

**IMPACT OF LEADERSHIP STYLES ON EMPLOYEE JOB
PERFORMANCE MEDIATED BY JOB SATISFACTION: AMHARA
REGION PUBLIC SECTORS, ETHIOPIA**

by

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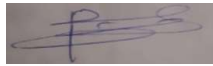
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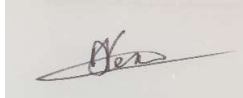
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APPROVAL

This witnesses to the fact that the thesis I supervised, titled Impact of Leadership Styles on Employee Job Performance Mediated by Job Satisfaction: Amhara Region Public Sector, Ethiopia, has been completed and is ready for submission.

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A rectangular box containing a handwritten signature in black ink, which appears to be 'Derek Verrier'.

Date: 29 January 2024

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ABSTRACT

In the public sector, leaders have an impact on employees' performance and job satisfaction. In order to address the issue of ineffective leadership styles used in the public sector, which subsequently affect the quality of public sector performance and service delivery in the Amhara region of Ethiopia, the study examined the impact of leadership styles on employee job satisfaction and performance. The aim of the study was to ascertain how a leader's style affected employee job performance through job satisfaction.

A positivist approach and deductive reasoning in a cross-sectional quantitative survey were used to collect primary data via a structured questionnaire distributed and collected from 378 respondents with a 98% response rate. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) comprising Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and path analysis was applied as a research technique, and the questionnaire data were analyzed using Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) version 27 software.

The research result indicated that democratic, transformational, laissez-faire and autocratic leadership styles positively and significantly impact job satisfaction. In contrast, transactional leadership style did not significantly impact job satisfaction. Besides, democratic, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership styles showed a significant but negative impact on employees' job performance, while transactional leadership style showed a significant and positive impact on employees' performance. However, autocratic leadership style did not significantly impact employees' performance.

The indirect results indicated the full mediating impact of job satisfaction between democratic and autocratic leadership styles on employee performance and the partial impact of job satisfaction between transformational and laissez-faire leadership styles on employees' performance. Job satisfaction did not mediate transactional leadership style and employee performance.

The research recommended training and awareness for leaders and their focus on leadership styles, job satisfaction and performance excellence to benefit the public service sector and the community. Although the research was conducted in Ethiopia's

public sectors, the results can be extrapolated to other regions and public services in Africa and the world. Finally, the study suggested longitudinal research with more mediating and moderating variables using qualitative and quantitative methods, including leaders, as part of the study.

Keywords: Leadership styles; Job satisfaction; Job performance; Civil service sectors; Ethiopia; Employee excellence

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ACRONYMS

AGFI	Adjusted Good Fit Index
ALS	Autocratic Leadership Style
AOMS	Analysis of Movement Structure
ANRS	Amhara National Regional State
BARS	Behaviourally Anchored Rating Scale
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
ASV	Average Shared Variance
BPR	Business Processing Re-engineering
BoF	Bureau of Finance and Economic Development
BSC	Balance Scorecard
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CSRFP	Civil Service Reform Program
DLS	Democratic Leadership Style
EJP	Employee Job Performance
FRL	Full Range Leadership
GFI	Good Fix Index
MBO	Management by Objective
MSV	Maximum Shared Squared

RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error Approximation
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SEV	Sum of all Error Variances of a construct
SSI	Square of the Sum of all Factor Loadings
VAF	Variance Accounted For

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

Leadership is the ability to facilitate movement in the needed direction and have people feel good about it.

- Tom Smith (Bestselling author)

1.1 Background of the Study

The introduction to the context and background of this study highlights the global need for influential leaders with efficient leadership styles to ensure successful human resource development. This study is founded on the idea that an effective leadership style could lead to organisational success and transformation to achieve organisational objectives through job performance excellence. Leadership has become known as an approach to administering staff and the organisation (Abd Rahman, 2021; Afsar, 2014).

The traditional concept of personnel management has been replaced with human resource leadership, integrating advanced leadership styles with effective management to increase employee and organisational performance (Iqbal, Anwar & Haider, 2015). A study by Shafie, Baghersalimi and Barghi (2013) accentuated that effective organisational leadership and management of employees have become vital as they are the organisation's main drivers. Employees must receive appropriate direction and psychological job satisfaction to deliver results based on their assigned duties and responsibilities.

As an example, public institutions in Malaysia were exposed for their poor overall performance, lack of flexibility, inefficiency, absence of obligation, and red tape (Said, Alam & Aziz, 2015). Such leaders typically prefer a hierarchical chain of command with a strong emphasis on respect for authority and a lack of concern from those in power (Ansari, Ahmad & Aafaqi, 2004). Malaysian leaders were branded for their boundless power, influence, and regulation of law and order (Hofstede, 2001) and considered themselves the only decision-makers (Jayasingam & Cheng, 2009). Staff could not implement or decide about their activities and had to follow the rules and regulations without talking to the leader. Accordingly, employees performed their duties as a favour to others (Ansari et al., 2004).

The bridge between the governments lies in the public services delivered to the community and the public sector managing those services satisfactorily. Linna, Pekkola, Ukko and Melkas (2010) stated that the public sector's role is to improve society's general welfare by delivering public goods and services to individuals, private, and other public sector organisations playing a critical role in the country's and global economy. Thus, the main objective of this study was to investigate public sector leadership and employee performance. In addition, research has shown that organizational leadership is critical for building a motivating atmosphere and culture (Alghazo & Al-Anazi, 2016). As stated by Hurduzue (2015), a proper leadership style could encourage individual achievement.

There has been worldwide discontent with the public services sector's quality of service delivery and public leadership inefficiency. People criticise the quality of customer services, legislative bodies, facilities, rules, and directives, including the working culture of public organisations. Furthermore, there has been a lack of good governance and effective leadership throughout Africa. Inefficient governance is portrayed by indifference, non-participation, rule and law, lack of transparency, non-acceptance of responsibility, inequity, and a lack of inclusivity that exposes employees to misconduct (Alaaraj & Ibrahim 2014). Failure and weak policy governance and implementation are demonstrated by inefficient public service delivery, bureaucracy, corruption, selfishness, and favouritism (Besley & Ghatak, 2008). Limitations in the public institution system are composed of inadequate inspiration and poor liability, consequently causing economic and social burdens to the community (Lubuva, 2008).

The literature further indicated that sub-Saharan African civil services are oversized, indifferent, rule-bound, and inefficient, containing corruption-driven incentives (Thusi & Selepe, 2023). These countries stand to gain more from public services that perform a fundamental role in ensuring good governance highly integrated with the preparation and execution of policies devised to advance citizens (Lawal & Owolabi, 2012). Another example is the practice and focus of public management in Nigeria, which is impeded by political interference, bureaucratic values, personal objectives conflicting with societal values, deficiencies in accounting and budgetary systems, over-staffing, and smallholder failures (Achimugu, Stephen & Aliyu, 2013). Similarly, the South African government has frequently been charged with failing to care for its people's

needs. Service delivery protests have indicated significant public sector problems not adequately addressed by effective service delivery (Masuku & Jili, 2019; Fourie & Poggenpoel, 2017).

These problems negatively impact public institutions and government employees' job performance and compromise citizens' service delivery (Ozuhu-Suleiman, 2014). For this reason, governments are constantly trying to reform structures into functional units and departments (Onuoha, 2005). Not enough value is attached to African public service delivery and administration in these circumstances (Nkomo, Zoogah & Acquaaah, 2015; Bierschenk & de Sardan, 2014). Moreover, there is a lack of research on Ethiopian leaders' understanding of public service delivery and leadership. The few studies on the Ethiopian public sector mainly narrated reform-related issues, and scholarly research focused on explanatory research in determining reasons for the ineffective reform of public sector leadership (Apaza, 2014; Solomon, 2013).

This study focused on Ethiopia's Amhara Region public sector leadership styles and their impact on employee performance, with employee satisfaction as the mediating factor. The rationale for conducting research in this region is the low level of achievement in all sectors and the lack of integration between people, employees, and leaders. To this end, the research focused on inadequate public services and a lack of proper governance, as reinforced by the Amhara regional state government annual detail report (2017/2018).

1.1.1 Study Area

According to the Amhara regional state development indicators bulletin, Ethiopia covers over 1,000,000 square kilometres (2017/2018). The Amhara region is in the northwestern part of Ethiopia among the 9°20' and 14°20' North range and 36° 20' and 40° 20' East longitude with a land area estimated at approximately 170,000 square kilometres. This region borders the Tigray Region in the North, Afar in the East, Oromia in the South, Benishangul-Gumuz in the Southwest, and Sudan in the West.

Ethiopia is Africa's second most populous country after Nigeria, with an annual growth rate of 2.4 percent. The country's total population is estimated to be more than 100 million. The Amhara region has had an annual growth rate of 2.3 percent, with a total population of about 21.1 million (UNICEF, 2018). The region's population accounts for

roughly 22.4 percent of the country’s entire population. Regarding the settlement, 82.5 percent of the population resides in rural regions and is explicitly engaged in agriculture. Mortality rates in the area are relatively high (CSA, 2013). Figure 1.1 presents a map of the state of the Amhara national region to display the research environment and public sector coverage.

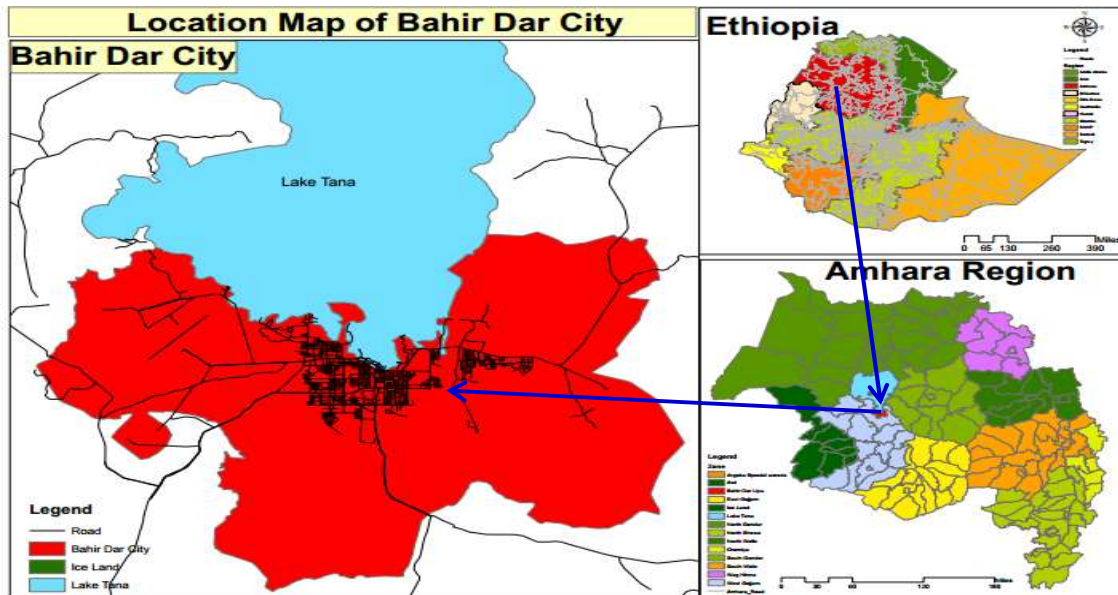


Figure 1. 1 Map of Amhara National Regional State (ANRS)

1.1.2 Public Services in Ethiopia

Growth in this region of Ethiopia has been slow and dominated by the public sector for many decades. Estrin and Pelletier (2018) maintained Ethiopia as a late starter of privatisation, even by African standards, because most sectors are state-owned and governed by the public sector.

The Ethiopian public services sector dates back to the Menelik II era of 1907. The emperor inspired the formation of ministries to establish an effective civil service system by restructuring the imperial institution. Since establishing the civil service, Ethiopia has had a formal merit-based civil service administration system (Getachew & Richard, 2006). Although the civil service reform (CSR) in Ethiopia originated from the Menelik II era, it was only a few years after the end of the military government that the current government started a continuous restructuring of the civil service aiming towards a multi-party democracy and market-driven economy (Tilaye, 2007). Hence,

the primary role of the civil service was changed and based on merit and autonomy (Ministry of Capacity Building, 2004).

The current Ethiopian government has been committed to reforming the civil service since it came to power in 1991. The intent of reforming the old civil service system was to remove unwanted practices that affect public service delivery and the country's socio-economic development and reorganise the civil service according to three stages. The first stage (1991 to 1995) included a structural adjustment programme (SAP), changing a socialist ideology to a federal system. The second stage (1996 to 2002) was instituted to build a capable civil service to promote democracy, federalism, and good governance, render effective service delivery, and support the government's socio-economic development policies and private sector development. Finally, the third stage (2003 to date) was launched to improve quality service delivery. Ethiopia's agenda for quality service delivery was designed to strengthen public institutions by establishing a de-politicised civil service, improving managerial effectiveness, and empowering private and civic society organisations and higher education (Tilaye, 2007).

The implication is that research on leadership in the public sector could contribute value to practitioners and increase knowledge about how effective leadership could enhance the progress of the public services sector in Ethiopia.

1.2 Research Problem

Studies asserted that leadership styles have been blamed for organisational failures (Donkor, Appienti & Aachiaan, 2021; Mohiuddin, 2017) and argue that one of the elements that makes an organisation successful is its leadership. According to Nguyen, Trinh and Nguyen (2021) who found a substantial relationship between leadership and job satisfaction, leadership style is important. Most public service institutions do not understand leadership and what leaders could do to guarantee group working excellence (Palestini, 2008; Niven, 2003; Kouzes & Barry, 2002). Likewise, the absence of competent leadership has been a typical issue in most public service-providing organisations (Getachew & Richard, 2006). In the Ethiopian setting, the legislature started advancing public service leadership implemented by various systems through the civil service reform programme. Durssa (2014) opined that public

service leaders must elevate their motivation towards transformation to accomplish the development and transformation plan (GTP) objectives. Because of the character of employees and leadership, employees are either satisfied or dissatisfied. Although some analyses suggested how different leadership styles impact various aspects of government organisations and employees, few studies have looked into the significance of leadership styles in government organisations (Agarwal & Gupta, 2021; Mufti, 2020). However, leadership styles and public service employee job satisfaction and performance were less effective in practice than planned and expected.

Furthermore, in reaction to the challenges of public services, the Ethiopian government implemented a business processing re-engineering (BPR) and result-oriented performance management system (RPMS), currently executed as a balanced scorecard reform program (BSC). However, Bersisa and Heshmati (2016) expressed shortcomings in the execution process. Added issues include poor government delivery due to incompetent local officials, absence of responsibility, poor human resource performance, meagre execution, and an absence of initiative (Janse van Rensburg, 2014).

In the meantime, reality has confirmed that citizens still suffer from a lack of good governance and corruption and demonstrate high dissatisfaction. Inadequate leadership leads to bad governance, frequently marked by weak service delivery, weak institutions, a weak rule of law, corruption, nepotism, and a lack of accountability. Poor leadership, corruption, and unsustainable infrastructure projects have all been associated empirically with inadequate infrastructure development, which has led to poor service delivery (Mbandlwa, Dorasamy & Fagbadebo, 2020). Therefore, rigorous, compelling research seemed necessary on how leadership styles impact employees' job satisfaction and performance in Ethiopia, particularly focusing on the Amhara region's public sector. Job satisfaction, trust, justice, and ethics directly and indirectly impact employee performance and approval. Several academics have claimed that prior studies have shown a direct relationship between leadership styles, employee job satisfaction, and employees' loyalty to their organization (Dhir, Dutta & Ghosh, 2020; Abdul Halim, Hassan, Basri, Yusof & Ahrari, 2021). Hence, this study considered employee job satisfaction a fundamental concept that mediates leadership style and employee performance. According to Prameswari (2020), job satisfaction is a positive emotional state resulting from one's employment or experience in the

workplace. Employee satisfaction is usually a crucial component of an organization's performance, and how significant and fulfilling employees think their work is determining how satisfied they are with their jobs (Shrestha, 2019).

There has been an increase in research on job satisfaction, especially in organisational behaviour and psychology (Abeje & Narayana, 2015; George & Jones, 2008). In the Amhara national regional state of Ethiopia, this study looked into how leadership style affected employee work performance and how job satisfaction acted as a mediating factor. The public sector in this area has been characterized by a poor pay structure, a terrible work environment, a weak reward system, a vague sense of service delivery, favouritism, politicization, a high turnover rate, role ambiguity, and corruption.

The motivation for the study is narrated as follows.

I have encountered many problems while living with the community and observed public service practices around the study area. It inspired and empowered me to realise issues concerning leadership and leadership styles and employee work performance in public service institutions. Additionally, the Amhara national regional state (ANRS) public sector annual achievement report (2018) indicated the lack of accomplishment of the plan in all sectors. The gap seemed to be the mobilising and integrating of public service leaders and employees. These concerning issues urged me to conduct this study and recommend possible solutions to these issues in this area.

Therefore, the research could be performed with first-hand knowledge of the region and the problems experienced with and by the public service sector in this region, which leads to formulating the research problem:

Effective leadership styles have not been applied, and the job performance and job satisfaction of employees in the public sector were not considered and enhanced accordingly, consequently affecting the quality of public sector performance in the Amhara region in Ethiopia.

1.3 Research Questions

The research problem raised the following fundamental questions:

RQ1: Do leadership styles, including democratic leadership, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, and autocratic leadership, have a significant impact on employee job satisfaction?

RQ2: What is the impact of job satisfaction on employee performance?

RQ3: What is the impact of leadership styles (democratic leadership, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, and autocratic leadership) on employee performance?

RQ4: What is the mediating impact of job satisfaction between leadership styles (democratic leadership, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, and autocratic leadership) and employee performance?

RQ5: Which leadership styles significantly affect public services sector employees' job performance?

RQ6: Which leadership styles predominantly affect employees' job satisfaction and performance in the public services sector?

1.4 Aim of the Study

By mediating the impact of job satisfaction in the public sector, the study aimed to investigate the impact of leadership styles on employee job performance.

Hence, the study could fill the research gap by identifying specific leadership styles that impact employees' job performance by mediating the impact of job satisfaction between leadership styles and employees' job performance, consequently contributing towards the public sector's success in the Amhara region.

1.5 Objectives of the Study

It was realised that the only way to reach the aim was to take smaller steps towards a solution. Therefore, the aim was divided into smaller, specific objectives.

1.5.1 General Objective

The study's main objective was to look into how leadership styles impacted employee work performance in the public sector as it was mediated by job satisfaction.

1.5.2 Specific Objectives

- To examine the impact of democratic leadership on employee job satisfaction and performance.
- To examine the impact of transformational leadership on employee job satisfaction and performance.
- To examine the impact of transactional leadership on employee job satisfaction and performance.
- To examine the impact of laissez-faire leadership on employee job satisfaction and performance.
- To examine the impact of autocratic leadership on employee job satisfaction and performance.
- To determine the impact of employee job satisfaction on employee performance.
- To determine the mediating impact of job satisfaction between democratic, transformational, transactional, laissez-faire, and autocratic leadership styles and employee performance.
- To determine which leadership styles significantly impact employees' performance in the public sector.
- To determine which leadership styles predominantly affect employees' job satisfaction and performance in the public sector.

Because a quantitative research design was employed, it was necessary to set hypotheses for testing the research findings.

1.6 Hypotheses

- Ha1: Democratic leadership has an impact on employee job satisfaction.
- Ha2: Transformational leadership has an impact on employee job satisfaction.
- Ha3: Transactional leadership has an impact on employee job satisfaction.
- Ha4: Laissez-faire leadership has an impact on employee job satisfaction.
- Ha5: Autocratic leadership has an impact on employee job satisfaction.
- Ha6: Employee job satisfaction has an impact on employee job performance.
- Ha7: Democratic leadership has an impact on employee job performance.
- Ha8: Transformational leadership has an impact on employee performance.
- Ha9: Transactional leadership has an impact on employee job performance.
- Ha10: Laissez-faire leadership has an impact on employee job performance.
- Ha11: Autocratic leadership has an impact on employee job performance.
- Ha12: Job satisfaction mediates the impact of democratic leadership on employee job performance.
- Ha13: Job satisfaction mediates the impact of transformational leadership on employee job performance.
- Ha14: Job satisfaction mediates the impact of transactional leadership on employee job performance.
- Ha15: Job satisfaction mediates the impact of laissez-faire leadership on employee job performance.
- Ha16: Job satisfaction mediates the impact of autocratic leadership on employee job performance.

1.7 Significance of the Study

The research contributes to the body of knowledge in the field of business leadership and behavioural science by indicating which leadership styles predominantly affect employees' job satisfaction and performance in the Amhara national regional state public sector, Ethiopia. What makes this study unique is its focus on identifying specific leadership styles that impact employees' job performance with the mediating impact

of job satisfaction between them, consequently contributing to the success of Ethiopia's public sector (administrative, economic, and social).

The contribution of the study to society is that the most effective leadership styles could positively influence employees' job performance by mediating the impact of job satisfaction. Performance enhancement and excellence in the public sector could contribute to better service delivery to the community.

A governance framework could be developed from the research findings to address the tension between leaders, administration, and the community that negatively impacts service delivery. Best practices and recommendations could be obtained from the target population, which would benefit and offer outstanding opportunities for newly elected leaders, employees, changes, and public service quality improvements.

Policymakers could benefit by taking remedial steps to address the problems and complaints of the community associated with public service delivery. Leaders could be appointed according to their leadership styles to drive employee and public service excellence.

It may be useful for leaders to comprehend what kind of leadership would positively impact employees' performance and how employees could be fulfilled and uplifted through proper leadership. For the employees, it would mean determining which leadership style would suit them best in terms of job satisfaction and the success of their careers.

The research's return on investment (ROI) on leadership styles contributed to better knowledge and understanding of the importance of appointing effective leaders, driving employee job satisfaction and performance toward service excellence and public service delivery to the community.

1.8 Scope and Delimitation of the Study

Although Ethiopia is a federal democratic republic composed of 11 regional states, this study only focused on the Amhara national region public sector. The reason is that the researcher worked and lived in this region and used the opportunity and accessibility

to data sources for the study. Moreover, the researcher understood the research phenomenon, which made finding possible solutions to the problem straightforward.

This study was delineated to public sector employees at the regional level to investigate their perceptions about the impact of leadership styles and the mediating impact of job satisfaction between leadership style and employee job performance. It would have been beneficial if the study could have extended its scope from only one region to the other Ethiopian regions: Tigray, Afar, Amhara, Oromia, Somali, Benishangul-Gumuz, Gambella, Harar, Southern Region, Southwest region, and Sidama region. However, inadequate resources limited the study to public sector employees in the Amhara national region.

1.9 Definition of Concepts

This section explains terms relevant to this study, including appraisal, leadership, leadership style, employee, job performance, public service, bureau, and region.

Appraisal: means estimating or judging the nature or value of something or someone.

Leadership is inspiring a group to take action toward reaching a shared objective. In a business setting, this can mean directing workers and colleagues with a strategy to meet the company's needs.

A **leader** is an influential person who controls or influences what other people do and typically leads a group, organisation, or country.

Leadership style: is the behavioural pattern that a leader adopts to influence the behaviour of his followers or how the leader directs subordinates and motivates them to accomplish given objectives.

An **employee** is a member of staff appointed to do a specific job. The employer hires the employee after completing an application and an interview process and selects the person as an employee.

Job performance: accomplishing a task measured against accuracy, completeness, cost, and speed standards.

Public service: the service the government provides to people living within its jurisdiction, directly or by financing the private provision of services.

Bureau: an office, organisation, government department, or division performing a particular job.

Region: a large area of land that differs from other areas, for example, a different part of a country with its customs and characteristics or a particular geographical feature.

Satisfaction: Fulfilling an individual's wishes, expectations, or needs, or the pleasure derived from it.

1.10 Chapter Outline

Chapter 1 provided an overview of the research, including the background, problem statement, research aim, objectives, hypotheses, research significance, limitations, delimitation, and the description of essential concepts.

Chapter 2 discusses the theory and application of the research concepts and variables (leadership styles). It presents leadership as the theoretical foundation. The section focuses on the relationship between the research variables and the dependent variable (employee performance).

Chapter 3 presents the theory and practice of the research variables: mediating and dependent variables. It explains employee job satisfaction (mediating variable) and employee performance (dependent variable). The conceptual framework of the study and research gaps are described.

Chapter 4 explains the research design and methodological choices to achieve the research goals. It expounds on the selected research design, data sources, research approaches, sampling techniques, and other relevant areas.

Chapter 5 presents the research results from the data analysis acquired through the cross-sectional selection of relevant public sector employees.

Chapter 6 concludes with the findings, compares the results with previous studies, recommends applying the research in practice, and suggests further research in this field.

1.11 Conclusion

The impact of leadership styles on employee job satisfaction and performance was the research concern introduced in this chapter. It established the research objectives to look into the impact of job satisfaction in mediating the relationship between leadership styles and employee performance in the public sector of the Amhara region. Discussing the research environment provided a foundation for building the research problem and objectives towards a solution. Furthermore, the hypotheses for a realistic quantitative study were introduced.

Chapter 2 will focus on the theoretical framework and literature review about concepts around leadership and leadership styles.

CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the theoretical framework and literature review on leadership styles retrieved from scholarly literature, journal articles, and related studies to present an overview of key findings, principles, comparisons, and tendencies around leadership styles and employee performance in the public sector. Understanding the variables and concepts contributes to expanding knowledge for further research. The literature review formed the nucleus from which the questionnaire for quantitative research was derived to advance towards new conclusions on leadership styles and to establish facts verified by existing data.

This chapter aims to compare and interpret research literature and developments within the leadership field and ensure the consistency of secondary research data to which this study can be linked.

Therefore, the objectives were to:

- Depict literature findings on the research phenomenon and establish facts from the literature review to strengthen the impact of the study.
- Recognise gaps within the existing literature and gain additional knowledge for concepts and theories that could add value to the study.
- Review existing knowledge to understand scientific research and systematically collect concepts to gain new knowledge.
- Discover the relationship of scholarly works in the context of their contribution to the topic.
- Identify the need for additional research.

These major components and steps followed during the literature review are illustrated in Figure 2.1.

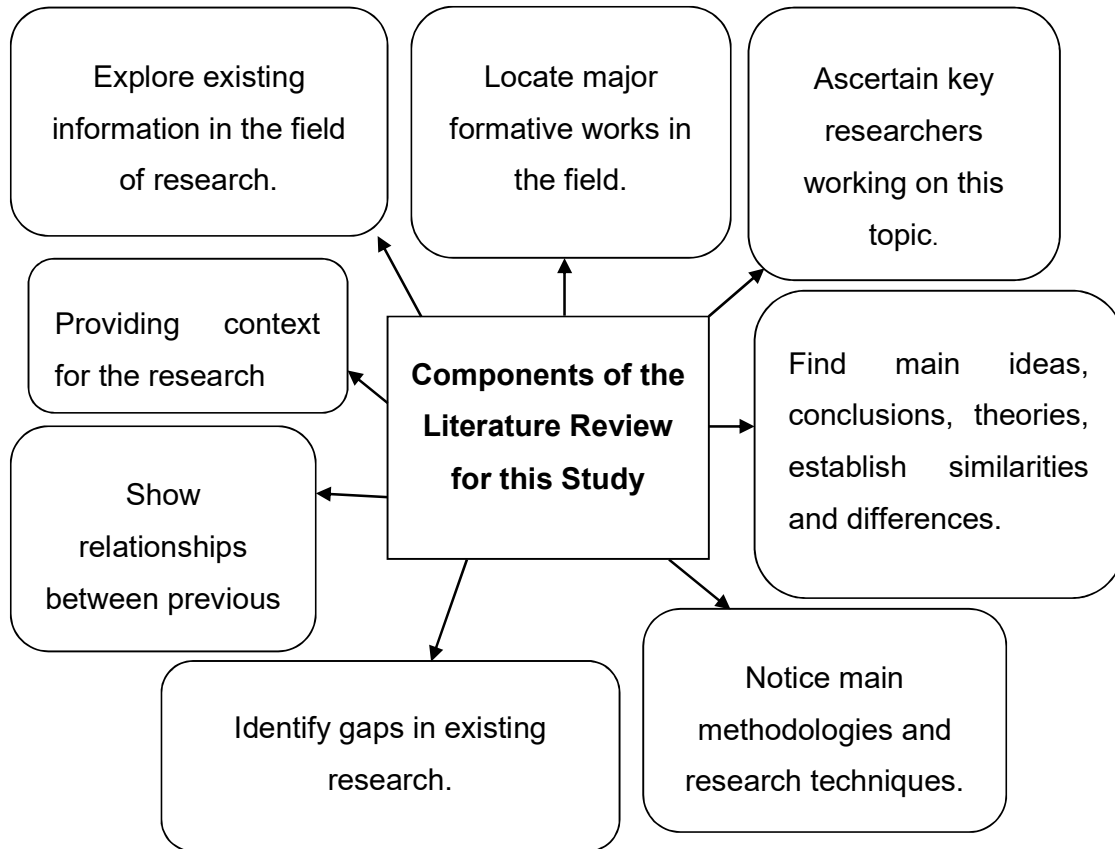


Figure 2. 1 Elements of Literature Review

Source: Own compilation

As can be viewed from Figure 2.1, it was important to place the research within the current body of knowledge for identifying major formative works, exploring existing information in the research field and creating context by ascertaining key researchers working on the topic. This way, relationships between previous studies could be detected, and gaps in the current research could be identified

2.2 Leadership Concepts

Leadership is an extensive field of study that does not have a concise and clear-cut definition. Scholars such as Kumar and Susmitha (2019) opined that the study of leadership dates back to ancient philosophers like Plato, Socrates, and Aristotle. The awareness and relevance of leadership research changed in the 20th century, while a socio-clinical approach was not regarded until the 1930s (Özer & Tinaztepe, 2014; House & Aditya, 1997). Leadership may be a well-written social phenomenon but

poorly understood because of its complexity related to different viewpoints (Almohaimed, 2015).

Leadership guides individuals, teams, or organisations towards predictable goals (Keskes, 2014; Shastri, Mishra & Sinha, 2010). In contrast, leadership also impacts those who follow you (Yukl, 2010). That is because leaders significantly impact their staff's attitudes, motivation, and productivity. Chowdhury (2014) and Cole (2012) attested that leadership is a process and a system where humans persuade others to attain organisational goals. Leadership can lead, integrate, and utilise deployed sources to attain deliberate visions and targets (Amanchukwu, Stanley & Ololube, 2015). Leadership practices have diverse consequences depending on how leaders behave towards followers and organisational requirements. Besides, recent studies assert that the use of leadership abilities to improve service delivery in organizations and influence followers or subordinates (Cornelissen & Smith, 2022; Fang, Chen, Mei, Wang & Chao, 2019; Inderjeet & Scheepers, 2022).

Moreover, leadership is a theme that has long triggered interest among researchers and organisation leaders. The term represents images of influential, dynamic individuals who command victorious armies, direct corporate empires from atop, or assign the course of nations (Yukl, 2010). Burns (1978) also agreed that leadership was one of the most observed and least understood phenomena globally. Since the beginning of civilisation, history has been concerned with studying its leaders and leadership. The consequences are that leadership has typically been regarded as the most critical factor in the success or failure of institutions (Bass & Riggio, 2006). For this reason, research on leadership has developed more systematically, giving way to various theoretical perspectives and conceptual definitions (Yukl, 2010; Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Leadership studies in the twentieth century concerned leadership efficiency, defined by traits, behaviour, influence, interaction patterns, role relationships, and the occupation of an administrative position (Yukl, 2010). Consequently, different definitions of leadership presented by various scholars are summarised as follows.

- Leadership is a dynamic process where leaders mobilise others to accomplish excellence. To do so, leaders engage in five practices: model the way, inspire

a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and provide inspiration (Kouzes & Posner, 2007: 14).

- Leadership is logically a persuasive process in which the outcome depends on the leader and followers and how the influencing process is affected by the leaders' dispositional characteristics, behaviours, follower perceptions, and acknowledgement of the leader, as well as the context in which the process occurs (Antonakis, 2004: 171).
- Leadership directs a group to accomplish the designated goal (Northouse, 2014: 15).
- Leadership is a particular case of interpersonal influence that gets an individual or group to do what the leader or manager wants (Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 2000: 287).
- Leadership is the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the efficiency and success of the organisation (House, 1996: 330).
- Leadership persuades others to achieve organisational goals (Bartol & Martin, 1998: 415).
- Leadership provides purpose to the collective effort and triggers cooperative effort expended to achieve the organisational purpose (Jacobs & Jaques, 1990: 281).
- Leadership is the influential increment over and above routine compliance with repetitive directives to the organisation (Katz & Kahn, 1978: 528).
- Leadership is exercised when people mobilise institutional, political, psychological, and other resources to awaken, engage, and satisfy the motives of followers (Burns, 1978: 18).
- Leadership is an interpersonal influence exercised in a situation and directed through communication toward attaining specialised goals (Tannenbaum, Weschler & Massarik, 1961: 16).

Most people have realised that leadership differs from management but cannot identify the difference because each concept has its underlying philosophies, functions, and outcomes. Similarly, leaders and managers are not equivalent, as they possess different characteristics. The differences will be discussed in the following section.

2.3 Leadership versus Management

Their very nature closely links leadership and management, and management can progress into leadership. Typically, managers require leadership skills to inspire subordinates; therefore, an organisation can have managers and leaders working together. Departments have managers who work with teams to help the organisation achieve its goals. Managers often assume leadership roles in the organisation's pursuit of growth and survival (Chen & Tjosvold, 2006).

Jarad (2012) researched leadership as a subset of management because both are important for organisational performance. Management deals with planning, budgeting, controlling, and structuring (Price, 2009: 26). Conversely, leaders deal with the process of directing, visioning, and motivating, including the coordination and development of individuals and influencing others to achieve long-term organisational goals (Bartol Tein, Mathew & Martin, 2003: 33). Thus, leadership and management differ in their internal and external roles (Price, 2009: 27) in that manager goals emerge from necessities, while leaders develop from a purposeful motivational approach having much more in common with artists than managers (Zaleznik, 2004). Leaders use their efforts to inspire people to become creative in problem-solving, while managers focus on the organisation's day-to-day activities.

Scholars argued that the creativity of leaders can sometimes be affected by managers as managers must avoid risks while leaders actively seek and take risks (Zaleznik 2004). A leader has soul, passion, creativity, the mind of a leader and manager, rationality, and persistence. A leader is flexible, innovative, inspiring, courageous, and independent, while a manager is consulting, analytical, deliberate, authoritative, and stabilising (Kotter & Cohen, 2012). Therefore, an individual can simultaneously be a great leader and manager. The difference comes from how they act and the principles they follow to achieve goals and objectives, as listed in Table 2.1.

Table 2. 1 Comparison of Leadership and Management Attributes

Management attributes (Order & consistency)	Leadership attributes (Change & development)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Planning and budgeting ● Establishing agendas ● Setting timetables ● Allocating resources ● Organising and staffing ● Providing structure ● Making job placements ● Establishing rules and procedures ● Controlling and problem-solving ● Developing incentives ● Generating creative solutions ● Taking corrective action 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Establishing direction ● Creating a vision ● Clarifying the big picture ● Setting strategies ● Communicating goals ● Seeking commitment ● Building teams and coalitions ● Inspiring and energising ● Empowering subordinates ● Satisfying unmet needs

Source: Adapted from Jarad (2012: 73)

Table 2.1 compares and contrasts the qualities of management and leadership. It becomes clear that leaders cannot become effective without considering all management attributes as they are closely linked. Nonetheless, leaders act as agents of change and development, taking their employees with them towards effective service delivery.

The literature review content mainly focused on leadership theories as these theories provided important guidelines and tools for conducting research and indicated meaningful relationships between variables, such as stated in the research problem (see 1.2), research question (see 1.3), and research objectives (see 1.5). A theoretical framework also helps to delimit the scope of concepts to be explored. Hence, theories offer researchers a clear perspective and direction to help study the relationships between variables.

The theories selected for discussion in this chapter include the great man or trait, behavioural, situational, transformational, and transactional. On the other hand, five

independent variables include democratic, transformational, transactional, laissez-faire, and autocratic leadership styles, as discussed below.

2.4 Leadership Theories

All theories, including leadership theories, are social phenomena open to discussion, analysis, and verification. Earlier theories, like the great man and trait theory, are no longer considered scientific, although they are observed as the foundation for contemporary research on leadership. Consequently, aspiring leaders, including managers and business owners, prefer reviewing contingency, situational, and behavioural theories to obtain insight for adopting an appropriate leadership style.

Different theories on leadership are briefly discussed to give a theoretical background and context for likely variables relating to leadership styles associated with employee performance. The great man and trait theory, the behaviour theory, situational theory, path-goal leadership theory, transactional theory, and transformational theory are some of these theories.

2.4.1 Great Man and Trait Theory

The founder of the great man theory, Carlyle (1888), held that leaders are endowed from birth with traits that motivate others to follow them. Swanepoel, Erasmus, Van Wyk, and Schenk (2000) agreed and claimed that outstanding leaders are born with the ability to lead others. According to the great man theory, these leaders appear as the situation demands.

The great man theory is the foundation of the characteristic theory. As a result, the trait leadership approach acknowledges that leadership is essential to the success and effectiveness of an organization. Zaccaro (2007) asserted that the great man and trait theories concur that outstanding leaders are expected to possess traits that set them apart from others from the outset. Sashkin and Sashkin (2003) found that great leaders are more intelligent, sociable, innovative, accountable, taller, and heavier than average people after examining works by writers like Stogdill (1974) to identify unique personality attributes of outstanding leaders. A successful leader in one context may not necessarily be a successful leader in another, according to Ricketts (2009), who also found that even if a specific attribute could be identified in many leaders, a leader

may not be a leader in all circumstances. Thus, circumstances influence leaders' success, debunking the trait leadership theory.

The leadership trait theory emphasizes a leader's behaviour, physical shape, social background, intelligence, and ability, and it proposes that leaders are naturally successful because their traits or qualities are endowed by nature. Similar findings by Costar and Hayward (2005) validated this theory. However, following research to determine what characteristics or qualities led to highly successful leaders' success, according to Hackman and Johnson (2013), raised questions about these findings. According to these authors, the most important traits for influential leaders are interpersonal, conscious mental activity, and organisational factors. The organizational factors indicated that most routinely expected worker actions could be planned, organized, and carried out. Integrity, sensitivity, consistency, emotional stability, self-confidence, communication skills, and conflict management skills are examples of terms the authors added to the list of interpersonal factors. On the other hand, cognitive factors are related to leadership and deal with how competent leaders improve their problem-solving, decision-making, critical thinking, and creative thinking skills (Hackman & Johnson, 2013).

However, proponents of the trait theory found it challenging to distinguish between the characteristics required for leadership and those necessary to sustain it (Ricketts, 2009). As a result, this theory is believed to be based on questionable assumptions about leadership personality (Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman & Humphrey, 2011). It can be concluded that leaders classified by the trait leadership theory would successfully solve follower challenges. However, it is important to note that the path-goal theory also projected that a leader sticking to one leadership trait may fail in distinct circumstances (House, 1996).

2.4.2 Behavioural Theory

Derue et al. (2011) stated that behavioural theory denotes great leaders are made and that leadership capabilities can be learned and do not have to be inherent. Leadership skills can be acquired through training and observation. According to Hayward (2006), behavioural theory took over when the trait theory lost support. Behavioural theory researchers have determined the efficiency or failure of leaders according to their

leadership style rather than their attributes. Therefore, their performance explains their behaviour, and their leadership styles are studied according to their influence (Chiok, 2001). According to a behavioural approach to leadership, a leader's actions impact followers more than their personality traits (Williams, 2004).

In their 2003 study on behavioural leadership, Bolden, Gosling, Marturano, and Dennison focused on effective engagement and the effects of leaders on their followers. Adeyemi (2010), on the other hand, asserted that behavioral leadership is distinct from situational leadership theory in that it may be employee- or job-centered. An employee-centred behavioural theory achieves purpose when leaders use effective supervision, but a job-centred behavioural theory becomes operational when employees have close control.

Behavioural research is categorised as a social science because it can use case studies and quantitative methods to examine the many kinds of behaviour leaders display under various conditions and circumstances (Derue et al., 2011). It was highlighted that diverse organizational circumstances can call for using distinct leadership philosophies. As a result, a leader must be sensitive to the current situation and the organisation's needs. A leader becomes rigid when using one leadership style over another based on preference. Such a leader lacks organisation attention and demonstrates poor leadership (Hayward, 2006).

In conclusion, leaders should consider their leadership style carefully because achieving the organisation's vision and goals comes first. In addition, behavioural leadership theory, like trait leadership theory, contends that leadership abilities can be acquired rather than innate.

2.4.3 Situational Leadership Theory

Situational leadership theory focuses on leadership effectiveness more than leader behaviour (Miskel, 2001), as situational leaders perform according to certain conditions (Rowland, 2008). Hence, situational leadership approaches and practices differ depending on the situation or the organisation. Consequently, the preference for a particular leader depends on situational variables such as leadership style and work expectations, followers' preferences and expectations, superiors' prerequisites of a leadership style, organisational culture, and job demands and responsibilities (Miskel,

2001). Other factors include the outside environment, the background of the organization, the size of the group that needs to be directed, the level of involvement required of group members, the cultural expectations of subordinates, and the time required and permitted for decision-making (Hoy & Miskel, 2001).

- **Path-goal theory**

The path-goal theory, Fiedler's contingency theory, Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory, and the leader-member exchange theory are the four approaches that collectively make up the situational theory (Rowland, 2008). The path-goal theory, a leadership theory developed by House in 1971 and updated by him in 1996, is the focus of this study (House, 1996). The idea was mainly supported by the leader's contribution to the necessary knowledge, guidance, and resources to ensure subordinates' satisfaction and successful performance (House, 1996; House & Michell, 1974).

The situational leadership theory is significant because, in the early phases of management studies, management writers and practitioners held fast to the idea that there was just one optimum way to go about things. The environment, on the other hand, became more dynamic as science and technology developed. It made leaders reevaluate what they thought about leadership. Due to challenges to the concept of the one perfect way, scholars developed situational leadership, a commonly adaptable model (Robbins & Judge, 2013; Robbins, 2005).

The situational leadership theory contends that neither a single leadership style is always the best nor the best leadership style suitable for all circumstances. The path-goal theory also reflects how effective and influential leaders modify their leadership style to suit situational requirements (Robbins, 2005). Leaders make appropriate decisions for their leadership style, knowledge, and behaviour in a particular situation. Therefore, the most important thing for leaders to remember if they want to be effective is the leadership style or behaviour most suited for the specific situation and the influence of decision (Nahavandi, 2006, cited in Ricketts, 2009).

The same is true for the path-goal theory, one of the most reputable leadership theories (Robbins, 2005). Assisting followers in achieving their goals and providing the required direction and support to ensure they are compatible with the group or

organisation's overall objectives are critical components of the leader's role (House, 1996). The concept of "path-goal" relates to the idea that effective leaders should make clear the steps that need to be taken by their employees to accomplish their work goals and should make the journey along the road easier by avoiding obstacles that stand in the way of achieving the goal. In other words, the path-goal leadership theory depends on how a leader behaves and significantly affects how their followers think is expected of them in terms of effort and performance. Leaders achieve these objectives by providing the required direction, advice, help, and other resources to the team members (Robbins, 2005).

- **Directive leaders**

Accordingly, leadership behaviour could take on different patterns in situational leadership. The first corresponds to the directing leader, who outlines responsibilities for followers, organizes work, and provides detailed instructions on how to do the tasks (House, 1996). The degree to which a leader uses one-way communication to clarify their followers' roles, inform them of what, where, and when the work should be done, how the task should be completed, and closely monitor their performance is considered the amount of direction a leader provides, or their directive behaviour (House, 1996; Ricketts, 2009).

- **Supportive leaders**

The helpful leader, on the other hand, is pleasant and expresses concern for their followers' needs (House, 1996). The level of support and encouragement is related to the leader's helpful behaviour, which includes listening, offering support and encouragement, facilitating engagement, and including followers in decision-making.

