deviation for that factor subscale was .68. The lowest mean score reported was on the challenge the process factor subscale with a score of 3.91 and a standard deviation score of .72 for this same factor subscale.

The standard deviation range for the LPI measurement scale was .65 to .88. Mean scores in excess of 3.5 on a five-point Likert response scale are deemed to represent statistically

meaningful scores and positive results (Aron et al., 2013; Hair et al., 2010). Researchers such as Castro and Martins (2010), Da Veiga and Martins (2015), Ledimo (2012), and Odendaal and Roodt (1998). have indicated that scores above 3.20 are believed to indicate positive results. The mean scores for the LPI factor subscales were all above both suggested levels, indicating satisfaction with leadership practices among the survey participants.

8.5.2 Descriptive statistics: JDI means and standard deviation analyses

This section explains the descriptive statistics results, and covers means, standard deviations, minimums and maximums for the six job descriptive index factor subscales in the measurement instrument.

8.5.2.1 Results of the descriptive statistic for the JDI

The JDI descriptive statistics presented in Table 8.27 include the scores for the means, standard deviations minimums and maximums for each of the six factor subscales.

Table 8.27
JDI Factors Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Work on present job	4.25	.87	1.00	5.00
Pay	3.60	.92	1.00	5.00
Opportunities for promotion	3.97	.89	1.00	5.00
Supervision	4.12	.95	1.00	5.00
People in your present job	3.92	.90	1.00	5.00
Job in general	3.84	.86	1.00	5.00

For the JDI factor subscale, the mean scores were in the range of 3.60 to 4.25. The highest mean score was 4.25 for the factor subscale of work on present job with a standard deviation of .87. The lowest mean score was 3.60 for the factor subscale of pay with a standard deviation of .92.

Standard deviations for all the factor subscales were in the .86 to .95 range. The JDI factor subscale mean scores all exceeded the 3.5 recommended level on a five-point Likert response scale (Aron et al., 2013; Hair et al., 2010). Castro and Martins (2010) and Ledimo (2012) suggested a level of 3.20, which was deemed to show positive results, thus indicating that the survey participants were satisfied with their jobs and the organisation.

8.5.3 Descriptive statistics: CSI (internal) means and standard deviations analyses

This section explains the descriptive statistics results, and the means, standard deviations, minimums and maximums for the nine customer satisfaction index (internal) factor subscales in the measurement instrument.

8.5.3.1 Results of the descriptive statistics for the CSI (internal)

The descriptive statistics for the nine CSI factor subscale scores, including the means, standard deviations, minimums and maximums, are indicated in Table 8.28.

A review of all the mean scores for the CSI factor subscales indicated a range of 3.62 to 4.35, with the highest mean score for the quality of service factor subscale at 4.35, and a standard deviation of .94 for that same factor subscale. The lowest mean score reported was for the focus factor subscale at 3.62, and an associated standard deviation of .85 for the same factor subscale.

Table 8.28

CSI (Internal) Factors Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Image of the company	3.91	.86	1.00	5.00
Contact with clients	4.03	.91	1.00	5.00
Client relations	4.21	.92	1.00	5.00
Value added	3.78	.87	1.00	5.00
Competence	3.85	.83	1.00	5.00
Quality of service	4.35	.94	1.00	5.00
Cost effectiveness	4.17	.90	1.00	5.00
Decision making	3.93	.84	1.00	5.00
Focus	3.62	.85	1.00	5.00

The range of standard deviations for the CSI factor subscales was .83 to .94. The mean scores for all the factor subscales of the CSI exceeded the recommended 3.5 level on a five-point Likert response scale (Aron et al., 2013; Hair et al., 2010). Castro and Martins (2010) and Ledimo (2012) suggested a 3.20 level, demonstrating both meaningful positive results, thus indicating that the survey participants were satisfied with the customer service rendered by the organisation.

8.5.4 Descriptive statistics: CSI (external) means and standard deviation analyses

This section explains the descriptive statistics results, and includes the means, standard deviations, minimums and maximums for the nine customer satisfaction index (external) factor subscales in the measurement instrument.

8.5.4.1 Results of the descriptive statistics for the CSI (external)

The descriptive statistics for the nine CSI (external) factor subscale scores, including the means, standard deviations, minimums and maximums, are provided in Table 8.29.

An analysis of the mean scores for the CSI (external) factor subscales indicated a range of 3.78 to 4.43, with the highest mean score of 4.43 for the quality of service factor subscale, and a standard deviation of .94 for the same factor subscale. The lowest mean score reported was for the competence factor subscale at 3.78, and a standard deviation of .84 for the same factor subscale.

Table 8.29
CSI (External) Factors Descriptive Statistics

	Mean	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Image of the company	4.07	.90	1.00	5.00
Contact with clients	3.93	.88	1.00	5.00
Client relations	4.15	.92	1.00	5.00
Value added	3.91	.87	1.00	5.00
Competence	3.78	.84	1.00	5.00
Quality of service	4.43	.94	1.00	5.00
Cost effectiveness	4.11	.91	1.00	5.00
Decision making	4.03	.89	1.00	5.00
Focus	3.79	.85	1.00	5.00

The standard deviations for the CSI (external) factor subscales ranged between .84 and .94. Mean scores for all the factor subscales of the CSI exceeded the recommended 3.5 level on a five-point Likert response scale (Aron et al., 2013; Hair et al., 2010). Castro and Martins (2010) and Ledimo (2012) suggested a 3.20 level, which indicated both meaningful and positive results, and the survey participants' satisfaction with the customer service provided by the organisation.

8.6 ASSESSMENT OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS (CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS)

This phase of the research study involved an inter-variable bivariate analysis, which examined the relationships between the specific factors or variables comprising the three constructs of organisational effectiveness (i.e. leadership practices, job satisfaction and customer satisfaction) on each other's construct factors or variables, in an effort to determine their role in organisational effectiveness.

The method used to conduct the inter-variable bivariate analysis is a (Pearson) correlation coefficient statistical linear analysis, which informs the research in determining from a

quantitative perspective the inter-variable direction and strength between variables. This analysis is essential to determine whether the research hypotheses can be tested empirically.

In this study, the results of the correlation coefficient analysis were assessed using generally accepted statistical guidelines (Cohen, 1992; Shaffer, De Geest, & Li, 2015; Sink & Stroh, 2006), in which a small practical effect was $r = .10$ to $.29$, a medium practical effect $r = .30$ to $.49$, and a large practical effect $r = .50$ to 1.0 .

8.6.1 Pearson correlation coefficient results

An analysis of the results of the inter-variable bivariate correlation coefficients (Pearson correlation coefficients) is provided in a table in Annexure A at the end of the study. All the construct factor subscales of leadership practices, job satisfaction and customer satisfaction are included in the analysis.

There were many large practical effect positive correlation coefficients between the factor subscales across the leadership, job satisfaction and customer satisfaction constructs, which are discussed in detail. In addition, there were a substantial number of medium practical effect positive correlation coefficients between the leadership, job satisfaction and customer satisfaction factor subscales.

8.6.1.1 Analysis of the LPI to JDI Pearson correlation coefficients

Nearly all the LPI construct factors or variables (model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act and encourage the heart) had a large practical significant positive correlation coefficient effect size in relation to the construct of job satisfaction, as indicated in Annexure A.

The LPI factors of model the way, inspire a shared vision and enable others to act had a large practical significant positive correlation coefficient effect size in relation to all the factors comprising the job satisfaction construct, namely work on present job, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, people in your present job and job in general.

The LPI construct factor of challenge the process had a large practical significant positive correlation coefficient effect size in relation to all of the job satisfaction construct factors indicated above. The sole exception was the people in your present job factor, in which it had a medium practical significant positive correlation coefficient effect size.

The LPI construct factor of encourage the heart had a large practical significant positive correlation coefficient effect size in relation to all the job satisfaction construct factors, except

for the job in general factor, which had a medium practical significant positive correlation coefficient effect size.

These statistical outcomes indicate that all the factors comprising the leadership practices construct (model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act and encourage the heart) had a positive relationship with ~~and effect on~~ the job satisfaction factors of work on present job, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, people in your present job and job in general. The organisation should continue to focus its leadership practices on these highly positive areas. The correlation coefficient results are discussed in greater detail below.

8.6.1.2 Analysis of the LPI to CSI Pearson correlation coefficients (internal)

In terms of the effect size of the LPI construct factors (model the way, inspire a shared vision and challenge the process), the statistical analysis in Annexure A indicated a large practical significant positive correlation coefficient in most of the internal customer satisfaction construct factors.

The exceptions to these were the following: The LPI construct of model the way had a medium practical significant positive correlation coefficient effect size in relation to the customer satisfaction construct factor of competence; the LPI construct of inspire a shared vision had a medium practical significant positive correlation coefficient effect size in relation to the customer satisfaction construct factor of focus; and the LPI construct factor of challenge the process had a medium practical significant positive correlation coefficient effect size in relation to the customer satisfaction construct factor of value added.

Regarding the LPI construct factors of enable others to act and encourage the heart, the analysis in Annexure A indicated a medium practical significant positive correlation coefficient effect size in relation to nearly all of the customer satisfaction construct factors.

The two exceptions to this were the following: The LPI construct factor of enable others to act had a large practical significant positive correlation coefficient effect size in relation to the customer satisfaction construct factor of quality of service; and the LPI construct factor of encourage the heart had a large practical significant positive correlation coefficient effect size in relation to the customer satisfaction construct factor of cost effectiveness.

These findings demonstrate that the LPI factors of model the way, inspire a shared vision and challenge the process shared a common positive relationship and large coefficient effect size in relation to the customer satisfaction factors of image of the company, contact with clients, client relations, quality of service, cost effectiveness and decision making.

These findings also show that the LPI factors of enable others to act and encourage the heart shared a common positive relationship and medium coefficient effect size in relation to the customer satisfaction factors of image of the company, contact with clients, client relations, value added, competence, decision making and focus.

8.6.1.3 Analysis of the JDI to CSI Pearson correlation coefficients (internal)

The JDI factors or variables (work on present job, opportunities for promotion, supervision and people in your present job), as indicated in the table in Annexure A, had a large practical significant positive correlation coefficient effect size in relation to most of the customer satisfaction construct factors.

The exceptions to the above results were as follows: The JDI construct factor of work on present job, had a medium practical significant positive correlation coefficient effect size in relation to the customer satisfaction construct factor of decision making; the JDI construct factor of opportunities for promotion had a medium practical significant positive correlation coefficient effect size in relation to the customer satisfaction construct factor of image of the company; the JDI construct factor of supervision had a medium practical significant positive correlation coefficient effect size in relation to the customer satisfaction construct factor of client relations; and the JDI construct factor of people in your present job had a medium practical significant positive correlation coefficient effect size in relation to the customer satisfaction construct factor of competence.

Regarding to the JDI construct factors or variables of pay and job in general, there was a medium practical significant positive correlation coefficient effect size, as shown in the table in Annexure A, in relation to most of the customer satisfaction construct factors.

In two specific instances, the analysis indicated results that were exceptions to this. Firstly, the JDI construct factor of pay had a large practical significant positive correlation coefficient effect size in relation to the customer satisfaction construct factor of cost effectiveness. Secondly, the JDI construct factor of job in general had a large practical significant positive correlation coefficient effect size in relation to the customer satisfaction construct factor of quality of service.

The organisation should continue to maintain the same practices that have contributed to a large significant positive correlation coefficient effect size outcome, which currently exists between the JDI construct factors and the CSI construct factors discussed above. In addition, the organisation could work to further enhance those few factors of the same JDI constructs

where there is a positive but medium correlation coefficient effect size in relation to a particular customer satisfaction factor.

8.6.1.4 Analysis of the JDI to LPI Pearson correlation coefficients

Regarding the JDI factors or variables (work on present job, opportunities for promotion, supervision and people in your present job), as shown in the table in Annexure A, the findings indicated a large practical significant correlation effect size in relation to the entire leadership practices construct. Specifically, the JDI job satisfaction construct factors of work on present job, opportunities for promotion, supervision and people in your present job, had a large practical significant correlation effect size in relation to the LPI construct factors of model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act and encourage the heart.

The JDI factors or variables (pay and job in general) had a predominantly medium practical significant correlation effect size in relation to the entire construct of leadership practices.

These findings pertaining to the JDI factors with the largest practical significant correlation effect size, indicated that leadership practices are most influenced by employee job satisfaction dimensions that deal with the intrinsic nature of the work that employees engage in, along with future opportunities, and supervisory and coworker relations. The organisation should continue the work with human resource programmes that support these findings. Also, the organisation should place greater emphasis on their compensation programmes and jobs in general in order to enhance the effect size of these factors on the entire construct of leadership practices.

8.6.1.5 Analysis of the CSI to JDI Pearson correlation coefficients (internal)

Almost all the CSI (internal) factors or variables (image of the company, contact with clients, client relations, value added, competence and quality of service), as indicated in the table in Annexure A, had a large practical significant correlation effect size in relation to the entire construct of job satisfaction. In terms of the CSI (internal) factors or variables (cost effectiveness, decision making and focus), in nearly all instances, the findings indicated a medium practical significant correlation effect size in relation to the construct of job satisfaction.

As discussed, the CSI (internal) factors or variables of image of the company, contact with clients, client relations, value added, competence and quality of service, had a large practical significant correlation effect size in relation to the job satisfaction construct factors of work on

present job, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, people in your present job and job in general.

Regarding the CSI (internal) factors or variables of cost effectiveness, decision making and focus, the findings indicated a medium practical significant correlation effect size in relation to most of the job satisfaction construct factors to include work on present job, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, people in your present job and job in general. The only exceptions to this were the cost effectiveness CSI factor, which had a large practical significant correlation effect size in relation to the JDI factor of pay, as well as the CSI factor of decision making having a large practical significant correlation effect size in relation to the JDI factor of work on present job.

The organisation should continue the customer service practices reflected in the CSI (internal) construct factors that have the greatest effect size in relation to the JDI construct. In addition, the organisation should improve on the CSI (internal) construct factors of cost effectiveness, decision making and focus, in order to increase its effect size in relation to the JDI construct factors that are currently in a medium effect size relationship.

