

A framework to link strategic human resources management leadership dimension and public service performance in the North-West Province

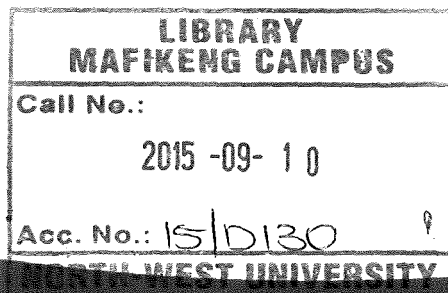
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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated, with profound gratitude to my wife, Voke, and children Michael, Abigail and Andrew. The love, patience, understanding and support you all showed during this period helped me immensely through this study.

ABSTRACT

Strategic human resource management (SHRM) is viewed as one way that organisations can achieve superior performance through its employees and there are empirical studies and literature to support this view. The theory also emphasises that specific leadership behaviour is required in an organisation to enhance their human resources ability to achieve higher performance outcomes. However, no such study has been undertaken in public sectors in an African setting such as South Africa where there is evident cries for efficiency in the delivery of services and better management of employees as significant components in overall performance of public service departments. The study's original contribution to the research area addresses this gap and provides a framework that links SHRM leadership dimension (SHRML) and performance in provincial public service departments of the North-West Province, South Africa.

In this study SHRML embraces the leadership dimension of the theory and is linked to SHRM performance outcomes in the public service. The study's results, from a survey of a sample of 759 respondents from across 11 North West provincial public service departments showed that for individual level of performance outcomes, public service employees reported high job satisfaction, high perceived organisational support, high organisational citizenship behaviour, but low organisational commitment. In addition SHRML had a significant positive relationship with job satisfaction, perceived organisational support, organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour, and had the strongest weight in all models best predicting these outcomes. The final outcome of this study is a framework that shows the statistically significant interactions between SHRML and performance outcomes for provincial public service departments in the North-West Province.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The need to perform and achieve set goals or targets are common challenges faced by organisations across the world. Some elements that are critical to understanding how organisations successfully address the challenges is found in the organisation's ability to get the best out of their employees and how the achievement or under-achievement affects an organisation's performance. Boxall and Purcell (2008) translate this sentiment as an important strategic concern that organisations must engage if they are to secure or contemplate superior performance. This sets the domain of strategic human resource management (hereafter referred to as SHRM). SHRM is concerned with strategic choices organisations have to make with regard to the use of their human resources and how these choices influence the overall performance of organisations (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, 2009).

The subject is continually being discussed in the advancement of organisations as they seek to achieve high performance and competitive advantage by attending to issues such as changing workforce demographics and improving workforce productivity amongst other strategic concerns. In fact, the expectation is now that professionals in human resource departments play a significant role as strategic partners in defining organisations' overall strategies and being more proactive in formulating policies and practices to advance the 'people side' of organisations (Nel & Werner, 2004; Purcell, Kinnie, Swart, Rayton, & Hutchinson, 2003; Ulrich, 1998, 2007).

Two important issues confront the scholars interested in the relationship between SHRM and performance. The first challenge is that of having a very clear understanding of SHRM and its implications for organisations; and the other will be that of an effective and representative measurement of its effects on performance.

1.2 Background of the study

The way an organisation manages its human resources or employees, plays an important role in determining if the organisation is going to achieve its goals and objectives. However, the emphasis in SHRM points towards not just managing employees but managing them in ways

that are strategically planned and purposeful or in line with what the organisation wants to achieve (Armstrong & Baron, 2002; Truss, Mankin, & Keillher, 2012). This statement summarises central tenets that underpin SHRM: employees are valuable assets to an organisation's success and if they are to continually add value to the organisation the way these assets are used, managed and evaluated must reflect their importance (Legge, 2004; Mabey & Graeme, 2004; Mello, 2014; Torrington, Hall & Taylor, 2005). Thus, the priority for organisations that choose to strategically manage their workforce is to develop appropriate policies and practices to ensure effective management of this asset (Mello, 2014). Organisations that understand and correctly apply this tenet of SHRM are expected to enjoy outcomes that are highly beneficial to them, which is normally translated as achieving valuable goals and performance outcomes.

Several industry and research studies indicate that SHRM practices can assist organisations to perform better in several ways (Accenture Global Consultancy, 2006; Armstrong, 2011; Huselid, 1995; IBM, 2006; Truss, et al., 2012). A brief synthesis of the available literature and research conducted suggests outcomes of SHRM that exist across a broad range of measurable indicators, are achievable. Truss *et al.*, (2012) summarises these outcomes based on key research and findings in the subject into four major levels of performance: They are financial level outcomes with indicators such as stock price, shareholder value, etc., organisational level outcomes with measures such as organisational agility and flexibility, social climate etc', unit level outcomes that include quality, productivity amongst others and finally individual level outcomes that capture work attitudes and behaviours such as commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, job satisfaction, levels of absenteeism, engagement, and so on..

Performance outcomes at the individual level of SHRM form the core outcomes that are observed in this study. Specifically, the outcomes are:

- job satisfaction;
- organisational citizenship behaviour;
- perceived organisational support;
- and organisational commitment.

Purcell et al., (2003) explain that SHRM links to the performance of organisations through practices that elicit such desirable employee behaviours and attitudes, which in turn are

beneficial and can support high performance in organisations. For example, research studies conducted indicate that employees with higher levels of commitment will work harder and are more likely to give extra efforts to achieve organisational objectives and to remain with the organisations (Allen & Meyer, 2000; Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Toplnytsky, 2002; Tett & Meyer, 1993), and organisations with higher levels of perceived organisational support tend to produce harder working and committed employees characterised by effective work attitudes and behaviours (Allen, Shore & Griffeth, 2003; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson & Sowa, 1986; Miao, 2011; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

In addition, studies also show that higher levels of organisational citizenship behaviour can translate into several benefits for organisations, such as:

- significant savings for organisations through improved quality of service;
- increased efficiency (Polat, 2009; Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Paine, & Bachrach, 2000);
- in-role performance (Coyle-Shapiro, 2002);
- helping co-workers; and
- taking extra responsibilities (Blakely, Andrews, & Fuller, 2005) amongst other benefits.

Finally, studies conducted on job satisfaction indicate positive correlations with job performance (Bowran & Todd, 1999; Rehman & Waheed, 2011), employee productivity (Judge & Huslin, 1991) and employee retention (Shaw, Gupta & Delery, 2002).

Leadership is an essential element in the ability of SHRM practices to produce the desirable employee behaviours and attitudes and can also support high performance in the organisation. Bratton and Gold (2007) explain that the way leaders and managers exert influence upon others in an organisational context, permeates into SHRM theory and is thus important in understanding how SHRM links to performance. It follows that, while it is now commonly expected that managers and leaders within organisations play active roles in implementing organisational policies concerning people management, it is the behavioural practices initiated by these organisational agents that have more influence on employees' performance rather than the mere existence of documented policies (CIPD, 2002, 2003; Legge, 2004; Purcell, et al., 2003; Purcell & Hutchinson, 2007; Harney & Jordan, 2008). This explanation of the impact of the leadership dimension of the theory is what is referred to as SHRML in this study.

In addition, Purcell et al., (2003) argue the way employees are managed is often a reflection of the leadership style that is allowed and encouraged by top leadership in organisations. Transformational leadership and transactional leadership paradigms are major interests in the study of SHRM as managers look for leadership styles that will cultivate attributes in employees to enable high performance (Bratton & Gold, 2007). This study focuses on the latter of the leadership paradigms in understanding leadership influence or impact on the performance outcomes at the individual level.

From the preceding explanations of SHRM, it is apparent that the subject area has sufficient potential to lend itself for use across all sectors in which organisations may operate. In other words, a high level of organisational performance is not something that is only important to organisations that operate in the private sector or have mainly a profit making focus. In fact, major contributors in the subject area, such as Truss et al., (2012), rebuff definitions of SHRM that place emphasises on competitive advantage as its main outcome of SHRM, because of the irrelevance of that particular goal to some public sector organisations. This is very important because it means that organisations like public service departments in South Africa can fully engage some principles of SHRM in expectation of achieving high levels of performance.

The South African nation is not behind other nations in acknowledging the importance of the strategic role employees play in achieving goals and objectives of public institutions. In 1997 the South African government used the concept 'Batho Pele,' derived from the Sesotho word meaning 'putting people first,' in an attempt to provide a framework for a people-centred public service delivery and give directions on how people working within public sector institutions should be managed in order for the nation to attain its full potential (DPSA, 1997b). However, in modern day democratic South Africa, there are clamours for effective service delivery by the public services departments. Sometimes the demand for service delivery has resulted in confrontation between the law enforcement service and South African citizens and residents who are asking for nothing less than efficiency in service rendition from public service departments (Polity, 2009).

As effective public service is now regarded a legitimate right of all residents, the way people perceive service delivery in their day to day lives and more specifically whether there are improvements in the service delivered to them is an important indicator reflecting public

service performance (Pretorius & Schurink, 2007). With South Africa being earmarked as one of the 'Big Ten' emerging markets by the United States of America's Department of Commerce in the early 1990's, signifying markets with the greatest economic/business potential in the next several decades (Harvey, 2002), the nation cannot at this stage pay scant attention, as that will be courting low productivity and poor performance. Thus, studying and understanding deeply how SHRM could positively have an impact on performance by public services departments in South Africa is a subject worth pursuing.

1.3 Research problem

The public service as a vehicle of service delivery for all the people of South Africa has undergone a long process of reconstruction dating as far back as the nineties (Akinnusi, 2008; Van der Westhuizen, 2005). One underlining principle in the Government's attempts to address the issues related to the public service is an emphasis on the effective strategic management of its human resources in order to achieve set goals and targets as detailed in its white paper on transforming public service delivery, published in 1997. The white paper emphasised that public service departments across South Africa have to be more strategic and effective in the management of their human resources in order to improve effectiveness in service delivery (DPSA, 1997b). However much has been left undesirable as issues such as service delivery protests and public service strikes persist, indicating that potential results of effective strategic management of the public service human resource is yet to be fully realised.

Historically, public sector institutions in developing countries and sub-Saharan Africa have been described as being too 'large, bureaucratic and change-resistant,' characterised by poor performance and inefficiencies. Some of the criticisms aimed at the sector were attributed largely to the ineffective utilisation of human resources, a lack of clear objectives and job descriptions, lack of a performance orientation with emphases on input e.g., increasing expenditure rather than output such as quality and client satisfaction (Blunt & Jones, 1997; Jackson, 2002). In fact, Van der Westhuizen (2005) emphasised that public sector institutions across sub-Saharan Africa have failed to keep pace with international development with regards to public sector institutions and service delivery. The implication is that the improvement of public service performance is currently a significant item on

Africa's agenda for socio-economic development, and will remain on the agenda until serious steps are taken to address the challenges that exist, especially with regards to management of its human resources.

Finally, the research problem is compounded by significant shortage of research studies conducted in an African context. The bulk of the existing knowledge base and literature in the subject area are developed outside of Africa and focused mainly on the domestic operations of American, European and Asian organisations (Kamoche, 2002).

1.4 Gaps in the knowledge base

Some studies show that SHRM can help organisations perform better (e.g., Arthur, 1994; Huselid, 1995.) but a review of existing literature and empirical studies on the subject may lead to a conclusion that the impact of SHRM on the performance of organisations in Africa, especially public sector organisations like public service departments in South Africa, have received very limited attention and coverage. This is the point that Kamoche (2002) highlights in his emphasis of the dominance of mostly American and European contributions in the literature and research aspects.

While it has been assumed that organisations in Africa are likely to adopt and use management principles reflective of foreign influences (Jackson, 2002) and although review of the literature of SHRM in public service departments in nations such as South Africa clearly indicate the presence of an implemented human resource strategy with associated human resource practices (DPSA, 1997, 2008), there appears to be little in the way of research work or literature that examine if desirable performance outcomes are being realised in such organisations in Africa, and the organisational factors that hinder or promote the achievement of these performance outcomes. This lack is important because although SHRM practices are hailed as being capable of improving the performance of an organisation, Boxall and Purcell (2008) have questioned how SHRM is actually linked to performance in organisations, while Wright and McMahan (2011) highlight important organisational factors such as leadership, culture, etc. within the SHRM frameworks of organisations that differentiate whether organisations have a strategic approach to managing their employees and if they are actually able to attain their desired goals.

Specifically in South Africa, the 1997 White paper for transforming public service delivery emphasised a shift towards a more emergent human resources agenda characterised by more management functions and increased devolution of human resource responsibilities to all management levels (DPSA 1997a, 1997b). However, knowledge that explores the response of public service to such directives, or whether due consideration has been given to the integration of important elements such as leadership and management roles in implementing SHRM initiatives, or even the impact of their behaviour in promoting or hindering the achievement of performance outcomes is lacking.

Literature on the theory also highlights that variables such as job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour, organisational commitment and perceived organisational support are important outcomes in high levels within organisations, which will in-turn enable them to achieve a high level of performance (Dyer & Reeves, 1995; Purcell, et al., 2009; Truss, et al., 2012). However a bid to understand the levels of organisational citizenship behaviour and perceived organisational support in public service departments of South Africa may be met with significant difficulty as there appears to be a scarcity of empirical evidence based on a South African context to support if such outcomes are being attained at a high level or at least positively influenced in these departments.

In order to attempt to address these knowledge gaps, studies with cross cultural equivalence need to be conducted to ensure the meaningful application of SHRM principles to different geographical contexts; especially in an African context and as in the case of this study, a public service department in the North-West Province of South Africa.

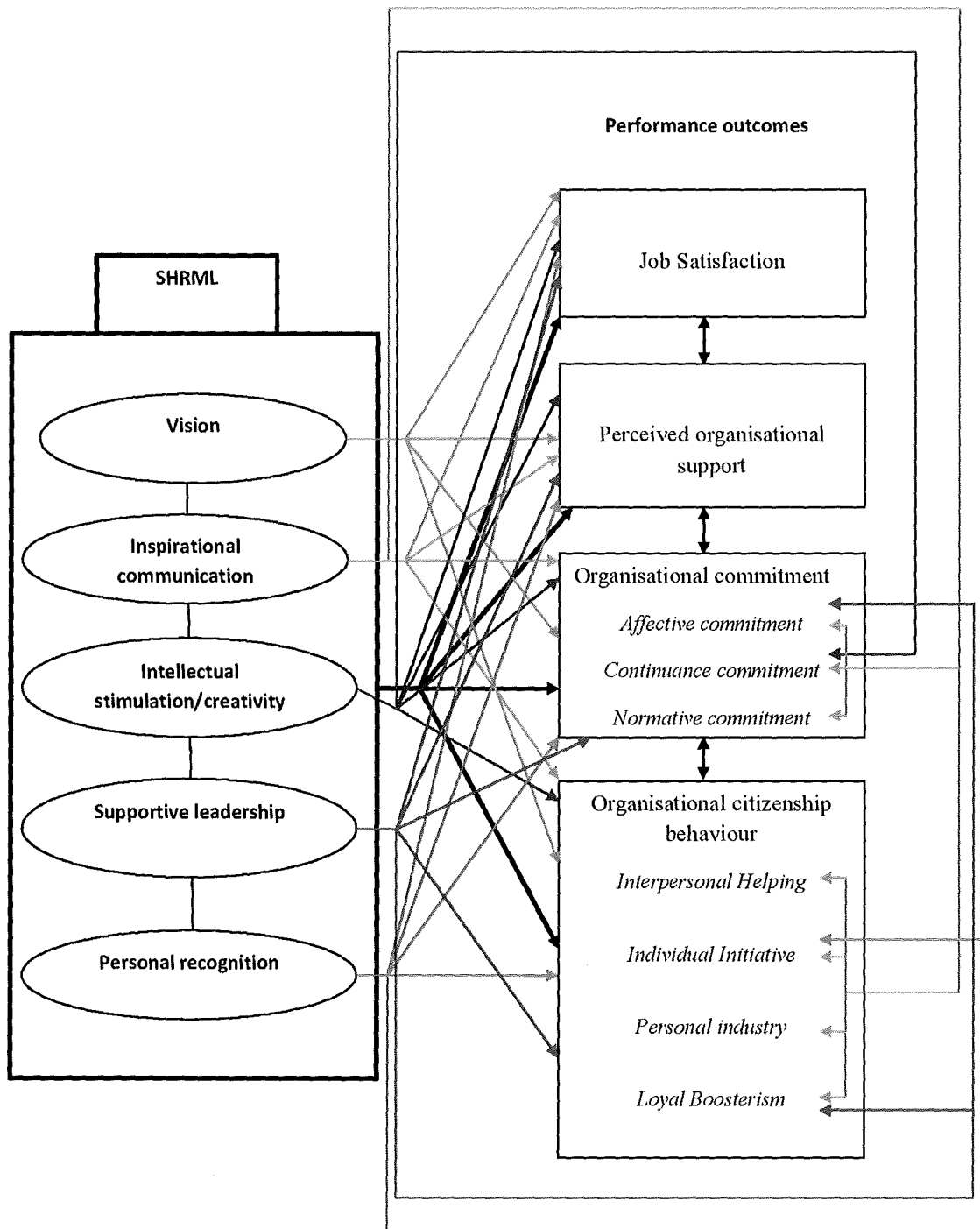
1.5 Purpose of the Study

This study aimed to investigate and propose a conceptual framework to explore the link between SHRML and desirable performance outcomes for public service departments in the North-West Province of South Africa. To achieve this aim the study explored the role of leadership and management behaviour as a critical element of SHRM on job- and organisational outcomes namely: 'job satisfaction', 'organisational commitment', 'perceived organisational support' and 'organisational citizenship behaviour' (willingness of an employee to go beyond formal job requirements in this association), which creates organisations with improved performance.

1.6 Theoretical background and conceptual framework

The proposed conceptual framework utilised insights from the People and Performance Model originated by Purcell *et al.*, (2003) (see Figure 1). This model explains the link between SHRM and performance results from the ways the organisation human resources is managed and nurtured within the full context of organisation processes. The efforts of the organisation in this particular area of management are reflected in the levels of job satisfaction, employee motivation, organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour displayed by employees. In this model, these outcomes are identified as crucial variables that are influenced to link SHRM and performance (Purcell, *et al.*, 2003; Robbins & Judge, 2007).

For the purpose of building a conceptual framework that links SHRML to performance in public service departments in the North-West Province of South Africa, the proposed framework focused strongly on the impact of leadership and management behaviour on the desirable job and organisational outcomes. Leadership and management behaviour were expanded to include the elements of vision, intellectual stimulation, inspirational communication, supportive leadership and personal recognition. Perceived organisational support was also adapted into the model as one of the critical job outcomes that essentially link to the outputs that public service departments aim to achieve.



Adapted from Pucell, *et al.*, (2003) people and performance framework.

Figure 1.: A conceptual framework to link SHRML and public service performance in the North-West Province

1.7 Research hypothesis

The study made the research assumptions that public service departments in the North-West province of South Africa will ideally seek to align their business strategies and operational

plans with relevant HR strategies, thus reflecting in SHRM initiatives (DPSA, 1997). Based on these assumptions the following research hypotheses were made:

Hypothesis 1: Employees in NWP Public Service departments will report high job outcomes (job satisfaction and perceived organisational support) and organisational outcomes (organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour).

Hypothesis 2: There will be a significant positive correlation between SHRML and job outcomes (*JS* and *POS*) and organisational outcomes (*OC* and *OCB*).

Hypothesis 3: SHRML will significantly predict job outcomes (*JS* and *POS*) among public service employees in the North-West Province.

Hypothesis 4: SHRML will significantly predict organisational outcomes (*OC* and *OCB*) among public service employees in the North-West Province.

1.8 Scope of study

There is a demand for the HR function to become a strategic partner by adding real value to organisations and helping them achieve their goals (Armstrong & Baron, 2002; Nel & Werner, 2004). As many organisations come to the realisation that a superior workforce is essential for achieving business goals and high performance, SHRM takes centre stage in ensuring that the desires of organisations are achieved through effective strategic management of their human resources (Ulrich, 2007; Ulrich & Brockbank, 2005). Very central to this study is identifying and understanding how SHRML will add value to public service departments in the North-West province and the critical factors that guarantee success and performance. The study draws on different viewpoints of what SHRM implies, what it is supposed to do and how to develop the human resource function to strategically meet the needs for results and achievement of goals by organisations and in particular those in the public sector.

The mere existence of SHRM initiated policies in an organisation does not guarantee success, as there could be a difference between management strategic intentions and an organisational reality because of ignorance of contextual and process issues, and limited support from or for leaders and management executing SHRM initiatives (Gratton & Hope-Hailey, 1999; Legge,

2004). In light of the above it is not good enough to have the concept of “Batho Pele,” as its aspirations must be translated into sustained and effective action to bridge the gap between management rhetoric and realities in attaining the desired performance from public service departments. Therefore, understanding how public service departments and their strategic plans integrate leaders and managers in executing its policies and how their behaviour influences positive or negative desirable SHRM outcomes are important elements to be considered.

Finally, the study drew on different theoretical explanations of its links to performance and critical factors to be considered if organisations, especially public service departments, are to strategically meet the need for results and achievement of goals.

1.9 Significance of study

The theoretical and practical significance of the study for the North-West province, Government, provincial public services management, HR practitioners and researchers are as follow:

1.9.1 Socio-economic significance

The public service plays an important underpinning role in South Africa’s Governments’ ambitions to improve the performance of the economy in general. Effectiveness in this area will create significant positive spin-offs for the South African economy as it has a potential to lay a solid foundation in which a nations’ economy can be productive, competitive and thrive successfully. For example, improved education, health and transport infrastructure can improve private sector performance by producing a healthier, better skilled and more mobile labour force which hold huge advantages for any economy (Bach, 2001, 2005). On the contrary poor performance in the public service will damage the Governments’ entire social and economic programme, significantly undermining the nation’s ability to be competitive globally, not to mention other ramifying effects such as cost to electoral hopes and aspirations. In light of this, addressing the knowledge gaps identified will create a better understanding of how SHRM practices can improve public service performance in the North-West province.

1.9.2 Capital and financial significance

South Africa's public service departments and provincial administration employs approximately 1.2 million people across the country (Akinnusi, 2008) and equally accounts for a large proportion of public expenditure in terms of salaries and benefits. Not getting the optimum value from such a huge labour force can be translated into a waste of the nations' financial resources. Therefore determining how SHRM will improve performance in public services and the critical factors for success is important.

1.9.3 Management practices

The findings and understanding from the proposed study may require a line of reasoning from public service management that transcends the mere implementation of HR policies and practices to having a better understanding of strategic choices in the effective management of people in relation to the internal and external environments and goals of the public service. A relevant conceptual framework could encourage provincial public service departments to better interpret the current position of their human resource strategies, confront current assumptions and potentially open up new opportunities for improving their performance through people.

1.9.4 Research significance

Finally, with the proposed study contextualised in the North-West province, there is an opportunity to build the theoretical concept and academic knowledge in Africa, within a research area which has been described as 'overwhelming Anglo-Saxon' (Kamoche, 2002). The proposed study has the potential of lending itself to further studies, with the ultimate goal of improving public service performance in the North-West province, South Africa and Africa.

1.10 Operational definition of terms for the study

The following definitions provide a concise description of what is meant by the key set of variables examined and terms used in the study:

- *Framework*: A supporting structure that links independent and dependent variables in explaining how SHRML can potentially impacts on the performance of provincial public service departments in the North West of South Africa
- *Job satisfaction*: Overall responses to how much an employee subjectively and emotively like his or her job as a whole or in general (Thompson & Phua, 2012).
- *Organisational citizenship behaviour*: The willingness of employees to display behaviour at work, such as to work harder or smarter etc., which are not formal requirements, or is directly recognised by the organisational reward system and promotes the effective functioning of the organisation (Moorman & Blakely, 1995; Moorman & Harland, 2002; Robbins & Judge, 2007).
- *Organisational commitment*: A psychological state that characterises an employees' relationship with the organisation for which he or she works, and the implications for whether or not the employee will choose to remain with the organisation (Allen & Grisaffe, 2001).
- *Perceived organisational support*: The global belief an employee forms concerning the extent to which an organisation values his or her contribution and cares about their wellbeing; this belief is based on the employees' experience of organisational policies, procedures, processes and interaction with agents of the organisation (Eisenberger, *et al.*, 1986).
- *Performance*: Levels of job and organisational outcomes of SHRM: namely, job satisfaction, perceived organisational support, organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour of employees that are elicited as a result of the impact of organisational agents i.e., leadership and management behaviour.
- *Provincial public service department*: Government departments designated to provide services to individuals within communities on behalf of the Government of that country.
- *SHRML*: SHRML is operationally defined as leadership behaviour. It implies the ability of leaders and managers to effectively articulate the vision of the organisation based on its values, to motivate, stimulate employees to solve challenges in creative

ways, show genuine concern for their needs and finally acknowledge and reward the achievements of employees within the organisation (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004).

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This literature review explores how SHRM is linked to performance outcomes of organisations by examining essential literature, theoretical explanation and key findings emanating from research on the focus of this study. In order to achieve this purpose, this literature review provides an overview of the historical development of SHRM and highlight's its main approaches and theories related to organisational performance. With respect to the objectives and scope of this study, the literature review concentrates mainly on three dimensions of SHRM namely: evidence of its impact on organisational performance, leadership behaviour (SHRML), and employee attitudes and behaviours. In the concluding section of the review the interplay of these dimensions in public service departments, with specific attention paid to those in South Africa, are discussed.

2.2 An overview of the history of SHRM

The concept 'SHRM' is widely believed to have risen from personnel management and human resource management; and is known to have been set in motion by changes in the way employees were viewed and accordingly were to be managed, especially in the United States and United Kingdom. The essence of this change from a strategic point of view was that employees could be a highly valuable resource which, if managed effectively, is capable of contributing significantly to organisational effectiveness and becoming a source of competitive advantage (Allen & Wright, 2006; Beaumont, 1993; Lundy & Cowling, 1996).

This thinking was spurred on by criticisms in the 1980s and 1990s of personnel management as performing mainly an administrative role and lacking strategic relevance to cope with the challenges faced by organisations at the time. Personnel management was also deemed as lacking adequate and appropriate theoretical foundations for its associated practices often perceived as out of context with organisations' goals and therefore ineffective. To remedy these perceptions, it was advised that the function of personnel management become more proactively engaged at a strategic level of business operations in order to achieve results (Devanna, Fombrun, & Tichy, 1981; Lundy & Cowling, 1996; Rowland & Summers, 1981).

Devanna *et al.*, (1981) summarised some of the factors at the centre of such criticisms, especially for organisations in the US where the concept SHRM emerged as economic shifts in the 1970s brought problems of inflation; slow capital investment, low productivity and demographic shifts in the 1980s manifesting as a well-educated workforce but overly-educated for jobs available, thus presenting organisations with a serious human resource problem of meeting the high expectations of prospective employees for meaningful work. According to Devanna *et al.*, (1981), other factors at the centre of the criticisms included an increasingly regulated operating environment for organisations with the introduction of regulations and laws covering the areas of affirmative action, health and safety etc, as well as the increasing complexity of management as a result of finding effective ways to deal with prior points made and the selection, development, and compensation of managers themselves that are critical to organisational challenges in the 1980s. In the UK, especially between 1975 – 1990, the changes made to personnel management functions was influenced by a significant reduction in trade union power in a bid by the government at the time, to improve the nations' competitiveness with emphasises on free markets, privatisation and reduction in public expenditure amongst other initiatives (Beaumont, 1993; Mabey & Graeme, 2004).

A common notion shared in both the US and UK cases was an emphasis on the strategic level of interaction between personnel management and business in which people were to be managed as vital resources. Attempts to adopt the notion also earmarked the initial evolution in personnel management terminology. Lundy and Cowling, (1996) explain the evolution in the personnel management terminology as occurring through the emergence of two concepts. The first concept highlights the emergence, albeit not sudden, of the concept of human resources management. This was indicative of a move away from the traditional objectives of personnel management, such as control and containment of conflict to capture new directions and objectives of the function in response to the challenges faced. Truss, et al., (2012) are of the view that the emergence of the concept 'human resource management' dates back as far as 1960s in the US and was initially used interchangeably with the term personnel management before it was developed and significantly based on influential studies conducted also in the US.

In the early 1980s, the second concept 'strategic human resource management' was developed not as replacement of previous concepts pertaining to the management of employees, but rather as an idea that captures the essence of the need for pro-active HRM

presence at strategic level and the importance of human resource issues to successful implementation of strategic and operational plans of organisations, thus necessitating attention at the highest level. Other scholars such as Kaufman (2012) and Marler (2012) refer to SHRM as a macro-branch of human resource management. Analoui (2007) acknowledge the work of influential management specialists such as Ouchi (1981), Peter and Waterman (1982), and Beer, Spector, Lawrence, Mills, and Walton (1984) as playing significant roles in growing the popularity of SHRM by emphasising the importance of effectively managing employees as a way of gaining competitive advantage, encouraging the development of management frameworks in academia that emphasised the strategic role of Human Resources and attaching the prefix 'strategic' to the term 'human resource management'. An example of how such contributions impacted the perception of the subject area can be reflected in the notion, originally advanced by Beer et al., (1984) of viewing and treating people or employees as 'human capital' or assets rather than variable cost.

The same notion has been recaptured and given more depth by other important researchers in the field such as Legge (2004), Pfeffer (2005) and Armstrong and Baron (2002) who posit that an organisation's 'human capital' refer's largely to people possessing characteristics such as skills, abilities, and experiences, and who are willing to use these to make significant contributions to the success of the organisation. Overall general feelings pertaining to and stemming from such a notion is that because employees have attained status as a vitally important organisational resource linked to the success of organisations, it becomes mandatory that the planning and utilisation of such resources attain a comparative level of importance, attention and seriousness, which can only be achieved at the highest level of organisational functioning (Analoui 2007; Armstrong 2011; Marchington & Wilkinson, 2003; Mello, 2014; Pfeffer, 2005; and Nel & Werner, 2004). According to Huselid, Jackson, and Schuler (1997) there appears to be a seemingly consensus that SHRM will enable employees to effectively contribute to the achievement of organisational objectives, especially when internally consistent policies and practices where implemented within the organisation.

There are initial studies that are influential and noteworthy when SHRM is discussed in terms of conceptual development and emergence of the subject area. Two widely acknowledged ones are the Harvard framework developed at the Harvard business school (USA) by Beer *et al.*, (1984) and the Michigan model developed at the Michigan business school by Fombrun *et al.*, (1984). Integral to the Harvard framework is the choice of development and

implementation of policies regarding management of employees, as influenced or determined by stakeholder interest, environmental challenges and other situational factors that result in organisational human resource outcomes including commitment, competence cost effectiveness etc.

These factors are said to have long term consequences in organisational effectiveness even as the relationship between the main components in the model were deemed to operate in an open system and therefore have a vice-versa effect on each other (Lundy & Cowling, 1996, Truss *et al.*, 2012). On the other hand, the Michigan model focused on the alignment between HRM practices and business strategies as a way of achieving organisational goals and objectives. In the view of its proponents, there was a need for organisations to clearly align their HR strategies and policies with their strategic goals and objectives if they were to improve their performance (Truss *et al.*, 2012, Mabey & Grame2004). According to Truss *et al.*, (2012) this model was the precursor for the 'best fit' approach to SHRM.

