

The enhancement of employee performance through leadership and individual level variables in three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa

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DECLARATION

I, Petronella Frederika Smit, declare that the thesis that I herewith submit for the PhD in Business Administration qualification at the UFS Business School, University of the Free State is my independent work, and that I have not previously submitted it for a qualification at another institution of higher education.

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The enhancement of employee performance through leadership and individual level variables in three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa

ABSTRACT

South African municipalities are known for poor service delivery, resulting from leaders failing to manage processes and performance. A lack of leadership competencies was cited as one of the reasons for poor employee performance in municipalities. Literature also showed that several individual factors (i.e. employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, employee motivation, and employee citizenship behaviour) might play a role in employee performance. However, it is not clear how leadership competencies interact with these individual variables to subsequently influence employee performance.

In response to the leadership competency gap and poor performance in the municipalities, the present study sought to address this by developing a leadership competency and employee performance model. In pursuit of this aim, specific objectives were set at the onset: to develop a conceptual leadership competency and employee performance model for municipalities in South Africa, to theoretically explain the relationships between variables in the proposed leadership competency and employee performance model using previous literature, and to determine the predictive validity of the proposed leadership competency and employee performance model in municipalities in South Africa.

The Explanatory Sequential Mixed Methods design was selected, applying both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection and analysis. Municipal employees from the top three municipalities in South Africa (City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality, City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality and City of Cape Town Metropolitan Municipality) formed the main body of the population for this research study.

A simple random sampling method was used, comprising of municipal employees. Technically, the researcher applied a two-stage sampling approach. Firstly, purposive sampling was used to select the top three municipalities. Secondly, simple random sampling was applied to select the participants from the top three municipalities. For the quantitative part of the study, data was collected from 789 participants that included all office-bound employees, as well as junior to middle management (levels 6 and 7). General workers, technical staff (working on roads, potholes, streetlights etc.) and senior management (levels 1 to 5) were not included.

With regard to the quantitative component of the study, six standard questionnaires were used: The Leadership Assessment Questionnaire (LAQ) to assess leadership competencies; The Psychological Empowerment Questionnaire (PEQ) to assess employee psychological empowerment; The Spirituality at Work (SAW) questionnaire to measure employee workplace spirituality; The Motivation Measure (MM) questionnaire to measure employee motivation; The Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (OCBS) to measure organizational citizenship behaviour and The Employee Performance Scale (EPS) to measure employee performance. The data was analysed emphasising both descriptive statistics and inferential statistics using SPSS and SmartPLS. The analysis emphasised correlations, stepwise multiple regression and structural equation modelling.

For the qualitative component of the research, management holding a position not lower than assistant director (levels 1 to 5), were included. The researcher used purposive sampling to select 15 individuals to be interviewed. These leaders were highly skilled in the municipal field and their input was used as confirmation or to add further knowledge or input into the results of the quantitative findings. Semi-structured interviews were conducted, as the researcher aimed at obtaining specific information to gather more insights or explanations from leaders into quantitative findings. Thematic analysis as a qualitative data analysis technique was applied.

The quantitative findings of the study indicated that none of the leadership competencies were significant predictors of employee performance. In addition, the conceptual model

showed that the relationship between leadership competencies and employee performance is much more complicated. The results of the PLS-SEM affirmed the majority of hypotheses, except the path between workplace spirituality and employee citizenship behaviour was non-significant and was therefore removed from the conceptual model; and there was also a significant negative path coefficient between leadership competencies and motivation (which was contradictory to the literature).

The findings showed further, that for path 1 (LEAD->WPS->MOTIVATE->OCB->PERFORM), the researcher concluded that employee workplace spirituality, employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour combined, had a statistically significant indirect effect on the relationship between leadership competencies and employee performance. Secondly, for path 2, (LEAD->EMPOWER->WPS->MOTIVATE->OCB->PERFORM), the researcher concluded that employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour combined, also had a statistically significant indirect effect on the relationship between leadership competencies and employee performance, but not as strongly as path 1. And lastly, for path 3, (LEAD->EMPOWER->MOTIVATE->OCB->PERFORM), the researcher concluded that employee psychological empowerment, employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour combined, had a statistically significant indirect effect on the relationship between leadership competencies and employee performance, but not as strongly as path 1 and path 2.