8.6.1.6 Analysis of the CSI to LPI Pearson correlation coefficients (internal)

In terms of the CSI (internal) factors or variables (contact with clients, value added, competence, cost effectiveness and decision making), as indicated in the table in Annexure A, they had a large practical significant correlation effect size in relation to the leadership practices construct. The exception to this was the CSI factor of competence, which had a medium practical significant correlation effect size in relation to the LPI factors of challenge the process and enable others to act.

The CSI factors or variables (image of the company, client relationships, quality of service and focus), as indicated in the table in Annexure A, had a medium practical significant correlation effect size in relation to the factors of the leadership practices construct, but there were a few exceptions.

One exception was the CSI (internal) factor of image of the company, which had a large practical significant correlation effect size in relation to the LPI factor of model the way. The other exception, as stated earlier, was the CSI factor of competence, which had a large practical significant correlation effect size in relation to the LPI factor of model the way, inspire a shared vision and encourage the heart.

The organisation should continue the practices in the area of CSI (internal) construct factors yielding the largest practical significant correlation effect sizes. Developing plans and

programmes in the CSI (internal) construct factors of image of the company, client relationships, quality of service and focus, in order to improve their practical significant correlation effect size in relation to the LPI construct factors, should be an area of emphasis in the organisation.

8.6.1.7 Analysis of the CSI to JDI Pearson correlation coefficients (external)

The CSI (external) factors or variables (image of the company, contact with clients, client relations, value added, competence and quality of service), as indicated in the table in Annexure A, had a large practical significant correlation effect size in relation to the construct of job satisfaction.

Regarding the CSI (external) factor or variable of cost effectiveness, there was a medium practical significant correlation effect size with all the JDI factors, with the exception of work on present job, where the cost effectiveness factor had a large practical significant correlation effect size.

In the case of the CSI (external) factor or variable of decision making, there was a medium practical significant correlation effect size with all the JDI factors, with the exception of the factor, work on present job, where the decision-making factor or variable had a large practical significant correlation effect size in relation to the JDI factor of work on present job.

Additionally, the CSI (external) factor or variable of focus had medium practical significant correlation effect size in relation to all of the JDI factors or variables.

The organisation should dedicated greater resources and attention to all the CSI (external) construct factors for the most part in an effort to elevate the practical significant correlation effect size from moderate to large in relation to the JDI construct factors.

8.6.1.8 Analysis of the CSI to LPI Pearson correlation coefficients (external)

The CSI (external) factors or variables (contact with clients, value added, cost effectiveness and decision making), as indicated in the table in Annexure A, had a large practical significant correlation effect size in relation to the entire construct of leadership practices.

In the case of the CSI (external) factors or variables (client relations, quality of service and focus), there was a medium practical significant correlation effect size in relation to the whole leadership practices construct.

Regarding the CSI (external) factor of image of the company, there was a medium practical significant correlation effect size in relation to all the leadership practices constructs or

variables, with the exception of the factor of model the way, where the CSI factor of image of the company had a large practical significant correlation effect size.

Also, the CSI (external) factor of competence had a large practical significant correlation effect size in relation to the LPI factors or variables of inspire a shared vision and encourage the heart, while the same competence factor had a medium practical significant correlation effect size in relation to the LPI factors of challenge the process and enable others to act.

The organisation should focus on placing greater emphasis on improving the CSI (external) construct factors of client relations, quality of service, focus and image of the company in terms of their effect size in relation to the LPI construct factors.

With the strong effect size of the CSI (external) variables of contact with clients, value added, cost effectiveness and decision making in relation to the entire leadership practices construct, the organisation should continue its policies and practices in order to retain this effect going forward. The organisation should also attempt to improve the impact of competence, specifically regarding the leadership practices perceptions of challenging the process and enabling others to act.

A summary of the research hypotheses formulated on the basis of the problem statement identified in the introductory chapter, is provided in Table 8.30. It indicates whether or not the empirical aims of the study were achieved.

Table 8.30
Summary of the research hypotheses

Research Hypothesis	Details	Result
H01	A new integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness based on the interdependencies and relationships between the research construct factors of job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction cannot be established and empirically supported	REJECTED
Ha1	A new integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness based on the interdependencies and relationships between the research construct factors of job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction can be established and empirically supported	ACCEPTED
H02	Job satisfaction does not have an impact on organisational effectiveness in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness which also includes the research construct factors of leadership and customer satisfaction	REJECTED
HA2	Job satisfaction does have an impact on organisational effectiveness in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness which also includes the research construct factors of leadership and customer satisfaction	ACCEPTED

Table 8.30: *Summary of the research hypotheses (continued)*

Research Hypothesis	Details	Result
H03	Leadership does not have an impact on organisational effectiveness in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness which also includes the research construct factors of job satisfaction and customer satisfaction	REJECTED
HA3	Leadership does have an impact on organisational effectiveness in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness which also includes the research construct factors of job satisfaction and customer satisfaction	ACCEPTED
H04	Customer satisfaction does not have an impact on organisational effectiveness in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness which also includes the research construct factors of job satisfaction and leadership	REJECTED
HA4	Customer satisfaction does have an impact on organisational effectiveness in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness which also includes the research construct factors of job satisfaction and leadership	ACCEPTED
H05	The interdependencies and relationships between job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction and how they collectively impact organisational effectiveness cannot be proven empirically in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness	REJECTED
HA5	The interdependencies and relationships between job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction and how they collectively impact organisational effectiveness can be proven empirically in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness	ACCEPTED

8.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter began with an introduction to the research results. The preparation of the survey data results was conducted prior to analysis. The process of developing the questionnaires was then described. Descriptive statistics were explained, including an analysis of means and standard deviations and covariance regarding the research construct factors or variables.

This was followed by an explanation of the purpose of the exploratory factor analysis and a summary of the results. The issues of internal consistency and reliability were highlighted. Confirmatory factor analysis, as well as the analysis of confirmatory validity, was explained in detail. Reliability and covariance for each of the constructs that were identified in this study were highlighted in order to define organisational effectiveness. This was followed by a discussion of structured equation modelling. In conclusion, an overview of the merging of research results was provided.

The next (final) chapter deals with the conclusions, limitations and recommendations.

CHAPTER 9

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

9.1 INTRODUCTION TO CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter begins with a presentation of the conclusions drawn in terms of the literature review and empirical findings. A review of the conclusions relating to the general and specific research aims of the literature review phase is provided. This is followed by a discussion of the conclusions pertaining to the general and specific research aims of the empirical phase of the study. The research hypotheses are then examined in relation to the conclusions drawn.

The next section deals with the limitations of the study in terms of the literature review. This is followed by a discussion of the limitations of the research in relation to the empirical phase of the research.

The ethical considerations are highlighted, and the way in which the research complied with university requirements.

Recommendations are made for the participating host organisation, including suggestions for improvements in employee job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction to further enhance organisational effectiveness, both in the organisation and the industry in general. Recommended actions are set out for the field of industrial and organisational psychology to consider on the basis of the findings of this research. Suggestions are also made for possible future research in the area of organisational effectiveness to add to the body of knowledge identified and presented.

The next section focuses on an evaluation of this research in terms of its contributions from a multilevel perspective. Specific contributions are then discussed from a theoretical perspective, as well as contributions at an empirical level. The contributions of this research from a practical perspective are highlighted. The chapter concludes with a chapter summary.

9.2 CONCLUSIONS RELATING TO THE LITERATURE REVIEW

This section focuses on the conclusions drawn in relation to the general research aim and each of the specific research aims of the literature review phase, as set out in the introductory chapter.

The general research aim of the literature review was to assess the relevant literature on organisational effectiveness and the impact of job satisfaction, organisational leadership and customer satisfaction within the framework of organisational effectiveness.

The general research aim of the literature review was partially achieved in the introductory chapter, in which the study objective of the literature review and the empirical research phases were planned in order to both create a theoretical model of organisational effectiveness, and to subsequently successfully demonstrate validation of that model in the research results chapter.

The study appears to have been successful in demonstrating through the review and referencing of the available research that the topic clearly falls within and contributes to the field of industrial and organisational psychology.

The specific literature review research conclusions are presented below, following a list of the specific research aims of the literature review.

- **Research aim 1:** To conceptualise the role motivation plays in the employee job satisfaction variable portion of this research
- **Research aim 2:** To conceptualise the impact of job satisfaction on organisational effectiveness
- **Research aim 3:** To conceptualise the influence of leadership on organisational effectiveness
- **Research aim 4:** To conceptualise the effect of customer satisfaction on organisational effectiveness
- **Research aim 5:** To develop the foundations for a theoretical model of organisational effectiveness

9.2.1 Conclusions relating to research aim 1

This aim in the literature review involved a study of both content and process motivational theories, as in Chapter 2, Figure 2.1, as the basis for a better understanding of the motivational foundation of the job satisfaction variable of the organisational effectiveness model proposed and empirically tested in this research. The goal of this research aim was to conceptualise the role motivation plays in the employee job satisfaction variable part of this research. This aim was achieved in Chapter 2.

The following conclusion can be drawn from the aim in the literature review.

A common theme that emerged is that employees, motivated through need fulfilment, experience higher levels of job satisfaction. These lead to behaviours that foster greater employee involvement and engagement, as displayed in employees' performance on work assignments. This ultimately results in organisational effectiveness.

Understanding motivation provided a method and framework for this research study as a means to better understand employee work behaviour, and ultimately how it affects job satisfaction levels (Abulof, 2017; Cook et al., 2017; Maslow, 1987; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2010; Taormina & Gao, 2013). The extent to which motivational needs are fulfilled through the job itself is the point in which theories of motivation intersect with and form connections to job satisfaction theory, which was a key foundational aspect of this research aim.

According to Herzberg (1971), Levy (2016) and Wan Fauziah and Tan (2013), intrinsic motivational factors or dimensions are closely linked to job satisfaction dimensions.

Extrinsic factors are crucial dimensions as motivators in job satisfaction (Gerhart & Fang, 2015; Hur, 2018; Kanfer & Chen, 2016; Ryan & Deci, 2013), and it was deemed important in this study to understand the effect of these types of factors (e.g. pay) in manipulating and reinforcing motivational behaviour.

It is the strength to fulfil a need that drives the motivation to perform and experience job satisfaction (Hustinx, Kuyper, Van der Werf, & Dijkstra, 2009; Kinicki & Kreitner, 2012; McClelland, 1961).

Lawter, Kopelman, and Prottas (2015) and McGregor (1960) have posited that employees are motivated to achieve outstanding results in the performance of their jobs, as this in and of itself promotes job satisfaction.

Perceptions of equity result in increased motivation and job satisfaction which, in turn, lead to more robust organisational outcomes (Scheer, Kumar, & Steenkamp, 2003; Trevor, Reilly, & Gerhart, 2012). Employees who participate in goal setting are, according to Locke and Latham (2012), more motivated to perform in order to achieve these goals and experience greater job satisfaction.

The stronger an employee's self-efficacy and confidence to perform tasks associated with their goals (Bandura, 1997; Latham, Stajkovic, & Locke, 2010; Lunenberg, 2011c; Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998), the greater the motivation and performance level, culminating in higher levels of job satisfaction.

In summary, employee motivation is a key foundational factor in an understanding of the job satisfaction variable that was examined in this study, and empirically explored as part of a model of organisational effectiveness.

9.2.2 Conclusions relating to research aim 2

The aim of the literature review in this area was to examine the impact job satisfaction has on organisational effectiveness. The discussion began with a historical review of job satisfaction as an area of significant industrial and organisational psychology research. According to Judge, Parker, Colbert, Heller, and Ilies (2002) and Koppes (2014), historically, job satisfaction may be the topic of greatest global research interest by industrial and organisational psychologists. This aim was achieved in Chapter 3.

The common denominator of most research in this area has been to identify and better understand job satisfaction in terms of the factors that cause it and the impact it may have on other dimensions of an organisation, such as, in the case of this research, organisational effectiveness.

The conclusions set out below were drawn regarding the literature review research aim of examining the impact of job satisfaction on organisational effectiveness.

It was concluded (Sundaray, 2011; Zhou & George, 2001) that employees who experience high and sustained levels of job satisfaction also make contributions to organisational effectiveness through engagement. Conversely, low job satisfaction results in less engagement and organisational performance.

Another conclusion, supported in the literature review (Ferris et al., 1998; Sikora, Ferris, & Van Iddekinge, 2015), indicated that there is a relationship between job satisfaction and organisational effectiveness. This was based on research (Ferris et al., 1998; Sikora et al., 2015) suggesting that one's perception of job satisfaction has an influence on as well as perhaps a direct cause-and-effect relationship with employee performance, thus leading to operational organisational effectiveness outcomes.

The conclusion was drawn that job satisfaction has an effect on organisational effectiveness outcomes, as indicated in the service profit chain model (Heskett & Sasser, 2010b; Heskett, Sasser, & Schlesinger, 1997). This model shows a link between employee job satisfaction and organisational outcomes associated with organisational success such as profitability, customer satisfaction, revenues growth and customer loyalty.

Job satisfaction has been shown by some researchers (Ferris et al., 1998; Ryan, Schmit, & Johnson, 1996; Sikora et al., 2015) to have an influence on and possibly a direct cause-and-effect relationship with employee performance operationalised through observable workplace behaviours, leading to organisational effectiveness.

A widely observed theme of the literature review and conclusion supporting this research aim was that job satisfaction is correlated with organisational effectiveness and success (Ryan et al., 1996).

A common theme and conclusion drawn from the literature review that addressed this research aim was that employees experiencing job satisfaction tend to behave in a manner exemplifying organisational citizenship behaviours (Andrew & Sofian, 2011; Hom, Caranikas-Walker, Prussia, & Griffeth, 1992; Li, Liang, & Crant, 2010; Organ, 1990; 2013; Podsakoff, Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Maynes, & Spoelma 2014; Welch, 2011). From a work performance perspective, this then contributes to organisational effectiveness.