In reviewing the historical development and progression of SHRM, Huczynski and Buchanan (2007) point to both the Warwick model developed at Warwick Business School (UK) by Chris Hendry and colleagues in 1989 and the Bath people; and the performance model developed at University of Bath (UK) by John Purcell and colleagues in 2003, as importantly reflective of influential contributors to development in an European context. The Warwick model focused on wider organisational contexts (i.e., organisational external, internal, HRM and Business strategy contexts) that formed a platform for development and implementation of human resource policies (Huczynski & Buchanan, 2007). The Bath Model is more contemporary in terms of development and focuses on the underlying processes (i.e., the employees' ability, motivation and opportunity to positively contribute to organisational success, and the impact of line managers with respect to the encouragement, respect and trust they show to their supervisees) through which HR policies influence employee behaviour and organisational performance (Huczynski & Buchanan, 2007; Purcell, et al., 2009).

However, in spite of general acknowledgement of the Harvard framework and Michigan models, as well as European contributions to development of the field in form of the Warwick and Bath models, and as influential and powerful in the conceptualization of ideas that underpin SHRM, some of these ideas proposed are not entirely new and have antecedents in earlier management writings on the impact of employees on organisational performance.

Mabey & Graeme (2004) have pointed out the major contributions reflected in earlier works like those of Peter Drucker, who in the early 1950's argued for a well-trained and co-operative workforce that will likely contribute positively to organisations. Burns and Stalker (1994) have also pointed out that in the early 1960's organisations needed to be flexible and possess flexible work forms in order to effectively face competition and deal with business environments that were unpredictable and unstable.

Emerging from these views were theories of work design such as 'quality of working life movement' (QWLM) and job enrichment programmes which were aimed at designing jobs in a way which allowed employees to experience inherent job satisfaction, whilst helping them to be more creative and have higher levels of commitment. On the other hand, there have been ideas and principles emerging from theories and principles developed based on Japanese organisations and settings. Some of these should include 'Just-in-time' (JIT) production and 'Total quality control' (TQC) which focused on addressing production inefficiencies and strengthen quality in the manufacturing process. Mabey & Graeme (2004) argue convincingly that earlier work on how to improve organisational effectiveness and efficiency like the examples given above were important contributors and predecessors to the core ideas and principles of SHRM.

Based on the foregoing, what is apparent from a review of the existing literature is that an understanding of strategic integration between human resource practices, business strategies and how they could benefit organisations were not well developed prior to the proposals of the Harvard and Michigan models (Lundy & Cowling, 1996). Holbech (2009) adds that what is new about SHRM is the combination of ideas and significant emphasis on achieving a required fit between organisational strategies. These earlier models of SHRM provided grounds on which the theoretical underpinning of the link between organisational strategies and human resource strategies could be clearly understood, and from this point the knowledge in SHRM improved.

While Becker and Huselid (2006) highlight that SHRM distinguishes itself from traditional HR management because it focuses on organisational performance instead of individual performances and emphasises the impact of HR systems rather than individual management practices in isolation, providing solutions to the challenges that organisations face. Beaumont (1993) explains that from the historical development of the subject area in the US, HRM most

probably took on the strategic prefix to form SHRM in terms of the coverage and level of planning. The former implying that SHRM is aimed at a comprehensive all-employee coverage in unionised organisations, reflected in significant harmonization of terms and conditions of employment, spread of practices such as performance appraisals to cover all groups as replacement for previous or traditional employment practices which were applied differently based on categorisation of employees into groups. In other words, SHRM should incorporate collective negotiation and agreement for 'blue collar' or 'shop floor' employees and performance appraisals, whilst succession planning and performance appraisals were for 'white collar' or 'non-manual' employees.

The latter referred to the level at which the decisions of an organisations' human resources were made; the importance attached to organisations HR, arising through messages of the value of organisations' human resources, required that HR issues were to be addressed at the highest level of decision making which was normally associated with long-term directions of organisations, normally classed as senior management or top level management (Beaumont, 1993; Nel & Werner 2004). In this light Chang and Huang (2005) have summarised the transition in the development of the term SHRM as evolving from personnel management to traditional human resource management and then to SHRM.

In the context of organisations in Africa, in general and South Africa in particular, it is not very evident in existing literature how SHRM may have developed. Harvey (2002) points to a lack of documented knowledge on human resource management on the continent as a challenge that will face a western manager attempting to establish HRM policies, practices and processes in Africa. On the other hand, Jackson (2002) explains that management principles of African organisations are most reflective of exposure to foreign management education and historical interactions of African countries with foreign powers and corporations dating to the colonial era.

Akinnusi (1991) is of a contrary opinion and points out that many traditional African societies had personnel functions albeit not with the same manner of articulation in which the subject has been presented in a western perspective. He points to practices such as selection of recruits, inductions, training, maintaining discipline and rewarding employees that were evident, especially within armies and administration of kings and other social institutions that existed in traditional African societies. However, the subject testimonial emphasizes the

point that desirable outcomes exists for organisations that apply the SHRM principles correctly, but what is conclusive based on existing literature is that although organisations such as public service departments in South Africa state that their staff should be managed with a strategic view in mind (DPSA, 1997), the desirable outcomes as claimed in SHRM literature have not been clearly proven in these departments yet. In fact, a warning is issued to organisations applying SHRM principles that reflects the sentiment expressed in the prior sentence. The point made here is that *“the fact that someone has a strategy doesn’t mean they are successful in their environment. It simply means they have a characteristic way of behaving”* (Boxall & Purcell, 2008 p.34).

2.3 Theoretical perspectives of SHRM

There are three main approaches that form the theoretical foundations of the SHRM literature, namely universalistic, contingency and configurational perspectives. These perspectives, which obviously have antecedents, were formally articulated by John E. Delery and Harold D. Doty (1996) in response to criticisms that SHRM at the time, lacked a solid theoretical foundation because different models of SHRM perspectives were proposed in the field by different groups of researchers without explicit acknowledgement of the difference between alternative perspectives. Delery and Doty (1996) clearly distinguish between these main perspectives in terms of conceptualisation and the ways these perspectives were to be applied by organisations who sought to achieve specific goals through the strategic management of their staff.

These perspectives are widely acknowledged as the main theoretical perspective in the field, or at least the earliest ones (Armstrong & Baron 2002; Bach, 2005; Boxall & Purcell, 2008; Golding, 2004; Guest, 1997; Marler, 2012; Marchington & Wilkinson, 2003; Paauwe, 2004; Pilbeam & Carbridge, 2006; Richardson & Thompson, 1999; Torrington, *et al.*, 2005).

However, some researchers also point to a resource-based view as an important addition to increase a theoretical understanding of SHRM (Armstrong, 2011, Becker & Huselid, 2006; Bratton & Gold 2007; Boxall & Purcell, 2000, 2008; Mueller, 1996; Wright & McMahan, 1992; Wright, Dunford & Snell, 2001). All the above mentioned perspectives will be further discussed in this section of the review.

2.3.1 Universalistic perspective

The universalistic perspective was derived from earlier work done by the likes of Huselid (1995) and Pfeffer (1994), amongst others. They argued that organisations adopt specific HR practices deemed as ‘best practices’ or ‘high performance work practices’ because of their perceived superiority over other HR practices in order to achieve their strategic goals, objectives and operational performance (Boselie, 2009; Lepak & Shaw, 2008; Marchington & Grugulis, 2000; Rubery, Earnshaw, Marchington, Cooke & Vincent, 2002; Youndt, Snell, Dean & Lepak, 1996). Several lists of ‘best practices’ exists, and among them are the ones popularly proposed by Jeffery Pfeffer (1994) which comprised of HR practices embracing training and skill development, incentive pay, promotion from within, employment security, profit-sharing, performance appraisal, participation in decision making etc, which were believed to bring about desirable outcomes like higher productivity for organisations (Armstrong & Baron 2002; Boxall & Purcell, 2000; Delery & Doty, 1996; and Truss, *et al.*, 2012).

A revised version of the best practices list was provided by Pfeffer (1998) and contained only seven practices deemed to produce profit through people. Prominent among the practices are employment security, selective hiring, self-managed teams and decentralised decision making, extensive training, reduced status distinctions and barriers, extensive information sharing, and high compensation based on performance (Bach, 2001; Becker & Huselid, 1998; & Pfeffer, 1998). There are also variants of the best practice lists like the one proposed by David Guest (1999) which contains 5 practices that include employee share ownership programmes, effective communication, job design, training and careful selection or recruitment of employees (Armstrong, 2011).

This perspective does not specifically study the interdependence of the HR practices (Martin-Alcazar, Romero-Fernandez & Sanchez-Gardey, 2005). In addition, proponents of this perspective promote the ‘best HR practices’ universality’, as a way of achieving strategic goals for all organisations, regardless of features such as size, market of operation, geographic location, culture etc, and this forms the most distinguishing factor of this perspective (Boxall & Purcell, 2000, Marler, 2012). In fact, as Martin-Alcazar, *et al.*, (2005) pointed out, this perspective is the simplest or most basic of SHRM perspectives and its

strength lies in generalisation based on demonstrated capacity of HR policies to improve organisational performance.

However, in the perceived strength of this perspective also lies its greatest weakness as mode of theorizing in SHRM. In comparison with other perspectives it is often criticized as not having a solid theoretical foundation (Guest, 1997; Martin-Alcazar, *et al.*, 2005), having widely varying lists of what HR practices are proposed and termed as ‘best practices’, underplaying the impact of organisational differences and national or even sectoral variations in terms of regulations, management style, cultural norms, etc on organisations, and ignoring the potential financial cost to organisations that desire to adopt these best practices (Armstrong, 2011; Boxall & Purcell 2000; Truss, *et al.*, 2012; Marchington & Grugulis 2000). To remedy some of the challenges posed to HR practices, Purcell, Kinnie, Swart, Rayton and Hutchinson (2009) proposes a focus on the practices designed to build and retain capital and influence employee behaviour in terms of their motivation and empowerment.

Popular SHRM studies that have used this perspective as basis for explaining its impact on organisational performance include Huselids’ (1995) survey which studied the impact of high performance work practices on the financial performance and turnover rate of organisations in the US (Wright, Gardner, & Moynihan 2011) and Arthur’s (1994) study of steel mini mills in the US.

2.3.2 Contingency perspective

The contingency perspective of SHRM is different from other perspectives mainly for the reason that its proponents and supporters place emphasis on the need for consistency or an alignment between the organisation’s HR strategy and policies with other aspects of the organisation such as its business strategy in order to achieve desirable outcomes (Batt, 2007; Bach, 2005; Boxall & Purcell, 2008; Bratton & Gold, 2007; Golding, 2004; Lengnick-Hall & Lengnick-Hall, 1988; and; Rubery, *et al.*, 2002). Opposed to the mere adoption of ‘best HR practices’ as the main criteria of organisational success, its proponents argue that the HR strategies and practice adopted by an organisation must first and foremost reflect the strategic position the organisation presently occupies and strategic direction it intends to go (Youndt, *et al.*, 1996; Marchington & Wilkinson, 2003).

Furthermore, it is argued that the relationship between an independent variable (i.e., human resource management) and a dependent variable (i.e., performance) is moderated by the existence of contingency variables or factors, thus disagreeing that there exists universal best practices that will bring about superior performance under any circumstance for organisations as proposed in the universalistic perspective (Armstrong, 2011; Truss, et al., 2012). In light of the above, the ability of HR practices to effectively impact an organisation's performance depends on how well it fits into the organisation's business strategy. Therefore organisations that consider this perspective must take into consideration factors such as organisational size, location, sector, nature of work etc (Allen & Wright, 2006; Becker & Gerhart, 1996; Boxall & Purcell, 2000; Martin-Alcazar *et al.*, 2005; Pilbeam & Carbridge, 2006).

Beaumont (1993) explained the contingency perspective by saying that organisations have an 'external strategy,' which is a chosen way of competing in its market or field, and an 'internal strategy,' which is its chosen way of developing, deploying, motivating and controlling its internal resources; and therefore from a contingency perspective, the implication of this for an organisation is that both strategies need to be linked if the organisation is to achieve high performance.

This perspective is an upshot of the line thinking presented in the Michigan model created by Fombrun *et al.* (1984), and models derived from this perspective are also popularly referred to as the 'best fit' models (Boxall & Purcell 2000; Richardson & Thompson, 1999) although Paauwe (2004) cites the works of Woodward (1965), Mintzberg (1979), Pugh and Payne (1977) amongst others as earlier mainstream contributors to the development of the perspective. Examples of popular derivative models from this perspective are Miles and Snow's (1978) framework consisting of 'Prospector', 'Defender', 'Analyser' and 'reactors' strategic options and; Baird and Meshoulams' (1998) model that suggests appropriate HR strategies for organisational lifecycle stages from start-up to maturity; Schuler and Jackson's (1987) approach of linking organisation strategies based on Porter's (1985) competitive strategy options of 'innovation', 'quality' and 'cost leadership', with desirable employees behaviour and related human resources practices. All the best fit models mentioned above are discussed in literature derived from the likes of Analoui (2007), Armstrong and Baron (2002), Beaumont (1993), Bratton and Gold (2007), Golding (2004), Legge (2004), Mabey and Graeme (2004), Marchington and Wilkinson (2003), Pilbeam and Carbridge (2006), and Torrington, *et al.*, (2005).

Some of the major criticisms aimed at this perspective and its derivative models include a failure to recognise the need for alignment between employee and organisational interest or even to comply or effectively deal with social norms, legal requirements and other contextual issues that exist in the environment in which organisations operate (Bach, 2005; Boxall & Purcell, 2000, Bratton & Gold, 2007; Marchington & Wilkinson, 2003). Becker and Huselid (2006) describe the contingency perspective and its derivative models as playing an important role in understanding SHRM theory but points that the empirical support or evidence for the HR-strategy fit hypothesis presented in contingency models may not be as strong.

Purcell, *et al.*, (2003) argue that the idea of 'fit' is impracticable because of the difficulty an organisation would face in terms of completely identifying and isolating all the contingencies that influence them; and the ease of changing HR strategies to fit each and every stage in the organisation lifecycle and this is considered as neither straightforward nor seamless because organisations themselves are also bound by factors such as legislation in their views. Bratton and Gold (2007) share the same sentiment stated earlier but specifically added the view that the inability to isolate all contingencies in the strategic decision making process results from managerial rationality because of limited information, time and cognitive capacity.

Boselie (2009) highlighted a significant weakness of the best fit approach as lacking in the attention that is paid to the individual employees' perspective. Truss *et al.*, (2012) similarly argue that organisations have different employee groups and existing best fit models do not take these differences in their proposed HR strategies into consideration and this implies inflexibility and rigidity of the best fit perspective. Paauwe (2004) is of the view that such inflexibility and rigidity arise as a result of an ideological path that HR policies and practices can be mechanistically matched with an organisation's strategy.

2.3.3 Configurational perspective

Marler (2012) indicated that the configurational perspective places emphasis on the interaction of human resource management practices as systems, clusters or bundles to produce organisational level outcomes. It has been suggested that the configurational perspective has emanated from the criticisms of other perspectives. However, the contingency perspective is equally being perceived as too crude and ignorant of important contextual factors that affect organisations' strategies (Bach, 2005; Golding, 2004).

Nevertheless, the proposers and supporters of the configurational perspective of SHRM are firmly holding the view that organisations will be more effective and stand the chance of achieving their strategic goals if they adopt HR systems that incorporate this perspective. They argue that the configuration of HR policies or practices adopting this perspective could lead to the achievement of internal consistency reflecting 'vertical fit' and at the same time achieving external consistency termed 'horizontal fit'. In their opinion, this is a basic requirement for achieving their strategic goals and attaining effectiveness (Boxall & Macky, 2009; Delery & Doty, 1996; Golding, 2004; Lepak & Shaw, 2008; Richardson & Thompson, 1999; Youndt, *et al.*, 1996). Thus, the stated emphasis of this perspective is the existence of internally consistent HR practices within organisations, and this in turn is consistent with environmental and organisational conditions (Boxall & Purcell, 2000; Martin-Alcazar, *et al.*, 2005). This is what distinguishes the configurational perspective from other perspectives of SHRM. Examples of proposers and supporters of this perspective include Dyer and Reeves (1995) and McDuffie (1995), who posit this configuration as "bundles" of HR practices specifically directed at enhancing an organisations' performance. The underpinning notion of 'bundles' is that "HR practices within the HR bundles are interrelated and internally consistent and that is better with respect to the impact on performance because of the overlapping and mutually reinforcing effect of multiple practices" (Armstrong, 2011p.112).

From this perspective, HR practices are deemed to affect the performance of organisations as internally consistent bundle or system rather than as individual practices (Paauwe, 2004). Bowen and Ostroff (2004) describe this focus on the aggregation of HR practices, rather than individual HR practices, and their effects on organisational and individual performance as a systems approach. Examples of bundles that have been proposed and researched in the literature are the 'high performance management approach,' high involvement management work practices (Edwards & Wright, 2001), and 'high-commitment management models' (Armstrong & Baron, 2002; Kaufman, 2012; Marler, 2012).

The high-performance management approach is based on the premise that organisations that want to achieve effective performance culture must create a bundle of practices that include accurate recruitment and selection, relevant learning and development activities, incentive pay and performance management process within a system that is underpinned with appropriate leadership and vision. Such organisations must also engage in bench marking with emphasis placed on decentralised decision making, self management, team capabilities,

fair treatment for present and former employees and engagement with external community so as to build trust and commitment based relationships (Armstrong, 2011, Marathe & Pathak, 2013).

The high-commitment management model is underpinned by the notion that commitment is essential if organisations are to perform optimally. It is noted that high commitment can be engendered in organisations by ensuring the availability of opportunities for career development, training, and flexibility across functions and carefully planned job designs instead of rigid job descriptions as a way of creating intrinsically satisfying jobs. The adoption of this model could lead to the cultivation of flatter organisation structures that reduce hierarchies and status differentials, payment systems that include incentives such as merit pay and profit sharing, reliance on team structures with practices such as team briefing, team working, quality cycles and involvement in the management of quality and so on (Armstrong & Baron, 2002; Boxall & Purcell, 2008; Huczynski & Buchanan, 2007; Kaufman, 2012; Kehoe & Wright, 2013).

The 'high involvement management work practice' model is supported by Pil and McDuffie (1996) and is underpinned by the notion that organisations will be able to achieve better performance if they adopted internally consistent bundles of HR practices. Basic features of the bundles of HR practices normally should incorporate suggested programmes, job rotation, decentralised quality efforts, problem-solving groups, and involvement activities among others in the view of Yang (2012) and Marler (2012). It has been suggested that organisations pursuing high-involvement management models should treat employees as partners in the organisation and in this way the employees could develop more and more interest as they see their views and voices on organisational issues respected. Thus, the opportunity is created for the building of mutual understanding between employers and employees in the areas of organisation's mission, values and objectives (Marler, 2012; Torrington, *et al.*, 2005; Yang, 2012).

Truss *et al.*, (2012) point out some weaknesses in the notion of 'bundles.' One major weakness that has been identified by scholars in the literature is that is that bundles can possibly engender some form of conflicts. For example, employment security and performance-related pay during difficult periods like market downturn and recessions could generate some form of uneasiness among the employees.

Armstrong (2011) has said that there is significant difficulty in deciding which practices are to be linked together and that research evidence that a bundle is better than other bundles is lacking. Be that as it may, Bach (2005) highlight that the dominant message arising from research conducted in the US is that there is a positive association between HR practices that are coherently bundled and the performances of organisations. Some studies such as the one conducted by Kehoe and Wright (2013) indicate positive correlation between employee perception of high performance HR practices at job group level and affective organisational commitment (.62**, $p < .01$) and organisational citizenship behaviour (.23**, $p < .01$). This appears to support propositions of this perspective to the effect that inherently consistent bundles of HR practice can have a positive impact on an organisation's performance, especially if we are to agree with the likes of Dyer & Reeves (1995) and Purcell *et al.*, (2009), who classify such employee attitude and behaviour as essential for high performing organisations.

2.3.4 Resource-based view perspective

The resource-based view (RBV) perspective of an organisation is a significant area of development in the theoretical understanding of SHRM (Allen & Wright, 2006; Becker & Huselid 2006; Boxall & Purcell, 2000, 2008; Boselie, 2009; Torrington, *et al.*, 2005; Wright, *et al.*, 2001). According to Bratton and Gold (2007), the RBV perspective explains superior performance as resulting when an organisation possesses inimitable resources and advanced technology. This perspective, when applied to SHRM, draws insight from the initial work of Selznick (1957), Penrose (1959) and Barney (1991) who emphasised the creation of unique and enviable clusters of human and technical assets that are able to take advantage of market opportunities and also deal with threats faced by the organisation in the market or sector in which it operates (Bratton & Gold, 2007; Priem & Butler, 2001).

Bratton and Gold (2007) explain that it was Selznick (1957) who led the way in the development of the RBV perspective by highlighting distinctive competence as the major factor distinguishing the performances of organisations. Bratton and Gold (2007) have also identified the contribution made by Penrose (1959) who pointed out the heterogeneity of organisations and the value of distinguishing between 'physical' and 'human resource' they may possess, while drawing attention to the issues of knowledge and capabilities of

management teams. Barney (1991) has been noted to have contributed to this development by emphasizing that rather than focussing exclusively on the external market position, organisations needed to carefully analyse their skills, capabilities and characteristics that make them unique.

The works of Penrose (1959) and Barney (1991) are more commonly acknowledged contributors in the literature of RBV (Armstrong, 2011; Becker & Huselid, 2006; Boxall *et al.*, 2008; Golding, 2004; Priem & Butler, 2001; Wright & McMahan, 1992). Wright & McMahan (1992) adds specifically that in addition to the primary emphasis of uniqueness and immutability of resources emphasised by earlier contributors to the RBV knowledge, resources must add 'positive' value to the organisation or firm.

The RBV perspective enlarges the SHRM boundaries beyond the focus of external factors as emphasised in the contingency perspective to focus on internal firm resources (Allen & Wright, 2006; Wright, *et al.*, 2001). There is an overt emphasis on the 'uniqueness' of the assets as a central theme in the perspective, as reflected in an organisation's effort to cultivate valuable firm-specific characteristics and significantly reduce opportunities that will allow these assets and advantage they generate from being duplicated by other organisations (Boxall & Purcell, 2000, 2008; Paauwe, 2004; Roos, Fernstrom & Pike, 2004; Wright *et al.*, 2001).

Armstrong (2011) adds that the aim in the RBV perspective is to create a more 'intelligent' and 'flexible' organisational workforce. Armstrong (2011) is of the view that such a goal is reached by ensuring the recruitment of highly skilled, talented and experienced people and by ensuring continual development and nurturing of this human capital. In this light, it follows that aligning the interest of the organisation with those of its talented individuals and groups will extend their talent overtime, and this objective will be central in the organisation's HR strategy thus providing grounds in which the advantage created can be retained and imitation assets prevented (Boxall & Purcell, 2000). Bratton and Gold (2007) point out the strategic importance of leaders and managers capabilities in this perspective as playing a significant role of effectively harnessing, developing and directing the organisation's assets, especially its human assets, if organisations are to achieve superior performance and competitive advantage.

Boxall and Purcell (2000) identify frameworks developed on this premise, such as the one advanced by Leonard (1992) that construct interdependent dimensions that include employee skills and knowledge, technical systems, managerial systems (e.g., important HR policies to recruit, develop and motivate employees), values and norms as capabilities that could enable an organisation to be distinctive.

The RBV perspective in SHRM identify HR practices, whilst not rare and impossible to copy, as helping the organisation to build its human capital and induce behaviours that create an advantage (Allen & Wright, 2006; Wright *et al.*, 2001). In addition, Wright *et al.*, (2001) conceptualize the term 'people management systems' within the RBV perspective to draw attention towards the impact of multiple practices instead of single practice on employees, and emphasis on 'people' rather than 'HR' being the central theme in SHRM focus. In this way, RVB expands its boundaries beyond the control of the HR function to include practices in areas of 'communication', 'work design,' 'culture', and 'leadership' amongst others as important SHRM features that interdependently impact on employees behaviours via their competencies, cognitions and attitudes. These interdependent components constitute 'people management system' which evolves continually and is difficult to imitate, and enables the organisation to generate advantage over time.

Research using this perspective includes that conducted by Wright *et al.*, (2001), who pointed to the empirical studies of Koch and McGrath (1996) on the relationship between HR planning, and staff practices, and labour productivity in the creation of valuable strategic assets, and Boxall and Steeneveld (1999) longitudinal case study of how human resource advantage enabled an engineering consultancy industry in New Zealand to gain a superior competitive position at a particular period but lost that competitive position over a period of time because their human resource advantage had been copied by its competitors. Truss *et al.* (2012) argue that a weakness of RBV is that, although widely appealing in construction and propositions, any emphasis on 'competitive advantage', which is apparent in this perspective means that its applicability to public sector organisations is questionable as some of these organisations may not seek advantage. Another criticism is that there is a drought of empirical studies testing RBV propositions and this may imply difficulty in testing the perspective or finding relevance especially at individual level employee level. Others such as Priem and Butler (2001) and Marler and Fisher (2009) highlight that a weakness in the RBV theorising is that it does not pay enough attention to the external context of the organisation.

In conclusion, Allen and Wright (2006) suggest that the relationship between strategic management and HRM can be strengthened or better explored by breaking away from SHRM research preoccupation on basic HR practices and include other key resources being researched in strategic management but possessing potential to be directly influenced by HRM with combination of new theories that have potential relevance to SHRM. This is in line with Boselie (2009) call for a broader and better definition beyond the usual description of the subject area as a set of HR practices that may be aligned or not aligned to business strategies of organisations.

Truss et al., (2012) identify theories such as social exchange theory, human capital theory, job performance theory etc as having being incorporated by some research in providing theoretical explanations on how SHRM impact performance of organisations. Boselie (2009) introduces new institutionalism and strategic balance theory (unification between new institutionalism and RBV with acknowledgement of the importance of market and institutional mechanism) as newer approaches of theorising in the field. Although these newer theories have not been discussed in full detail in this literature review, they serve as additional emphasis indicative of the trend of incorporating management theories borrowed from alternate sources and now used in SHRM literature and research.

2.4 Dimensions of SHRM

To further enhance our understanding of the theories guiding this study it is expedient to consider the different dimensions of SHRM in this section.

2.4.1 SHRM and performance outcomes

Performance is generally described as too complex to measure because of the variety components within its make up and the lack of a homogenous measure for it (Camilleri & Van der Heijden, 2007). Moynihan and Pandey (2005) argue that attempt to measure organisational performance is not based on a consensus of a best approach but rather on recognition of underlying choices and consequential trade off.

SHRM literatures and research generally indicate SHRM practices improve organisational performance and competitiveness and based on the available research, its impact on organisational performance is viewed to occur in a variety of levels or categories of outcomes

(Dyer & Reeves, 1995; Mello, 2014; Truss *et al.*, 2012; Wright, Gardner & Moynihan, 2003). Earliest categorisations of SHRM performance outcomes like Dyer and Reeves (1995) identify employee outcomes (i.e., attitudes and behaviours), organisational outcomes (i.e., productivity and quality), financial and accounting outcomes (i.e., expense, revenue, profitability), and market-based outcomes (stock price).

A more contemporary categorisations of SHRM performance outcomes fall into individual, unit, organisational and financial levels of outcomes (Truss, *et al.*, 2012). According to Truss *et al.*, (2012), the individual level of indicators of SHRM outcomes include measures of employee attitudes (e.g., commitment, job satisfaction, engagement. etc.), behaviours (for example, levels of absenteeism, organisational citizenship behaviour, etc.) and performance at an individual level (e.g., employee productivity); and that at *unit or group level*, indicators include measures of performance such as quality and the productivity of a team or function within an organisation. According to Roos *et al.*, (2004) there is a dominant belief within the RBV perspective of SHRM, which is that the performance of individual employees impact on or affect the performance outcomes achieved by the organisation as a whole, and thus the organisation's overall performance. They add that this belief serves as motivation for researchers to focus on individual level measurement of SHRM outcomes as a significant step in understanding associations between SHRM and organisational performance.

Truss *et al.*, (2012) point out that at the organisational level, indicators include measures on organisational characteristics (e.g. agility, organisational learning, innovation etc.) and organisational performance measures such as productivity and quality of the whole organisation; and, that at the financial level of measurement, indicators include cost control, stock prices, sales, and shareholder values. Camilleri and Van der Heijden (2007) agree with the categorisation or structuring of work performance and outcomes along the lines of individual, group and organisation oriented systems; however, they highlight that that the components of performance using an organisation oriented system perspective include organisational citizenship behaviour, loyalty, commitment, employee-company identification etc.

From the available research, it can be observed that some studies concentrate on a particular level of measurement with its associated indicators, whilst others, such as the study conducted by Huselid (1995) on the impact of high performance work practices, concentrate

on a mix of indicators from different levels. Importantly, the literature strongly suggests that SHRM has significant potential to impact on organisational performance. Studies conducted by Darwish and Singh (2013), Huselid (1995), Huselid, Jackson and Schuler (1997), Watson Wyatt Worldwide (2006), reveal achievement of financial level outcomes such as profitability, cash flow, financial performance and market value, with their study of 30 key North-American listed companies showing that HR practices were associated with 30 percent increase in market value. And the studies conducted by Arthur (1994) found positive impact on organisational level outcomes like organisational productivity and quality.

Paauwe (2004) distinguish between UK and US approaches to studying the subject area by explaining that the majority of US academic research adopt's a 'shareholder perspective' which has strong emphasis on financial performance indicators such as 'return on investment.' On the other hand UK based academic research is described adopting a 'stakeholder perspective' that concentrate majorly on stakeholders such as employees, trade unions and society at large and emphasis on outcomes such as commitment, motivation, satisfaction, trust etc. The US-based academic research in the area is generally described as paying insignificant attention to such stakeholders.

The approach to measurement of performance adopted in this study is through employees' assessment/perception of their work related attitudes and behaviours at an individual level of performance outcomes. Truss *et al.*, (2012) & Dyer and Reeves (1995) note the acceptability of such perceptual level of performance in SHRM literature and research conducted in a diversity of organisations. Empirical studies in the field on such measures have been found to correlate with objective measures of performance, enjoying moderate to strong positive associations. This literature review draws insight mainly from studies that include indicators or measures mainly from individual and unit or groups levels, in line with the objective of the study. That specifically measures of attitudes, behaviours, individual performance and group or unit level performance outcomes.

2.4.1.1 Findings of research on the impact of SHRM on individual and group outcomes of performance

The predominant consensus stemming from existing literature suggests that HR practices are at least weakly related to the performances of organisations (Purcell, et al., 2009). The

research evidences of its impact on individual and group level of performance outcomes significantly describe this relationship as a positive one. Observing the impact of SHRM practices on measures of attitudes, research such as Applebaum, Bailey, Berg and Kalleberg's (2000) study of forty-four manufactory plants in the US found that use high performance work practices across different organisations was associated with increased levels of trust, job satisfaction and commitment.