- **Participative leaders**

Participative leadership is a democratic leadership style in which leaders guide their employees and encourage them to provide feedback (Chen & Tjosvold, D. 2006). Thus, they use their followers' suggestions and consult them during decision-making (House, 1996).

The path-goal theory challenges the appropriate situational components currently in the research environment as a part of situational theory. Understanding this idea makes it much easier to identify leadership styles and offer suggestions on how they impact how individuals behave at work in different conditions.

2.4.4 Transformational Leadership Theory

Transformational leadership theory was conceptualised by Burns (1978) and expanded by Bass and Riggio (2006). Burns asserted that transformational leadership extends leaders' capabilities by encouraging and inspiring their followers to achieve the expected outcomes. Transformational leaders significantly influence their followers' work attitudes and behaviours by developing a connection between them and their followers and helping to shape their values, aspirations, and priorities (Yukl, 2010). These leaders are highly visible, motivate team members to perform their tasks efficiently and effectively, and use communication to achieve their objectives by putting both the needs of the individual and the group first (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Moreover, these leaders always search for new ideas to motivate the organisation towards achieving its vision. Avolio and Yammarino (2013) underlined this type of leadership as vital regardless of the sector or setting in which it is practised. Bass (1999) identified four dimensions of transformational leadership: idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration.

- **Idealised influence**

A transformational leader acts as a role model and displays a charismatic personality, influencing others to want to become more like the leader. It can typically be expressed by a leader's willingness to take risks and follow a core set of values, convictions, and ethical principles. Such leaders build trust with their followers, and the followers, in turn, develop confidence in their leader through idealised leadership influence.

- **Inspirational motivation**

The leader encourages confidence, motivation, and a sense of purpose in his followers. The transformational leader articulates a clear vision for the future, communicates group expectations, and demonstrates a commitment to the established goals. Such an aspect of transformational leadership requires exceptional

communication skills, as the leader must convey messages with precision, power, and a sense of authority. Other important leadership behaviours include optimism, enthusiasm, and the ability to focus on the positive.

- **Intellectual stimulation**

Transformational leaders value creativity and autonomy among followers. The leaders support their followers by involving them in decision-making and stimulating their efforts to be as creative and innovative as possible in identifying solutions to problems. To this end, transformational leaders challenge assumptions and solicit followers' ideas without criticism, which helps change how followers think about and frame problems and obstacles. Therefore, the leader's vision helps followers see the big picture.

- **Individualised consideration**

Each follower or group member has specific needs and desires. For example, some are motivated by money, while others are motivated by change and enthusiasm. The individualised concern element in transformational leadership recognises these needs. The leader must determine what motivates everyone by observing body language (i.e., eyes drooping) or other signs. One-to-one coaching and mentoring provide opportunities for customised training sessions for each team member and allow employees to grow and become fulfilled in their positions (Bass, 1999).

In summary, transformational leadership provides vision and direction to the organisation and employees, strengthening, inspiring, and motivating them to work towards a common goal.

2.4.5 Transactional Leadership Theory

In a compromise between the leader and the follower, known as transactional leadership, the leader receives something from the subordinate in exchange for another thing. By emphasizing exchange and conditional reward behaviour, it aims to meet the demands of followers (Sarros & Santora, 2001). To get the assistance of followers, the leader establishes an acceptable structure and offers incentives. Transactional leaders do not focus on discipline because employees realise discipline will follow any performance deviation (Van Eeden, Cilliers & Van Deventer, 2008). The

action involves arranging the work agreement, paying compensation, and granting different rewards to subordinates, encouraging them toward job excellence. Therefore, Sarros and Santora (2001) opined that subordinates are entirely liable for their everyday jobs in transactional leadership as they are penalised for failure and rewarded for successes.

The contrast between transformational and transactional leadership lies in the leadership style (Emery & Barker, 2007). The transactional initiative has a selling style, while the transformational approach has an encouragement style (Bolden et al., 2003). The theories discussed above indicated that no appropriate leadership style is performed and implemented in all situations, as leadership style should vary following the organisation's nature and expected outputs (Fayzhall, 2020). When viewing successful leaders, it became eminent that not all have become similarly successful, and no single style is always correct. Circumstances force efficient leaders into using situational leadership styles.

2.5 Leadership Styles

Leadership is crucial for organisations to foster success and accomplish organisational objectives, increase productivity, a healthy work culture, and increase employee satisfaction and performance. Employees' motivation depends upon individual demands and resistance to internal-external or sociopsychic conflict (Hakobyan & Khachatryan, 2022). Leaders guide their staff, establish expectations, and offer encouragement and criticism. They make judgements, assist with strategy development and implementation, and lead their team to success. As a result, according to Marturano and Gosling (2008), leadership styles constitute the features, qualities, abilities, and behaviours that leaders employ while interacting with subordinates. The ability to persuade a group of people to accomplish a shared goal is known as leadership (Andersen, 2016; Ribeiro, Duarte, Filipe & Torres de Oliveira, 2020; Torlak et al., 2021). The leaders' style may change or adapt to a certain setting depending on the situation. Successful, effective leadership demands both the flexibility and ability to make necessary changes and the knowledge of what direction a given circumstance requires (Einola & Alvesson, 2021).

This early study remained effective as it determined three major leadership styles recognised by the U.S. Army (1993).

- Authoritarian or autocratic: These leaders tell their employees what to do and how to do it without requesting their advice.
- Participative or democratic: The leader includes one or more employees in the decision-making process, but the leader typically maintains the final decision-making authority.
- Delegate or laissez-faire (free rein): The leader allows the employees to make the decisions; however, the leader stays responsible for their actions (Lewin et al., 1939).

Leadership styles directly related to the above styles and the organisational environment include:

- Transactional leadership, and
- Transformational leadership.

These two leadership philosophies are related to a society that no longer respects authoritative command leadership, claim Rees and French (2013). According to Ojokuku, Odetayo, and Sajuyigbe (2012), the preferred leadership style has to do with how the leader interacts with, inspires, instructs, and persuades others, as well as how they decide to accomplish organizational success.

Following the appearance of behavioural theory, scholars like Lewin et al. (1939) and Ikram, Ghavifekr and Kenayathulla (2021) recognised democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire leadership styles as predetermines of excelled or reduced institutional growth. Transformational and transactional leadership styles also contain characteristics and a nature that might have a negative or positive impact in shaping employees' attitudes and motivations, consequently affecting organisational success or failure. Furthermore, Bass and Riggio (2006) found that groups led by transformational leaders exhibit more robust organisational dedication styles than groups headed by transactional leaders.

Although they are complementary, transactional leadership is usually thought to be

less effective than transformational leadership (Northouse, 2014). On the other hand, a democratic leadership style is preferable for participatory decision-making. In contrast, a laissez-faire leadership style is preferred when employees show strong work ethics and can perform independently without close supervision. According to theoretical literature, there is not a single leadership style that works for all situations. Instead, a leader's style depends on various situational and contextual factors, including team dynamics, organizational structure, issues, culture, peers, environment, desired goals, and individual preferences (Moodley, 2019). Consequently, multiple leadership styles can be employed within an organisational setting, and each style has advantages and disadvantages.

Democratic leadership, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, and authoritarian leadership styles, as also discussed by Hossin, Azam and Hossain (2023), were the five independent variables that were the focus of this study. The relationship between these leadership philosophies and the dependent variable, employee performance, is highlighted and discussed below.

2.6 Leadership Styles and Employee Performance

Even though leadership styles influence employees' job performance, the degree of influence varies following different leadership styles. For instance, a democratic leader ensures that his staff members are informed on nearly everything that affects the allocated tasks, the decisions they make, and the problems they have to solve. Such organisations would benefit from these leaders' constant focus on building highly motivated, smaller teams (Fiaz, Su, Ikram & Saqib 2017). Researchers have also supported the view that transformational leadership positively impacts employees' self-efficacy, motivation, creativity, and the staff's overall performance (Bronkhorst, Steijn & Vermeeren, 2015). On the other hand, a transactional leadership style is favoured to enhance employees' pride and empowerment compared to a transformational leadership style (LePine, Zhang, Crawford & Rich, 2015; Epitropaki & Martin, 2005).

Leaders who exercise a laissez-faire leadership style are viewed as ineffective and negatively impacting employees' job performance (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016; Bass & Avolio, 1993). Similarly, when it comes to making decisions, leaders with an autocratic

style are the most powerful and have the right to handle any issue. Subordinates under an authoritarian leader receive clear instructions on accomplishing the organisation's objectives (Iqbal et al., 2020). Most frequently, under this leadership style, workers are not appreciated or trusted, and punishment is applied to inspire them (Abu-Abdissamad & Augustine, 2018).

Furthermore, organisational performance success highly depends on the organisation's leaders and employees' job performance (Kamali, 2014). According to Mehra, Smith, Dixon and Robertson (2006), organisations can exceed their performance by focusing on the impact of leadership. Leaders perform a fundamental role in organisations as they evaluate external circumstances, give direction to employees to face challenges and establish organisational excellence for continuous progress and development (Odumeru & Ifeanyi, 2013; Chu & Lai, 2011). Moreover, a proper leadership style has been reported to be a strategic factor influencing innovation and knowledge sharing because leaders enable organisations to integrate, share, and use knowledge innovatively (Mushtaq & Bokhari, 2011).

Additionally, job performance has been viewed as a crucial variable in human resource management and organisational behaviour and paramount to the effective functioning of organisations (Shooshtarian, Ameli & Aminilari, 2013; Roth, Purvis & Bobko, 2012). The importance stems from the idea that individual performance affects the delivery of the organisation's goods and services and overall performance (Pushpakumari, 2008). The above discussion demonstrated a significant relationship between leadership styles and employee performance.

Focusing on Africa, Mohammed et al. (2014) confirmed the link between leadership philosophy and employee efficiency in Nigerian organisations. Recommendations were to create a reward system for employee performance excellence (Northouse, 2014; Menz, 2012), as leadership styles also impacted employee performance in the hospitality industry and service delivery organisations in Kenya. On the other hand, a study by Nandutu, Magolo and Gimuguni (2014) in Uganda indicated only a moderate relationship between leadership style and employee performance.

Studies from all over the world and in Africa demonstrate a relationship between leadership style and employee performance. Even the effects vary depending on the

type of leadership used. Employee job satisfaction and employee performance, respectively the mediating and dependent variables, were discussed separately in Chapter 3.

2.6.1 Democratic Leadership Styles and Employee Performance

A democratic leadership style allows employees the freedom of option in decision-making and follows participative practices to cope with challenges. Similarly, Malik, Saleem and Naeem (2016), Ittner and Larcker (2002) and Milgron and Holmstrom (1991) explained democratic leadership as motivating employees by offering them the freedom to participate in organisational decision-making. The authors vouched that this leadership style is preferred in organisations where activities give direction and benefit social authority due to appreciating the contributions of accomplices. Furthermore, democratic leadership shares responsibilities and courses of action regarding daily tasks and meetings (Heneman & Gresham, 1999). Leaders' suggestions and proposals on basic concerns are enough to transfer tasks and projects to subordinates and permit them full authority and commitment to their obligations. Femi (2014) confirmed that leaders' effective communication with their subordinates improves their overall performance.

However, Kirega (2006) assessed employees' perspectives of their leaders' styles, limiting the research to leader participation and consideration of others. The findings were that employees would not make significant decisions until they received leaders' commitment through unwavering approval and agreement on task delegation. Democratic leaders encourage employees' participation in task delegation, and they listen to their ideas (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958). Moreover, they regard their workforce's abilities and give them full initiative (Harris & Chapman, 2004), believing the employees are accountable, dependable, enthusiastic, and knowledgeable (Aithal & Kumar, 2016).

Because democratic leaders are interactive, helpful, and friendly and encourage input from group members (Fiaz et al., 2017), subordinates respect orders more readily, willingly accept responsibilities, and maximise their efforts to achieve organisational goals (Wu, Tsai, Fey & Wu, 2006). A possible challenge in following this leadership

style might be the belief that all employees have equal values, irrespective of their skill and ability.

Although sound, the idea might be impeded by procedures and workable outcomes where more guidance is needed for large projects and actions. Researchers have highlighted that though democratic leadership appears quite appealing, specifically because of the flexibility of staff contributions, results could be interrupted due to a delay in decision-making (Jony, Alam, Amin & Jahangir, 2019). As highlighted by Al-Malki and Juan (2018), organisational excellence is related to the overall performance of employees, which is feasible only when a facilitating leader reduces stress, clearly defines obligations, and instils group spirit among subordinates.

The inference is that despite the benefits that a democratic leadership style produces, there are still implementation downsides. For example, Nwachukwu (2000) highlighted five fundamental challenges in democratic leadership: competency, crises, consensus, pseudo-participation, and adherence. On the other hand, a democratic leadership style enables organisations to take full advantage of other benefits to increase performance and employee retention if implemented effectively and efficiently.

Because of the discussions above, a democratic leadership style was included in this study to investigate its significant impact on employee job performance and satisfaction in the Amhara region public services.

2.6.2 Transformational Leadership Styles and Employee Performance

Transformational leadership encourages and inspires employees to innovate and generate new ways to grow and enhance the organisation (Burns, 1978; Avolio, Reichard, Hannah, Walumbwa & Chan, 2009; Samad et al., 2015). These leaders allow their reliable employees independent status to make decisions and support new problem-solving approaches. Another key attribute of the transformational leadership style is recognising business processes that no longer work while focusing on streamlining or changing processes as required (Yukl, 2011; Atan & Mahmood, 2019). According to Robbins & Judge (2013), transformational leaders can motivate their subordinates by earning their respect and trust and encouraging them to work more

imaginatively to achieve goals. These leaders are charismatic and capable of portraying and fulfilling a vision.

Consequently, transformational leaders inspire professionalism, integration, and synergy for organisational achievement, goal fulfilment, and employee efficiency (Aydin et al., 2013; Cho & Dansereau, 2010; Samad, Reaburn, Davis & Ahmed, 2015). Followers of this leadership style reach solutions and organisational fine-tuning (Avolio et al., 2009; Afshinpour, 2014). These leaders honour ethical values and integrity, support innovation, and foster unity and teamwork to achieve goals, missions, and visions to change work behaviour (Korejan & Shahbazi, 2016; Ojokuku et al., 2012).

The past two decades have evidenced several organisations applying a transformational leadership style to enhance employee competence and performance and to sustain organisational competence and efficiency (Audenaert, Vanderstraeten, Buyens & Desmidt, 2014; Campion et al., 2011). The Ethiopian federal government has also endeavoured to mobilise people and execute development agendas through transformational leadership. However, results have not been achieved for various reasons, such as transformational leadership focusing more on awareness, perceptions, and core humanistic parameters than monetary motivation and, as such, negatively affecting employee performance.

In conclusion, transformational leaders are a key factor in organisational development as they provide employees with confidence, opportunities for advancement, and the ability to participate (Agarwal & Gupta, 2021; Masood & Afsar, 2017; Afsa, 2014). They bring people together, share a vision of the organisation's future, take responsibility for decision-making, and face challenges and risks, recognising how best to overcome these challenges (Mokhber, 2015). The benefits are that leaders maintain an energetic and remarkable work capacity by transmitting passion and motivation to their employees (Masood & Afsar, 2017). In return, they receive appreciation and cooperation, growing the organisation (Holt, 2018; Jiatong et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2020; Lai, Tang, Lu, Lee & Lin, 2020; Eliyana & Ma'arif, 2019).

2.6.3 Transactional Leadership Styles and Employee Performance

Transactional leadership was created as a leadership style during the industrial revolution, where leaders focused on supervision, organisation, and performance and

relied on rewards and reprimands to achieve optimal job performance from their subordinates (Kumar & Susmitha, 2019). The transactional leadership style focuses on specific corporate challenges, changing goals and expectancies, and employees contributing toward the goals (Avolio et al., 2009). In the event, transactional leaders apply strong tracking and evaluation mechanisms (Afshinpour, 2014; Obiwuru, Okwu, Akpa, Nwankwere, 2011; Avolio, 2001). This leadership style is a give-and-take motion between leaders and followers for the cause of achieving organisational goals and objectives (Samad et al., 2015; Bass, 1999).

Because the transactional leadership style rewards employees based on their expected work culture, ethics, and activities, it is considered autocratic due to the leader's power and influence over followers during decision-making (Samad et al., 2015; Lyons & Schneider, 2009). Researchers have argued about the impact of transactional leadership on employee performance over time (Longe, 2014), as tangible and intangible reward systems are established and offered to employees depending on how their performance is assessed (Longe, 2014). This style is thus based on the mental transactions between leaders and employees, contingent on task completion (Bass, 1999) and the agreement of loyalty and punishment for poor performance or failure to meet executive expectations (Naidu & Van der Walt, 2005).

The level and value of employee awards are positively associated with innovative work behaviour. Transactions between leaders and employees follow rigorous processes and procedures to maintain their job engagement and are viewed as not emotionally or psychologically result-oriented (Trottier, Van Wart & Wang, 2008). Rulings and penalties have three elements: conditional rewards, active exception management, and passive exception management (Avolio & Bass, 2001). To achieve conditional rewards, leaders create and set goals and expectations for employee productivity and apply incentives through prizes and promotions, encouraging employees to push boundaries and achieve the desired results.

Therefore, transactional leadership styles are blamed for being more management-oriented than strategically oriented (Hargis, Watt & Piotrowski, 2011), as the agreement is based on a partnership between leaders and employees (Winkler, 2010). Organisational change becomes difficult because leaders are more interested in the process than finding radical solutions to failures, while accomplishment compensates

employees rather than motivates them to work efficiently (Naidu & Van der Walt, 2005). Leaders are often not interested in subordinates, while employees work for rewards rather than for achieving organisational goals (Howell & Avolio, 1993).

In response to the literature findings, this study created a hypothesis to quantify the impact of the transactional leadership style on employee performance.

2.6.4 Laissez-faire Leadership Styles and Employee Performance

A laissez-faire leadership style lets employees use their creativity, resources, and experiences to meet organisational goals. Leaders do not micromanage or get involved in how their followers do their jobs, giving little instruction or guidance (Samad et al., 2015; Bass & Riggio, 2006). This leadership style is typically indifferent to employees' actions, attitudes, and results or output. Instead, they separate themselves from participation in decision-making, monitoring, and assessing performance impact (Chowdhury, 2014) and do not show high organisational involvement (Malik et al., 2016). As a result, a laissez-faire leadership style is usually related to inefficiency, inadequacy, and unhappiness (Deluga, 1992, cited in Koech & Namusonge, 2012).

Laissez-faire leaders avoid making judgments, giving awards, and giving positive or negative feedback to subordinates, according to Bass and Avolio (1999) and Den Hartog, Van Muijen, and Koopman (1997). Laissez-faire leadership, according to Jones and Rudd (2007), is an inert style characterised by resistance to active participation and the belief that the best leadership results from distancing oneself from activities. Thus, these leaders also avoid active participation in goal setting and involvement when leadership direction is needed (Ejimabo, 2015; Van Eeden et al., 2008).

Despite its strong critique, there are arguments in favour of the laissez-faire leadership style. It is claimed that responsible staff can work unhindered to reach their goals, setting them free of micromanagement. Therefore, this leadership style is recommended for organisations whose employees are highly qualified and capable, have a high sense of responsibility, have proven productive track records, and have a solid organisational culture, as expected from innovative people (Khan et al., 2020).

In contrast, public sector leaders using a laissez-faire leadership style are often incompetent and less committed to their organisation, putting it at risk (Anbazhagan & Kotur, 2014). The approach also displays laziness and reluctance, a lack of decision-making, and an inability to unite and motivate employees. Without proper and timely task determination and disciplinary action, employee freedom could lead to less innovation and bad performance behaviour (Piccolo et al., 2012).

As a result, this study examined the effect of the laissez-faire leadership style on employee performance, which may be valuable for both theoretical understanding and practical implementation.

2.6.5 Autocratic Leadership Styles and Employee Performance

Autocratic leadership is a management style where leaders control and make decisions according to their rules without inviting member or group input and involvement (Kerfoot, 2013; Afshinpour, 2014). These leaders dictate work methods and processes and create highly structured, rigid environments that clearly outline and communicate rules (Ojokuku et al., 2012). According to Khan, Khan and Qureshi (2015), autocratic leadership retains unlimited power and decision-making authority. They are the focal point of all institutional action, and all authority flows from them and terminates with them (Akor, 2014), while they direct others without seeking their input (Iqbal et al., 2015). Nwankwo and Richards (2001) projected autocratic leaders as leaders exclusively making decisions on producing goods and services without considering human elements (Wachira, Gitumu & Mbugua, 2017).

Such a leadership style leaves employees feeling unempowered and discouraged because they are not trusted with decisions or important tasks due to the rigid nature of the implementation (Malik et al., 2016). Iqbal et al. (2015) found that autocratic leaders lack creativity and promote side conversations. One-sided communication and decision-making affect employees' happiness and belonging. Though it is considered an effective leadership style in the short term when needed, an autocratic style restricts workplace socialisation and communication, which is cordial for powerful organisational overall performance. Autocratic leadership also leads to organisational conflicts that negatively affect performance (Iqbal et al., 2015).

In contrast, researchers found an autocratic leadership style positively impacting organisational performance in certain circumstances. This leadership style was found more suitable when a task must be completed within a specific deadline (Bhargavi & Yaseen, 2016; Bouckennooghe, Raja, Butt, Abbas & Bilgrami, 2017).). Quoting Sonnentag (2002: 5), “performance is what the organisation hires one to do and do it well,” indicating that employee performance means the efficient completion of the assigned tasks, loyalty, a sense of honesty, and obedience towards the leader (Chandra & Priyono, 2016). However, employees show little loyalty towards these leaders and often wait for the moment they fail and are removed from their posts (Velu, Manxhari, Demiri & Jahaj, 2017).

In conclusion, employees must perform their tasks efficiently and on time and carry out leaders’ instructions, or organisational outcomes will be adversely affected (Veale, 2010). Depending on the situation, perceptions of the autocratic leadership style with skills like strength and safety can change and positively affect performance, especially in economic and social uncertainty (Rast, Hogg & Giessner, 2013).

Autocratic leadership was included in this study to determine its significant impact on employee performance.

This study included autocratic leadership in order to determine whether it had a significant impact on employee performance.

2.7 Context of Leadership Practices

Leadership practices include actions and strategies to ensure employee performance and organisational growth (Rowland, 2008).

2.7.1 Global Leadership Practices

Globally, leadership is viewed as the ability to develop excellence through the talent and potential of employees from various groups, organisations, and societies. Drive, complexity, and diversity are characteristics of the global environment diffusing into the domestic environment (Harvey & Buckley, 2002; Gregersen, Morrison & Black, 1998). Increased demands are assigned to management and leadership skills at all organisational levels. Although the need to develop leaders with adequate skills emerged in recent years, there are still large gaps between global staffing

requirements and effective leadership implementation (Fitzerald & Schutte, 2010; Morrison, 2000).

Similarly, globalisation has increased the need for rapid change, networked and dynamic challenges, and the demand for ethical and accountable leadership permeating all organisations. A systematic literature review has explored and found leadership challenges in all sectors of society (Morse, Buss & Kinghorn, 2007; Hagen, Tootoonchi & Hassan, 2005; Mobley & Dorfman, 2003). Social, technological, economic, and agricultural challenges influence how society, businesses, and government organise and appoint leaders to drive progress and sustainability, as free trade initiatives and changing demographics have increased competition and regional conflicts.

The global talent pool has had a major shift, including an ageing workforce, regional social and political turmoil, and inequality due to prejudices towards developing countries. Challenges and increased interconnectivity require constant, agile thinking (Dunn, Lafferty & Alford, 2012). The accelerating change era places new demands on leaders at all levels. These demands require leaders and organisations to adapt quickly to unforeseen circumstances and adopt new leadership practices.

Arguably, how people have understood and responded to leadership phenomena has changed over the past decades with devastating consequences. Traditional leadership methods do not seem to handle social experiences, and business is not progressing as usual. Therefore, leadership must deal with heightened volatility while there is uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity in the decision-making environment. The result is that leadership research has dramatically increased over the past decades, and various leadership theories have been developed. The field has advanced from theory to understanding common leadership processes occurring indefinitely depending on the hierarchical level at which leaders are employed (Kaiser, Hogan & Craig, 2008).

2.7.2 Africa Leadership Practices

African leadership proponents have stated that unless African indigenous leadership is restored, efforts to achieve proper development will be put off (Ngambi, 2004). An African renaissance emphasizing African knowledge and identity is at the heart of the

appeal for indigenous leadership (Makgoba, 1999). According to Said (2002), the concept fits post-colonial theory, which calls for colonized people to reclaim their culture, history, and knowledge. According to various experts who have studied African leadership, colonialism significantly impacted indigenous African cultural leadership (Ngambi, 2004). As a result, appeals are made to institutionalize and restore African indigenous leadership.

Many issues were brought up, including what might have gone wrong if Africa hadn't performed better in the past. Jackson (2004) attributed colonialism as the main reason for Africa's corruption and ineffective leadership. The basic premise is that if traditional African leadership could be restored in African leaders, these leaders would be developed with a high-quality attitude and strategy to address current significant concerns. According to African perspectives on leadership, Western leadership techniques are at fault for dominating Africa's past (Horwitz, 2002).

The impracticality of implementing a Western leadership style in Africa was also examined by Blunt and Jones (1997), who also made note of the continent's distinct cultural and economic growth trajectory. They argued that African leadership ideas and performance are at odds with Western leadership methods, and they criticized the idea of leadership that colonialism introduced to Africa to ameliorate conditions. On the other hand, Nzelibé (1986) said that Western colonialism had a significant impact on indigenous African leadership, and Kiggundu (1991) shared this view, claiming that colonialism had damaged local institutions and leadership practices. African leadership was displaced by colonizers' colonial administrative systems, and indigenous viewpoints were undervalued and then discarded.

However, according to some academics (Boaduo, 2011; Blunt & Jones, 1997; Jaeger, 1990), ideas regarding African techniques were undiscovered because African leadership difficulties were deeply embedded in a whole distinct social, cultural, political, and economic milieu. They also criticized the premise (Mangaliso, 2001) that outsiders can learn little from African leadership.

Africans have received adequate training and knowledge to work in lower-level administrative centres, claims the Afro-Centric Alliance (2001). Africans' professional leadership skills could no longer be developed, according to Rodney (1974). Only a

small percentage of Africans were qualified to fill higher leadership posts once African countries attained independence. According to Dia (2013), the mismatch between informal, traditional, and official institutions is to blame for many of Africa's issues.

Researchers of African leadership philosophy, like Iguisi (2007), Edoho (2001), and Kiggundu (1991), examined the records of several African settings and found evidence of effective indigenous leadership in Africa throughout the pre-colonial era. Identifying the type of African leadership structures that existed in Africa before colonization was rarely feasible due to a lack of written records. Researchers' lack of interest in researching African literature or the writings of African historians was observed by Mazrui (1998). Western leadership is seen to represent individualism and Eurocentrism. The African leadership paradigm, on the other hand, is thought to combine traditionalism, collectivism, and mythology.

Nzelibe (1986) and Messay (2006) opined that traditional values, assumptions, and concepts typically guided African leadership and administrative strategies courting ancient instances that enabled African kingdoms to endeavour large action plans. Strong leadership kingdoms like those in Ethiopia, Ghana, Mali, Songhai, and Oyo flourished in ancient Africa.

However, historians of management and leadership, norms of delegation and authority, and judicial structures (Kiggundu, 1991; Pankhurst, 1990) pointed out that African leadership tended to be exceptionally individualised and authoritarian and that management was based on conquest and attributed with supernatural powers. For instance, at some point during the imperial era, all people and territories in Ethiopia were regarded as the emperor's exclusive property. Similarly, Blunt and Jones (1997) characterised African leadership as authoritarian, paternalistic, traditional, and intolerant to alternative ideas. According to Mutabazi (2002), minor tribes and kingdoms comprised most African nations before colonisation. The hit leaders (heads of their own family or clan) could listen effectively and focus on pursuing communal goals.

Ngambi (2004) discovered that heads or chiefs were trained to analyze social issues and their effects on the community. According to him, each clan head had some autonomy, and they learnt from their forebears how to protect and uphold the interests

of their community without upsetting the other leaders. Furthermore, Ngambi (2004) distinguished exceptional social standards in African leaders to appreciate their life cycle position while helping their subjects and community change into more than recent individuals and companies. Regarding human relationships, the number one obligation of leadership was to create a tight network and ensure environmental harmony. Their social structure and interpersonal interactions emphasized a universal fellowship.

Ezzamel (2004) significantly discussed employee competencies in historical Egypt. Unlike the incidental accounts in many leadership books, Ezzamel (2004) provided an in-depth discussion on organisational labour, which included the analysis of labour divisions, administration, and accounting in historical Egypt. From the discussions, it can be concluded that Western and African leadership traditions display strong points of comparison in demanding situations and opportunities for enhancing leadership styles (Afegbua & Adejuwon, 2012).

The inference is that African leaders must improve their present leadership practices while considering their cultural and historical past to complement and enhance performance, as its marginal role in the global political and financial system has generated and persisted in debate (Vargas-Bustos, 2016).

Moreover, Bond (2006) and Amin (2014) opined that Africa's underdevelopment is particularly integrated with its colonial and post-colonial capitalist and imperialist economic exploitation and marginalisation. Due to commercial and technological developments, Africa's poverty and underdevelopment could be attached to global issues (Amin, 2014). Collective endeavours between international capitalists and the local elite caused Africa's poverty by exploring its resources at different periods. Historically, both public and private institutions collaborated to exploit and drain Africa's resources at the expense of the African community (Bond, 2006). Hence, leadership development and effectiveness are related to international political economy trends.

2.7.3 Ethiopian Leadership Practices

A famously Christian country, Ethiopia is encircled by Muslims. Ethiopia preserved its position as one of the few independent nations in Africa, according to Tekeste (1990).

Its beliefs are rooted in the lengthy customs of Ethiopia's sovereign state dating back to the first century before Christ. The central province was known as Axum, a state of focus from about 340 after the death of Christ, a monarchy based on a universal religion, Christianity, political and religious literary, and legal traditions (Teshome, 2001). As a Christian country, Ethiopia is recognised for its education. The church education system produced significant accomplishments like the Aksum Cathedral, the rock churches of Labella, the facildas architecture of Gondar, unique literary systems, an original alphabet and number system, Saint Yared's art, and Zar'a Yaeqob's philosophy (Mercier, 2001). The development and maintenance of effective bureaucracies, as well as respect for social and ethical institutions, have all been facilitated by education (Bahru, 1994). Considering indigenous populations is crucial while examining Ethiopian leadership styles.

However, it is acknowledged that in underdeveloped nations, leadership behaviour frequently overlooks important challenges. Teshale (1995), Donham and James (2002), Clapham (2002), Messay (2006), and others contend that Ethiopia has long had a destructive and violent leadership. The country has suffered from autocracy from ancient times to the present day. It has been observed that although it is not the age of autocracy, there are still clear signs of autocracy in leadership styles currently practised in Ethiopia. Leaders still wield power not for the benefit of the public and are still implementing social and racial strategies. One of the worst traits of Ethiopia's current leadership is nepotism. It stands out in the hiring and placement of officers in particular. Ethiopia's current administration is to blame for many difficult-to-solve new complex issues.

Although leadership studies are of widespread interest to Western scholars, the perspectives of Africans, especially Ethiopians, have been widely ignored. Dima and Ghinea (2016) found that Ethiopian leadership receives minimal attention from worldwide academic leadership research and other research development organizations. Messay (2006) further suggested that Westerners are unable to address Ethiopia's leadership issues because they are afraid of being accused of racism if they do. Consequently, this strategy permitted Ethiopian leaders to maintain their leadership style.

2.7.4 Ethiopian Public Service Leadership Practices

There had been no change in the civil service reform programme until 2001. A lack of change can be attributed to conservatism with little plan for change and an unwillingness to consider new developments (Cavaco, Paulos, Domingos & Alves, 2023). Members considered civil service reform as targeting the human mindset instead of enhancing organisational structure. However, Ethiopian civil servants are concerned about the future and have advocated change (Mengesha & Common, 2006). In addition, inadequate planning and implementation strategies have hindered the effective delivery of public services. The absence of a long-term vision and proactive policies has resulted in recurring challenges and an inability to address the evolving needs of the larger population.

Ethiopia has attempted to initiate changes in public service organisations at different stages, but unfortunately, those change initiatives were not realised. For instance, business process reengineering (BPR) could not be implemented because of a lack of knowledge, dedication, and adverse conversation problems. Solution-oriented measures were not taken to alleviate issues related to public service organisations (Mengistu & Vogel, 2006). Furthermore, BPR could not succeed without proper communication with employees, clients, stakeholders, and the community (Cavaco et al., 2023). Ethiopian government attempts to ensure economic development and societal welfare through civil service reform programmes as the old bureaucratic system of the civil service system and resistance to change are viewed as vital barriers.

In conclusion, issues of poor service delivery in Ethiopia can be attributed to several factors, primarily stemming from the actions and decisions of its leaders. Over the years, the Ethiopian government has struggled to effectively address the needs and aspirations of its citizens, resulting in a decline in public service quality (Solomon, 2013; Apaza, 2014). Additionally, Ethiopian leaders have often displayed a lack of commitment to public services, prioritising their personal and political interests over the welfare of the people. Such practices have eroded public trust and confidence in the government's ability to fulfil its responsibilities.

Ultimately, the transformation of Ethiopia's public service delivery requires a strong political will, commitment to the welfare of the citizens, and a collective effort from all stakeholders involved (Bierschenk & de Sardan, 2021). By recognising the shortcomings of the past and embracing a comprehensive reform agenda, Ethiopian civil service leaders can reshape the trajectory of service delivery, foster sustainable development and ensure a brighter future for all Ethiopians.

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the concept of leadership, leadership theories and styles, the global and African leadership context, and leadership practices in Ethiopia. Accordingly, various leadership theories and styles influencing performance were discussed to underline the prospect of using suitable leadership styles to enhance leadership practices. As noticed from the discussions, no leadership style suits all situations, while the Ethiopian civil service sector needs leadership practices reform to ensure employee performance and service delivery.

Chapter 3 discusses concepts around employee job satisfaction and performance.

CHAPTER 3: EMPLOYEE JOB SATISFACTION AND PERFORMANCE

3.1 Introduction

Employee job satisfaction and performance are two interconnected aspects that play a crucial role in the success of an organisation. Job satisfaction describes the degree of happiness and fulfilment employees experience in their organisational function (Arif, Zainudin & Hamid, 2019). On the other hand, employee job performance relates to the quality and quantity of work an employee produces. Employees who are satisfied with their jobs tend to be more engaged, motivated, and committed to their work. They feel a sense of accomplishment and derive higher satisfaction from their jobs, which improves performance and productivity (Barkhuizen & Gumede, 2021).

Any organisation has prioritised achieving high-performance levels through productivity and efficiency. Happier workers put more effort into their performance, leading to commitment and better work outcomes. Employees' performance is an important building block and a factor to be analysed and enhanced in the organisation (Mustapha, Fakokunde & Awolusi, 2014).

Effort is a key factor in determining an individual's performance. Green and Heywood (2008) stated that two aspects influence job performance: the personal qualities of the individual, including knowledge, skill, capacity, and satisfaction, and the work environment: job expectations, performance feedback, workspace, equipment, and incentives. Employees who are satisfied with their jobs become more involved in performance excellence to improve the organisation's overall performance.

The inference is that enthusiastic and dedicated employees are essential to the success of an organisation. All organisations must ensure that their employees are satisfied with their assigned tasks and how well the different aspects of their work correspond with the employee's wishes and psychological requirements. Therefore, human resource management plays a prominent role and must be focused on organisational effectiveness and efficiency. It is important to maintain, sustain and develop employees' performance to support the achievement of corporate objectives (Harisa & Wibowo, 2023). The larger the gap between what employees receive and what they want from their jobs, the less likely they will be satisfied.

This chapter discusses key theories and ideas about how leadership styles and employee performance relate to job satisfaction. As a result, the following topics are covered:

- Leadership styles and employee job satisfaction.
- Job satisfaction and employee performance.
- Leadership styles and employee job performance.
- Employee job performance and its measures.
- Performance appraisal.
- Performance appraisal procedures, criteria, and challenges.
- Identification of a research gap.
- Conceptual framework on leadership styles.

All concepts and theories described in this chapter are important to provide an understanding contributing to the study's successful completion.

3.2 Job Satisfaction

There has not been a clear-cut and agreed definition for job satisfaction regarding organisational perceptions, knowledge, and experiences. As indicated above, job satisfaction is the fulfilment derived while doing a job or the attitude and feelings towards a job resulting from the perception of job value and expectations (Barkhuizen & Gumede, 2021). It is difficult for a supervisor to ensure that employees are satisfied and perform their work more efficiently and effectively (Haque & Aston, 2016), while well-treated subordinates experience more satisfaction than others (Arif, Zainudin & Hamid, 2019; Haque, Faizan & Cockrill, 2017). Moreover, highly satisfied employees have a more positive and favourable attitude towards their leaders and the organisation than employees with a negative attitude (Armstrong, 2020).

Job satisfaction comprises physiological and psychological factors and depends on identifying an individual's efficiency orientation towards their organisational role. Conversely, job satisfaction or dissatisfaction refers to an employee's positive and negative feelings, attitudes, and beliefs about their job (Chukwura, 2017). Feelings are

considered a fundamental principle of humans and could play many roles within an organisation (Cubay, 2020).

The basic human need in an organisation is their feelings about their work and surroundings (David, Armanu & Afnan, 2017). Job satisfaction is an organisational behaviour that indicates different reactions to a particular job. It depends on a person's well-being and thus sustains positive and negative energies in their personal and social life (Fayzhall, 2020). Gina and Henry (2018) opined that labour organisations should become effective social systems to support human resources, as these resources play a substantial role in achieving organisational success.

Moreover, close attention should be paid to employee satisfaction, as this basic human need is a key variable affecting organisational performance. Manzoor (2019) also reported that job satisfaction is a known factor in the emergence of organisational behaviour and reflects employees' feelings about their jobs. Any increase or decrease in basic needs directly impacts an organisation's bottom line, such as those discussed in Section 3.3: Maslow's hierarchy of motivation and Herzberg's theory of internal and external motives (Masa'deh, 2016).

Negative motivations will negatively affect job satisfaction and may cause unusual reactions among employees (Novitasari et al., 2021). Moreover, identifying internal and external motivational factors allows managers to control and limit the negative motivational impact that transforms satisfaction into dissatisfaction, adversely affecting employee performance (Jabbar & Hussin, 2018; Awolusi, 2014).

Accordingly, intrinsic factors are related to personal and psychological values, while extrinsic factors originate from environmental aspects external to the person, dependent on specific circumstances (Kalsoom, Khan & Zubair, 2018). The most important external factor that organisations should consider and support is leadership style (Kheir-Faddul & Dănăiață, 2019). Failure to pay attention to leadership styles can lead to widespread problems that take time to resolve. If implemented incorrectly, leadership style is one of the main issues leading to employee dissatisfaction (Kafui, 2017). Therefore, this study used job satisfaction as a mediating variable between leadership style and job performance.

Theories on job satisfaction compare different research findings that help explain decisions and actions to the researcher and are used to identify gaps in knowledge

and research. Typical theories on job satisfaction will be discussed in the following sections to define the research variables for analysis.

3.3 Theories on Job Satisfaction

Theories help leaders, organisations, and researchers gain insight into employee well-being, motivation, and productivity. They lay the foundation for practice by connecting the abstract with the concrete, leading to relevant research application-oriented practice. This study used theories to establish the relevance and relationship between the variables: leadership styles, job satisfaction and employee performance.

A theory could also be an intangible tool for organising information and providing an action framework and a roadmap to guide the researcher towards specific goals (Griffin & McMahan, 2013). Theories explain how and why individuals assume, feel, and act as they do, establishing vital variables and linking them to create tentative propositions that may be tested through analysis (Newstrom, 2007). Several prominent theories have been created to explain the concept of satisfaction, such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory, Herzberg's two-factor theory, McGregor's 'X' and 'Y' theories, Theory of needs, Vroom's expectancy theory, and Goal-setting theory. These theories will be discussed in more detail in the following sections.

3.3.1 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory

Maslow's (1943) theory describes what motivates people, while his hierarchy of needs (Wehrich & Koontz, 1999) is recognised worldwide. Abraham Maslow theorised that an individual's motivational needs could be arranged in a hierarchy. Once a given level of needs is satisfied, it no longer benefits to motivate those needs. Thus, the next level of needs must be activated to motivate and satisfy the individual (Luthans, 2005), as illustrated in Figure 3.1.

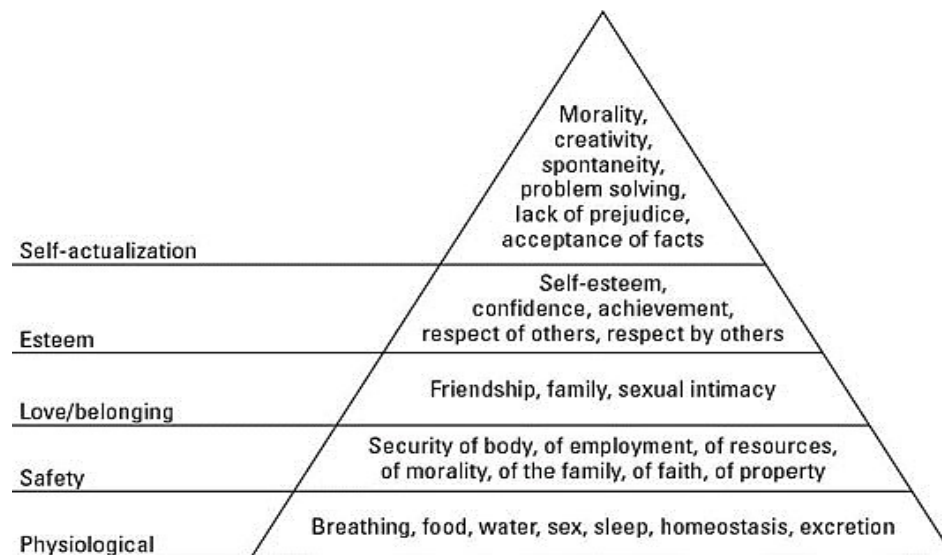


Figure 3. 1 Maslow's Five Hierarchies of Need

Source: Maslow (1943: 390)

The five essential needs of humans: physiological, safety, love and belonging, self-esteem, and self-actualization—drive our behaviour. Food, oxygen, water, shelter, and sleep are physiological needs. The need for security is income, such as salary and employment, where to live, healthcare facilities, and well-being. Belonging and love comprise relationships with family, friends, colleagues, team members, and other members of the community and society. Self-esteem needs are status, respect, promotion, good grades, and rewards. The need for self-actualisation lies in the realisation of higher possibilities and abilities.

Human beings first try to satisfy their physiological needs. Once low-level needs are met, higher-level needs come to the fore and are worked on. People are constantly striving to meet new needs occurring in their lives. Although Maslow's theory has either been fully refuted or partially validated (Wahba & Bridwell, 1976), his hierarchy of needs remains popular, especially in organisational contexts. The hierarchy of needs provides a legitimate explanation for the motivation of human behaviour (Rauschenberger, Schmitt & Hunter, 1980).

Furthermore, the concept of need satisfaction provides a suitable framework for frontline leaders to change employee behaviour (Cangemi, 2009). The intuitive nature of this hierarchical order theory rests on heightened awareness of emotions, which supports practitioners in applying this theory despite a lack of evidence of its

effectiveness (Wahba & Bridwell, 1976). This framework varies from person to person and from day to day, though everyone has a motivational framework (Redmond, 2010).

The conclusion is that satisfying an individual's needs depends on the importance and the extent to which the individual perceives different aspects of life as meeting those needs (Karimi & Sanavi, 2014). Maslow's hierarchy of needs was the first motivational theory that led to other satisfaction theories and was used as a foundation for this study to enhance the findings and hypothetical comparisons.