According to Podsakoff, Whiting, Podsakoff, and Blume (2009) and Wanous and Lawler (1974), job satisfaction leads to positive performance outcomes which, in turn, influence organisational effectiveness.

Positive performance emanating from job satisfaction serves as greater motivation, leading to increased job satisfaction and, in turn, organisational effectiveness (Dugguh & Dennis, 2014; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2018; Wanous & Lawler, 1974). This also demonstrates the intersection between motivation and job satisfaction, which was discussed in relation to the research aim conclusion on motivation.

Kim (2002) and Netemeyer, Maxham, and Lichtenstein (2010) suggested that individuals who experience consistent job satisfaction become active participants in their company's strategic planning process and play a contributory role in the company achieving organisational effectiveness. According to Anitha (2014), job satisfaction expressed in terms of employee engagement/performance has shown high correlation, $r = .59$, with organisational effectiveness.

Job satisfaction as expressed by trust in leadership (Ellis & Shockley-Zalabak, 2001) results in increased organisational effectiveness, with the canonical $r = .69$, $p < .001$.

According to Butts, Casper, and Yang (2013), job satisfaction with work-family human resource policies is correlated with organisational effectiveness outcomes with the canonical $r = .86$.

Gittell, Seidner, and Wimbush (2010) and Vandenberg, Richardson, and Eastman (1999) found that organisational practices and policies have a positive impact on employee involvement, resulting in an influence on organisational effectiveness.

A model (Heskett & Sasser, 2010b; Pugh, Dietz, Wiley, & Brooks, 2002; Tornow & Wiley, 1991) linking the internal work environment and its impact on formulating job satisfaction opinions with customer satisfaction and financial performance outcomes (e.g. profit and revenue growth), while similar to the model presented in this study, does not include the construct of leadership as a key aspect of organisational effectiveness.

According to Watkin and Hubbard (2003), the influence of organisational climate, through job satisfaction, on organisational effectiveness has been identified by some researchers as being responsible for as much as 30% of the differential in identified metrics of organisational performance.

In summary, it can be concluded that the literature review research aim of examining the impact of job satisfaction on organisational effectiveness was achieved in Chapter 3.

9.2.3 Conclusions relating to research aim 3

A summary of the conclusions that were drawn on the basis of the literature review in support of this research aim are discussed in this section. The focus of this research aim was to conceptualise the influence of leadership on organisational effectiveness. This aim was achieved in Chapter 4.

A number of conclusions that were drawn on the basis of the literature review on the influence of leadership on organisational effectiveness are discussed below.

A common theme in all these definitions and a conclusion centres on individuals (leaders) motivating and guiding others (followers) to achieve and sustain high levels of individual performance, leading to organisational effectiveness and successful performance (Achua & Lussier, 2010; Bass 2008; Daft & Marcic, 2009; 2016; DePree, 2011; Kotter, 2012; Kouzes & Posner, 2017; Nohria & Khurana, 2010; Northouse 2014; Yukl, 2012). Other common themes in the definition of leadership focus on consensus building, articulating a vision, demonstrating integrity and decision making.

It can be concluded that understanding the dyadic relationship exchanges between a leader and subordinate is, according to Bass (2008) and Hollander (2012), fundamental to gaining insight into individual and organisational results such as organisational effectiveness derived from the influence of leadership.

The conclusion can be drawn that leaders who foster and integrate a culture throughout the organisation that contributes to the attainment and sustainability of high levels of performance,

can positively influence organisational effectiveness (Achua & Lussier, 2010; Schein, 2004; 2016).

Another conclusion is that intra-individual process factors of social and emotional communication skills demonstrated through leadership behaviours (Achua & Lussier, 2010; Furtner, Rauthmann, & Sachse, 2010; Riggio, 2010; Riggio & Reichard, 2008; Riggio, Riggio, Salinas, & Cole, 2003) have been shown to influence organisational effectiveness.

The conclusion can be drawn that leadership behaviour (Druskat & Wheeler, 2003; Kasemsap, 2013) has a significant impact on the performance of self-managed work teams and organisational effectiveness.

Another conclusion is that leadership effectiveness is dependent on the particular situation and dynamics of the interrelationships between the leader, follower(s) and the environment. According to Antonakis and House (2002) and Stahl and Sully de Luque (2014), it is not only the situation, but also the strength of the situational or contextual factors that shapes the rigidity or flexibility of leadership behaviour and ultimately influences organisational effectiveness.

The conclusion can be drawn that leadership behaviours that integrate behavioural, power and influence, trait and situational dimensions have a more positive influence on organisational effectiveness (Achua & Lussier, 2010; Avolio, 2007; Chemers, 2014; Yukl, 2012).

As posited by Ramchunder and Martins (2014), it can be concluded that there is a significant correlation between emotional intelligence and leadership effectiveness.

It can be shown conclusively (Zaccaro, Kemp, & Bader, 2004; 2018) that during the period of 1990 to 2003, there were a growing number of empirical studies in support of various leadership trait attributes associated with positive leadership outcomes such as organisational effectiveness.

A common theme and conclusion that can be drawn (Ulrich & Smallwood, 2003; 2012a; Ulrich, Zenger, & Smallwood, 1999) is that leadership that is focused on results centred on employees, customers, organisational assets/capital and investors, has the greatest positive influence on organisational effectiveness.

Another common theme and conclusion (Hamel, 2000) regarding this research aim is that effective leadership practices during periods of significant change and business paradigm shifts are integral to achieving and maintaining organisational effectiveness.

The ability of a company to achieve and sustain organisational effectiveness is mainly dependent upon the way in which people in management carry out their leadership responsibilities (Boyatzis, Boyatzis & McKee, 2005; Goleman, Boyatzis, & McKee, 2013).

The conclusion can be drawn that the impact of leadership on organisational effectiveness and performance, according to Hartnell, Ou, and Kinicki (2011) and Ogbonna and Harris (2000) is mediated by the type of organisational culture, with leadership being linked to both competitive and innovative culture. This results in a positive influence on organisational effectiveness and performance. This is especially so (Kim, Kim, & Kim, 2011; Murphy & Reichard, 2012) in transformational leadership practices and development of culture having a positive influence on organisational effectiveness.

An additional conclusion is that a visionary leadership style has a positive impact on organisational effectiveness (Taylor, Cornelius, & Colvin, 2014).

It can be concluded on the basis of the literature reviewed (Ulrich & Smallwood, 2003; 2012b; Ulrich et al., 1999) that leaders who place the emphasis on developing the talents of the individuals in their organisations by enhancing their knowledge, intellectual capital and experiences, are bolstering these individuals' capabilities to achieve and improve organisational effectiveness.

Another relevant conclusion based on the literature review (Kim et al., 2011; Murphy & Riggio, 2012; Ogbonna & Harris, 2000) is that when leaders devote time to nurturing a positive employee-/customer-centred organisational culture, organisational effectiveness performance measures improve.

It can also be concluded on the strength of the literature review (Taylor et al., 2014) that visionary leaders, as well as leaders who practise transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2010; Burke, 2008; Conger & Riggio, 2012; Murphy & Riggio, 2012), have a direct impact on improved organisational effectiveness.

Based on the literature (Dobre, 2013; Lawler, 1992; Lawler & Worley, 2011; Riordan, Vandenberg, & Richardson, 2005; Wood, Van Veldhoven, Croon, & De Menezes, 2012), leaders who develop an employee-based high involvement organisation enhance organisational effectiveness.

An additional conclusion based on the literature focused on the relationship between leadership and organisational effectiveness (Hartnell et al., 2011) is that leaders who create

and support a positive and integrated and balanced culture achieve greater organisational effectiveness levels.

Hence in summary, it can be concluded that the research aim to assess the influence of leadership on organisational effectiveness was achieved in Chapter 4.

9.2.4 Conclusions relating to research aim 4

The specific literature review research aim in this area was to determine the effect of customer satisfaction on organisational effectiveness. This research aim was achieved in Chapter 5.

A summary of the conclusions drawn on the basis of the literature review supporting this research aim is presented below.

It can be concluded that employees, management and human resource policies play a role in improving customer satisfaction which, in turn, has a positive effect on organisational effectiveness.

A conclusion and common theme that emerged is that the linkage between employee job satisfaction and customer satisfaction, and how this, in turn, contributes to organisational effectiveness and performance, has merit (Bowen, 2016; Conway & Briner, 2015; Heskett et al., 2010; Hallowell & Schlesinger, 2000; Pugh et al., 2002; Rucci, Kim, & Quinn, 1998; Taylor, 2002; Tornow & Wiley, 1991; Wiley, 2010a; Wiley & Brooks, 2000). An example of this the value profit chain (Heskett et al., 2003; 2010), which attempts to address both the employee job satisfaction and customer satisfaction variables in terms of an approach to understanding organisational effectiveness. However, it falls short because it does not provide a measurement instrument to assess this.

It can be concluded that the relationship between employees expressing satisfaction with their jobs and customer satisfaction (Conway & Briner, 2015; Reichheld, 2001b) is dual directional, with employees influencing customer satisfaction and customers affecting employee satisfaction, and each having an influence on organisational effectiveness.

An important common theme and conclusion from the literature review (Bowen, 2016) is that customer satisfaction has a linkage to and a direct influence on employee satisfaction and, in turn, organisational effectiveness.

Another significant conclusion (Conway & Briner, 2015; Jeon & Choi, 2012; Reichheld, 1993; 2006) is that employee/customer linkages lead to positive relationships and build a strong

identity with the organisation, employee/customer satisfaction and effective sustainable organisations.

It can be concluded (Brooks, Wiley, & Hause, 2006; Wiley, 2010a; Wiley & Brooks, 2000) that consistent support between employee self-description of the work environment quality, the level of product and service performance and customer satisfaction associated with employees engaged in that work environment, lead to results generated through that work environment in the form of organisational effectiveness and financial and marketing performance outcomes and metrics.

Another conclusion (Heskett et al., 2003; 2010) is that a customer service culture enhances service performance and customer satisfaction, leading to organisational effectiveness outcomes such as long-term relationships between customers and the organisation.

The conclusion drawn (Heskett et al., 2010; Rust, Moorman, & Dickson, 2002; Sun & Kim, 2013) is that customer satisfaction has a positive effect on organisational effectiveness outcomes regarding the financial performance metrics of return on assets (ROA), return on investment (ROI) and profit margin (PM).

It can also be concluded (Anderson, Fornell, & Lehmann, 1994; Bernhardt, Donthu, & Kennett, 2000; Hartnell et al., 2011; Rust & Zahorik, 1993; Sundaray, 2011) theoretically and empirically that organisations that succeed in attaining high levels of customer satisfaction will achieve higher levels of organisational effectiveness and financial performance.

It can be concluded that improved customer relationship management (CRM) (Keramati, Mehrabi, & Mojir, 2010) is a key component contributing to customer retention and organisational effectiveness, including financial performance.

Another conclusion (Anderson et al., 1997; Hong, Liao, Hu, & Jiang, 2013) is that a positive relationship exists between both customer satisfaction and loyalty and organisational effectiveness and performance, as measured in financial terms.

Conclusions can be drawn (Loveman, 1998; Yee, Yeung, & Cheng, 2011) that there are relationships between internal service quality and employee satisfaction, employee loyalty and satisfaction and customer satisfaction, and customer loyalty and organisational profitability.

In summary, the literature review research aim of determining the effect of customer satisfaction on organisational effectiveness was achieved in chapter 5.

9.2.5 Conclusions relating to research aim 5

A summary of the conclusions reached from the literature review supporting this research aim is provided below. This research aim was achieved in Chapter 6.

This research aim was focused on exploring and developing a foundation for an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness based on interdependencies and integrated relationships between the job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction variables.

A historical perspective of the development of organisational effectiveness as a construct was presented to lay the foundation for the theories that have emerged on this topic.

Models of organisational effectiveness emanated from the early organisational theories which examined organisations from the perspective of the key aspects of effectiveness. Initially, five distinct theories of organisational effectiveness models were identified as proposed in the literature, and these were subsequently followed by the development of a more integrated model.

The conclusion that can be drawn from the literature on organisational effectiveness theories and models is that each theory and model has its own key focus points, and that a consistent universally accepted theory has not emerged from the literature review, and probably never will.

The central theme of the different organisational effectiveness model theories includes areas such as the following: goal attainment; resource acquisition and deployment in pursuit of performance objectives; harmony and commonality of purpose as efficiently as possible with regard to their internal processes and operations; the focus on satisfying the needs of a spectrum of internal and external constituencies or stakeholders; a human relations culture with an emphasis on employee participation; and a theme that incorporates aspects of the other five models into what is known as a competing value framework.

Another conclusion is that the term “organisational performance” is often regarded as a synonym for “organisational effectiveness”. This also applies when distinctions are made between the two constructs, in that a research preference may be tilted towards organisational performance as a research construct because of its focus on measurable operating performance factors.

It can be concluded that the organisational effectiveness models which include goal, resource dependence, internal congruence, strategic constituency, human relations and the integrated competing values framework (Ashraf, 2012; Cameron & McNaughtan, 2015; Cameron &

Quinn, 2011; Cameron & Whetten, 2015; Hartnell et al., 2011) contribute to organisational effectiveness.

Another conclusion, based on a review of the research literature on organisational effectiveness in relation to the interdependencies and relationships between the three research construct factors of job satisfaction, leadership and organisational effectiveness, confirmed that a model such as the one developed and proposed in this study had not been previously examined.

It can be concluded that the service profit chain model (Heskett & Sasser, 2010b; Heskett et al., 1997), which suggests a link between employee job satisfaction, customer satisfaction and organisational effectiveness outcomes (e.g. profitability and revenue growth), does not integrate the leadership variable in the same way as the model developed and proposed in this research. Also, as part of this conclusion, the service profit chain model does not provide a valid and reliable measurement instrument for assessing the impact of its key components on organisational effectiveness.