Findings from a survey carried out by Guest, Michie, Sheehan and Metochi (2000) on HR professionals and chief executives in 835 private sector organisations showed that HR practices were positively correlated with employee commitment and contribution, which in turn was positively associated with productivity and quality of service levels. An earlier study also by the same researcher on a sample of employees from 2 000 workplaces also shows a strong association between HR practices and employee attitudes and work performance (Armstrong, 2011).

Research on the impact of SHRM practices on measures of behaviour, such as Guthrie, Flood, Liu and MacCurtain (2009) a study of 165 organisations, found that high performance work practices had a positive impact on attendance and retention. A study by Wright et al., (2003) of the impact of progressive HR practices on individual levels of commitment and productivity involving over 5 000 employees in 50 business units found that these HR practices related to higher levels of commitment and productivity. In reviewing the impact of SHRM on group level performance indicators, McDuffie (1995)'s study of association of HR bundles with quality and productivity in manufacturing plants is an important example of SHRM research in this level of performance indicators. Specifically, McDuffie (1995) found that bundles of high commitment human resources practices such as employment security, skills building, partly contingent performance pay and so on contributed to employee commitment and discretionary efforts on problem solving within line management. McDuffie (1995) found that there was a positive perception amongst workers of an alignment between interests of the employees and those of the employer. Thompson's (1999) study of the impact of high performance work practices in 623 UK aerospace organisations found differences in the success levels experienced by these organisations based on the number of HR practices and proportion of workforce covered.

Although the impact of SHRM practices on individual and group level of performance appear to be irrefutable, questions still exist about the strength of empirical evidence. For instance, Guest *et al.*, (2003) in a study of 366 UK based companies point out that although there is association between HR practices in use and performances of these organisations, there was no convincing suggestion that these HR practices resulted in improved corporate performance. Earlier criticism of SHRM performance research by Guest (1997) suggests that although existing studies in the field indicate that there is an association between HR practices and different levels of performance, the 'cause and effect' on the mechanism linking them was largely ignored. In response to such criticism, Purcell *et al.*, (2003), based on the result of large scale studies undertaken in the U.K., conclude that HR practices have an impact on organisations through various mechanisms which translate to performance. Among the mechanisms are positive attitudes to HR policies and practices that are associated with levels of satisfaction, motivation and commitment and operational performance.

Importantly, McDuffie (1995) notes that although HR practices and policies may contribute to the performances of organisations, this was most likely to occur only when employees were motivated to utilise their skills and knowledge through discretionary effort. Some researchers identify a possible reason why SHRM practices fail to achieve their goals at times as attributable to incompetence and ineffective ways on implementation by managers and leaders, which reflects in a gap between what is intended in the practice and what is actually implemented and invariably achieved (Mabey & Graeme, 2004; Legge, 2004). This reflects similar findings indicated in studies conducted by the CIPD (2009) which indicate the role of managers in inhibiting the successful implementation HR strategies.

Other researchers like Purcell *et al.*, (2009) although agreeing that ineffectiveness in implementation of HR policies and practices could be a reason that organisation fail to attain the performance they aspire for; but they also emphasise the importance of leadership behaviour or interpersonal relationship between leaders and subordinates within the organisation as a key component of what they describe as a 'psychological contract'. It is said that psychological contact constitute the interpersonal relationship between leaders and their subordinates and goes a long way to positively or negatively influence the attitudes and behaviours of employees which in turn impacts on the performances of organisations.

Drawing from different sources Purcell et al., (2009) highlight 'leadership behaviour' as a critical component of HR system that is not adequately addressed (Uhl-Bien, Graen, & Scandura, 2000), and view managers as playing a significant role as agents transferring organisation values and climates (Ostroff & Bowen 2000). They categorise the exchange between leaders and members, and the influence of managers as a key part of 'people management' (Tekleab & Taylor, 2003).

The public sector departments in South Africa SHRM strategy generally place emphasis on improving public services by focusing on the strengthening of HR planning and organisational strategy, HR practices, utilisation and development of employees, and employee health and wellness (DPSA, 2008): however, less attention has been paid to other aspects such as the leadership aspect of SHRM. For this reason further studies, especially within public service departments in Africa, are warranted as the interplay between such SHRM variables has received minimum attention in the literature and in terms of research efforts.

2.4.2 SHRM and leadership (SHRML)

The concept of managerial leadership plays an important role in explaining the relationship between SHRM and performance. Uhl-Bien et al., (2000) and Uhl-Bien and Maslyn (2003) posit that effective interpersonal relationships between managers and their subordinates results in positive outcomes that are beneficial to organisational performance. Bettencourt (2004) explains that managers seek to influence the situational goals and behaviours of their followers through the use of different leadership behaviours.

The longitudinal study by Purcell et al., of 12 organisations in the UK revealed the importance of leaders and managers in the relationship, with their roles ranging from providing direction, vision, values or mission to implementing and enacting of HR policies, as playing a significant role in determining employees' job satisfaction, motivation, job discretion and commitment levels in relation to the overall organisational performance. Huczynski and Buchanan (2007) are of the view that an employees' perceptions about how he or she is treated by supervisors and managers constitute a psychological contract which will be reciprocated in favourable outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, motivation etc.

The CIPD (2009) study points out that although the research evidence suggests that HR practices have an impact on performances of organisation they do not achieve this in isolation of factors such as positive management, relationship with supervisors, and supportive environment with strong values which are very important if desirable attitudes and behaviours link with the performance of organisations. Boselie (2009) supports this view, and comments that a more up to date study of the subject area must move beyond the traditional research focus of how best HR practices impact organisational performance or even link to business strategies, and embrace broader concepts such as line management involvement.

The literature review has identified key factors if an organisation decides to adopt an 'investment oriented approach' for their human resources. The literature on SHRM features factors that constitute an asset of strategic importance to organisational success, and Mello (2014) identifies 'management value' as one of the significant factors affecting this decision as senior management values and actions that mostly determine ultimately which organisational assets are invested in.

Wright et al., (2001) share similar views in their RBV literature, pointing out that an organisations' ability to gain competitive advantage is also largely dependent on their acquisition and 'value' of their resources, of which their human assets are also an important constituent. Analoui (2007) explains that organisations' leaders and managers are significant features in SHRM frameworks and models because their values, thoughts and beliefs normally influence contents of organisational strategies, and the way they implement these strategies plays a significant role in determining if the organisational goals are successfully achieved. Bowen and Ostroff (2004) in similar breath, identified research studies that explored how different leadership styles created different climates, which in turn led to the behaviours and attitudes of its group members.

Drawing insight specifically from studies on public institutions in the US, Forbes and Lynn (2005) identified that the performance of these types of organisations appeared to be influenced via a variety of features i.e. administrative structures, managerial tools and management values and strategies. They specifically viewed management values and strategies as constituting of leadership, employee empowerment, and management choices regarding goals, missions and priorities etc. as important determinants of performance within

the public sector domain. In South Africa the Department of Public Service (DPSA) summarises specific steps to be taken by managers and supervisors within the public domain in a bid to improve public service performance. Drawing insight from a strike perception survey commissioned by the Minister of Public Service, managers and supervisors within the public service were specifically advised to recognise and appreciate hard work and efforts of their supervisee and provide sufficient support (including, facilities, equipment, speedy repairs) so that they can play their role in improving internal communication (DPSA, 2007).

In more theoretical terms, Truss *et al.*, (2012) identify the social exchange theory as one way of explaining the leadership dimension inherent in the link between SHRM and performances in organisations, in the sense that if employees are treated well by their employers there will likely be a reciprocation of high levels of performance and commitment. According to Purcell *et al.*, (2009), the social exchange theory stresses the importance of leadership behaviour in framing or influencing employees' perception of the support provided by the organisation; and that in return, employees' own work attitudes and behaviour could enhance reciprocal relationship.

To elaborate this point using empirical means, Purcell *et al.*, (2009) found that respondents' perception of the people management efforts and behaviours of their front-line managers in surveyed UK organisations were significantly associated at the 0.01 level (2 tailed) with several important employee attitudinal outcomes; that is, employee commitment (0.41**), job satisfaction (0.52**), motivation (0.36**) and job discretion (0.27**), and that the respondents' relations with their managers was very important to the development of organisational commitment and the most important factor in determining the different levels of job satisfaction and discretion observed in the surveyed organisation. Further findings from that particular study revealed that less positive attitudes and experiences stemming from the employee relationship with the managers were characterised by evidence of 'poor leadership behaviour' such as lack of 'recognition and appreciation' from management and 'respondents never being asked by their managers for their views.'

If public service departments are to be effective and expected to achieve the level of performance desired, the importance of effective leadership with the SHRM framework cannot be understated. Becker and Huselid (1999) reviewed five leading organisations in the US, renowned for their excellence in the management of people, and revealed that some of

these highly successful organisations had central focus on 'people' as a significant source of competitive advantage, as well as a strong leadership and management culture that embraced that belief and transmitted it into appropriate actions, practices and policies as essential elements of their HR strategies. Examples of leadership and management-related actions and practices derived from the review included their active roles in the creation of a comfortable and stimulating work environment's that encourage creativity, providing sufficient support and communication (visioning) to stimulate greater sense of 'employee ownership' in terms of their jobs, and significance of their roles and performance in the successful implementation of organisational strategy, and displaying leadership and management behaviours that contribute significantly to the quality of the work environment because of equal emphasis or balance of 'how work is done' and 'what is achieved' (Becker & Huselid, 1999).

Purcell et al., (2009) summarise some factors that support the importance of managers' behaviour to include the proximity of working relationships between the managers and those whom they have direct responsibility for managing on a regular basis, arising from emphasis in the 1980s that 'management of people' be increasingly integrated within all levels of management rather than as sole responsibility of a particular function. Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch and Rhoades (2001) explained specifically that supervisors or managers are able to influence employees, as employees will associate favourable or unfavourable treatment to the actions of both the supervisor and organisation. This likely occurs because employees see supervisors as agents of the organisation and thus supervisors' directions and evaluations are seen as reflective of the organisational actions rather than exclusively the supervisors' own inclination (Shanock & Eisenberger, 2006). In a summary of findings from research conducted on the impact of leadership, Tang, Robertson and Lang (1996) highlighted that leadership is an important predictor of organisational commitment and leadership actions played a significant role in generating commitment amongst employees, while Bontis and Fitz-Enz (2002) stated that the development of senior management leadership capabilities was essential in reducing turnover rates and retaining key employees.

Bratton and Gold (2007) have highlighted how leaders and managers within the organisation influence others as forms place a significant focus on the link between SHRM and the performance of the organisation. Such ideas draw upon insights from the RBV perspective. How such ideas can best be harnessed is a primary concern and in the best interest of organisations. It is suggested that those who lead and manage organisations have the

appropriate style of leadership that will effectively develop its human assets and help them to cultivate the right kind of attitudes and behaviours that are essential for superior performance. Furthermore, Bratton and Gold (2007) point out that there are two paradigms of leadership that dominate SHRM literature and research. These two paradigms are '*transformational leadership*' and '*transactional*' leadership. However, Bass and Avolio (1993) argue that the most effective leaders display both 'transformational'- and 'transactional' leadership styles. This study and its related literature concentrates mainly on transformational leadership, as it is deemed to have significant impact on discretionary behaviour (Antonakis, Avolio & Sivassubramariam, 2003), and this appears to be of primary interest in SHRM research and this study.

2.4.2.1 Transactional and Transformational Leadership

Transactional and transformational leadership are significant research constructs in management studies (Nielsen, Yarker, Randall & Munir, 2009). These constructs were originally introduced by Burn in 1978 as operating within a single continuum. However, empirical studies conducted on the constructs showed that they could appear as two separate dimensions (Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999). Bratton and Golds' (2007) views on leadership emphasise the importance of such distinction as they explain the inter-play between manager and subordinate in HR strategies. They explain the outcomes from such inter-play to include 'direct' or 'process-based' outcomes which arise from managers monitoring and controlling the workers' performance to ensure efficiency; and 'indirect' or 'outcome-based' outcomes which arise only if the manager is able to engage the intellect, commitment and cooperation of their subordinates to achieve the desired result.

Bass (1985) argued that transformational and transactional leadership contained several dimensions; and he identified seven leadership factors originally, which he later revised, based on results from a survey conducted in the US army, to six factors, namely '*charisma*,' '*intellectual stimulation*,' '*individualised consideration*,' '*contingent reward*,' '*management-by-exception*' and '*laissez-faire*' leadership within a six factor model (Avolio *et al.*, 1999; Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bycio, Hackett & Allen, 1995; House & Podsakoff, 1994; Yammarino & Bass, 1990). According to Bass (1985), '*charisma*' refers to the ability of the leader to give clear sense on purpose and energise followers to identify with the articulated vision; '*intellectual stimulation*' implies that the leader encourage and engage followers to

actively question standard problem solving methods and seek ways to improve them; 'individualised consideration' means that the leader actively seek to understand the unique need of each follower and ensure that they reach full potential; 'contingent reward' implies that the leader ensures that the followers clearly understand the expected level of performance and the reward they stand to receive for attaining the expected level of performance; 'management-by-exception' means the leader actively engages in activities to monitor task execution of followers and provide corrective measures as may be required, and; the 'laissez-faire' leadership factor is described as a reactive leadership style, with the leader showing significant resistance to making decisions.

According to Rubin, Munz and Bommer (2005) transformational leadership is the most active and effective form of leadership as it ensures a close working relationship between leaders and followers, and that these followers are motivated to perform beyond their transactional agreement. Transformational leadership focuses on heightening the consciousness of collective interest among the organisations' members and help them to achieve their goals through the leaders' ability to inspire and encourage followers, and stimulate their creativity (Bass, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1993; Humphreys, 2001). Transformational leadership is specific in its emphasis on the leader who engages this style of leadership. Such leaders are visionary, enthusiastic and have an inherent ability to motivate subordinates (Ogbonna & Harris, 2000). Antonakis *et al.*, (2003) highlights from existing literature that transformational leadership is characterised by a leader's ability to influence followers or subordinates to move beyond their self interest so that their unit and organisation can achieve optimal levels of performance. In the view of Zhu, Chew and Spangler (2005, p.40), "*much of the transformational leadership literature stresses the cognitive and affective relationship between leader and organisational members and stresses the differences between leadership and traditional management or administration of impersonal systems.*"

It is generally argued that transformational leadership is applicable at all organisational levels (Avolio & Bass, 1995) and that it has significant capability to build and develop the levels of trust and motivation required for organisations' workforces to reach their full potential, which cannot be achieved by depending on a transactional model leadership alone (Avolio, *et al.*, 1999). According to Leslie and Canwell (2010) leadership does not pertain to an individual in a senior role but rather all people across organisations that are involved in leadership activities.

Distinctly, transformational leadership contains the specific dimensions, intellectual stimulation (encouraging employee creativity), inspirational motivation (creating a picture of an optimistic future and securing employee buy-in in that vision), ascribed charisma (creating a sense of empowerment), individualised consideration (specific attention to the needs of the employees) (Avolio, *et al.*, 1999; Humphreys, 2001; Rafferty & Griffin, 2004, 2006; Tepper & Percy, 1994; Whittington, Goodwin & Murray, 2004). Despite the different dimensions in the transformational leadership, it can be collapsed and measured as a single variable. Studies that used the approach of single measurement variable include those carried out by Podsakoff, Mackenzie, Moorman and Fetter (1990) and Rubin, Dierdorff, Bommer and Baldwin (2009).

Empirical findings indicate that transformational leadership can have significant positive impact on organisations. Bass (1999) points out that transformational leadership is potentially correlated with higher levels of commitment, trust, motivation and performance in organisations. Walumbwa and Lawler's (2003) survey of employees in the banking and financial sectors from three emerging economies, namely China, India and Kenya, revealed that transformational leadership may be effective across different cultures and had a significant ($p < .01$) positive correlation with organisational commitment (.41), satisfaction with work in general (.45), satisfaction with supervisor (.52), and satisfaction with co-workers (.31).

Other studies conducted by Rubin *et al.*, (2009) also found significant association (.54**, $p < .01$.) of leadership transformational behaviour and employee commitment. Results from a survey conducted by Zhu *et al.*, (2005) revealed that the transformational leadership behaviour of CEOs had a significant positive association with organisational outcomes (.57, $p < .01$) and significant negative association with absenteeism levels (-.16, $p < .01$). Other empirical findings show that transformational leadership behaviour is linked to overall employee performance (Yammario, Spangler & Bass, 1993).

Findings from Garcia-Morales, Jimenez-Barrionuevo and Gutierrez-Guiterres' (2011) study of automotive and chemical sector organisations indicated that transformational leadership had a significant and positive association with organisational learning and organisational innovation, and impacted on organisational performance through these means. In Dvir, Eden, Avolio and Shamir's (2002) experimental study of military officers, they found that leaders

who received transformational leadership training had more positive impact on their followers than those who did not receive the training. Whilst regression analysis from Nguni, Sleeper and Denessens' (2006) study of primary school teachers in Tanzania revealed that three transformational leadership dimensions: charismatic leadership, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration, had strong effects on the organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour of the teachers.

Leadership and management behaviours also feature in the South African governments' strategy to transform public services in the country and make it more efficient. Part of the efforts made so far include the introduction of the Senior Management Service (SMS) in 2001, which consisted of employees from director-general, deputy-director, chief director and upwards.

Cameron (2009), highlight that a significant reason behind the South African DPSA's decision to create the SMS, was that the capacity of the public service staff to perform tasks more efficiently, should keep up with technological changes and successfully engage in new ways of thinking around processes, as these skills were extremely limited. The DPSA (2003) highlighted the need to achieve the objectives of the public service; via capable, committed, strong leadership and management; as a strong motivator for the creation of the SMS which served as recognition of the important input management contributed towards the efficiency and effectiveness of the public service. However, a detailed description of the kind of leadership behaviour that is required to really achieve the objectives of the public service is lacking.

Notably poor leadership is said to have a significant negative impact on organisations. Results from Haenisch's (2012) study of US public sector employees identified poor supervision and management, and poor communication as some of the major factors limiting the employees sampled in the study. While the likes of Halle (2003) and the National Academy of Public Administration (2003, 2004) identify lowered job performance, inability to retain good staff, amongst others, as some of the challenges an organisation could experience as a result.

2.4.3 Employee attitudinal outcomes and discretionary behaviour

2.4.3.1 Introduction

A fundamental aim of SHRM is to enable organisations to make the appropriate strategic decisions that address the critical issues that relate to their employees (Brewster, Carey, Grobler, Holland & Warnich, 2008; Holbeche, 2009; Nel & Werner, 2004; Mello, 2014). These decisions are important because they normally have major and long term impact on the overall success of organisations, and determine if an organisation encourages the right kind of behaviour and levels of commitment and motivation required for its success (Becker, Huselid & Ulrich, 2001; Torrington, et al., 2005). Bowen and Ostroff (2004) indicate that HR systems influence employee attributes, importantly employee attitudes and behaviours, which in turn produce desirable organisational outcomes such as productivity, financial performance and competitive advantage. Mello (2014) identifies the sources of employee value as not only arising from the technical knowledge and skills, but also include learning ability, decision-making capability, team work, motivation and most importantly commitment. In this sense an employee's attitude and behaviour form an important link between an organisation's strategy and desirable or actual performance, and HR activities or practices along with other organisational characteristics serve the purpose of eliciting the required employee attitudes and behaviours that are most essential to the effectiveness of the organisation (Allen & Wright, 2006; Kehoe & Wright, 2013; Wright & McMahan, 2011; Youndt et al., 1996).

Employee work attitudes and behaviours are socially constructed based on how they interpret their work environment, which can also be significantly influenced by other factors such as the attitudes and behaviours of the leaders or managers in that work environment or organisation (Rubin, et al., 2009). According to Purcell et al., (2009), constructs such as organisational commitment, job satisfaction, perceived organisational support, and organisational citizenship behaviour are very important attitudinal and behavioural outcomes that organisations must seek to influence to achieve higher performance, with the latter attitudinal constructs identified as antecedents of organisational citizenship behaviour. They add that attitudinal outcomes such as employees' levels of commitment, job satisfaction and perceived organisational support generally affect their discretionary behaviour which in turn impacts organisational effectiveness, productivity and overall performance.

Discretionary behaviours themselves are seen important, as affecting effectiveness of organisations in terms of the speed, care, innovation, teamwork efforts, general helpfulness,

inventiveness etc and withdrawal of such behaviours by employees, especially on a large scale, is detrimental to organisations (Purcell, et al., 2009). Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (2006) describe the outcomes of discretionary behaviours such as high organisational citizenship behaviours in organisations as hugely beneficial in terms of productivity, saving of resources, better team or work group coordination and related outcomes, adaptability and stable organisational performance, to mention a few examples.

2.4.3.2 Attitudinal outcome: Job satisfaction

A commonly used definition of job satisfaction is a *“pleasurable and positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experience”* (Locke, 1976, p.1304). Job satisfaction is an important construct in scholarly research and management practice (Morgeson, Aguinis, Waldman & Siegel 2013; Thompson & Phua, 2012). According to Mello (2011) employees’ level of job satisfaction forms an important component in evaluating HR, with 90% of fortune 500 organisations in the United States, Canada and Europe using employee satisfaction as a metric to evaluate their HR operations.

Job satisfaction is also described to have significant effects on organisations. For example, Moynihan, Boswell and Boudreaus’ (2000) study found that job satisfaction had the strongest influence in comparison with organisational commitment dimensions on executive withdrawal and performance in their survey containing 10 000 executives on the database of an executive search firm. Research evidence also indicates that job satisfaction can impact the performance of organisations by influencing the commitment levels and discretionary behaviours of its employees (Lepine, Erez & Johnson, 2002; Organ & Ryan, 1995; Purcell, et al., 2009).

In the same light Brewer and Selden (2000) categorise job satisfaction as an important individual level factor that affect the organisational performance of public institutions such as federal agencies in the US. A unique study by Briggs and Swailes (2006) on permanent and temporary (agency) workers support this view: their results showed that job satisfaction, organisational commitment and how employees were valued, were significantly correlated for both groups of workers regardless of their status of employment.

A meta-analysis of the predictor of organisational citizenship behaviour by Organ and Ryan (1995) also reveals that job satisfaction had a stronger relationship with organisational citizenship behaviour than with in-role performance, especially for non-managerial and non-

professional employees. The link between job satisfaction and organisational commitment is also supported empirically. Lepine's et al., (2002) meta-analysis also highlights job satisfaction as a statistically significant predictor of organisational citizenship behaviour. For example results from Kanwar, Singh and Kodwani's (2012) study of information technology and information technology enabled services, indicated that job satisfaction had a significant positive association (0.58^{**} , $p < .01$) with organisational commitment and a significant negative relationship (-0.43^{**} , $p < .01$) with turnover intention, in other words reduced turnover intentions.

In a study that contained a sample of 6 900 federal government employees in the US, Park and Rainey (2007) found that job satisfaction had significant associations with affective ($.61^{**}$, $p < .01$), normative ($.38^{**}$, $p < .01$), continuance ($.17^{**}$, $p < .01$) dimensions of organisational commitment. Aydogdu and Asikgil (2011) also found a similar positive association with affective, normative and continuance organisational commitment dimensions in their study of employees from organisations in the production and service sectors of Turkey.

Results from Markovits, Davis, Fay and Dick's (2010) study of a sample of 617 employees in the public and private sector of Greece revealed that when public sector employees experienced increased levels of extrinsic and intrinsic elements of job satisfaction they tended to develop stronger affective and normative commitments toward their organisation than their private sector counterparts. Similar positive impacts of job satisfaction were also found by Rehman and Waheed (2011) with their study showing a positive correlation (0.51^{**} , $p < .01$) between job satisfaction and job performance for a sample drawn from the public sector.

It is generally agreed that variables such as pay, promotion, co-workers, supervisors and the nature and characteristic of the work itself are antecedents of levels of job satisfaction (Gibson, Ivancevich, Donnelly & Konospake, 2003; Judge & Huselin, 1991). Particularly, leadership and managerial behaviour are also judged to impact upon the level of job satisfaction experienced by employees. A study by Purcell *et al.*, (2009) found that a relationship with the 'frontline manager' was the most important factor explaining the variation in job satisfaction. In the same breath, Lok and Crawford's (2004) study of 327 managers from Hong Kong and Australia revealed that a supportive leadership style had

positive effects on the job satisfaction of employees in work cultures that were both innovative and considerate.

Nielsen et al., (2009)'s findings revealed a statistically significant relationship (.37, $p < .01$) between transformational leadership and job satisfaction in their cross-sectional survey of healthcare professionals. Findings by Podsakoff *et al.*, (1990) indicated that transformational leadership behaviour is also empirically linked to high levels of employee satisfaction, particularly satisfaction with supervision. Findings from Park and Rainey (2007) also reveals a very strong and significant relationship (.71**, $p < .01$) between transformational leadership and job satisfaction. Results from Braun, Peus, Weisweiler and Frey's (2012) study of academic employees and a team from a German University revealed a positive relation between transformational leadership and job satisfaction of the individual employees (.63**, $p < .01$) and team performance (.32, $p < .10$). While within the public sector specifically empirical studies such as Yang, Wu, Chang and Chien (2011) on 300 officers in the Taiwanese military reveal that high levels of subordinate perception of transformational leadership in management style of their superior increased commitment levels, and was related to higher level job satisfaction indicated by these subordinates.

Job satisfaction, based on available literature, seem to split opinion on whether it is related to the performance of organisations. For example, Koys' (2001) study found that employee satisfaction plays a significant role in predicting profitability and customer satisfaction, while Rucci, Kirin and Quinn's (1998) study indicate that a 5 percent increase in employee satisfaction influences customer satisfaction and revenue growth by 1.3 and 0.5 percent respectively. On the other hand, Guest (1997) argues strongly that the finding of association between employee satisfaction and performance is weak, and while indicating that companies can be described as highly successful it may not necessarily be the organisations in which employees enjoy working. In contrast to such views, Brewer and Selden (2000) point out that although job satisfaction may not be strongly linked to individual employee performance, their study revealed that it interacted with other organisational factors that were relevant to the overall sustained success of organisations.

Finally, some literature suggest that the job satisfaction may be low in the public sector, and that employees in the public sector may even experience lower job satisfaction than their counterparts in other sectors (Durst & DeSantis, 1997; Jayaratne, 1993; Schneider & Vaught,

1993). For example Wang, Yang and Wang (2012) found that public sector employees had lower job satisfaction in comparison with private sector employees in Taiwan. However, a research finding by Gordon (2011) counters the suggestion of low job satisfaction in the public sector institutions. Her results revealed that 91% of her study sample, municipal clerks across the US, reported being satisfied or very satisfied with their jobs.

2.4.3.3 Attitudinal outcome: Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment (referred hereafter as OC) is a multi-dimensional construct that implies the employees' belief and acceptance of the goals and values of an organisation, and his/her willingness to apply considerable effort for that organisation, and desire to remain or maintain membership in that organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991; Purcell, et al., 2009). Eisenberger, Fasolo, and Davis-Lamastros' (1990) summarised views of OC indicate that it emphasises the employees' shared sense of unity and values with the organisation, which in turn is of primary importance in employee absenteeism, work effort, and turnover, and impacts the overall performance of the organisation.

According to Allen and Grisaffe (2001) strongly committed employees have a greater intention to stay than those who are weakly committed to the organisation. Allen and Meyer (1990) and Meyer and Allen (1991) categorise OC as consisting of affective (emotional attachment), normative (obligatory attachment) and continuance (the employee perceives leaving the organisation as disadvantageous for them and for that reason remain) dimensions is common and has been reflected in the works of the likes of Camilleri and Van der Heijen (2007), Lumley, Coetzee, Tladinyane and Ferreira (2011), Park and Rainey (2007) and Somers (2009) to mention a few. Other researchers like Balfour and Wechsler (1991, 1996) identify 'affiliation', 'identification' and 'exchange' as the dimensions of OC.

Some literature and research findings suggest that OC for public sector employees may be lower in comparison to their counterparts in other sectors. For example Goulet and Frank's (2002) study of OC across public, private, and non-profit sector employees found that public sector employees had the lowest OC levels in comparison with their counterparts in other sectors. In Lyon, Duxbury and Higgins (2006) a comparison of OC amongst employees in private, public and para-public sectors in Canada found that OC was highest for private sector

employees, whilst public sector employees were found to be less committed to their organisations.

The levels of OC displayed by employees have significant implications for organisations. For example, one of the key findings from a study carried out by Bontis and Fitz-Enz (2002) was that the OC of employees positively influence business performance. Meyer and Allen (1991) are of the view that high levels of commitment, especially affective commitment, relates to higher levels of service performance by employees. Employee OC is also deemed as something that can affect the quality of customer service provided by employees, based on a general argument that work attitudes of employees affect their loyalty which may invariably affect the organisation's customers satisfaction level in terms of its products or services and their reaction (Allen & Grisaffe, 2001). Customers' satisfaction promotes customer loyalty.

It is also believed to be strongly linked with employees' willingness to exert discretionary efforts or extra-role performance (Purcell, *et al.*, 2009). Camilleri and Van der Heijen (2007) support this view and they add that committed employees were likely to exhibit extra-role behaviours such as creativity or innovation which is important for organisational success. Mello (2014) adds that a lack of employee commitment may contribute to high employee turnovers and high intentions to quit organisations. This in turn may result in significant loss of valuable skills, knowledge, abilities and even a loss of investments in terms of training and skills development provided by the organisation to the employees. Thus OC is an important reason for the introduction of HR policies as an organisation aim to increase the levels of commitment among employees and reap associated positive outcomes (Camilleri & Van der Heijen, 2007).

Empirically, results such as those reported by Morin, Vandenberghe, Boudrias, Madore, Morizot, and Tremblay's (2011) study showed that a positive relationship exists between the commitment of the sample to their organisations, supervisors, co-workers and customers with organisational citizenship behaviours by the same classification. Kanwar *et al.*, (2012) also found a significant negative relationship (-0.48^{**} , $p < .01$) between OC and turnover intentions. Findings from Somers' (2008) study of hospital nurses revealed that affective commitment and normative commitment affected psychological well-being at work and that their combined influence resulted in the lowest levels of job stress and carry-over stress in the study. The Lumley *et al.*, (2011) cross-sectional survey of four information technology

companies in the KwaZulu-Natal province of South Africa indicated a significant association between OC and the employee job satisfaction levels of their derived sample. Findings from Currivans' (1999) study suggest otherwise and conclude that the relationship between OC and job satisfaction was spurious or false for a study sample derived from public schools in an area of the US.