As a result, the relationship between leadership styles and employee performance will be examined in accordance with the mediating variable of job satisfaction.

3.3.2 Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory

Hertzberg (1966) expressed his theory of motivation from a perspective similar to Maslow's, suggesting that work could be a major source of job satisfaction (Vecchio, 2000). According to Torrington and Hall (1991), the underlying assumption of this theory is that a pleased employee is a productive employee. According to Hertzberg's findings, factors affecting job satisfaction and dissatisfaction differ (Mullins, 2007; Greenberg and Baron, 2008). Herzberg's two-factor theory focused on job dissatisfaction as a frustration stemming from different variables, identifying satisfaction as a motivator and dissatisfaction as a hygiene factor. The top six factors causing dissatisfaction are company policies, supervision, relationship with superiors, working conditions, salary, and relationship with colleagues. In contrast, achievement, recognition, work, responsibility, progress, and growth are the six factors influencing happiness.

Vecchio (2000) compared Herzberg's theory to Maslow's hierarchy of needs and concluded that hygiene factors are similar to Maslow's lower-level needs. Motivators are endogenous factors that induce satisfaction. Hygiene factors are external variables that must be satisfied to avoid complaints (Ivancevich, 2008). These hygiene factors prevent complaints but do not necessarily lead to satisfaction; only motivational factors can achieve that.

Luthans (2005) also compared Herzberg's hygiene factors with Maslow's higher needs theory. His conclusions reinforced the understanding that managers can use hygiene factors to motivate their employees but that they will be dissatisfied if they have complaints about hygiene factors (Luthans, 2005). Kreitner and Kinicki (2008) concluded that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not opposites, as poor working conditions can also lead to dissatisfaction. Still, good working conditions do not inevitably lead to job satisfaction. Similarly, positive motivation exists if employees are satisfied with their jobs, but eliminating negative motivations does not automatically lead to satisfaction. Job satisfaction is thus intrinsically dependent on external factors in the work environment.

Furthermore, the investigation will consider the mediating impact of job satisfaction in the relationship between leadership styles and employee performance.

3.3.3 McGregor's Theory 'X' and 'Y'

McGregor's (1960) theories X and Y are part of the group of motivational theories. Both theories, which are very different from each other, are used by managers to motivate their employees. Theory X emphasises supervision, while Theory Y underlines the motivating role of job satisfaction, rewards, recognition, and the encouragement of workers to complete tasks without supervision (Gannon & Boguszak, 2013). The growth of organisations over the decades, particularly in the 21st century, has seen an enormous shift in focus to enhancing employees' quality of work life through ways of operating and functioning. The shift in focus comes with a psychological desire to highlight organisational factors, such as leadership style, that influence and impact employee performance.

Motivated employees are confident in their ability to perform well and feel content in the workplace (Gannon & Boguszak, 2013). If employees are not motivated, it raises concerns about how leaders and employees interact. More specifically, it points to organisational concerns such as the need to understand theories X and Y and how job satisfaction impacts organisational and employee performance.

McGregor viewed Theories X and Y as opposite extremes (Gannon & Boguszak, 2013). To that end, Theory X is based on the idea that employees tend to be passive or negative. The leader's role is to organise, manage, and direct while changing

employees' behaviour. Theory Y takes the perspective that employees do not dynamically complete tasks. The leader creates an environment that allows them to reach their full potential. However, the inference is that leadership styles influence employee job satisfaction (Tepret & Tuna, 2015). Robbins and Judge (2013) described job satisfaction as a positive emotion when employees evaluate their jobs. Positive individual characteristics and people with high job satisfaction have positive emotions at work.

Literature has provided evidence about the undeniable value and contribution of job satisfaction on employee performance (Wanous, Poland, Premack & Davis, 1974), lower stress (Rahman & Sen, 1987), motivation (Golizade, 2014), productivity (Fassoulis & Alexopoulos, 2015), organisational effectiveness (Ostroff, 1992), and improving employee well-being (Satuf et al., 2018). Therefore, high levels of job satisfaction also positively impact other variables, such as reduced turnover (Lu, Lin, Wu, Hsieh & Chang, 2002).

3.3.4 Theory of Needs or Achievement Motivation Theory

The theory of needs, or the achievement motivation theory (McClelland, 1985), explains how people have a compelling drive to succeed and strive for personal achievement rather than the reward following success. They have a desire to do something better or more efficiently than it has been done before, and therefore, prefer challenging work as high achievers (Shajahan & Shajahan, 2004).

The theory includes three interrelated needs or motives. First, accomplishment drives a person to excel, achieve a set of standards, and succeed. Achievement expresses more responsibility, especially if a team has to accomplish a goal. Achievers are productive (Zander, 1968) and participate effectively in more complex processes and problem-solving (Smelser, 1961). It was also found that employees with high-performance ratios prefer to complete tasks alone rather than working in a team or group (Shaw & Harkey, 1976). The inference is that employee satisfaction and motivation positively impact job performance.

Second, power is the need to make others behave in a way they would not have behaved otherwise (Shajahan & Shajahan, 2004). The need for power reflects an employee's desire to influence, guide, encourage, or teach others. People who have

acquired high personal power have a desire to dominate others, which is mainly considered undesirable. Dedicated employees tend to help others direct their efforts towards achieving organisational goals. Leaders with more significant social power have more influence than employees with large personal power (Chusmir, 1986). The need for power is important because it reflects the employee's sense of dominance over other people. More powerful people want to build prestige, status, and dominance and have more active and determined oversight mechanisms in communicating with others.

Third, affiliation indicates the need to feel involved and have a sense of community within a group. It is believed that people tend to create and maintain long-term, optimistic, and meaningful interpersonal relations (Smelser, 1961; Shaw & Harkey, 1976). Employees with high affiliation scores typically want to stay socially connected, connect with different groups, and be liked by everyone. Leaders with high loyalty should be aware that it could become challenging to make decisions, thus affecting their leadership quality (Stein, 1979).

The need for belonging can also be viewed as a social aspect. Leadership is typically a trait with a high need for attachment. High achievers participate well in group challenges and are likelier to become group leaders (Stein, 1979). Most employees need to be sociable, belong, be given flexibility, and be motivated towards positive aspects of teamwork (Thomas, 1996).

This study examined the impact of leadership styles on employee performance mediated by job satisfaction. According to the theory above, the need for achievement, power, and affiliation enhances employee satisfaction and effectiveness.

3.3.5 Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Comparable to Locke's (1969) theory of value perception, Vroom's (1964) expectancies theory highlights that an individual's job satisfaction is determined by the discrepancy between their expectations and the results of their employees (Jayaratne, 1993). Vroom's model includes valences, expected values, while instrumentality is emphasised (Thiagaraj & Thangaswamy, 2017; Čiarnienė, Kumpikaitė & Vienažindienė, 2010; Mitchell & Albright, 1972.). First, value presents human emotion, the orientation of results, and how much employees want extrinsic rewards such as

money or other incentives. Second, expectations indicate that employees have different expectations and confidence levels about what they can do. Third, instrumentality is the awareness of whether employees can achieve what they want (Thiagaraj & Thangaswamy, 2017). According to these perspectives, personal motivation is accomplished by believing that effort and achievement are positively correlated and appropriate. Accomplishment leads to desired rewards, and rewards satisfy important human needs. The desire to be human and to satisfy one's needs is strong enough to endeavour (Čiarnienė et al., 2010).

This human environment fit model is a classic illustration of expectations emphasising how well a person's personality traits, wants and needs fit with their skills and environmental characteristics, resources, and requirements (Caplan, 1979; Yahaya, 2011). From this point of view, environmental characteristics are very similar in some cases. However, it could also indicate individual variability or completely different behaviours, as new behaviours can occur due to the interaction between environments.

The conclusion is that there can be many different working instances depending on the harmonious characteristics of people and the environment. Essentially, this theory emphasised the effect of individual expectations on job satisfaction. Many unmet expectations negatively impact different factors, leading to poor job satisfaction (Turnley & Feldman, 2000; Wanous et al., 1992).

3.3.6 Goal-Setting Theory

Locke and Latham's (1990) goal-setting theory was viewed as a major source of knowledge on motivation and satisfaction (Shajahan, 2004), indicating that specific goals lead to increased performance. Challenging goals, when accepted, result in higher performance than easy goals, and feedback leads to higher performance. Therefore, valuable feedback makes people perform better. Researchers who evaluated the goal-setting theory indicated the advantage of specific, challenging goals with feedback as a motivating force (Robbins, 2005). In the late 1960s, Locke also stated that intentions expressed as goals can be important in job motivation and satisfaction (Shajahan & Shajahan, 2004).

Specific goals lead to better performance, while feedback helps identify discrepancies between what people do and want to do. Hence, studies assessing goal-setting theory suggested specific and challenging goals driven by feedback (Robbins, 2005). A study of the performance of over forty thousand participants on well over a hundred different tasks (Perry, Richter & Beauvais, 2006) indicated that goal theory raises awareness of the importance of goals and that challenging goals require focusing on the problem, encouraging perseverance, and working hard to reach the set goals. Goal theory has been combined with cognitive theory to understand the phenomenon better.

Goal-setting theory claims job satisfaction is also related to personal perceptions and values (Locke, 1969) determined by what is perceived as desired and received. Thus, working alone does not determine job satisfaction but requires a human-environmental relationship called an interactive approach. According to Locke, there are three basics in the job evaluation process: the individual's perception of work aspects, criteria of personal value, and evaluation of the relationship between personal values and perceptions. At the end of the evaluation process, individuals might vary in job satisfaction outcomes (Locke, 1969).

The conclusion is that job satisfaction differs according to personal worth and the perception of what an individual receives and wants. The theory asserts the clarification of the nature and situation of job satisfaction and performance for a better understanding and analysis of research results.

3.4 Leadership Styles and Job Satisfaction

Kennerly (1989) explained that job satisfaction is the primary aspect determining organisational leadership style effectiveness. Employee job satisfaction is essential because it creates a sense of belonging to the organisation and a productive atmosphere (Al Yahyaee & Mohamad, 2021). According to research by Bekele (2021), employee work satisfaction is influenced by the organisation's leadership style. Seashore and Taber (1975) proclaimed that organisational climate, leadership, and employee relationships could influence job satisfaction, as asserted by several researchers (Chen & Tjosvold, 2006; Brockner, Tyler & Schneider, 1992). Moreover, Mount, Ilies and Johnson (2006) stated that low job satisfaction leads to decreased employee performance, high absenteeism, high turnover, and early retirement. Yukl

(1971) opined that employee satisfaction increases with a leader who cares for and supports them.

Based on Judge, Zhang & Glerum's (2020) view, job satisfaction is a strong or intuitive attachment to many aspects of work. It is instituted by various emotions and feelings about the job. Researchers also indicated a discrepancy between various rewards and the amount of money needed to experience job fulfilment (all aspects of employment) regardless of the tasks' relevance (Eliyana & Ma'arif, 2019). Personal satisfaction or dissatisfaction with work is determined by how individuals interpret their aspirations and performance as matching or opposing the job. Thus, job satisfaction is a healthy worker approach that involves action and thought by evaluating tasks as a degree of appreciation for achieving important moral values (Jason & Sn, 2021). People are pleased with their leaders if maximum challenges are met, and there is no contradiction between expectations and reality (McCann, Stevens, Cartwright & Halliday, 2014).

Finally, it has been found that there is a direct relationship between leadership philosophies and employee satisfaction. Various types of leadership styles can dramatically impact employee satisfaction in the workplace. This study also looked at the relationship between several leadership styles and employee job satisfaction, which will be covered in detail as follows.

3.4.1 Democratic Leadership Style and Job Satisfaction

Democratic or participatory leadership implies that decisions are shared between leaders and subordinates. Democratic leaders usually empower subordinates by consulting them to receive input and agreement on the best course of action (Cheong, Yammarino, Dionne, Spain & Chou-Yu, 2019). However, asking subordinates for their opinion can slow down decision-making as subordinates may feel in control of the situation. However, employees are more likely to communicate regularly.

Democratic leaders foster job satisfaction by enriching work circumstances and increasing people's skills and experience. Moreover, a democratic leadership style makes employees feel involved in their career planning and empowered to achieve their goals. Awareness and desired progress increase ownership and commitment.

Democratic management styles are most effective when teamwork and quality are more important than speed (Bhatti, Alshagawi, Zakariya & Juhari, 2013; Sheikh, 2022).

Al-Ababneh (2013) and Belias and Koustelios (2014) indicated that a democratic leadership style is preferred and most influential in increasing job satisfaction in service industries as it positively impacts behaviour, knowledge, and engagement. Furthermore, Belias and Koustelios (2013) found that workers led by democratic leaders were less productive but contributed higher quality work than workers led by authoritarian leaders, while this style is more likely to create satisfied employees and achieve organisational success. Mosadeghrad and Ferdosi (2013) and Abd Rahman (2021) also confirmed that democratic leadership styles positively affect job satisfaction and organisational success.

This study proposed a favourable association between democratic leadership style and employee satisfaction based on the literature review results.

3.4.2 Transformational Leadership Style and Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is strongly influenced by leadership style, according to earlier studies (Barling, Loughlin, and Kelloway, 2002), and transformational leadership enhances employee perception and organizational engagement (Ojokuku et al., 2012; Lok & Crawford, 2004; Awamleh & Al-Dmour, 2004). A transformational leader is a leader who shapes subordinates into leaders and fosters positive, constructive change in followers (Al Yahyaee & Mohamad, 2021). The capacity of the leader to instil follower values to promote organisational transformation affects a variety of follower attitudes and performance outcomes, at least in part (Groves, 2020).

It was determined that transformational leaders agree that empowering employees and providing them with independence improves their motivation and happiness (Top, Akdere, & Tarcan, 2015). A transformational leader is primarily concerned with creating and strengthening employees' confidence by helping them actively discover their potential, envision a future organisational scenario, and engage with subordinates to explore their goals and work to meet their needs. Most importantly, transformational leaders communicate achievable organisational visions and missions to employees (Peterson, Walumbwa, Byron & Myrowitz, 2009; Northhouse, 2014). These leaders perceive organisational control as redundant because of a sense of

fulfilment from showing respect and trust in subordinates' inputs, behaviour, and job satisfaction (Givens, 2008).

Bass and Riggio (2006) interpreted a transformational leadership style based on the 'Four I's.' According to the inspirational motivation component, transformational leaders motivate their team members to perform complex tasks by communicating their vision and plans (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Second, according to the idealised influence dimension (Asghar & Oino, 2017), transformational leaders impact their employees by serving as positive role models. Third, the intellectual stimulation dimension suggests that transformational leaders encourage their teams to think imaginatively about and approach difficult situations. Lastly, according to the individual dimension, transformational leaders help their subordinates by serving as mentors and facilitators (Bass & Riggio, 2006). These findings confirm an association between transformational leadership and employee job satisfaction.

This study suggested looking into how transformational leadership influences employee job satisfaction.

3.4.3 Transactional Leadership Style and Job Satisfaction

Transactional leadership is a management style that creates clear organisational structures and systems to achieve specific goals. This leadership approach is based on the exchange or transactions between leaders and followers, where rewards or punishment are contingent upon completing tasks and meeting performance expectations (Saleem, 2015).

Rewards come in promotions, raises, or other incentives, while penalties can include dismissals or lower salary increases (Janssen & van Yperen, 2004). However, research has indicated this leadership style cannot be applied effectively in all situations (Bryant, 2003) because job satisfaction depends on transactions about rewards and punishments. Thus, the inference is that the transactional leadership style negatively affects job satisfaction in the long run (Hater & Bass, 1988).

Research by Epitropaki and Martin (2005) indicated that employees prefer transformational leadership for its emotional and caring aspects rather than the contingent reward system of transactional leadership. Janssen and van Yperen (2004) confirmed these findings by stating that while transactional leadership can be effective

in specific contexts, it may not be the most suitable approach to fostering creativity, innovation, and long-term employee engagement. Thus, the effectiveness of transactional and transformational leadership styles varies by the context of the work and the organisation (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005).

3.4.4 Laissez-faire Leadership Style and Job Satisfaction

Laissez-faire leadership is characterized by little intervention or direction from the boss; as a result, employees have autonomy and freedom to carry out their jobs as they see fit (Yukl, 2010).

Challenges are attached to laissez-faire leadership, as most employees may require more structure, guidance, and feedback from their leaders to perform successfully (Wong & Giessner, 2016). The result is that this leadership style is associated with negative subordinate attitudes and job performance (Judge et al., 2020). Various other studies found a negative correlation between laissez-faire leadership and employee job satisfaction (Maynard, Mathieu, Marsh & Ruddy, 2007; Piccolo et al., 2012). Skogstad et al. (2014) found laissez-faire leadership destructive and undermining job satisfaction in the long run, while Kelloway, Sivanathan, Francis and Barling (2005) agreed that such a leadership style is associated with poor communication and conflicting roles, perceived ambiguity, and poor interpersonal relationships, all of which contribute to a stressful and ineffective work environment.

However, some researchers also argued that freedom could enable a laissez-faire leadership style in unique work environments (Ryan & Tipu, 2013). Employees who value autonomy and independence may appreciate the freedom and flexibility provided by this leadership style. Performance excellence is facilitated when subordinates of laissez-faire leaders are inherently self-motivated, experienced, and highly competent (Yang, 2015). Employees' self-discipline, self-determination, self-confidence, and self-orientation are strengthened, and innovation and creativity are stimulated (Armundsen & Martinsen, 2014).

For more insight, suggestions, and communication, this study looked at the impact of a laissez-faire leadership style on employee job satisfaction.

3.4.5 Autocratic Leadership Style and Job Satisfaction

In autocratic leadership, the leader holds all the power and decision-making authority. The leader typically makes decisions without seeking input or feedback from subordinates, which can impact employee job satisfaction. Therefore, authoritarian leadership is often viewed as a less desirable style. However, it is prevalent in various cultures and organisations because of its functional effectiveness in accomplishing tasks and goals (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008).

Literature has indicated a renewed interest in authoritarian leadership (Harms, Wood, Landay, Lester & Lester, 2016). Leaders might adopt an inherently autocratic leadership style, making decisions for subordinates while mitigating some of the destructive elements of this approach with goodwill and compassion (Chaneta, 2014). Achieving organisational goals requires subordinates to adhere to a hierarchical structure and follow centralised instructions. Although there is consensus that this leadership style is negatively associated with individual job satisfaction and team motivation, some researchers suggest that task-focused autocracy promotes individual outcomes, group performance, and operational excellence. However, the autocratic leadership style needs reconsideration due to its overall and global low efficiency (Harms et al., 2018). According to Bass and Bass (2008), autocratic leadership could only be effective when job tasks are structured and employee involvement is high.

Therefore, the relation between autocratic leadership and employee job satisfaction was hypothesised for further investigation.

3.5 Job Satisfaction and Employee Performance

Job satisfaction is a widely studied concept in organisational behaviour and is viewed as a vital workplace attitude associated with job performance in any organisation. Mogotsi, Boon and Fletcher (2011) stated that the absence of job satisfaction causes absenteeism, high turnover, low morale, tardiness and dissatisfaction, less progress and involvement in decision-making, and thus, the overall negative performance of the organisation.

Conversely, job satisfaction improves employee performance because employees are content and perform satisfactorily when job requirements match their skills. Motivated employees lead to good performance, and good performance leads to employee job satisfaction (Kinicki, Jacobson, Peterson & Prussia, 2013). After a comprehensive evaluation of employee satisfaction, evidence showed that organisations with high employee satisfaction were more successful than those with low satisfaction (Zadel et al. 2008). Research by Ajili, Salehi, Rezaei-Moghaddam, Hayati and Karbalaee (2012) confirmed that job satisfaction positively impacts employee performance. On the other hand, results suggest that satisfied employees are becoming rare (Jason & Sn, 2015).

Job satisfaction is viewed as a fundamental right of employment regardless of caste, religion, race, or place of work (Iqbal, 2010), as human capital is the organisation's most important resource. Some researchers argued that in certain circumstances, physical and work environments influence employee satisfaction and performance more than personal financial needs (Aldhuwaihi, 2013).

Research has produced many theories and models on job satisfaction associated with employee attitudes, beliefs, and feelings. Most organisations have also realised that satisfied employees exhibit a positive attitude towards their work, perform at higher levels, and remain committed (Long & Thean, 2011; Aldhuwaihi, 2013) and that job satisfaction depends on employees' cognitive perceptions of their jobs (Thompson & Phua, 2012). These employees are more innovative and creative within their organisations (Mwesigwa, Tusiime & Ssekiziyivu, 2020) and more productive than their counterparts (Saari & Judge, 2004). It can be ascribed to employee job satisfaction, morale, performance, positive attitude, and healthy employee relationships (Mwesigwa et al., 2020). Thus, job satisfaction is a multifaceted structure that includes intrinsic and extrinsic indicators (Nanjundeswaraswamy, 2019).

On the other hand, dissatisfied employees are an organisation's first enemy because they often try to step outside their work responsibilities. According to Herzberg's two-factor theory (see 3.3.2), the work environment modulates employee job satisfaction in three ways. The first is the job itself, the second is the responsibilities of a particular job, and the third is the credit received for completing the job competently. That is why high employee absenteeism, high turnover, and low job engagement are ascribed to low job satisfaction (Camp, 1994).

Improving productivity is a key issue for current organisations and is well-studied in organisational behaviour and human development (Bommer, Johnson, Rich, Podsakoff & MacKenzie, 1995; Lawler & Worley, 2006; Schiemann, 2009). Job performance is part of performance appraisal and management, is included in effective talent management, and forms part of one of the most sought-after development interventions in talent portfolios (Bateman & Snell, 2007; Fay & Luhrmann, 2004; Hellriegel Jackson & Slocum, 2005). Employee performance indicates an individual's job presentation after making the required effort. It combines meaningful work, a dedicated profile, and the proximity to and care of peers and employers (Hellriegel, Jackson & Slocum, 2005; Karakas, 2010).

Hence, an effective employee performance management system maximises human resource productivity and increases business success. That is why some organisations outperform others and are listed as the most popular employers of the year. Literature has suggested using good incentive schemes to motivate employees to participate in meaningful work (Friedman & Sunder, 1994; Roth et al., 1995). Simultaneously, related real-world evidence has indicated that incentives and rewards have multiple effects and may be less important in improving employee performance (Gupta & Shaw, 2014). It could be due to the changing nature of work and the rise of post-globalisation knowledge, which overturns popular perceptions driving individual job performance (Frese & Fay, 2001).

A basic assumption of organisational psychology is that individual roles and organisational goals are expected to be interdependent (Pfeffer & Salancik, 2015). However, little attention has been paid to understanding intrapersonal and interpersonal behaviours when assessing effectiveness. Therefore, there is a need to change the focus from a rigid, task-oriented attitude to a broader awareness of the different roles in modern organisations to positively impact employee performance (Fried, Levi & Laurence, 2008; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2008).

The conclusion is that rigorous research must be performed to clearly define employee performance measures and develop appropriate tools to validate factors affecting employee performance. The following sections will discuss performance dimensions (task performance, adaptive performance, and contextual performance), performance measures, performance appraisal, performance measurement standards, and criteria.

3.6 Employee Job Performance Dimensions

Employee job performance is the capacity to carry out particular organizational tasks to accomplish objectives (Moonsri, 2018). It is also linked to an individual's productivity relative to peers regarding various work-related behaviours and outcomes (Jermsittiparsert, Suan & Kaliappen, 2020). Furthermore, performance is determined by the quality and quantity of work done as part of an employee's assignment and directly affects financial and non-financial results (Anitha, 2014). Therefore, organisations need highly qualified employees to achieve their business goals, visions, and missions and gain a competitive advantage (Thevanes & Mangaleswaran, 2018).

Since performance significantly impacts the quality of an organisation or company and determines the success rate (Farisi, Irnawati & Fahmi, 2020), human resource management could significantly benchmark the leadership style of an organisation (Adha, Pranoto & Purwasih, 2019). That is one reason why leading companies and organisations view employee motivation as an incentive to improve performance. It will distinguish the two processing aspects of performance: behavioural engagement and expected outcomes (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Campbell, McCloy, Oppler & Sager, 1993). Therefore, during work performance assessment, behavioural engagement and expected outcomes are units associated with one another (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). The significant overlap between these constructs is evident as expected performance is influenced by factors such as motivation, psychological features, and talent rather than behavioural aspects. Because there are different dimensions to employee job performance, the researcher considered the most essential components below.

3.6.1 Task Performance

Task performance comprises job-explicit behaviours, such as crucial job responsibilities in the job description. Conway (1999) explained task performance as requiring more cognitive ability, primarily facilitated through task knowledge, task skill, and task behaviour. The essential antecedents of task performance are thus the ability to perform the job through prior knowledge and experience.

Furthermore, task performance is segmented into technical administrative task performance and leadership task performance. Technical administrative task

performance comprises planning, organising, and administering the day-to-day work through technical ability and business judgment. In contrast, leadership task performance incorporates setting strategic goals, upholding the required performance standards, and motivating and directing subordinates to accomplish the job (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Tripathy, 2014).

3.6.2 Adaptive Performance

Some employees can adapt to and support the job profile in dynamic situations (Hesketh & Neal, 1999). Studies have found that once employees achieve perfection in their assigned tasks, they try to adjust their attitude and behaviour to the requirements of their job roles (Huang Ryan, Zabel & Palmer, 2014). An effective adaptive performance necessitates the employee's ability to deal with volatile work circumstances, such as technological transformations, changes in the core job assignment, and organisational restructuring (Baard, Rench & Kozlowski, 2014). That implies that employees complete their assignments under contingent or situational working conditions.

3.6.3 Contextual Performance

Contextual performance addresses non-job performance factors, including behaviours and efforts not directly related to an employee's work but significant in creating a better workplace (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000). Scholars refer to non-job components as organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) or voluntary actions from employees to benefit employers' intangibly (Bateman & Snell, 2007) as expected of an employee but not mentioned in their job description.

Consequently, unstated expectations are prosocial or extra-role behaviour due to reasonably unspoken expectations and role behaviour. It could be a reasonable aspect like volunteering for additional work, serving others in completing complex tasks, upholding enthusiasm at work, cooperating with others in sharing essential resources and knowledge, keeping by the prescribed rules, and supporting structural choices during modification (Coleman & Borman, 2000; Bateman & Snell, 2007). Such behaviour contributes to job excellence and an organisational climate that effectively aids in achieving corporate and individual productivity and structure.

Pradhan and Jenna (2017) developed a scale according to which aspects of employee and task performance could be measured, given the increased importance of task performance, contextual performance, and adaptive performance. They called it the Triarchy model that illustrates the expected distal outcomes of employee performance, illustrated in Figure 3.2.

Triarchy Model of Employee Performance

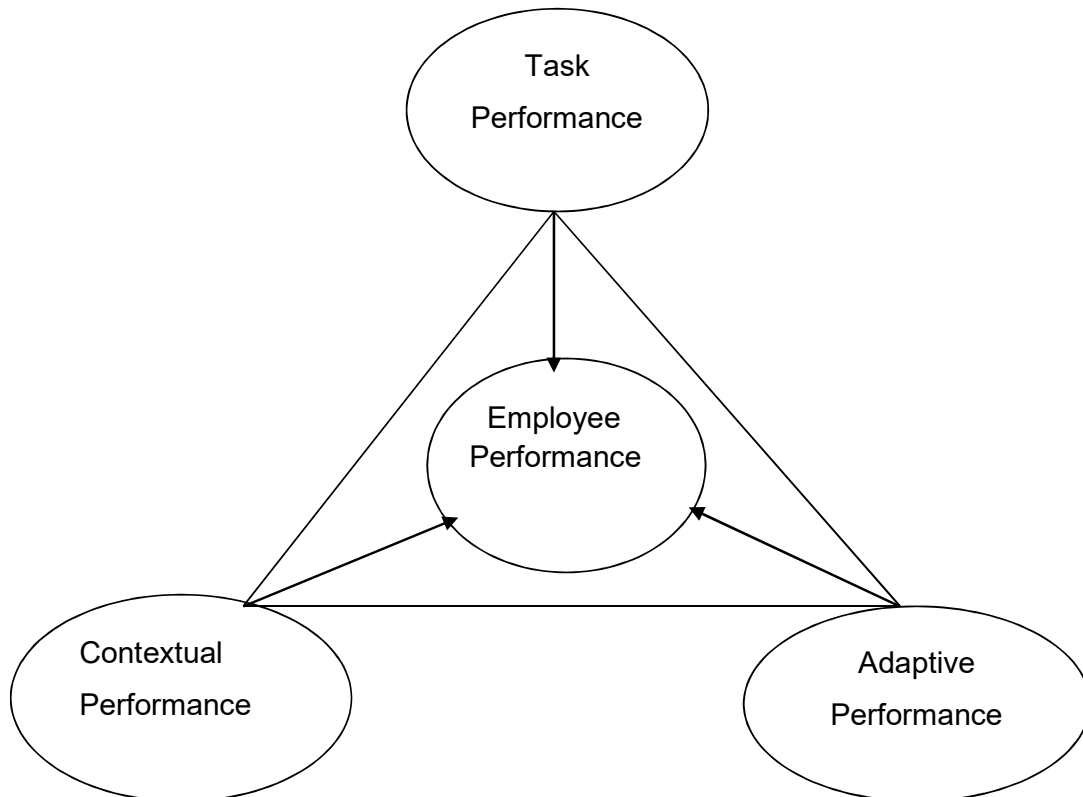


Figure 3. 2 Triarchy Model of Employee Performance

Source: Pradhan & Jena (2017: 80)

The Triarchy model of employee performance in Figure 3.2 explains the discussion on contextual performance in 3.6.3. It concerns an employee's work performance and the importance of task, contextual, and adaptive performance to benefit employers' intangibility.

3.7 Measures of Employee Job Performance

Employee job performance is evaluated using the observed outcomes. However, it is not the only mechanism to measure performance, as other parameters measure employee job performance linked to their behaviour (Armstrong, 2020). For instance, Divya and Gomathi (2015) maintained that employee performance is measured against the performance standards set by the organisation. Various measures can be considered, such as productivity, efficiency, quality, and profitability (Webster & Ahuja, 2006).

Efficiency as a measuring instrument is the ability to produce projected outcomes within predictable cost, while competence is achieving the planned objectives or target (Stoner, 1996). Productivity is expressed as the ratio of output to input (Stoner, Freeman & Gilbert, 1995). It measures how the individual, organisation, and industry convert input into goods and services. It also measures how much output is produced per unit of resources employed (Lipsey, 1989).

Quality relates to products or services that satisfy identified needs (Kotler & Armstrong, 2002), pointing towards progressively attaining superior products and services at a more competitive price (Stoner, 1996). Thus, enhanced employee performance is related to well-informed consumers about service quality, while poor employee performance is related to high customer complaints and brand switching. Consequently, employee performance can be understood by how assigned activities are well performed and executed following work expectations (Lipsey, 1989).

Performance is also about performance management, while performance involves different stages that need to be acknowledged and maintained. As a result, performance management is a systematic process that measures the performance of both individuals and teams with an eye on advancing an organization (Armstrong, 2020; Armstrong & Murlis, 2004). Researchers viewed this description as the optimal tool for measuring performance management. Besides, DeNisi and Pritchard (2006) stated that the essence of performance management and control is the development of individuals with competence and commitment, working towards achieving shared meaningful objectives within an organisation that helps and encourages achievements (Lockett, 1992).

Accordingly, Armstrong (2006) viewed performance management as achieving enhanced organisational outcomes using teams and individuals. That can only be reached through expertise and performance within an agreed framework of objectives, standards, and required competencies. Consequently, performance management enhances value-added procedures via increased productivity and excellent relations between organisational inputs, outputs, and consequences. There is no single universally accepted performance management model. Instead, management literature has suggested separate contributions expressed in a performance life cycle that includes five actions: setting performance targets, measuring impact, comments on consequences, and amendments to goals and activities (Storey, 2002). Storey's performance management cycle is illustrated in Figure 3.3.

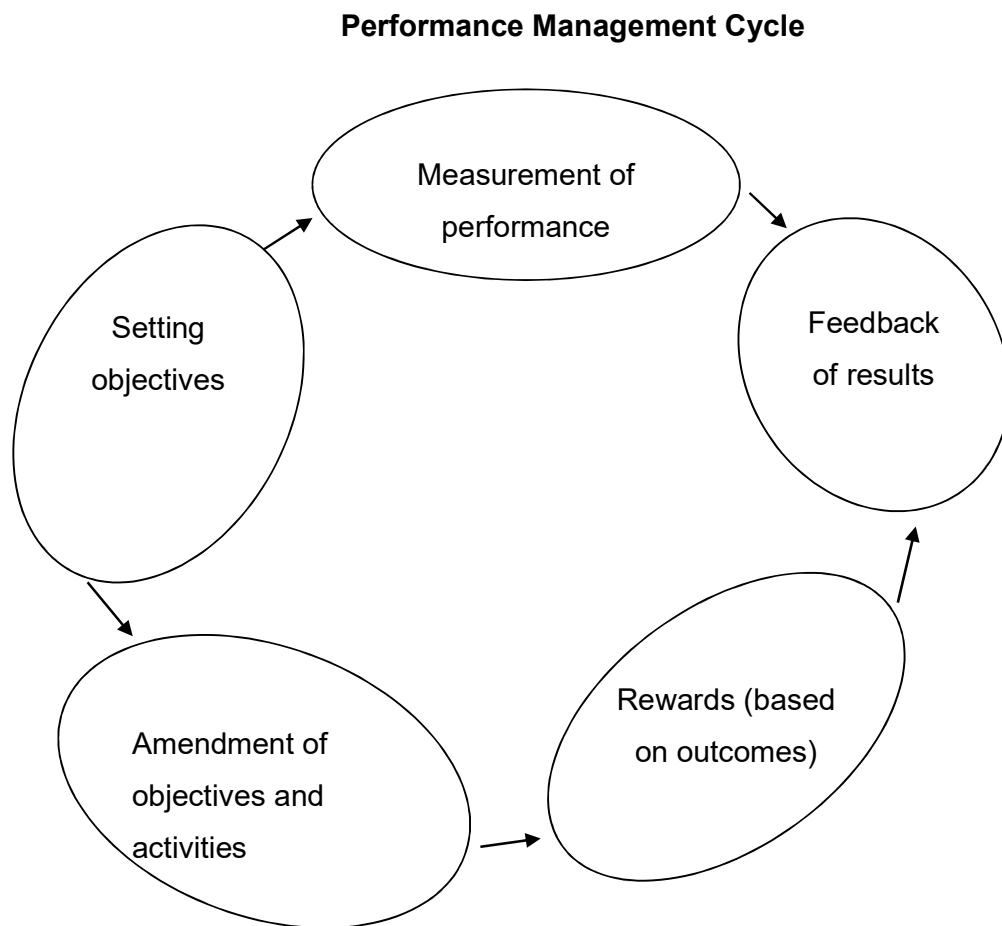


Figure 3. 3 Performance Management Cycle

Source: Adapted from Storey (2002: 330)

The stage at which a particular performance management aspect in Figure 3.3 will emerge will vary according to the organisational design and analysis. Nothing in the model signifies factors applied to employee, team, or organisational performance quality control.

3.8 Determinants of Employee Performance

Organisations run their operations according to purpose, which might pose challenges during performance management. Therefore, leaders should consider determinants and take remedial actions for accomplishment. According to researchers and practitioners, several determinants can affect employee performance positively or negatively, of which the most applicable to this study are summarised as follows.

- Leadership influences individuals and groups to attain common goals (Northouse, 2007). It is a combination of attitude and behaviour on which leaders and followers agree (DuBrin, 2004). Leadership style has an instrumental impact on the organisation and the performance of its employees (Hargis et al., 2011; Armstrong & Murlis, 2004).
- Coaching is an effective method to advance the performance of employees (Champathes, 2006). It is a two-way communication approach by which coaches focus on proposed actions and implementation. Furthermore, coaching addresses the beliefs and behaviours hindering performance (Du Toit, 2007) and helps people reach their performance goals (Starr, 2004).
- Empowerment is a multi-dimensional social process that helps people gain control over their lives. It fosters people's enablement to act on issues they define as important. DuVall and McCreery (1999) viewed success as achievement, accomplishment, and attainment, which is the consequence of the empowerment of individuals in role performance and organisational accomplishment. Empowerment positively correlates with performance and satisfaction (Bartram & Casimir, 2007).
- Participation: According to Chen & Tjosvold (2006), participation concerns the inclusion of employees in decision-making to encourage them to deal with problems and influence organisational outcomes. It can increase employees' job performance

and reduce turnover within the organisation. As such, organisations can act to potentially strengthen the positive impact of employee participation and performance (Lam, Yik & Schaubroeck, 2002). Employees will be motivated when management considers them partners in contributing to organisational success.

- Organisational culture: A good working culture supports employee performance development, leading to goal achievement and increasing overall performance (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Organisational norms and values are highly affected by those directly or indirectly involved. Although norms are invisible, they impact employees' performance, characterised by shared values (Mushtaq & Bokhari, 2011).
- Working environment: An organisation fulfilling the working environment needs enables employees to become creative. There will be less intention to leave and dissatisfaction when the organisation complements creative needs. The inference is that enhancing employees' creative performance is required to remain competitive in a dynamic environment and enhance overall innovation (Janssen & van Yperen, 2004).
- Motivation is a key determinant of job performance. Demotivation is expressed by excessive staff turnover, high expenses, negative morale, and increased management time (Jobber, 1994), requiring leaders to know how to inspire staff. Green & Heywood (2008) opined that motivation should be done proactively with staff participation to reduce dissatisfaction and turnover. Unless the organisation deals with low performers, it will continue experiencing low productivity and minimum success.
- According to Swanson (1999), training increases performance and develops staff abilities. To achieve job excellence, a systematic process of competency, knowledge, and skill-building is necessary (Gordon, 1992). Wright and Geroy (2001) confirmed that effective training could enhance employee competency, knowledge, skill, ability, and behaviour important for adding value to the employee and the organisation (Appiah, 2010; Harrison, 2000; Guest, 1997).

3.9 Performance Appraisal

Performance appraisal is a regular assessment of employees against their job performance and attitudes. It is a respectable, prearranged method of measuring and evaluating employee job-associated behaviours and results to observe how and why the employee is currently performing the task and how efficiency can be improved for personal gain and organisational performance (Aswathappa, 2002). It should be performed regularly against preset concepts and entails imparting comments to employees wherein the appraisal results could be used as a foundation for decision-making and training and development processes (Ivancevich, 2004).

Additionally, performance appraisal is used to judge the merits of promotion, transfer, or job termination and helps identify efficient and inefficient workers (Saqib, Khan, Ahmed & Ullah, 2012). Management is expected to ensure the assigned activities are performed according to plan, which brands performance appraisal, a periodic review and evaluation of an individual's job performance (Decenzo & Robbins, 2005).

The impact of performance appraisal should be directed toward the benefit of the organisation and the individual. Generally, performance appraisal serves nearly all human resource management techniques, including overall performance development, placement selections, training and development requirements, payment modifications, and equal employment opportunities (Decenzo & Robbins, 2005).

3.9.1 Performance Appraisal Procedures

The fundamental objective of performance appraisal is to ensure that employees perform their tasks efficiently and that procedures are managed successfully. Regarding the process, recommendations are to develop performance standards, communicate them to the employees, measure their actual performance, compare it with established standards, and take corrective actions respectively (Mathis & Jackson, 2008).

Research has indicated that there are no clear-cut employee performance appraisal procedures. However, the abovementioned processes are included in all recommendations (Daoanis, 2012; Mamoria & Rao, 2012; Aquinas, 2006). These authors also indicated that job evaluation is the basis for improvement, which includes

defining a process area, describing an activity, developing performance evaluation criteria, and assessing job performance based on the task description. Employees are expected to effectively meet the requirements stated in the job description; therefore, job descriptions form the standard against which performance is reflected.

Aquinas (2006) further stated that a standard is a value or unique criterion against which actual overall performance is weighed. The requirements for overall performance must be described unambiguously, reasonably, and straightforward to all appraisers and appraised. For the appraisal tool to achieve its purpose, employees must know the standards and requirements for measuring their performance. The requirement for appraisal is that there should be good communication between management and employees about task performance geared towards improving the organisation (Daoanis, 2012). The appraisal should indicate whether the overall performance was higher than anticipated or vice versa. Whether there is a deviation or not, discussions with employees will enable them to recognise their weaknesses and strengths and help workers enhance their performance (Seidu, 2012).

If performance appraisals are performed incorrectly, the results have an unsatisfactory impact on all concerned. The possibility exists that performance appraisals are not fulfilled annually, and the overall performance of subordinates is not assessed frequently. In this case, the subordinates do not know how they perform, and no enhancements can be planned in case of shortcomings or weaknesses. Supervisors must regularly advise subordinates about their performance to prevent weak spots (Ikramullah, Shah, Hassan & Zaman 2012).

The final and most crucial step in the performance appraisal system is initiating corrective actions, which may be of two kinds. First, it deals with issuing a warning notice. Such an instant remedial act is frequently classified as relegation or setting fires, whereas a simple counteractive action could modify performance. Second, coaching and counselling can be initialised or a specific task assigned (Mamoria & Rao, 2012).

Federal Civil Services supervise government personnel practices in Ethiopia, a performance appraisal according to Proclamation No. 262/2002. The performance

assessment is executed transparently with the participation of the civil servants following the directives issued through the Commission.

3.9.2 Performance Appraisal Methods

Managing overall performance using employee attributes, behaviours, and efficiency is critical for any organisation to perform effectively and is a relatively simple way to compare individual performances. Otherwise, it is possible to implement a performance measurement system incorporating various measures displayed by satisfactory overall performance (LePine, Zhang, Crawford & Rich, 2015). Traditional methods include ranking straight (ranking the most excellent to the poorest), pairwise comparative method or pairwise ranking, assessment of linear rating scale (using numbers to quantify feelings, satisfaction levels, attitudes, and perceptions), and an evaluation using the group (group determines the activity performance requirements) (Dewakar, 2009).

More recent performance appraisal methods include the multi-level multi-source feedback system, evaluation based on result or management by objective (MBO), evaluation on behaviourally anchored rating scales (BARS), results approach, and balanced scorecard (Dewakar, 2009; Paul, 2014). The balanced scorecard (BSC) is the performance appraisal method for evaluating Ethiopian public service employees. BSC was introduced in the Ethiopian civil service in 2009 to measure performance and to plan, implement, monitor, and measure the performance of all actors involved in implementing the goals and objectives of a specified organisation (FDRE Ministry of Capacity Building, 2010).

Thus, the balanced scorecard (BSC) replaced other tools for employee performance measures in delivering public services. Due to its strategic approach, balanced set of measures, and strategic alignment, BSC is currently recognised as the most important tool implemented in almost all government institutions in Ethiopia. Ethiopian government leaders use the evaluation results to promote, demote, hire, fire, and transfer employees, plus other related decision-making purposes.

3.9.3 Standard Criteria for Evaluating Public Sector Employees

According to Armstrong (2009), the decisive element for assessing overall performance is the rationale between achievement relative to objectives, the extent of knowledge and skill (competencies or technical and other capabilities), and job behaviour. These factors impact the overall performance (abilities), the degree to which conduct upholds the intermediate values of the organisation, and the day-to-day successful applications. It implies that every criterion has to be checked against the employee's character, obligations, and everyday activities. Each significance level will change according to the requirements for every task. These criteria include knowledge of labour, quality of labour, quantity of labour, attitude, dependability, awareness of responsibility, relationships with employees and customers, initiatives performed at work and helping others, punctuality, task presentation, and teamwork involvement (Armstrong, 2009).

3.9.4 Performance Appraisal Challenges

Adeba (2014) stated that employees and leaders complain about the demands of overall performance appraisal systems. Employees object to this kind of appraisal for fear of criticism regarding performance weaknesses that could influence their salaries, promotions, and career advancement. Challenges from the leaders' side include cultural problems, such as a lack of appraiser self-confidence, mismatched work requirements, and the fear of losing rank. Sullivan (2013) criticised the overall performance appraisal method as process-related, instrument-demanding, supervisor-demanding, employee-demanding, and time-consuming.