The research that was conducted for this study demonstrated commonality of interests and values between the constituents, namely employees, leaders of the organisation and customers, which makes the model developed here an original method for measuring organisational effectiveness.

Again, the research aim of developing the foundations for an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness was achieved in Chapter 6.

9.3 CONCLUSIONS RELATING TO THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

The general empirical aim of this study was to determine whether an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness, based on the interdependencies and relationships between job satisfaction, organisational leadership and customer satisfaction, can be established and supported empirically.

This section provides a summary of the status of the specific empirical aims. All of the specific empirical aims set out in Chapter 1 were achieved, based on the research findings presented in Chapter 8.

The specific empirical research conclusions are discussed below, following a list of the specific research aims for the empirical research phase.

- **Research aim 1:** To explore empirically explore whether there are interdependencies and the relationships between job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction, as axis indicators of the latent variable and how they collectively and in an integrated way affect organisational effectiveness
- **Research aim 2:** To empirically examine the effect of job satisfaction in an integrated model of organisational effectiveness
- **Research aim 3:** To empirically examine the effect of leadership in an integrated model of organisational effectiveness
- **Research aim 4:** To empirically examine the effect of internal customer satisfaction in an integrated model of organisational effectiveness
- **Research aim 5:** To empirically examine the effect of external customer satisfaction in an integrated model of organisational effectiveness
- **Research aim 6:** To identify if an organisational effectiveness model survey is a valid and reliable instrument for measuring job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness

9.3.1 Conclusions relating to research aim 1

The empirical research aims associated with each of the constructs examined in this research study (i.e. leadership, job satisfaction and customer satisfaction) and conclusions that were drawn in support of each of these aims, are discussed below.

It was shown that an analysis of the individual constructs of leadership, job satisfaction and customer satisfaction demonstrated a statistically meaningful correlation in each of the three constructs, resulting in the conclusion that each of them played a contributory role in an organisational effectiveness model.

The research conducted for this study demonstrated commonality of values between job satisfaction, organisational leadership and customer satisfaction, making this integrated approach a valid and reliable method for understanding organisational effectiveness.

As a result of this and the statistically meaningful correlations and interrelationships across all the factors and dimensions of the three constructs collectively, this aim of determining whether there is an integrated relationship between the three constructs as part of a model for measuring organisational effectiveness was achieved.

These findings were pivotal in underscoring the research aim to empirically explore whether there are interdependencies and a relationship between leadership, job satisfaction and

customer satisfaction, and how they affect organisational effectiveness in the context of a theoretical model of organisational effectiveness.

9.3.2 Conclusions relating to research aim 2

Regarding the JDI construct factors or variables (work on present job, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, people in your present job and job in general), the findings indicated a large or medium practical significant correlation effect size in relation to the entire leadership practices construct factors of model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act and encourage the heart.

The correlation scores ranged between $r = .34$ and $r = .64$ for each of the factors of the job satisfaction construct and each of the factors of the leadership construct, and all the positive correlation effect sizes were a mix of large and medium in this relationship.

The correlation scores ranged between $r = .38$ and $r = .68$ for each of the factors of the job satisfaction construct, and each of the factors of the internal customer satisfaction construct. All the positive correlation effect sizes were either large or medium in this relationship.

The results indicated that the JDI construct factors or variables (work on present job, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, people in your present job and job in general) had a large or medium practical significant correlation effect size in relation to all the external customer satisfaction construct factors of image of the company, contacts with clients, client relations, value added, competence, quality of service, cost effectiveness, decision making and focus.

The correlation scores had a range of $r = .42$ to $r = .63$ between each of the factors of the job satisfaction construct and each of the factors of the external customer satisfaction construct, and positive correlation effect sizes of medium or large in this relationship.

In terms of the strength of these relationships between the construct factors of job satisfaction and leadership practices, and job satisfaction and both internal and external customer satisfaction, the following conclusion can be drawn: The role of job satisfaction as a statistically meaningful construct of an organisational effectiveness model that includes leadership practices and internal and external customer satisfaction has been confirmed.

9.3.3 Conclusions relating to research aim 3

All the relationships between each of the factors comprising the leadership practices construct of model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act and encourage the heart, had a positive relationship and correlation with the job satisfaction

construct factors of work on present job, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, people in your present job and job in general.

The correlation scores ranged between $r = .43$ and $r = .69$ for each of the factors of the leadership practices construct and each of the factors of the job satisfaction construct, and all but two of the correlation effect sizes were large in this relationship. In two instances there was a medium effect size. Based on the strength of these relationships between the construct factors of leadership practices and job satisfaction, their role as statistically meaningful factors and components of an organisational effectiveness model was confirmed.

Correlation scores ranged between $r = .35$ and $r = .68$ for each of the factors of the leadership practices construct and each of the factors of the internal customer satisfaction construct, and all the positive correlation effect sizes were either large or medium in this relationship.

The correlation scores ranged between $r = .42$ and $r = .65$ for each of the factors of the leadership practices construct and each of the factors of the external customer satisfaction construct. All of the positive correlation effect sizes were a mix of both large and medium in this relationship.

Based on the strength of these relationships between the construct factors of leadership practices and job satisfaction, and leadership practices and both internal and external customer satisfaction, the following conclusion can be drawn: The role of leadership practices as a statistically meaningful construct of an organisational effectiveness model that includes job satisfaction and both internal and external customer satisfaction was confirmed.

9.3.4 Conclusions relating to research aim 4

In the case of the internal customer satisfaction construct factors or variables (image of the company, contact with clients, client relations, value added, competence, quality of service, cost effectiveness, decision making and focus), there was either a large or medium practical significant correlation effect size in relation to the leadership practices construct factors of model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act and encourage the heart.

The correlation scores indicated a range of $r = .35$ to $r = .67$ between each of the factors of the internal customer satisfaction construct and each of the factors of the leadership practices construct. Also, positive correlation effect sizes of medium or large were evident in this relationship.

A review of the internal customer satisfaction construct factors or variables (image of the company, contact with clients, client relations, value added, competence, quality of service, cost effectiveness, decision making and focus) indicated that there were large or medium practical significant correlation effect size in relation to the job satisfaction construct factors of work on present job, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, people in your present job and job in general.

The correlation scores indicated a range of $r = .36$ to $r = .65$ between each of the internal customer satisfaction construct factors and each of the job satisfaction construct factors, and positive correlation effect sizes of medium or large were evident in this relationship.

Based on the strength of these relationships between the construct factors of internal customer satisfaction and the leadership practices and job satisfaction construct factors, the following conclusion was drawn: The role of perceptions of internal customer satisfaction as a statistically meaningful construct of an organisational effectiveness model that includes leadership practices and job satisfaction was confirmed.

9.3.5 Conclusions relating to research aim 5

Regarding the external customer satisfaction construct factors or variables (image of the company, contact with clients, client relations, value added, competence, quality of service, cost effectiveness, decision making and focus), there were both large and medium practical significant correlation effect sizes in relation to the leadership practices construct factors of model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act and encourage the heart.

The correlation scores indicated a range of $r = .37$ to $r = .67$ between each of the factors of the external customer satisfaction construct and each of the factors of the leadership practices construct. In addition, positive correlation effect sizes of medium or large were evident in this relationship.

Regarding the external customer satisfaction construct factors or variables (image of the company, contact with clients, client relations, value added, competence, quality of service, cost effectiveness, decision making and focus), the results demonstrated that there were both large and medium practical significant correlation effect sizes in relation to the job satisfaction construct factors of work on present job, pay, opportunities for promotion, supervision, people in your present job and job in general.

The correlation scores indicated a range of $r = .39$ and $r = .68$ between each of the factors of the external customer satisfaction construct and each of the factors of the job satisfaction construct. Positive correlation effect sizes of medium or large were evident in this relationship.

Based on the strength of these relationships between the construct factors of external customer satisfaction and the leadership practices and job satisfaction construct factors, the following conclusion was drawn: The role of external customer satisfaction as a statistically meaningful construct of an organisational effectiveness model that includes leadership practices and job satisfaction was confirmed.

9.3.6 Conclusions relating to research aim 6

The conclusion was drawn that the organisational effectiveness model survey was a valid and reliable instrument for measuring leadership, job satisfaction and customer satisfaction in the context of an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness. This conclusion was based on the findings of the statistical analyses that were conducted and discussed in this section.

The various analyses for the independent variables or factors, which included a review of communalities in conjunction with Bartlett's test of sphericity, the Kaiser-Meyer-Okin (KMO) value and the goodness of fit test for conducting structured equation modelling (SEM) all underscored the aim pertaining to the organisational effectiveness survey model.

The KMO values for the LPI, JDI and CSI in exceeding the generally recognised standard of .5 (Babbie, 2015; Child, 2006; Hair et al., 2010) also supported the aim relating to the organisational survey model. Bartlett's test of sphericity scores of 0 (Hair et al., 2010) also provided statistical acceptability and support for achieving this aim pertaining to the organisational effectiveness survey model.

All of the Cronbach alpha internal consistency reliability coefficients for the LPI, JDI and CSI at $> .70$ (DeVellis, 2003; Hair et al., 2010) provided another indication of support of the aim pertaining to the organisational effectiveness survey model.

The LPI, JDI and CSI mean scores for the inter-item correlations falling in the $r = .24$ to $r = .39$ range in terms of variability between items was yet another indication (Clark & Wesson, 1995; Hair et al., 2010; Mead & Craig, 2012) of support for the aim pertaining to the organisational effectiveness survey model.

The results of the standardised maximum likelihood estimates demonstrated high factor loadings between the manifest and latent variables for all of the construct factors with a range

of 0.739 to 0.873. Hence one could ultimately say that this was reflected in the efficacy of the organisational effectiveness model and attainment of this empirical aim.

It can be concluded that this specific aim was achieved based on the statistical analyses that are discussed.

Leadership practices survey scores

The range in the mean scores for the leadership practices portion of the organisational effectiveness model survey was 3.91 to 4.32. Mean scores in excess of 3.5 on a five-point Likert response scale (Aron et al., 2013; Hair et al., 2010) are deemed to represent statistically meaningful scores and positive results. Other researchers (Castro & Martins, 2010; Ledimo, 2012) have posited that scores above 3.20 are deemed to indicate positive results. The mean scores for the LPI factor subscales were all above both suggested levels, demonstrating satisfaction with leadership practices among the organisational effectiveness model survey participants.

Job satisfaction survey scores

For the job satisfaction portion of the organisational effectiveness model survey, the mean scores were in the range of 3.60 to 4.25. Mean scores in excess of 3.5 on a five-point Likert response scale (Aron et al., 2013; Hair et al., 2010) are deemed to represent statistically meaningful scores and positive results. Other researchers (Castro & Martins, 2010; Ledimo, 2012) have postulated that scores above 3.20 indicate positive results. The mean scores for the JDI factor subscales were all above both suggested levels, underscoring satisfaction with job satisfaction among the organisational effectiveness model survey participants.

Customer satisfaction (internal) survey scores

The mean scores for the customer satisfaction (internal) factor subscales indicated a range of 3.62 to 4.35. Mean scores for all the factor subscales of the CSI (Aron et al., 2013; Hair et al., 2010) exceeded the recommended 3.5 level on a five-point Likert response scale, as well as the suggested 3.20 level (Castro & Martins, 2010; Ledimo, 2012), demonstrating both meaningful positive results, and that the internal survey participants perceived satisfaction with the customer service provided by the organisation.

Customer satisfaction (external) survey scores

Mean scores for the customer satisfaction (external) factor subscales indicated a range of 3.78 and 4.43. Mean scores for all the factor subscales of the CSI (Aron et al., 2013; Hair et al., 2010) exceeded the recommended 3.5 level on a five-point Likert response scale, as well as the suggested 3.20 level (Castro & Martins, 2010; Ledimo, 2012). This demonstrated both

meaningful positive results and the fact that the external survey participants were satisfied with the customer service provided by the organisation.

9.4 SUMMARY OF THE ORGANISATIONAL EFFECTIVENESS MODEL

In essence, this model is a loop type of self-contained and closed structural model of organisational effectiveness comprising latent constructs or variables of leadership practices, employee job satisfaction and customer satisfaction, in an axis relationship consistent with the approved title of this study, together with the research hypotheses. The SEM model is confirmed by the empirical assessment set out in Figure 9.1:

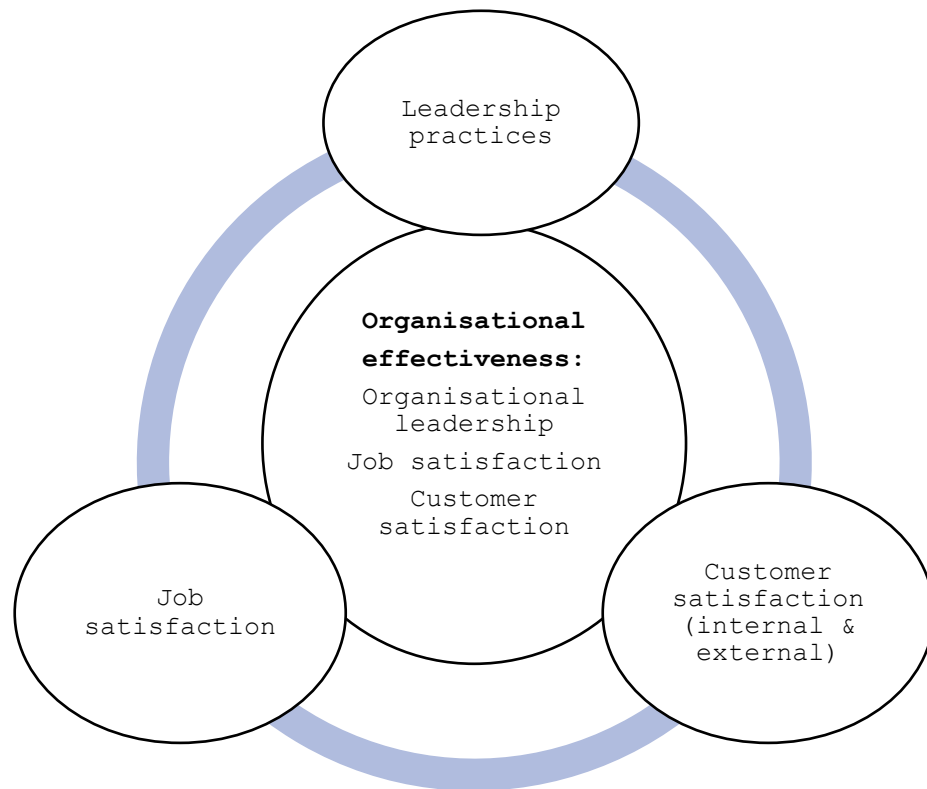
Figure 9.1

The Structured Equation Model (SEM) of Organisational Effectiveness

Latent variables (constructs)		Factors	Estimates	Significant	Covariance
Leadership practices	→	Job satisfaction	.91	Yes	.34
Leadership practices	→	Customer satisfaction	.87	Yes	.28
Job satisfaction	→	Customer satisfaction	.83	Yes	.33
Job satisfaction	→	Leadership practices	.81	Yes	.31
Customer satisfaction (internal)	→	Job satisfaction	.78	Yes	.29
Customer satisfaction (internal)	→	Leadership practices	.75	Yes	.30
Customer satisfaction (external)	→	Job satisfaction	.82	Yes	.32
Customer satisfaction (external)	→	Leadership practices	.77	Yes	.29

The theoretical model of organisational effectiveness is depicted in Figure 9.2.