Furthermore empirical evidence also appears to suggest that leadership styles and management behaviour within organisations can impact the commitment levels of employees. Guest and Conways' (2004) study revealed that supervisory leadership was strongly associated with organisational commitment and amongst the most important factor, associated with work satisfaction. Kidd and Smewing (2001) found that supervisory behaviour i.e. giving feedback, goal setting, trusting and giving employees authority to do their job made employees more committed to their jobs. Wallace Wallace, Chernatony, and Buil (2012) indicated in their study that employee perception of considerate leadership behaviour likely fostered their affective commitment or emotional attachment ($\beta = .47$, $t=5.66$) to the organisation and normative commitment ($\beta = .49$, $t=5.90$), but reduced continuance commitment ($\beta = -.49$, $t= -.20$). Wallace et al., (2012) explain that considerate leadership was likely to build a sense of obligation to remain with the organisation.

Studies conducted by Bycio et al., (1995) found that transformational leadership was linked to organisational commitment and turnover intentions. Bettencourt (2004) found that core transformational leadership behaviour only had an indirect positive relationship with organisational commitment through leadership exchange quality. The Vandenberghe, Bentein and Stinglhamber (2004) longitudinal study in which they investigated the usefulness of distinguishing employees' affective commitments to the organisation, the supervisor and the work group, found that the 'commitment to supervisors' of the study sample had a direct effect on job performance whilst organisational commitment indirectly impacted on the job performance through commitment to the supervisor.

Findings from studies based in public sector organisations and government departments also present interesting results. A perception survey commissioned by the Minister for the Public Service and Administration, on the 2007 public service strikes in South Africa, found high levels of uncommitted employees within the public service, with thirty-five percent (35%) of public servants described as uncommitted to neither their jobs nor their employer and only

thirty-one percent (31%) of workers were committed to both their jobs and their employer (DPSA, 2007).

Whittingtons' et al., (2004) study indicated a significant association (.46**, $p < .01$) between transformational leadership behaviour and affective commitment in a sample containing respondents from government agencies and departments. Again, findings from the Park & Rainey (2007) study of federal government workers in the US also revealed that transformational leadership has a significant relationship with affective (.36**, $p < .01$), normative (.28**, $p < .01$), continuance dimensions (.10**, $p < .01$) of OC. Steijn and Leisink (2006) also found in their study of Dutch public sector employees that the leadership style of supervisors and managers, especially with regards to the use of coaching, feedback and encouraging employee involvement, was associated with increased levels of affective commitment.

Findings from study by Balfour and Wechsler (1991, 1996) of a large government human services agency indicated that employees' satisfaction with supervision was associated with commitment and that the employees' desire to stay with the organisation was to a large extent influenced by their perception that their supervisors cared about their well-being and trusted in their capability to carry out their duties. Firhana and Santoso (2013) found similar results in their study of civil servants. Dick and Meltcalfe (2001) also found similar results in their study of police officers and civilian support staff in the UK, highlighting specifically that the way these individuals were managed and supported had a strong impact on their commitment levels. A study in the Australian public sector by Perryer and Jordan (2005) revealed that supportive leadership affected organisational commitment of public sector employees. Informative as these studies could possibly be it is desirable to look beyond OC to other factors in organisational effectiveness and performance; and, this study considers perceived organisational support as vital.

2.4.3.4 Attitudinal outcome: Perceived organisational support

Perceived organisational support (POS) refers to the perception of employees about whether the employer values the contribution of the employee as well as how much the employer cares for the employee (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchinson & Sowa, 1986). This employee evaluation of employer appreciation, is argued to be reflected in the nature of the help and

support the organisation provides its employees (Erdogan & Enders, 2007; Hutchinson, 1997a, 1997b; Hutchinson & Garstka, 1996; Vandenberghe *et al.*, 2004.). Setton, Bennett and Liden (1996) are of the view that POS results from exchanges between the employee with various agents and aspects of the organisation, which in turn impacts various outcomes. Wayne, Shore, Bommer and Tetrick (2000) simply describe POS as the exchange relationship between the employee and the organisation. Specifically an organisations' positive discretionary actions that benefit their employees are likely interpreted as evidence that the organisation cares about their employees' wellbeing (Eisenberger *et al.*, 1990).

According to Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli and Lynch (1997) high POS would imply that employees are able to satisfy approval, social identity and self esteem needs, and create an expectation that if the employee exhibits high levels of performance in their normal and also perform extra-role behaviour on behalf of the organisation, that it will be recognised and rewarded. Epitropaki and Martin (2012) highlight that an employee's perceptions of high POS may be indicative of the ease of their access to various resources (e.g., work materials, information, affiliation, socio-emotional support etc.) within the workplace, while a low perception indicates that access to resources is constrained. A review of the literature in the field by Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) indicates that high levels of POS can increase the job satisfaction levels of employees, reduce their stress, limit employee counterproductive behaviour (i.e., absenteeism and voluntary withdrawal behaviour) increase commitment and performance levels, and increase employees' efforts towards their organisations.

Supervisor support is identified as a very important antecedent of POS, highlighting its role in framing the perception of employees about value that their organisations place on them, because supervisors are often viewed as acting on behalf of the organisation as agents and conveyers of evaluation of employees to upper management (Aselage & Eisenberger, 2003; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). For example results from Epitropaki and Martin's (2012) study of a sample of six manufacturing companies and a service company in Britain revealed that transformational leadership was positively correlated with POS (.36**, $P < .01$).

POS is also described as an important antecedent of organisational commitment and it is argued that employees that feel supported by their organisation, or if POS is rated positively or highly, it will reciprocate through their affective commitment (Eisenberger *et al.*, 1986;

Setton, et al., 1996; Vandenberghe, et al., 2004). Setton, et al., (1996) also found that POS was associated with the organisational commitment (.58**, $p < .01$.) in their study of hospital staff located in major metropolitan area in the Southern United States. Colakoglu, Culha and Atay (2010) also found that POS had a significant and positive association with the affective (.577**), continuance (.605**) and normative (.283**) dimensions of organisational commitment in their study of five-star hotels in Turkey. While Hekman, Bigley, Steensma and Hereford's (2009) results reveal a significant negative association (-.33**, $p < .01$) between perceived organisational support and continuance commitment of physician employees in a large non-profit health maintenance organisation in the US.

Purcell et al., (2009) point out that high POS will not only link up with high levels of organisational commitment but also impact on the discretionary efforts of employees. Empirical studies like the one conducted by Mathumbu and Dodd (2013) on nurses in a hospital of the Eastern Cape province of South Africa found that POS, the extent to which employees felt valued and were nurtured by their employer, was positively linked to positive OCB or discretionary behaviour ($r = 0.23$, $p < .01$), thus agreeing with the above view. Waynes' et al., (2002) study also revealed significant positive association not only with organisational commitment but also with OCB (.22**, $p < .01$). Howes, Cropanzano and Grandey's (2000) study of individuals and teams working in a large public sector organisation in the US revealed that POS was not only associated with organisational commitment, job satisfaction and turnover intention, but when directed at individuals it was the best predictor of those variables and when directed at a team it was a significant predictor of team commitment, team cohesion and the best predictor of team performance.

On the other hand, Coyle-Shapiro and Conway's (2005) study of 347 public sector employees in the South-East of England produced a somewhat contrary view in the sense that their result revealed that POS had a significant effect loyalty ($\beta = .23$, $p < .01$), it had a non-significant relationship with civic virtue ($\beta = .07$, p non-significant) OCB dimensions. In a similar type of study Moorman, Blakely and Niehoff (1998) found similar result in their study with POS having a significant relationship with OCB dimensions, interpersonal helping ($\beta = .29$, $p < .01$), personal industry ($\beta = .19$, $p < .01$) and loyalty ($\beta = .32$, $p < .01$), but had no significant relationship with individual initiative ($\beta = .10$, $p > .05$).

Overall empirical studies appear to indicate that high levels of POS have significant benefits for organisations. Erdogan and Enders (2007) found in their study of supervisors that when a supervisor had high POS the positive relationship of the exchange between the supervisor and his/her supervisees, and job satisfaction was stronger. Shanock & Eisenberger (2006) also found in their study that when supervisors had high POS it was reciprocated with more supportive treatment for those they manage. Eder and Eisenberger (2008) highlighted that POS also impacted on counterproductive work behaviours, and found that when POS was rated highly or positively, it eliminated the relationship between high levels of absenteeism displayed by work groups and individuals in that group in a manufacturing organisation, and reduced the relationship between withdrawal behaviours (i.e., neglecting job tasks etc.) of work groups and individuals in that group in a retail sales organisation; thus indicating that high levels of POS had a strong preventative effect on the contagion of both withdrawal behaviour and tardiness. Results from Eisenberger's *et al.*, (1997) study revealed that POS had a strong significant association ($.60^*$, $p < .01$) with job satisfaction but they were distinct constructs. Colakoglu *et al.*, (2010) also found similar association ($.533^{**}$, $p < .01$) with both variables in their study.

It is empirically supported that when organisations undervalue the contributions and well-being of their employees it has a negative impact or reduces their POS and invariably decreases the employees' perceived obligation to the organisation, their affective organisational commitment, their performance of standard tasks, extra role behaviour and organisational involvement (Eisenberger, *et al.*, 1997). It was found in a study of a sample that included public high school teachers and police officers that low POS employees averaged twice as many absent periods in comparison to high POS employees (Eisenberger, *et al.*, 1990). Eisenbergers' *et al.*, (2001) study also revealed that POS is positively associated with the employees' obligation to care about the organisation and help it reach its objectives. Other outcomes identified as impacted by POS levels include performance, job-related effect, job involvement, and a desire to remain (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Howes *et al.*, (2000) argues that a lack of organisational support does not only impact the individual but also work teams and cause the interest of team members to wane and thus decrease team performance and effectiveness. Based on the available literature and empirical studies on POS, its importance to organisational success cannot be underestimated.

2.4.3.5 Discretionary behaviour: Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)

Organ (1988, P.4) defines OCB as an “individual behaviour that is beneficial to the organisation is discretionary, is not directly or explicitly recognised by the formal reward system, and in aggregate contributes to the effective functioning of the organisation”. According to Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine and Bachrach (2000) OCB falls within the extra-role behaviour category, which is behaviour beyond requirement of the job (Podsakoff, et al., 2000). In analysis of SHRM-RBV perspective literature this kind of extra-role behaviour category is seen as an important feature and must be shown individually and collectively by members of the organisations’ human capital pool, if that organisation is to fully achieve competitive advantage (Wright, et al., 2001). This discretionary behaviour is a product of an individual employee or group of employees’ ‘free will,’ thus not owned by the organisation, and as a result the decision to engage or display this behaviour is entirely controlled by the employee or employees (Boxall, et al., 2008; Podsakoff, Whitting, Podsakoff & Blume, 2009 Wright, et al., 2001; Purcell, et al., 2003;). According to Camilleri and Van der Heijen (2007) OCB may also be categorised as an informal performance measure, which takes into account efforts made by the employee to go beyond formal organisational requirements and to behave altruistically.

Roos et al., (2004) citing the work of Bailey (1993) suggest that if organisations are to benefit from the maximum potential of their human resources they would have to make significant efforts to influence skills and motivation to elicit the discretionary efforts of their employees. They identify features such as HR practices, leadership, culture etc. as some important features of the organisation that need to be considered carefully and strategically, if the right results are to be achieved. Their view bears similarity to the views stated by Wright et al., (2001) explaining the ‘people management system’ within the RBV perspective of SHRM.

OCB is described as being very important for organisations because it affects their efficiency and profitability, thus it is encouraged that organisations lead or influence citizenship behaviour among their employees (Karadal & Saygin, 2013). OCB is also a multi-dimensional construct and its dimensions are constructed differently by different researchers. For example, Organ (1988) and Organ (1995) identify ‘altruism’ (helping others), ‘courtesy’ (respecting and consulting others), sportsmanship (coping with inconvenient situations or not complaining), ‘conscientiousness’ (compliance to rules) and ‘civic virtue’ (concern for organisation matters), as the distinct dimensions of OCB. Blakely, Andrews and Moorman

(2005) identify 'individual initiative' (communication that encourage individual and group performance), 'interpersonal helping' (helping co-workers), 'loyal boosterism' (promoting the organisation's image) and 'personal industry' (performance beyond normal role expectation).

Research findings from the field show that OCB are very important for the effectiveness and efficiency of teams and the organisation as a whole (Organ, 1995; Podsakoff et al., 2009). For example, Runhaar, Konnermann and Sanders (2012) found that OCB directed at individual employees and the organisation as a whole was positively related with work engagement levels of school teachers. Mathumbu and Dodd (2013) also found a high and significant correlation between OCB and work engagement of nurses in a South African hospital. Podsakoff et al., (2009) found high levels of OCB lowered absenteeism rates. OCB is argued to promote the effective functioning of organisations in the sense that high levels of OCB are deemed to create situations in which employees have high vested interest, willingly complying with the rules and regulations that guard the organisation's functioning and will go beyond the formal requirement or expectations to ensure that the organisation is successful (Robbins & Judge, 2007).

Purcell et al., (2009) are of the view that constructs such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and leadership supportiveness are important antecedents or drivers of discretionary behaviours. Particularly with regards to the impact of leadership on OCB, studies conducted by Podsakoff et al., (2000) found that transformational leadership was significantly linked to OCB. Studies conducted by Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang and Chen (2005) confirm this relationship, indicating that OCB was related to organisational leadership. Balfour & Wechler (1991, 1996) in their studies also highlight the role of supervisors in directly or indirectly impacting the willingness of employees to make extra efforts on behalf of the organisation.

Transformational style of leadership in relation to OCB in organisations is the way that leaders that show this kind of leadership style are able to cause or influence followers to exhibit extra-role performance or simply to go beyond expectations (Podsakoff, et. al., 2000; Lopez-Dominguez, Enache, Sallan, & Simo, 2013). According to Bass (1999), the leader is able to positively influence the values, attitudes, perception and expectations of the followers. Lopez-Dominguez et al., (2013) found that there were mediated relations between an

individualised consideration dimension of transformational leadership and dimensions of OCB, with two of its sub-dimensions, supportive leadership and developmental leadership, having a significant positive relationship with change orientated OCB (.34 and .31 respectively, at a significance level of $p < .001$.) in their study of higher-education employees. Oguz (2010) found a positive and meaningful relationship between a transformational leadership style and organisational citizenship behaviour ($r = .387$, $p < .005$).

Results from Whittington's et al., (2004) study of organisations from a variety of industries, that included government agencies and departments, revealed a significant positive relationship (.34**, $p < .01$) with OCB. Other studies that found a positive association between leadership and OCB included Nahum-Shani and Somech (2011). The Kim (2012) study of full-time public sector employees in South Korea provides an alternative view about the impact of transformational leadership on OCB, with her results indicating that there was no significant relationship between OCB and transformational leadership.

2.5 Public Service Institutions in South Africa

In the face of an increasingly changing world characterised by globalisation, hyper-competitiveness, rapidly changing technology amongst other dynamic trends in the socio-economic context, much emphasis has been placed on organisations to adopt strategies that help organisations effectively to respond to these changes and proactively seize initiatives in various markets (Holbeche, 2009; Analoui, 2007). This need is not exclusive to organisations in the private sector, as even organisations in the public sector are also expected to adopt the right kind of strategies that will enable them to effectively respond to these changes or challenges in the form of meeting increased customer demand for good public service, and government demand that public service departments provide appropriate internal platforms that will enable nations to attain a competitive advantage in the face of intense economic rivalry between nations (Holbeche, 2009; Jackson, 2002). This view is reflected in the South African Governments' attempt to reposition the human resource management function as a source of strategic support to departments as a way to transform the public service and deliver governments' socio-economic objectives (DPSA, 2007).

Notably, public service institutions rank amongst the largest employers of human resources compared with other sectors in many nations today, and this appears to be clearly the case for

African countries. Akinnusi (1991) identifies public sectors as the largest employers of labour in most African nations. For example, the public service departments in the North-West Province of South Africa collectively employed 79,790 employees as at June 2013 (Department of Finance, NWPG 2013). The strategic importance of public service employees to the transformation of public service cannot be underestimated. For example, it has been reported that the national departments and provincial administration employed 1.2 million people in the year 1997, and this accounted for more than 50% of the entire public expenditure in that year (Akinnusi, 2008; DPSA, 1997). Cameron (2009) highlights the number of people employed in the public service at 1,204,525 as at March 2008.

2.6 Public service HR strategy

The efforts or attempts to improve public service delivery in South Africa using an appropriate SHRM practice is very evident. The governments' white paper on *human resource management in the public service* in the 1990's strongly promotes integration and interaction between public service strategic planning goals and objectives, and its human resource strategy in order to provide adequate responses to the needs and demands of its residents in terms of public services. With a clear objective of transforming the public service, the South African government sought to create a public service in which employees were treated as a valuable resource. The strategy focused on service delivery outcomes and accountability of their actions, reflected on managerial responsibility for results and resources utilised at all levels of operation, and finally emphasised a professional, transparent and ethical way of providing its services to the public (DPSA, 1997b).

Akinnusi (2008) identified laws enacted by the South African Government such as Employment Equity Acts No.55 of 1998, Skills development Acts No 97 of 1998 and Skills Development levies No.9 of 1999 amongst others, as laws introduced to radically change the areas of HRM and labour relations, with the purpose of promoting work, well managed and skilled workforce in equitable work places. The Public Service Commission (2010) identified human resource and organisational strategy and planning, human resource practices, human resource utilisation and development, employee health and wellness, as some of the key areas identified by the DPSA for improvement.

Van der Westhuizen (2005) described this SHRM approach as one that sought to align the human resource management function, practices, management tasks, skills and strategies with the vision, mission, and objectives of the public administration to provide result orientated solutions and specific outcomes for clients. In this adopted approach, human resource specialists were expected to have clear understanding of how to derive desirable and specific human resource outcomes for the public service as a way of answering the important question of whether human resource management could realistically impact positively on public service performance and service delivery, HR practices such as performance management linked with contingent pay, stringent and cost effective recruitment strategies to identify and select the best person for jobs within the public service, increased opportunity for internal promotion, introduction of more flexible working initiatives (e.g., part-time work, job sharing) for employee development, and diversity management were identified as essential in the process of transforming the public service, and these bears close resemblance to seven HR best practices advocated by Pfeffer (1998).

Public sector departments' managerial staff were also directed and expected to behave in ways that created a culture across the public service in which high level of employee performance could be anticipated, thrive and be translated into positive overall deliverables to all clients or customers of the public service. Van der Westhuizen (2005) points out that to achieve this, the Department of Public Service and Administration identified core managerial competencies such as leadership, people management and empowerment, strategic capability, client orientation and customer focus, programme and project management, information management etc. According to Cameron (2009) a significant requirement that was emphasised in the South African government's hope of improving public service performance, was that managers provided better leadership. This reflects the DPSA's (1997) placing of more emphasis on some of the management principles that are directed at the creation of flexible work environments within the public service. Such management principles takes into consideration operational needs of public service departments and the needs of people employed in the public service, and support efforts made towards achieving efficiency and effectiveness in the public service.

SHRM literature suggests that for organisations to achieve higher levels of performance within a SHRM-performance framework there must be an appropriate management behaviour and leadership style (Bratton & Gold, 2007). Results from studies conducted in public sector institutions in the US, such as federal agencies; found that management related variables e.g. supervisory proficiency, satisfaction with higher management, culture, leadership behaviour etc were very important factors that influenced the performance and effectiveness of these types of organisations (Brewer, 2005; Brewer & Selden, 2000). The best performing agencies according to Brewer (2005, p.505) had “skilful upper-level managers, strong cultures that value employees and emphasise the importance and meaningfulness of the agency’s work, and policies that empower those employees.

2.7 Public service performance

Performance is a significant concern for governments around the world and forms a dominant feature when accountability for conducting public business is discussed (Forbes & Lynn, 2005). The *White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery* (RSA, 1997) fully embodies this view, as the South African Government set effective and quality service delivery as a priority area. The reasons are quite obvious, simply put; the public sector plays a significant role in the socio-economic development of a nation and creates a foundation where it can attain global competitiveness.

Public sectors in sub-Saharan African have a history of poor performance. Many Sub-Saharan African nations’ public sector performance and management systems in the post-colonial era were often criticized as being more focused on increasing expenditure in socio economic areas (health, housing, education etc) than quality of services provided, or its citizens’ satisfaction with services or products provided (Jackson, 2002). Jackson (2002) points out that some challenges these public institutions on the African continent faced, were characterised as stemming from high levels of bureaucracy that impacted its flexibility and agility to respond to arising citizen demands, their highly authoritarian leadership and management styles, an absence of vision and performance orientation in a system where staff lacked job descriptions and their own performance were not evaluated, and poor structure with most of these institutions being described as overstaffed etc.

In more recent times, Van der Westhuizen (2008) points to other significant features that have characterised or even impeded the performances of public sector institutions in South Africa, such as breakdown in wage negotiations resulting in public service strikes in 2007, and a significant increase in number of grievance cases recorded in 2006, and symptomatic high levels of employees' dissatisfaction within the workplace. Nyambegera (2002) is of the view that employees not feeling valued could impact negatively on their job satisfaction and job involvement and ultimately lead to talent wastage. Regardless of some of these challenges discussed above, the literature points out that some SA public service commission (PSC) directed surveys and even annual reports have indicated a reasonably high level of citizen satisfaction with services provided by some public departments (DPSA, 2007; PSC, 2006), although casual observation may suggest otherwise or at least not at the degree of improvements reported, and with same optimism the findings of the surveys have been communicated (Cameron, 2009; Myrick, Dawhood & Maphiri, 2008). Regarding the efficiency of the public service departments, the PSC (2011) pointed out that although departments spent near to 100% of their budgets but only achieved 59% of their output in the 2009/10 and 2010/2011 evaluation cycles suggesting inefficiencies in their expenditures.

Public service strikes normally involve huge number of employees and have potentially affected the economies of countries negatively, with South Africa providing a clear example. Visser (2007) used statistics from the Department of Labour's annual report on industrial action that argue that public sector employees accounted for 71% of the days lost due to strikes in 1996, and that for the period from 1999 to 2003 industrial actions (which includes strikes, lockouts, stay-aways and stoppages of work) in the public sector were the highest when compared to all other sectors in South Africa, displaying a shift in previous trends. The Department of Labour's 2011 report on industrial action in South Africa indicates that there was a decrease in the total number of strike activities experienced in the country for that year in comparison with 2010 mainly because a public service strike was averted with the signing of a wage agreement (DOL, 2011). Though an assessment of public service departments the PSC (2011) noted that development of a HR policy, and reporting on its compliance, appears not to have generated the outcomes expected: that of a proper recruited, managed and well-motivated public service. The traditional reliance on HR policy or standard management practices has neither maximised human potential nor generated creative work places.

Despite a decline in public service strikes, there are frequent occurrences of public service delivery protests in many areas of the nation, which in turn, may be reflective of the fact that services being rendered to the public are inadequate or ineffective. According to Pretorius and Schurink (2007), an indication of whether the proposed internal transformation process of the public service was successful, was in the way recipients of these services perceived and experienced the services or products provided to them. This typifies what Wright et al., (2001) describes as organisations and firms having access to valuable human capital but still remaining unable to make any strategic impact because of organisational defects either from poor work design or mismanagement of people. With this in mind, wage agreements as in the case of South Africa, should not be solely seen as a source of improving performance in the public service; yes they may reduce the number of employee strikes in the sector, but they do not solve the problem of performance fully as the occurrences of service delivery protest will testify.

That said, the issue of poor performance in the South African public sector is not hidden from the local and international community. Van der Westhuizen (2005) highlight findings from a 1998 survey by the Institute for Democracy in South Africa (IDSA), such as 73% of respondents believed that public sector officials were involved in corruption and 46% believed that the government was wasting taxpayers' money, as an indication of community feeling towards the public sector.

In 2007 the World Economic Forum (WEF) global competitive report revealed that South Africa slipped five places to 45th position out of 125 countries, with average to low scorings in areas of public sector administration and service delivery such as quality of public school education, diversion of public funds due to corruption, wastefulness of government spending, amongst others, identified as contributory factors in the drop. In the latest WEF global competitive report (2013 – 2014 edition) South Africa ranked in the 53rd position out of 148 countries compared, with Mauritius overtaking it as the highest ranked African country in the index. Notably the index, after seven years from 2007, worrisomely records very low scores and poor ranking for South Africa in many areas such as diversion of public funds (99th position), perceived wastefulness of government spending (79th), quality of educational system (146th position), labour-employer relations (148th), health of workforce (133rd), labour market efficiency (116th) amongst others (WEF, 2013).

Other international reports such as the African Economic Outlook Region Report for Southern Africa specifically identifies some significant challenges facing public sector management and institutions such as the occurrences of numerous, often violent, protests over poor service delivery, and points to the Auditor General Report that found only 13 out of 343 South African municipalities were fully cleared by audits in the 2011 – 2012 fiscal year (ADB, OECD, UNDP & UNECA, 2013).

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter highlighted the position of the SHRM and public service performance globally and in South Africa. Attention was drawn towards the review to research findings as they relate to principles and theories about the topic covered. The available literature and research suggest that the way people or employees are managed goes a long way in determining the level of performance that organisations experience. Effective people management, especially as undertaken by managers and leaders in organisations can influence desirable attitudinal and behaviour outcomes of employees, which in turn can be translated into effectiveness and performance for the individual employee or group and the organisation at large. The reverse of this, maybe via a lack of skills, knowledge and commitment to people management, can impact negatively on an organisation. What is also evident from the available literature is there is a significant gap in the available literature and research about the South African public service with regards to the interaction of the different variables addressed in this literature review. Accordingly, this study's contributions fill some of this knowledge gap.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHOD

3.1 Introduction

The primary goal of this study was to test the research hypotheses in a framework that relates to strategic human resource management leadership dimension (SHRML) and public service performance in the North-West (NW) Province as stated in chapter one. The main variables of interest are an independent variable, SHRML operationally defined as *leadership behaviour*, performance operationally defined as the dependent variables, *Job Satisfaction (JS)*, *Perceived Organisational Support (POS)*, *Organisational Commitment (OC)* and *Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)*.

This study's research hypotheses are:

- (1) NWP Public service departments' employees will report high job outcomes (JS and POS) and organisational outcomes (OC and OCB);
- (2) There will be significant positive correlation between SHRML and job outcomes (JS and POS) and organisational outcomes (OC and OCB);
- (3) SHRML will significantly predict job outcomes (JS and POS) among public service employees in the North-West Province;
- (4) SHRML will significantly predict organisational outcomes (OC and OCB) among public service employees in the North-West Province.

The method employed in the study to test the research hypotheses is presented in this chapter. The chapter is organised into seven sections namely research philosophy, research design, selection of participants, measuring instruments, data collection and analysis, and ethical considerations.

3.2 Research philosophy

A research philosophy refers to a position of understanding of what knowledge entails (ontology) and how knowledge can be gained (epistemology) (Benton & Craib 2001; Hindess, 1997). According to Crotty (1998) the research philosophy or philosophical position informs all the elements of a study's research method, for example design, method of data collection, analysis, etc. and creates a platform on which the chosen research method can be justified. Put succinctly, "methodology is a product of philosophy" (Hindess, 1997, p.3).

This study adopted positivism as its philosophical position and this approach is based on a philosophical understanding. This study adopts an empiricism/positivism philosophical perspective, which is based on the assumption that this philosophical perspective entails an ontology that emphasises that knowledge is made up of what is directly observable, hence that which is observed and experienced by senses can be regarded as knowledge and hence worthy of study. The epistemology emphasises objectivity and that knowledge can be derived from experimental or comparative analysis: concepts and generalisation are summaries derived arising from interactions between experience and the object of experience, and between observation statements and theoretical statements (Hindess, 1997; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). A positivism philosophical foundation lends itself effectively the use of different types of surveys and the use of quantitative analysis to answer research questions and hypothesis (Crotty, 1998; Blaikie, 1993, 2000). Thus it is deemed appropriate for answering the research hypothesis posed in chapter one of this study.

3.3 Research design

This study used a cross sectional survey research design that entailed collecting quantitative data on more than one case at a single point in time or simultaneously in a survey research. The design was chosen because it was most appropriate in achieving the descriptive and explanatory objectives within the set time frame for completion of the study. It also gives a unique opportunity to summarise the facts about large populations by studying the whole population or a significant representative subset in order to make statistical inferences (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Christensen, Johnson & Turner, 2011; Gray, 2009; Hindess, 1997). NW public service departments were anticipated to have a large study population at the commencement of the study, thus this research design approach was deemed appropriate for answering the research questions and addressing the hypotheses posed in the study.

Buckingham and Saunders (2004) and Zikmund (2003) emphasised that surveys in particular are most appropriate in studies that aim at finding out or measuring how prevalent a phenomenon is, how the phenomenon varies across a given population and for explaining why the phenomenon takes the form it does. In addition, another significant advantage of using surveys is that it provides an opportunity to use a standardised instrument that can be applied in the same way to research participants, especially when the unit of analysis or

respondents are individuals and are capable of completing a questionnaire without assistance (Zikmund, 2003). These advantages provided a motivation for the study as the research assumption was that the study participants were literate enough to complete a self-administered questionnaire.

3.4 Selection of participants

3.4.1 Study population, sampling frame and units of analysis

The study population from which the study sample was selected was provincial public service departments in the NW province of South Africa. The sampling frame was the list of provincial public service departments provided by the Office of the Premier for the North-West Provincial Government (NWPG). The list had eleven (11) provincial public service departments in total, namely: Departments of Agriculture and Rural Development; Economic Development, Environment, Conservation and Tourism; Finance; Health; Human Settlement; Local Government and Traditional Affairs; Public Works, Roads and Transport; Sports, Arts and Culture; and Social Development, Women, Children and People with Disabilities.

The unit of analysis or participants included a sample of all the employees working for the provincial public service departments of the NW Province. In June 2013 the provincial headcount of employees in the 11 provincial service departments of the North-West Province was 79,790 employees (Department of Finance, NW Provincial Government, 2013). The sample size for the study was estimated from this employee headcount for public service departments.

3.4.2 Sample size

A population size of 79,790 employees was quite large for a study of this nature considering the challenges of time, cost, possible non-response, and even the kind of analysis to be used in the proposed study. For these reasons the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table for defining the sample size of a defined population was used to determine the sample size. The formula is computed as:

Figure 2: *Sample size table by Krejcie and Morgan (1970)*

$$s = \frac{X^2 NP (1 - P)}{d^2 (N - 1) + X^2 P (1 - P)}$$

Where:

s = required sample size

X^2 = the table value of chi-square for 1 degree of freedom at the desired confidence level (3.841)

N = the population size

P = the population portion (assumed to be .050 since this would provide the maximum sample size).

d = the degree of accuracy expressed as a portion (.05).

Krejcie and Morgan (1970, p.607)

No calculation is needed to use the sample size table proposed by Krejcie and Morgan (1970) but an estimation of the confidence level and confidence interval or margin of error is required to determine the sample size. The confidence interval is an “estimate inferred from a sample data that has a certain probability of including the true population parameter” (Christensen, et al., 2011, p. 428).