3.10 Literature Research Challenges

Little comprehensive research has been performed to provide solid recommendations for addressing leadership challenges in Ethiopian public service organisations. Attempts by Mehret and Paulos (2000) and Getachew and Richard (2006) were limited to the federal level without addressing challenges concerning regional and local work performance and efficiency. A study by Mengistu and Vogel (2006) and the Amhara national regional state Ethiopia report (2018) indicated significant gaps in the reform of public services and initiatives in Ethiopia. Furthermore, several studies addressed leadership effectiveness and organisational performance in corporate organisations,

while little research has addressed public service organisations. Moreover, these studies focused on organisational reform and were mostly limited to the impact of leadership style on employee performance.

Furthermore, no in-depth research on African nations and the effect of leadership style on employee performance has been done. Although there has been progress in our understanding of leadership characteristics in Africa, many concerns still need to be resolved to apply leadership styles and improve employee performance effectively (Mohammed et al., 2014). Substantial research is needed to investigate the impact of leadership on employee job performance and organisational success (Koech & Namusonge, 2012), especially in the public service sector.

Inconsistencies in the research findings have also been discovered. For instance, research has found a significant relationship between transactional and transformational leadership styles and employee performance, with the impact of the former being found to be greater than the latter (Latif, Baghoor, & Rasool, 2017; Kehinde & Bajo, 2014; Tsigu & Rao, 2015). The data did not significantly resolve the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and job performance. While Nandutu et al. (2014) reported a favourable relationship, Aboshaiqah, Hamdan-Mansour, Sherrod, Alkhaibary, and Alkhaibary (2014.) suggested a negative relationship between laissez-faire leadership and employee performance.

Nuhu (2010) found an autocratic leadership style significantly related to employee performance. However, empirical findings indicated autocratic leadership is oppressive as staff members are offered no opportunity to make suggestions, significantly influencing employee satisfaction and job performance (Amanchukwu et al., 2015; Zareen, Razzaq & Mujtaba, 2015). No involvement in decision-making reduces employee performance (Iqbal et al., 2015).

In most cases in Ethiopia, only government reports and development indicator bulletins have reported on the failure of public service leadership, such as the Amhara national regional state (ANRS) development indicators bulletin (2017/18) and the ANRS public sector annual performance report (2017/18). Therefore, this study focused on closing the research gap between leadership effectiveness and employee performance and satisfaction in the Ethiopian Amhara region public service sector.

3.11 Conceptual Framework

Knowledge of leadership styles offers leaders empowerment and inspiration to ensure satisfactory outcomes on proposed objectives. However, as indicated in the literature review, there have been inconsistencies in research findings about leadership styles and employee job performance. Therefore, the intent was to examine inconsistencies in the relation between leadership (independent variable) and job performance (dependent variable) and the fact that leadership quality and efficiency can influence job satisfaction (mediating variable) and leader-employee relationships.

Studies performed in this regard have been limited, so the researcher investigated the impact of leadership styles on employee job performance and job satisfaction, focusing on the Amhara public services sector. Leadership type and the degree of impact on employee job performance were not substantial and predictable and changed according to research conditions and organisational preference. Research results thus varied according to the situation, scope, organisational nature, financial paradigm, and research environment.

Researchers like Sougui, Bon, and Hassan (2015) developed a conceptual framework to organize and comprehend the impact of independent variables on dependent variables. They also discussed the positive and negative relationships between existing phenomena and the connections between the independent and dependent variables (Grant & Osanloo, 2014). Yousef (2000) reviewed several research findings and concluded that the outcomes were inconsistent in similar research projects. Bronkhorst et al. (2015) indicated a positive relation between transformational leadership, employee self-efficacy, job satisfaction, motivation, creativity, and performance.

On the contrary, the laissez-faire leadership style was less effective and negatively impacted employees' overall job performance depending on the situational environment (Bass & Avolio, 1985; Yahya & Ebrahim, 2016). In addition, leaders adopting autocratic leadership styles display a strong influence and unlimited decision-making power (Kerfoot, 2013; Afshinpour, 2014), affecting employees' job satisfaction and performance. The conceptual framework in Figure 3.4, adapted from Sougui et al.

(2015), demonstrates the findings from the literature on the relationship between leadership styles and employee job performance.

Conceptual Framework

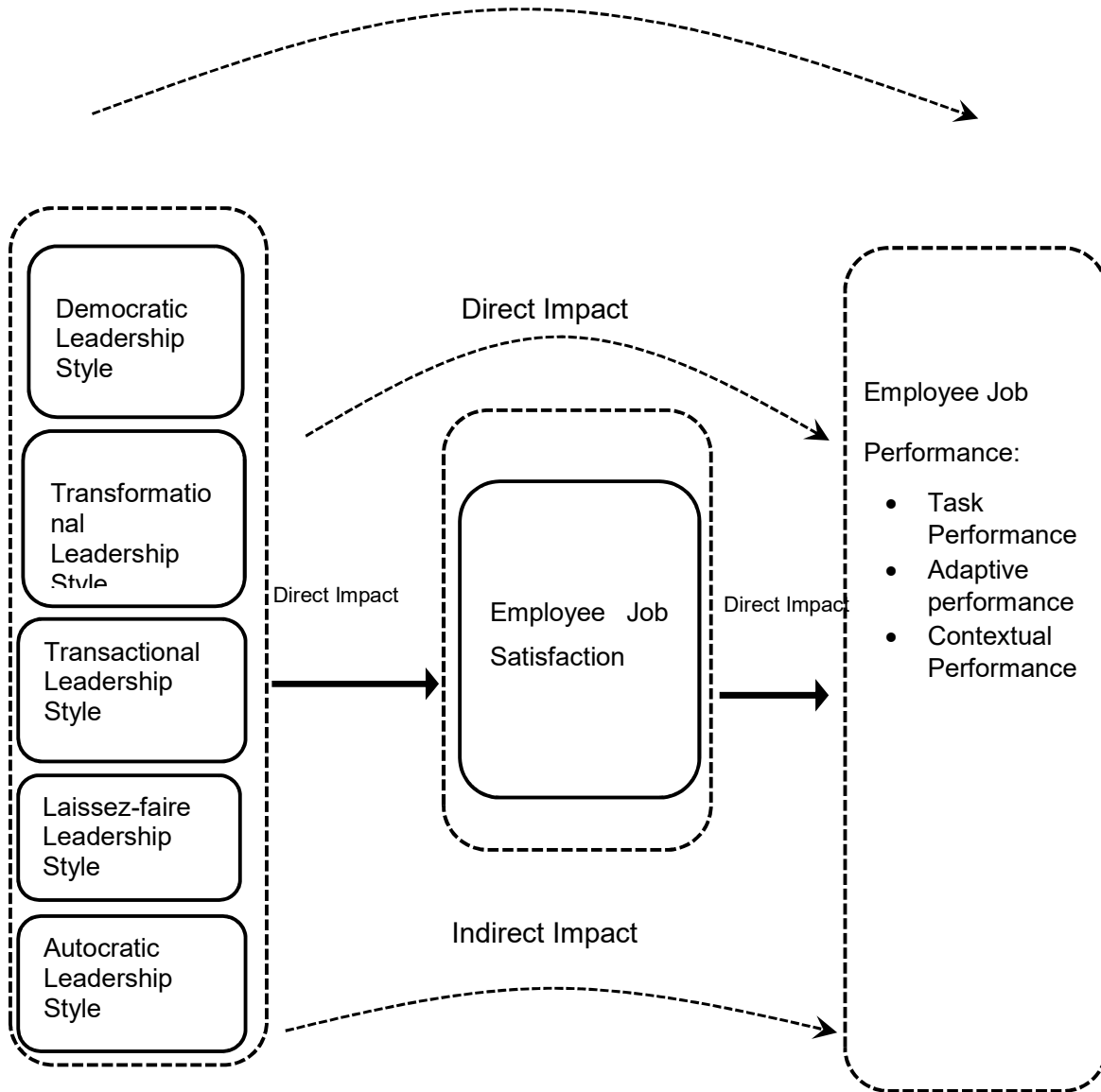


Figure 3. 4 Conceptual Framework on Leadership Styles

Source: Adapted from Sougui et al. (2015: 11)

The conceptual framework in Figure 3.4 summarises the theories and literature review concepts on leadership styles discussed in Chapters 2 and 3, which will be significant for research and analysis in the following chapters.

3.12 Conclusion

In conclusion, effective leadership is crucial in determining employee job performance. The discussion made it clear that studies on leadership and employee job performance need to focus on the public sector to understand how leadership can influence employee job performance and satisfaction. Employees' job performance is a core concept within the work and organisation, and researchers have made progress in clarifying and extending the job performance concept. The literature in this chapter revealed that leadership styles versus employees' job satisfaction, performance, measures of performance, and performance appraisals are important for an organisation that needs timely and appropriate attention. Employees' performance is also a multi-dimensional construct to ensure organisational effectiveness and efficiency. The theories and literature review related to employee job performance also confirmed several dimensions, such as task performance, adaptive performance, and contextual performance, for further research in the public sector. Lastly, this chapter presented the research challenges, gaps, and conceptual framework created from the literature review.

Chapter 4 will discuss the research methodology and design.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

4.1 Introduction

The research methodology presents a systematic way of solving scientific and social problems and explains how the research was performed. The research design explains the procedures followed to study and predict phenomena, while the research methodology includes all methods and techniques used to execute the research (Kothari, 2004). This study first performed a detailed literature review for relevant data to be used in the quantitative research and analysis to resolve the research problem. The research strategy presents the research paradigm, design, approach, population, and sampling techniques.

4.1.1 Aim and Importance of the Chapter

The design and methodology were applied to address and solve the research problem: effective leadership styles have not been applied, and the job performance and job satisfaction of employees in the public sector were not considered and enhanced accordingly, consequently affecting the quality of public sector performance in the Amhara region in Ethiopia. The aim was to investigate the impact of leadership styles on employee job performance mediated by job satisfaction in the public sector.

Specific procedures and techniques were used to identify, select, process, and analyse relevant data to understand the problem and enable the reader to evaluate the validity and reliability of the study. Therefore, this chapter aims to:

- Introduce the overall research philosophy and its concepts.
- Indicate how the approach fits the research design in this study.
- Describe the specific methodological choices that the research applied.
- Explain the research strategies and their implementations.
- Present a background and rationale for the methodologies.
- Explain the specific time horizon adopted for this study.
- Determine and justify the target population, sampling design, sampling frame, and sampling procedure.

4.1.2 Research Questions

Research questions are important for the researcher to focus on the process and reach the main objective. Specific and well-developed research questions assisted the researcher in working towards the research outcomes. The final question, "What is the mediating impact of job satisfaction between leadership styles (democratic leadership, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, and autocratic leadership) and employee performance," was the basis for the research questions in section 1.3. The objective was then to investigate the impact of leadership styles on employee job performance with the mediating impact of job satisfaction.

4.2 Research Methodology

The diagram in Figure 4.1 illustrates the study's overall research methodology and design through the research onion, in which the different layers are peeled to show the next step.

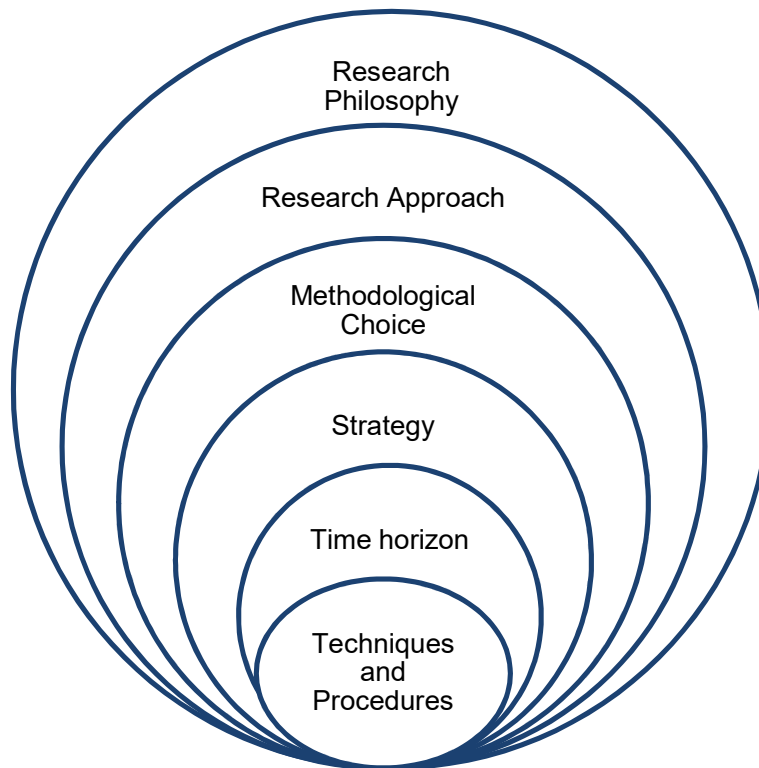


Figure 4. 1 Research Onion

Source: Adapted from Melnikovas (2018: 33)

4.2.1 Research Philosophy

The research process begins with determining the researcher's philosophical stance. Kuhn (1962) explained the philosophical paradigm as a set of related views about the world shared by the academic community and scientists as a lens through which the world is observed. The research paradigm or philosophy is used to investigate the research questions essential to shape the researcher's methodological approach (Neuman, 2011: 94). Creswell (2009:6) regarded a paradigm as a global knowledge approach that includes ontological and epistemological views (Amaratunga, Baldry, Sarshar & Newton, 2002). Ontology is the part of philosophy that studies the nature of reality and the essence of its existence through objective and subjective perspectives (Burrell & Morgan, 1979).

Objectivism views reality as a concrete structure external to humans and believes the world predates individuals and will continue to exist as a tangible entity regardless of people's actions (Holden & Lynch, 2004); the predominant view in the study of natural sciences. On the other hand, subjectivism maintains that reality is created by individuals and the world is a mere projection of the human mind (Morgan & Smircich, 1980). Thus, objectivists believe in a single reality, while subjectivists believe that multiple realities can co-exist. Objectivism was the philosophical choice for this quantitative study.

Becker and Niehaves (2007) explained epistemology as the study of the nature of knowledge and how it is acquired. It presents a similar two-fold debate between positivism and interpretation, also called phenomenology. Realist positivism adopts a scientific stance to research and aims to develop generalised findings from experimentation and structured observations of reality (Hussey & Hussey, 1997). Therefore, in a social science context, the positivist paradigm assumes the researcher objectively obtains data while remaining external to the research process and independent of the research subject, like a physical scientist would investigate physics or chemistry (Remenyi & Sherwood-Smith, 1998). Positivist research results in the generalisation of reproducible facts about social phenomena. Subjective interpretivism decodes actions and events based on personal cultural beliefs, norms, and values of the society in which the actions and events take place. It is a social research and a qualitative method of analysing and interpreting data related to human behaviour.

4.2.2 Research Approach

There are two fundamental research approaches distinguished as deductive and inductive reasoning. The deductive approach starts with theory and follows a systematic quantitative approach to analyse and reduce data from the top down (Trochim & Donnelly, 2008). Deduction follows a greatly prearranged methodology and frequently investigates the cause and impact relation of independent and dependent variables. On the other hand, the inductive approach begins with a specific interpretation in which patterns and themes are recognised to form a theory about a specific event, which is considered a bottom-up approach (Trochim & Donnelly, 2008). The inductive reasoning approach concerns a more flexible structure rather than the rigid generalisation of results (Hong & Easterby-Smith, 2002; Easterby-Smith & Lowe, 2002; Douglas, 2003).

This study applied a deductive research approach to analyse the impact of independent, dependent, and mediating variables and to suggest possible solutions.

4.2.3 Methodological Choice

The methodological choice for this study was realistic positivism, in which empirical evidence was analysed quantitatively. Gall, Gall and Borg (2003) stated that a positivist research paradigm typically generates numerical information and applies quantification of data to present and analyse the capabilities of social reality. In addition, quantitative research is explained as a systematic investigation of phenomena by gathering quantifiable data and performing statistical or computational techniques. In this regard, the researcher collected information from respondents using related sampling methods and a survey questionnaire and analysed the results quantitatively.

4.2.4 Research Strategy

Research strategy is the overall plan or approach to conduct and reach the research objectives (Cooper & Pamela, 2014). The research strategy and design help justify the choices made by the researcher during data collection and analysis (Bryman & Bell, 2007). The researcher used quantitative methods according to his research philosophy, approach, and purpose. Creswell (2002) stated that the quantitative

method investigates phenomena by collecting quantifiable data in numerical form and applying statistical techniques for data analysis. Besides, Williams (2007) explained quantitative research as typically used to question relationships between variables yielding predictive, explanatory, or confirmatory results. It produces generalised findings through theories and formulae associated with positivistic and deductive studies (Bryman, 2012). Therefore, quantitative research methods can include experiments, surveys, observations, and interviews.

4.2.5 Research Techniques

This section discusses the research techniques as models and frameworks that guided the study, including the systematic methods to collect, analyse, and interpret data.

4.2.5.1 Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

Researchers use different methods or models to test hypotheses, uncover answers to problems, and provide evidence for theories and interventions. Accordingly, Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) is a powerful multivariate technique increasingly used in scientific research to test and evaluate multivariate causality. SEM differs from other modelling approaches because it tests for the direct and indirect impact on possible causal relationships. It is composed of confirmatory factor analysis and path analysis. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), which originates in psychometrics, aims to estimate potential psychological characteristics such as attitude and satisfaction (Pearson & Lee 1903; Spearman 1904). Path analysis, on the other hand, originated in biometrics and aimed to find causal relationships between variables by creating pathway maps (Wright & Geroy, 2001). Path analysis in early econometrics was represented by simultaneous equations (Haavelmo, 1943). In the early 1970s, SEM combined the above two methods (Jöreskog, 1978; Jöreskog & Goldberger, 1975) and became popular in many fields, such as social sciences, business sciences, medical and health sciences, and natural sciences.

This study consisted of independent, mediating, and dependent multi-dimensional variables verified through appropriate quantitative methods. The researcher applied structural equation modelling (SEM) quantitative analysis techniques in this study to identify relevant results and answer research questions. SEM evaluates various

statistical tests and estimates variable measurements and structural values. Descriptive methods allow researchers to use correlation and regression to explain the existing data while examining the impact between independent, mediating, and dependent variables.

Finally, SEM graphically presents the independent and dependent variables and their interrelation. Exogenous or external variables are similar to independent variables, while endogenous variables are related to dependent variables, directly or indirectly affected by exogenous variables (Kunnan, 1998).

4.2.6 Time Horizon of the Study

The study applied a cross-sectional method to assess the relation between variables and differences between subgroups in a population about certain phenomena at a particular time. A cross-sectional study is a research design in which you collect data from many individuals simultaneously, as the research project is usually time-constrained (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2019). This cross-sectional study employed a questionnaire to collect data on the observed variables without influencing the respondents. The time horizon also indicates the researcher's contact time with the respondents in the cross-section approach.

4.2.7 Study Techniques and Procedures

The research design is moved toward data gathering and analysis using techniques and procedures. The data collecting and analysis techniques used to address the research questions are determined by all initial choices made in the research methodology and design. Below is a description of the methods and processes used for this investigation.

4.2.7.1 Population

The target population is the entire group in a study area from which a sample of respondents is selected according to specific sampling criteria. It also refers to the total collection of units, objects, or individuals from which the researcher can draw inferences (Thornhill, Saunders & Lewis, 2013). The population represents units with common characteristics for sample selection (Bryman, 2012). This study incorporated

public sector employees in the Amhara national regional state public sectors at the regional level. The employees were categorised into three major sectors: administrative, economic, and social sectors.

Table 4. 1 Target Population

S.No	Types of Sectors	Number of Employees in Regional Sector Bureaus			
		Male	Female	Total	Remark
1.	Administrative sectors	670	661	1331	
2.	Economic sectors	2279	1159	3438	
3.	Social sectors	1393	835	2228	
Total		4342	2655	6997	

Source: ANRS Civil Service Commission

Table 4.1 displays the total number of employees as the target population in the Amhara administrative, economic, and social sectors according to gender.

4.2.7.2 Sampling

Sampling is a blueprint for the researcher to select a study sample (Thornhill et al., 2013). The sampling process focuses on selecting elements or items from a target population framework (Walliman, 2020). It is widely employed in research because resource constraints often make it unfeasible for the researcher to collect data from the entire population, for example, by conducting a census (Saunders et al., 2019). Sampling offers a practical and effective alternative and allows for the implementation of research within time and budget limits. The sampling design process is outlined, such as defining the population, determining the sampling frame, selecting sampling techniques, determining the sample size, and executing the sampling process (Malos, 2012).

Sampling frame: A sampling frame represents the study population from which the sample is selected (Thornhill et al., 2013). The final listing can have different groups be it homogeneous or heterogeneous. The sampling frame of this study represented all registered employees from the Amhara national regional state public sector.

Sampling techniques: A sampling technique is a process researchers apply to ensure all different groups, both heterogeneous and homogeneous, are well represented in the final sample used for data collection (Cooper & Pamela, 2014). This study used stratified random sampling to ensure that all Amhara national regional state public sector employees were well represented in the selection. Stratified sampling is a method that involves dividing the population into smaller sub-groups, known as strata, from which samples are selected (Thompson, 2012). The researcher applied stratified sampling as it could define population estimates better than simple random sampling (Thompson, 2012; Lehtonen & Pahkinen, 2004). Therefore, representative samples from the Amhara region's administrative, economic and social public sectors could be selected.

Sample size: The sample size is a smaller unit(s) representing the entire population from which inferences can be drawn to address the research questions and objectives (Cooper & Pamela, 2014). Therefore, the sample was selected from a list of Amhara national regional state public sector employees formally registered until December 2021. The regional civil service commission provided the employee data to the researcher, and the total population was 6997 (see Table 4.1).

Sample sizes were determined according to Yamane and Sato's (1967) formula relevant to studies using a probability sampling method.

$$n = \frac{N}{1+e^2N}$$

Where n = number of the population

n = sample size required

e = estimated variance in the population = 5%

$$\text{Where } n = \frac{6997}{1+(.05)^2 (6997)} , n = \underline{\underline{378}}$$

Based on this formula, a proportional source of 378 respondents were selected from 6997 regional public sector employees from the administrative, economic, and social sectors. Therefore, [(1331/6997) x 378] =72 administrative sector employees out of

1331, $[(3438/6997) \times 378] = 186$ economic sector employees out of 3438 and $[(2228/6997) \times 378] = 120$ social sector employees out of 2228 were selected.

Figure 4.2 illustrates the sample size determination discussed above.

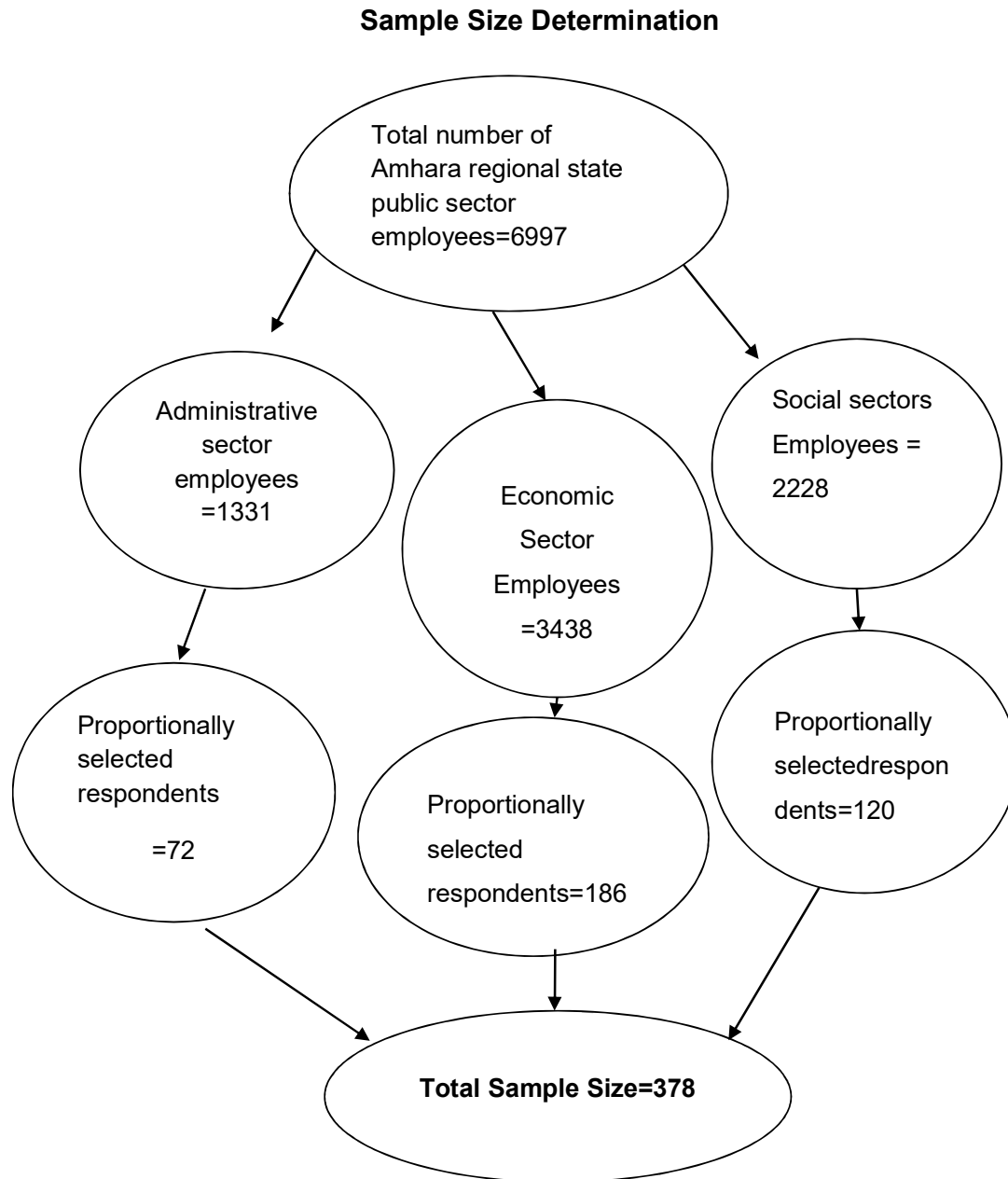


Figure 4. 2 Sample Size Determination

Source: Own compilation, 2019

Figure 4.2 illustrates the sample size determination, while Table 4.2 lists the sample size determined proportionally.

This study used structural equation modelling (SEM) research techniques to examine the results. According to this quantitative method, the sample size is determined based on pre-established rules. Regarding these rules, SEM scholars like Kline (2023) claimed a minimum sample size of 200. Hair, Ringle and Sarstedt (2011) recommended a sample size of 5 to 10 times the number of indicators or items in the questionnaire. This study met the requirements because the sample size was larger than the specified number. Finally, each sector's required number of respondents was selected using a simple random sampling technique.

Table 4. 2 Sample Size Determined on a Proportional Basis

R.No	Types of Public Sectors	Population Size	Determined Sample size with a proportional Basis	%
1	Administration Sectors	1331	$1331/6997*378= 72$	19
2	Economic Sectors	3438	$3438/6997*378=186$	49
3	Social Sectors	2228	$2228/6921*378=120$	32
Total		6997	$6997/6997*378=\underline{378}$	100

Source: Own compilation, 2019

Table 4.2 lists the percentages of participants extracted from each public sector for the questionnaire distribution.

4.2.7.3 Data Collection Instruments

The very nature of the quantitative survey questionnaire was straightforward and participative to receive the required information from the respondents. The questionnaire's appearance, precision, conciseness, and quality are fundamental when using inquiry forms to collect data (Saunders et al., 2019). Hence, the required statistics for the study could be calculated by collecting information for the questions from qualitative secondary sources. Except for some instructions and section arrangements, all the questions were adopted from other sources, as listed in Table 4.3.

Table 4. 3 Questions Acquired from Sources

S.No.	Types of Variables	Source	Research Method Proposed for Each Variable
1.	Democratic Leadership Styles (Independent)	Mulki, Caemmerer & Heggde (2015). <i>Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management</i> , 35(1), 3–22. http://dx.Doi.Org/10.1080/08853134.2014.958157 .	Quantitative
2.	Transformational Leadership Styles (Independent)	Kaur, G. (2017). <i>NICE Journal of Business</i> , 12(1), January – June.	Quantitative
3.	Transactional Leadership Styles (Independent)	Kaur. (2017). <i>NICE Journal of Business</i> , 12(1), January – June.	Quantitative
4.	Laissez-fair Leadership Style (Independent)	Awino (2015). Effect of leadership styles on employee performance. The Open University of Kenya.	Quantitative
5.	Autocratic Leadership Style	NawoseIng'ollan & Roussel (2017). <i>International Journal of Business and Social Science</i> , 8(7): 82-98.	Quantitative
6.	Job Satisfaction	Yu (2009). Job satisfaction of university academics in China. PhD dissertation. Newcastle University.	Quantitative
7.	Employees Job Performance	Pradhan & Jena. (2017). <i>Business Perspectives and Research</i> , 5(1): 69-85.	Quantitative

Source: Own compilation, 2019

Table 4.3 provides a list of sources from which questions were extracted to create the closed questions for the survey questionnaire.

4.2.8 Data Collection Sources

Data are the backbone for the analysis process as data are an unorganised collection of facts and figures from various sources (Saunders et al., 2019). The data sources may vary depending on the research needs and data analysis techniques, while the interpretation is based on data from different sources. Once the researcher and analysts coded and categorised the collection, understanding and information emerged from the data. Thus, the study included both primary and secondary sources.

4.2.8.1 Primary Sources

The survey questionnaire was the primary data collection source, containing an analogous set of questions in a predetermined order to be completed within a specific time (De Vaus, 2002; Bailey, 2008). Questionnaires are popular in business research because of their flexibility in collecting data from a large sample that can be geographically dispersed for broad statistical analysis purposes (Zikmund, 2003). Moreover, because survey questionnaires are mostly completed at the convenience of respondents, they can obtain a large amount of data by employing diverse question types (Evans & Mathur, 2005; Bryman, 2012).

Questionnaires are used for descriptive or correlation analysis (Gill & Johnson, 2010). While descriptive data explain, amongst others, the characteristics of a population, correlation data are used to verify a hypothesis or theory. In distinguishing between these two, Oppenheim (1992) defined descriptive questionnaires as aiming to count to know the proportions of the population that have a particular view or characteristic without studying causality or offering explanations. In contrast, correlation questionnaires involve a more analytical perspective for researchers investigating the link between variables.

The rationale for applying a questionnaire was to collect sufficient data from many public service respondents, according to Greene and Caracelli (2007), who confirmed that a questionnaire could provide an area covering a large sample of the population. Applying questionnaires in correlation studies involves analysing and investigating the relationship between variables; hence, the variables are determined before the questionnaire is designed (Ghauri & Grønhaug, 2005).

Employee information was gathered using the survey questionnaire for this study to investigate the influence of leadership styles on employee performance as mediated by job satisfaction. To confirm how leadership styles may influence employees' performance in the public sector, the researcher used quantitative methods to establish the nature of the relationship between the independent, mediating, and dependent variables. There were four different sections of the questionnaire.

- General information from participants

The study's objective was explained in the questionnaire's introduction, and the researcher requested the respondents' permission to participate in the study. The participants' demographic data, including gender, age, income, educational background, field of study, and marital status, was also requested in the first section.

- Items related to independent variables

This section described the independent variables, which contained particular inquiries on the perceptions of the following leadership styles among employees: democratic, transformational, transactional, laissez-faire, and autocratic.

- Items related to mediating variable

The researcher described and framed job satisfaction as a mediating variable between two variables (leadership style as the independent variable and employee performance as the dependent variable). To find solutions to the problem, the study used well-structured questions as instruments to validate job satisfaction.

- Items related to the dependent variable

Because performance is a multidimensional variable, questions were prepared under predictor variables, such as task performance, adaptive performance, and contextual performance (see 3.1). Therefore, specific questions were developed under each variable to collect data from respondents. The measuring scales included structured answers, such as strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, and strongly agree. The research results were presented with the sum analysis of these predictors (task performance, adaptive and contextual performance), and the findings were concluded accordingly.

4.2.8.2 Secondary Sources

Secondary data were obtained from scholarly publications, journal articles, books, dissertations, reports, and policy papers to support the primary data collection and analysis.

4.3 Data Analysis

Data analysis organises and processes raw data into meaningful information to address the research questions and objectives (Thornhill et al., 2013). Data analysis and interpretation can include manual and automated techniques, including editing, coding, classifying, and tabulating the accumulated data. Finally, the software can produce tabulations and charts for further interpretation. This study used the statistical package for social science (SPSS version: 28) to encode and organise the data. Once the data was collected using the determined instruments and encoded using SPSS, the study applied the structural equation modelling (SEM) technique and used the analysis of moment structure (AMOS) as an analysis tool. AMOS version 27 performed structural equation modelling (SEM) of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and path coefficient values. Because AMOS provided a graphic representation of the path diagram, it was easy to understand, and the model could be created by using only a few drawing tools to drag and drop data. Therefore, data could be easily integrated with AMOS for analysis.

Structural equation modelling (SEM) is a powerful multivariate technique increasingly used in scientific research to test and evaluate multivariate causality. SEM differs from other modelling approaches because it tests for direct and indirect impact on possible causal relationships. The SEM statistical method has evolved over three generations in which the logic of causal modelling was established using path analysis (Wright, 1921). As discussed, SEM combines two statistical methods: confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and pathway analysis. Confirmatory factor analysis, which originated in psychometrics, aims to estimate potential psychological features such as attitude and satisfaction (Galton 1888; Pearson & Lee 1903; Spearman 1904).

Descriptive information (standard deviation and charts) and inferential information (correlation and regression) were applied. Furthermore, descriptive statistics and multiple regression analysis were used to analyse the data and to identify missing data, normality and outliers, correlation of variables, and frequency of observations in the data set, which helped the researcher with further statistical analysis.

Multiple regression analysis involves combining several predictor variables in a single regression equation, which helps to analyse the impact of multiple predictor variables

(rather than a single predictor variable) on the dependent variable (Jackson, 2009). This study used multiple regression analysis to test the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Besides, the researcher could use a correlation coefficient statistical measure to analyse the strength of the relationship between the relative movements of variables.

The following hypotheses were developed to evaluate the causal relationships between the independent and dependent variables:

4.4 Hypotheses

- Ha1: Democratic leadership has an impact on employee job satisfaction.
- Ha2: Transformational leadership has an impact on employee job satisfaction.
- Ha3: Transactional leadership has an impact on employee job satisfaction.
- Ha4: Laissez-faire leadership has an impact on employee job satisfaction.
- Ha5: Autocratic leadership has an impact on employee job satisfaction.
- Ha6: Employee job satisfaction has an impact on employee job performance.
- Ha7: Democratic leadership has an impact on employee job performance.
- Ha8: Transformational leadership has an impact on employee performance.
- Ha9: Transactional leadership has an impact on employee job performance.
- Ha10: Laissez-faire leadership has an impact on employee job performance.
- Ha11: Autocratic leadership has an impact on employee job performance.
- Ha12: Job satisfaction mediates the impact of democratic leadership on employee job performance.
- Ha13: Job satisfaction mediates the impact of transformational leadership on employee job performance.
- Ha14: Job satisfaction mediates the impact of transactional leadership on employee job performance.
- Ha15: Job satisfaction mediates the impact of laissez-faire leadership on employee job performance.
- Ha16: Job satisfaction mediates the impact of autocratic leadership on employee job performance.

4.5 Reliability and Validity of Pilot Study

Measuring the reliability and validity of quantitative research is about how well a method measures the project. For a test to be reliable, it must be valid (Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman & Humphrey, 2011). Reliability refers to the replicability of a measure (whether the results could be repeated under similar conditions). At the same time, validity relates to the accuracy of a measure (whether the results embody what they are expected to measure).

Before analysing the data to test the hypotheses, both reliability and validity checks were done to ensure the reliability and validity of the instrument. The reliability and validity check was done with the support of AMOS and the Microsoft Excel-based stats tool package (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014).

4.5.1 Reliability

According to Golafshani (2003), reliability is the consistency of responses to the data-collecting instrument regardless of how frequently it is given to the same respondents. Huang (2004) believed a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.7 is sufficient to guarantee internal consistency. Consequently, a pilot study was conducted to assess the outcomes.

Reliability is the consistency of the test result, and according to Kerlinger (2000), an instrument is reliable if it yields a consistent result. The Cronbach alpha coefficient value (α) and composite reliability (CR) were employed to verify the reliability between the items in every construct. Alpha is a coefficient of reliability used to measure the internal consistency of a test or scale, resulting in a number between 0 and 1 (Hair et al., 2017). In quantitative research, the tool's reliability is essential for decreasing errors arising from measurement difficulties in the research study. Cronbach alpha values of $> .9$ are considered excellent; $> .8$ are considered good; $> .7$ are considered acceptable; $> .6$ are considered questionable; $> .5$ are considered poor; and $.5$ are considered unacceptable (Yang & Green, 2011). Scale with a coefficient alpha between $.6$ and $.7$ indicates fair reliability.

The formula for finding the composite reliability is:

$$CR = SSI / (SSI + SEV)$$

SSI = square of the sum of all factor loadings of a construct, SEV = sum of all error variances of a construct, and error variance equals one minus squared multiple correlations.

In this study, the Cronbach alpha coefficient value for all variables ranged from 0.894 to .733. These were above the threshold value of .7 (Nunnally, 1978). The constructs' composite reliability (CR) values were greater than the minimum threshold of .7 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981; Ringle, Da Silva & Bido, 2015). Tables 5.5, 5.7, and 5.8 demonstrated that the Cronbach alpha coefficient and CR values of all the study's constructs exceeded the minimum thresholds of .7, indicating appropriate scale reliability.

In this case, a pilot study is a small feasibility study to scrutinise the information instruments, including the questionnaire planned for a larger, more rigorous investigation (Arain, Campbell, Cooper & Lancaster, 2010). It also enables the researcher to ensure the questionnaire is well administered. The rationale behind the pilot test was to check whether the questionnaire was developed according to the required standards with clear language to avoid confusion, ensure consistency, and provide appropriate time for the employees to complete the questionnaire. Moreover, the pilot study assisted the researcher in saving effort, money, and time to ensure research feasibility while increasing efficiency.

Scholars like Connelly (2008) confirmed that a pilot study sample size should be 10% of the sample projected for the main study. Other literature required 10 to 30 individuals to be enough for a pilot test (Hill, 1998; Isaac & Michael, 1995). This study selected 10% of the total sample size ($378 * 10\% = 37$) or 37 employees to participate in the pilot study. Based on these statistics, the researcher distributed 37 questionnaires to collect information for testing the reliability according to Table 4.4 below. From the 37 distributed questionnaires, a 100% return rate was obtained, and the data were analysed using SPSS version 28. According to Cronbach's alpha, the results in Table 4.4 represent findings from the 37 pilot study respondents from the Amhara national regional state public sector.

Table 4. 4 Reliability of the Pilot Study

S/No.	Variables of the study	Reliability Test results of the Pilot Study - Cronbach's Alpha (α) in %
1.	DLS (Democratic Leadership Style)	71.8
2.	TRANSLS (Transformational Leadership style)	79.10
3.	TRNZLS(Transactional Leadership Style)	74.80
4.	LLS(Laissez-faire Leadership Style)	72.30
5.	ALS(Autocratic Leadership Style)	70.90
6.	JS (Job Satisfaction)	64.70
7.	EJP (Employees Job Performance)	
7.1.	TP(Task Performance)	73.60
7.2.	AP(Adaptive Performance)	71.00
7.3.	CP(Contextual Performance)	82.30

Source: Cronbach's Alpha (α) \geq .9–Excellent, \geq .8–Good, \geq .7–Acceptable, \geq .6–Questionable, \geq .5–Poor, and \leq .5–Unacceptable. George and Mallery (2003:231).

As listed and described in Table 4.4, all variables were above the minimum threshold (0.7) except job satisfaction (JS) showed the lowest alpha (α) value (64.70%), while the variable contextual performance (CP) showed the highest alpha (α) value (82.30%). Thus, the researcher modified the number and quality of items included under this variable to increase the alpha (α) value. Field (2009) opined that the alpha value can be increased following the increment of the number of items included in that variable. Therefore, the number of items included under job satisfaction (JS) in the main study was increased, which also increased the pilot study's alpha (α) value.

Finally, the researcher implemented the actual distribution of the questionnaire at the appropriate time and collected the primary data for discussing and resolving the research questions and objectives.

4.5.2 Validity

Various studies have been conducted to ensure research validity during the research process (Golafshani, 2003). For instance, the validity of qualitative data is addressed by observing the study's trustworthiness, credibility, richness, and scope. On the other hand, the validity of quantitative research is measured by how accurately the study answers the questions and how the hypotheses were accepted or rejected. For this

research to be deemed reliable and to ensure no uncertainty about the integrity of the data, it was essential to achieve high validity. Besides, validity also reports on the respondents' potential to answer the questions.

This study mainly implemented three validity measurements: face, discriminant, and convergent.

4.6 Ethical Considerations

Ethical conduct during the entire research process is a critical requirement. Ethics are the norms, conduct, or principles that distinguish right from wrong. Moral standards prevent the fabrication or falsification of facts and refer to the reputation, anonymity, and confidentiality of the participants and their information (Cohen, Cohen, West & Aiken, 2013). All ethical principles were considered, and the necessary efforts were made to meet the requirements.

After obtaining permission from the research body concerned with research in Ethiopia, the researcher submitted an ethics application to the UNISA ethics committee and received ethical clearance and approval with reference number 2021-SBL-DBL-018-FA to commence the study. The researcher then completed the required data collection and fieldwork as planned.

4.6.1 Consent from Respondents

The objectives, methodologies, advantages, giving of permission, and voluntary involvement in the study were explained to the respondents (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). It also meant that people who supported the research purpose provided permission to the institution or organization where the research was conducted (Cohen et al., 2013). Babbie (2005) viewed anonymity and respondents' consent as crucial to ensure exemption from physical or mental harm. The confidentiality and welfare of all respondents were preserved and ensured by not allocating names to the completed questionnaires and keeping the data locked away safely (Cohen et al., 2013). Therefore, the broad principles of this study were acknowledged and implemented accordingly.

4.6.2 Consent from Study Area

The researcher obtained consent from the study area administration to conduct the study before it could start. The research institution required a letter stating the importance of the research and what cooperation the regional area public sector need to provide the researcher. Consequently, the study area administration (Amhara national regional state) wrote a letter to all bodies concerned to explain the importance of the study, towards which they provided their unreserved cooperation (see Appendix F). In addition, the regional public service commission offered data on selected regional public sector employees. The regional planning commission provided published reports and bulletins indicating the region's performance and general administrative, economic, and social sector data (see Appendices C and D).

Finally, the researcher distributed the questionnaires, collected, analysed, and interpreted data, and derived recommendations to resolve the research problem.

4.7 Conclusion

This chapter explained the research technique using the context of a positivist research paradigm, a deductive approach, and a quantitative methodological choice. The study targeted 6997 Amhara state public sector employees at the regional level and applied a descriptive and inferential strategy using structural equation modelling (SEM), a cross-sectional method of contact with the participants, and other techniques and procedures to determine the required sample size from the target population. There was also a discussion of ethical issues. The chapter also looked into how different leadership philosophies affect how well employees perform, with job satisfaction as a mediating factor. Analysis and interpretation techniques and procedures were also addressed.

Chapter 5 will present the research results and analysis of the study.