Figure 9.2
Theoretical Model of Organisational Effectiveness



- | | | |
|----------------------------------|---|--|
| Leadership practices | ➡ | positive effect on employee job satisfaction |
| Leadership practices | ➡ | positive effect on customer satisfaction |
| Employee job satisfaction | ➡ | positive effect on customer satisfaction |
| Employee job satisfaction | ➡ | positive effect on leadership practices |
| Customer satisfaction (internal) | ➡ | positive effect on employee job satisfaction |
| Customer satisfaction (internal) | ➡ | positive effect on leadership practices |
| Customer satisfaction (external) | ➡ | positive effect on job satisfaction |
| Customer satisfaction (external) | ➡ | positive effect on leadership practices |

9.5 CONCLUSIONS RELATING TO THE CENTRAL RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

As stated in Chapter 1, the central research hypothesis of this study was formulated as follows:

A new integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness, based on the interdependencies and relationships between the research construct factors of job

satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction can be established and empirically supported.

Firstly, a review of the literature established that a theoretical model of organisational effectiveness based on the relationships between the construct factors contained in this model was not part of the existing body of knowledge on organisational effectiveness.

Secondly, when the model was tested through use of the questionnaire during the empirical phase of the research, the results indicated statistical evidence in support of the theoretical model.

In conclusion, based on the results of the literature review and supporting statistically significant empirical findings demonstrated in this study, the central research hypothesis was accepted and the null hypothesis rejected.

9.6 CONCLUSIONS RELATING TO THE SPECIFIC RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The specific research hypotheses formulated in this study and the research conclusions were as follows:

- **H01:** A new integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness based on the interdependencies and relationships between the research construct factors of job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction cannot be established and empirically supported.

Result: Based on the research findings, this hypothesis was rejected.

- **Ha1:** A new integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness based on the interdependencies and relationships between the research construct factors of job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction can be established and empirically supported.

Result: Based on the research findings, this hypothesis was accepted.

- **H02:** Job satisfaction does not have an impact on organisational effectiveness in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness, which also includes the research construct factors of leadership and customer satisfaction.

Result: Based on the research findings, this hypothesis was rejected.

- **Ha2:** Job satisfaction does have an impact on organisational effectiveness in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness, which also includes the research construct factors of leadership and customer satisfaction.

Result: Based on the research findings, this hypothesis was accepted.

- **H03:** Leadership does not have an impact on organisational effectiveness in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness, which also includes the research construct factors of job satisfaction and customer satisfaction.

Result: Based on the research findings, this hypothesis was rejected.

- **Ha3:** Leadership does have an impact on organisational effectiveness in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness, which also includes the research construct factors of job satisfaction and customer satisfaction.

Result: Based on the research findings, this hypothesis was accepted.

- **H04:** Customer satisfaction does not have an impact on organisational effectiveness in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness, which also includes the research construct factors of job satisfaction and leadership.

Result: Based on the research findings, this hypothesis was rejected.

- **Ha4:** Customer satisfaction does have an impact on organisational effectiveness in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness, which also includes the research construct factors of job satisfaction and leadership.

Result: Based on the research findings, this hypothesis was accepted.

- **H05:** The interdependencies and relationships between job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction, and how they collectively impact organisational effectiveness, cannot be proven empirically in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness.

Result: Based on the research findings, this hypothesis was rejected.

- **Ha5:** The interdependencies and relationships between job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction, and how they collectively impact organisational effectiveness, can be proven empirically in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness.

Result: Based on the research findings, this hypothesis was accepted.

9.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This section focuses on the limitations of the research. Limitations pertaining to the literature review are discussed first, followed by a review of the limitations associated with the empirical portion of the research.

9.7.1 Limitations relating to the literature review

The literature review on the impact of job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction on organisational effectiveness within a media organisation, concentrating on the cable, internet and the telecommunications industry in general, was fairly focused and resulted in a number of specific limitations, which are highlighted below.

While the literature review mainly indicated consensus on the variables of job satisfaction and leadership, this was less so regarding customer satisfaction as it relates to the definition. Regarding the roles of these three variables in a model of organisational effectiveness, there was a lack of a total consensus, which was pinpointed as a limitation.

Historically and currently, there has been a meaningful lack of agreement on the definition of organisational effectiveness and thus how to measure it. This lack of consensus results in difficulties when attempting to conduct comparative analyses of the literature available on this topic.

Another limitation of the literature review was the paucity of previous research on organisational effectiveness and the factors that influence and contribute to it. As a research variable, organisational effectiveness has experienced a reduction in the amount of research conducted, particularly in recent decades. This absence of a strong research history to review provides additional challenges for any researcher interested in pursuing this as a research topic in comparison with other topics.

At the outset as an area of research interest, organisational effectiveness received much attention by theorists and researchers. However, largely because of the difficulties in reaching consensus in the research community on what organisational effectiveness is and how to best measure it, research on the subject has declined precipitously.

Another limitation of this research was the historical lack of consensus on what organisational effectiveness is as a construct. Disputes have raged over how to define the construct for quite some time. What specific factors or variables should be a part of organisational effectiveness is another area of disagreement.

Additional limitations in terms of how to distinguish organisational effectiveness from similar but different research areas such as organisational performance, have been another difficulty that posed a challenge in this research and other researchers interested in the topic. This has particularly been the case since the research constructs of organisational effectiveness and organisational performance have been used interchangeably in the research.

Given the absence of consensus on the definition of organisational effectiveness as a research construct, in the literature one would expect there to be a lack of availability of an accepted universal model to examine organisational effectiveness. This was another limitation determined through the literature review phase.

In summary, while the areas highlighted above were limitations of the literature review, they were in fact deemed an opportunity for the researcher in this study.

9.7.2 Limitations relating to the empirical research

There were a number of limitations in the empirical research phase of this study, which are highlighted below.

Since this research was focused on one business organisation, the opportunity to generalise the findings to other organisations in an industry represented by a large number of employees, was deemed a limiting factor.

In addition, and stemming from the previous limitation, because the research was focused on one organisation reflecting one industry, it will not be possible to generalise the findings across the industry.

Also, it is acknowledged and accepted that self reporting questionnaires in quantitative research provide challenges. This in part may be due to (Hanfstingl, 2019; Uher, 2018 and 2021) epistemological and methodological principles and the manner by which self reporting questionnaires, such as the Likert scale, create researchable data. It may also be a function of the inadequateness of universally accepted performance and other organisational objective criteria and indicators. Despite these shortcomings in quantitative research the self reporting method has and continues to be the method available for use in scientific inquiry to examine questions about a sample population in quantitative research.

Another limitation was the paucity of organisational effectiveness questionnaires to test the research hypotheses for the organisational effectiveness model. This prevented comparative analysis and further substantiation of or divergence from the findings of this research.

The participant organisation and its employees and customers were country specific, namely the USA with a macro-level focus. As such the findings did not affect cultural differences, which may have occurred had the participating employees and customers represented different countries.

While the areas discussed above were limitations of the empirical research phase of this particular study, and it is clear that some of these same limitations could be present in other research, they also represent areas of possible future research.

9.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The rules and regulations of the University of South Africa were followed throughout this research study. Specific requirements as set out by the College of Economics and Management Sciences were carefully adhered to. While the research was being conducted, additional policies and procedures as defined by the School of Management Sciences and the Departments of Industrial and Organisational Psychology and Psychology were strictly complied with as required. Ethical compliance for this research was approved by the Ethics Department of the University. Permission to conduct this research was granted by the host organisation.

The researcher maintained the strictest of confidentiality practices throughout the entire study. The participating host organisation was not allowed access to any data collected, and cooperated by making available use of their facilities when needed by the researcher. Anonymity of the survey participants' identities and individual responses to survey questions was maintained at all times, ensuring complete confidentiality throughout the process.

9.9 RECOMMENDATIONS BASED ON THE RESEARCH

The recommendations derived from this research are discussed in this section and presented in terms of recommendations intended for the participating organisation, the field of industrial and organisational psychology and for possible future research.

9.9.1 Recommendations for the participating organisation

The organisation should continue to focus on leadership practices as this has proven to yield significant benefits in the area of employee job satisfaction and customer satisfaction, both externally and internally. This is an opportunity for leaders in the organisation to consider strategies and actions to make those positively perceived customer relationships even stronger.

It is recommended that the organisation continue to maintain the same employee-centred practices that have contributed to both job and customer satisfaction. The organisation could endeavour to enhance even further the strength of supervision, in order to increase its positive effect on client relations.

In addition, the organisation could focus even more on the areas of pay and the job in general. This would enhance this relationship with the ~~these~~ customer satisfaction area and in so doing improve even further perceptions of and attitudes towards employees' pay and jobs in general.

The organisation leaders would be advised to continue focusing on the intrinsic nature of the current work and in designing new work and tasks, because leadership practices are most influenced by employee job satisfaction dimensions dealing with the nature of the work that employees engage in. This, is basically the intrinsic nature of the jobs.

The direct role that organisational leaders fulfill through sound policy implementation and creation of values, has provided a culture that emphasises opportunities for promotion, which should be continued as this has a strong influence on employee satisfaction levels. Leaders of the organisation should also consider approaches in policy that provide greater emphasis on elevating the job in the general perceptions of satisfaction by employees.

Management of the organisation should continue to ensure staffing, training and other support programmes that create the kind of work environment that continues to foster the importance of positive coworker relationship. Consideration should be given to evaluate strategies and supporting action plans focusing on and enhancing competitive pay programs to build a stronger relationship with leadership practices.

Both organisational leaders and employees together need to continue the current level of commitment and energy to ensure that the internal perceptions of the importance of job satisfaction are consistently emphasised. This would improve the likelihood that employees will continue to have the same corresponding positive attitudes towards and perceptions of customer satisfaction. This, in turn, would maintain this strong bilateral relationship between job and customer satisfaction.

In this area, the organisation should attempt to develop strategies and programmes that will improve even more the area of job satisfaction, which may have the effect of enhancing internal perceptions of customer satisfaction levels.

The contribution of the positive internal perception of the relationship between customer satisfaction on the leadership practices construct, should receive continued management focus.

Ongoing management attention should be focused on maintaining and improving internal perceptions of customer satisfaction through various practices of leadership in order to maintain the current positive relationship with leadership practices. The leaders of the organisation and employees should give additional attention to implementing programmes that will further enhance the internal perceptions of both customers' image of the company and focus.

A clear focus on external customer satisfaction should continue. The organisational emphasis on client relations and contact, quality of service, cost effectiveness, value added product and services, customer focus, management competence, decision making and image of the company, will ensure continuing customer satisfaction. Programmes and practices to enhance both leadership effectiveness and employee job satisfaction will further maintain and improve customer satisfaction levels.

The organisation could consider integrating the organisational effectiveness model and the survey questionnaire as part of its ongoing management practices throughout the organisation. The questionnaire could serve as a diagnostic tool in situations such as changes in the management structure, reorganisations and mergers with or acquisitions of other organisations, to name but a few. Also, management could conduct the survey periodically, even during periods of static organisational life.

9.9.2 Recommendations for the field of industrial and organisational psychology

Industrial and organisational psychologists should consider this research on the model of organisational effectiveness as practitioners working with clients who have similar needs in measuring organisational effectiveness, and when conducting their own research on this topic.

This research could provide insights for industrial and organisational psychologists and related professionals to enhance their understanding of organisational effectiveness and the importance of diagnosing and measuring it.

Specific conclusions drawn from the literature review and empirical research conducted could provide industrial and organisational psychologists with valuable ideas in the pursuit of intervention strategies and programmes to improve organisational effectiveness.

This research study along with the results, conclusions and the need to address some of the limitations encountered, will hopefully serve as a catalyst for other industrial and organisational psychologists whether academicians, researchers or practitioners, who have considered conducting studies on this vital but somewhat neglected topic.

Industrial and organisational psychologists who engage in research on organisational effectiveness should be clear in distinguishing this construct from the organisational performance construct, as the two terms are often used interchangeably.

Researchers should also consider comparative studies using this research model of organisational effectiveness, and other models that were discussed in the research presented here to further expand the body of knowledge of organisational effectiveness and the measuring instruments used. This comparative analysis would likely result in further understanding and refinement concerning what model might best fit a specific organisational situation and milieu.

9.9.3 Recommendations for further research

It is imperative to encourage research on the construct of organisational effectiveness, even in the absence of consensus on the meaning of it, and how to measure it, which perhaps in and of itself has been a factor that has contributed to the dearth of research on this construct. The need for organisations to better understand their effectiveness and how this becomes a competitive advantage is essential.