A confidence level of 95 percent and a margin of error of $\pm$ (plus or minus) 5 percent is usually considered acceptable for business and social research for a random sample (Christensen, et al., 2011). Using this specified confidence level implies that 95% of the time the true percentage of the population will pick an answer that falls within the $\pm$ 5% confidence interval. From the above understanding, a proposed study’s population size of 79,790 employees with a sample size of only 383 participants will be deemed sufficient to derive a representative random sample of the given population size, but this study utilised a convenience sampling technique and derived a non random sample. In order to get some degree of representativeness in the study the confidence interval was lowered to $\pm$ 3% at a confidence level of 95% and therefore a much larger sample size was required, thus an initial size of 1,054 participants was derived based on a study population of 79,790 employees. However Bryman and Bell (2007) encourage potential researchers who want to derive samples for surveys to be aware of the non-response rate that sometimes affects surveys and

anticipate that there may be refusal to participate in the survey, some returned questionnaires may be unusable or unsuitable because they are incomplete or were not returned back to the researcher amongst other reasons. To address this kind of challenge Bryman and Bell (2007) suggested that researchers should make an allowance in the sample size of certain percentage to accommodate non- response. For these reasons a total of **1,100** participants were targeted as the sample size for this study.

3.4.3 Sampling procedure

The study used a multi-stage sampling technique to randomly select respondents from the 11 provincial public service departments. A significant factor motivating for the use of this technique was that the public service departments were of different sizes in term of their employee numbers as shown in table 1.

Table 1: Employee Distribution for NW Provincial Public Service Departments

Department	Grand Total
North West Agriculture and Rural Development	1515
North West Department Of Human Settlements	374
North West Economic Development And Tourism	367
North West Education	33169
North West Health	27774
North West Local Government And Traditional Affair	917
North West Public Safety	1046
North West Public Works Roads and Transport	11061
North West Social Development	2794
North West Sport Arts and Culture	773
Grand Total	79, 790

The multistage sampling technique gives the unique advantage of combining different sampling techniques and being more cost effective in a bid to select a study sample (Bryman & Bell, 2007). In the case of this study a proportionate sampling and convenience sampling were used in the study.

To achieve the quotas that were to be sampled in each provincial department Yamane (1967) formula was used.

Figure 3: Formula to determine the samples Yamane (1967)

$n = \frac{N}{1+N(e)^2}$	Where N = target population/population 1 = constant, and e = 0.05 level significance
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The analysis of the number to be distributed in the provincial department based on this formula was as follows:

Table 2: Analysis of the Number to be Distributed in the Provincial Departments

Department	Percentage for a sample size of 1100	Proportion of targeted sample size
North West Agriculture and Rural Development	2%	21
North West Department Of Human Settlements	0.5%	6
North West Economic Development And Tourism	0.5%	6
North West Education	42%	462
North West Health	35%	385
North West Local Government And Traditional Affair	1.2%	13.2
North West Public Safety	1.3%	14
North West Public Works Roads and Transport	13.9%	153
North West Social Development	3.5%	39
North West Sport Arts and Culture	1%	11
Sample size		1100

The convenience sampling was used to obtain the research participants within the derived quota in the provincial department for study. With the selected sampling procedure only employees in public service departments who were available and willing to participate in the survey were included in the sample (Fink, 2009; Welman & Kruger, 2001). The choice of

the chosen sampling technique was driven by feasibility in terms of issues of cost and timeframe to study all the units of analysis or the total population. Convenience sampling is most commonly used and appropriate when a researcher wants to obtain a large number of completed questionnaires quickly and economically (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Bernard, 2000; Creswell, 2003; Zikmund 2003). The units of analysis within the provincial departments were sometimes widely dispersed and highly mobile and thus it may have incurred an unaffordable cost to the researcher if other sampling procedure techniques were used.

3.5 Questionnaires

A self-administered close-ended, Likert-format survey questionnaire was used to collect primary data from the research participants. Using closed-ended questions allow for greater uniformity of responses from research participants and easier processing for statistical analysis (Babbie & Mouton, 2001; Bernard, 2000). In this study the assumption was made that selected participants were literate enough to be able to complete the administered questionnaire without assistance.

The questionnaire was divided into two main parts. The first part was designed to elicit responses on participants' demographic characteristics such as: length of service, sex, age group, salary band, education level and public service departments in which the research participants worked. The second part of the questionnaire consisted of 62 items covering the variables *SHRML*, *JS*, *OCB*, *OC* and *POS*, which were all included in the study based on literature review and the proposed conceptual framework. In addition, the second part of the survey questionnaire contained items extracted from five different standardized questionnaires, namely; a brief index of affective job satisfaction (Thompson & Phua, 2012), organisational commitment scale (Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993), organisational citizenship behaviour scale (Moorman & Blakely, 1995), leadership scale (Rafferty & Griffin, 2004) and perceived organisational support scale (Settoon, et al., 1996); these scales were used to measure the study's independent and dependent variables.

3.5.1 Independent variable measure

The independent variable was SHRM operationally defined as leadership and was measured using the following scale.

3.5.1.1 SHRML

SHRML was measured with a five-dimensional scale developed by Rafferty and Griffin (2004) based on the prior measures developed by House (1998) and Podaskoff et al., (1990). The scale has 15 items selected based on how well they measured the theoretical construct and include the sub-dimensions 'vision,' 'intellectual stimulation,' 'inspirational communication,' 'supportive leadership' and 'personal recognition.' Rafferty and Griffin (2004) describe these dimensions as effectively reflecting what leadership constitutes. The dimension vision focuses on the ability of the leader to express "an idealised picture of the future based on the organisations' values"; inspirational communication focuses on the leaders' ability to express a "positive and encouraging message about the organisation, and statements that build motivation and confidence"; intellectual stimulation focuses on the leaders' ability to "enhance the employees' interest in, and awareness of problems and increasing their ability to think about the problem in a new way"; supportive leadership focuses on the ability of the leader to express "concern for followers and take account of their individual need", and; personal recognition focuses on refers to the leaders' "provision of rewards such as praise and acknowledgement of effort for achievement of specified goals" (Rafferty & Griffin 2004, pp. 78 - 84).

An example of an item in the SHRML scale is "The leaders in my organisation say things that make employees proud to be a part of the organisation." Rafferty and Griffin (2004) report Cronbach alpha values for all the dimensions in the scale that range from .82 to .96. Other studies utilising the same version of the scale (Lopez-Domínguez, *et al.*, 2013; Rafferty & Griffin, 2006; Strauss, Griffin & Rafferty 2009; Shah, Zahman & Ithnain, 2011, Syrek, Apostel, & Antoni, 2013) report alpha coefficients that range from .82 to .96 amongst the dimensions.

3.5.2 Measures of dependant variables

The dependent variables were measured using the following scales:

3.5.2.1 Job satisfaction (JS)

JS was measured using a 4 item scale developed by Thompson and Phua (2012) called a brief index of affective job satisfaction. The 4 items comprising this scale were derived from the Brayfield and Rothe (1951) 18-item index of job satisfaction. The scale primarily measures the overall or global job satisfaction of respondents by assessing how much respondents subjectively and emotionally like their job as a whole; it differs significantly from its predecessor in terms that it was stringently validated to check internal consistency, reliability, validity, and cross-population invariance by nationality, job level and job type etc. (Thompson & Phua, 2012). An example of an item in the scale is: "I find real enjoyment in my job" and the whole scale has a Cronbach alpha value of .85.

3.5.2.2 Organisational commitment scale (OC)

OC was measured using a three-dimensional scale developed by Meyer et al.,’s (1993). The scale includes the dimensions of affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. Meyer and Allen (1991) delineate these dimensions as different components of attitudinal commitment that employees can experience at varying degrees, emphasising that "employees with strong affective commitment remain with an organisation because they *want* to; those with strong continuance commitment because they *need* to and; and those with normative commitment feel they *ought* to" (Allen & Meyer, 1990, p.3).

The scale contains 18 items and an example of an item in the scale is: "I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation". The scale as a whole measures these three forms of an employee commitment to an organisation and has an alpha coefficient ranging from .73 to .87 amongst these dimensions (Meyer, et al., 1993). Other studies utilising the same version of the OC scale (Bagraim, 2003; Irving, Coleman, & Cooper, 1997; Lumley, et al., 2011; Somers, 2009; Tumwesigye, 2010; Wayne, et al., 2002; Vandenberghe et al., 2004) obtained alpha coefficients that ranged from .79 to .85 for the three dimensions.

3.5.2.3 Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)

OCB was measured using a four-dimensional scale developed by Moorman and Blakely (1992, 1995) based on earlier work by Graham (1989). The scale has 19 items and has 'interpersonal helping,' 'individual initiative,,' 'personal industry' and 'loyal boosterism' as dimensions identified as significant determinants in assessing if employees display work

related behaviours which are discretionary and key to the effectiveness of an organisation; assessment of employees' responses derived from the scale is used to determine the existence and level of OCB in an organisation (Moorman & Blakely 1992). In a work setting, individual initiative refers to "communication with others to improve individual and group performance"; interpersonal helping refers to "helping co-workers when such help is needed"; loyal boosterism focuses on "promoting the organisations' image" and; personal industry focuses on "task performance above and beyond normal role expectation" (Blakely, Andrews & Moorman, 2005, p. 265).

An example of an item in the OCB scale is: "I show pride when representing the organisation in public". Moorman et al., (1998) reports alpha coefficients ranging from .78 to .84 amongst all the dimensions in the scale. Other studies utilising the same version of this OCB scale (Andrew & Fuller, 2005; Badu & Asumeng, 2013; Blakely, et al., 2003; Blakely, *et al.*, 2005; Blakely, Kamdar, McCallister & Turban, 2006; Markovitch, 2011; Moorman, *et al.*, 1998; Moorman & Harland, 2002; Vondey, 2010) obtained Cronbach alpha coefficients that ranged from .73 to .92.

3.5.2.4 Perceived organisational support (POS)

POS was measured using an 8 items scale developed by Robert Eisenberger. The 8 items comprising this scale were extracted out of an original POS scale consisting of 36 items based on their high loading on the main factor and their application to a wide variety of organisations (Eisenberger, *et al.*, 1986, 1990). The scale is typically used to assess an employees' perception of organisational treatment/action in different situations and how these actions impact on the employees' wellbeing (Hekman, et al., 2009; Settoon, et al., 1996).

An example of an item from this short version of POS was: "my organisation strongly considers my goals and values" and the whole scale has a reported Cronbach's alpha value of .90 (Eisenberger, et al., 1997). Other studies utilising the same version of the POS scale (Coyle-Shapiro & Conway, 2005; Erdogan & Enders, 2007; Hekman, et al., 2009; Hutchison, 1997a, 1997b; Hutchison, *et al.*, 1996; Lynch, Eisenberger & Armeli, 1999; Mathumbu & Dodd, 2013; Settoon, *et al.*, 1996; Sulea *et al.*, 2012; Tumwesigye, 2010) obtained alpha coefficients that ranged from .70 to .94.



3.5.3 Measurement scale

The construction of the measurement scale for the items in the second part of the questionnaire was based on the summated Likert scale ratings designed. Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with items on the questionnaire using a five-point rating continuum of: strongly disagree =1, disagree = 2, neutral = 3, agree = 4, and strongly agree = 5. The measurement scale was constructed to have a mid-point labelled neutral, scored as three, to avoid forced responses or non-responses to items on the questionnaire thus making provision for participants who were undecided or uncertain in any item to express their opinion (Krejcie & Morgan, 1970).

3.6 Pilot study

In developing an effective research questionnaire Blumberg et al., (2011) emphasized that a research questionnaire or instrument could be deemed defective if it had confusing or ambiguous questions and meanings, used complex words and grammar beyond the research participants' comprehension, and possessed mechanical defects owing to inadequate space for responses, response choice omission and or poor printing. Using pilot studies to test surveys on a small group of individuals who are representative of the population for which they are intended is crucial in identifying and addressing these issues before a survey tool is administered in the main study (Welman & Kruger, 2001; Zikmund, 2003). In order to prevent the possibility of these defects impacting the proposed study questionnaire it was pre-tested and validated in a pilot study, and its reliability was also assessed.

For the pilot study the research questionnaire was administered to 50 provincial public service departments' employees. It served the purpose of detecting and eliminating any defects or flaws in the questionnaire such as inadequate time limitations, confusing instructions, poorly worded or organised questions and printing errors as well as to assess if the chosen data collection tool and sampling technique were appropriate for the study, thus creating the chance for a good response rate in the main study (Blumberg, *et al.*, 2011; Zikmund, 2003). From the pilot study very minor errors i.e. spellings and spacing of questions, were identified by the participants and these errors were corrected before the research questionnaire was administered in the main study.

3.6.1 Reliability analysis

During the analysis of how the 50 participants in the pilot study scored the second part of the questionnaire, a reliability coefficient, Cronbach's alpha, was used to determine reliability and internal consistency of their scores. The Cronbach's alpha is a popular test for measuring the internal reliability of a research instrument and when computed it produces a coefficient that varies between 1, signifying perfect internal reliability, and 0 indicating no internal reliability, with alpha 0.7 considered as acceptable or sufficient (Bryman & Bell, 2007; Pallant, 2005). For the pilot study each participant's score was computed on Statistical Product and Service Solutions (known hereafter as SPSS) software and the analysis using the Cronbach's alpha yielded a composite reliability value of 0.96. Based on this analysis the questionnaire was deemed as sufficiently reliable to be used in the main study. The implication of a reliable instrument is that it is able to provide consistent results even when used under different settings or occasions (Blumberg *et al.*, 2011, Welman & Kruger 2001). Table 3 shows the Cronbach's alpha values of all the dimensions as analysed in the study.

Table 3: Cronbach Alpha Values for all Variables and their Dimensions in the Study

Number of items	Variables	Alpha
4	Job satisfaction (JS) Composite	.81
8	Perceived organisational Support (POS) Composite	.91
17	Organisational Commitment (OC) Composite	.95
6	Affective Commitment (<i>Sub scale of OC</i>)	.83
5	Continuance Commitment (<i>Sub scale of OC</i>)	.91
6	Normative Commitment (<i>Sub scale of OC</i>)	.88
19	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) composite	.89
5	Interpersonal Helping (<i>Sub scale of OCB</i>)	.84
5	Individual Initiative (<i>Sub scale of OCB</i>)	.82
4	Personal Industry (<i>Sub scale of OCB</i>)	.66

5	Loyal Boosterism (<i>Sub scale of OCB</i>)	.83
14	SHRML Composite	.93
2	Vision (<i>Sub scale of SHRML</i>)	.91
3	Inspirational Communication (<i>Sub scale of SHRML</i>)	.86
3	Intellectual Stimulation/Creativity (<i>Sub scale of SHRML</i>)	.85
3	Supportive Leadership (<i>Sub scale of SHRML</i>)	.85
3	Personal Recognition (<i>Sub scale of SHRML</i>)	.91

The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for all the composite variables are above 0.7, confirming that the internal reliability of the questionnaire is acceptable and thus suitable for the context of the North-West Province public service in which it has been applied.

3.6.2 Validity

The validity of measurement tool refers to how accurately it measures what it was intended to measure (Blumberg, et al., 2011; Christensen, et al., 2011; Bryman & Bell, 2011). All five scales used as measures of the variables in this study were reported in the literature to have been validated during their development. The validity tests of the measurement instrument used in this study covered mainly content validity and face validity.

Blumberg, et al., (2011) explains that the content validity of a measurement instrument is good if it adequately covers the research questions or hypothesis and relevant dimensions guiding the study. To meet this criterion the study's measurement instrument was assessed against the purpose of the study, research hypothesis, literature review, subject theories and conceptual framework to see if they were a valid measurement of the study's dimensions. In order to assess the face validity of the measurement instrument experts in the Faculty of Commerce and Administration of the North-West University were used to evaluate all the items with the goal to identify any flaws in the questionnaire. This was done prior to conducting the pilot study which was aimed at further identifying items that were not clear or which elicited unexpected responses such as non-verbal behaviour of participants like discomfort or embarrassment at the wording and contents of items on the questionnaire.

Welman and Kruger (2001), and Bryman and Bell (2011) consider this approach as a suitable way of assessing and enhancing the face validity of a measurement instrument. The assessment showed that the measurement instrument was a relevant and suitable measurement of the study's dimensions.

3.7 Data collection and response rate

To achieve a sample size of 1 100 participants the researcher distributed the questionnaires at all the head offices of the 11 (eleven) NW provincial public service departments during the data collection process. As emphasised in the sampling technique only persons in these offices who were available and willing to participate in the study were given the questionnaires to complete. A total of 759 usable questionnaires were returned, achieving a response rate of 69%. Literature on response rates gives variation on what is an acceptable minimal response rate for survey research.

Work done by Nulty (2008) on comparisons between online and paper-based surveys reveal that on average, paper based surveys achieve about a 56% response rate; Baruch (1999) reveals an average response rate of 55.6% based on his analysis synthesised from a review of one hundred and forty-one papers covering 175 different academic studies published in the years 1975, 1985 and 1995 in the following journals: *Academy of Management Journal*, *Human Relations*, *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *Organisational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes* and *Journal of International Business Studies*; and in an updated study by Baruch and Holtom (2008), in which they considered 490 different studies with survey data collection methods conducted in the years 2000 and 2005 and published in 17 refereed academic journals, they found an average response rate of 52.7%. In summary, the response rate of 69% achieved in this study exceeds all reported accepted average response rates and thus deemed suitable for achieving its research purpose.

3.8 Data analysis

SPSS software was used to analyse the data that were collected in the study. The derived quantitative data were first coded and entered into SPSS, and then the software inspected the data to ensure that the data were clean or free from errors such as missing data and outliers. The software was then used to run preliminary checks and conduct several levels of analyses which included deriving descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages to describe the participants in the study, correlation analyses to measure the strength of the association or

relationship between the variables in the study, and regression analysis to predict and model the association between the variables, and show the magnitude of the relationships.

For the correlation analyses of the study's variables *Product moment correlation coefficient* or *Pearson r* and for the regression analyses a *Stepwise estimation* process for building regression models were used. A stepwise estimation is a method of selecting variables for inclusion in the regression model that starts by selecting the best predictor of the dependent variable followed subsequently by selection of additional independent variables based on the incremental explanatory power they can add to the regression model (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006).

In the study, assumptions underlying the statistical procedures were checked and satisfied to ensure generalizability of the study results by using descriptive statistics that included mean scores, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis. The normality of the variables was assessed by obtaining skewness and kurtosis values (appendix C) and deemed satisfactory because of the large sample used in the study. Tabachink & Fidelli (2001) describe the risk of skewness and kurtosis making substantive difference in analysis as reduced when there is a large sample (200 + cases). There data was also checked to ensure there were no outliers as a result of substantially lower or higher values in the data set.

As part of the ensuring that underlying assumptions of the statistical procedure was satisfied multicollinearity of the independent variable and its sub-dimension was also inspected. According to Pallant (2005) multicollinearity exist when the independent variables are highly correlated ($r = .9$ and above). Observation of the correlation matrix generated and displayed in the result chapter showed that all the correlation values of the independent variable and its sub-dimensions were less $.9$. Finally, the homoscedasticity of the variables was also inspected and revealed that the variance of the residuals was also inspected, and confirmed no violation of the assumption of the correlation and regression statistical procedures used in the study.

3.9 Ethical considerations

This section details the processes undertaken to ensure appropriate permission from relevant authorities to conduct the study within the NWPG was received, as well as steps to ensure the

safety of all participants in the study. Prior to and during the study within the provincial public service departments the following ethical issues were addressed:

3.9.1 Ethical clearance

The study was subjected to assessment under the North-West University manual for postgraduate research and guidelines for ethical research, and there were no ethical issues requiring approval by the research ethics committee. An ethics assessment form was completed and submitted to the NWU's ethics board and permission to proceed with the study was granted.

3.9.2 Informed consent

At an organisational level written permission (see Appendix A) to conduct the study in NWPG provincial public service departments was secured from The Office of the Premier. The process involved submitting a written request, copy of the proposal and the research questionnaire to The Office of the Premier for their own research and ethical assessment before permission was granted to the researcher, and the Heads of the different public service departments were informed that a study was being undertaken in their departments.

At an individual level participants were informed verbally and in writing on the cover page of the questionnaire (see Appendix B), prior to their participation, of the nature of the research. The cover letter emphasised anonymity and confidentiality of responses from participants, and willingness of selected respondents to participate in the study rather than by coercion. In this light none of the participants were forced or cajoled to participate in the study and as such the choice to participate was entirely based on their voluntary agreement.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

This study intended to propose a framework for linking SHRML with public service performance in the North-West (NW) Province of South Africa. This was achieved by describing the sample of the study population used for the study, measuring how respondents rated the identified variables constituting SHRML and performance (JS, POS, OC and OCB), measuring the strength of the relation between the variables, and predicting and modelling the association between these variables. This chapter presents the results of the data analysis for the stated hypotheses in the study.

4.1 Descriptive statistics

The descriptive statistics in this study present a summary of the demographic variables of participants who completed and returned usable questionnaires in the study.

4.1.1 Respondents' length of service in NW provincial public service departments

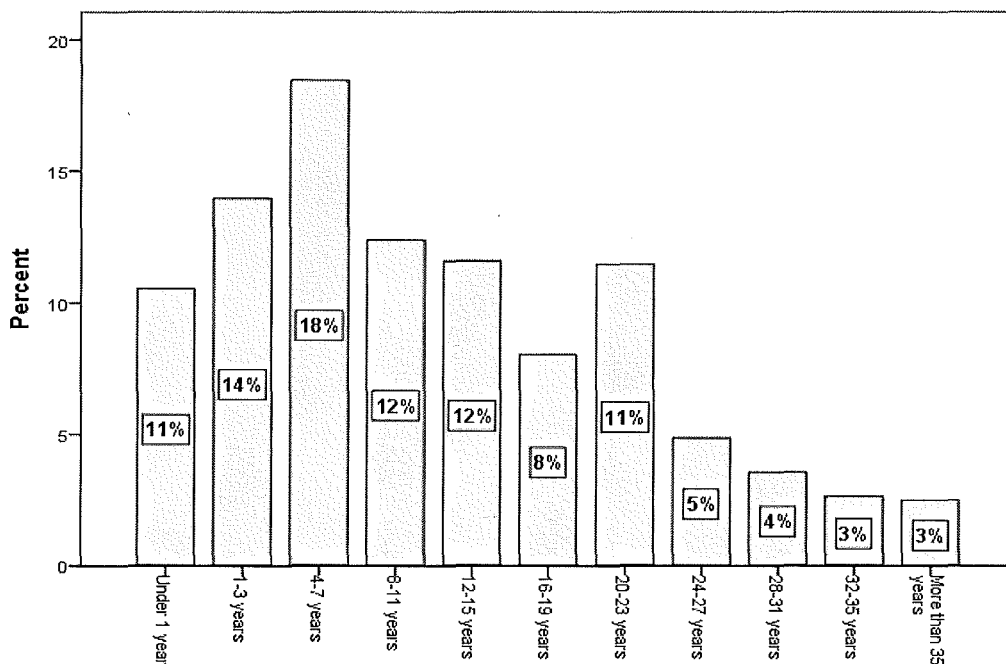


Figure 4: Length of service of respondents ($n = 759$)

Figure 4 shows that of the 759 respondents in the study the largest portion of the sample, 18% (140 respondents), had 4 – 7 years length of service with the NW provincial public service department. In summation 89% (679 respondents) of the study sample had over a year length of service and 11% (80 respondents) less than a year length of service.

4.1.2 Gender of research respondents

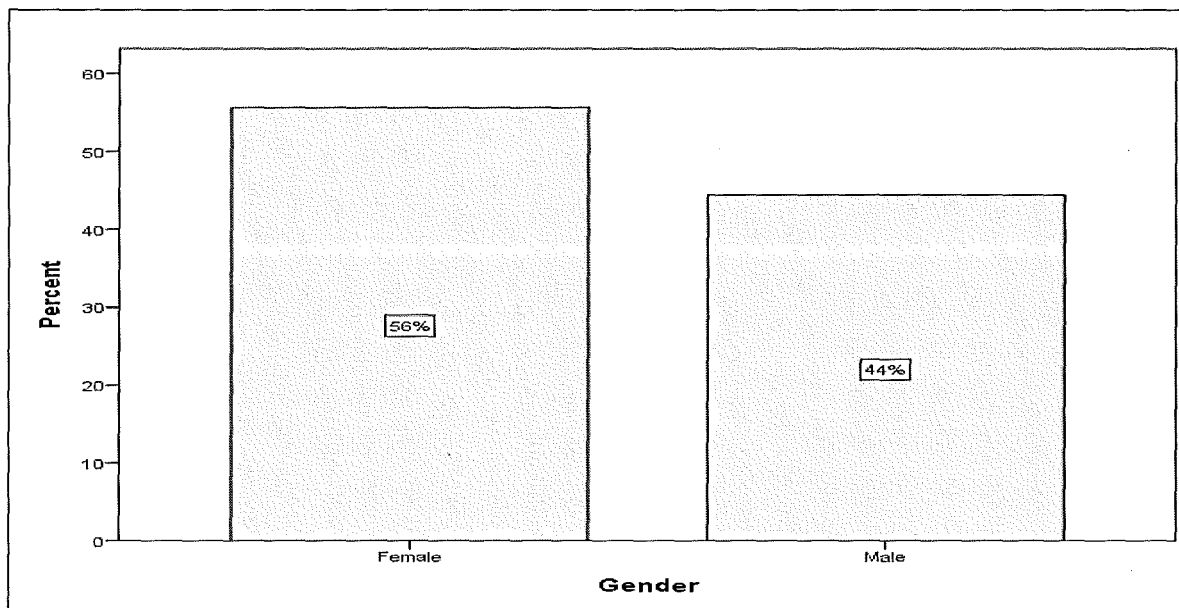


Figure 5: Gender of respondents (n = 759)

There were more female than male respondents in the study, as shown in figure 5, with 56% (422 participants) of the sample being female and 44% (337 participants) being male.

4.1.3 Age category of research respondents

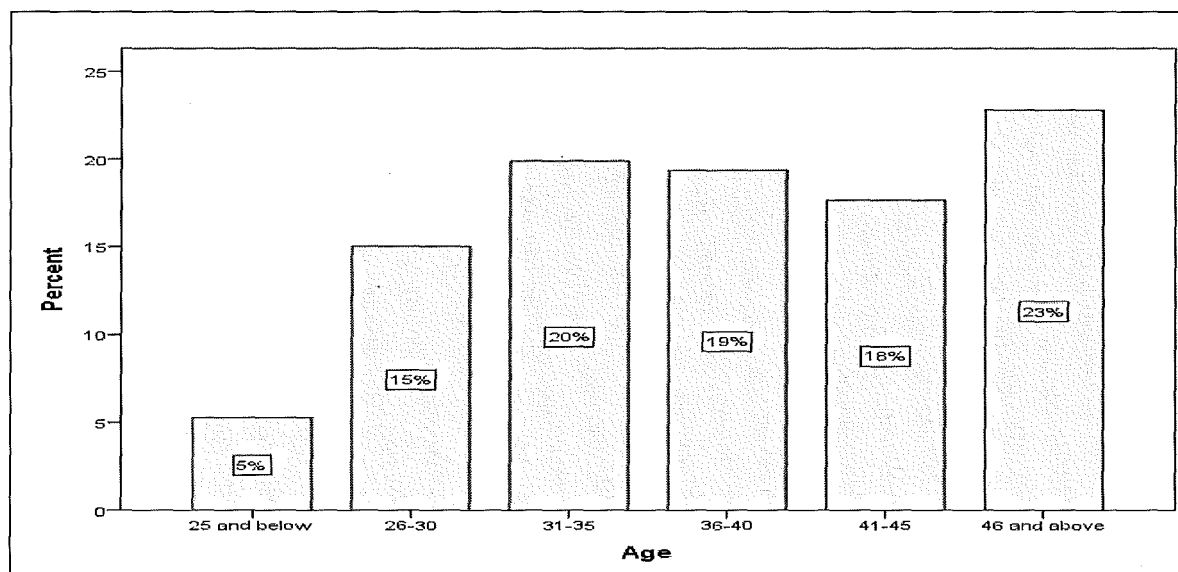


Figure 6: Age category of respondents (n = 759)

Figure 6 shows that the majority, 23% (173 respondents), in the study were within the age category of '46 and above years', followed by those within the group of '31 -35' with 20% (151 respondents) and the minority of 5% (40 respondents) falling within age '25 and below'.

4.1.4 Salary levels of research respondents

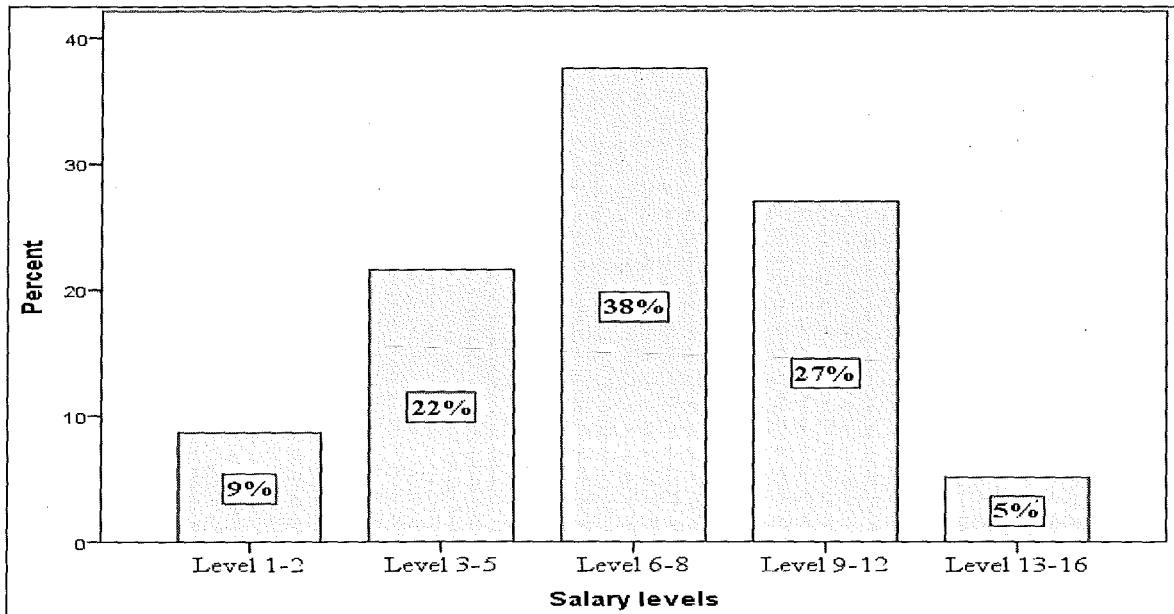


Figure 7: Salary levels of respondents ($n = 759$)

In Figure 7 the majority of the respondents were in the salary 'level 6 – 8' with 38% (285 respondents) followed by salary 'level 9 – 12' with 27% (205 respondents) and the minority of 5% (39 respondents) falling within 'level 13 – 16'. These salary levels are directly translated within the public service as level 1 – 2 for lower skilled work, 3 – 5 for skilled work, 6-8 for highly skilled (Production) work, 9 – 12 for highly skilled (supervision) work and 13 -16 for senior management.