CHAPTER 5: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

The study applied a quantitative data analysis method, of which the first stage provided descriptive data statistics. The research evaluated essential aspects to ensure the subsequent statistical analysis and verification of the hypotheses. Zavalina et al. (2009) recorded three descriptive methods: observing human or animal behaviour, the case study, which focuses on an in-depth study of one or more instances, and the survey method, which questions individuals about a topic, estimates the data, and presents the interpretations. This study applied a survey method, during which the researcher selected and oriented three experienced enumerators to collect and process the data.

This chapter presents the descriptive demographic data on the gender, age, salary, educational qualification, field of study, and marital status of the respondents. After that, the model estimation, evaluation, modification of the model, and testing of alternative models will be described according to the data collected through the survey questionnaire.

5.2 Demographic Information

As discussed above, this section visually displays the profile data, including the respondents' gender, age, salary, educational status, field of study, and marital status in Table 5.1 as analysed by SPSS version 28.

Table 5. 1 Profile of Respondents

S/No.	Variables		Frequency	Percent (%)
1.	Gender	Male	234	63.20
		Female	136	36.80
		Total	370	100
2.	Age	18-25	12	3.2
		26-35	151	40.80
		36-45	142	38.40
		46-55	60	16.20
		>55	5	1.4
		Total	370	100
3.	Salary	600-1650	6	1.6
		1651-3200	9	2.4
		3201-7800	147	39.70
		7801-10,900	151	40.80
		>10,900	57	15.40
		Total	370	100
4.	Educational Status	Certificate	1	.3
		Diploma	16	4.30
		Degree	251	67.80
		Master's and above	102	27.60
		Total	370	100
5.	Field of Study	Business and Economics	143	38.6
		Law and related	18	4.9
		Natural and applied science	80	21.6
		Social science and language	75	20.3
		Others	54	14.6
		Total	370	100.0
6.	Marital Status	Married	270	73.0
		Unmarried	80	21.6
		Divorced	6	1.6
		Other reasons	14	3.8
		Total	370	100.0

Source: SPSS version 28 analysis result

Table 5.1 displays that most employees (63.20%) were male, and the other 36.80% were female. Respondents (40.80%) were between the age of 26 and 35 years, 38.4% were between the age of 36 and 45 years, while only 60 (16.2%) and 1.4% of them respectively were between the ages of 46 and 55.

Respondents also needed to answer questions about their salaries. Most respondents (40.80%) were paid a monthly salary ranging from ETB 7801 to 10,900, while only

1.6% were paid a lower salary ranging from ETB 600 to 1650. Besides, 39.70%, 15.40%, and 2.4% of respondents were paid ETB 3201-7800, >10,900, and 1651-3200, respectively. The demographic data also indicated that most respondents (38.60%) studied business and economics, followed by natural and applied science (21.6%), while 20.30% studied social science and languages.

Regarding educational status, 67.8% were first-degree holders, and 27.6 % studied for their master's degree and above. A small percentage included diplomas and certificate holders, 4.3 % and 0.3 %, respectively. Regarding marital status, 73% were married, 21.6% were unmarried, and 1.6% of the respondents were divorced.

5.2.1 Analysis of Demographic Variables (Control Variables)

Control variables, or covariates, typically refer to factors that are not of primary interest but are important to be included in the model for various other reasons. For instance, correlation studies often add control variables to estimate the relationship between predictors and outcomes or to rule out alternative explanations (Becker, 2005; Bollen & Bauldry, 2011). Issues on statistical control are relatively well established in traditional regression analysis but are further complicated when researchers use structural equation modelling (SEM).

On the one hand, it has been argued that using control variables is essential for identifying causalities. Control variables generally do not have a structural interpretation as effective controls are often correlated with other unobserved factors, and their marginal effects cannot be interpreted in terms of causal inference (Westreich & Greenland, 2013; Keele, Stevenson & Elwert, 2020). Researchers should, therefore, be careful not to overemphasise the control variables and consider ignoring them when interpreting the analysis results. Other scholars have stressed that control variables should have the same importance in the empirical analysis as the main independent variables (Becker, 2005; Spector & Brannick, 2011; Carlson & Wu, 2012). In this regard, Becker (2005) recommended specifying all regression coefficients of the control variables and their significance levels.

Spector and Brannick (2011) also argued that control variables should be given equal status in data analysis using the primary independent variables. A study by Rohrer, Hünermund, Arslan and Elson (2022) noted that effective controls for identifying

causalities might be endogenous in many situations. Therefore, interpreting the estimated effects and sizes considering previous theories might lead to misleading conclusions. The validity of the causality of control variables is based on solid assumptions and typically requires consideration of all influencing factors of variables under investigation. Since this is unlikely to be the case in many situations, excluding the estimated coefficients of the control variables from the regression statistics was recommended (Rohrer et al., 2022).

This study compared the outcome of control variables with endogenous variables (job satisfaction and employee performance). However, it did not mean that the dimensions of all control variables, such as education, age, gender, salary, field of study, and marital status, were significant, as shown in Table 5.2 below. Therefore, the results need not be further interpreted according to their insignificant effects (Westreich & Greenland, 2013; Keele et al., 2020).

Table 5. 2 Regression Weights: Demographic (Control Variables)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Job Satisfaction	<---	Transactional Leadership Style	.018	.032	.565	.572
Job Satisfaction	<---	Transformational Leadership Style	.480	.056	8.618	***
Job Satisfaction	<---	Democratic Leadership Style	.141	.034	4.103	***
Job Satisfaction	<---	Laissez-faire Leadership Style	.332	.044	7.619	***
Job Satisfaction	<---	Autocratic Leadership Style	.057	.026	2.168	.030
Job Satisfaction	<---	Education	.363	.220	1.652	.098
Job Satisfaction	<---	Age	.108	.130	.827	.408
Job Satisfaction	<---	Gender	-.253	.223	-1.135	.257
Job Satisfaction	<---	Salary	-.084	.149	-.565	.572
Job Satisfaction	<---	Field of Studies	-.004	.068	-.053	.958
Job Satisfaction	<---	Marital Status	.038	.150	.254	.799
Job Performance	<---	Democratic Leadership Style	-.309	.071	-4.369	***
Job Performance	<---	Autocratic Leadership Style	-.109	.055	-1.990	.047
Job Performance	<---	Laissez-faire Leadership Style	-.806	.085	-9.451	***
Job Performance	<---	Job Satisfaction	1.000			
Job Performance	<---	Transformational Leadership Style	-.785	.115	-6.827	***

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
Job Performance	<---	Transactional Leadership Style	1.000			
Job Performance	<---	Education	-.714	.459	-1.556	.120
Job Performance	<---	Age	-.008	.272	-.029	.977
Job Performance	<---	Gender	-.322	.464	-.693	.488
Job Performance	<---	Salary	.179	.311	.575	.565
Job Performance	<---	Field of Studies	-.101	.143	-.707	.479
Job Performance	<---	Marital Status	.278	.312	.889	.374

Note: * significant at $P \leq .05$; ** significant at $P \leq .01$; *** significant at $P \leq .001$.

Source: Own compilation

Correlation variables

It is important to understand the relationship between different variables. The correlation matrix in Table 5.3 shows the correlation coefficients between the variables related to marital status, the field of study, gender, age, leadership styles (transformational, democratic, transactional, autocratic, and laissez-faire), job satisfaction, and job performance.

Table 5. 3 Correlation Matrix of Variables

	MS	FS	SA	GE	A	ED	TFLS	DLS	TRZLS	AL	LLS	JS	JP
MS	1.000												
FS	.092	1.000											
SA	-.189	-.014	1.000										
GE	.110	.028	-.277	1.000									
A	.033	.001	.273	-.057	1.000								
ED	-.062	.080	.470	-.211	.168	1.000							
TFLS	-.105	-.003	.101	-.106	.039	.086	1.000						
DLS	-.100	-.046	.136	-.095	.094	.076	.836	1.000					
TZLS	-.117	.023	.096	-.074	.071	.086	.731	.730	1.000				
AL	.067	-.128	-.054	.099	.111	-.071	.017	.063	.045	1.000			
LLS	-.135	-.005	.154	-.161	.099	.095	.818	.818	.768	.040	1.000		
JS	-.103	-.015	.135	-.144	.099	.123	.859	.827	.722	.081	.851	1.000	
JP	.013	.009	-.006	-.014	.015	-.004	.004	.007	.366	-.022	.007	.166	1.000

Note: MS= Marital Status; FS=Field of Study; SA=Salary; GE=Gender; A=Age; TFLS=Transformational Leadership Style; DLS=Democratic Leadership Style; TRZLS=Transactional Leadership Style; ALS=Autocratic Leadership Style; LLS=Laissez-faire Leadership Style; JS=Job Satisfaction; JP=Job performance.

Source: Own compilation

5.3 Application of the Structural Equation Model (SEM)

Structural equation modelling is a multivariate statistical analysis method to analyse structural relationships. It combines factor analysis (CFA) and multiple regression analysis, which will be discussed in the following sections.

5.3.1 The Measurement Model (CFA)

The fundamental building block of all structural equation modelling is factor analysis (Ryan & Tipu, 2013). The researcher used confirmatory factor analysis to identify the latent variables or constructs based on confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), the two main types of factor analysis. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is applied when the observed variables or indicators cannot be defined theoretically under any construct. Using EFA requires that several statements or questions on attitudinal scales are framed and indicators categorised under various constructs based on the inter-correlation between responses to the various statements or questions. The researcher should provide proper names to the constructs represented by the numerous related indicators.

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is used when the relationship between indicators (observed variables) and latent variables (constructs) is unclear or poorly defined. When the relationship between indicators (observed variables) and latent variables (constructs) is known and clearly defined by previous studies, CFA is used instead of EFA. The researcher can use CFA if familiar with the factors and their corresponding measured variables. As a result, this study used CFA rather than EFA to confirm the reliability and validity of the measurement model because the researcher already had a solid understanding of the theory based on earlier literature reviews. Only those indicators with factor loads of .5 or higher were considered for further analysis.

AMOS version 27 was used to conduct confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), and several indices criteria were employed to assess the model fit. Based on Hu and Bentler's (1995) recommendations, both the non-normed fit index (NNFI) and the comparative fit index (CFI) need to reach values of over .90 to indicate acceptable fit, while values above .95 and nearer to 1.00 indicate close and exact model fit respectively. Standardised root mean square residual (SRMR) was also utilised as smaller values can be better considered (Hu & Bentler, 1995). Root mean square error of

approximation (RMSEA) was another fit index used, and values from .10 to .08 indicated average fit. In contrast, values ranging from .08 to .06, near to .01 indicated acceptability, and values from .06 to .00 indicated close and exact fit (MacCallum, Browne & Sugawara, 1996). Moreover, when the Chi-Square (χ^2) is divided by its degrees of freedom (χ^2 / df) to generate values below 2.0, an acceptable model fit is found (Bollen & Bauldry, 2011). Finally, the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) and Consistent Akaike's Information Criterion (CAIC) were also used to determine the best-fitting model because they could indicate the best model out of many tested models (Bozdogan, 1987).

On the other hand, when the initially hypothesised model is not the best-fitting model, the model needs to be re-specified (Kline, 2005). Modification indices must be examined to re-specify the model by either trimming or building the model empirically and theoretically. If empirically deleting or adding a path to the model was not supported by a theoretical basis, the model trimming or building should not be considered (Kline, 2005). Once the model is modified, the alternative hypothesised model will be tested using the same CFA procedures described above to determine the best-fitting model to the observed dataset.

In the following sections, the measurement model of each subscale was tested, and the goodness of fit (GOF) indices were examined to determine the fit of each model. If the model failed to fit the data, modification indices were investigated to determine the source of the misfit, and the model was re-specified and re-tested.

5.3.2 Model Evaluation

The model-fit was enhanced by removing the variables with low standardised regression weights and squared multiple correlations (Hair, Hollingsworth, Randolph & Chong, 2017). That was followed by examining the modification indices, which depicted the existence of covariance among the error variables (Ullman & Bentler, 2012). The process drew few correlations among the residuals of the observed variables within each factor. Lastly, as explained below, the three most common goodness-of-fit (GOF) indices (Awang, 2012; Ullman & Bentler, 2012) were utilised to assess the model fit.

- **Parsimonious fit:** The ratio between Chi-square and the degree of freedom (Chi-sq/df). It should preferably be less than 3 (Xiong, Skitmore & Xia, 2015); however, a value of less than five is acceptable (Awang, 2012). Instead of a Chi-square, an adjusted Chi-square, i.e., Chi-sq/df was adopted to assess the parsimonious fit because it helps to correct the bias introduced by the non-normal data distribution (Bagozzi & Yi, 2010).
- **Absolute fit** is measured by the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), P-close, and the goodness of fit index (GFI). The acceptable RMSEA value ranges between .05 and 1; however, a value less than .08 is considered good (Seo, Barrett & Bartunek, 2004). Likewise, P-close should be less than .05, and GFI should be more than .09 (Awang, 2012).
- **Incremental fit** is measured by the comparative fit index (CFI), and its value should be more than 0.9 to achieve the desired model-fit (Xiong et al., 2015).

5.3.2.1 Model Fit for Exogenous Variables

The study had seven variables, according to which the questionnaire was framed: the five leadership styles, job performance, and job satisfaction. Responses were collected from 370 administrative, economic, and social public sector employees. CFA was used to determine the fitness of the overall measurement model by comparing the obtained critical values of CMIN/df, p-value, goodness of fit (GFI), adjusted goodness of fit (AGFI), NFI, comparative fit index (CFI), root mean square approximation (RMSEA), and P Close with the recommended value.

Table 5.4 provides a summary of the results. Principal component type of factoring was used to reduce the total of 33 Likert-based items for the five leadership style indicators: democratic leadership (six items), transformational leadership (five items,) transactional leadership (ten items), laissez-faire leadership (six items), and autocratic leadership (six items).

Based on the collected data under each variable, the study used a confirmatory factor index (CFI) on the described variables. These variables are comprised of the following items.

- Exogenous variables (the latent leadership style scale) used 33 items.

- The mediating variable (employee job satisfaction scale) used 15 items.
- Endogenous variable (the latent job performance scale) used 20 items.

Consequently, the first CFA model comprised five latent constructs with 33 items to test whether the items loaded satisfactorily on the five leadership style constructs. CFA was applied, and the initial model failed to fit the data; the fit indices indicating inadequate fit to the data, $\chi^2/df = 4.006$, $p = .000$; GFI = .739; AGF=.697; RMSEA=.090, as indicated in Table 5.4.

To remove poor-fitting items from the initial measurement model, the researcher examined modification indices of the variables, the variable with the largest standardised residual, in addition to observing the low factor loading. Based on the tests, out of the total 33 items, only 22 items remained. In comparison, 11 items (three items from democratic leadership DLQ2, DLQ4, and DLQ6, two items from transformation leadership TRANSFLQ2 and TRANSFLQ4, two items from transactional leadership TRNZLQ2 and TRNZLQ6, three items from laissez-faire leadership LLQ4, LLQ5 and LLQ6, and two items from autocratic leadership ALQ5 and ALQ6) were reduced due to low factor loading and high standardised residual.

Table 5. 4 Initial and Revised Fit Index

The Fit Index	X^2	Df	X^2/df	P-value	RMSE	GFI	AGF	CFI
Initial model	1818.628	454	4.006	.0001	.090	.739	.697	.731
Revised model	259.727	176	1.476	.0001	.036	.938	.918	.977

Note: AMOS processing result; X^2 =Chi-square; DF=Degree of Freedom; P-Value=Probability Value; RMSE=Root Mean Square Error; GFI=Good Fitness Index; AGF=Adjusted Good Fit; CFI=Comparative Fit Index

Source: Own compilation

A careful examination of the model indices discovered the existence of a large correlation of 57.254 among the two error variables (e17 of TRNZL Q3 and e18 of TRNZL Q4). After correlating them, the model fit improved. However, the best model fit was achieved once four more correlations were drawn among the error variables within their respective constructs (see Figure 5.1). In addition, looking at the modification index related to the covariance, the researcher found evidence of

misspecification associated with the pairing of error terms with TRNZLSQ3 and TRNZLSQ4 ($e_{17} \leftarrow \rightarrow e_{18}$ MI=47.200), TRNZLSQ7 and TRNZLSQ8 ($e_{13} \leftarrow \rightarrow e_{14}$ MI=24.94) fit indices of the revised model, which was better than the initial one.

Table 5.4 displays the results of the chi-square value divided by degrees of freedom for the revised model were 1.476, which is less than the acceptable limit of 2. The GFI value obtained for the revised model was .938, higher than the recommended value of .9. The obtained AGFI value of .918 was greater than the recommended value. Also, the CFI value obtained was .977, which is higher than the recommended value of .90. The RMSEA value obtained was .036, less than the recommended value of .08. As a result, the overall revised model fit indices for exogenous variables were within the acceptable limits recommended by researchers.

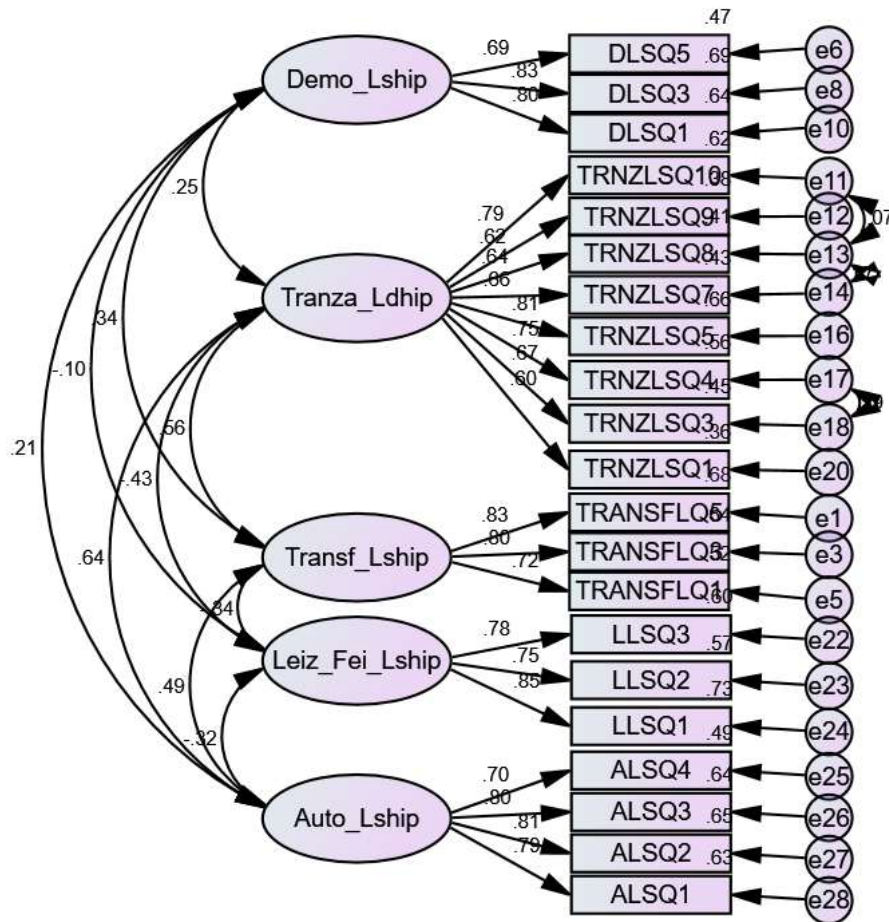


Figure 5. 1 AMOS output of the measurement model - Exogenous

Source: Own compilation

Table 5. 5 Items Loading and Construct Liability

Construct	Items	Factor Loading	Cronbach alpha	AVE	CR
		≥ .50	≥ .70	≥ .50	≥ .70
Democratic leadership			.81	.599	.816
	DLSQ1	.800			
	DLSQ2	.366			
	DLSQ3	.829			
	DLSQ4	.364			
	DLSQ5	.685			
	DLSQ6	.311			
Transformational Leadership			.82	.616	.827
	TRFLQS1	.724			
	TRFLQS2	.266			
	TRFLSQ3	.799			
	TRFLSQ4	.223			
	TRFLSQ5	.827			
Transactional leadership			.88	.516	.881
	TRZLSQ1	.596			
	TRZLSQ2	.157			
	TRZLSQ3	.670			
	TRZLSQ4	.751			
	TRZLSQ5	.810			
	TRZLSQ6	.082			
	TRZLSQ7	.656			
	TRZLSQ8	.637			
	TRZLSQ9	.617			
	TRZLSQ10	.787			
Laissez-faire leadership			.83	.632	.837
	LLSQ1	.852			
	LLSQ2	.753			
	LLSQ3	.776			
	LLSQ4	.402			
	LLSQ5	.431			

	LLSQ6	.457			
Autocratic Leadership			.86	.601	.857
	ALSQ1	.791			
	ALSQ2	.806			
	ALSQ3	.798			
	ALSQ4	.701			
	ALSQ5	.220			
	ALSQ6	.145			

Note: DLSQ=Democratic Leadership Style Question; TRFLSQ=Transformational Leadership Style Question; TRZLSQ=Transactional Leadership Style Question; LLSQ=Laissez Faire Leadership Style Question; ALSQ=Authocratic Leadership Style Question.

Source: Own compilation

5.3.2.2 Model Fit for Mediating Variables

The second CFA model comprised two variables: employee job satisfaction and employee job performance. The job satisfaction scale consisted of 15 items, while the employee job performance scale included 20 items and measured three subscales: task performance, adaptive performance, and contextual performance. Table 5.6 displays the subscales and the items measuring each of these. The initial model for mediating and endogenous variables failed to fit the data. The fit indices indicated inadequate fit to data, $\chi^2/df = 3.18$; $p = .000$; GFI = .807; AGFI=.777; RMSEA=.076 CFI = .828. To remove poorly fitting items from the initially hypothesised measurement model, the researcher examined the variables' modification indices, identified the variable with the largest standardised residual, and observed low factor loading. Table 5.6 below indicates the improved model fit due to the modification indices of CFA implementation.

Table 5. 6 Fit for Mediating Index

The Fit Index	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	P-Value	RMSEA	GFI	AGF	CFI
Initial Model	1446.265	458	3.16	***	.076	.807	.777	.828
Revised Model	395.397	262	1.511	***	.037	.921	.902	.973

Note: * p significant at $\leq .05$; ** significant at $P \leq .01$; *** significant at $P \leq .001$.

Source: Own compilation

Based on the analysis results, out of the total 35 items of mediating and endogenous variables, only 25 items remained, while a total of ten (10) items, of which two items were from job satisfaction (JSQ9 and JSQ11), eight items were from employee job performance, three items were from task performance (TaskPQ1, TaskPQ4, and TaskPQ6), three items from adaptive performance (AdaPQ3, AdaPQ4, and AdaPQ5), and two items from contextual performance (ConPQ3 and ConPQ6) were removed due to low factor loading and indicating the largest standardised residual.

In addition, a careful examination of the model indices discovered the existence of a large correlation of 57.254 among the two error variables (e2 of JSQ1 and e3 of JSQ2). After correlating them, the model fit improved. However, the best model fit was achieved once four more correlations (e7 of JSQ6 and e8 of JSQ7, and e8 of JSQ7 and e9 of JSQ8, were drawn among the error variables within their respective model, as indicated in Figure 5.2 and Table 5.7.

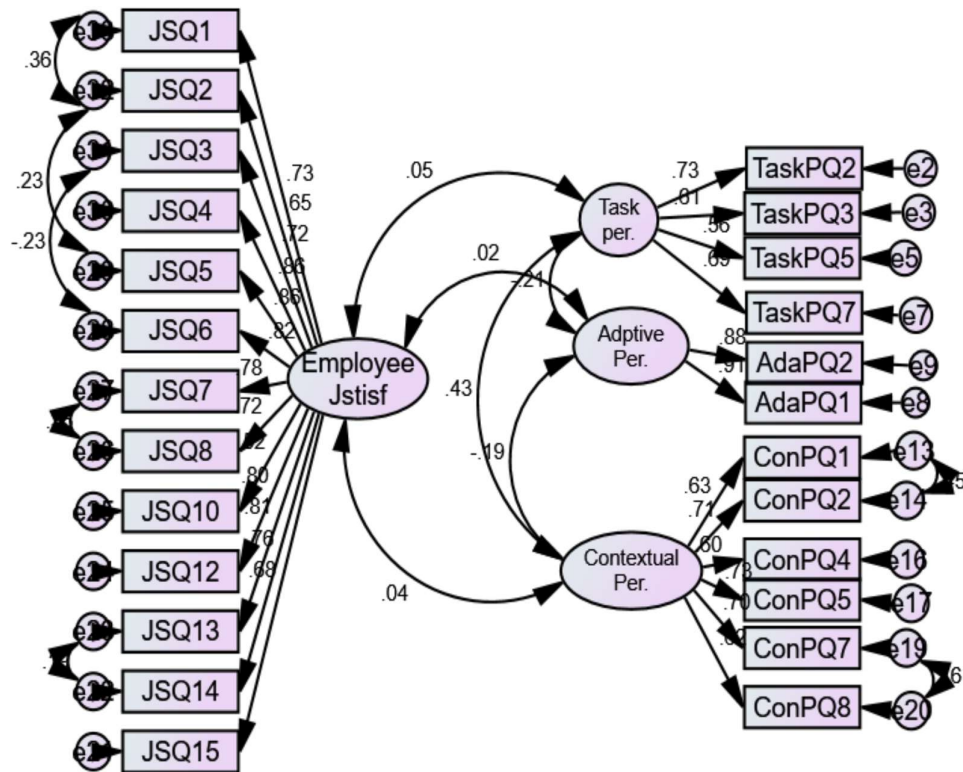


Figure 5. 2 Construct Liabilities for Mediating and Endogenous Variable
Source: Own compilation

Table 5. 7 Items Loading of Mediating Variable

Construct	Items	Factor Loading		Cronbach alpha	AVE	CR
		≥ .50		≥ .70	≥ .50	≥ .70
				.95	.57	.94
Employee Job Satisfaction	JSQ1	.729				
	JSQ2	.749				
	JSQ3	.72				
	JSQ4	.862				
	JSQ5	.858				
	JSQ6	.821				
	JSQ7	.783				
	JSQ8	.718				
	JSQ9	.382				
	JSQ10	.821				
	JSQ11	.340				
	JSQ12	.803				
	JSQ13	.807				
	JSQ14	.762				
	JSQ15	.780				

Note: JSQ=Job Satisfaction Question

Source: Own compilation

5.3.2.3 Model Fit for Endogenous Variables

The employee job performance scale consisted of 20 items and measured three subscales (task performance, adaptive performance, and contextual performance).

Table 5.8 indicates the subscales and the items measuring each variable.

Table 5. 8 Construct Liability for Endogenous Variables

Construct	Items	Factor Loading	Cronbach alpha	AVE	CR
		≥ .50	≥ .70	≥ .50	≥ .70
Employees' performance	Task performance		.78	.564	.838
	TaskPQ1	.440			
	TaskPQ2	.734			
	TaskPQ3	.712			
	TaskPQ4	.185			
	TaskPQ5	.761			
	TaskPQ6	.421			
	TaskPQ7	.795			
	Adaptive performance		.80	.797	.887
	AdaPQ1	.906			
	AdaPQ2	.879			
	AdaPQ3	.283			
	AdaPQ4	.341			
	AdaPQ5	.296			
	Contextual Performance		.82	.568	.886
	ConPQ1	.832			
	ConPQ2	.708			
	ConPQ3	.284			
	ConPQ4	.610			
	ConPQ5	.731			
	ConPQ6	.269			
	ConPQ7	.895			
	ConPQ8	.721			

Note: Task PQ=Task Performance Question; Ada PQ=Adaptive Performance Question; Con PQ=Contextual Performance Question.

Source: Own compilation

The initial model failed to fit the data; the fit indices indicated inadequate fit to data, $\chi^2/df = 5.912$ $p = .000$; GFI = .788; AGFI=.73; RMSEA=.115, CFI = 0.691. To remove poor-fitting items from the initial hypothesised measurement model, the researcher examined the variables' modification indices, identified the variable with the largest standardised residual, and observed low factor loading. Based on recommendations

from the reviewers, the researcher dropped one item from task performance (TaskPQ4), two items from adaptive performance (AdaPQ3 and AdaPQ5), and two items from contextual performance (ConPQ3 and ConPQ6), which at the time exhibited relatively low factor loading. The CFA was then re-run on the subsequent model (Hofmann, 1995).

Table 5.9 below shows the fit index value of the initial and revised model for the endogenous variable (employee performance). The results revealed the model fitness because of the CFA modification indices.

Table 5. 9 Fit Index for Endogenous Variables

The fit index	X ²	Df	X ² /df	P-value	RMSEA	GFI	AGF	CFI
Initial model	987.298	167	5.912	***	.115	.788	.734	.691
Revised model	137.790	61	2.259	***	.050	.948	.922	.977

Note: Amos data processing result is significant at p < .001.

Source: Own compilation

5.3.3 Structural Component of the Model (SEM)

Nine observed variables were framed for the questionnaire, and responses were collected from 370 employees. Eight of these nine observed variables were conceptually related to the two latent and one observed variable. The indicators represent the different components of the latent variables. The five conceptually related latent variables, democratic leadership, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, and autocratic leadership affected the latent variable, employee job performance, and the observed variable, job satisfaction, affecting the latent variable-employee job performance. The graphic representation of the relationship between the variables is displayed in the path diagram in Figure 5.3 below, as proposed by the research hypotheses.

As indicated earlier, the researcher evaluated the measurement model by applying confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), thereby evaluating model fitness for exogenous variables (5.3.2.1.), model fitness for mediating variables (5.3.2.2), and model fitness for endogenous variables (5.3.2.3). Having evaluated the measurement model with the application of confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), the next step involved evaluating the structural models. Structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to test the

depicted structural model. Figure 5.3 indicates that the five latent leadership style variables were exogenous according to the model. Employee job satisfaction was a mediating variable endogenous to the five latent leadership styles but an exogenous variable related to employee job performance. Employee job performance was an endogenous variable concerning the five latent leadership style variables and the employee job satisfaction variable.

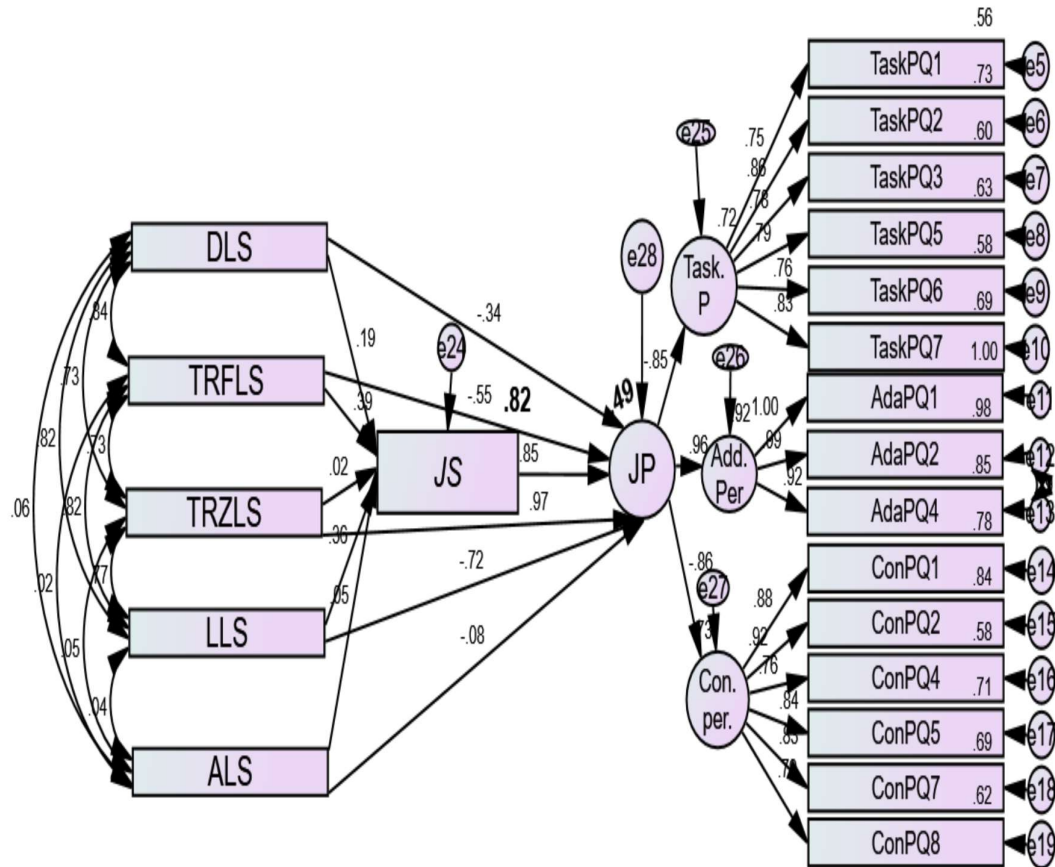


Figure 5. 3 Path Diagram of SEM

Source: Own compilation

Table 5. 10 Model Fit Indices for CFI

Index	Recommended Value	Structural Model Value
χ^2/df	≤ 5.00 (Hair et al., 1998)	1.85
RMSEA(Root Approximation)	$\leq .08$ (Hair et al., 1998)	.048
GFI (Goodness of Fit Index)	$\geq .90$ (Hu and Bentler, 1999)	.922
AGFI (Goodness of Fit Index)	$\geq .80$ (Segars and Grover, 1993)	.893
NFI (Normed Fit Index)	$\geq .90$ (Hair et al., 1998)	.922
TLI (Tucker-Lewis Index)	$\geq .90$ (Hair et al., 1998)	.953
CFI (Comparative Fit Index)	$\geq .90$ (Gefen et al., 2000)	.962

Note: AMOS processing result

Source: Own compilation

Table 5.10 above displays an SEM yield according to AMOS version 27. Information retrieved on absolute fit size models was anticipated to decide the general expectation level of the model (structural model) and the appropriateness of the information comprising RMSEA $0 < .048$ (good fit) and a GFI good fit .922. Concerning different rules of model fit, the incremental fit model comprised a few similar test instruments, particularly the CFI value = .962 and NFI = .922. The results show that the primary condition model is presumed acceptable because it is at adequate testing measure degree and meets the incremental fit model (IFM) requirements. From the yield, it is reasoned that the model was supposed to be at the test standard level and met the requirements of the parsimonious fit model. Having assessed the structural model, the constant of causal relationships between the constructs was examined to find validation of hypothesised impacts.

The researcher tested the hypotheses using structural equation modelling (SEM) with the assistance of AMOS version 27. Figure 5.3 above and Table 5.11 below illustrate the results of testing hypotheses of the structural relationship between the variables.

Table 5. 11 Path Coefficients of Direct Variables

Hypothesis		β	t-value	P-value	
Democratic leadership styles	→	Employees Job Satisfaction	.186	4.078	***
Transformational leadership style	→	Employees Job Satisfaction	.392	8.569	***
Transactional leadership styles	→	Employees Job Satisfaction	.020	.544	.587
Laissez-faire leadership style	→	Employees Job Satisfaction	.361	7.907	***
Autocratic leadership style	→	Employees Job Satisfaction	.047	2.096	.036
Employee job satisfaction	→	Employees Performance	.847	13.419	***
Democratic leadership styles	→	Employees Performance	-.342	-4.299	***
Transformational leadership style	→	Employees` Performance	-.797	-6.942	***
Transactional leadership style	→	Employees` Performance	.972	3.179	.001
Laissez-faire leadership style	→	Employees` Performance	-.724	-9.551	***
Autocratic leadership style	→	Employees` Performance	-.075	-1.882	.060

Note: AMOS Data processing result; significant at * $p \leq .05$; ** significant at $p < .01$; ***significant at $p < .001$

Source: Own compilation

As per Table 5.11, the coefficient of the direct effect of variables was described. These results briefly present the direct effect of each independent (exogenous) variable on the dependent (endogenous) variable. The standardised beta coefficient compares the effect size of each independent variable to the dependent variable. The higher the value of the beta coefficient, the stronger the effect. The standardised beta (β) coefficient has a standard deviation, and variables can be easily compared.

As described in Table 5.11, in the direct relation between leadership styles and employee job satisfaction, the transformational leadership style had a higher beta (β) coefficient value of 39.20% compared to other independent variables. It indicates that the transformational leadership style has a strong effect, followed by the laissez-faire leadership style, democratic leadership style, and autocratic leadership style, with their coefficient beta (β) values of 36.1%, 18.6%, 4.7%, and 2%, respectively.

On the other hand, the direct impact of leadership styles was also investigated on employee performance. In the results, the transactional leadership style had a higher regression effect on employee performance, with a coefficient of 97.20%. Therefore, the participative employees dominantly related employee performance to a

transactional leadership style compared to other study variables. Besides, job satisfaction served as a mediating variable in this study. However, it was also used as an independent variable compared with employee performance. Hence, the beta (β) coefficient value of job satisfaction shows a strong effect with a coefficient value of 84.70% compared to employee performance. Thus, job satisfaction is the dominant variable strongly affecting employee performance, as shown in Table 5.11.

5.3.3.1 Direct Impact of Leadership Style on Job Satisfaction

This study described the research questions (RQ) in section 1.3, research objectives (RO) in section 1.5, and research hypotheses (Ha) in section 1.6. Accordingly, the proposed hypothesis Ha1 was supported by the path coefficient of democratic leadership affecting employee job satisfaction, which is positive and significant ($\beta=.186$; $p<.001$ and $t\text{-value}= 4.078$). Thus, a democratic leadership style positively and significantly impacts job satisfaction.

The findings demonstrate a significant relationship between transformational leadership and employee job satisfaction, with a standardised coefficient of ($\beta= .392$; $p\text{-value}= .001$; and $t\text{-value}= 8.569$). The results fulfilled the minimum threshold; thus, hypothesis Ha2 was accepted.

The study proposed a direct relationship between transactional leadership style and employee job performance. With a standardised coefficient of $\beta = .02$, $p\text{-value} = .587$, and $t\text{-value} = .544$, the results in Table 5.11 indicate the relationship between transactional leadership and employee job satisfaction as insignificant because the significant value is greater than the minimum threshold ($P>.05$). Thus, Ha3 was rejected.

Moreover, Ha4 proposed that a leader's laissez-faire style directly impacts employee job satisfaction. Accordingly, the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and employee job satisfaction showed positive and significant with a standardised coefficient value of ($\beta= .361$; $p\text{-value}= .001$; and $t\text{-value}= 7.907$). Hence, hypothesis Ha4 was accepted.

The study proposed investigating the direct impact of autocratic leadership style on employee job satisfaction. The results revealed that the direct impact of an autocratic leadership style on employee job satisfaction was significant with standardised

coefficient values of ($\beta=.047$; $p\text{-value}=.036$; and $t\text{-value}= 2.096$), thereby hypothesis Ha5 was accepted.

The result indicated that democratic, transformational, laissez-faire, and autocratic leadership styles significantly impact employee job satisfaction. In contrast, transactional leadership style did not significantly impact employee job satisfaction.

5.3.3.2 Direct Impact of Leadership Styles on Employee Performance

As per the questions (RQ) in section 1.3, research objectives (RO) in section 1.5, and research hypotheses (Ha) in section 1.6, this study investigated the impact of democratic leadership style on employee performance. The results indicated that the direct impact of democratic leadership style on employee job performance is negatively significant with a standardised coefficient of ($\beta =-.342$; $p\text{-value} =.001$; and $t\text{-value}= -4.229$). Thus, there is a direct impact of democratic leadership on employee job performance, by which Ha6 was accepted.

Subsequently, Ha7 proposed investigating the impact of transformational leadership style on employee performance. As indicated in Table 5.11 above, transformational leadership significantly impacts employee job performance, with a standardised coefficient of ($\beta= -0.797$; $p\text{-value}= .001$; and $t\text{-value} = -6.942$). Thus, Ha7 was accepted.

Following, the direct relationship between transactional leadership and employee job performance was investigated. The AMOS processing results indicated that transactional leadership style significantly impacts employee job performance as explained by standardised coefficient $\beta= .972$; $p\text{-value} = .001$; and $t\text{-value} = 3.179$) by which Ha8 was accepted.

The study also proposed hypothesis H9 to examine the impact of laissez-faire leadership style on employee job performance. Accordingly, laissez-faire leadership significantly but negatively impacts employee performance with standardised coefficient values ($\beta= -.729$; $p\text{-value} =.001$; and $t\text{-value}= -9.551$). Thereby, Ha9 was accepted.

The study hypothesised the direct impact on autocratic leadership style and employee performance. The results indicated that the direct path between autocratic leadership

and employee job performance is negative and insignificant since its β value = -.075; $P=.06$, and t -value= -1.882) were above the required minimum threshold. Hence, the proposed hypothesis Ha10 was rejected.

The study hypothesised the direct impact of five leadership styles on employee job performance. Therefore, the results indicated that democratic, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership styles have a significant but negative impact on employee job performance, while transactional leadership style has a significant and positive impact on employee job performance. However, an autocratic leadership style did not significantly impact employee job performance, as shown in Table 5.11 above.

5.3.3.3 Direct Impact of Job Satisfaction on Employee Performance

Job satisfaction is a state of positive emotions and feelings employees reveal towards their work. Based on the research questions (RQ) in section 1.3, research objectives (RO) in section 1.5, and hypotheses (Ha) in section 1.6, the research applied appropriate instruments and research techniques to solve the research problems. Hypothesis (Ha11) stated that job satisfaction impacts employee performance. The results indicated a significant and positive relation between job satisfaction and performance with $\beta=.847$, t -value=13.419, P -value $<.001$, and a sample estimate equal to .847. Thus, Ha11 was accepted.

5.3.3.4 Coefficient of Determination (R^2)

The coefficient of determination (R^2) value is a common measure for evaluating the structural model. This coefficient represents the combined impact of all exogenous variables on endogenous variables. The R-square measures a given model's predictive ability. Hair et al. (2017) proposed a range of .75, .5, and .25 as typical substantial, moderate, and weak levels of predictive accuracy, respectively. Table 5.12 and Figure 5.3 indicate that employee job satisfaction is responsible for 82.0% of predictive variables having a substantial impact.

The research results indicated that the R^2 was .82 for job satisfaction as a mediating variable. That means the four latent variables (democratic, transformational, laissez-faire, and autocratic leadership styles) explain 82% of the variance in employee job satisfaction. In contrast, the latent leadership style variables (democratic,

transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles), together with employee job satisfaction, explain 49% of the variance in employee job performance. The results are displayed in Table 5.12.

Table 5. 12 Coefficient of Determination (R²) value

Endogenous variables	R ² Value	Remark
Employee job satisfaction	82%	Strong effect
Employee job performance	49%	Relatively Moderate effect

Note: Coefficient of determination value, (R²) =.75 substantial; R²=.5 moderate; R²=.20 weak; Hair et al. (2017)

According to Table 5.12, the measurement value of the coefficient of determination (R²) is high in this study with variables which explain job satisfaction. However, the interpretation of R² is not always straightforward. A low R-squared is not always a problem, and a high R-squared does not automatically indicate a good model. The level of variability in each research question, which is fundamentally unexplained, varies depending on the subject field. R-squared values under 50% are typical for studies that try to predict human behaviour. Still, a study examining a physical process with excellent measurements could have R-squared values exceeding 90%. There is no one-size-fits-best answer for how high R-squared should be. Scholars suggested their ideas and finding at different times on this issue. Accordingly, P.K. Ozili (2023) explained that R-squared 50% to 99% is acceptable in social science research, especially when most explanatory variables are statistically significant.

5.4 Mediating Impact Variable

The mediating impact between the five leadership styles and employee job performance via employee job satisfaction was tested using AMOS bootstrapping by specifying a sample of 2000. It is argued that bootstrapping would provide much more statistical power compared to the typical theory approach (MacKinnon, Lockwood & Williams, 2004). Scholars have followed a procedure similar to that of Baron and Kenny (1986), who proposed multiple regression analysis.

However, based on weaknesses in the system and the growing array of alternative approaches, state-of-the-art guidelines considered following other steps for testing the mediating impact (Preacher & Hayes, 2008; Shrout & Bolger, 2002; Zha, Lynch &

Chen, 2010). The recommendations included two steps for mediation analysis. The first step was determining the significance of the indirect impact, as illustrated in Figure 5.4

Step 1: Determining the significance of the indirect impact.