It is anticipated that this organisational effectiveness model will have portability to different cultural needs in terms of its fundamental structure, and not endemic to the USA – hence the likelihood of it being adapted to cater for cultural and country differences.

It is recommended that industrial and organisational psychologists conduct further research using this organisational effectiveness model and measurement method in order to expand the body of knowledge on how specifically job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction individually and as an integrated model influence organisational effectiveness.

Research based on this model should be conducted across diverse industry sectors, which might result in the generalisation of findings or perhaps industry-specific nuances, or both. In either case, this would expand the body of knowledge on organisational effectiveness and its measurability.

The need to reach greater consensus on the meaning of the construct and how to measure it is essential because the absence of fulfilment of these needs has eluded researchers for

decades, and resulted in a vacuum of potentially valuable new knowledge that people could coalesce around.

Another recommendation for the field of industrial and organisational psychology, organisational research and other disciplines would be to encourage and promote research in the area of organisational effectiveness. A consortium of researchers could be formed to standardise the definition of organisational effectiveness and create greater uniformity about what organisational effectiveness should mean as a research area.

Also, it would be ideal to develop a more uniform organisational effectiveness survey questionnaire.

9.10 EVALUATION OF THE RESEARCH

The sections below focus on the evaluation of contributions made by the research. The general empirical aim of the research was to determine whether an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness based on the interdependencies and relationships between job satisfaction, organisational leadership and customer satisfaction could be established and supported empirically. A valid and reliable measurement instrument was created in order to assess the model. It can be concluded that the general empirical aim of the research was achieved.

9.11 CONTRIBUTIONS DERIVED FROM THE RESEARCH

The contributions of the research are discussed in this section, and categorised in terms of the theoretical, empirical and practical levels. First, the way in which the research should make a significant contribution to the theoretical body of knowledge on organisational effectiveness is discussed. This is followed by a review of the way in which the empirical research and findings have added to the knowledge base of organisational effectiveness. The practical contributions of this study are then discussed in order to enhance the level of understanding and knowledge of organisational effectiveness.

9.11.1 Contributions on a theoretical basis

The findings of this research have demonstrated the relevance and importance of the influence of the job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction constructs on the construct of organisational effectiveness and the design of a model to measure it.

The literature review laid the theoretical groundwork for demonstrating the applicability of these variables in developing an organisational effectiveness model.

This research was original from the perspective of combining the three independent constructs into a functional model for defining, measuring and assessing organisational effectiveness in an organisation.

Also, these research findings should afford researchers an opportunity to use this model and approach in other organisations across different industries, countries and cultures, with no or minimal structural change to the model.

This study has expanded the current knowledge base that has been provided by the industrial and organisational psychology research community on the importance of job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction individually as factors in the functioning of organisations. However, this research is original in that these three independent constructs were shown to have additional pertinence as a method for measuring organisational effectiveness, when integrated into a model.

Wiley (2010) proposed linkage research, while others (Heskett et al., 1997; 2003) recommended the service profit chain and the value profit chain approach to improving organisational performance and success. However, while these two approaches have partially similar intentions as the organisational effectiveness model presented in this research, those methods do not integrate the three independent constructs of job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction in a workable model of organisational effectiveness.

In addition, these two other approaches do not include a validated measuring instrument for assessing organisational effectiveness. Hence this research study should make a significant contribution to the body of knowledge on and original research in organisational effectiveness.

9.11.2 Contributions on an empirical basis

One of the contributions of this research from an empirical perspective is the finding on the impact of the three independent constructs of job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction on the construct of organisational effectiveness, as part of an integrated model of organisational effectiveness.

Another contribution is the relationships that emerged between the three independent variables of job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction. The findings have demonstrated through sound statistical results that a meaningful and significant relationship exists between the three independent constructs and organisational effectiveness.

Also, based on the statistical results and the relationship between the independent constructs and the organisational effectiveness construct, there is support for the viability of this organisational effectiveness model and measurement methodology.

9.11.3 Contributions on a practical basis

The organisational effectiveness model is by its very nature practical as its focus is on three key universal fundamental areas of organisational interest, namely job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction. These have been researched as individual constructs in the literature, but not as an integrated set of constructs in relation to organisational effectiveness.

On a practical basis, this research suggests a novel and simplified method that practitioners in the areas of industrial and organisational psychology, organisational change and development and human resources, for example, could conduct organisational effectiveness assessments on the basis of this model.

These assessments could serve as the basis for recommending interventions to enhance organisational effectiveness by implementing strategies, programmes and policies to improve levels of job satisfaction, leadership effectiveness and customer satisfaction.

9.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter provided a summary of the conclusions, limitations and recommendations emanating from the research. The conclusions pertaining to the literature review, empirical study and contributions for industrial and organisational psychologists were highlighted. This was followed by a discussion of the limitations of the research in terms of both the literature review and the empirical study. Recommendations were made for the media and high-tech industry, industrial and organisational psychologists and possible future research.

To reiterate, the following empirical research aims were achieved in this study:

- **Research aim 1:** To explore empirically whether there are interdependencies and the relationships between job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction as axis indicators of the latent variable and how they collectively and in an integrated way affect organisational effectiveness
- **Research aim 2:** To empirically examine the effect of the job satisfaction in an integrated model of organisational effectiveness
- **Research aim 3:** To empirically examine the effect of leadership in an integrated model of organisational effectiveness

- **Research aim 4:** To empirically examine the effect of internal customer satisfaction in an integrated model of organisational effectiveness
- **Research aim 5:** To empirically examine the effect of external customer satisfaction in an integrated model of organisational effectiveness
- **Research aim 6:** To identify if an organisational effectiveness model survey is a valid and reliable instrument for measuring job satisfaction, leadership and customer satisfaction in an integrated theoretical model of organisational effectiveness.

This chapter concludes the research study.

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ANNEXURE A - PEARSON CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Factor	Job satisfaction	r score correlation	P value	Correlation effect size
LPI Model the way	Work on present job	.68	≤.05	Large
	Pay	.59	≤.05	Large
	Opportunities for promotion	.63	≤.05	Large
	Supervision	.65	≤.05	Large
	People in your present job	.61	≤.05	Large
	Job in general	.52	≤.05	Large
LPI Inspire a shared vision	Work on present job	.69	≤.05	Large
	Pay	.57	≤.05	Large
	Opportunities for promotion	.65	≤.05	Large
	Supervision	.63	≤.05	Large
	People in your present job	.60	≤.05	Large
	Job in general	.58	≤.05	Large
LPI Challenge the process	Work on present job	.64	≤.05	Large
	Pay	.62	≤.05	Large
	Opportunities for promotion	.55	≤.05	Large
	Supervision	.60	≤.05	Large
	People in your present job	.48	≤.05	Medium
	Job in general	.61	≤.05	Large
LPI Enable others to act	Work on present job	.61	≤.05	Large
	Pay	.57	≤.05	Large
	Opportunities for promotion	.59	≤.05	Large
	Supervision	.60	≤.05	Large
	People in your present job	.53	≤.05	Large
	Job in general	.55	≤.05	Large
LPI Encourage the heart	Work on present job	.56	≤.05	Large
	Pay	.59	≤.05	Large
	Opportunities for promotion	.62	≤.05	Large
	Supervision	.64	≤.05	Large
	People in your present job	.58	≤.05	Large
	Job in general	.43	≤.05	Medium

Factor	Customer satisfaction (internal)	r score/correlation	P value	Correlation effect size
LPI Model the way	Image of the company	.61	≤.05	Large
	Contact with clients	.64	≤.05	Large
	Client relations	.68	≤.05	Large
	Value added	.59	≤.05	Large
	Competence	.49	≤.05	Medium
	Quality of service	.65	≤.05	Large
	Cost effectiveness	.58	≤.05	Large
	Decision making	.57	≤.05	Large
	Focus	.55	≤.05	Large
LPI Inspire a shared vision	Image of the company	.63	≤.05	Large
	Contact with clients	.68	≤.05	Large
	Client relations	.64	≤.05	Large
	Value added	.53	≤.05	Large
	Competence	.59	≤.05	Large
	Quality of service	.62	≤.05	Large
	Cost effectiveness	.58	≤.05	Large
	Decision making	.55	≤.05	Large
	Focus	.46	≤.05	Medium
LPI Challenge the process	Image of the company	.60	≤.05	Large
	Contact with clients	.65	≤.05	Large
	Client relations	.67	≤.05	Large
	Value added	.45	≤.05	Medium
	Competence	.62	≤.05	Large
	Quality of service	.64	≤.05	Large
	Cost effectiveness	.58	≤.05	Large
	Decision making	.58	≤.05	Large
	Focus	.55	≤.05	Large
LPI Enable others to act	Image of the company	.40	≤.05	Medium
	Contact With clients	.49	≤.05	Medium
	Client relations	.47	≤.05	Medium
	Value added	.43	≤.05	Medium
	Competence	.40	≤.05	Medium
	Quality of service	.52	≤.05	Large
	Cost effectiveness	.39	≤.05	Medium
	Decision making	.38	≤.05	Medium
	Focus	.35	≤.05	Medium
LPI Encourage the heart	Image of the company	.38	≤.05	Medium
	Contact with clients	.45	≤.05	Medium
	Client relations	.43	≤.05	Medium
	Value added	.37	≤.05	Medium
	Competence	.39	≤.05	Medium
	Quality of service	.37	≤.05	Medium
	Cost effectiveness	.53	≤.05	Large
	Decision making	.44	≤.05	Medium
	Focus	.42	≤.05	Medium

Factor	Customer satisfaction (internal)	r score/correlation	P value	Correlation effect size
JDI Work on present job	Image of the company	.59	≤.05	Large
	Contact with clients	.65	≤.05	Large
	Client relations	.67	≤.05	Large
	Value added	.59	≤.05	Large
	Competence	.60	≤.05	Large
	Quality of service	.64	≤.05	Large
	Cost effectiveness	.58	≤.05	Large
	Decision making	.48	≤.05	Medium
	Focus	.60	≤.05	Large
JDI Pay	Image of the company	.38	≤.05	Medium
	Contact with clients	.46	≤.05	Medium
	Client relations	.44	≤.05	Medium
	Value added	.40	≤.05	Medium
	Competence	.38	≤.05	Medium
	Quality of service	.42	≤.05	Medium
	Cost effectiveness	.51	≤.05	Large
	Decision making	.40	≤.05	Medium
	Focus	.41	≤.05	Medium
JDI Opportunity for promotion	Image of the company	.49	≤.05	Medium
	Contact with clients	.65	≤.05	Large
	Client relations	.68	≤.05	Large
	Value added	.58	≤.05	Large
	Competence	.61	≤.05	Large
	Quality of service	.55	≤.05	Large
	Cost effectiveness	.58	≤.05	Large
	Decision making	.61	≤.05	Large
	Focus	.60	≤.05	Large
JDI Supervision	Image of the company	.55	≤.05	Large
	Contact with clients	.59	≤.05	Large
	Client relations	.46	≤.05	Medium
	Value added	.57	≤.05	Large
	Competence	.59	≤.05	Large
	Quality of service	.67	≤.05	Large
	Cost effectiveness	.63	≤.05	Large
	Decision making	.62	≤.05	Large
	Focus	.60	≤.05	Large
JDI People in your present job	Image of the company	.58	≤.05	Large
	Contact with clients	.61	≤.05	Large
	Client relations	.63	≤.05	Large
	Value added	.58	≤.05	Large
	Competence	.47	≤.05	Medium
	Quality of service	.59	≤.05	Large
	Cost effectiveness	.64	≤.05	Large
	Decision making	.60	≤.05	Large
	Focus	.61	≤.05	Large

Factor	Customer satisfaction (internal)	r score/correlation	P value	Correlation effect size
JDI Job in general	Image of the company	.39	≤.05	Medium
	Contact with clients	.38	≤.05	Medium
	Client relations	.44	≤.05	Medium
	Value added	.38	≤.05	Medium
	Competence	.39	≤.05	Medium
	Quality of service	.53	≤.05	Large
	Cost effectiveness	.46	≤.05	Medium
	Decision making	.43	≤.05	Medium
	Focus	.42	≤.05	Medium
Factor	Leadership practices	r score/correlation	P value	Correlation effect size
JDI Work on present job	Model the way	.64	≤.05	Large
	Inspired shared vision	.62	≤.05	Large
	Challenge the process	.58	≤.05	Large
	Enable others to act	.60	≤.05	Large
	Encourage the heart	.59	≤.05	Large
JDI Pay	Model the way	.47	≤.05	Medium
	Inspired shared vision	.43	≤.05	Medium
	Challenge the process	.37	≤.05	Medium
	Enable others to act	.36	≤.05	Medium
	Encourage the heart	.34	≤.05	Medium
JDI Opportunity for promotion	Model the way	.63	≤.05	Large
	Inspired shared vision	.61	≤.05	Large
	Challenge the process	.60	≤.05	Large
	Enable others to act	.56	≤.05	Large
	Encourage the heart	.57	≤.05	Large
JDI Supervision	Model the way	.61	≤.05	Large
	Inspired shared vision	.64	≤.05	Large
	Challenge the process	.56	≤.05	Large
	Enable others to act	.62	≤.05	Large
	Encourage the heart	.58	≤.05	Large
JDI People in your present job	Model the way	.60	≤.05	Large
	Inspire shared vision	.59	≤.05	Large
	Challenge the process	.61	≤.05	Large
	Enable others to act	.58	≤.05	Large
	Encourage the heart	.63	≤.05	Large
JDI Job in general	Model the way	.45	≤.05	Medium
	Inspire shared vision	.39	≤.05	Medium
	Challenge the process	.39	≤.05	Medium
	Enable others to act	.40	≤.05	Medium
	Encourage the heart	.42	≤.05	Medium