4.1.5 Education levels of research respondents

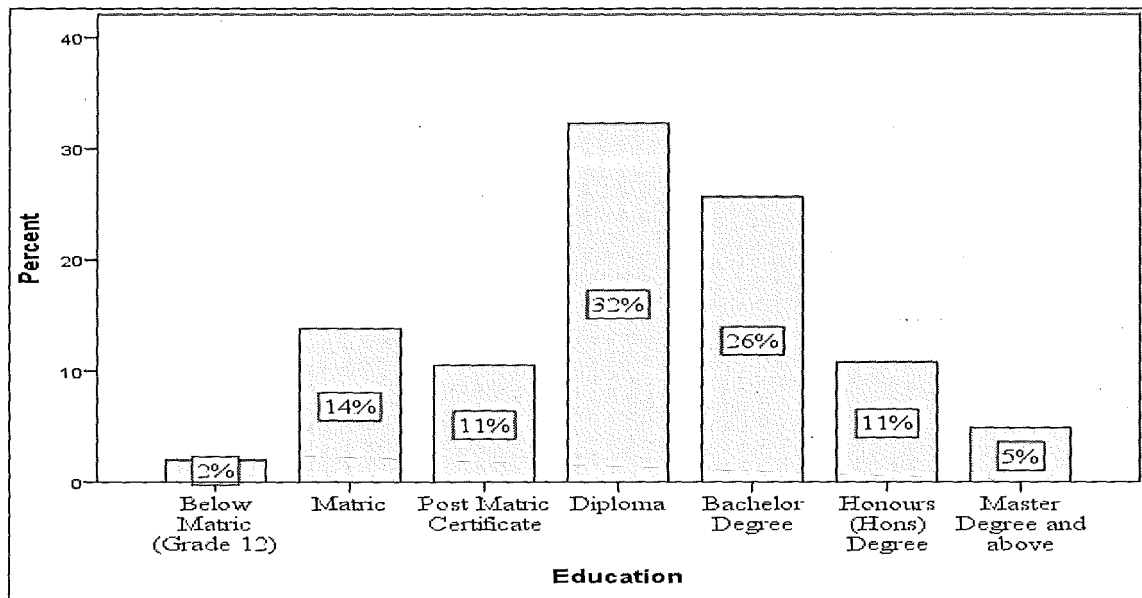


Figure 8: Education levels of respondents (n = 759)

As indicated in Figure 8 the majority (32%) of respondents have a diploma and the minority (2%) have below a matric (grade 12 certificate) level of education.

4.1.6 NW provincial public service departments in which research respondents work

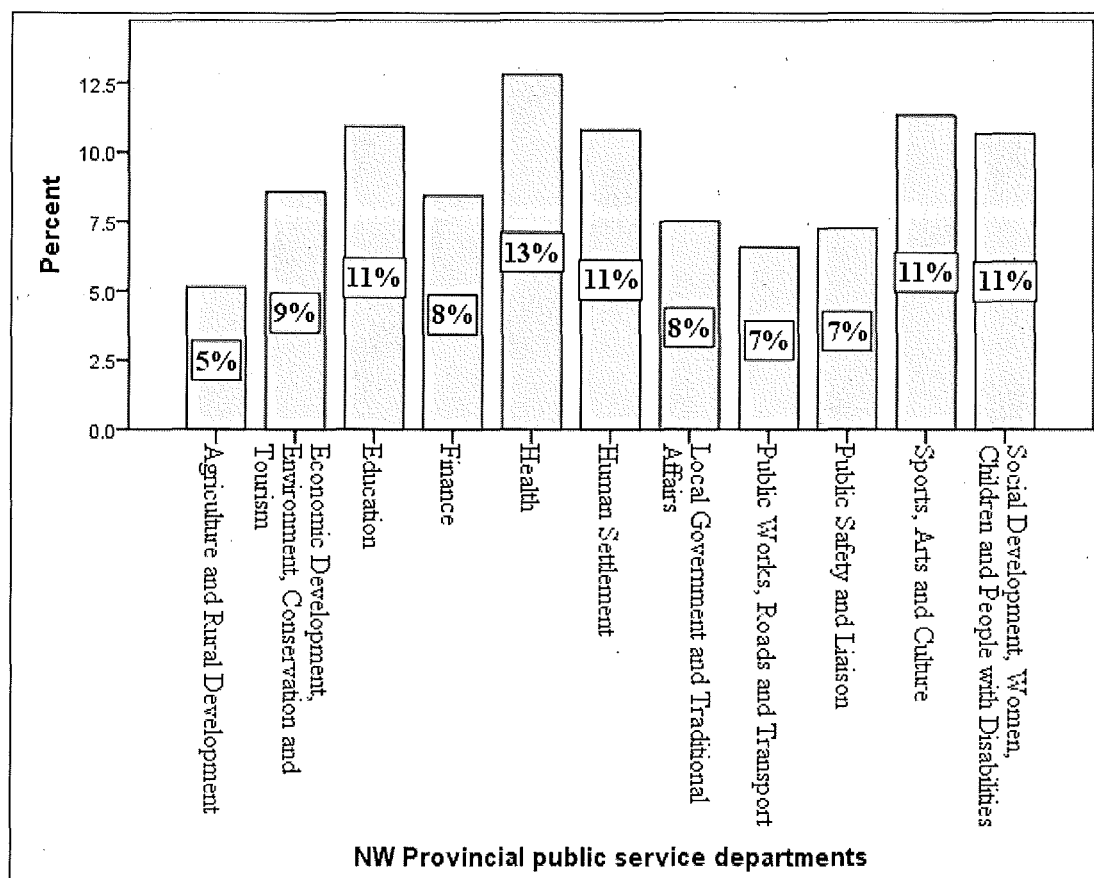


Figure 9: Respondents' place of work (n=759)

The study's derived sample was taken from all 11 NW provincial public service departments. As indicated in Figure 9 above, most respondents were from the Department of Health with 13% (97 respondents) and the least with 5% (39 respondents) was Department of Agriculture.

4.2 Levels of JS, OC, POS and OCB

Hypothesis 1: Employees in NWP Public service departments' employees will report high job satisfaction, perceived organisational support, organisational commitment, and organisational citizenship behaviour.

In answering this research hypothesis all the participants' responses to items comprising the study's main variables were summed up for each variable and recoded on SPSS using the mean score to form 'high' and 'low' rating. For each variable, all participants' scores below the mean was rated as low and scores above the mean was rated as high. All statistics and frequency tables related with this particular hypothesis are reported in appendix C.

4.2.1 Job satisfaction (JS)

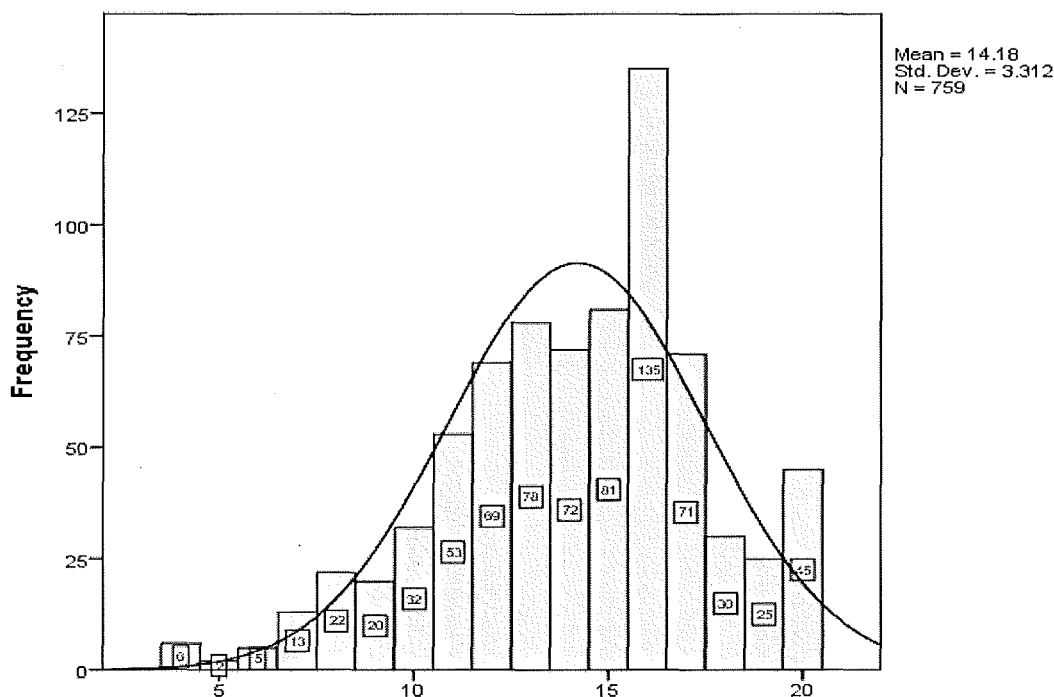


Figure 10: Job satisfaction levels of respondents (n = 759)

In Figure 10 the histogram indicates that the majority of respondents reported high levels of JS. Splitting the frequencies to high JS and low JS levels using the mean score reveal that 51% (387 respondents) report high level of JS. However the difference between those who report high level and those who report low level is only 2% as 49% (372) report low JS.

4.2.2 Perceived organisational support (POS)

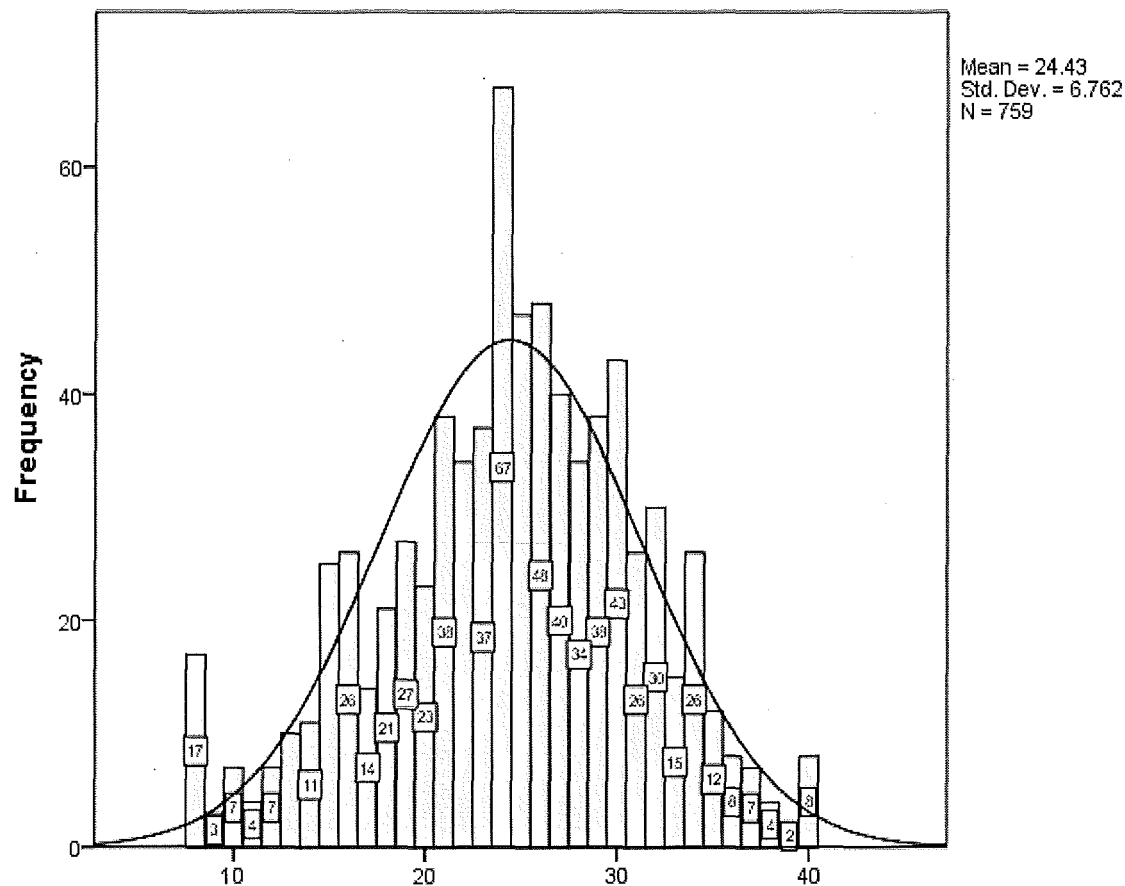


Figure 11: Perceived organisational support levels of respondents (n = 759)

For POS the histogram in Figure 9 indicate that the majority of respondents reported high levels of POS. Splitting the frequencies to high POS and low POS levels using the mean score reveals that 51% (388 respondents) indicated high POS level while 49% (371) respondents indicated low levels of POS.

4.2.3 Organisational commitment (OC)

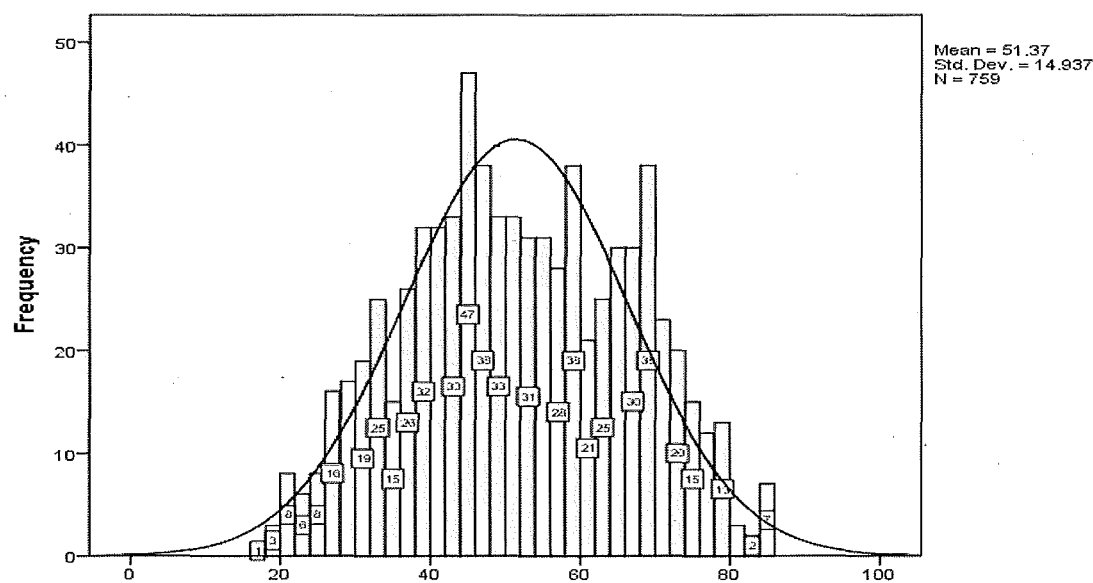


Figure 12: Organisational commitment levels of respondents (n = 759)

For OC the histogram in Figure 10 indicates that the majority of respondents reported low levels of OC. Splitting the frequencies to high OC and low OC levels using the mean score reveal that 52% (392 respondents) indicated low OC level while 48% (367) respondents indicated high levels of OC. This is contrary to the research hypothesis that NWP public service departments will report higher levels of OC.

4.2.4 Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB)

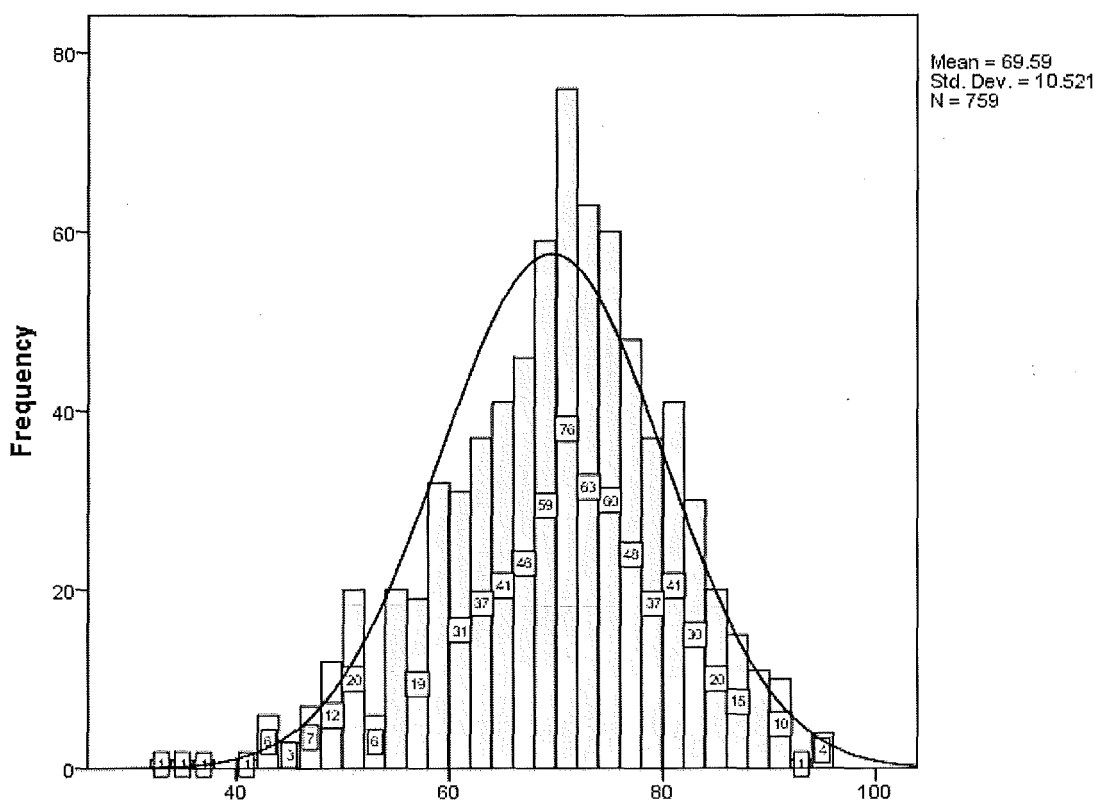


Figure 13: Organisational citizenship behaviour levels of respondents ($n = 759$)

For OCB the histogram reveal that the majority of respondents reported high levels of OCB. Splitting the frequencies to high OCB and low OCB levels using the mean score reveal that 55% (416 respondents) indicated high OCB levels while 45% (343) respondents indicated low levels of OCB. This finding confirms the aspect of the research hypothesis that indicates that NWP public service departments will report higher levels of OCB.

4.3 Correlation analysis

Hypothesis 2: There will be significant positive correlation among SHRML, Job outcomes (Job Satisfaction and Perceived Organisational Support) and Organisational outcomes (Organisational Commitment and Organisational Citizenship Behaviour).

In investigating this research hypothesis, the correlation coefficients of the study's variables was determined using the *Pearson's Product Moment Correlation Coefficient* or *Pearson's r* symbolised by r and a matrix was produced to display the statistical relationship between the variables. The association between variables are said to have a perfect positive correlation if the value of r is 1.0; perfect negative correlation if the value of r is -1.0 and posses a weak or non-existent relationship if the r value is 0 (Pallant, 2005; Peck et al., 2012; Terrell 2012). The strength of the association is said to be small if $r = .10$ to $.29$ or $r = -.10$ to $-.29$; medium if $r = .30$ to $.49$ or $-.30$ to $-.49$ and; large if $r = .50$ to 1.0 or $r = -.50$ to -1.0 (Cohen, 1988; Pallant, 2005). Table 4 below displays the statistical relationship between the study's variables in a correlation matrix.

Table 4: Correlation matrix of SHRML and JS, POS, OC and OCB

Correlation matrix of SHRML and JS, POS, OC and OCB (n=759)																
	Job Satisfaction (JS)	AC	CC	NC	IH	II	PI	LB	V	IC	IS/C	SL	PR	POS	OC	OCB
Affective Commitment (AC)	.628**															
Continuance Commitment (CC)	.504**	.737**														
Normative Commitment (NC)	.540**	.724**	.818**													
Interpersonal Helping (IH)	.264**	.355**	.227**	.205**												
Individual Initiative (II)	.249**	.402**	.336**	.299**	.623**											
Personal Industry (PI)	.382**	.351**	.272**	.369**	.317**	.259**										
Loyal Boosterism (LB)	.431**	.521**	.418**	.523**	.405**	.412**	.456**									
Vision (V)	.501**	.547**	.526**	.582**	.188**	.196**	.341**	.488**								
Inspirational Communication (IC)	.533**	.548**	.550**	.630**	.162**	.270**	.332**	.508**	.736**							
Intellectual Stimulation/Creativity (IS/C)	.386**	.521**	.448**	.506**	.263**	.285**	.330**	.496**	.512**	.550**						
Supportive Leadership (SL)	.430**	.565**	.551**	.575**	.244**	.355**	.202**	.532**	.492**	.538**	.519**					
Personal Recognition (PR)	.463**	.518**	.496**	.548**	.256**	.274**	.277**	.560**	.559**	.647**	.537**	.682**				
Perceived Org. Support (POS)	.524**	.652**	.599**	.625**	.271**	.379**	.317**	.583**	.566**	.628**	.582**	.749**	.670**			
Organisational Commitment (OC)	.608**	.893**	.926**	.930**	.285**	.376**	.363**	.534**	.603**	.630**	.538**	.616**	.569**	.683**		
Organisation Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)	.435**	.547**	.421**	.463**	.800**	.790**	.622**	.770**	.400**	.422**	.458**	.458**	.462**	.524**	.521**	
SHRML	.567**	.660**	.631**	.697**	.274**	.343**	.359**	.636**	.788**	.854**	.756**	.806**	.859**	.790**	.725**	.541**

In analysing table 4 and integrating the interpretation of the value of Pearson's r above, it can be determined that there is a significant positive correlation between SHRML and JS ($r = .567^{**}$), POS ($r = .790^{**}$), OC ($r = .725^{**}$) and OCB ($r = .541^{**}$) with high levels of SHRM (leadership) associated with high levels of JS, POS, OC and OCB at a significance level of $p = 0.01$.

In addition, the SHRML sub-dimensions showed significant positive correlations with dependent variables ($r > .386$ in all cases), displaying a medium to large strength of association amongst the variables. The sub-dimension, 'vision', had a significant positive correlation with JS ($r = .501^{**}$), POS ($r = .566^{**}$), OC ($r = .603^{**}$) and OCB ($r = .400^{**}$);

For the inspirational communication sub-dimension it was JS ($r = .533^{**}$), POS ($r = .628^{**}$), OC ($r = .630^{**}$) and OCB ($r = .422^{**}$); for intellectual stimulation/creativity sub-dimension it was JS ($r = .386^{**}$), POS ($r = .582^{**}$), OC ($r = .538^{**}$) and OCB ($r = .458^{**}$); for the personal recognition sub-dimension it was JS ($r = .463^{**}$), POS ($r = .670^{**}$), OC ($r = .569^{**}$) and OCB ($r = .462^{**}$); and finally for supportive leadership it was JS ($r = .430^{**}$), POS ($r = .749^{**}$), OC ($r = .458^{**}$) and OCB ($r = .616^{**}$)

4.4 Regression analysis

Hypothesis 3: SHRML will significantly predict Job outcomes - job satisfaction (JS) and perceived organisational support (POS) among public service employees in the North-West Province

In investigating this research hypothesis a stepwise regression analysis was conducted as the basis of predicting and modelling the association between SHRML and the job outcomes (JS and POS). The analysis is designed to find the best set of predictors that are most effective in predicting a dependent variable by continually adding more variables until it becomes impossible to make a statistically significant improvement to the regression equation by using any of the variables not yet included.

In interpreting the regression analysis outputs, four statistical measurements are considered: first, the ANOVA F test of significance (F) which predicts if a model as a whole predicts a dependent variable. Second, the significance score (p -value), which provides information on the confidence to confirm if the relationship described by the model exists. Third, the

standardised regression coefficient (β or *Beta*) that allows for direct comparison between coefficients as to their relative explanatory of the dependent variable, and finally, the coefficient of determination (*R squared* or R^2) which measures what proportion of the behaviour of a dependent variable is explained by the an independent variable or a regression model (Hair *et al.*, 2006; Kahane, 2008; Nathans, Oswald, & Nimon, 2012).

R^2 is bound between 0 and 1 with values close to 1 meaning that by observing the behaviour of the independent variable, nearly all the behaviour of the dependent variable can be explained and values close to 0 implying the opposite; consequently if the independent variable is an important factor in explaining the dependent variable, then the population sample's value for β should be positive, and on the other hand if the independent variable has no impact dependent variable β will be 0 ($\beta = 0$); associated *P-value* of 0.05 or less (*p value* ≤ 0.05) is normally required to establish statistical significance and confirms that a model is significant at 95%; *P values* of $<.01$ and $<.1$ confirm 99% and 90% significance levels consecutively (Khane, 2008).

The following tables provide summaries of the stepwise output for the job outcomes (JS and POS). The full analysis outputs are included in Appendix D.

4.4.1 Job satisfaction

Table 5: Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting JS ($n = 759$)

	Model 1		Model 2			Model 3			
Variable	B	SE B	B	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
SHRML	.169	.009	.567	.123	.017	.412	.102	.019	.343
Inspirational communication				.201	.063	.181	.170	.065	.154
Vision							.185	.077	.118
R ²		.322			.330			.336	
Adjusted R ²		.331			.329			.333	
F for change in R2		358.785			186.580			127.105	
Sig.		.000			.000			.000	

SHRML, vision, inspirational communication, intellectual stimulation/creativity, supportive leadership and personal recognition were used in a stepwise multiple regression analysis to predict job satisfaction. The prediction model contained three of the six predictors and was reached in three steps with no variables removed. The model was statically significant, $F = 127.105$, $P < .001$, and accounted for approximately 33.6% of the variance of job satisfaction ($R^2 = .336$, Adjusted $R^2 = .333$). Job satisfaction was primarily predicted by higher levels of SHRML and inspirational communication, and to a lesser extent by higher levels of vision. The standardised regression coefficients (β) of all the predictors in the prediction model shows that SHRML has the strongest weight in the model ($\beta = .343$), followed by inspirational communication ($\beta = .154$) and finally vision ($\beta = .118$).

4.4.2 Perceived organisational support

Table 6: Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting POS ($n = 759$)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2		
	B	SE B	B	B	SE B	β
SHRML	.480	.014	.790	.323	.022	.532
Supportive leadership				.751	.084	.320
R^2		.624			.660	
Adjusted R^2		.623			.659	
F for change in R^2		1255.202			735.502	
Sig.		.000			.000	

SHRML, vision, inspirational communication, intellectual stimulation/creativity, supportive leadership and personal recognition were used in the regression analysis as predictor variables of perceived organisational support (POS). The prediction model generated contained only two of the six predictors and was reached in two steps with no variables

removed. The model was statically significant, $F = 735.502$, $P < .001$, and accounted for approximately 66% of the variance of *POS* ($R^2 = .660$, Adjusted $R^2 = .659$). *POS* was primarily predicted by higher levels of SHRML and supportive leadership. The standardised regression coefficients (β) of all the predictors in the prediction model showed that SHRML has the strongest weight in the model ($\beta = .532$), and thereafter, supportive leadership ($\beta = .320$).

Hypothesis 4: SHRML will significantly predict Organisational outcomes - organisational commitment (OC) and organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) among public service employees in the North-West Province

The same interpretation of the stepwise regression analysis and of its relevant statistical measures are applied in predicting and modelling the association between SHRML and OC, and thereafter OCB. Tables 7 and 8 provide summaries of the stepwise output for the organisational outcomes. The full analysis outputs are included in Appendix C.

4.4.3 Organisational commitment (OC)

Table 7: Summary of Stepwise Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting OC ($n = 759$)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	β
SHRML	.972	.034	.725	1.209	.065	.901	1.343	.089	1.001
Personal recognition				-.977	.231	-.205	-1.158	.044	-.243
Intellectual stimulation/ creativity							-.524	.238	-.088
R^2		.525			.536			.539	
Adjusted R^2		.525			.535			.537	
F for change in R^2		837.819			437.275			294.605	
Sig.		.000			.000			.000	

SHRML, vision, inspirational communication, intellectual stimulation/creativity, supportive leadership and personal recognition were used in regression analysis to predict organisational commitment (OC). The prediction model contained three of the six predictors and was reached in three steps with no variables removed. The model was statically significant, $F = 294.605$, $P < .001$, and accounted for approximately 53.9% of the variance of OC ($R^2 = .539$, Adjusted $R^2 = .537$). OC was primarily predicted by higher levels of SHRM (Leadership) and lower levels of personal recognition, and to a least extent by lower levels of intellectual stimulation/creativity. The standardised regression coefficients (β) of all the predictors in the prediction model shows that SHRML has the strongest weight in the model ($\beta = 1.001$), followed by personal recognition ($\beta = -.243$) and finally intellectual stimulation/creativity ($\beta = -.088$).

4.4.4 Organisational citizenship behaviour

Table 8: Summary of Stepwise Analysis for Variables Predicting OCB ($n = 759$)

Variable	Model 1			Model 2		
	B	SE B	β	B	SE B	B
SHRML	.512	.029	.541	.631	.055	.667
Inspirational communication				-.521	.206	-.148
R^2		.293			.299	
Adjusted R^2		.292			.297	
F for change in R^2		313.711			161.164	
Sig.		.000			.000	

SHRML, vision, inspirational communication, intellectual stimulation/creativity, supportive leadership and personal recognition were used in the regression analysis as predictor

variables of organisational citizenship behaviour (*OCB*). The prediction model generated contained only two of the six predictors and was reached in two steps with no variables removed. The model was statically significant, $F = 161.164$, $P < .001$, and accounted for approximately 29.9% of the variance of *OCB* ($R^2 = .299$, Adjusted $R^2 = .297$). *OCB* was primarily predicted by a higher level of SHRML and lower levels of inspirational communication. The standardised regression coefficients (β) of all the predictors in the prediction model showed that SHRML has the strongest weight in the model ($\beta = .667$), and thereafter, inspirational communication ($\beta = -.148$).

CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY, DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a summary of the study and discusses its findings with the available literature on the subject area. It consists of a framework that depicts the statistical link of the study's variables, discusses the implication of the research findings for the practice and finally makes recommendations.

5.2 Summary of the study

The purpose of the study was to propose a framework that links SHRML and desirable performance outcomes in public service departments in the North-West Province of South Africa. The study's independent variable, SHRML (operationally defined as leadership behaviour) was measured using a standardised scale developed by Rafferty and Griffin (2004). Performance outcomes; Job satisfaction (JS), Perceived organisational support (POS), Organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB) and Organisational commitment (OC) were measured using standardized scales developed by Thompson and Phua (2012), Eisenberger et al., (1999), Moorman and Blakely (1992) and Meyer et al., (1993) respectively, constituting the dependent variables measures. These scales were all reported to have been validated in the literature and face validity was additionally established by experts in the field from the Faculty of Commerce and Business Administration at the North-West University. All the scales used were combined with questions on demographics to form a survey questionnaire containing 68 items in total, and participants were asked to score the items measuring the study variables using a five-point rating continuum of: strongly disagree = 1, disagree = 2, neutral = 3, agree = 4 and strongly agree = 5. Reliability for the composite scale was established at $\alpha = .96$. Reliabilities for the main sub scales were established at $\alpha = .81$ (JS), $\alpha = .91$ (POS), $\alpha = .95$ (OC), $\alpha = .89$ (OCB), and $\alpha = .93$ (SHRM). The scores from the survey questionnaire were collected as quantitative data and used to determine the validity of the proposed framework.