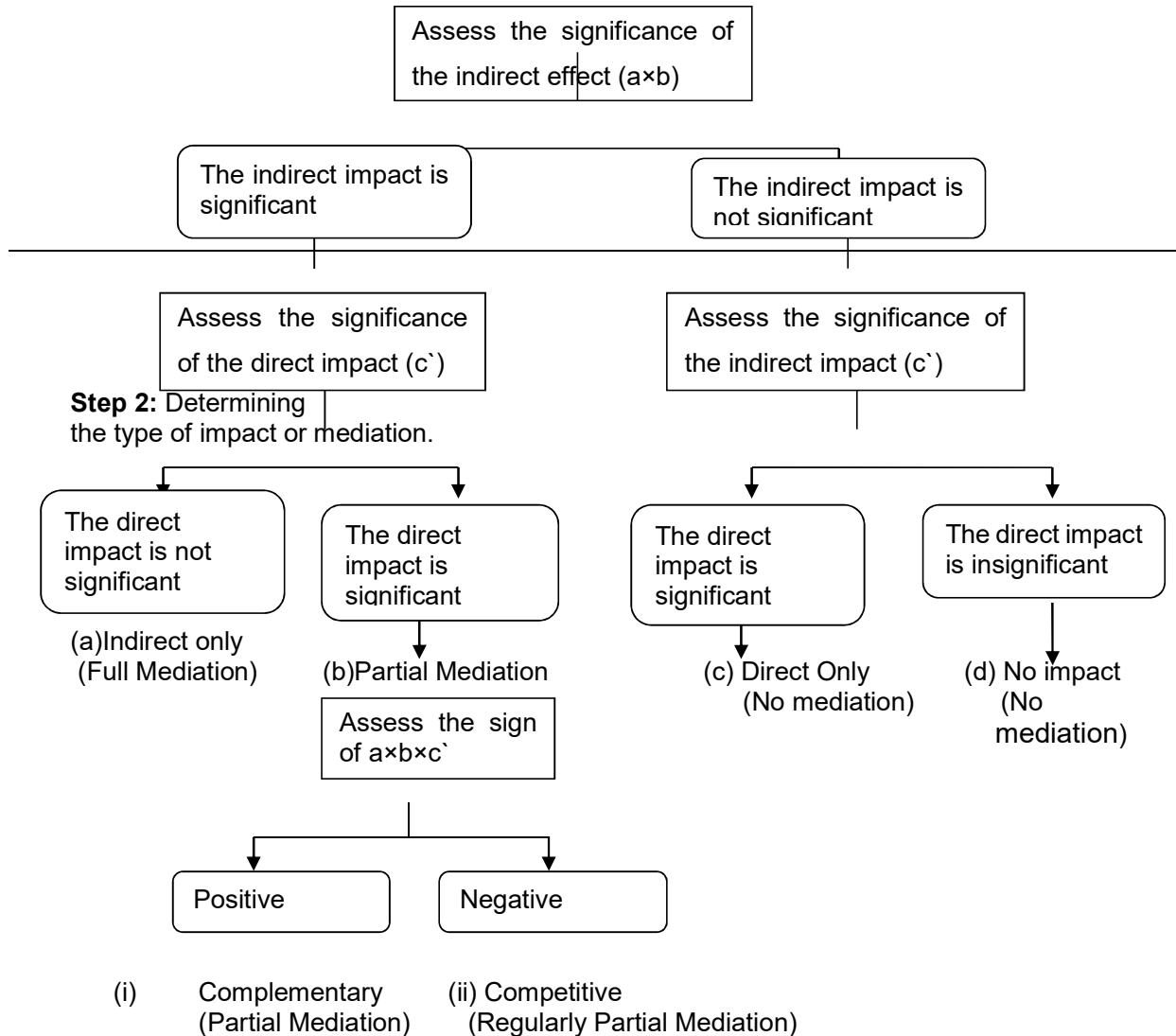


Figure 5. 4 Mediation Analysis

Source: Zhao et al. (2010)

First, testing the indirect impact $a \times b$ provides researchers with all the information for testing mediation. Second, the strength of the indirect impact $a \times b$ should determine the size of the mediation. Third, a bootstrap test should test the significance of the indirect impact $a \times b$.

As depicted in Figure 5.4 above, in Step 1, the indirect impact was tested for significance. In the simplest form of mediation, the indirect impact is the product $a \times b$ of the two paths from the source construct X to the mediator construct M (path a) and from the mediator construct M to the target construct Y (path b).

Preacher and Hayes (2008) indicated that the Sobel test is not appropriate for analysing indirect impact because the parametric assumptions (i.e., normality) of the paths a and b do not hold for the product term of the two paths ($a \times b$) if one assumes that a and b are normally distributed. Alternatively, researchers should apply bootstrap routines to test the significance of the indirect impact $a \times b$. The bootstrapping procedure is a non-parametric inferential technique that randomly draws several subsamples (e.g., 5,000) with replacement from the original data set. Bootstrapping an indirect impact data sample is necessary to obtain information about the population distribution, which is the basis for hypothesis testing. Hence, bootstrapping routines do not require assumptions about the shape of the variable distribution (Chin, 2009).

5.4.1 Mediating Impact of Job Satisfaction

Step 2 in Figure 5.4 indicates the type of impact or mediation. A mediating impact always exists when the indirect impact $a \times b$ in Step 1 is significant. Moreover, the variance accounted for (VAF) is used to calculate the ratio of the indirect-to-total impact (Nitzl & Hirsch, 2016). This ratio is the variance accounted for (VAF) value that determines the extent to which the mediation process explains the variance of the dependent variable.

Table 5.13 displays the indirect, total impact and values accounted for (VAF) in the study, indicating the impact of mediation of the mediating variable. As a result, the proposed hypothesis, the indirect and total impact, and the confidence interval are identified in Table 5.13.

Table 5. 13 The Indirect and Mediation Impact

Hypothesis	a	b	a*b		Total Impact (C)	Percentile 95% Confidence Intervals		Methods	
	Path coefficient	Path coefficient	Path coefficient	P-value	Path coefficient	95% LL	95%UL	VAF	Bootstrapping
DL→EJS→EP	.186	.847	.158	.011	-.184	.067	.252	.85	Full Mediation
TRFLS→EJS→EP	.392	.847	.332	.020	-.465	.244	.412	.72	Partial Mediation
TRZLS→EJS→EP	.020	.847	.017	.630	.987	-.073	.075	Not determined	No Mediation
LLS→EJS→EP	.361	.847	.306	.016	-.418	.202	.422	.732	Partial Mediation
AL→EJS→EP	.047	.847	.039	.042	-.036	.001	.074	Figure 5.4 Step2(a)	Full Mediation

Note: DLS=Democratic Leadership Style; TFLS=Transformational Leadership Style; TRZLS=Transactional Leadership Style; ALS=Autocratic Leadership Style; LLS=Laissez-faire Leadership Style; JS=Job Satisfaction; JP=Job performance.

Source: Own compilation

The study hypothesised the mediating impact of job satisfaction between democratic leadership style and employee performance. The results of the indirect impact value showed that the indirect impact of democratic leadership via the mediation of employee job satisfaction on employee job performance was significant ($\beta = .158$, p -value = .011), and the confidence interval was different from zero (.067, .252). Thereby, hypothesis Ha12 was accepted.

This study also tested the mediating impact of job satisfaction between transformational leadership style and employee performance. Hence, Table 5.13 depicts the indirect impact of transformational leadership via employee job satisfaction on employee job performance as positive and significant ($\beta = .332$ and p -value = .02) at $p < .01$, and the confidence interval was different from zero (.244, .412). The indication was that employee job satisfaction mediates the relationship between transformational leadership and employee job performance. Thus, the findings caused hypothesis Ha13 to be accepted.

Next, the study tested the mediating impact of job satisfaction between transactional leadership style and employee performance. The results in Table 5.13 revealed that

the indirect impact of transactional leadership style, via employee job satisfaction as the mediating construct, on employee job performance was insignificant since the significance value was greater than .05, which is ($\beta = .017$, $p\text{-value} = .63$) with a confidence interval different from zero (-.073, .75). Therefore, employee job satisfaction did not mediate between transactional leadership style and employee job performance. Therefore, H_{a14} was rejected.

The study also required determining the mediating impact of job satisfaction between laissez-faire leadership style and employee performance. The results revealed that the mediating impact of job satisfaction between laissez-faire leadership style on employee job performance is positive and significant ($\beta = .306$ at $p = .016$), and the confidence interval was different from zero (.202, .422), thereby H_{a15} was accepted.

Finally, the study proposed testing the mediating impact of job satisfaction between autocratic leadership style and employee job performance. Research results indicated that the mediating impact of job satisfaction is positive and significant with a standardised coefficient value ($\beta = .04$ at $p = .042$), by which H_{a16} was accepted.

After confirming the significance of the indirect impact (Step 1), testing the strength of the mediating construct was the last step. This assessment method can be performed using variance accounted for by VAF (Hair et al., 2014), which can be calculated by dividing indirect impact by total impact.

$$VAF = \frac{\text{Indirect Impact}}{\text{Total Impact}} = \frac{a \times b}{a \times b + c}$$

According to Hair et al. (2014), VAF values can be interpreted in the following way: $VAF > 80\%$ indicates full mediation, $20\% \leq VAF \leq 80\%$ indicates partial mediation, and $VAF < 20\%$ indicates no mediation.

Finally, it was important to establish the strength of mediation. The strength of mediation was computed via variance accounted for (VAF), as Hair et al. (2014) suggested. Table 5.13 shows that 85% of the impact of the democratic leadership style on employee job performance is explained via employee job satisfaction. Since the value of VAF is larger than 80%, employee job satisfaction was assumed as a full mediator.

Table 5.13 also indicates that 72% of the impact of transformational leadership style on employee job performance is explained via employee job satisfaction. Since the value of VAF is between 20% and 80%, employee job satisfaction partially mediates the relation between transformational leadership style and employee job performance. Similarly, the variance accounted for by the VAF value for laissez-faire leadership style was calculated and revealed a value of 73%, which indicated that 73% of the total impact of laissez-faire leadership style on employee job performance is explained by the indirect impact of job satisfaction.

5.5 Discriminant Validity of Measurement Model

Discriminant validity precisely measures whether constructs that theoretically should not be related to each other are, in fact, unrelated. It tests that constructs that should have no relationship do, in fact, not have any relationship (Wang & Wang, 2012). Fornell and Larcker's (1981) methodology was utilised to test discriminant validity. Discriminant validity will be proved when each item loads more strongly on its assigned construct than on the different constructs and if the square root of every construct's average variance extracted (AVE) is larger than its correlation with the different constructs (Gefen & Straub 2005). As displayed in Table 5.14, the square root of AVE (shown within the diagonal of the correlation matrix) among constructs is bigger than their inter-construct correlations; subsequently, discriminant validity was ensured.

Table 5. 14 Average Variance Extracted and Correlation Matrix

Variables	CR	AVE	MSV	ASV	LLS	TRFLS	DLS	TRZLS	ALS
LLS	.837	.632	.183	.102	.795				
TRFLS	.827	.616	.314	.194	-.335	.785			
DLS	.816	.599	.114	.058	-.102	.338	.774		
TRZLS	.881	.531	.408	.242	-.428	.560	.251	.695	
ALS	.857	.601	.408	.198	-.317	.487	.210	.639	.775

Note: CR=Composite Reliability; AVE=Average Variance Extracted; MSV=Maximum Shared Value; ASV=Average Shared Value; LLS=Laissez-faire Leadership; TRFLS=Transformational Leadership Style; DLS=Democratic Leadership Style; TRZLS=Transactional Leadership Style; ALS=Autocratic Leadership styles.

Source: Own compilation

5.6 Convergent Validity of Measurement Model

Convergent validity measures the extent to which factors should measure one construct to another. Convergent validity was verified according to the item loadings and average variance extracted (AVE). Convergent validity is shown when each measurement item loads significantly, with the p-value of its t-value well within the .05 level on its assigned construct (Gefen & Straub, 2005). The standardised factor loadings of all items belonging to the final models for leadership styles dimensions (democratic leadership, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, and autocratic leadership), employee job satisfaction and employee job performance were greater than the minimum threshold of .5 with statistically significant levels.

As depicted in Appendix D, the AVE varied from .599 to .632. Thus, the AVE value fulfilling the minimum threshold of .5 indicated a good convergent validity for the questionnaire. Also, the researcher can establish whether the measured variables comply with convergent validity by referring to construct reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE). If $CR > .7$, $CR > AVE$, and $AVE > .5$ (Hair et al., 2010), and the data meets the convergent validity. In this study, the CR and AVE of the individual construct were determined, and the output is shown in Appendix D. Accordingly, all the constructs satisfied the above criteria to fulfil convergent validity.

5.7 Conclusion

This chapter presented and explained the results obtained from the research methodology and design discussed in Chapter 4. It also provided related tables and figures to ensure that the research objectives were met and that the reliability and validity of the research could be established. Therefore, the primary research could be concluded.

Chapter 6 discusses the conclusion to the study.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION TO THE STUDY

6.1 Introduction

The study aimed to investigate the impact of leadership styles on employee job performance mediated by job satisfaction through quantitative techniques and compared it with information obtained through a literature review. This chapter discusses the research implications, recommendations, and limitations based on the data presented in Chapter 5. Furthermore, the results are integrated with findings from the literature review to ensure research rigour. The research results are discussed by reviewing the research questions (RQ), objectives (RO), and hypotheses (H) proposed in Chapter 1.

The research problem stated that effective leadership styles were not applied, and employee job performance and job satisfaction in the public sector were not considered and enhanced accordingly, consequently affecting the quality of the public services sector performance in the Amhara national regional state in Ethiopia.

The research was performed from an objectivist reality, applying a qualitative research design and a survey questionnaire to collect and analyse the data from 370 Amahara public sector employees. The research results are summarised and discussed in this chapter to recommend possible improvements to the public sector's leadership styles and employee job performance mediated by employee job satisfaction.

6.2 Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research questions were applied to explore different aspects of the research topic. At the same time, the hypotheses were tested to express and confirm a possible relationship between variables based on existing scholarly knowledge, theories, and observations, as discussed below.

6.2.1 Research Questions

- RQ1: Do leadership styles, including democratic leadership, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, and autocratic leadership, have a significant impact on employee job satisfaction?

- RQ2: What is the impact of job satisfaction on employee performance?
- RQ3: What is the impact of leadership styles (democratic leadership, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, and autocratic leadership) on employee performance?
- RQ4: What is the mediating impact of job satisfaction between leadership styles (democratic leadership, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership style, and autocratic leadership) and employee performance?
- RQ5: Which leadership styles significantly affect public services sector employees' job performance?
- RQ6: Which leadership styles predominantly affect employees' job satisfaction and performance in the public services sector?

6.2.2 Hypotheses

- Ha1: Democratic leadership has an impact on employee job satisfaction.
- Ha2: Transformational leadership has an impact on employee job satisfaction.
- Ha3: Transactional leadership has an impact on employee job satisfaction.
- Ha4: Laissez-faire leadership has an impact on employee job satisfaction.
- Ha5: Autocratic leadership has an impact on employee job satisfaction.
- Ha6: Employee job satisfaction has an impact on employee job performance.
- Ha7: Democratic leadership has an impact on employee job performance.
- Ha8: Transformational leadership has an impact on employee performance.
- Ha9: Transactional leadership has an impact on employee job performance.
- Ha10: Laissez-faire leadership has an impact on employee job performance.
- Ha11: Autocratic leadership has an impact on employee job performance.
- Ha12: Job satisfaction mediates the impact of democratic leadership on employee job performance.

- Ha13: Job satisfaction mediates the impact of transformational leadership style on employee performance.
- Ha14: Job satisfaction mediates the impact of transactional leadership style on employee performance.
- Ha15: Job satisfaction mediates the impact of laissez-faire leadership style on employee performance.
- Ha16: Job satisfaction mediates the impact of autocratic leadership style on employee performance.

6.3 Discussion of the Findings

This study investigated the direct impact of leadership styles and job satisfaction on employee performance, which included:

- The direct impact of leadership styles on employee job satisfaction.
- The direct impact of leadership styles on employee job performance.
- The direct impact of job satisfaction on employee job performance.

The research results will be discussed in the following sections.

6.3.1 Direct Impact of Leadership Styles on Job Satisfaction

The findings were that democratic leadership style positively and significantly impacts employee job satisfaction, by which the research question was answered, and Ha1 was accepted. Accordingly, the results were consistent with those of Cherry (2019), Puni et al. (2014), Afshinpour (2014), Kelali & Narula (2017), Dike & Madubueze (2019), and Jerome (2018). Directly or indirectly, the findings indicated that democratic leadership style focuses more on group power, better communication between members, and members' contributions to decision-making. Participation builds employees' levels of creativity and innovation increases. In contrast, democratic leadership builds a sense of responsibility in employees simply because they are involved in making decisions. It reveals a positive connection between democratic leadership style and job satisfaction.

On the contrary, it is argued that, depending on the contribution made by the employees or subordinates, there is a potential for poor decisions to be made by subordinates (Nwochoka & Iheriohanma, 2015). Democratic leadership must overcome drawbacks to ensure its effectiveness in the organisation and address the fundamental challenges of competency, crises, consensus, pseudo-participation, and adherence.

Transformational leadership style positively and significantly impacts employee job satisfaction, and Ha2 was accepted. These findings are consistent with results by Bodla and Nawaz (2010), Riaz and Haider (2010), Malik et al. (2016), Mehdi & Suleyman (2020), and Kader and Tang (2016), who found that transformational leadership increases employee job satisfaction. However, it was inconsistent with the research results of Choi (2007), who indicated the opposite.

Transactional leadership style has an insignificant impact on employee job satisfaction, by which the research question was resolved, and Ha3 was rejected. Therefore, the findings are consistent with previous studies (Beauty & Aigbogun, 2022; Bogler, 2001; Emery & Barker, 2007; Lee, 2008; Ali et al., 2013). On the other hand, some studies indicated the significance of transactional leadership style on job satisfaction (Hongnou et al., 2014; Voon et al., 2011), showing once more that leadership styles depend on circumstances.

Laissez-faire leadership style directly and positively impacts employee job satisfaction, which was supported by the results indicating that a laissez-faire leadership style significantly and positively impacts employee job satisfaction, and by which the research question was answered and Ha4 was accepted. The results are consistent with previous studies (Asrar-ul-Haq & Kuchi, 2016; Munir & Iqbal, 2018; Rosnizah et al., 2022), indicating a significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership and job satisfaction. These findings agree with research done by Sürücü and Sağbaş (2021), Puni et al. (2014), Aydin et al. (2013), Skogstad et al. (2007), Bass (1990) and Lam and O'Higgins (2012) while other researcher argued that laissez-faire leadership is not a significant leadership style (Aydin et al., 2013; Bass, 1990; Lam & O'Higgins, 2012).

Autocratic leadership style shows a significant relationship with employee job satisfaction, by which the research question was resolved, and Ha5 was accepted.

These results are consistent with Al-Maghrabi (2010), who stated that autocratic leaders are characterised by controlling direct supervision of their subordinates. Guenifi and Menasria (2022) suggested a significant positive relation between autocratic leadership and employee job satisfaction.

However, several studies contradicted the relation between autocratic leadership and employee job satisfaction. As indicated in previous discussions, autocratic leadership is not always negative but should be implemented based on circumstances and support for organisational success. According to Sauer (2011), autocratic leaders give subordinates clear and concise instructions on what to do and help them meet goals and deadlines when time is of the essence. Gill (2014) found an autocratic leadership style best suited for situations where the leader has expertise or the leader must take unofficial authority or control.

6.3.2. Direct Impact of Leadership Styles on Employee Performance

Democratic leadership style showed a direct but inverse relationship to employee job performance, by which Ha6 was accepted. In democratic leadership, decisions can be made jointly by the leader and the group, allowing objectivity and the delivery of praise and criticism and developing a sense of accountability. The leader assists followers in executing their tasks. Furthermore, democratic leadership encourages and rewards creativity by enabling group members to express their ideas and thoughts while giving the leader the final verdict. Democratic leadership has several advantages when subordinates are encouraged to express their opinions, as good ideas and more inventive solutions could result.

Moreover, when employees feel invested in and devoted to initiatives, they are more inclined to estimate the outcome, which boosts worker productivity. Despite variations, the research findings indicated a positive relation between democratic leadership style and employee job performance. The negative consequences are the requirements for representation and delegation to subordinates in decision-making to ensure corporate success. Furthermore, it was asserted that democratic leadership might result in a breakdown in communication and completion of tasks. Various studies have been conducted on the impact of democratic leadership styles and employee job performance, and consistent with this study, indicated the drawbacks that democratic

leadership has on employee performance (Bhargavi & Yaseen, 2016; Puni et al., 2014; Nwokocha & Iheriohanma, 2015; Sadia & Aman, 2018). The implication is that leaders' reliance on contributions made by team members or subordinates could lead to poor decision-making. It could harm the company and motivate workers to leave. Thus, the democratic leadership style is significant but negative, which implies there should be limitations on employee participation and decision-making.

Transformational leadership styles significantly impact employee job performance; thus, the question was resolved, and Ha7 was accepted. Because leaders encourage team members' job engagement and allow them to go above and beyond expectations, transformational leaders can improve followers' performance and encourage supportive actions. The results indicated the inverse relation of the leadership style on employee job performance. Because transformational leaders constantly attempt to increase colleagues' confidence, problem-solving skills, and capacity to talk positively about the future, employees often feel inspired and positive to talk to them. Leaders who challenge their staff intellectually may be able to boost productivity. They can motivate staff to re-evaluate preconceived notions about their work, push them to reconsider organisational issues and motivate them to take positive, creative action. These findings are in line with Bommer et al. (1990).

Earlier studies by Buil et al. (2019) found a direct relationship between transformational leadership and job performance. However, Rafia et al. (2020) stated that transformational leadership significantly and inversely impact employee performance, also supported by Prabowo (2018) and Lee (2018). The motivating effect of transformational leaders can result in team members being distracted from important tasks. These leaders aim to lead by example and model the ideal behaviour, but they may not be able to provide enough structure or direction for employees. Lack of focus can lead to confusion in the organisation about who is doing what and, eventually, reduce productivity.

Transactional leadership style significantly and positively affects employee job performance. Thus, the research question was resolved, and H8 was accepted. These results are consistent with Bass (2005), who indicated that subordinates are anticipated to provide overall performance. The organisation provides incentives (trust, dedication, and respect) and rewards interpreted as remuneration or incentives.

The transactional leadership style is directed towards achieving excellence. It is consistent with the findings of Bass and Avolio (2003), who stated that transactional leadership impacts overall employee performance positively. Still, it can turn negative for transactional leaders if employees can no longer depend on their promises and if they cheat or are no longer transparent. These findings agree with previous studies on transactional leadership (Sundi et al., 2013; Zareen et al., 2015; Van Eeden et al., 2008).

Laissez-faire leadership significantly but negatively impacts employee performance, which caused the research question to be resolved and Ha9 to be accepted. Hence, the results are consistent with a study conducted by Asrar-ul-Haq and Kuchinke (2016), showing a negative relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and employee performance results in terms of effectiveness. Al-Malki (2018) also reported on role conflict and role ambiguity associated with a laissez-faire leadership style that harms work performance. Applying this leadership style negates the organisation's daily activities and job performance.

Laissez-faire leadership is the opposite of the autocratic leadership style, as leadership is passed on to the decision-making and responsibility of the group, which is primarily unstructured and cannot be depended upon (Kehinde et al., 2014). This leadership style is characterised by low motivation, no blame, and poorly defined roles and responsibilities (Belias & Koustelios, 2014). The inference is that a laissez-faire leadership style indicates a lack of leadership (Puni et al., 2014; Karamat, 2013). The significant but negative impact of laissez-faire leadership on employee performance indicated the need for control and providing feedback to enhance employee performance. Studies supported the negative relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and employee performance, expecting employees to get their work done and reach their full potential without leadership (Sougui et al. (2016).

The autocratic leadership style did not significantly impact employee job performance, and Ha10 was rejected. An autocratic leadership style signifies a leader controlling all decisions with little input from staff and making rounds to see whether employees do their jobs. Furthermore, they make decisions based on their views and judgments and rarely accept advice from their followers (Maqsood et al., 2013). Contrary to the current results, various authors stated that autocratic leadership increases employees'

performance and enhances organisational success in certain situations. Based on the findings, authoritarian leadership works best when the group has little decision-making time or the leader is the most knowledgeable member (Maqsood et al., 2013).

6.3.3 Direct Impact of Job Satisfaction on Employee Performance

The research results confirmed that job satisfaction positively and significantly impacts employee job performance, thereby Ha11 was accepted. These findings confirmed research by Prawiro et al. (2017), Ahn and García (2004), Bowling et al. (2015), Fu and Deshpande (2014), Durrah et al. (2016), Ramezani et al. (2018), Torlak and Kuzey (2019), Yuen et al. (2018) and Bhatti et al. (2019). Thus, the research suggested a strong and positive relationship between job satisfaction and employee performance. Satisfied employees prefer to spend all needed working hours at the office, be on time, and deliver quality work with greater accuracy, focus, and effort.

In contrast, various scholars have indicated the absence of a relationship between the variables (Lauring & Selmer, 2018; Siraj et al., 2015; Tsui et al., 2013), finding no significant relationship between job satisfaction and employee performance. Instead performance was determined by the employees' perception of work as enjoyable or unpleasant and not by the employees' job satisfaction. These researchers indicated that job satisfaction does not depend on individuals' emotional reactions to their job, manager, salary, promotion (future opportunities), or good workplace interaction. According to them, employees do not consider job satisfaction a prime factor, which showed it was not a significant factor in improving job performance. However, this study indicated a significant relationship between job satisfaction and employee performance.

6.3.4 Mediating Impact of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction had a mediating impact between democratic leadership style and employee performance. Thereby, Ha12 was accepted. These results were consistent with other studies that demonstrated a link between democratic leadership style, job satisfaction, and job performance because democratic leadership involves one or more employees in decision-making (Kouzes & Posner, 2017). Robbins (2005) favoured a democratic leadership style for its decision-making, primarily by group members. Moreover, democratic leaders consult their subordinates, provide directives

on proposed actions and decisions, and encourage subordinates to participate. It confirms the potential of such a leadership style to win the group's collaboration and satisfy or motivate them effectively and positively. This style yields moral advantage, such as employees responding more cooperatively when encouraged about their performance (Dike et al., 2019; Chang, 2017; Andreani & Petrik, 2016).

Job satisfaction significantly mediated the relationship between transformational leadership style and employee job performance, and Ha13 was accepted. These results were consistent with previous research results that showed the impact of transformational leadership style on worker performance mediated by job satisfaction (Epitropaki & Martin, 2005).

Job satisfaction does not significantly mediate the relationship between transactional leadership style and employee performance, revealing an absence of indirect impact of the variable, and Ha14 was rejected. These results are supported by research from Paracha et al. (2012) and Risambessy et al. (2012), who stated that job satisfaction did not significantly mediate between transactional leadership and employee job performance.

The study then determined the mediating impact of job satisfaction between laissez-faire leadership style and employee performance. The result indicated that the mediating impact of job satisfaction between laissez-faire leadership style and employee job performance is positive and significant; thereby, H15 could be accepted in line with the findings by Wulandari et al. (2015) and Yang et al. (2015).

Finally, the mediating impact of job satisfaction between autocratic leadership style and job performance was tested. The results indicated a positive mediating impact on job satisfaction, and Ha16 was accepted. The role of job satisfaction as a mediator was much more compelling than the independent variables (Ali, 2016) and was consistent with the results.

After confirming the significance of the indirect impact (Step 1), testing the strength of the mediating construct was the last step. This method of assessment could be done using variance accounted for by VAF (Hair et al., 2014), which can be calculated by dividing indirect impact by total impact:

$$VAF = \frac{\text{Indirect Impact}}{\text{Total Impact}} = \frac{a \times b}{a \times b + c}$$

According to Hair Jr et al. (2014), one can interpret VAF values in the following way: VAF >80% indicates full mediation, 20% ≤ VAF ≤ 80% indicates partial mediation, and VAF < 20% indicates no mediation.

Finally, it was important to examine the strength of mediation. The mediation strength was computed via variance accounted for (VAF), as Hair et al. (2014) suggested.

Job satisfaction has full mediation for democratic and autocratic leadership styles via employee job performance with its VAF value of larger than 80%. In addition to this, job satisfaction also has partial mediation for transformational and laissez-faire leadership styles via employees' performance with its VAF value of 72% (See Table 5.13), as the value ranges between 20% and 80%.

On the other hand, job satisfaction did not have a mediation impact between transactional leadership style and employees' performance. Its VAF value could not be determined as having a significant impact on job satisfaction.

6.3.5 Alignment of Study Results with Research Questions

The alignment of research results with research questions has been investigated and defined accordingly. Therefore, research question RQ1 was designed to determine the significant impact of leadership styles on employees' job satisfaction, as discussed in Chapter 1, Section 1.3. The findings indicated a significant impact of democratic, transformational, laissez-faire, and autocratic leadership styles on employee job satisfaction, while transactional leadership style showed an insignificant relation with job satisfaction.

In addition, research question RQ2 addressed the impact of job satisfaction on employee performance. Accordingly, the results indicated that job satisfaction positively and significantly impacts employee performance. Moreover, research question RQ3 investigated the impact of leadership styles on employee performance. The results showed a significant impact between democratic, transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles on employee job performance, while

autocratic leadership style did not show any significant impact on employee job satisfaction and performance.

As per RQ4, the study examined the mediating impact of job satisfaction between leadership styles and employee performance. The results indicated that job satisfaction significantly mediates between democratic, transformational, laissez-faire and autocratic leadership styles and employee performance, while job satisfaction did not have any mediation impact between transactional leadership style and employee performance.

Question RQ5 examined whether the independent (exogenous) variables are significant compared to dependent (endogenous) variables. Research results indicated that democratic, transformational, laissez-faire, and autocratic leadership styles had a significant positive impact on employee job satisfaction, while democratic, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership styles had a significant negative impact, while transactional leadership styles had a significant positive impact on employee performance. Transactional leadership style on job satisfaction and autocratic leadership style on performance did not significantly impact job satisfaction.

This study designed RQ6 to determine the predominant effect of leadership style on employees' job satisfaction and performance. The result indicated a predominant impact between the transformational leadership style and job satisfaction and transactional leadership styles and employee performance.

Research questions on which leadership styles directly affect public sector employees' job satisfaction and performance were addressed. As per Table 5.11, the coefficient of the direct effect of variables was presented with its standardised beta coefficient value. Hence, the transformational leadership style showed a higher beta (β) coefficient value of 39.20% and a more significant effect, indicating that this leadership style has a dominant effect on employee job satisfaction compared to the other leadership styles investigated in this study.

The direct effect of leadership styles was also tested on employee performance. The transactional leadership style had a higher regression effect on employees' performance, with a coefficient of 97.20%. Therefore, transactional leadership style

significantly and positively influences employee job performance compared to other study variables.

6.4 Contributions of the Findings

The Ethiopian government has committed to improving public sector governance by launching various initiatives based on the Civil Service Reform Program (CSRP). Public sector leaders advocate transformational agendas to achieve the Growth and Transformation Plan (GTP) goals at various levels. However, the performance of the public sector to ensure effective leadership in the public sector means that leaders must lead competently and effectively. Creating a vision is important to develop leadership within an organisation. Leadership shapes the vision, determines its mission, objectives, strategy, and policies, and creates organisational structures.

The research has found that organisations undergo several implementation weaknesses related to effectiveness, competency, and leadership practices not meeting expectations. This study aimed to enhance the public sector leadership practice by investigating different leadership styles and how they could impact employee job satisfaction and performance for service delivery excellence. The findings were discussed in the previous sections and showed that different leadership styles could be applied depending on the circumstances.

6.4.1 Practical Contribution of the Study

The study contributed towards a significant public sector leadership and employee excellence framework to reduce the tension between leaders, administration, and the community, negatively impacting service delivery. Recommendations could assist the public sector to function optimally despite poor global performances, especially in the African and Ethiopian contexts. The research results indicated that democratic, transformational, laissez-faire, and autocratic leadership styles significantly and positively impact employee job satisfaction. In contrast, a transactional leadership style had an insignificant impact on job satisfaction. Additionally, research results revealed that democratic, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership styles have a significant but negative impact on employee job performance, while transactional leadership style has a significant and positive impact on employee performance. On

the other hand, the autocratic leadership style did not impact employee job performance and satisfaction.

Consequently, public sector leaders should focus on leadership styles and job satisfaction to increase employee capacity and performance, reduce corruption, improve quality-of-service delivery, and ensure good community governance. The research problem stated that people suffer from a lack of good governance, high levels of dissatisfaction, and the impact of corruption. Literature has advocated for improved public services in Africa and the world.

The inference is that despite great effort and considerable resources allocated to such public sector reforms, progress remains slow and limited, mainly for political reasons, such as interference, unaccountable officials, non-compliance with reforms, and a general decline in governance in the public sector. Indications are that reforms have not positively impacted service delivery and that no positive outcomes for the public could be expected. The research findings indicated that improved processes do not guarantee enhanced service delivery.

Vigilant and efficient research must be performed concerning the impact of leadership styles on employee job satisfaction and performance excellence to be adopted in Ethiopia and other African public service sectors. The research findings could contribute toward reducing the problems and increasing the job satisfaction and performance of public sector employees, consequently improving the quality of services in the public sector. Furthermore, the results could support role players to focus on appropriate leadership styles to enhance employee satisfaction, thereby increasing performance excellence to deliver quality services, use resources efficiently, save time, and reduce bad governance practices.

Research findings were based on best practices and commendations from the target population. They could benefit and be an excellent opportunity for implementing effective leadership styles in the public sector. It could also direct newly elected leaders, the selection of employees, researchers, academics, and scholars around the globe to implement reforms and public service excellence.

6.4.1 Contributions to the Ethiopian Public Sector

In the Ethiopian context, the literature discussion highlighted several implementation weaknesses related to effectiveness, efficiency, and leadership practices that have not been addressed according to expectations. Therefore, the study could contribute to the Ethiopian public sector leadership practices in the following way.

The study could assist the public sector to function optimally per the research questions stated in Section 1.3 and the proposed significance of the study in Section 1.7. It could also assist the public sector in implementing leadership styles for newly elected leaders and selected employees, as described in Section 1.7.

- The research findings added value to the body of knowledge for all local authorities, leadership counsellors, academics, government departments, and policymakers. It also contributes to Ethiopian leaders' understanding of the impact of leadership styles on employees' job satisfaction and performance, which helps implement the knowledge accordingly. As a result, the transformational leadership style predominantly impacts job satisfaction and the transactional leadership style employees' performance. Therefore, focusing on transformational and transactional leadership styles is important for Ethiopian leaders, as per the result of this study.
- A gap in research was found on what leadership style could be applied to enhance employee performance. Therefore, the research results could support the Ethiopian government and other stakeholders in implementing a significant leadership style to enhance employee job satisfaction and performance.
- The study could further enable public sector leaders, employees, and the community to take remedial steps to solve public service delivery problems.

6.4.2 Contribution of the Study to the Existing Body of Knowledge

Research findings indicated a significant positive relationship between democratic, transformational, laissez-faire, and autocratic leadership styles on employee job satisfaction. Therefore, the study added value to previous prejudice on the relation between autocratic leadership styles and employee satisfaction. The research result

indicated a positive impact and a need for an autocratic leadership style when new and untrained employees do not know how to perform or follow steps and when compliance and effective monitoring can only be ensured through detailed instructions. Another application would be when employees are unresponsive to other leadership styles, and there is a high demand for achievement with limited time to make decisions. However, in general, it does not contribute to employee job satisfaction.

The study provided appropriate guidelines about which leadership styles dominantly affect employee satisfaction and performance and which are suited for public sector leadership. It focused on job satisfaction and its mediating impact between democratic, transformational, laissez-faire, and autocratic leadership styles and employee performance. The results revealed the importance of job satisfaction in autocratic and democratic leadership styles and employee performance.

Consequently, this study, which concentrated on the impact of public sector leadership styles, job satisfaction, and employee performance, added value to the body of knowledge for all sectors (administrative, economic, and social), leadership counsellors, government departments, and policymakers.

Finally, the research endeavoured to answer questions on leadership styles, job satisfaction, and employee performance. Globally and in Africa, and particularly in the context of Ethiopia, although progress has been made in understanding leadership traits, there is a need to realise that much is not known about how a leadership style could be applied effectively to enhance employee performance, thereby, knowledge gaps and unanswered questions remain. In particular, both public and private institutions have collaborated to exploit and drain Africa's resources at the expense of the African community. Hence, leadership development and effectiveness are related to international political economy trends. Therefore, the results of this study can be used to enhance the theoretical significance and contribution to the African context. The research results have supported the mediating impact of job satisfaction on leadership style and employee performance.

As discussed, all leadership styles do not equally impact employee performance. This study contributed to knowledge, especially in public sector leadership, and, more

importantly, to deploy leadership styles that significantly value employee satisfaction and performance in the world, Africa, and Ethiopia.

This study also has unique contributions for the following reasons.

- Some unanswered questions and issues need to be researched about leadership, as explained in the background of the study. There is a lack of research on public sector leadership and employee performance in Ethiopia and other nations. More scholarly publications were delivered concerning the federal level, and much fewer on the regional level. Therefore, the research results can contribute to the existing body of knowledge focusing specifically on a regional level.
- Most studies on public sector leadership and employee performance are focused on reforms achieved and their effectiveness in Ethiopia and other nations. Studies conducted on the impact of public sector leadership on employee performance are scarce and in demand.
- This study covered information gained from employees in all public sectors, including the administrative, economic, and social sectors. In addition, the study added relevant research variables (dependent, independent variable, and mediating), which assisted in driving reliable conclusions and generalisations.

6.5. Recommendations for Practice

The research findings indicated that leadership styles affect employee job satisfaction and performance in public sector leadership. The recommendation is that public sector leaders must understand and implement appropriate leadership styles to enhance employee satisfaction and performance. Based on the findings, the researcher highly recommends that the Ethiopian public sector realise the following.

6.5.1 Attention to Leadership Style, Employee Performance and Satisfaction

Evaluate the job satisfaction, performance, and effectiveness of employees and leadership styles of public service sectors and focus on implementation problems to advance service delivery and decrease inferior governance practices. Besides, employees impact service delivery immensely. Therefore, employees must be guided

to improve organisational effectiveness and excellence through leadership to obtain, maintain, and develop them to achieve collective objectives. Good leadership is about leadership wisdom that provides direction and guidance at an appropriate level. That means a particular leadership style could be a key factor in increasing or decreasing employee productivity because satisfied employees are more productive and profitable for the organisation.

Research has shown that job satisfaction creates positive employee attitudes, improves their morals, develops their performance, and creates a good relationship with leaders. The inference is that leadership styles have an immense impact on job satisfaction. This study found that transformational leadership style has a predominant impact on job satisfaction and transactional leadership style due to employee performance. Therefore, this study recommends that leaders focus on these leadership styles, job satisfaction and performance excellence.

6.5.2 Awareness Creation and Discussions

Arranging discussions with public sector employees and leaders is vital to share the research findings. Employees and leaders must be made aware, and their input received on increasing job satisfaction, performance, and efficiency. Furthermore, after being informed about the research, they should confirm their preferred leadership style to achieve service excellence. Employees must know the different aspects, including their characteristics, traits, behaviours, and emotions, that positively impact work performance and work toward a solution.

Realising yourself as unique increases your self-esteem and allows you to use specific skills and traits to achieve excellence. Self-awareness would support the quality of their social connections, interactions with others, and rational awareness of what they could achieve. Awareness is the key to productivity and performance in the workplace, without which there is no job performance excellence.

6.5.3 Training for Job Satisfaction and Performance

Leadership training opportunities for public sector leaders and employees are essential to strengthen and enhance leadership styles and practices and improve the poor job performance of public sector employees. Training is the most basic function

of human resources management. It could be the systematic application of formal processes to help employees acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to perform their jobs efficiently. The study found that employee training, organisational policies, work conditions, job satisfaction, and interactions determine employee performance. This study recommended training public sector leaders and employees to recognise their skills and ensure performance excellence through job satisfaction.

6.5.4 Focus on Employee Compensation and Working Culture

The research has indicated a poor salary structure, low working culture, weak sense of service delivery, inadequate reward system, favouritism and politicisation, high turnover rates, role ambiguity, and corruption in the public sector. These factors have a high negative impact on employee job satisfaction and performance.

Leaders must be allowed to reward and improve the performance of their human resources by incentives in the form of compensation, benefits, or facilities granted to those employees who provide critical and functional services to ensure job satisfaction and performance. It was also found that monetary and non-monetary rewards (salaries, wages, bonuses, insurance, and office equipment) are related to employee performance. Therefore, the recommendation is that public sector leaders focus on salary structures, working culture, a sense of service delivery, and a reward system. At the same time, leaders must fight favouritism and reduce the high turnover rate, role ambiguity, and corruption to overcome service delivery problems.

Moreover, policy makers must pay particular attention to institutional policies that create favourable conditions to ensure employee job satisfaction and performance. In contrast to the private sector, public services do not enjoy the same degree of flexibility, such as adjusting employee benefits. Therefore, public service leaders must consider different incentive mechanisms for job improvement and create conditions that ensure employee job satisfaction and performance to increase the implementation of growth and transformation plans.

6.5.5 Appointment and Selection Process of Employees

Care must be taken to enhance the integration of public sector leaders, employees, and the community when appointing new public sector leaders. Leadership styles

appropriate for the public sector and community should be assessed. Moreover, the situational application of leadership styles, their influence on employee job satisfaction and performance, and their impact on service delivery must be considered. Different leadership styles must be applied based on the strength of direction, empowerment, and decision-making authority that would motivate employees. Effective leaders must be competent and adapt their leadership styles to the needs of the working environment.

Various leadership theories have been put forward over the last fifty years, and these theories are said to have influenced the overall success of the organisations in which they were implemented. Because there is no one leadership approach, appropriate leadership styles must be selected and modified for different organisations, situations, groups, and people. Therefore, being aware of different leadership styles is beneficial because it broadens the range of tools to evaluate how they relate to each other and impact the performance of people and organisations.

The research thus recommends the appointment of quality public sector leaders, appropriate selection and appointment processes, and capacity-building practices in the sector when appointing employees. Combining a leadership style with innate skills gives an organisation immense opportunity for improvement and success. Thus, merit-based selection and continuous human resource training and development should be planned as the best strategy to improve service delivery and reduce poor performance.

6.6 Limitations of the Study

The study experienced constraints regarding resources and time. It was difficult to access respondents since most of the respondents (public sector employees) were absent from the office due to fieldwork and arriving late at the office. Therefore, distributing the questionnaires to the employees and collecting the data within the prescribed time was challenging as the respondents took a long time to complete the questionnaires.

This research was limited to public sector employees as the researcher could not incorporate leaders in this sector. Therefore, the findings were generalised using only public sector employees as participants. Furthermore, the study did not include other

regions and employees from other Ethiopian public sectors. Research findings from the Amhara national regional state might well be generalised to other Ethiopian public sectors.

The fact that just the five leadership styles, democratic, transformational, transactional, laissez-faire, and authoritarian leadership, were chosen to represent the effects of leadership styles among many leadership styles was another constraint. Additionally, the study used one mediating variable among many others to examine the association between leadership styles and employee job performance.

A quantitative technique was used as the primary research method, which could be considered a limitation. However, this method seemed important for analysing large samples and obtaining accurate facts. Although a qualitative data collection method could also be used to acquire detailed narrative information from participants, a realistic quantitative collection method seemed the most applicable under challenging circumstances.

6.7 Recommendations for Further Research

The following areas for further studies may be considered based on the study's results and recommendations.