Factor	Job satisfaction	r score/correlation	P value	Correlation effect size
CSI Image of the company(internal)	Work on present job	.60	≤.05	Large
	Pay	.58	≤.05	Large
	Opportunities for promotion	.61	≤.05	Large
	Supervision	.64	≤.05	Large
	People in your present job	.58	≤.05	Large
	Job in general	.62	≤.05	Large
CSI Contact with clients (internal)	Work on present job	.65	≤.05	Large
	Pay	.62	≤.05	Large
	Opportunities for Promotion	.63	≤.05	Large
	Supervision	.59	≤.05	Large
	People in your present job	.58	≤.05	Large
	Job in general	.60	≤.05	Large
CSI Client relations (internal)	Work on present job	.64	≤.05	Large
	Pay	.60	≤.05	Large
	Opportunities for promotion	.59	≤.05	Large
	Supervision	.62	≤.05	Large
	People in your present job	.57	≤.05	Large
	Job in general	.55	≤.05	Large
CSI Value added (internal)	Work on present job	.61	≤.05	Large
	Pay	.64	≤.05	Large
	Opportunities for promotion	.58	≤.05	Large
	Supervision	.57	≤.05	Large
	People in your present job	.61	≤.05	Large
	Job in general	.59	≤.05	Large
CSI Competence (internal)	Work on present job	.63	≤.05	Large
	Pay	.61	≤.05	Large
	Opportunities for promotion	.59	≤.05	Large
	Supervision	.59	≤.05	Large
	People in your present job	.57	≤.05	Large
	Job in general	.60	≤.05	Large
CSI Quality of service (internal)	Work on present job	.59	≤.05	Large
	Pay	.63	≤.05	Large
	Opportunities for promotion	.58	≤.05	Large
	Supervision	.65	≤.05	Large
	People in your present job	.62	≤.05	Large
	Job in general	.56	≤.05	Large

Factor	Job satisfaction	r score/correlation	P value	Correlation effect size
CSI Cost effectiveness (internal)	Work on present job	.44	≤.05	Medium
	Pay	.55	≤.05	Large
	Opportunities for promotion	.48	≤.05	Medium
	Supervision	.43	≤.05	Medium
	People in your Present job	.37	≤.05	Medium
	Job in general	.38	≤.05	Medium
CSI Decision making (internal)	Work on present job	.52	≤.05	Large
	Pay	.45	≤.05	Medium
	Opportunities for promotion	.41	≤.05	Medium
	Supervision	.39	≤.05	Medium
	People in your present job	.36	≤.05	Medium
	Job in general	.38	≤.05	Medium
CSI Focus (internal)	Work on present job	.43	≤.05	Medium
	Pay	.38	≤.05	Medium
	Opportunities for promotion	.37	≤.05	Medium
	Supervision	.45	≤.05	Medium
	People in your present job	.40	≤.05	Medium
	Job in general	.42	≤.05	Medium
Leadership practices				
Factor	Leadership practices	r score/correlation	P value	Correlation effect size
CSI Image of the company (internal)	Model the way	.54	≤.05	Large
	Inspire a shared vision	.42	≤.05	Medium
	Challenge the process	.39	≤.05	Medium
	Enable others to act	.38	≤.05	Medium
	Encourage the heart	.35	≤.05	Medium
CSI Contact with clients (internal)	Model the way	.63	≤.05	Large
	Inspire a shared vision	.61	≤.05	Large
	Challenge the process	.59	≤.05	Large
	Enable others to act	.60	≤.05	Large
	Encourage the heart	.57	≤.05	Large
CSI Client relations (internal)	Model the way	.42	≤.05	Medium
	Inspire a shared vision	.45	≤.05	Medium
	Challenge the process	.41	≤.05	Medium
	Enable others to act	.36	≤.05	Medium
	Encourage the heart	.39	≤.05	Medium

Factor	Leadership practices	r score/correlation	P value	Correlation effect size
CSI Value added (internal)	Model the way	.65	≤.05	Large
	Inspire a shared vision	.62	≤.05	Large
	Challenge the process	.59	≤.05	Large
	Enable others to act	.58	≤.05	Large
	Encourage the heart	.60	≤.05	Large
CSI Competence (internal)	Model the way	.61	≤.05	Large
	Inspire a shared vision	.64	≤.05	Large
	Challenge the process	.37	≤.05	Medium
	Enable others to act	.39	≤.05	Medium
	Encourage the heart	.62	≤.05	Large
CSI Quality of service (internal)	Model the way	.40	≤.05	Medium
	Inspire a shared vision	.44	≤.05	Medium
	Challenge the process	.37	≤.05	Medium
	Enable others to act	.39	≤.05	Medium
	Encourage the heart	.42	≤.05	Medium
CSI Cost effectiveness (internal)	Model the way	.61	≤.05	Large
	Inspire a shared vision	.65	≤.05	Large
	Challenge the process	.63	≤.05	Large
	Enable others to act	.59	≤.05	Large
	Encourage the heart	.58	≤.05	Large
CSI Decision making (internal)	Model the way	.60	≤.05	Large
	Inspire a shared vision	.61	≤.05	Large
	Challenge the process	.58	≤.05	Large
	Enable others to act	.62	≤.05	Large
	Encourage the heart	.60	≤.05	Large
CSI Focus (internal)	Model the way	.43	≤.05	Medium
	Inspire a shared vision	.44	≤.05	Medium
	Challenge the process	.41	≤.05	Medium
	Enable others to act	.36	≤.05	Medium
	Encourage the heart	.35	≤.05	Medium

Factor	Leadership practices	r score/correlation	P value	Correlation effect size
CSI Image of the company (external)	Work on present job	.56	≤.05	Large
	Pay	.54	≤.05	Large
	Opportunities for promotion	.62	≤.05	Large
	Supervision	.65	≤.05	Large
	People in your present job	.55	≤.05	Large
	Job in general	.61	≤.05	Large
CSI Contact with clients (external)	Work on present job	.67	≤.05	Large
	Pay	.63	≤.05	Large
	Opportunities for promotion	.65	≤.05	Large
	Supervision	.60	≤.05	Large
	People in your present job	.55	≤.05	Large
	Job in general	.62	≤.05	Large
Factor	Job satisfaction	r score/correlation	P value	Correlation effect size
CSI Client relations (external)	Work on present Job	.62	≤.05	Large
	Pay	.61	≤.05	Large
	Opportunities for promotion	.60	≤.05	Large
	Supervision	.65	≤.05	Large
	People in your present job	.54	≤.05	Large
	Job in general	.59	≤.05	Large
CSI Value added (external)	Work on present job	.59	≤.05	Large
	Pay	.62	≤.05	Large
	Opportunities for promotion	.61	≤.05	Large
	Supervision	.60	≤.05	Large
	People in your present job	.58	≤.05	Large
	Job in general	.60	≤.05	Large
CSI Competence (external)	Work on present job	.66	≤.05	Large
	Pay	.58	≤.05	Large
	Opportunities for promotion	.62	≤.05	Large
	Supervision	.56	≤.05	Large
	People in your present job	.60	≤.05	Large
	Job in general	.57	≤.05	Large

Factor	Job satisfaction	r score/correlation	P value	Correlation effect size
CSI Quality of service (external)	Work on present job	.61	≤.05	Large
	Pay	.59	≤.05	Large
	Opportunities for promotion	.56	≤.05	Large
	Supervision	.67	≤.05	Large
	People in your present job	.64	≤.05	Large
	Job in general	.58	≤.05	Large
CSI Cost effectiveness (external)	Work on present job	.50	≤.05	Large
	Pay	.49	≤.05	Medium
	Opportunities for promotion	.46	≤.05	Medium
	Supervision	.45	≤.05	Medium
	People in your present job	.40	≤.05	Medium
	Job in general	.39	≤.05	Medium
CSI Decision making (external)	Work on present job	.55	≤.05	Large
	Pay	.48	≤.05	Medium
	Opportunities for promotion	.44	≤.05	Medium
	Supervision	.42	≤.05	Medium
	People in your present job	.39	≤.05	Medium
	Job in general	.37	≤.05	Medium
CSI Focus (external)	Work on present job	.46	≤.05	Medium
	Pay	.36	≤.05	Medium
	Opportunities for promotion	.39	≤.05	Medium
	Supervision	.42	≤.05	Medium
	People in your present job	.44	<.05	Medium
	Job in general	.38	<.05	Medium
Leadership practices				
Factor	Leadership practices	r score/correlation	P value	Correlation effect size
CSI Image of the company (external)	Model the way	.52	≤.05	Large
	Inspire a shared vision	.45	≤.05	Medium
	Challenge the process	.42	≤.05	Medium
	Enable others to act	.37	≤.05	Medium
	Encourage the heart	.38	≤.05	Medium
CSI Contact with clients (external)	Model the way	.65	≤.05	Large
	Inspire a shared vision	.62	≤.05	Large
	Challenge the process	.61	≤.05	Large
	Enable others to act	.58	≤.05	Large
	Encourage the heart	.54	≤.05	Large

Factor	Leadership practices	r score/correlation	P value	Correlation effect size
CSI Client relations (external)	Model the way	.40	≤.05	Medium
	Inspire a shared vision	.42	≤.05	Medium
	Challenge the process	.39	≤.05	Medium
	Enable others to act	.38	≤.05	Medium
	Encourage the heart	.42	≤.05	Medium
CSI Value added (external)	Model the way	.67	≤.05	Large
	Inspire a shared vision	.59	≤.05	Large
	Challenge the process	.61	≤.05	Large
	Enable others to act	.55	≤.05	Large
	Encourage the heart	.63	≤.05	Large
CSI Competence (external)	Model the way	.63	≤.05	Large
	Inspire a shared vision	.65	≤.05	Large
	Challenge the process	.39	≤.05	Medium
	Enable others to act	.44	≤.05	Medium
	Encourage the heart	.59	≤.05	Large
CSI Quality of service (external)	Model the way	.37	≤.05	Medium
	Inspire a shared vision	.46	≤.05	Medium
	Challenge the process	.41	≤.05	Medium
	Enable others to act	.40	≤.05	Medium
	Encourage the heart	.39	≤.05	Medium
CSI Cost effectiveness (external)	Model the way	.64	≤.05	Large
	Inspire a shared vision	.62	≤.05	Large
	Challenge the process	.65	≤.05	Large
	Enable others to act	.58	≤.05	Large
	Encourage the heart	.55	≤.05	Large
CSI Decision making (external)	Model the way	.63	≤.05	Large
	Inspire a shared vision	.65	≤.05	Large
	Challenge the process	.59	≤.05	Large
	Enable others to act	.60	≤.05	Large
	Encourage the heart	.58	≤.05	Large
CSI Focus (external)	Model the way	.47	≤.05	Medium
	Inspire a shared vision	.41	≤.05	Medium
	Challenge the process	.39	≤.05	Medium
	Enable others to act	.37	≤.05	Medium
	Encourage the heart	.38	<.05	Medium

**Organizational Survey-Leadership, Job Satisfaction, and Client
Satisfaction Assessment**

October 2017

Compiled by:

Vincent James Gallenti

ORGANIZATIONAL SURVEY

Instructions

Thank you for participating in the survey.

The questionnaire consists of 187 questions.

Please note that this survey is handled completely **confidentially**.

Carefully decide first if you agree or disagree with each statement. Then mark your answer in the applicable block in terms of the extent to which you agree or disagree with the particular statement.

Steps to follow to complete the survey:

Section 1: Leadership Practices Inventory. You are being asked by the person whose name appears at the top of the page (in that section) to assess his or her leadership behaviors. See the detailed instructions in this section. Read each statement and decide if you agree or differ with each statement and mark your answer in the applicable scale item square that best reflects your view by making a check mark in the applicable square.

In **Section 2: Job Descriptive Index.** This questionnaire assesses your satisfaction with your current job and work practices and environment. Follow the instructions in this section.

In **Section 3: Client Satisfaction Index.** This questionnaire assesses the extent to which you experience our clients as satisfied or not with the service they receive from our company. Follow the instructions in this section.

In **Section 4: Biographical Information.** Questions 184 to 187 need to be answered to give a biographical backdrop regarding responses collected through the survey process. This information will enable our organization to better understand any trends related to biographical

information and to develop actions/interventions if needed. Remember all information will be treated as confidential.

Thank you for your participation!

SECTION 1: LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY

LPI – Leadership Practices Inventory

Instructions

You are being asked by the person whose name appears at the top of the next page to assess his or her leadership behaviors. Below the person's name you will find thirty statements describing various leadership behaviors. Please read each statement carefully, and using the rating scale below, ask yourself:

“How frequently does this person engage in the behavior described?”

When selecting your response to each statement:

- Be realistic about the extent to which this person actually engages in the behavior.
- Be as honest and accurate as you can be.
- DO NOT answer in terms of how you would like to see this person behave or in terms of how you think he or she should behave.
- DO answer in terms of how this person typically behaves on most days, on most projects, and with most people.
- Be thoughtful about your responses. For example, giving the person 5's on all items is most likely not an accurate description either. Most people will do some things more or less often than they do other things.
- If you feel that a statement does not apply, it's probably because you don't see or experience the behavior. That means this person does not frequently engage in the behavior, at least around you. In that case, assign a rating of 3 or lower.

For each statement, decide on a response and then make a check mark in the applicable box to the right of the statement. After you have responded to all thirty statements, go back through the LPI one more time to make sure you have responded to each statement. *Every* statement must have a *rating*.

The rating runs from 1 to 5. Choose the number that best applies to each statement:

- 1 = Almost Never
- 2 = Seldom
- 3 = Occasionally
- 4 = Usually
- 5 = Almost always

1. Name of the Leader: _____

2. I (the Observer) am This Leader's: Please check mark (✓) **ONE** of the following boxes

Manager 1

Direct Report 2

Co-Worker 3

Other 4

To what extent does this leader engage in the following behaviors?

Choose the response number that best applies to each statement and check mark the box to the right of the statement.