A sample size of 1100 participants of a population size of 79,790 employees working in provincial public service departments in the North-West Province was determined for the study. A total of 759 usable participants' questionnaires were collected in the survey, achieving a 69% response rate. A demographic breakdown was provided for length of

service, gender, age categories, salary levels, education levels and provincial public service departments that participants worked in.

This study included four research hypotheses:

- (1) NWP Public service departments' employees will report high job outcomes (*JS* and *POS*) and organisational outcomes (*OC* and *OCB*);
- (2) There will be significant positive correlation between SHRM (i.e. Leadership) and job outcomes (*JS* and *POS*) and organisational outcomes (*OC* and *OCB*);
- (3) SHRML will significantly predict job outcomes (*JS* and *POS*) among public service employees in the North-West Province;
- (4) SHRML will significantly predict organisational outcomes (*OC* and *OCB*) among public service employees in the North-West Province.

All the hypotheses were answered quantitatively from the data obtained from participants' scores on the survey questionnaire items. Hypothesis one was answered by summing scores of dependent variables *JS*, *POS*, *OC* and *OCB*, and splitting the scores with the mean score to form 'high' and 'low' rating. Hypothesis two was answered using *Pearson's Product moment coefficient* to determine the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Hypotheses three and four were answered using a *Stepwise regression analysis* to determine the best set of predictors for the dependent variables. For this reason the discussion, in particular, is sectioned as levels of SHRM performance outcomes in NWP public service departments, correlation results, and regression results.

5.3 Discussion of findings and implications

5.3.1 Levels of SHRM performance outcomes in NWP public service departments

Research hypothesis one: NWP Public service departments' employees will report higher job outcomes (*JS* and *POS*) and organisational outcomes (*OC* and *OCB*).

The results for research hypothesis one indicate that the NW public service department employees reported higher job satisfaction, perceived organisational support, organisational citizenship behaviour but lower organisational commitment. This finding speaks to NW

public service employees' perceptions regarding SHRM performance outcomes that are essential for effective organisational functioning and performance. Some literature suggests that employees with higher levels of such outcomes will perform better than employees that indicate lower levels. For example research and literature suggests that higher JS translated to higher job performance in a sample drawn from the public sector (Rehman & Waheed 2011); higher OC reduced employee absenteeism and turnover levels and increased work efforts (Eisenberger, Fasolo & Davis-Lamastro, 1990); higher POS increased commitment, job satisfaction, extra efforts displayed by employees and reduced their counterproductive behaviours (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002, Howes, et al., 2000); whilst higher OCB had a positive impact on the efficiency and profitability of organisations (Karadal & Saygin, 2013).

The levels of the different SHRM performance outcomes displayed in this study contrasts but also bears some similarity with what other studies in the public sector have found. For JS levels within the public sector, the likes of Durst and DeSantis (1997), Jayaratne (1993), Wang *et al.*, (2012) study results suggest that public sector employees will most likely report lower JS, however this study found they reported higher JS, although not as high as the levels reported by the like of Gordon (2011) whose study revealed that 91% of her sample from a public sector organisation were satisfied with their job. Severe limitations are experienced in attempts to make similar comparisons with levels of POS and OCB displayed by samples drawn from public sector employees elsewhere, as it appears that these variables have not received much research coverage in public sector organisations. Notably, although JS, POS and OCB are rated higher in this study it is only the case in a small percentage above 50% of the total sample.

The OC was rated lower thus going against what was expected in hypothesis one. However, this aspect of the result fits with existing literature and confirms results from other research on OC in the public sector. For example, a previous study conducted by the South African Department of Public service and administration (2007) had found that there was a high level of uncommitted employees within the public service. While the likes of Goulet and Frank (2002), and Lyons' et al., (2006) studies reveal that OC levels of public sector employees are characteristically low, especially when compared with commitment levels of employees from other sectors.

5.3.2 Correlation results

Hypothesis two: There will be significant positive correlation between SHRML and Job outcomes (JS and POS) and Organisational outcomes (OC and OCB).

The results for research hypothesis two indicate there is a large positive and significant relationship between SHRML and JS, POS, OC and OCB for the public service employees in this sample. This means that high levels of SHRML will be associated with high levels of JS, POS, OC and OCB. This speaks to the quality of SHRML within provincial public service departments in the North-West Province. Provincial public service departments that have high level of SHRML may be able to increase their employees' JS, POS, OC and OCB levels. Furthermore, provincial public service departments with high levels of SHRML should expect associating with higher level of employee JS, POS, OC, and OCB than provincial public service departments with average or lower levels of SHRML.

The findings for research hypothesis two is more consistent with previous SHRM literature and research (Allen & Wright, 2006; Purcell, et al., 2009; Truss, et al., 2012; Wright, et al., 2001) that highlight the association of leadership behaviour with SHRM performance outcomes in organisations. The likes of Wright et al., (2001) in their conceptualisations of 'people management systems' which identify people or employees as central to SHRM focus rather than HR departments, suggested that research move beyond traditional focus on the presence of basic HR practices and policies in organisations, and control of the HR function, to include practices in areas such as leadership, culture etc. Purcell et al., (2009) found significant association between leadership behaviour i.e. leadership supportiveness especially pertaining to the provision of vision and values, and commitment, job satisfaction, and discretionary behaviour levels of employees. Walumbwa and Lawler (2003) also found similar association between leadership behaviour and satisfaction and commitment levels in their study, and Balfour and Wechsler (1991, 1996) found that leadership behaviour influenced the willingness of employees to make extra efforts on behalf of the organisation. With particular reference to research conducted in public sector institutions or organisations, Yang et al., (2011) also found that leadership behaviour was associated with commitment and job satisfaction level in the Taiwan. Park and Rainey (2007), and Steijn and Leisink (2006) also found similar association between aspects of leadership behaviour and commitment levels in the US and Dutch public sector respectively. While Whittington et al., (2009) found significant positive association, although small, between leadership and OCB.

While these previous literature and research findings are certainly useful in fully understanding the results of this study, what is apparent is that there are some deficiencies. For one there appears to be limited literature and study and literature that have been drawn from and research conducted based on public sector institutions in an African context, in particular South Africa, and finally the way SHRML impact POS levels of employees, especially those in the public sector and African public sector, has received limited study. The results of this study can categorically confirm that there is a significant positive association between SHRML and JS, OC, POS, and OCB for public sector employees based on an African context, to address the gap in the knowledge base of the subject area and answer if such questions were posed.

5.3.3 Regression results

5.3.3.1 Job satisfaction and perceived organisational support

Hypothesis three: SHRML will significantly predict Job outcomes – Job satisfaction and Perceived organisational support among public service employees in the North-West Province.

The study's regression analysis revealed that although SHRML, inspirational communication and vision dimensions of the composite were the best predictors of JS, that SHRML had the strongest weight in the regression model. Likewise for POS, SHRML also had the strongest weight in a regression model that also included supportive leadership as the best predictor of POS. The regression models for JS and POS were both statistically significant.

The implications of these results are hugely important for NWP public service department. The literature and research findings indicate that high levels of JS and POS are important if organisations seek to improve the overall functioning and effectiveness. For example high levels of JS have been linked to higher levels of organisational commitment (Aydogdu & Asikgil, 2011), better job performance (Rehman & Waheed, 2011), while high levels of POS have been linked to reduction of counter-productive behaviour such as absenteeism and voluntary withdrawal behaviour (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002), and lower turnover intention but as better team performance (Howes, et al., 2000). The South African Government actively seeks to transform the public service in a bid to improve its performance, and for this reason identified human resource and organisational planning, best

HR practises e.g. performance management etc, employee health and wellness, human resource utilisation and development as the main components comprising its strategic approach to effectively manage its human resources (PSC, 2010). However the findings of this result imply that serious consideration needs to be given to the SHRML as a significant part of its strategic approach towards improving public service effectiveness and performance. To elaborate the point the SHRML variable on its own predicts 32% and 62% of JS and POS variables respectively in both regression models generated for these variables in this study.

Results from studies conducted by the likes of Purcell et al., (2009), highlight leadership behaviour such as ‘personal recognition’ dimensions as significantly associated with employees’ JS in the UK, while Lok and Crawford (2004) have found ‘supportive leadership’ as dimensions that significantly improved JS. Uniquely the result from the regression analysis for JS in this study revealed that in addition to the SHRML, dimensions of inspirational communication, and vision, in that order, are stronger predictors of JS for NWP public service employees, that what other studies have shown. The regression analysis for POS is also interesting in the sense that there appears to be limited studies that explore this variable within public sector organisation, especially those in Africa. The results from this study reveal not just POS level for NWP provincial public service employees but identify SHRML and a supportive leadership as significant predictors of the variable.

5.3.3.2 Organisational commitment and organisational citizenship behaviour

Hypothesis four: SHRML will significantly predict Organisational outcomes (OC and OCB) among public service employees in the North-West Province.

The regression model derived for OC revealed that SHRML, personal recognition, and intellectual stimulation/creative leadership dimensions were its strongest predictors. Notably SHRML had the strongest weight in the statistically significant model. For OCB the regression model revealed that SHRML and inspirational communication were the best predictors of OCB, however SHRML had the strongest weight in the statistically significant model.

These results potentially has significant implications for leaders and managers within the NWP public service departments if interest is to be paid to the South African Government to improve public service performance. For example, the literature and research on OC

highlight that high level employee OC are said to have huge benefits for organisational performance e.g. higher work effort, lower employee absenteeism and turn over intentions, better performance etc, and such outcomes are reflected in the works of the likes of Allen and Meyer (1990), Bontis and Fitz-Enz (2002), Lumley *et al.*, (2011), Podsakoff *et al.*, (2000) to mention but a few. Likewise, OCB have been linked to the efficiency and profitability of organisations (Karadal & Saygin, 2013), and to work engagement (Mathumbu & Dodd, 2013), while Roos *et al.*, (2004) have suggested that it is the key way in which organisations have access to the maximum potential of their employees. Equally important is that leadership behaviour has been shown in some studies to have effects on both variables. For example Wang *et al.*, (2005) found that organisational leadership was associated with OCB, and Oguz (2010) found a meaningful relationship between transformational leadership style and OCB. And for OC, for example Wallace *et al.*, (2012) found that a considerate leadership style had a positive impact on the commitment levels of employees, and Firhana and Santoso (2013) found similar results in their study of civil servants. To further elaborate this point using regression results from this study the SHRML on its own predicts 53% and 29% of OC and OCB variables respectively in statistically significant models.

From the research studies on this subject the likes of Guest and Conway (2004), and Kidd and Smewing have identified ‘supervisory leadership’, while Wallace *et al.*, (2012) have identified a ‘considerate leadership’ style as important factors for impacting upon commitment levels in their studies. And for OCB, Lopez-Dominguez *et al.*, (2013) had identified ‘individualised consideration’ and ‘supportive leadership’ dimensions of transformational leadership as important factors affecting OCB. The particular study in NWP public service department is also unique in the sense that not only is it undertaken in the public sector, especially in an African context, the regression analysis used included dimensions such as individualised consideration and supportive leadership are included in the analysis. The result showed that in addition to the composite SHRML, inspirational communication leadership dimension was the only other significant predictor of OCB for the respondents, while personal recognition and intellectual stimulation/creativity in that order were the only other significant predictors of OC.

5.4 Implication for practice

How public service departments can be effective and show high levels of performance is an important item on the agenda for the South African Government. Communities within the

country have also called for better performance from public institutions especially with regards to the delivery of services to community members. The Government (in response to such demands) have in turn urged public service departments to manage their employees in a way that is strategic, that values the employee and creates a platform in which high levels of performance can be achieved (DPSA, 1997, 2008). The findings of this study have potentially far reaching implications as many people are interested in the performance of public service performance. SHRML framework offered in this study emphasises the ability of those who are responsible for managing and leading people in the public service to foster a strong vision amongst those they are in charge of, inspire them, enhance their ability to be creative, support them, and recognise their efforts and contributions to their organisations or departments. This study identified several significant links between SHRML and performance outcomes and will benefit public service managers and leaders, HR professionals, and researchers interested in public service performance.

For the HR professional, this study offers insight into how SHRML can contribute to the performance of organisations, especially provincial public service departments in the North West Province of South Africa in this case. It will give a HR professional a better understanding as to why the existence of good HR policy and associated practice may not guarantee the performance that organisations require. It also highlights for the HR professional, in particular, that the responsibility for the strategic management of employees within the public sector is not solely the mandate for the HR function within those departments but rather a responsibility for all within the organisation who are responsible for managing and leading people. However the HR professional may influence individuals within the department who are charged with such responsibility as leading or managing employees to do so in a way that is beneficial to the achievement of organisational goals and objectives. To do this may imply seeking evidence that leaders and managers that are selected or recruited in public service department have the right quality of SHRML dimensions, or to enhance these dimensions via targeted trainings and links to performance appraisals of managers and leaders in the departments.

For public sector manager and leaders the results also brings better understanding of what performance entails and how their own behaviours could directly encourage or hinder the ability of the organisation to achieve its objectives and goals. The study focused on the individual level of SHRM performance outcomes i.e., JS, OC, POS and OCB which has close

association with other outcomes that organisations seek e.g., better performance, team effectiveness, work efficiency, customer satisfaction etc. Importantly the results indicate the behaviours where the leader or manager goes a significant way in determining the level of such performance outcomes, by directly impacting positively or negatively the attitudes and behaviours of those they manage, and therein indirectly the performance of the organisation as a whole. Managers and leaders that become aware of this should ideally make significant changes to ensure that they display the kind of behaviour in order to create the platform or environment in which the overall organisation performance can effectively be supported by the employees' attitudes and behaviour. The leadership behaviour cannot be vague, but clear and should specifically embrace the dimensions of SHRML in this study, as there is now proof based on a study located in their own context that the quality of SHRML can be linked to the performance of public service employees.

Finally, for researchers interested in public service performance, the findings of the study lends themselves for comparison to other studies on SHRM and performance within the public sector domain undertaken outside of Africa, where the majority of the work as reflected in the literature in this study seem to have been conducted. As well as provide an opportunity for comparison with the findings of other studies or expansion for future studies that may be undertaken based on African public sector organisations. The findings of this study will fill a reasonable knowledge gap and provide a suitable platform for further exploration by other researchers.

5.5 Recommendation for further studies

The main objective of this study was to provide a framework that links SHRML and public service performance in the North-West Province of South Africa. Data were collected to test four research hypothesis that were posed in relation to the objective. From the analysis of the data collected many significant findings were made, although with some limitation. A limitation of this study is that the performance outcomes used were at individual level and were not linked to performance outcomes that could only have been derived from factors outside the organisation i.e., customers or clients of public service department goods and services, but have strong potential of giving an objective evaluation of whether public service performance is satisfactory. Although one may look to service delivery protest as some

indicator, this may not reflect the opinion of the wider population that use public service goods and services. Further research will be required along these lines in order to better understand and appreciate the link between SHRM and public service performance.

Specifically, the SHRML framework can as also be linked to other levels of SHRM performance outcomes i.e., unit level, organisational level and financial level outcomes. The study does not explore outcomes from these levels and it will be a useful research exercise to see how SHRML interacts with outcomes at such levels. In addition, the sub dimensions within SHRML composite are not explored fully in this study and it will be useful to see if these dimensions have moderating effects within the framework, or even how the dimensions in the composite rank in order of predicting SHRM performance outcomes, or even dimensions within such outcomes i.e., the affective, normative and continuance sub dimensions of organisational commitment. In addition the study was limited in the sense that moderating effect of descriptive variables such as age group, salary levels, length of service etc. on the employee attitudes and behaviour was investigated in this study and is recommended for further research and study.

Finally, another limitation of this study is that the research method draws only from quantitative insights and analysis. Although the findings from the study is successful in showing the relationship between the associations between SHRML and performance outcomes, JS, POS, OC and OCB, a qualitative study would be beneficial and enable researchers to develop a deeper understanding of the relationship between these variables.

5.6 Conclusions

The findings of this study resonate with findings of other studies, such as Steijn and Leisink (2006), Whittington et al., (2004) and Yang et al., (2011), that support the views that the leadership dimension of SHRM potentially impacts on the performance dimensions such as job satisfaction and commitment levels of employees in the public sector. It expands the current knowledge in this particular area by exploring how SHRML may contribute to the performance of public service departments especially in an African context like provincial public service departments in the North West Province of South Africa. This is a context that had received very limited exposure in the literature.

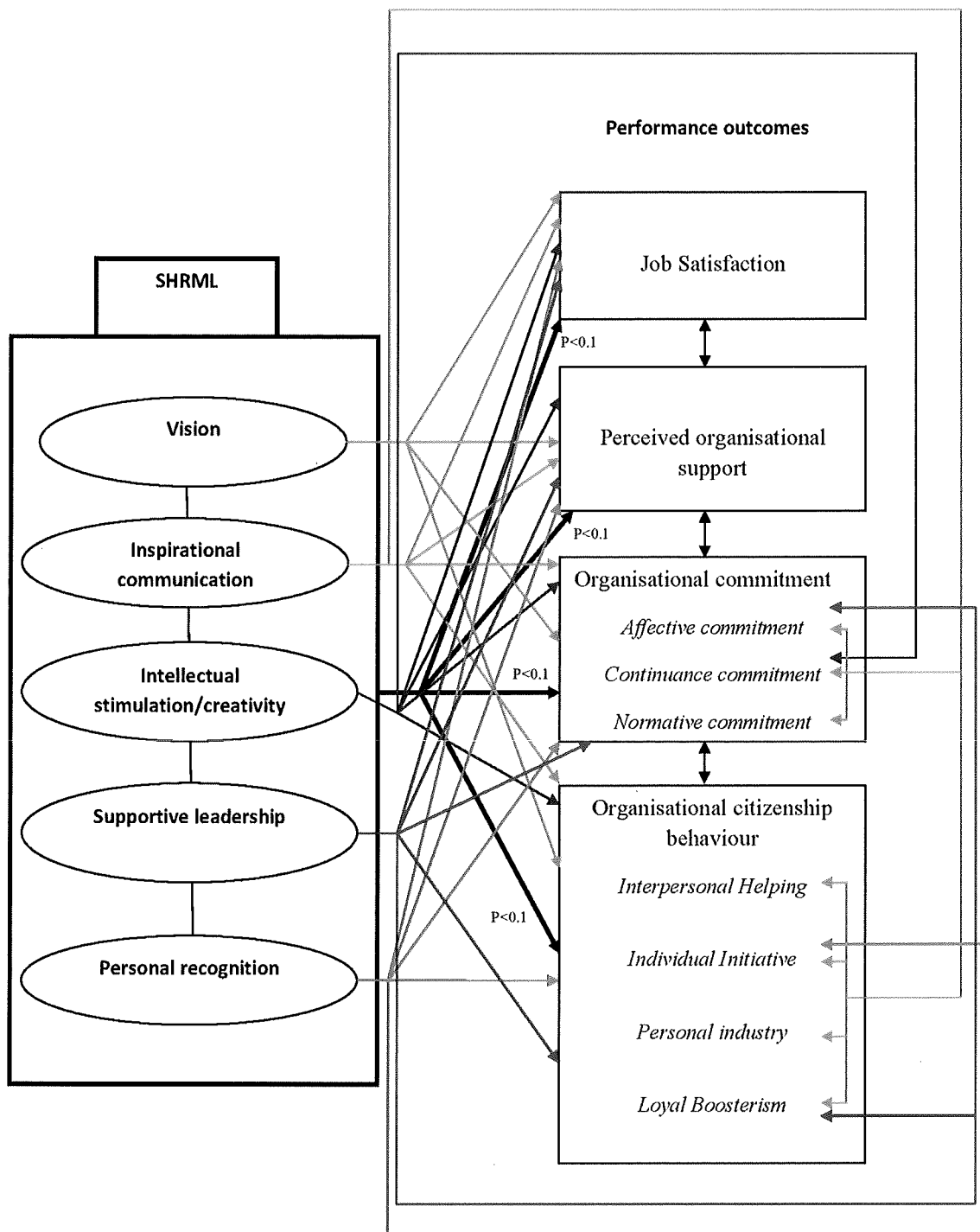
The study reveals that the NWP public service employees in this study report high JS, OCB, POS, but low OC. Notably the results reveal that although JS, OCB and POS are reported as high, however this is just the case for just slightly more than half of the study sample. This may appear encouraging but if one were to agree with existing SHRM literature etc. that high levels of these variables within organisation are essential and will help organisation achieve better performances e.g. Truss et al., (2012). However, it may be in the best interest of NW Provincial public service departments to actively to seek solutions on how to even further increase the positive levels of these variables for their employees as almost 50% of the sample also report low JS, POS, and OCB and even more than half of the sample in this study report low OC.

Further assessment of the initial findings found in the study showed that SHRML was not only strongly associated with this variables but was a significant predictor of the variables with the largest contribution. Existing literature indicated that the leadership behaviour can positively or negatively influence the contribution of employees towards the success of organisations via their attitudes and behaviour e.g., Purcell et al., (2009). The findings resonate strongly with findings of other studies (e.g. Balfour & Wechsler, Brewer, 2005; Nahum-Shani and Somech, 2011; Perryer and Jordan, 2005; Yang et al., 2011) conducted in the public sector that support an association and a predictive link between the variables explored in this study. This study however extend previous studies of predictive association by focusing on public institutions in an African context, particularly provincial public service departments in the North West Province of South Africa, as well as explore how the leadership dimension of SHRM may impact on perceived organisational support of government employees; which are areas that have received limited contextual exposure in literature and research.

In practice, North West Provincial public service departments may improve the performance (as defined in this study) of their employees by highlighting and emphasising SHRML as a core aspect of SHRM practices. Practically this can be achieved by indicating SHRML as a necessary recruitment requirement for future employees, supporting and developing in those who currently lead and manage others at all levels within these departments through training, mentoring and coaching, enforcing it as an important part of performance assessment, and finally closely monitoring the performance outcomes (as defined in this study) on frequent

basis via regular climate surveys and at the same time assessing the achievement of the departments' objectives and goals.

The significance of the associations and predictions from this study are presented in Figure 14 as the conclusion to this study.



P values <.01. Confirms 99% significance level

Figure 14: Derived framework that links SHRML and public service performance in the NWP.

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- Certain information in the Public Service is being classified and your student will not be favoured with such.
- Relevant Officials to be interviewed will have to be consulted well in advance to negotiate the interview dates / times as well as information to be required.
- The Provincial Government will require a copy of Mr Oduaran's finally endorsed / approved thesis / dissertation and some of its recommendations might be implemented without his and / or university's consent.

We attach herewith a list of Provincial Department's Heads and their details for easy communication.

Wishing Mr Overay Oduaran all the best in this research project.

Yours, sincerely.



ABBEY TLALETSI

ACTING DIRECTOR GENERAL

DATE: 29/04/2011

APPENDIX B: RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY MAFIKENG CAMPUS FACULTY OF COMMERCE & ADMIN

Survey Questionnaire

A Framework to link Strategic Human Resources Management (SHRM) and Public Service Performance in the North-West Province.

Dear Participant,

I kindly request that you take a few minutes to participate in a survey of how SHRM practices of public service departments in the North-West Province impact the performance of its staff. You are part of a random sample of the public service workforce and your views are very important for understanding the impact of workplace practices on employees.

Your responses to this survey are voluntary and strictly confidential. No data will be disclosed to anyone that could be used to identify individual participants. Your participation is encouraged to ensure that our data is complete and representative of the workforce.

On average, the survey will take about **15** minutes to complete. It may be completed at your work site/place or at home but will be collected at work site/place at a scheduled time.

When you have completed the survey, please check to see if you have responded to all the items. By completing this questionnaire you provide your consent.

Thank you for your time, I appreciate your help.

The Researcher (North West University, Mafikeng Campus)

DEMOGRAPHICS

Place a ✓ in the circle next to your chosen response. To change your answer, **cross out** the incorrect answer and then tick the appropriate answer.

1. How many years have you been a North West provincial public service department employee?

- ☐ Under 1 year
- ☐ 1 – 3 Years
- ☐ 4 – 7 Years
- ☐ 8 – 11 Years
- ☐ 12–15 Years
- ☐ 16 – 19 Years
- ☐ 20 – 23 Years
- ☐ 24 -27 Years
- ☐ 28 – 31 Years
- ☐ 32 – 35 Years
- ☐ More than 35 Years

2. What is your gender?

- ☐ Female
- ☐ Male

3. What is your age group?

- ☐ 25 and below
- ☐ 26 - 30
- ☐ 31 - 35
- ☐ 36 - 40
- ☐ 41 - 45
- ☐ 46 and above

4. What is your current Job level?

- ☐ Level 1 – 2
- ☐ Level 3 – 5
- ☐ Level 6 - 8
- ☐ Level 9 - 12
- ☐ Level 13 -16
- ☐ Other – Non permanent

5. What is your current education level?

- ☐ Below Matric (Grade 12)
- ☐ Matric
- ☐ Post Matric Certificate
- ☐ Diploma
- ☐ Bachelors degree
- ☐ Honours (HONS) degree
- ☐ Masters degree and above

6. Which North West Provincial public service department do you work for?

- ☐ Agriculture and Rural Development
- ☐ Economic Development, Environment, Conservation and Tourism
- ☐ Education
- ☐ Finance
- ☐ Health
- ☐ Human Settlement
- ☐ Local Government and Traditional Affairs
- ☐ Public Work, Roads and Transport
- ☐ Public Safety and Liaison
- ☐ Sport, Arts and Culture
- ☐ Social Development, Women, Children and People with Disabilities

Listed below and on the next several pages are statements that represent possible opinions that **YOU** may have about working at your specified provincial public service department. Please indicate the degree of your agreement or disagreement with each statement by circling the number on the survey sheet that best represent your view about your work place.

To change your answer, cross out the incorrect answer and then circle the appropriate response. See example.

Example

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral
~~1~~	2	3

DEFINITION OF SURVEY TERMS

Leadership or Leaders are public service's management team. This includes anyone with supervises or manages other employees such as team leaders, supervisors, managers and senior executives or equivalent.

Organisation refer to a provincial public service department, office or division

PLEASE RESPOND TO THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS

Statement		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1.	I find real enjoyment in my job	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I like my job better than the average person	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Most days I am excited about my job	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I feel fairly well satisfied with my job	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I would be happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I do feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I do feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I do feel like 'part of the family' at my organisation	1	2	3	4	5
10.	This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I go out of my way to help co-workers with work-related problems	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I voluntarily help new employees settle into the job	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I frequently adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time to attend to other responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5

Statement		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
14.	I always go out of my way to make newer employees feel welcome in the group	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I show genuine concern and courtesy towards co-workers, even under the most trying business or personal situation	1	2	3	4	5
16.	The leaders in my organisation have a clear understanding of where we are going	1	2	3	4	5
17.	The leaders in my organisation have a clear sense of where they want our organisation to be in 5 years	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Right now, staying with my organisation is a matter of my desire than a necessity	1	2	3	4	5
19.	It would be very hard for me to leave my organisation right now, even if I wanted to	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Too much in my life would be disrupted if I decided to leave my organisation now	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Even if I have options to leave this organisation I prefer to stay	1	2	3	4	5
22.	I have put so much of myself into this organisation and will not consider working elsewhere	1	2	3	4	5
23.	For issues that may have serious consequences, I express opinions honestly even when others disagree	1	2	3	4	5
24.	I often motivate others to express their ideas and opinions at my work place	1	2	3	4	5
25.	I encourage others to try new and more effective ways of doing their job	1	2	3	4	5
26.	I encourage hesitant or quiet co-workers to voice their opinions when they otherwise might not speak up	1	2	3	4	5
27.	I frequently communicate to co-workers suggestions on how the group can improve	1	2	3	4	5
28.	The leaders in my organisation say things that make employees proud to be a part of the organisation	1	2	3	4	5
29.	The leaders in my organisation says positive things about my work unit/team	1	2	3	4	5
30.	The leaders in my organisation encourage people to see changing environments as situations full of opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
31.	I do feel an obligation to remain with my current employer	1	2	3	4	5

Statement		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
32.	Even if it were to my advantage, I do not feel it would be right to leave my organisation now	1	2	3	4	5
33.	I would feel guilty if I left my organisation now	1	2	3	4	5
34.	This organisation deserves my loyalty	1	2	3	4	5
35.	I would not leave my organisation right now because I have a sense of obligation	1	2	3	4	5
36.	I owe a great deal to my organisation	1	2	3	4	5
37.	I rarely miss work even when I have a legitimate reason for doing so	1	2	3	4	5
38.	I perform my duties at work with usually few errors	1	2	3	4	5
39.	I perform my duties at work with extra-special care	1	2	3	4	5
40.	I always meet or beat deadlines for completing work	1	2	3	4	5
41.	The leaders in my organisation challenge me to think about old problems in new ways	1	2	3	4	5
42.	The leaders in my organisation have ideas that force me to rethink some things that I have never questioned before	1	2	3	4	5
43.	The leaders in my organisation have challenged me to rethink some of my basic assumptions about my work	1	2	3	4	5
44.	My organisation cares about my opinions	1	2	3	4	5
45.	The organisation really cares about my well-being	1	2	3	4	5
46.	My organisation strongly considers my goals and values	1	2	3	4	5
47.	Help is available from my organisation when I have a problem	1	2	3	4	5
48.	My organisation would forgive an honest mistake on my part	1	2	3	4	5
49.	If given the opportunity, my organisation would not take advantage of me	1	2	3	4	5
50.	My organisation shows concern for me	1	2	3	4	5
51.	My organisation is willing to help me, if I need a special favour	1	2	3	4	5
52.	I defend the organisation when other employees criticize it	1	2	3	4	5
53.	I encourage friend and family to utilize the organisation's products or services	1	2	3	4	5
54.	I defend the organisation when outsiders criticize it	1	2	3	4	5
55.	I show pride when representing the organisation in public	1	2	3	4	5

Statement		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
56.	I actively promote the organisation's products or services to potential user	1	2	3	4	5
57.	The leaders in my organisation consider my personal feelings before acting	1	2	3	4	5
58.	The leaders in my organisation behave in a manner which is thoughtful of my personal needs	1	2	3	4	5
59.	The leaders in my organisation see that the interests of employees are given due consideration	1	2	3	4	5
60.	The leaders in my organisation commend me when I do a better than average quality of work	1	2	3	4	5
61.	The leaders in my organisation acknowledge improvements in the quality of my work	1	2	3	4	5
62.	The leaders in my organisation personally compliment me when I do outstanding work	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C: STATISTICS AND FREQUENCY TABLES OF JS, POS, OC & OCB

Job Satisfaction

Statistics

Job Satisfaction (JS)

N	Valid	759
	Missing	0
Mean		14.18
Median		14.57 ^a
Std. Deviation		3.312
Skewness		-.453
Std. Error of Skewness		.089
Kurtosis		.042
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.177
Minimum		4
Maximum		20

a. Calculated from grouped data.