6.7.1 Longitudinal Research Approach

This study applied a cross-sectional design for selecting respondents and simultaneously comparing different variables at a relatively low cost. Although a rigorous design was followed to determine causal relationships between variables and the mediating impact was studied, cross-sectional data do not achieve the same level of reliability as longitudinal research and analysis. The recommendation is that the same sample of people be followed and studied over time in a longitudinal study to detect whether there was an improvement in job performance and public service delivery to the region.

6.7.2 Research Variables

According to the study, democratic, transformative, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles accounted for 49% of employees' low job performance and

satisfaction. The recommendation is that other variables could be studied as they could also play an important role in employee performance. Thus, the recommendation is that other leadership variables should be included in studies using different research models.

6.7.3 Need for Other Mediating and Moderating Variables

Moreover, the study used a single mediating variable (job satisfaction) and did not include other moderating variables, such as personal circumstances or environmental influences. Further studies should include mediating variables other than job satisfaction, which could mediate between leadership styles and employee performance.

6.7.4 Increasing the Scope of the Study

The study area was delimited to the Amhara region in Ethiopia. Further studies could be conducted to incorporate other regions in Ethiopia. In addition, the study derived results by only using public service employees and did not include leaders as study participants. The study aimed to investigate the impact of leadership styles on employee performance mediated by job satisfaction. The inclusion of leaders together with employees as participants could increase the impact of the study.

6.7.5 Research on Mixed Method Approach (Quantitative and Qualitative)

Research studies typically combine qualitative and quantitative research methods in a mixed-method research design. Qualitative research methods are typically based on participant narratives and perceptions subjected to analytic induction, such as establishing common themes from the participants' perceptions. The quantitative method for this study involved collecting numerical data subjected to a statistical analysis, which was necessary as the researcher studied a large sample to address the research problem, objectives, and hypotheses. It seemed applicable to reach an accurate, comprehensive conclusion and evaluate the results accurately. Research on systematically combining qualitative and quantitative methods within a single study has increased. Therefore, the recommendation is to include a mixed method research design in future studies on similar concepts.

6.7.6 Research on Coefficients of Determinations (R^2)

Scholars criticized the R-squared and argued that the most extensively applied goodness-of-fit measure for assessing the performance of regression models is the R-squared or coefficient of determination. However, although a high R-squared tends to be associated with an efficient model, the R-squared has been argued for having no importance in the classical regression model because it does not give any information on the model residuals. It is also argued that a very poor model fit can yield a high R-squared and there is a scenario where small R-squared values can cause problems. However, high R-squared needs to be for the model to produce useful predictions. That depends on the precision you require and the amount of variation in the data. A high R^2 is necessary for precise predictions, but it is insufficient by itself.

The study results indicated that leadership styles explain with a coefficient of determination (R^2) value of 82% of the variance in employee job satisfaction. However, the study recommends the result of the coefficient of determination be treated cautiously due to the high value of R^2 .

Further research could examine the coefficient of determination (R^2) values of different leadership styles with the variance of job satisfaction and employee performance as dependent variables.

6.8 Concluding Remarks

This study summarised the key research findings as follows:

- Democratic, transformational, laissez-faire, and autocratic leadership styles significantly and positively impact employee job satisfaction, while transactional leadership styles do not significantly impact employee job satisfaction.
- Democratic, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership styles have a significant but negative impact on employee job performance, while transactional leadership style has a significant and positive impact on employee performance. However, an autocratic leadership style did not significantly impact employees' performance.

- Job satisfaction mediates democratic and autocratic leadership styles via employee performance and the partial between transformational and laissez-faire leadership styles via employee performance. On the other hand, job satisfaction does not show a mediating impact between a transactional leadership style and employee performance.
- Democratic, transformational, laissez-faire, and autocratic leadership styles explain 82% of the variance in employee job satisfaction. In contrast, democratic, transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles and job satisfaction explain 49% of the variance in employee job performance. In addition, transformational and transactional leadership styles predominantly affect employees' satisfaction and performance.
- The study contributes to developing a governance outline for the public sector to reduce the tension between leaders, administration, and the community, impeding service delivery. With guidance, the public sector could function optimally despite the poor implementation of plans worldwide, especially in Africa and Ethiopia.
- The study result also contributed to the existing body of knowledge in that not all leadership styles equally impact employee performance. Therefore, the correct leadership style should be implemented in the correct situation to impact job satisfaction and employee performance.
- The inclusion of leaders together with employees as participants in a study could increase the return on investment. Therefore, future studies should incorporate leaders as study participants and apply more moderating variables in mixed-method research designs.

Although this study focused on the impact of leadership styles on employee job performance mediated by job satisfaction in the Ethiopian Amhara region public sector, these findings could be extrapolated to other areas, regions, and countries as similar problems are experienced with leaders and organisations not only in developing countries but globally.

I, therefore, conclude this thesis with the words of Kimo Kippen, founder of Aloha Learning Advisors.

“This whole level of wholeness is a place where I can show up as a full human being with all my gifts to the table to be part of this organisation. That leads to a great feeling of inclusiveness because it allows me to bring this real, authentic self to the table and love my work.”

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APPENDIX A: ETHICAL CLEARANCE

University of South Africa, PO Box 392, Unisa, 0003, South Africa
Cnr Janádel and Alexandra Avenues, Midrand, 1685, Tel: +27 11 652 0000, Fax: +27 11 652 0299
E-mail: sbi@unisa.ac.za Website: www.unisa.ac.za/sbl

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS LEADERSHIP RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE (GSBL CRERC)

23 November 2021

Ref #: 2021_SBL_DBL_018_FA

Name of applicant: Mr RB Hallu

Student #: 67125115

Dear Mr Hallu

Decision: Ethics Approval

Student: Mr RB Hallu, (67125115@mylife.unisa.ac.za), +251-912117048)

Supervisor: Dr D Vermer, (Dvermer1@gmail.com, 082 452 0683)

Project Title: The Impact of Leadership Styles on Employees' Job Performance.

Qualification: Doctor of Business Leadership (DBL)

Expiry Date: October 2023

Thank you for applying for research ethics clearance, SBL Research Ethics Review Committee reviewed your application in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics.

Outcome of the SBL Research Committee: Approval is granted for the duration of the Project

The application was reviewed in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics by the SBL Research Ethics Review Committee on the 18/11/2021.

The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:

- 1) The researcher will ensure that the research project adheres to the relevant guidelines set out in the Unisa Covid-19 position statement on research ethics attached
- 2) The researcher/s will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.

- 3) Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should be communicated in writing to the SBL Research Ethics Review Committee.
- 4) An amended application could be requested if there are substantial changes from the existing proposal, especially if those changes affect any of the study-related risks for the research participants.
- 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.

45 Building leaders who go beyond



University of South Africa PO Box 392, Unisa, 0003, South Africa
Cnr Janzani and Alexander Avenues, Midrand, 1685, Tel: +27 11 652 0000 Fax: +27 11 652 0299
E-mail: sbl@unisa.ac.za Website: www.unisa.ac.za/sbl

Kind regards,

NBW Mlibwa

Prof N Mlibwa

Chairperson: SBL Research Ethics Committee

011 - 652 0000/ wiltonb@unisa.ac.za

Pumalileli

Prof P Msweli

Executive Dean: Graduate School of Business Leadership

011- 652 0256/ mswelip@unisa.ac.za

**APPENDIX B:
AMHARA REGIONAL STATE PERMISSION LETTER**

በአማራ ብሔራዊ ክልላዊ መንግስት
የርዕሰ መስተዳድር ጽ/ቤት



Office of the Head of Government in
The Amhara National Regional State

Ref.No/ቁጥር 02/1782/ሠ/ተ.3

Date/ ቀን 29/11/2011 ዓ/ም

ሰሚመሰከተው ሁሉ

ጉዳዩ፡- ትብብር እንድደረግላቸው ስለመጠየቅ የባህርዳር ቴክኖሎጂ ኢንስቲትዩት ባህርዳር ዩኒቨርሲቲ የስራ ባልደረባ የሆኑት አቶ ረዴ በዛብህ ከUNISA (University of South Africa) የ3ኛ ዲግሪ ትምህርታቸውን በDBL (Doctor of Business Leadership) "The Impact of Leadership styles on Employees Job Performance- A Case Study in Ethiopia, Amhara Region Public Sector Bureaus at Regional Level" በሚል ርዕስ ጥናት እያካሄዱ በመሆኑ የአማራ ብሔራዊ ክልላዊ መንግስት አብዛኛው ርዕሰ መስተዳድር ጽ/ቤት ግለሰቡ ትምህርታዊ ጥናት በክልላችን ከሚገኙ ቢሮዎች ጋር በሚያደርጉት ትምህርታዊ ግንኙነት፣ መረጃዎችን የማሰራጨት እና የማሰባሰብ ሂደት ላይ አስፈላጊው ድጋፍ እና ትብብር እንድደረግላቸው ስንል እናሳውቃለን።

To Whom It May Concern

Subject: Request for Cooperation

Mr. Redie Bezabih is currently working in Bahir Dar Institute of Technology –Bahr Dar University and the university allowed him to attend his DBL (Doctor of Business Administration in UNISA (University of South Africa) under the title entitled as "The Impact of Leadership styles on Employees Job Performance- A Case Study in Ethiopia, Amhara Region Public Sector Bureaus at Regional Level". Thus, Amhara National Regional State Administration office (ANRS) is glad to see your unreserved support and cooperation up on his study, data distribution, collection as well as other related tasks.

„ Regards»

«ከሰላምታ ጋር»

በአማራ ስርዓተ-መንግስት
የርዕሰ መስተዳድር ጽ/ቤት



በአማራ ስርዓተ-መንግስት
የርዕሰ መስተዳድር ጽ/ቤት

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E-mail : anrsprinfo@gmail.com

312

+ 251 058 220 1068/1660
website www.amharareg.gov.et

"ለዕድገትና ትሬንዲንግ ስፔሻል ተግባራዊነት ሁላችንም እንረባረብ"



APPENDIX

C:

PERMISSION LETTER FOR TARGET GROUP DATA

የክሮራ ብሔራዊ ክልላዊ መንግሥት
ሲቪል ሰርቪስ ኮሚሽን
Amhara National Regional State
Civil Service Commission



ቁጥር - ሲ.ሰ.ሪ/ዕ.ሰ.መ.አ.ዳ/361/11

ቀን - 11/10/2011 ዓ.ም

Ref No. CSC/P/11/10/361/11
Date 18/10/2011

To Redie Bezabih Hailu
Bahir Dar

Subject: Provision of Data

Mr Redie Bezabih Hailu applied to our civil service commission in requesting number of employees under Amhara state public sectors at Regional level for the purpose of his doctor of business leadership study entitled: The impact of leadership styles on employees' job performance.

As per his request, we compiled the number of employees under regional public sectors and gave him 6921 employees with descriptive list of 3 pages.



„ With Regards...

Handwritten signature and Amharic text: ለደብዳቤ ያደረገ ጽሑፍ የአቅጣጫ ሂደት ላይ ማሳሰቢያ

CC

✓ Planning, monitoring and Evaluation Directorate
Civil Service Commission, Bahir Dar, Ethiopia

Amhara State Number of Employees at Regional Bureaus

Types of Sectors	S.No	Name of the Sector	Number of Employees		Total	Remark
			Male	Female		
Administrative Public Sectors	1	Administrative Security Affairs Bureau	43	29	72	
	2	Administrative Head Bureau	96	69	165	
	3	Regional Counsel Bureau	53	41	94	
	4	Police Commission Bureau	18	44	62	
	5	Supreme Court Bureau	153	183	336	
	6	Revenue Bureau	68	39	107	
	7	Milisha Secretariat	4	13	17	
	8	Justice Bureau	84	54	138	
	9	Communication Affairs Bureau	54	43	97	
	10	Prison Commission	12	23	35	
	11	Anti Corruption Bureau	57	34	91	
Economic Public Sectors	1	Agriculture Bureau	144	76	220	
	2	Water Irrigation and Energy Development Bureau	198	72	270	
	3	Trade Industry and Market development Bureau	111	64	175	
	4	Rural Land Administration and use Bureau	103	61	164	
	5	Culture and Tourism Bureau	59	27	86	
	6	Finance and Economic Development Bureau	80	71	151	
	7	Cities Plan Institute	50	22	72	
	8	Risk prevention and Food security Program Office	64	45	109	
	9	City Development and House Construction Bureau	103	80	183	



	10	Science, Technology and Information Communication Commission	33	15	48	
	11	Cooperatives Expansion Agency	38	17	55	
	12	Animal Resource Development Expansion Agency	37	17	54	
	13	Agricultural Research Institute	432	115	547	
	14	Amhara Patriots Memorial Building Bureau	30	37	67	
	15	Auditor General	153	57	210	
	16	Road and Transport Bureau	109	59	168	
	17	Mineral Resource Development Agency	27	8	35	
	18	Quarantine Authority	15	7	22	
	19	Muluaem Culture Centre	59	34	93	
	20	Plan Commission	28	10	38	
	21	Government Procurement and Property Removal Agency	52	31	83	
	22	Investment Commission	27	17	44	
	23	Rural Roads Construction Agency	483	148	631	
	24	Urban Land Ownership registration Agency	24	13	37	
	25	Environment, Forest, wild Animal Protection and development Authority	42	16	58	
Social Public Sectors	1	Youth Sport Affairs Bureau	71	33	104	
	2	Vocational Enterprises development Bureau	110	56	166	
	3	Education Bureau	135	83	218	
	4	Health Bureau	132	83	215	



APPENDIX D: QUESTIONNAIRE

University of South Africa

Graduate School of Business Leadership

Doctor of Business Leadership Program

1) Introduction

Dear Respondents!

This researcher is conducting a Doctor of Business Leadership program at the graduate school of business leadership, University of South Africa. The researcher is undertaking the "The Impact of Leadership Styles on Employees Job Performance" thesis in Amhara state Public Sector Bureaus at the Regional Level.

You are one of the respondents decided on through a stratified sampling approach among the **6,997** population. I politely request you give relevant and representative information relevant to the research. The goal of this study is to examine the impact of leadership styles on employees' job performance. It takes around half-hour to complete the response.

The researcher would like to confirm that he will use the data for academic purposes only. The identity and confidentiality of the respondents will not be posted and provided for a third party by any means. You are a proper solution to this questionnaire. The researcher is conducting this research at the University of South Africa (UNISA) and got organisational permission from the Amhara National Regional State. The researcher would be grateful if you could complete this questionnaire of your free will and with your precious time, energy, and patience.

Sincerely,

Name: Redie Bezabih Hailu

Cell Phone: +251912117048

Remark:

Dear respondents!

Kindly look at Likert scale statements in which you must indicate your answer using a tick mark (√), and there is no need to write your name to keep privacy.

2) General information about Public Sector Employees at the Regional level

The researcher collects data about government employees as study participants based on the information in the following table. Please indicate in which section you belong. After you read each of the given statements, evaluate them according to your status and circle your choices below.

A.	Gender	1. Male. 2. Female				
B.	Age	1. 18-25	2. 26-35	3. 36-45	4. 46-55	5. >55
C.	Salary (ETB)	600-1650	1651-3200	3201-7800	7801-10,900	>10,900
D.	Highest qualification	1. Matric	2. Certificate	3. Diploma	4. Degree	Master and above
E.	Field of study	1. Business and Economics fields	2. Law and related fields	3. Natural science and applied	4. Social Sciences and languages	5. Others
F.	Marital status	1. Married	2. Single	3. Divorced	4. Long-term relationship	5. other

3) Questionnaire Response Strategies: The major Leadership styles that impact employees' job performance are listed below. Read and evaluate the questions to indicate your agreement about the listed scale concerning your decision. Indicate with a tick mark (√) your choice below for general information represented as **5** = strongly agree, **4** = agree, **3** = undecided, **2** = disagree, and **1** = strongly disagree.

Section -I

No.	Questions	Degree Of Responses				
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	Before making decisions, your supervisor considers what the subordinates have to say.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	Your supervisor does not ask subordinates for their suggestions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	Your supervisor listens to the subordinate's advice on which assignments to do.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	Your supervisor does not help to make people working on their tasks more pleasant.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	Your supervisor looks out for the personal welfare of group members.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	Your supervisor does not treat all group members as equals.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section -II

No.	Questions	Degree Of Responses				
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	Your supervisor understands what you desire and helps you to obtain it.					
2.	Your superior does not encourage every person around him to undertake the duty given to them.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	Your supervisor can potentially increase employees' inspiration and devotion to the organisation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	Your supervisor does not give you the most relevant chance to state	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	your views on the advancement of the organisation.					
5.	Your supervisor gives orders that strengthen you to reorganize some of your work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section -III

No.	Questions	Degree Of Responses				
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	My supervisor rewards the employees depending on how well they perform their jobs.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	The reward system is not commensurate with the needs and wishes of the employees.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	My supervisor gives positive feedback when I perform well.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	My supervisor shows appreciation for employees who do their jobs better than expected.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	My supervisor makes clear expectations for the work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	My supervisor will act before problems are chronic.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

7.	My supervisor tells me the standards to carry out work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.	My supervisor does not inform me about the standards for carrying out work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9.	My supervisor works out agreements with me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10.	My supervisor monitors my performance and keeps track of mistakes.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section -IV

N o.	Questions	Degree Of Responses				
		Strongly disagre e	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagre e	Agree	Strongl y agree
1.	My supervisor does not allow me to work problems out my way in complex situations.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	My supervisor has very little guidance for the job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	As a rule, my supervisor does not allow me to appraise my work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	My supervisor gives me complete freedom to solve problems on my own.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	In most situations, I prefer little input from my supervisor.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	My supervisor provides me with the tools and resources needed for my work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section -V

No.	Questions	Degree of Responses				
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	My supervisor talks devotedly about what needs to be done with conviction.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	My supervisor is not an authoritarian; he is empathetic and helpful.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	My leader expresses confidence that goals will be achieved without influence.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	My supervisor does not retain the final decision of authority.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	My supervisor never takes the time to consider my suggestions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	My supervisor relies on threats and punishment to influence employees.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section -VI

No.	Questions	Degree Of Responses				
		Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1.	I have a sense of pride in being a public servant.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	I believe I am qualified for this job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	I am not fully confident in my ability to work well.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	I am satisfied with my working conditions.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	I feel that my job responsibilities are clearly defined.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	I am satisfied with the opportunity to utilize my ability in my work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.	I am not satisfied with the opportunities for professional development.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

8.	I believe work relationships with colleagues and work groups are very important.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9.	I am satisfied with the team spirit among my colleagues.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10.	A harmonious atmosphere among colleagues leads to efficiency at work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11.	I am satisfied with the pay relative to the amount of work I do.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12.	I am not satisfied with the pay relative to the post I hold	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13.	I am satisfied with the present promotion system in the public sector.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14.	The promotion system is fair for all.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15.	My work organisation gives me the tools and technologies to do my job well.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Section -VII

N o.	Questions	Degree Of Responses				
		Strongl y disagre e	Disagre e	Neither agree nor disagree	Agre e	Strong ly agree
a)						
1.	I maintain a high standard of work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	I can handle my assignments without much supervision.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	I am very passionate about my work.					
4.	I do not know whether I can handle multiple assignments to achieve organisational goals.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	I complete my assignments on time.					
6.	My colleagues believe I am a high performer in my organisation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.	I believe I have acquired the knowledge and skill to do my job.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
b)						

1.	I do not perform well in mobilizing collective intelligence for impactful teamwork.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	I cannot effectively handle my work team in the face of change.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	I always believe that mutual understanding can lead to a viable solution in an organisation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	I am not very comfortable with job flexibility.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	I cope well with organisational changes from time to time.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
c)						
1.	I extend help to my co-workers when asked or needed.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	I show my sympathy and empathy to my co-workers when they are in trouble.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	I do not praise my co-workers for their good work.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	I derive a lot of satisfaction from nurturing others in the organisation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	I share knowledge and ideas with my team members.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	I do not maintain good coordination among fellow workers.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.	I guide new colleagues beyond my job purview.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.	I communicate effectively with my colleagues for problem-solving and decision-making.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

APPENDIX E: AMHARIC TRANSLATION OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

አባራ- ሀ: መጠይቅ

ደቡብ አፍሪካ ዩኒቨርሲቲ

የንግድ ሥራ አመራር ምሩቅ ትምህርት ቤት

በንግድ ሥራ አመራር የዶክትሬት ዲግሪ መርሃ-ግብር

1) መግቢያ:

ውድ የመጠይቁ ተሳታፊዎች!

ይህ ተመራማሪ በደቡብ አፍሪካ ዩኒቨርሲቲ የንግድ ሥራ አመራር ምሩቅ ትምህርት ቤት አማኝነት በንግድ ሥራ አመራር መርሃ-ግብር የዶክትሬት ዲግሪ ምርምር እያካሄደ ይገኛል። በአሁኑ ጊዜ ተመራማሪው (በአማራ ክልል የመንግሥት ሲቪል ሰርቪስ ሴክተር ቢሮዎች ላይ የአመራር ዘይቤዎች በሠራተኞች የሥራ ውጤት ላይ ያለው ተጽዕኖ) በሚል ርዕስ ጥናቱን እያካሄደ ይገኛል። እርሶዎ በመንግስት ሲቪል ሰርቪስ ሴክተር ልዩ ልዩ ክልላዊ ቢሮዎች ውስጥ ከሚሰሩ **6,997** ሰራተኞች መካከል በናሙና አቀራረብ ዘዴ ከተመረጡ ምላሽ ሰጪዎች አንዱ ነዎት ። ለምርምሩ ጠቃሚ በሚሆንበት መንገድ ላይ ተገቢ እና ወካይ መረጃ እንዲሰጡ በትህትና እጠይቃለሁ ። የዚህ ምርምር ግብ የአመራር ዘይቤዎች በመንግስት ቢሮዎች ውስጥ በሰራተኞች የሥራ አፈፃፀም ላይ ያላቸውን ተፅዕኖ መመርመር ነው ። ለጥያቄዎቹ ምላሽ ሰጥቶ ለማጠናቀቅ ግማሽ ሰዓት ያህል ይወስዳል ። በመጨረሻም የሚሰጧቸው መረጃዎች ለትምህርታዊ ዓላማ ብቻ ጥቅም ላይ ሊውሉ እንደሚችሉ ተመራማሪው ያጋግጣል። የምላሽ ሰጪዎች ማንነት እና ሚስጥራዊነት ከአሁን በኋላ በማንኛውንም መንገድ ይጠበቃል፤ ለሶስተኛ ወገንም አይሰጥም ።

እርሶዎ ለዚህ መጠይቅ ትክክለኛ መፍትሔ ነዎት ። ተመራማሪው ይህንን ጥናት ለማከናወን በደቡብ አፍሪካ ዩኒቨርሲቲ (UNISA) እና በአማራ ብሔራዊ ክልላዊ መንግስት አስፈላጊው ፈቃድ ተሰጥቷቸዋል። ውድ ጊዜዎን እና ጉልበትዎን ሰውተው በትዕግሥት ጥያቄዎችን ስለሚያጠናቅቁ ተመራማሪው ልባዊ ምስጋናውን ያቀርባል።

“ከሰላምታ ጋር”

ስም: ረዴ በዛብህ ኃይሉ

የሞባይል ስልክ: +251912117048

ማስታወሻ:

ውድምላሽ ሰጪዎች!

ይህንን ምልክት (✓) በመጠቀም መልስዎን ይምረጡ፤ የሚጠየቁትን እና የሚሰጡትን መረጃ ግላዊነት ለመጠበቅ መደብረው ያስፈልገዎት መሆኑን ተመራማሪው በትህትና ይገልጻል።

2) በክልል ደረጃ ስለሚገኙ ፑብሊክ ሴክተር ሰራተኞች አጠቃላይ መረጃ

የመንግሥት ሠራተኞችን በተመለከተ አጠቃላይ መረጃ ከጥናቱ ተሳታፊዎች በሚከተለው ሰንጠረዥ መሠረት ይሰበሰባል። እባክዎን እርሰዎ

በየትኛው ስር እንደሚመደቡ ያመልክቱ። እያንዳንዱን የተሰጡትን መግለጫዎች ከገቡ በኋላ አሁን ካሉበት ሁኔታ አንጻር ይገምግሟቸው እና ምርጫዎን ያመለክቱ።

ሀ.	ጾታ	1. ወንድ, 2. ሴት				
ለ	ዕድሜ	1. 18-25	2. 26-35	3. 36-45	4. 46-55	5. >55
ሐ	ደመወዝ (ብር)	600-1650	1651-3200	3201-7800	7801-10,900	>10,900
መ	ከፍተኛ የትምህርት ደረጃ	1. Matric	2. ሰርቲፊኬት	3. ዲፕሎማ	4. ዲግሪ	ማስተር እና በላይ
ሠ	የሙያ (ጥናት መስክ)	1. ቢዝነስ እና ኢኮኖሚክስ ዘርፎች	2. ህግና ተዛማጅ መስኮች	3. ተፈጥሮ ሳይንስ እና አፕላይድ	4. ማህበራዊ ሳይንስ እና ቋንቋ	5. ሌሎች

ረ	የጋብቻ ሁኔታ	1.ያገባ	2.ያላገባ	3.የፈታ/ች	4. ሌሎች ምክንያቶች
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3) የመጠይቁ አሞላል ስልት: የሰራተኞችን የሥራ አፈፃፀም ላይ ተጽዕኖ የሚያሳድሩ ዋና ዋና የአመራር ዘዴዎች ከዚህ በታች ተዘርዝረዋል። እያንዳንዳቸውን ጥያቄዎች ካነበቡ በኋላ ከእርስዎ ውሳኔ ጋር በተያያዘ ከገመገሙ በኋላ በተዘረዘረው ውሳኔ ላይ ያለዎትን ስምምነት ማለትም፡ 5 = በጥብቅ እስማማለሁ፣ 4 = እስማማለሁ፣ 3 = አልወሰንኩም፣ 2 = አልስማማም እና 1 = በጥብቅ አልስማማም ተብሎ ለተወከለው አጠቃላይ መረጃ ከዚህ በታች ባለው ምልክት ማድረጊያ (√) ምርጫዎች ላይ ያመልክቱ።

ክፍል: 3.1

ተ/ቁ	ጥያቄዎች	የምላሾች ደረጃ				
		በጥብቅ አልስማማም	አልስማማም	አልወሰንኩም	እስማማለሁ	በጥብቅ እስማማለሁ
1.	የቅርብ የስራ ኃላፊዎ ውሳኔዎችን ከመወኑ በፊት የበታች ሰራተኞችን እንዳሉ ከግምት ያስገባል	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	የቅርብ የስራ ኃላፊዎ የበታች ሰራተኞችን ያላቸውን አስተያየት አይጠይቅም	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	የቅርብ የስራ ኃላፊዎ የትኞቹ ሥራዎች መሰጠት እንዳለባቸው የበታች ምክሮችን ያዳምጣል።	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	የቅርብ የስራ ኃላፊዎ በስራቸው ያሉ ሰራተኞች በስራቸው የበለጠ ደስተኛ ሆነው እንዲሰሩ አያግዛቸውም	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	የቅርብ የስራ ኃላፊዎ የቡድን አባላትን የግል ደህንነት ይጠብቃል	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	የቅርብ የስራ ኃላፊዎ ሁሉንም የቡድን አባላት በእኩል አያስተናግዳቸውም	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

ክፍል:3.2

ተ/ቁ	ጥያቄዎች	የምላሾች ደረጃ				
		በጥብቅ አልስማማም	አልስማማም	አልወሰንኩም	እስማማለሁ	በጥብቅ እስማማለሁ
1.	የቅርብ የስራ ኃላፊዎ የሚፈልጉትን ያውቃል፤ እናም እሱን ፍላጎተዎን እንዲያገኙ ያግዝዎታል	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	የቅርብ የስራ ኃላፊዎ በዙሪያው ያሉትን ሰዎች ሁሉን ተሰጣቸውን ግዴታ እንዲወጡ አያበረታታቸውም	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	የእርስዎ የስራ ኃላፊ ሰራተኞችን ለድርጅቱ መነሳሳት እና ታማኝነት ለማሳደግ ዋና ችሎታ አለው	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	የቅርብ የስራ ኃላፊዎ ለመስሪያ ቤቱ እድገት ያለዎትን አመለካከት እንዲገልጹ አስፈላጊውን ዕድል አይሰጡዎትም	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	የቅርብ የስራ ኃላፊዎ አንዳንድ ሥራዎን እንደገና ለማድረጃት የሚያስችል ጥንካሬ የሚሰጡት ዕዛዞችን ይሰጣል	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

ክፍል: 3.3

ተ/ቁ	ጥያቄዎች	የምላሾች ደረጃ				
		በጥብቅ አልስማማም	አልስማማም	አልወሰንኩም	እስማማለሁ	በጥብቅ እስማማለሁ
1.	ኃላፊ ሰራተኞችን ስራቸውን በአግባቡ መወጣታቸውን መሰረት በማድረግ ይሸልማል	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	የሽልማት ስርዓቱ ከሠራተኞች ፍላጎቶች እና ፍላጎቶች ጋር ተመጣጣኝ አይደለም	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	ጥሩ ስራ ስሰራ ኃላፊ አዎንታዊ አስተያየት ይሰጣል	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	ኃላፊ ከተጠበቀው በላይ ስራቸውን ለሚሰሩ ሰራተኞች አድናቆት ያሳያል	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	ኃላፊ ከምሰራው ስራ የሚጠበቁ ውጤቶችን ግልጽ ያደርግልኛል	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	ኃላፊ በስራ ላይ የሚያጋጥሙ ችግሮች ሥር የሰደዱ ከመሆናቸው በፊት እርምጃ አይወስድም	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.	ሥራ ለማከናወን ኃላፊ ደረጃዎችን ይነግረኛል	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.	ሥራውን ለማከናወን የሥራ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

	መመዘኛዎችን ኃላፊዬ ያሳውቀኛል					
9.	ኃላፊዬ ከእኔ ጋር የስራ ስምምነቶችን ያደርጋል፤	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10.	ኃላፊዬ ስራዬን ይከታተላል እንዲሁም ስህተቶችን ይለያል	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

ክፍል: 3.4

ተ/ቁ	ጥያቄዎች	የምላሾች ደረጃ				
		በጥብቅ አልስማማም	አልስማማም	አልወሰንኩም	እስማማለሁ	በጥብቅ እስማማለሁ
1.	ውስብስብ በሆኑ ሁኔታዎች ውስጥ ኃላፊዬ ችግሮቼን በራሴ መንገድ እንዲፈታ አያስችለኝም	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	ኃላፊዬ ለሥራ በጣም ትንሽ የመሪነት ሚና አለው	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	የቅርብ የስራ ኃላፊዬ በህጉ መሰረት የራሴን ሥራ እንድገመግም አይፈቅድልኝም	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	የቅርብ የስራ ኃላፊዬ በራሴ ችግሮችን ለመፍታት ሙሉ ነፃነት ይሰጠኛል	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	በአብዛኛዎቹ ሁኔታዎች ከቅርብ የስራ ኃላፊዬ ትንሽ የስራ ድጋፍ/ግብዓቶችን ነው ምፈልገው	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	ተቆጣጣሪዬ ለስራዬ የሚያስፈልጉትን መሳሪያዎች እና ግብዓቶች ይሰጠኛል	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

ክፍል: 3.5

ተ/ቁ	ጥያቄዎች	የምላሾች ደረጃ				
		በጥብቅ አልስማማም	አልስማማም	አልወሰንኩም	እስማማለሁ	በጥብቅ እስማማለሁ

1.	ኃላፊዬ በፅናት መደረግ ስለሚገባቸው ነገሮች በጥልቀት ይናገራል	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	ኃላፊዬ ርሀራሄ ያለው፣ ችግሮችን የሚረዳ እና ተባባሪ ነው	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	ኃላፊዬ ግቦች ያለ ተጽዕኖ እንደሚሰኩ እምነት እንዳለው ይገልጻል	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	ኃላፊዬ የመጨረሻ ውሳኔ ሰጪነትን ይይዛል	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	ኃላፊዬ የምሰጠውን አስተያየት ለመቀበል ምንም ጊዜ አይሰጠኝም	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	ኃላፊዬ በሰራተኞች ላይ ተጽእኖ ለማሳደር በዛቻ እና ቅጣት ላይ ይተማመናል	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

ክፍል: 3.6

ተ/ቁ	ጥያቄዎች	የምላሾች ደረጃ				
		በጥብቅ አልስማማም	አልስማማም	አልወሰንኩም	እስማማለሁ	በጥብቅ እስማማለሁ
1.	የህዝብ አገልጋይ በመሆኔ ኩራ ይሰማኛል	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	ለዚህ ሥራ ብቁ ነኝ ብዬ አምናለሁ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	ስራ ለመስራት ባለኝ ችሎታ ሙሉ በሙሉ አልተማመንም	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	በስራ ሁኔታዬ እረካለሁ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	የሥራ ኃላፊነቶቼ በግልጽ እንደተገለጹ ይሰማኛል	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	ችሎታዬን ስራዬ ላይ ለመጠቀም ባገኘሁት እድል ረክቻለሁ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

7.	ለሙያዊ እድገት ባሉኝ ዕድሎች አልረካሁም	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.	ከስራ ባልደረቦች የስራ ቡድን ጋር ያለው የስራ ግንኙነት በጣም አስፈላጊ ነው ብዬ አምናለሁ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9.	በባልደረባዎቼ መካከል ባለው የቡድን መንፈስ ረክቻለሁ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10.	በባልደረባዎች መካከል ያለው ተስማምቶ የመስራት ሁኔታ የስራ ቅልጥፍና ያመጣል	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11.	ከምሰራው ስራ መጠን አንጻር በሚከፈለኝ ክፍያ ክፍያ ረክቻለሁ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12.	ከያዝኩት የስራ መደብ አንጻር በሚከፈለኝ ክፍያ አልረካም	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13.	አሁን ባለው የፕብሊክ ሴክተር የደረጃ ዕድገት ስርዓት ረክቻለሁ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14.	የደረጃ ዕድገት ስርዓቱ ለሁሉም ሰራተኞች ፍትህዊ ፍትሃዊ ነው	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15.	የምሰራበት መስሪያ ቤት ስራዬን በደንብ ለመስራት የሚያስፈልጉኝን መሳሪያዎች እና ቴክኖሎጂዎች ይሰጠኛል	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

ክፍል: 3.7

ተ/ቁ	ጥያቄዎች	የምላሾች ደረጃ				
		በጥብቅ አልስማማም	አልስማማም	አልወሰንኩም	እስማማለሁ	በጥብቅ እስማማለሁ
3.7.1						
1.	ከፍተኛ የሥራ ጥራት ደረጃን በማስጠበቅ እሰራለሁ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	ያለ ከፍተኛ ቁጥጥር የተሰጠኝን ሥራዎች የመወጣት ችሎታ አለኝ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	ለሥራዬ በጣም እጓጓለሁ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	በምሰራበት መስሪያቤት ግቦችን ለማሳካት በርካታ ሥራዎችን መወጣት እንደምችል አላውቅም	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



5.	ሥራዬን በሰዓቱ አጠናቅቃለሁ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	ባልደረቦቼ በምሰራበት መስሪያ ቤት ውስጥ ከፍተኛ አፈፃፀም እንዳለኝ ያምናሉ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.	ለስራዬ የሚፈለገው እውቀት እና ክህሎት እንዳለኝ አምናለሁ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3.7.2

1.	ውጤታማ የቡድን ሥራ ለመሥራትና ለማንቀሳቀስ የጋራ ብልህነትንና መልካም የስራ አፈፃፀምን አልጠቀምም	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	በለውጥ ጊዜ የሥራ ቡድኑን በብቃት መያዝ አልችልም	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	በምሰራበት መስሪያ ቤት ውስጥ የጋራ መግባባት ሁል ጊዜ ወደ ተጨባጭ መፍትሄ ሊያመራ ይችላል ብዬ አምናለሁ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	የሥራ ተለዋዋጭነት በጣም አይመቻኝም	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	ከጊዜ ወደ ጊዜ የሚደረጉ ተቋማዊ ለውጦችን በደንብ እቋቋማለሁ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

3.7.3

1.	የሥራ ባልደረቦቼ ስራ እንዳግዛቸው ሲጠይቁኝ ወይም ሲፈልጉኝ አግዛለሁ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2.	የሥራ ባልደረቦቼ ችግር ውስጥ ሲሆኑ ችግራቸውን እንደራሴ ችግር እረዳለሁ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3.	የስራ ባልደረቦቼን ለመልካም ስራቸው አላመሰግናቸውም/ዕውቅና አልሰጣቸውም	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4.	በምሰራበት መስሪያቤት ውስጥ ሌሎችን በመንከባከብ ብዙ እርካታ አግኝቻለሁ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5.	ለስራ በቡድን አባላት እውቀትን እና ሀሳቦችን አካፍላለሁ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6.	በስራ ባልደረቦች መካከል ጥሩ የስራ ቅንጅት እንዲኖር አላደርግም	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7.	ከስራዬ ባሻገር አዳዲስ ባልደረቦችን የስራ ሁኔታውን አሳያለሁ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8.	ስለችግሮች አፈታት እና ውሳኔ አሰጣጥ ከስራ ባልደረቦቼ ጋር በበቂ ሁኔታ እገናኛለሁ	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

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APPENDIX F: CALCULATIONS

Table I): Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default Model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
JS	<---	TRNZLS	.017	.032	.544	.587	par_16
JS	<---	TRNSLS	.478	.056	8.569	***	par_25
JS	<---	DLS	.140	.034	4.078	***	par_26
JS	<---	LLS	.341	.043	7.907	***	par_28
JS	<---	ALS	.054	.026	2.096	.036	par_29
JP	<---	DLS	-.303	.071	-4.299	***	par_31
JP	<---	ALS	-.102	.054	-1.882	.060	par_32
JP	<---	LLS	-.807	.084	-9.551	***	par_33
JP	<---	JS	1.000				
JP	<---	TRNSLS	-.797	.115	-6.942	***	par_34
JP	<---	TRNZLS	1.000				
TaskP	<---	JP	-.121	.025	-4.846	***	par_14
ConP	<---	JP	-.135	.025	-5.350	***	par_15
AdaP	<---	JP	1.000				
TaskPQ1	<---	TaskP	1.000				
TaskPQ2	<---	TaskP	.966	.106	9.077	***	par_2
TaskPQ3	<---	TaskP	1.068	.129	8.306	***	par_3
TaskPQ5	<---	TaskP	1.078	.127	8.517	***	par_4
TaskPQ6	<---	TaskP	1.233	.148	8.319	***	par_5
TaskPQ7	<---	TaskP	1.065	.122	8.696	***	par_6
AdaPQ1	<---	adapPer	1.000				
AdaPQ2	<---	adapPer	.784	.032	24.331	***	par_7
AdaPQ4	<---	adapPer	.454	.046	9.893	***	par_8
ConPQ1	<---	ConP	1.000				
ConPQ2	<---	ConP	1.073	.071	15.049	***	par_9
ConPQ4	<---	ConP	1.063	.108	9.886	***	par_10
ConPQ5	<---	ConP	.936	.082	11.381	***	par_11
ConPQ7	<---	ConP	1.045	.094	11.168	***	par_12

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
ConPQ8	<---	ConP	1.061	.104	10.221	***	par_13

Note: TRNSLS=Transformational Leadership Style; DLS=Democratic Leadership Style; TRNZLS=Transactional Leadership Style; ALS= Autocratic Leadership Style; LLS=Laissez-faire Leadership Style; CP=Contextual Performance; AP=Adaptive performance; TP=Task Performance

Table II): Standardized Regression Weights: (Group number 1 - Default Model)

			Estimate
JS	<---	TRNZLS	.020
JS	<---	TRNSLS	.392
JS	<---	DLS	.186
JS	<---	LLS	.361
JS	<---	ALS	.047
JP	<---	DLS	-.342
JP	<---	ALS	-.075
JP	<---	LLS	-.724
JP	<---	JS	.847
JP	<---	TRNSLS	-.553
JP	<---	TRNZLS	.970
TaskP	<---	JP	-.850
ConP	<---	JP	-.857
AdaP	<---	JP	.960
TaskPQ1	<---	TaskP	.751
TaskPQ2	<---	TaskP	.856
TaskPQ3	<---	TaskP	.775
TaskPQ5	<---	TaskP	.793
TaskPQ6	<---	TaskP	.762
TaskPQ7	<---	TaskP	.828
AdaPQ1	<---	AdaP	.999
AdaPQ2	<---	AdaP	.988
AdaPQ4	<---	AdaP	.923
ConPQ1	<---	ConP	.882
ConPQ2	<---	ConP	.917
ConPQ4	<---	ConP	.761
ConPQ5	<---	ConP	.840
ConPQ7	<---	ConP	.834
ConPQ8	<---	ConP	.786

Note: TRNSLS=Transformational Leadership Style; DLS=Democratic Leadership Style; TRNZLS=Transactional Leadership Style; ALS= Autocratic Leadership Style; LLS=Laissez-faire Leadership Style; CP=Contextual Performance; AP=Adaptive performance; TP=Task Performance.