	Almost Never	Seldom	Occasionally	Usually	Almost Always
He or She:					
3. Sets a personal example of what he/she expects of others.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
4. Talks about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
5. Seeks out challenging opportunities that test his/her own skills and abilities.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
6. Develops cooperative relationships among the people he/she works with.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
7. Praises people for a job well done.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
8. Spends time and energy making certain that the people he/she works with adhere to the principles and standards that we have agreed on.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
9. Describes a compelling image of what our future could be like.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
10. Challenges people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
11. Actively listens to diverse points of view.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
12. Makes it a point to let people know about his/her confidence in their abilities.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5

	Almost Never	Seldom	Occasionally	Usually	Almost Always
13. Follows through on the promises and commitments he/she makes.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
14. Appeals to others to share an exciting dream of the future.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
15. Searches outside the formal boundaries of his/her organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
16. Treats others with dignity and respect.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
17. Makes sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of projects.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
18. Asks for feedback on how his/her actions affect other people's performance.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
19. Shows others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
20. Asks "what can be learned?" when new things don't go as expected.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
21. Supports the decisions that people make on their own.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
22. Publicly recognizes people who exemplify commitment to shared values.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
23. Builds consensus around a common set of values for running our organization.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
24. Paints the "big picture" of what we aspire to accomplish.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
25. Makes certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measureable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
26. Gives people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
27. Finds ways to celebrate accomplishments.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
28. Is clear about his/her philosophy of leadership	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
29. Speaks with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
30. Experiments and takes risks, even when there is a chance of failure.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
31. Ensures that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5

	Almost Never	Seldom	Occasionally	Usually	Almost Always
32. Gives the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5

SECTION 2: JOB DESCRIPTIVE INDEX (JDI)

WORK ON PRESENT JOB

Think of the work you do at present.

How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your work?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree
33. Fascinating	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
34. Routine	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
35. Satisfying	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
36. Boring	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
37. Good	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
38. Gives sense of accomplishment	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
39. Respected	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
40. Exciting	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
41. Rewarding	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
42. Useful	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
43. Challenging	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
44. Simple	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
45. Repetitive	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
46. Creative	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
47. Dull	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
48. Uninteresting	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
49. Can see results	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree
50. Uses my abilities	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5

PAY

Think of the pay you get now.

How well does each of the following words or phrases describe your present pay?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree
51. Income adequate for normal expenses	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
52. Fair	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
53. Barely live on income	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
54. Bad	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
55. Comfortable	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
56. Less than I deserve	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
57. Well paid	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
58. Enough to live on	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
59. Underpaid	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5

OPPORTUNITIES FOR PROMOTION

Think of the opportunities for promotion that you have now.

How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree
60. Good opportunities for promotion	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
61. Opportunities somewhat limited	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
62. Promotion on ability	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
63. Dead-end job	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
64. Good chance for promotion	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree
65. Very limited	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
66. Infrequent promotions	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
67. Regular promotions	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
68. Fairly good chance for promotion	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5

SUPERVISION

Think of the kind of supervision that you get on your job.
How well does each of the following words or phrases describe this?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree
69. Supportive	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
70. Hard to please	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
71. Impolite	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
72. Praises good work	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
73. Tactful	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
74. Influential	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
75. Up-to-date	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
76. Unkind	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
77. Has favorites	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
78. Tells me where I stand	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
79. Annoying	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
80. Stubborn	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
81. Knows job well	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree
82. Bad	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
83. Intelligent	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
84. Poor planner	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
85. Around when needed	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
86. Lazy	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5

PEOPLE IN YOUR PRESENT JOB

Think of the majority of people with whom you work or meet in connection with your work. How well does each of the following words or phrases describe these people?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree
87. Stimulating	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
88. Boring	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
89. Slow	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
90. Helpful	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
91. Stupid	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
92. Reasonable	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
93. Likeable	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
94. Intelligent	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
95. Easy to make enemies	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
96. Rude	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
97. Smart	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
98. Lazy	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree
99. Unpleasant	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
100. Supportive	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
101. Active	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
102. Narrow interests	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
103. Frustrating	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
104. Stubborn	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5

JOB IN GENERAL

Think of your job in general. All in all what is it like most of the time?

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree
105. Pleasant	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
106. Bad	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
107. Great	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
108. Waste of time	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
109. Good	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
110. Undesirable	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
111. Worthwhile	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
112. Worse than most	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
113. Acceptable	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
114. Superior	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
115. Better than most	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
116. Disagreeable	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly Agree
117. Makes me content	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
118. Inadequate	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
119. Excellent	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
120. Rotten	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
121. Enjoyable	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
122. Poor	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5

SECTION 3: CLIENT SATISFACTION INDEX

The purpose of this section is to determine how our company can further improve its service to add value to each client we deal with.

Please complete each question as you personally believe your department/section is conducting its service. Remember, the value of the study depends upon you being straightforward in answering the questionnaire.

Current level of satisfaction with service

Decide to what extent you experience our clients are satisfied with the service they receive from our company.

- 1 = Strongly disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Neither agree nor disagree
- 4 = Agree
- 5 = Strongly agree

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Image of the Company					
123. People on all levels in the company will go beyond what is expected of them.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
124. My team is totally committed to excellence.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
125. My clients talk positively about our company.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
126. The company supports me in achieving my goals and objectives.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
127. My clients know who our company is.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
128. My clients know what the role of the company is.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
129. There is trust between our company and its clients.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
130. The company clearly states what they can and cannot do for clients.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
131. The managers of our company often visit our clients.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Contact with Clients					
132. The company knows what our clients expect of them.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
133. The purpose of our company is well known to our clients.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
134. It is easy for clients to get hold of the company when needed.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
135. Our company keeps clients informed on work done for them.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
136. There is regular contact with our clients to inform them of our procedures and standards.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
137. Our service to clients improved during the last six months.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Client Relations					
138. Our company team and our clients' understand one another.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
139. The relationship between the company and our client is good.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
140. The people our clients interact with in our company are professional.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
141. Our clients really understand the constraints within which the company operates.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
142. Our clients and my section work together in a professional manner.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
143. The company actively listens to clients.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
144. Conflict between our company and our clients is well handled.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Value Added					
145. The company deals effectively with unexpected deviation from plans relating to our clients.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
146. Our company adds value to the clients' we service.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
147. The company employs the right people for the job to service our clients.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Competence					
148. The company keeps up to date with development in its field.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
149. The staff in our company possesses the necessary technical skills to perform their jobs effectively.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
150. Staff members in our company possess the necessary political skills to perform their jobs effectively.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
151. The company possesses staff with the necessary non-technical skills to perform their jobs effectively.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
152. Our company is retaining knowledgeable staff.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
153. The company is developing knowledgeable staff.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Quality of Service					
154. All client issues are analysed and attended to in a timely manner by our company.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
155. The company gives clients prompt service.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
156. Our company always delivers on time to clients.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
157. The company follows the best possible work methods and procedures pertaining to clients.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
158. The company's paperwork is completed in a timely manner.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
159. Our company is adequately staffed to fulfill its role.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
160. The company is flexible enough to adapt to changing circumstances.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
161. Our company focuses on priority issues rather than insignificant issues.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
162. The procedures/regulations developed by the company are easy to adhere to.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
163. Our clients understand the procedures/standards set by the company.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
164. Our company has adequate resources (staff excluded) to fulfill its role.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
165. The company makes optimal use of the resources available to it.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Cost Effectiveness					
166. The company gives value for money to our clients.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
167. Clients understand what they are paying for.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
168. Our company ensures that clients know beforehand what services will cost them.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
169. The company responds in a timely manner to clients requests.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
170. Our company strives to provide cost effective services which give value for money.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Decision making					
171. The company is transparent in its decisions.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
172. Our company considers the social and economic implications in their decision-making.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
173. The company involves its clients when taking decisions that will affect them.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
174. Our company makes prompt decisions pertaining to clients requests.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
175. The regulatory practices and standards of the company are appropriate for our business.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
Focus					
176. Our company has a definite orientation to achieve results.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
177. The company strives to contribute to the overall goals of our clients.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
178. Our company displays a good overall knowledge of our clients needs.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
179. The company is orientated towards exploiting opportunities.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
180. Our company is aware of the need for its business to contribute to the clients' competitiveness in its markets.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
181. The company operates only in those areas where it has a definite contribution to make.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
182. Our company is strongly aware of the implications of its actions on our clients.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5
183. The company shows a strong awareness of productivity implications for its clients.	<input type="checkbox"/> 1	<input type="checkbox"/> 2	<input type="checkbox"/> 3	<input type="checkbox"/> 4	<input type="checkbox"/> 5

SECTION 4: BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

184. What is your **gender**? Please tick (✓) **ONE** of the following boxes

Male 1

Female 2

185. Which year were you born? Please tick (✓) **ONE** of the following boxes

1946 - 1964 1

1965 - 1977 2

1978 - 2000 3

186. In which **department** do you work? Please tick (✓) **ONE** of the following boxes

Marketing 1

Manufacturing 2

Engineering 3

Technical Support 4

Administration 5

187. What is your **level**? Please tick (✓) **ONE** of the following boxes

Top Management 1

Middle Management 2

Supervisory 3

Non-Supervisory 4

Thank you for completing the questionnaire!

Annexure C – Ethical research certificate

UNISA CEMS/IOP RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

12 September 2017

Dear Vincent James Gallenti,

**Decision: Ethics Approval from
23 August 2017 to 23 August
2020**

NHREC Registration # .-(if applicable)
ERC Reference # : 2017 CEMS/IOP 015
Name : Vincent James Gallenti
Student #: 45819262
Staff #: N/A

Researcher(s): Name: Vincent James Gallenti
Address: 4357 Annandale Drive, Shwenksville, Pennsylvania, 19473, USA
E-mail address, telephone: vigallenti@comcast.net, 5083087548

Supervisor (s): Name: Prof Nico Martins
E-mail address, telephone: martin@unisa.ac.za (011) 4298379

An Axis of Organisational Effectiveness: The Relationship Between Job Satisfaction, Organisational Leadership, and Customer Satisfaction.

Qualification: Post graduate degree

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the Unisa CEMS/IOP Research Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Ethics approval is granted for **Three** years.

*The **low risk application** was reviewed by the CEMS/IOP Research Ethics Review Committee on the 23rd August 2017 in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics and the Standard Operating Procedure on Research Ethics Risk Assessment. The decision was approved on 23rd August 2017.*

The proposed research may now commence with the provisions that:

1. The researcher(s) will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.
2. Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study should be communicated in writing to the Unisa CEMS/IOP Research Ethics Review Committee.

3. The researcher(s) will conduct the study according to the methods and procedures set out in the approved application.
4. Any changes that can affect the study-related risks for the research participants, particularly in terms of assurances made with regards to the protection of participants' privacy and the confidentiality of the data, should be reported to the Committee in writing, accompanied by a progress report.
5. The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to any applicable national legislation, professional codes of conduct, institutional guidelines and scientific standards relevant to the specific field of study. Adherence to the following South African legislation is important, if applicable: Protection of Personal Information Act, no 4 of 2013; Children's act no 38 of 2005 and the National Health Act, no 61 of 2003.
6. Only de-identified research data may be used for secondary research purposes in future on condition that the research objectives are similar to those of the original research. Secondary use of identifiable human research data require additional ethics clearance.
7. No field work activities may continue after the expiry date (23rd August 2020). Submission of a completed research ethics progress report will constitute an application for renewal of Ethics Research Committee approval.

Note:

*The reference number **2017_CEMS/IOP_015** should be clearly indicated on all forms of communication with the intended research participants, as well as with the Committee.*

Yours sincerely,



Signature

Chair of IOP ERC

E-mail: grobls@unisa.ac.za

Tel: (012) 429-8272



Signature

Executive Dean : CEMS

E-mail: mogalmt@unisa.ac.za

Tel: (012) 429-4805

URERC 25.04.17 - Decision template (V2) - Approve

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ANNEXURE D – DECLARATION OF PROFESSIONAL EDITING

Dear Mr Gallenti

This letter is to confirm that I have completed a language edit of your thesis entitled “An axis for organisational effectiveness: The relationship between job satisfaction, organisational leadership, and customer satisfaction”.

The edit that I conducted included the following:

- Spelling
- Grammar
- Vocabulary
- Punctuation
- Pronoun matches
- Word usage
- Sentence structure
- Cross-checking all the in-text references with the sources in the reference list
- Checking that the in-text references and sources in the reference list were in accordance with the APA reference style
- Checking the captions and labels in figures and tables, and ensuring they correspond with the captions and labels in the lists of tables and figures
- Cross-checking the headings in the table of contents with those in the text

The edit that I conducted excluded the following:

- Formatting
- Layout
-

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink on a light grey background. The signature appears to read 'Moya Joubert' in a cursive script.

Moya Joubert

31 October 2021

ANNEXURE E – TURNITIN CONFIRMATION OF THESIS SUBMISSION

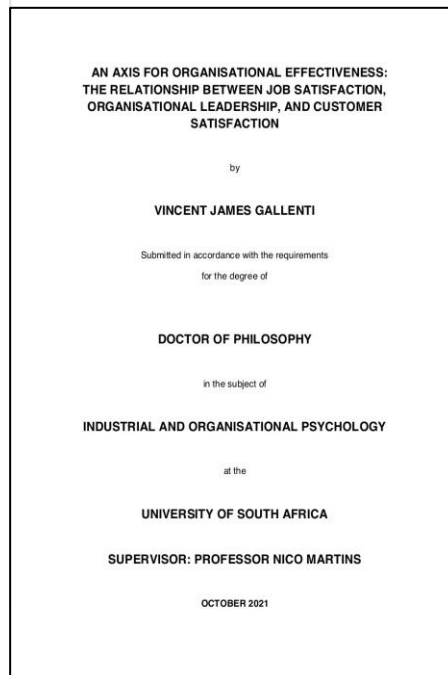


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Assignment title	Complete dissertation/thesis for examination
Submission title	An axis for organisational effectiveness: The relationship between job satisfaction, organisational leadership, and customer satisfaction ..
File name	Gallenti_Final_Thesis_For_Turnitin.pdf
File size	2.87M
Page count	416
Word count	143113
Character count	865,840
Submission date	05 Nov 2012
Submission ID	1693370045



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