Job Satisfaction

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	4	6	.8	.8	.8
	5	2	.3	.3	1.1
	6	5	.7	.7	1.7
	7	13	1.7	1.7	3.4
	8	22	2.9	2.9	6.3
	9	20	2.6	2.6	9.0
	10	32	4.2	4.2	13.2
	11	53	7.0	7.0	20.2
	12	69	9.1	9.1	29.2
	13	78	10.3	10.3	39.5
	14	72	9.5	9.5	49.0
	15	81	10.7	10.7	59.7
	16	135	17.8	17.8	77.5
	17	71	9.4	9.4	86.8
	18	30	4.0	4.0	90.8
	19	25	3.3	3.3	94.1
	20	45	5.9	5.9	100.0
Total		759	100.0	100.0	

Perceived organisational support

Statistics

Perceived Organisational Support (POS)

N	Valid	759
	Missing	0
Mean		24.43
Median		25.00
Std. Deviation		6.762
Skewness		-.261
Std. Error of Skewness		.089
Kurtosis		-.194
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.177
Minimum		8
Maximum		40

Perceived Organisational Support

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	8	17	2.2	2.2	2.2
	9	3	.4	.4	2.6
	10	7	.9	.9	3.6
	11	4	.5	.5	4.1
	12	7	.9	.9	5.0
	13	10	1.3	1.3	6.3
	14	11	1.4	1.4	7.8
	15	25	3.3	3.3	11.1
	16	26	3.4	3.4	14.5
	17	14	1.8	1.8	16.3
	18	21	2.8	2.8	19.1
	19	27	3.6	3.6	22.7
	20	23	3.0	3.0	25.7
	21	38	5.0	5.0	30.7
	22	34	4.5	4.5	35.2
	23	37	4.9	4.9	40.1
	24	67	8.8	8.8	48.9
	25	47	6.2	6.2	55.1
	26	48	6.3	6.3	61.4
	27	40	5.3	5.3	66.7
	28	34	4.5	4.5	71.1
	29	38	5.0	5.0	76.2
	30	43	5.7	5.7	81.8
	31	26	3.4	3.4	85.2
	32	30	4.0	4.0	89.2
	33	15	2.0	2.0	91.2
	34	26	3.4	3.4	94.6
	35	12	1.6	1.6	96.2
	36	8	1.1	1.1	97.2
	37	7	.9	.9	98.2
	38	4	.5	.5	98.7
	39	2	.3	.3	98.9
	40	8	1.1	1.1	100.0
	Total	759	100.0	100.0	

Organisational commitment

Statistics

Organisational Commitment (OC)

N	Valid	759
	Missing	0
Mean		51.37
Median		51.00
Std. Deviation		14.937
Skewness		.013
Std. Error of Skewness		.089
Kurtosis		-.765
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.177
Minimum		17
Maximum		85

Organisational Commitment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	17	1	.1	.1	.1
	18	2	.3	.3	.4
	19	1	.1	.1	.5
	20	3	.4	.4	.9
	21	5	.7	.7	1.6
	22	1	.1	.1	1.7
	23	5	.7	.7	2.4
	24	5	.7	.7	3.0
	25	3	.4	.4	3.4
	26	6	.8	.8	4.2
	27	10	1.3	1.3	5.5
	28	9	1.2	1.2	6.7
	29	8	1.1	1.1	7.8
	30	9	1.2	1.2	9.0
	31	10	1.3	1.3	10.3
	32	11	1.4	1.4	11.7
	33	14	1.8	1.8	13.6
	34	4	.5	.5	14.1
	35	11	1.4	1.4	15.5
	36	14	1.8	1.8	17.4
	37	12	1.6	1.6	19.0
	38	15	2.0	2.0	20.9
	39	17	2.2	2.2	23.2
	40	19	2.5	2.5	25.7
	41	13	1.7	1.7	27.4
	42	14	1.8	1.8	29.2
	43	19	2.5	2.5	31.8
	44	25	3.3	3.3	35.0
	45	22	2.9	2.9	37.9
	46	17	2.2	2.2	40.2
	47	21	2.8	2.8	43.0
	48	17	2.2	2.2	45.2
	49	16	2.1	2.1	47.3

50	18	2.4	2.4	49.7
51	15	2.0	2.0	51.6
52	17	2.2	2.2	53.9
53	14	1.8	1.8	55.7
54	21	2.8	2.8	58.5
55	10	1.3	1.3	59.8
56	13	1.7	1.7	61.5
57	15	2.0	2.0	63.5
58	30	4.0	4.0	67.5
59	8	1.1	1.1	68.5
60	10	1.3	1.3	69.8
61	11	1.4	1.4	71.3
62	14	1.8	1.8	73.1
63	11	1.4	1.4	74.6
64	18	2.4	2.4	76.9
65	12	1.6	1.6	78.5
66	13	1.7	1.7	80.2
67	17	2.2	2.2	82.5
68	19	2.5	2.5	85.0
69	19	2.5	2.5	87.5
70	14	1.8	1.8	89.3
71	9	1.2	1.2	90.5
72	10	1.3	1.3	91.8
73	10	1.3	1.3	93.1
74	10	1.3	1.3	94.5
75	5	.7	.7	95.1
76	7	.9	.9	96.0
77	5	.7	.7	96.7
78	7	.9	.9	97.6
79	6	.8	.8	98.4
80	2	.3	.3	98.7
81	1	.1	.1	98.8
83	2	.3	.3	99.1
84	2	.3	.3	99.3
85	5	.7	.7	100.0
Total	759	100.0	100.0	

Organisational citizenship behaviour

Statistics

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB)

N	Valid	759
	Missing	0
Mean		69.59
Median		71.00
Std. Deviation		10.521
Skewness		-.384
Std. Error of Skewness		.089
Kurtosis		.116
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.177
Minimum		33
Maximum		95

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	33	1	.1	.1	.1
	35	1	.1	.1	.3
	36	1	.1	.1	.4
	40	1	.1	.1	.5
	42	3	.4	.4	.9
	43	3	.4	.4	1.3
	45	3	.4	.4	1.7
	46	2	.3	.3	2.0
	47	5	.7	.7	2.6
	48	7	.9	.9	3.6
	49	5	.7	.7	4.2
	50	13	1.7	1.7	5.9
	51	7	.9	.9	6.9
	52	3	.4	.4	7.2
	53	3	.4	.4	7.6
	54	9	1.2	1.2	8.8
	55	11	1.4	1.4	10.3
	56	8	1.1	1.1	11.3
	57	11	1.4	1.4	12.8
	58	17	2.2	2.2	15.0
	59	15	2.0	2.0	17.0
	60	15	2.0	2.0	19.0
	61	16	2.1	2.1	21.1
	62	16	2.1	2.1	23.2
	63	21	2.8	2.8	26.0
	64	21	2.8	2.8	28.7
	65	20	2.6	2.6	31.4
	66	25	3.3	3.3	34.7
	67	21	2.8	2.8	37.4
	68	29	3.8	3.8	41.2
	69	30	4.0	4.0	45.2
	70	35	4.6	4.6	49.8
	71	41	5.4	5.4	55.2
	72	29	3.8	3.8	59.0
	73	34	4.5	4.5	63.5
	74	31	4.1	4.1	67.6

[Appendices]

75	29	3.8	3.8	71.4
76	30	4.0	4.0	75.4
77	18	2.4	2.4	77.7
78	15	2.0	2.0	79.7
79	22	2.9	2.9	82.6
80	24	3.2	3.2	85.8
81	17	2.2	2.2	88.0
82	11	1.4	1.4	89.5
83	19	2.5	2.5	92.0
84	14	1.8	1.8	93.8
85	6	.8	.8	94.6
86	10	1.3	1.3	95.9
87	5	.7	.7	96.6
88	2	.3	.3	96.8
89	9	1.2	1.2	98.0
90	8	1.1	1.1	99.1
91	2	.3	.3	99.3
92	1	.1	.1	99.5
95	4	.5	.5	100.0
Total	759	100.0	100.0	

APPENDIX D: FULL OUTPUT FROM STEPWISE REGRESSION ANALYSIS CONDUCTED IN THE STUDY

Job satisfaction

[DataSet1] C:\Users\Research\Desktop\PhD Date 6.09.2013.sav

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Leadership		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
2	Inspirational Communication		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
3	Vision		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).

a. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.567 ^a	.322	.321	2.730
2	.575 ^b	.330	.329	2.714
3	.579 ^c	.336	.333	2.705

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Inspirational Communication

c. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Inspirational Communication, vision

ANOVA^d

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2673.715	1	2673.715	358.785	.000 ^a
	Residual	5641.273	757	7.452		
	Total	8314.988	758			
2	Regression	2747.905	2	1373.953	186.580	.000 ^b
	Residual	5567.083	756	7.364		
	Total	8314.988	758			
3	Regression	2790.272	3	930.091	127.105	.000 ^c
	Residual	5524.716	755	7.318		
	Total	8314.988	758			

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Inspirational Communication

c. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Inspirational Communication, vision

d. Dependent Variable: Job satisfaction

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	6.440	.420		15.319	.000
	leadership	.169	.009	.567	18.942	.000
2	(Constant)	6.490	.418		15.519	.000
	leadership	.123	.017	.412	7.211	.000
	Inspirational Communication	.201	.063	.181	3.174	.002

3	(Constant)	6.440	.417		15.429	.000
	leadership	.102	.019	.343	5.368	.000
	Inspirational Communication	.170	.065	.154	2.642	.008
	vision	.185	.077	.118	2.406	.016

a. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

Excluded Variables ^d						
Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	vision	.144 ^a	2.979	.003	.108	.380
	Inspirational Communication	.181 ^a	3.174	.002	.115	.271
	Creativity	-.100 ^a	-2.199	.028	-.080	.428
	Supportive Leadership	-.076 ^a	-1.499	.134	-.054	.351
	Personal Recognition	-.095 ^a	-1.623	.105	-.059	.261
2	vision	.118 ^b	2.406	.016	.087	.365
	Creativity	-.065 ^b	-1.372	.171	-.050	.394
	Supportive Leadership	.003 ^b	.044	.965	.002	.268
	Personal Recognition	-.039 ^b	-.634	.526	-.023	.234
3	Creativity	-.048 ^c	-.997	.319	-.036	.384
	Supportive Leadership	.057 ^c	.932	.352	.034	.236
	Personal Recognition	.011 ^c	.176	.860	.006	.208

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership, Inspirational Communication

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership, Inspirational Communication, vision

d. Dependent Variable: Job Satisfaction

Perceived Organisational Support

Variables Entered/Removed ^a			
Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	leadership	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
2	Supportive Leadership	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).

a. Dependent Variable: Perceived Organisational Support

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.790 ^a	.624	.623	4.151
2	.812 ^b	.660	.659	3.951

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Supportive Leadership

ANOVA^c

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	21622.952	1	21622.952	1255.202	.000 ^a
	Residual	13040.592	757	17.227		
	Total	34663.544	758			
2	Regression	22864.536	2	11432.268	732.502	.000 ^b
	Residual	11799.008	756	15.607		
	Total	34663.544	758			

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Supportive Leadership

c. Dependent Variable: Perceived Organisational Support

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	2.420	.639		3.786	.000
leadership	.480	.014	.790	35.429	.000
2 (Constant)	3.073	.613		5.015	.000
leadership	.323	.022	.532	14.854	.000
Supportive Leadership	.751	.084	.320	8.919	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Perceived Organisational Support

Excluded Variables^c

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	vision	-.148 ^a	-4.137	.000	-.149	.380
	Inspirational Communication	-.171 ^a	-4.029	.000	-.145	.271
	Creativity	-.036 ^a	-1.047	.296	-.038	.428
	Supportive Leadership	.320 ^a	8.919	.000	.309	.351
	Personal Recognition	-.033 ^a	-.756	.450	-.027	.261
2	vision	-.033 ^b	-.873	.383	-.032	.321
	Inspirational Communication	.008 ^b	.174	.862	.006	.207

Creativity	.033 ^b	1.002	.317	.036	.405
Personal Recognition	-.021 ^b	-.495	.621	-.018	.261

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership, Supportive Leadership

c. Dependent Variable: Perceived Organisational Support

Organisational Commitment

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	leadership	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
2	Personal Recognition	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
3	Creativity	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).

a. Dependent Variable: Organisational Commitment

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.725 ^a	.525	.525	10.297
2	.732 ^b	.536	.535	10.184
3	.734 ^c	.539	.537	10.158

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition

c. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition, Creativity

ANOVA^d

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	88839.976	1	88839.976	837.819	.000 ^a
	Residual	80270.200	757	106.037		
	Total	169110.177	758			
2	Regression	90702.721	2	45351.360	437.275	.000 ^b
	Residual	78407.456	756	103.714		
	Total	169110.177	758			
3	Regression	91201.367	3	30400.456	294.605	.000 ^c
	Residual	77908.810	755	103.190		
	Total	169110.177	758			

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition

c. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition, Creativity

d. Dependent Variable: Organisational Commitment

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	6.761	1.586		4.264	.000
	leadership	.972	.034	.725	28.945	.000
2	(Constant)	5.673	1.589		3.570	.000
	leadership	1.209	.065	.901	18.603	.000
	Personal Recognition	-.977	.231	-.205	-4.238	.000
3	(Constant)	6.520	1.631		3.997	.000
	leadership	1.343	.089	1.001	15.119	.000
	Personal Recognition	-1.158	.244	-.243	-4.741	.000
	Creativity	-.524	.238	-.088	-2.198	.028

a. Dependent Variable: Organisational Commitment

Excluded Variables^d

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	vision	.086 ^a	2.109	.035	.076	.380
	Inspirational Communication	.043 ^a	.888	.375	.032	.271
	Creativity	-.024 ^a	-.627	.531	-.023	.428
	Supportive Leadership	.090 ^a	2.138	.033	.078	.351
	Personal Recognition	-.205 ^a	-4.238	.000	-.152	.261
2	vision	.025 ^b	.586	.558	.021	.326
	Inspirational Communication	-.025 ^b	-.506	.613	-.018	.242
	Creativity	-.088 ^b	-2.198	.028	-.080	.379
	Supportive Leadership	.084 ^b	2.019	.044	.073	.350
3	vision	-.013 ^c	-.277	.782	-.010	.278
	Inspirational Communication	-.091 ^c	-1.639	.102	-.060	.196
	Supportive Leadership	.065 ^c	1.503	.133	.055	.327

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition, Creativity

d. Dependent Variable: Organisational Commitment

d. Dependent Variable: Normative Commitment

Dimensions of OC

Affective Commitment

[DataSet1] C:\Users\Research\Desktop\PhD Date 6.09.2013.sav

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	leadership		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
2	Personal Recognition		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
3	Inspirational Communication		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).

a. Dependent Variable: Affective Commitment

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.660 ^a	.436	.435	4.019
2	.668 ^b	.446	.444	3.987
3	.671 ^c	.450	.448	3.974

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition

c. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition, Inspirational Communication

ANOVA^d

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	9460.268	1	9460.268	585.770	.000 ^a
	Residual	12225.648	757	16.150		
	Total	21685.916	758			
2	Regression	9667.345	2	4833.673	304.051	.000 ^b
	Residual	12018.571	756	15.898		
	Total	21685.916	758			
3	Regression	9762.755	3	3254.252	206.066	.000 ^c
	Residual	11923.161	755	15.792		
	Total	21685.916	758			

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition

c. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition, Inspirational Communication

d. Dependent Variable: Affective Commitment

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4.252	.619		6.871	.000
	leadership	.317	.013	.660	24.203	.000
2	(Constant)	3.889	.622		6.251	.000
	leadership	.396	.025	.825	15.571	.000
	Personal Recognition	-.326	.090	-.191	-3.609	.000
3	(Constant)	3.745	.623		6.012	.000

leadership	.470	.039	.978	11.969	.000
Personal Recognition	-.402	.095	-.236	-4.223	.000
Inspirational Communication	-.241	.098	-.135	-2.458	.014

a. Dependent Variable: Affective Commitment

Excluded Variables^d

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	vision	.070 ^a	1.590	.112	.058	.380
	Inspirational Communication	-.060 ^a	-1.136	.256	-.041	.271
	Creativity	.050 ^a	1.208	.227	.044	.428
	Supportive Leadership	.093 ^a	2.030	.043	.074	.351
	Personal Recognition	-.191 ^a	-3.609	.000	-.130	.261
2	Vision	.013 ^b	.271	.786	.010	.326
	Inspirational Communication	-.135 ^b	-2.458	.014	-.089	.242
	Creativity	.000 ^b	-.001	.999	.000	.379
	Supportive Leadership	.088 ^b	1.926	.055	.070	.350
3	vision	.023 ^c	.491	.624	.018	.324
	Creativity	-.058 ^c	-1.200	.230	-.044	.306
	Supportive Leadership	.040 ^c	.746	.456	.027	.253

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition, Inspirational Communication

d. Dependent Variable: Affective Commitment

Continuance Commitment

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	leadership		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
2	Personal Recognition		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-

3	Creativity	remove >= .100). Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to- remove >= .100).
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a. Dependent Variable: Continuance Commitment

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.631 ^a	.398	.397	3.991
2	.637 ^b	.406	.404	3.967
3	.642 ^c	.412	.410	3.948

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition

c. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition, Creativity

ANOVA^d

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	7970.996	1	7970.996	500.435	.000 ^a
	Residual	12057.607	757	15.928		
	Total	20028.603	758			
2	Regression	8131.996	2	4065.998	258.384	.000 ^b
	Residual	11896.607	756	15.736		
	Total	20028.603	758			
3	Regression	8259.152	3	2753.051	176.606	.000 ^c
	Residual	11769.451	755	15.589		
	Total	20028.603	758			

- a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership
b. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition
c. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition, Creativity
d. Dependent Variable: Continuance Commitment

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.221	.615		1.987	.047
	leadership	.291	.013	.631	22.370	.000
2	(Constant)	.902	.619		1.457	.146
	leadership	.361	.025	.782	14.253	.000
	Personal Recognition	-.287	.090	-.175	-3.199	.001
3	(Constant)	1.329	.634		2.096	.036
	leadership	.428	.035	.928	12.407	.000
	Personal Recognition	-.379	.095	-.231	-3.989	.000
	Creativity	-.264	.093	-.129	-2.856	.004

a. Dependent Variable: Continuance Commitment

Excluded Variables^d

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	vision	.077 ^a	1.691	.091	.061	.380
	Inspirational Communication	.040 ^a	.747	.455	.027	.271
	Creativity	-.068 ^a	-1.588	.113	-.058	.428
	Supportive Leadership	.122 ^a	2.562	.011	.093	.351
	Personal Recognition	-.175 ^a	-3.199	.001	-.116	.261
2	vision	.027 ^b	.543	.587	.020	.326

	Inspirational Communication	-.017 ^b	-.303	.762	-.011	.242
	Creativity	-.129 ^b	-2.856	.004	-.103	.379
	Supportive Leadership	.117 ^b	2.470	.014	.090	.350
3	vision	-.031 ^c	-.595	.552	-.022	.278
	Inspirational Communication	-.109 ^c	-1.734	.083	-.063	.196
	Supportive Leadership	.088 ^c	1.797	.073	.065	.327

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition, Creativity

d. Dependent Variable: Continuance Commitment

Normative Commitment

[DataSet1] C:\Users\Research\Desktop\PhD Date 6.09.2013.sav

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	leadership		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
2	Personal Recognition		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
3	Creativity		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).

a. Dependent Variable: Normative Commitment

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.697 ^a	.486	.485	4.168
2	.704 ^b	.496	.495	4.129
3	.708 ^c	.501	.499	4.112

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership

- b. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition
c. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition, Creativity

ANOVA^d

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	12410.781	1	12410.781	714.397	.000 ^a
	Residual	13133.521	756	17.372		
	Total	25544.302	757			
2	Regression	12672.473	2	6336.236	371.653	.000 ^b
	Residual	12871.829	755	17.049		
	Total	25544.302	757			
3	Regression	12794.308	3	4264.769	252.207	.000 ^c
	Residual	12749.994	754	16.910		
	Total	25544.302	757			

- a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership
b. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition
c. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition, Creativity
d. Dependent Variable: Normative Commitment

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.285	.642		2.000	.046
	leadership	.364	.014	.697	26.728	.000
2	(Constant)	.867	.645		1.345	.179
	leadership	.453	.026	.868	17.115	.000
	Personal Recognition	-.368	.094	-.199	-3.918	.000

3	(Constant)	1.287	.661		1.946	.052
	leadership	.519	.036	.994	14.408	.000
	Personal Recognition	-.457	.099	-.247	-4.607	.000
	Creativity	-.259	.096	-.112	-2.684	.007

a. Dependent Variable: Normative Commitment

Excluded Variables^d

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	vision	.087 ^a	2.052	.041	.074	.379
	InspirationalCommunication	.129 ^a	2.587	.010	.094	.272
	Creativity	-.047 ^a	-1.191	.234	-.043	.429
	SupportiveLeadership	.039 ^a	.878	.380	.032	.351
	PersonalRecognition	-.199 ^a	-3.918	.000	-.141	.259
2	vision	.029 ^b	.630	.529	.023	.325
	InspirationalCommunication	.074 ^b	1.411	.159	.051	.243
	Creativity	-.112 ^b	-2.684	.007	-.097	.381
	SupportiveLeadership	.034 ^b	.769	.442	.028	.351
3	vision	-.021 ^c	-.431	.667	-.016	.277
	InspirationalCommunication	.015 ^c	.266	.790	.010	.197
	SupportiveLeadership	.004 ^c	.078	.938	.003	.327

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership, PersonalRecognition

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership, PersonalRecognition, Creativity

d. Dependent Variable: NormativeCommitment

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	leadership		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
2	Inspirational Communication		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).

a. Dependent Variable: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.541 ^a	.293	.292	8.852
2	.547 ^b	.299	.297	8.821

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Inspirational Communication

ANOVA^c

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	24582.708	1	24582.708	313.711	.000 ^a
	Residual	59319.215	757	78.361		
	Total	83901.924	758			
2	Regression	25079.467	2	12539.734	161.164	.000 ^b
	Residual	58822.456	756	77.807		
	Total	83901.924	758			

- a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership
b. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Inspirational Communication
c. Dependent Variable: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	46.124	1.363		33.836	.000
leadership	.512	.029	.541	17.712	.000
2 (Constant)	45.994	1.359		33.837	.000
leadership	.631	.055	.667	11.412	.000
Inspirational Communication	-.521	.206	-.148	-2.527	.012

a. Dependent Variable: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Excluded Variables^c

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	vision	-.069 ^a	-1.398	.163	-.051	.380
	Inspirational Communication	-.148 ^a	-2.527	.012	-.092	.271
	Creativity	.114 ^a	2.450	.015	.089	.428
	Supportive Leadership	.061 ^a	1.190	.235	.043	.351
	Personal Recognition	-.012 ^a	-.195	.845	-.007	.261
2	vision	-.046 ^b	-.918	.359	-.033	.365
	Creativity	.088 ^b	1.817	.070	.066	.394
	Supportive Leadership	-.002 ^b	-.042	.966	-.002	.268
	Personal Recognition	-.068 ^b	-1.075	.283	-.039	.234

- a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership
b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership, Inspirational Communication
c. Dependent Variable: Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

Excluded Variables^d

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	vision	.087 ^a	2.052	.041	.074	.379
	Inspirational Communication	.129 ^a	2.587	.010	.094	.272
	Creativity	-.047 ^a	-1.191	.234	-.043	.429
	Supportive Leadership	.039 ^a	.878	.380	.032	.351
	Personal Recognition	-.199 ^a	-3.918	.000	-.141	.259
2	Vision	.029 ^b	.630	.529	.023	.325
	Inspirational Communication	.074 ^b	1.411	.159	.051	.243
	Creativity	-.112 ^b	-2.684	.007	-.097	.381
	Supportive Leadership	.034 ^b	.769	.442	.028	.351
3	Vision	-.021 ^c	-.431	.667	-.016	.277
	Inspirational Communication	.015 ^c	.266	.790	.010	.197
	Supportive Leadership	.004 ^c	.078	.938	.003	.327

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership, Personal Recognition, Creativity

d. Dependent Variable: Normative Commitment

Dimensions of OCB

Interpersonal Helping

[DataSet1] C:\Users\Research\Desktop\PhD Date 6.09.2013.sav

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Leadership	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
2	Inspirational Communication	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).

a. Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Helping

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.274 ^a	.075	.074	3.551
2	.307 ^b	.094	.092	3.517

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Inspirational Communication

ANOVA^c

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	773.999	1	773.999	61.370	.000 ^a
	Residual	9547.227	757	12.612		
	Total	10321.225	758			
2	Regression	971.498	2	485.749	39.277	.000 ^b
	Residual	9349.727	756	12.367		
	Total	10321.225	758			

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Inspirational Communication

c. Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Helping

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	14.465	.547		26.451	.000
Leadership	.091	.012	.274	7.834	.000
2 (Constant)	14.383	.542		26.541	.000
Leadership	.166	.022	.501	7.531	.000
Inspirational Communication	-.328	.082	-.266	-3.996	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Helping

Excluded Variables^c

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	vision	-.073 ^a	-1.295	.196	-.047	.380
	Inspirational Communication	-.266 ^a	-3.996	.000	-.144	.271
	Creativity	.131 ^a	2.451	.014	.089	.428
	Supportive Leadership	.067 ^a	1.140	.255	.041	.351
	Personal Recognition	.080 ^a	1.168	.243	.042	.261
2	vision	-.030 ^b	-.523	.601	-.019	.365
	Creativity	.077 ^b	1.402	.161	.051	.394
	Supportive Leadership	-.061 ^b	-.910	.363	-.033	.268
	Personal Recognition	-.009 ^b	-.126	.900	-.005	.234

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership, Inspirational Communication

c. Dependent Variable: Interpersonal Helping

Individual Initiative

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Supportive Leadership		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
2	Creativity		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).

a. Dependent Variable: Individual Initiative

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.355 ^a	.126	.125	3.501
2	.374 ^b	.140	.137	3.475

a. Predictors: (Constant), Supportive Leadership

b. Predictors: (Constant), Supportive Leadership, Creativity

ANOVA^c

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1336.209	1	1336.209	109.036	.000 ^a
	Residual	9276.859	757	12.255		
	Total	10613.067	758			
2	Regression	1482.800	2	741.400	61.389	.000 ^b
	Residual	9130.268	756	12.077		
	Total	10613.067	758			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Supportive Leadership

b. Predictors: (Constant), Supportive Leadership, Creativity

c. Dependent Variable: Individual Initiative

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	13.831	.404		34.216	.000
	Supportive Leadership	.461	.044	.355	10.442	.000
2	(Constant)	12.624	.530		23.816	.000
	Supportive Leadership	.368	.051	.283	7.179	.000
	Creativity	.205	.059	.138	3.484	.001

a. Dependent Variable: Individual Initiative

Excluded Variables

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	vision	.028 ^a	.721	.471	.026	.758
	Inspirational Communication	.111 ^a	2.767	.006	.100	.711
	Creativity	.138 ^a	3.484	.001	.126	.730
	Personal Recognition	.059 ^a	1.278	.201	.046	.534
	leadership	.162 ^a	2.839	.005	.103	.351
2	vision	-.021 ^b	-.504	.614	-.018	.668
	Inspirational Communication	.068 ^b	1.584	.114	.058	.610

Personal Recognition	.014 ^b	.280	.780	.010	.489
leadership	.053 ^b	.699	.485	.025	.194

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Supportive Leadership

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), Supportive Leadership, Creativity

c. Dependent Variable: Individual Initiative

Personal Industry

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	leadership		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
2	Supportive Leadership		Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).

a. Dependent Variable: Personal Industry

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.359 ^a	.129	.127	2.468
2	.388 ^b	.150	.148	2.439

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Supportive Leadership

ANOVA^c

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1 Regression	680.509	1	680.509	111.715	.000 ^a

	Residual	4611.225	757	6.091		
	Total	5291.734	758			
2	Regression	795.340	2	397.670	66.862	.000 ^b
	Residual	4496.394	756	5.948		
	Total	5291.734	758			

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Supportive Leadership

c. Dependent Variable: Personal Industry

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	11.137	.380		29.303	.000
	leadership	.085	.008	.359	10.570	.000
2	(Constant)	10.938	.378		28.918	.000
	leadership	.133	.013	.559	9.875	.000
	Supportive Leadership	-.228	.052	-.249	-4.394	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Personal Industry

Excluded Variables^c

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	vision	.154 ^a	2.812	.005	.102	.380
	Inspirational Communication	.094 ^a	1.441	.150	.052	.271
	Creativity	.138 ^a	2.670	.008	.097	.428
	Supportive Leadership	-.249 ^a	-4.394	.000	-.158	.351
	Personal Recognition	-.118 ^a	-1.787	.074	-.065	.261
2	vision	.071 ^b	1.207	.228	.044	.321
	Inspirational Communication	-.058 ^b	-.781	.435	-.028	.207
	Creativity	.090 ^b	1.719	.086	.062	.405
	Personal Recognition	-.128 ^b	-1.958	.051	-.071	.261

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership, Supportive Leadership

c. Dependent Variable: Personal Industry

Loyal Boosterism

[DataSet1] C:\Users\Research\Desktop\PhD Date 6.09.2013.sav

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	leadership	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
2	Inspirational Communication	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).

a. Dependent Variable: Loyal Boosterism

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.636 ^a	.405	.404	2.978
2	.640 ^b	.409	.408	2.968

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Inspirational Communication

ANOVA^c

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4565.462	1	4565.462	514.858	.000 ^a
	Residual	6712.636	757	8.867		
	Total	11278.097	758			
2	Regression	4618.196	2	2309.098	262.118	.000 ^b
	Residual	6659.901	756	8.809		
	Total	11278.097	758			

a. Predictors: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors: (Constant), leadership, Inspirational Communication

c. Dependent Variable: Loyal Boosterism

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	7.969	.459		17.378	.000
	leadership	.220	.010	.636	22.690	.000
2	(Constant)	7.926	.457		17.330	.000
	leadership	.259	.019	.748	13.941	.000
	Inspirational Communication	-.170	.069	-.131	-2.447	.015

a. Dependent Variable: Loyal Boosterism

Excluded Variables^c

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	vision	-.035 ^a	-.761	.447	-.028	.380
	Inspirational Communication	-.131 ^a	-2.447	.015	-.089	.271
	Creativity	.034 ^a	.794	.427	.029	.428
	Supportive Leadership	.056 ^a	1.183	.237	.043	.351
	Personal Recognition	.050 ^a	.909	.363	.033	.261
2	vision	-.013 ^b	-.283	.777	-.010	.365
	Creativity	.005 ^b	.115	.909	.004	.394
	Supportive Leadership	.000 ^b	-.006	.995	.000	.268
	Personal Recognition	.007 ^b	.124	.901	.005	.234

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), leadership, Inspirational Communication

c. Dependent Variable: Loyal Boosterism