Table III): Covariance: (Group number 1 - Default Model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
LLS	<-->	ALS	.771	1.000	.771	.441	par_1
ALS	<-->	TNZLS	.937	1.081	.867	.386	par_17
ALS	<-->	DLS	1.511	1.258	1.201	.230	par_18
LLS	<-->	TNZLS	19.349	1.654	11.701	***	par_19
LLS	<-->	TRNSLS	14.753	1.213	12.166	***	par_20
LLS	<-->	DLS	23.949	1.970	12.159	***	par_21
TRNZLS	<-->	TRNSLS	14.243	1.256	11.338	***	par_22
TRNZLS	<-->	DLS	23.104	2.040	11.326	***	par_23
DLS	<-->	TRNSLS	18.941	1.537	12.323	***	par_24
ALS	<-->	TRNSLS	.251	.773	.324	.746	par_27
e12	<-->	e13	.138	.061	2.268	.023	par_30

Note: TRNSLS=Transformational Leadership Style; DLS=Democratic Leadership Style; TRNZLS=Transactional Leadership Style; ALS= Autocratic Leadership Style; LLS=Laissez-faire Leadership Style

Table IV): Correlations: (Group number 1 - Default Model)

			Estimate
LLS	<-->	ALS	.040
ALS	<-->	TNZLS	.045
ALS	<-->	DLS	.063
LLS	<-->	TNZLS	.768
LLS	<-->	TRNSLS	.818
LLS	<-->	DLS	.818
TRNZLS	<-->	TRNSLS	.731
TRNZLS	<-->	DLS	.730
DLS	<-->	TRNSLS	.836
ALS	<-->	TRNSLS	.017
e12	<-->	e13	.188

Note: TRNSLS=Transformational Leadership Style; DLS=Democratic Leadership Style; TRNZLS=Transactional Leadership Style; ALS= Autocratic Leadership Style; LLS=Laissez-faire Leadership Style

Table V): Variances: (Group number 1 - Default Model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
LLS			23.312	1.716	13.583	***	par_35
ALS			15.815	1.164	13.583	***	par_36
TRNZLS			27.224	2.004	13.583	***	par_37
DLS			36.799	2.709	13.583	***	par_38
TRNSLS			13.938	1.026	13.583	***	par_39
e24			3.815	.281	13.583	***	par_40
e28			14.733	1.238	11.896	***	par_41
e25			.161	.035	4.637	***	par_42
e26			2.448	.626	3.913	***	par_43
e27			.192	.032	6.005	***	par_44
e5			.451	.038	11.926	***	par_45
e6			.197	.020	9.937	***	par_46
e7			.440	.038	11.627	***	par_47
e8			.401	.035	11.337	***	par_48
e9			.640	.055	11.669	***	par_49
e10			.303	.028	10.830	***	par_50
e14			.206	.020	10.210	***	par_51
e15			.157	.018	8.526	***	par_52
e16			.593	.048	12.400	***	par_53
e17			.264	.024	11.196	***	par_54
e18			.346	.031	11.291	***	par_55
e19			.501	.042	11.976	***	par_56
e11			.076	.133	.572	.567	par_57
e12			.476	.090	5.281	***	par_58
e13			1.126	.088	12.864	***	par_59

Table VI): Squared Multiple Correlations: (Group number 1 - Default Model)

	Estimate
JS	.816
JP	.491
ConP	.734
AdaP	.922
TaskP	.723
ConPQ8	.618
ConPQ7	.695
ConPQ5	.705
ConPQ4	.579
ConPQ2	.841
ConPQ1	.778
AdaPQ4	.852
AdaPQ2	.976
AdaPQ1	.998
TaskPQ7	.685
TaskPQ6	.581
TaskPQ5	.628
TaskPQ3	.601
TaskPQ2	.733
TaskPQ1	.564

Note: JS=Job Satisfaction; JP=Job Performance; ConP=Contextual performance; AdaP=Adaptive performance

Table VII): Implied Matrices (for all variables) Covariance (Group number 1 - Default Model)

JS	LLS	ALS	TRNZLS	DLS	TRNSLS	
14.609	14.753	.251	14.243	18.941	13.938	TRNSLS
22.858	23.949	1.511	23.104	36.799		DLS
17.169	19.349	.937	27.224			TRNZLS
1.462	.771	15.815				ALS
18.736	23.312					LLS
20.768						JS
						JP
						ConP
						AdaP
						TaskP
						ConPQ8
						ConPQ7
						ConPQ5
						ConPQ4
						ConPQ2
						ConPQ1
						AdaPQ4
						AdaPQ2
						AdaPQ1
						TaskPQ7
						TaskPQ6
						TaskPQ5
						TaskPQ3
						TaskPQ2
						TaskPQ1

ConPQ7	ConPQ8	TaskP	AdaP	ConP	JP	
						TRNSLS
						DLS
						TRNZLS
						ALS
						LLS
						JS
						JP
						ConP
						AdaP
						TaskP
						ConPQ8
						ConPQ7
						ConPQ5
						ConPQ4
						ConPQ2
						ConPQ1
						AdaPQ4
						AdaPQ2
						AdaPQ1
						TaskPQ7
						TaskPQ6
						TaskPQ5
						TaskPQ3
						TaskPQ2
						TaskPQ1

AdaPQ2	AdaPQ4	ConPQ1	ConPQ2	ConPQ4	ConPQ5	
.052	.030	-.009	-.010	-.010	-.008	TRNSLS
.176	.102	-.030	-.033	-.032	-.028	DLS
8.095	4.689	-1.396	-1.498	-1.484	-1.307	TRNZLS
-.382	-.221	.066	.071	.070	.062	ALS
.134	.077	-.023	-.025	-.025	-.022	LLS
3.208	1.858	-.553	-.594	-.588	-.518	JS
22.690	13.143	-3.914	-4.200	-4.161	-3.664	JP
-3.069	-1.778	.721	.774	.766	.675	ConP
24.610	14.255	-3.914	-4.200	-4.161	-3.664	AdaP
-2.737	-1.585	.472	.507	.502	.442	TaskP
-3.255	-1.885	.765	.821	.813	.716	ConPQ8
-3.209	-1.858	.754	.809	.801	.706	ConPQ7
-2.873	-1.664	.675	.724	.718	.896	ConPQ5
-3.263	-1.890	.766	.822	1.408		ConPQ4
-3.293	-1.907	.774	.988			ConPQ2
-3.069	-1.778	.927				ConPQ1
11.316	7.600					AdaPQ4
19.774						AdaPQ2
						AdaPQ1
						TaskPQ7
						TaskPQ6
						TaskPQ5
						TaskPQ3
						TaskPQ2
						TaskPQ1

TaskPQ3	TaskPQ5	TaskPQ6	TaskPQ7	AdaPQ1		
-0.009	-0.009	-0.010	-0.009	.067		TRNSLS
-0.029	-0.029	-0.033	-0.029	.224		DLS
-1.329	-1.342	-1.535	-1.326	10.323		TRNZLS
.063	.063	.072	.063	-.487		ALS
-0.022	-0.022	-0.025	-0.022	.171		LLS
-0.527	-0.532	-0.608	-0.525	4.090		JS
-3.726	-3.763	-4.304	-3.716	28.936		JP
.504	.509	.582	.503	-3.914		ConIP
-3.726	-3.763	-4.304	-3.716	31.385		AdaP
.622	.628	.718	.620	-3.490		TaskP
.535	.540	.617	.533	-4.151		ConPQ8
.527	.532	.609	.525	-4.092		ConPQ7
.472	.476	.545	.470	-3.664		ConPQ5
.536	.541	.619	.534	-4.161		ConPQ4
.541	.546	.625	.539	-4.200		ConPQ2
.504	.509	.582	.503	-3.914		ConPQ1
-1.692	-1.709	-1.955	-1.688	14.255		AdaPQ4
-2.922	-2.951	-3.375	-2.914	24.610		AdaPQ2
-3.726	-3.763	-4.304	-3.716	31.460		AdaPQ1
.662	.669	.765	.964			TaskPQ7
.767	.774	1.525				TaskPQ6
.670	1.078					TaskPQ5
1.104						TaskPQ3
						TaskPQ2
						TaskPQ1

TaskPQ1	TaskPQ2	
-.008	-.008	TRNSLS
-.027	-.026	DLS
-1.245	-1.202	TRNZLS
.059	.057	ALS
-.021	-.020	LLS
-.493	-.476	JS
-3.490	-3.370	JP
.472	.456	ConP
-3.490	-3.370	AdaP
.582	.562	TaskP
.501	.483	ConPQ8
.493	.477	ConPQ7
.442	.427	ConPQ5
.502	.485	ConPQ4
.507	.489	ConPQ2
.472	.456	ConPQ1
-1.585	-1.531	AdaPQ4
-2.737	-2.643	AdaPQ2
-3.490	-3.370	AdaPQ1
.620	.599	TaskPQ7
.718	.694	TaskPQ6
.628	.606	TaskPQ5
.622	.600	TaskPQ3
.562	.740	TaskPQ2
1.033		TaskPQ1

Note: TRNSLS=Transformational Leadership Style; DLS=Democratic Leadership Style; TRNZLS=Transactional Leadership Style; ALS= Autocratic Leadership Style; LLS=Laissez-faire Leadership Style; JS=Job Satisfaction; JP=Job Performance; ConP=Contextual Performance; AdaP=Adaptive Performance; TaskP=Task Performance

Table VIII): Implied (for all Variables) Correlations (Group number 1 - Default Model)

JS	LLS	ALS	TRNZLS	DLS	TRNSLS	
.859	.818	.017	.731	.836	1.000	TRNSLS
.827	.818	.063	.730	1.000		DLS
.722	.768	.045	1.000			TRNZLS
.081	.040	1.000				ALS
.851	1.000					LLS
1.000						JS
						JP
						ConP
						AdaP
						TaskP
						ConPQ8
						ConPQ7
						ConPQ5
						ConPQ4
						ConPQ2
						ConPQ1
						AdaPQ4
						AdaPQ2
						AdaPQ1
						TaskPQ7
						TaskPQ6
						TaskPQ5
						TaskPQ3
						TaskPQ2
						TaskPQ1

ConPQ7	ConPQ8	TaskP	AdaP	ConP	JP	
-0.002	-0.002	-0.003	.003	-0.003	.003	TRNSLS
-0.005	-0.005	-0.006	.007	-0.006	.007	DLS
-0.263	-0.248	-0.313	.353	-0.315	.368	TRNZLS
.016	.015	.019	-0.022	.020	-0.023	ALS
-0.005	-0.004	-0.006	.006	-0.006	.007	LLS
-0.119	-0.112	-0.142	.160	-0.143	.167	JS
-0.714	-0.674	-0.850	.960	-0.857	1.000	JP
.834	.786	.728	-0.823	1.000		ConP
-0.686	-0.647	-0.816	1.000			AdaP
.607	.573	1.000				TaskP
.655	1.000					ConPQ8
1.000						ConPQ7
						ConPQ5
						ConPQ4
						ConPQ2
						ConPQ1
						AdaPQ4
						AdaPQ2
						AdaPQ1
						TaskPQ7
						TaskPQ6
						TaskPQ5
						TaskPQ3
						TaskPQ2
						TaskPQ1

AdaPQ2	AdaPQ4	ConPQ1	ConPQ2	ConPQ4	ConPQ5	
.003	.003	-.003	-.003	-.002	-.002	TRNSLS
.007	.006	-.005	-.005	-.004	-.005	DLS
.349	.326	-.278	-.289	-.240	-.265	TRNZLS
-.022	-.020	.017	.018	.015	.016	ALS
.006	.006	-.005	-.005	-.004	-.005	LLS
.158	.148	-.126	-.131	-.109	-.120	JS
.949	.886	-.756	-.786	-.652	-.720	JP
-.813	-.759	.882	.917	.761	.840	ConP
.988	.923	-.726	-.754	-.626	-.691	AdaP
-.806	-.753	.642	.668	.554	.612	TaskP
-.639	-.597	.693	.721	.598	.660	ConPQ8
-.677	-.633	.735	.764	.634	.700	ConPQ7
-.683	-.638	.741	.770	.639	1.000	ConPQ5
-.618	-.578	.671	.697	1.000		ConPQ4
-.745	-.696	.808	1.000			ConPQ2
-.717	-.670	1.000				ConPQ1
.923	1.000					AdaPQ4
1.000						AdaPQ2
						AdaPQ1
						TaskPQ7
						TaskPQ6
						TaskPQ5
						TaskPQ3
						TaskPQ2
						TaskPQ1

TaskPQ2	TaskPQ3	TaskPQ5	TaskPQ6	TaskPQ7	AdaPQ1	
-.002	-.002	-.002	-.002	-.002	.003	TRNSLS
-.005	-.005	-.005	-.004	-.005	.007	DLS
-.268	-.242	-.248	-.238	-.259	.353	TRNZLS
.017	.015	.015	.015	.016	-.022	ALS
-.005	-.004	-.004	-.004	-.005	.006	LLS
-.121	-.110	-.112	-.108	-.117	.160	JS
-.728	-.659	-.674	-.648	-.704	.959	JP
.624	.565	.577	.555	.603	-.822	ConP
-.699	-.633	-.647	-.622	-.676	.999	AdaP
.856	.775	.793	.762	.828	-.815	TaskP
.490	.444	.454	.436	.474	-.646	ConPQ8
.520	.471	.481	.463	.503	-.685	ConPQ7
.524	.474	.485	.466	.506	-.690	ConPQ5
.475	.430	.439	.422	.459	-.625	ConPQ4
.572	.518	.529	.509	.553	-.753	ConPQ2
.550	.498	.509	.489	.532	-.725	ConPQ1
-.645	-.584	-.597	-.574	-.624	.922	AdaPQ4
-.691	-.625	-.639	-.614	-.668	.987	AdaPQ2
-.698	-.632	-.646	-.621	-.675	1.000	AdaPQ1
.709	.642	.656	.631	1.000		TaskPQ7
.653	.591	.604	1.000			TaskPQ6
.679	.615	1.000				TaskPQ5
.664	1.000					TaskPQ3
1.000						TaskPQ2
						TaskPQ1

TaskPQ1	
	TRNSLS
	DLS
	TRNZLS
	ALS
	LLS
	JS
	JP
	ConP
	AdaP
	TaskP
	ConPQ8
	ConPQ7
	ConPQ5
	ConPQ4
	ConPQ2
	ConPQ1
	AdaPQ4
	AdaPQ2
	AdaPQ1
	TaskPQ7
	TaskPQ6
	TaskPQ5
	TaskPQ3
	TaskPQ2
	TaskPQ1

Note: TRNSLS=Transformational Leadership Style; DLS=Democratic Leadership Style; TRNZLS=Transactional Leadership Style; ALS= Autocratic Leadership Style; LLS=Laissez-faire Leadership Style; JS=Job Satisfaction; JP=Job Performance; ConP=Contextual Performance; AdaP=Adaptive Performance; TaskP=Task Performance.

Table IX): Implied Covariance (Group number 1 - Default Model)

	TRNSLS	DLS	TRNZLS	ALS	LLS	JS	ConPQ8	ConPQ7	ConPQ5	ConPQ4	ConPQ2	ConPQ1	AdaPQ4	AdaPQ2	AdaPQ1	TaskPQ7	TaskPQ6	TaskPQ5	TaskPQ3	TaskPQ2	TaskPQ1
TRNSLS	13.938																				
DLS	18.941	36.799																			
TRNZLS	14.243	23.104	27.224																		
ALS	.251	1.511	.937	15.815																	
LLS	14.753	23.949	19.349	.771	23.312																
JS	14.609	22.858	17.169	1.462	18.736	20.768															

TaskPQ1	-0.008	-0.027	-1.245	.059	-0.021	-.493	.501	.493	.442	.502	.507	.472	-1.585	-2.737	-3.490	.620	.718	.628	.622	.562	1.033
TaskPQ2	-0.008	-0.026	-1.202	.057	-0.020	-.476	.483	.477	.427	.485	.489	.456	-1.531	-2.643	-3.370	.599	.694	.606	.600	.740	
TaskPQ3	-0.009	-0.029	-1.329	.063	-0.022	-.527	.535	.527	.472	.536	.541	.504	-1.692	-2.922	-3.726	.662	.767	.670	1.104		
TaskPQ5	-0.009	-0.029	-1.342	.063	-0.022	-.532	.540	.532	.476	.541	.546	.509	-1.709	-2.951	-3.763	.669	.774	1.078			
TaskPQ6	-0.010	-0.033	-1.535	.072	-0.025	-.608	.617	.609	.545	.619	.625	.582	-1.955	-3.375	-4.304	.765	1.525				
TaskPQ7	-0.009	-0.029	-1.326	.063	-0.022	-.525	.533	.525	.470	.534	.539	.503	-1.688	-2.914	-3.716	.964					
AdaPQ1	.067	.224	10.323	-.487	.171	4.090	-4.151	-4.092	-3.664	-4.161	-4.200	-3.914	14.255	24.610	31.460						

Note: TRNSLS=Transformational Leadership Style; DLS=Democratic Leadership Style; TRNZLS=Transactional Leadership Style; ALS= Autocratic Leadership Style; LLS=Laissez-faire Leadership Style; JS=Job Satisfaction; JP=Job Performance; ConP=Contextual Performance; AdaP=Adaptive Performance; TaskP=Task Performance

Table X): Implied Correlations (Group number 1 - Default Model)

JS	LLS	ALS	TRNZLS	DLS	TRNSLS	
.859	.818	.017	.731	.836	1.000	TRNSLS
.827	.818	.063	.730	1.000		DLS
.722	.768	.045	1.000			TRNZLS
.081	.040	1.000				ALS
.851	1.000					LLS
1.000						JS
						ConPQ8
						ConPQ7
						ConPQ5
						ConPQ4
						ConPQ2
						ConPQ1
						AdaPQ4
						AdaPQ2
						AdaPQ1
						TaskPQ7
						TaskPQ6
						TaskPQ5
						TaskPQ3
						TaskPQ2
						TaskPQ1

ConPQ1	ConPQ2	ConPQ4	ConPQ5	ConPQ7	ConPQ8	
-0.003	-0.003	-0.002	-0.002	-0.002	-0.002	TRNSLS
-0.005	-0.005	-0.004	-0.005	-0.005	-0.005	DLS
-0.278	-0.289	-0.240	-0.265	-0.263	-0.248	TRNZLS
.017	.018	.015	.016	.016	.015	ALS
-0.005	-0.005	-0.004	-0.005	-0.005	-0.004	LLS
-0.126	-0.131	-0.109	-0.120	-0.119	-0.112	JS
.693	.721	.598	.660	.655	1.000	ConPQ8
.735	.764	.634	.700	1.000		ConPQ7
.741	.770	.639	1.000			ConPQ5
.671	.697	1.000				ConPQ4
.808	1.000					ConPQ2
1.000						ConPQ1
						AdaPQ4
						AdaPQ2
						AdaPQ1
						TaskPQ7
						TaskPQ6
						TaskPQ5
						TaskPQ3
						TaskPQ2
						TaskPQ1

TaskPQ5	TaskPQ6	TaskPQ7	AdaPQ1	AdaPQ2	AdaPQ4	
-0.002	-0.002	-0.002	.003	.003	.003	TRNSLS
-0.005	-0.004	-0.005	.007	.007	.006	DLS
-0.248	-0.238	-0.259	.353	.349	.326	TRNZLS
.015	.015	.016	-.022	-.022	-.020	ALS
-0.004	-0.004	-0.005	.006	.006	.006	LLS
-.112	-.108	-.117	.160	.158	.148	JS
.454	.436	.474	-.646	-.639	-.597	ConPQ8
.481	.463	.503	-.685	-.677	-.633	ConPQ7
.485	.466	.506	-.690	-.683	-.638	ConPQ5
.439	.422	.459	-.625	-.618	-.578	ConPQ4
.529	.509	.553	-.753	-.745	-.696	ConPQ2
.509	.489	.532	-.725	-.717	-.670	ConPQ1
-.597	-.574	-.624	.922	.923	1.000	AdaPQ4
-.639	-.614	-.668	.987	1.000		AdaPQ2
-.646	-.621	-.675	1.000			AdaPQ1
.656	.631	1.000				TaskPQ7
.604	1.000					TaskPQ6
1.000						TaskPQ5
						TaskPQ3
						TaskPQ2
						TaskPQ1

TaskPQ1	TaskPQ2	TaskPQ3	
-.002	-.002	-.002	TRNSLS
-.004	-.005	-.005	DLS
-.235	-.268	-.242	TRNZLS
.015	.017	.015	ALS
-.004	-.005	-.004	LLS
-.107	-.121	-.110	JS
.430	.490	.444	ConPQ8
.456	.520	.471	ConPQ7
.459	.524	.474	ConPQ5
.416	.475	.430	ConPQ4
.501	.572	.518	ConPQ2
.482	.550	.498	ConPQ1
-.566	-.645	-.584	AdaPQ4
-.605	-.691	-.625	AdaPQ2
-.612	-.698	-.632	AdaPQ1
.621	.709	.642	TaskPQ7
.572	.653	.591	TaskPQ6
.595	.679	.615	TaskPQ5
.582	.664	1.000	TaskPQ3
.643	1.000		TaskPQ2
1.000			TaskPQ1

Note: TRNSLS=Transformational Leadership Style; DLS=Democratic Leadership Style; TRNZLS=Transactional Leadership Style; ALS= Autocratic Leadership Style; LLS=Laissez-faire Leadership Style; JS=Job Satisfaction; JP=Job Performance; ConP=Contextual Performance; AdaP=Adaptive Performance; TaskP=Task Performance

Table XI): Residual Covariance (Group number 1 - Default Model)

	TRNSLS	DLS	TRZLS	ALS	LLS	JS	ConPQ8	ConPQ7	ConPQ5	ConPQ4	ConPQ2	ConPQ1	AdaPQ4	AdaPQ2	AdaPQ1	TaskPQ7	TaskPQ6	TaskPQ5	TaskPQ3	TaskPQ2	TaskPQ1
TRNSLS	.000																				
DLS	.000	.000																			
TRZLS	.000	.000	.000																		
ALS	.000	.000	.000	.000																	
LLS	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000																
JS	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000															
ConPQ8	.086	.162	1.765	.423	.046	.804	-.527														

Table XII): Standardized Residual Covariance (Group number 1 - Default Model)

	JS	LLS	ALS	TRZLS	DLS	TRZLS	TRZLS
JS	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
LLS	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
ALS	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
TRZLS	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
DLS	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
TRZLS	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
ALS	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
LLS	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
JS	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
ConPQ8							
ConPQ7							
ConPQ5							
ConPQ4							
ConPQ2							
ConPQ1							
AdaPQ4							
AdaPQ2							
AdaPQ1							
TaskPQ7							
TaskPQ6							
TaskPQ5							
TaskPQ3							
TaskPQ2							
TaskPQ1							

ConPQ1	ConPQ2	ConPQ4	ConPQ5	ConPQ7	ConPQ8	
-1.157	.078	-.566	.393	.678	.385	TRNSLS
-.005	-.100	-.747	.241	.825	.449	DLS
4.980	4.852	3.403	4.970	5.728	5.508	TRZLS
1.102	.950	1.046	.175	-.643	1.783	ALS
.019	-.395	-1.105	.234	.559	.160	LLS
2.453	2.112	1.282	2.327	2.837	2.941	JS
-7.461	-7.818	-6.150	-6.493	-5.728	-5.450	ConPQ8
-7.915	-7.880	-6.911	-6.401	-6.126		ConPQ7
-7.771	-7.992	-5.949	-6.219			ConPQ5
-7.444	-7.098	-5.103				ConPQ4
-7.176	-7.412					ConPQ2
-6.857						ConPQ1
						AdaPQ4
						AdaPQ2
						AdaPQ1
						TaskPQ7
						TaskPQ6
						TaskPQ5
						TaskPQ3
						TaskPQ2
						TaskPQ1

TaskPQ5	TaskPQ6	TaskPQ7	AdaPQ1	AdaPQ2	AdaPQ4	
.273	.452	-.701	.051	-.083	-.251	TRNSLS
.673	.430	-.168	.052	-.035	-.121	DLS
5.092	5.189	4.712	-6.425	-6.424	-5.827	TRZLS
1.738	.787	.430	.371	.465	-.019	ALS
-.098	.497	-.001	-.032	.017	-.141	LLS
2.005	2.391	1.810	-2.926	-2.962	-2.593	JS
-5.741	-5.493	-5.499	10.067	10.047	10.464	ConPQ8
-6.887	-6.453	-6.362	10.487	10.268	10.555	ConPQ7
-7.163	-6.864	-6.315	10.743	10.568	10.595	ConPQ5
-5.648	-5.241	-6.338	10.071	10.027	10.053	ConPQ4
-6.287	-5.923	-7.555	11.140	10.882	10.733	ConPQ2
-6.173	-6.011	-7.157	10.883	10.827	10.770	ConPQ1
9.261	9.507	10.069	-12.403	-12.236	-11.000	AdaPQ4
9.943	9.665	10.225	-12.855	-12.602		AdaPQ2
10.005	9.773	10.354	-12.939			AdaPQ1
-6.764	-6.855	-5.947				TaskPQ7
-5.395	-5.040					TaskPQ6
-5.453						TaskPQ5
						TaskPQ3
						TaskPQ2
						TaskPQ1

TaskPQ1	TaskPQ2	TaskPQ3	
-1.052	.363	.647	TRNSLS
-.797	-.019	.347	DLS
3.077	5.539	5.425	TRZLS
1.439	.348	.402	ALS
-.882	.073	.111	LLS
1.205	2.729	2.148	JS
-4.876	-6.432	-5.574	ConPQ8
-6.243	-7.436	-4.948	ConPQ7
-7.361	-7.787	-6.417	ConPQ5
-5.664	-7.031	-4.790	ConPQ4
-7.070	-8.465	-6.824	ConPQ2
-6.836	-7.607	-6.927	ConPQ1
9.442	10.229	9.894	AdaPQ4
9.750	10.506	9.789	AdaPQ2
9.777	10.658	10.111	AdaPQ1
-7.008	-6.757	-6.542	TaskPQ7
-5.347	-7.381	-6.525	TaskPQ6
-6.239	-7.031	-7.275	TaskPQ5
-6.018	-6.179	-5.219	TaskPQ3
-6.730	-6.366		TaskPQ2
-4.893			TaskPQ1

Note: TRNSLS=Transformational Leadership Style; DLS=Democratic Leadership Style; TRNZLS=Transactional Leadership Style; ALS= Autocratic Leadership Style; LLS=Laissez-faire Leadership Style; JS=Job Satisfaction; JP=Job Performance; ConP=Contextual Performance; AdaP=Adaptive Performance; TaskP=Task Performance

Table XIII): Factor Score Weights (Group number 1 - Default Model)

	TRNSLS	DLS	TRNZLS	ALS	LLS	JS	ConPQ8	ConPQ7	ConPQ5	ConPQ4	ConPQ2	ConPQ1	AdaPQ4	AdaPQ2	AdaPQ1	TaskPQ7	TaskPQ6	TaskPQ5	TaskPQ3	TaskPQ2	TaskPQ1
JP	-.089	-.034	.111	-.011	-.090	.111	-.087	-.125	-.146	-.074	-.281	-.200	.009	.071	.591	-.174	-.095	-.133	-.120	-.242	-.110
ConP	.002	.001	-.003	.000	.002	-.003	.078	.111	.130	.066	.250	.178	.000	-.002	-.015	.004	.002	.003	.003	.006	.003
AdaP	-.002	-.001	.003	.000	-.002	.003	-.002	-.003	-.004	-.002	-.008	-.005	.014	.108	.899	-.005	-.003	-.004	-.003	-.007	-.003
TaskP	.003	.001	-.003	.000	.003	-.003	.003	.004	.004	.002	.008	.006	.000	-.002	-.018	.147	.081	.113	.102	.205	.093

Note: TRNSLS=Transformational Leadership Style; DLS=Democratic Leadership Style; TRNZLS=Transactional Leadership Style; ALS= Autocratic Leadership Style; LLS=Laissez-faire Leadership Style; JS=Job Satisfaction; JP=Job Performance; ConP=Contextual Performance; AdaP=Adaptive Performance; TaskP=Task Performance.

Table XIV): Total Effects (Group Number 1 - Default Model)

	TRNSLS	DLS	TRNZLS	ALS	LLS	JS	JP	ConP	AdaP	TaskP
JS	.478	.140	.017	.054	.341	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
JP	-.319	-.163	1.017	-.048	-.466	1.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
CP	.043	.022	-.138	.006	.063	-.135	-.135	.000	.000	.000
AP	-.319	-.163	1.017	-.048	-.466	1.000	1.000	.000	.000	.000
TP	.038	.020	-.123	.006	.056	-.121	-.121	.000	.000	.000
ConPQ8	.046	.023	-.146	.007	.067	-.143	-.143	1.061	.000	.000
ConPQ7	.045	.023	-.144	.007	.066	-.141	-.141	1.045	.000	.000
ConPQ5	.040	.021	-.129	.006	.059	-.127	-.127	.936	.000	.000
ConPQ4	.046	.024	-.146	.007	.067	-.144	-.144	1.063	.000	.000
ConPQ2	.046	.024	-.148	.007	.068	-.145	-.145	1.073	.000	.000
ConPQ1	.043	.022	-.138	.006	.063	-.135	-.135	1.000	.000	.000
AdaPQ4	-.145	-.074	.462	-.022	-.212	.454	.454	.000	.454	.000
AdaPQ2	-.250	-.128	.798	-.037	-.365	.784	.784	.000	.784	.000
AdaPQ1	-.319	-.163	1.017	-.048	-.466	1.000	1.000	.000	1.000	.000
TaskPQ7	.041	.021	-.131	.006	.060	-.128	-.128	.000	.000	1.065
TaskPQ6	.047	.024	-.151	.007	.069	-.149	-.149	.000	.000	1.233
TaskPQ5	.041	.021	-.132	.006	.061	-.130	-.130	.000	.000	1.078
TaskPQ3	.041	.021	-.131	.006	.060	-.129	-.129	.000	.000	1.068
TaskPQ2	.037	.019	-.118	.006	.054	-.116	-.116	.000	.000	.966
TaskPQ1	.038	.020	-.123	.006	.056	-.121	-.121	.000	.000	1.000

Note: TRNSLS=Transformational Leadership Style; DLS=Democratic Leadership Style; TRNZLS=Transactional Leadership Style; ALS= Autocratic Leadership Style; LLS=Laissez-faire Leadership Style; CP=Contextual Performance; AP=Adaptive performance; TP=Task Performance.

Table XV): Standardized Total Effects (Group number 1 - Default Model)

	TRNSLS	DLS	TRNZLS	ALS	LLS	JS	JP	ConP	AdaP	TaskP
JS	.392	.186	.020	.047	.361	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
JP	-.221	-.184	.987	-.035	-.418	.847	.000	.000	.000	.000
ConP	.190	.158	-.846	.030	.358	-.726	-.857	.000	.000	.000
AdaP	-.212	-.177	.948	-.034	-.402	.813	.960	.000	.000	.000
TaskP	.188	.157	-.839	.030	.356	-.720	-.850	.000	.000	.000
ConPQ8	.149	.124	-.665	.024	.282	-.571	-.674	.786	.000	.000
ConPQ7	.158	.132	-.705	.025	.299	-.605	-.714	.834	.000	.000
ConPQ5	.159	.133	-.710	.025	.301	-.610	-.720	.840	.000	.000
ConPQ4	.144	.120	-.643	.023	.273	-.552	-.652	.761	.000	.000
ConPQ2	.174	.145	-.775	.028	.329	-.666	-.786	.917	.000	.000
ConPQ1	.167	.139	-.746	.027	.316	-.640	-.756	.882	.000	.000
AdaPQ4	-.196	-.163	.875	-.031	-.371	.751	.886	.000	.923	.000
AdaPQ2	-.210	-.175	.936	-.033	-.397	.804	.949	.000	.988	.000
AdaPQ1	-.212	-.177	.946	-.034	-.401	.812	.959	.000	.999	.000
TaskPQ7	.156	.130	-.694	.025	.294	-.596	-.704	.000	.000	.828

	TRNSLS	DLS	TRNZLS	ALS	LLS	JS	JP	ConP	AdaP	TaskP
TaskPQ6	.143	.119	-.639	.023	.271	-.549	-.648	.000	.000	.762
TaskPQ5	.149	.124	-.665	.024	.282	-.571	-.674	.000	.000	.793
TaskPQ3	.146	.122	-.651	.023	.276	-.558	-.659	.000	.000	.775
TaskPQ2	.161	.134	-.718	.026	.304	-.617	-.728	.000	.000	.856
TaskPQ1	.141	.118	-.630	.023	.267	-.541	-.638	.000	.000	.751

Note: TRNSLS=Transformational Leadership Style; DLS=Democratic Leadership Style; TRNZLS=Transactional Leadership Style; ALS= Autocratic Leadership Style; LLS=Laissez-faire Leadership Style; CP=Contextual Performance; AP=Adaptive performance; TP=Task Performance.

Table XVI): Direct Effects (Group number 1 - Default Model)

	TRNSLS	DLS	TRNZLS	ALS	LLS	JS	JP	ConP	AdaP	TaskP
JS	.478	.140	.017	.054	.341	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
JP	-.797	-.303	1.000	-.102	-.807	1.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
ConP	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	-.135	.000	.000	.000
AdaP	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	1.000	.000	.000	.000
TaskP	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	-.121	.000	.000	.000
ConPQ8	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	1.061	.000	.000
ConPQ7	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	1.045	.000	.000
ConPQ5	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.936	.000	.000
ConPQ4	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	1.063	.000	.000
ConPQ2	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	1.073	.000	.000
ConPQ1	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	1.000	.000	.000
AdaPQ4	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.454	.000
AdaPQ2	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.784	.000
AdaPQ1	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	1.000	.000
TaskPQ7	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	1.065
TaskPQ6	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	1.233
TaskPQ5	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	1.078
TaskPQ3	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	1.068
TaskPQ2	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.966
TaskPQ1	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	1.000

Note: TRNSLS=Transformational Leadership Style; DLS=Democratic Leadership Style; TRNZLS=Transactional Leadership Style; ALS= Autocratic Leadership Style; LLS=Laissez-faire Leadership Style; CP=Contextual Performance; AP=Adaptive performance; TP=Task Performance.

Table XVII): Standardized Direct Effects (Group number 1 - Default Model)

	TRNSLS	DLS	TRNZLS	ALS	LLS	JS	JP	ConP	AdaP	TaskP
JS	.392	.186	.020	.047	.361	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
JP	-.553	-.342	.970	-.075	-.724	.847	.000	.000	.000	.000
ConP	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	-.857	.000	.000	.000
AdaP	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.960	.000	.000	.000
TaskP	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	-.850	.000	.000	.000
ConPQ8	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.786	.000	.000
ConPQ7	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.834	.000	.000
ConPQ5	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.840	.000	.000
ConPQ4	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.761	.000	.000
ConPQ2	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.917	.000	.000
ConPQ1	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.882	.000	.000
AdaPQ4	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.923	.000
AdaPQ2	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.988	.000
AdaPQ1	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.999	.000
TaskPQ7	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.828
TaskPQ6	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.762
TaskPQ5	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.793
TaskPQ3	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.775
TaskPQ2	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.856
TaskPQ1	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.751

Note: TRNSLS=Transformational Leadership Style; DLS=Democratic Leadership Style; TRNZLS=Transactional Leadership Style; ALS= Autocratic Leadership Style; LLS=Laissez-faire Leadership Style; CP=Contextual Performance; AP=Adaptive performance; TP=Task Performance.

Table XVIII): Indirect Effects (Group number 1 - Default Model)

	TRNSLS	DLS	TRNZLS	ALS	LLS	JS	JP	ConP	AdaP	TaskP
JS	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
JP	.478	.140	.017	.054	.341	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
ConP	.043	.022	-.138	.006	.063	-.135	.000	.000	.000	.000
AdaP	-.319	-.163	1.017	-.048	-.466	1.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
TaskP	.038	.020	-.123	.006	.056	-.121	.000	.000	.000	.000
ConPQ8	.046	.023	-.146	.007	.067	-.143	-.143	.000	.000	.000
ConPQ7	.045	.023	-.144	.007	.066	-.141	-.141	.000	.000	.000
ConPQ5	.040	.021	-.129	.006	.059	-.127	-.127	.000	.000	.000
ConPQ4	.046	.024	-.146	.007	.067	-.144	-.144	.000	.000	.000
ConPQ2	.046	.024	-.148	.007	.068	-.145	-.145	.000	.000	.000
ConPQ1	.043	.022	-.138	.006	.063	-.135	-.135	.000	.000	.000
AdaPQ4	-.145	-.074	.462	-.022	-.212	.454	.454	.000	.000	.000
AdaPQ2	-.250	-.128	.798	-.037	-.365	.784	.784	.000	.000	.000
AdaPQ1	-.319	-.163	1.017	-.048	-.466	1.000	1.000	.000	.000	.000
TaskPQ7	.041	.021	-.131	.006	.060	-.128	-.128	.000	.000	.000
TaskPQ6	.047	.024	-.151	.007	.069	-.149	-.149	.000	.000	.000
TaskPQ5	.041	.021	-.132	.006	.061	-.130	-.130	.000	.000	.000
TaskPQ3	.041	.021	-.131	.006	.060	-.129	-.129	.000	.000	.000
TaskPQ2	.037	.019	-.118	.006	.054	-.116	-.116	.000	.000	.000
TaskPQ1	.038	.020	-.123	.006	.056	-.121	-.121	.000	.000	.000

Note: TRNSLS=Transformational Leadership Style; DLS=Democratic Leadership Style; TRNZLS=Transactional Leadership Style; ALS= Autocratic Leadership Style; LLS=Laissez-faire Leadership Style; CP=Contextual Performance; AP=Adaptive performance; TP=Task Performance.

Table XIX): Standardized Indirect Effects (Group number 1 - Default Model)

	TRNSLS	DLS	TRNZLS	ALS	LLS	JS	JP	ConP	AdaP	TaskP
JS	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
JP	.332	.158	.017	.040	.306	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
ConP	.190	.158	-.846	.030	.358	-.726	.000	.000	.000	.000
AdaP	-.212	-.177	.948	-.034	-.402	.813	.000	.000	.000	.000
Task_P	.188	.157	-.839	.030	.356	-.720	.000	.000	.000	.000
ConPQ8	.149	.124	-.665	.024	.282	-.571	-.674	.000	.000	.000
ConPQ7	.158	.132	-.705	.025	.299	-.605	-.714	.000	.000	.000
ConPQ5	.159	.133	-.710	.025	.301	-.610	-.720	.000	.000	.000
ConPQ4	.144	.120	-.643	.023	.273	-.552	-.652	.000	.000	.000
ConPQ2	.174	.145	-.775	.028	.329	-.666	-.786	.000	.000	.000
ConPQ1	.167	.139	-.746	.027	.316	-.640	-.756	.000	.000	.000
AdaPQ4	-.196	-.163	.875	-.031	-.371	.751	.886	.000	.000	.000
AdaPQ2	-.210	-.175	.936	-.033	-.397	.804	.949	.000	.000	.000
AdaPQ1	-.212	-.177	.946	-.034	-.401	.812	.959	.000	.000	.000
TaskPQ7	.156	.130	-.694	.025	.294	-.596	-.704	.000	.000	.000
TaskPQ6	.143	.119	-.639	.023	.271	-.549	-.648	.000	.000	.000
TaskPQ5	.149	.124	-.665	.024	.282	-.571	-.674	.000	.000	.000
TaskPQ3	.146	.122	-.651	.023	.276	-.558	-.659	.000	.000	.000
TaskPQ2	.161	.134	-.718	.026	.304	-.617	-.728	.000	.000	.000
TaskPQ1	.141	.118	-.630	.023	.267	-.541	-.638	.000	.000	.000

Note: TRNSLS=Transformational Leadership Style; DLS=Democratic Leadership Style; TRNZLS=Transactional Leadership Style; ALS= Autocratic Leadership Style; LLS=Laissez-faire Leadership Style; CP=Contextual Performance; AP=Adaptive performance; TP=Task Performance.

APPENDIX G: SUMMARY OF MODEL VALUES

Table a): Chi-Square Value (CMIN)

Model	NPAR	CMIN	DF	P	CMIN/DF
Default model	59	1259.259	172	.000	7.321
Saturated model	231	.000	0		
Independence model	21	4051.971	210	.000	19.295

Note: *CMIN* stands for the *Chi-square value* and is used to compare if the observed variables and expected results are statistically significant. In other words, *CMIN* indicates if the sample data and hypothetical model are an acceptable fit in the analysis.

Table b): Root Mean Square Residual (RMR); Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)

Model	RMR	GFI	AGFI	PGFI
Default model	3.421	.841	.787	.626
Saturated model	.000	1.000		
Independence model	3.979	.410	.351	.372

Note: *GFI* stands for *Goodness of Fit Index* and is used to calculate the minimum discrepancy function necessary to achieve a perfect fit under maximum likelihood conditions (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1984; Tanaka & Huba, 1985) while root mean square residual (*RMR*) is the square root of the discrepancy between the sample covariance matrix and the model covariance matrix.

Table c): Baseline Comparisons

Model	NFI Delta1	RFI rho1	IFI Delta2	TLI rho2	CFI
Default model	.689	.621	.720	.654	.717
Saturated model	1.000		1.000		1.000
Independence model	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000

Note: refers to the models automatically fitted by Amos for every analysis, respectively the default, saturated, and independence model.

Table d): Parsimony-Adjusted Measures

Model	PRATIO	PNFI	PCFI
Default model	.819	.565	.587
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	1.000	.000	.000

Note: Refers to relative fit indices adjusted for most discussed indices.

Table e): None centrality parameter (NCP)

Model	NCP	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	1087.259	978.268	1203.709
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	3841.971	3638.863	4052.370

Note: Non-Centrality Parameter value with boundaries expressed by LO (NcpLo) and Hi (NcpHi), respectively, the lower and higher boundaries of 90% confidence interval for the NCP.

Table f): Index of Model Fit (FMIN)

Model	FMIN	F0	LO 90	HI 90
Default model	3.413	2.947	2.651	3.262
Saturated model	.000	.000	.000	.000
Independence model	10.981	10.412	9.861	10.982

Note: FMIN = Index of Model Fit with boundaries expressed by LO and Hi, respectively, the lower and higher boundaries of 90% confidence interval for the FMIN. A value closer to 0 represents a better model fit for the observed data, with 0 being the perfect fit.

Table g): Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)

Model	RMSEA	LO 90	HI 90	PCLOSE
Default model	.131	.124	.138	.000
Independence model	.223	.217	.229	.000

Note: RMSEA stands for Root Mean Square Error of Approximation and measures the difference between the observed covariance matrix per degree of freedom and the predicted covariance matrix (Chen, 2007).

Table h): Akaike Information Criterion (AIC)

Model	AIC	BCC	BIC	CAIC
Default model	1377.259	1384.741	1608.156	1667.156
Saturated model	462.000	491.291	1366.019	1597.019
Independence model	4093.971	4096.634	4176.154	4197.154

Note: AIC stands for Akaike Information Criterion (Akaike, 1987) and is used to measure the quality of the statistical model for the data sample used. The AIC is a score represented by a single number and used to determine which model best fits the data set.

Table i): Expected Cross Validation Index (ECVI)

Model	ECVI	LO 90	HI 90	MECVI
Default model	3.732	3.437	4.048	3.753
Saturated model	1.252	1.252	1.252	1.331
Independence model	11.095	10.544	11.665	11.102

Note: ECVI stands for Expected Cross Validation Index (Browne & Cudeck, 1993) and measures the predicted future of a model using a simple transformation of chi-square like AIC (accepting the constant scale factor).

Table j): HOELTER

Model	HOELTER .05	HOELTER .01
Default model	60	64
Independence model	23	24

Note:

HOELTER .05 = measures if the sample size can be accepted at the .05 level for the default model. To paraphrase, if your sample size is higher than the value specified for the default model at .05 level, the default model should be rejected.

HOELTER .01 = calculates if the sample size for the default model can be accepted at the .01 level. Respectively, if the sample size is larger than the number specified for the default model at .01 level, you may reject the default model.

APPENDIX H: LETTER OF TRANSLATION (ENGLISH TO AMHARIC)



BIT

Bahir Dar Institute Of Technology, Bahir Dar University
ሳ.ሳ. ስ.ፍ.ፍ. ቴክኖሎጂ ትምህርት ቤቅ - ሳ.ሳ. ስ.ፍ.ፍ.

English Language Improvement Center (ELIC) - የአማርኛ ቋንቋ ግምገማ ማእከል

ቁጥር/Ref. No. ELI/06/2021

ቀን/Date: 06/12/2021

To whom it may concern

CERTIFICATE OF TRANSLATION

I, **Amare Tesfye (PhD)** translated a questionnaire, submitted by Mr. Redie Bezabih Hailu from English into Amharic language under the supervision of English Language Improvement Center (ELIC), Bahir Dar Institute of Technology, Bahir Dar University, and certify this letter to indicate that the translation of the questionnaire for his dissertation of "Doctor of Business Leadership (DBL)" is true and accurate.

Signature of Translator.....

Date.....



"Language is the blood of the soul into which thoughts run and out of which they grow" (Oliver Wendell Holmes)

ቋንቋ ልሳሎ ስለሆነ ማንም ሳይውል

In reply, please quote our reference number

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APPENDIX I: LANGUAGE EDITING CERTIFICATE

Dr Marthie de Kock
Academic Consultant and Editor
DLitt et Phil

Mr Redie Bezabih Hailu

Graduate School of Business Leadership

UNISA, Ethiopia

31 July 2023

Dear Mr Redie Bezabih Hailu

This letter is to confirm that I have language edited your DBL thesis:

**Impact of Leadership Styles on Employee Performance Mediated by Job Satisfaction:
A Study of the Amhara Regional Public Sector in Ethiopia**

Language confirmed: Changed language from US English to UK English.

Thesis font: Changed thesis text font from Times Roman 12 to Arial 12.

Referencing style: Changed APA 7th ed. referencing style to Unisa SBL Harvard style.

177 citations were added to the Reference list.

General checks: Spelling, grammar, and sentence structure.

Punctuation: Including consistent use of ellipses, hyphens, and quotation marks.

Numbering: Headings, sub-headings, and content pages.

Passive voice: Acceptable in academic writing.

Reformatting: Thesis was reformatted, and Lists of Tables and Figures were added.

The utmost care was taken to identify errors with great attention to detail during substantial translation and editing of the document. However, it is conceivable that errors will be missed due to human error. Please correct according to comments from the supervisor and examiners.

I wish you the best with the examination and confirmation of your thesis.

Kind regards



Marthie de Kock (DLitt et Phil)

Mobile: +27724465001

APPENDIX J: TURNITIN REPORT

DBL FINAL THESIS(67125115)

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