This implied that not all the proposed theoretical relationships seem to be necessary in all contexts to describe how leadership competencies indirectly influence employee performance. Also, despite the quantitative results of the study showing that leadership competencies did not have a direct effect on employee performance, the quantitative results emphasised the role of leadership competencies in increasing workplace spirituality, employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour, and subsequently employee performance. Likewise, in terms of employee empowerment, the model shows that empowerment may not have the same importance as the other variables in employee

performance. However, that does not mean that it is not important – the absence thereof is still problematic.

The qualitative results, on the other hand, showed that political interference influenced leadership competencies as well as employee workplace spirituality and, through a highly regulated environment, even employee empowerment. Respondents also indicated that the internal environment, in general, had a strong influence on employee performance. They highlighted issues such as a lack of opportunities for growth and development in the environment, outdated systems and a poor physical environment. Not only these themes emerged strongly in the analysis, but so did other issues such as poor, unsupportive leadership; a lack of trust and opportunities to grow; and the lack of career prospects in the municipality, that were also identified. Respondents also felt that performance management systems were poor and that there was a lack of recognition and rewards in the municipalities.

The study was not without limitations. Some of the noted limitations of the study relate to the measurement properties of the items measuring extrinsic motivation in the Motivation Measure questionnaire, as well as the items measuring sportsmanship in the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Questionnaire. The reliability of these items was lower than expected in this study. Therefore, possible improvements to the measurement of both these dimensions should be further explored. Alternatively, other measuring instruments could also be considered.

Several recommendations were made for future research. In order to test the generalizability of the leadership competency – employee performance model, it is recommended that the model is applied to smaller and poorly performing municipalities in South Africa. This research may assist managers in these municipalities to enhance employee empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour to improve employee performance.

It is also suggested that a large-scale study with similar design elements is replicated in the private sector and municipalities in other countries. This will increase the benefit to additional testing of the research design and the outcomes. Additionally, the findings of this study highlighted that possible political interference plays a prominent role in the administration of the municipality. Future studies are encouraged to include political interference as a construct in the model.

KEY TERMS

- Leadership competencies
- High performance leadership competencies
- Employee empowerment
- Employee psychological empowerment
- Employee workplace spirituality
- Employee motivation
- Employee citizenship behaviour
- Employee performance
- Metropolitan municipality
- Local government
- Bureaucracy
- Political interference

ABBREVIATIONS

AG	Auditor General
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
DFES	Department For Education And Skills
ECB	Employee Citizenship Behaviour
ECF	Evaluation Competency Framework
EP	Employee Performance
EPS	Employee Performance Scale
HPLC	High Performance Leadership Competencies
LAQ	Leadership Assessment Questionnaire
LGSETA	Local Government Sector Education and Training Authority
MM	Motivation Measure
NCNFI	Noncentralized Normed Fit Index
NDP	National Development Plan
OCBS	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale
OIT	Organismic Integration Theory
PEQ	Psychological Empowerment Questionnaire
PLS	Partial Least Squares
PLS-PM	Partial Least Squares Path Modeling
PLS-SEM	Partial Least Squares Structural Equation Modeling
RMSR	Root-Mean-Square Residual
SAW	Spirituality At Work
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
VBSEM	Variance-Based Structural Equation Modelling

CHAPTER 1

OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

South Africa inherited high levels of poverty, which along with unsatisfactory and insufficient access to resources, infrastructure and social services, remain a challenge. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) enshrines the right to basic services and compels the state to take realistic action to accomplish the progressive realisation of these rights (The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996). In terms of Section 6 of the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act No. 32 of 2000) local government in South Africa is required to perform its duties, which are also preserved in the constitutional values of Public Administration in Section 195 of the Constitution. Section 56 of the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act, 1998 (Act No. 117 of 1998) further confers powers of service delivery on municipal managers to ensure that efficient services are delivered to the people.

The public sector comprises of the public service, defined as national and provincial departments, in terms of the Public Service Act of 1994, (Act No. 103, 1994) and other relevant legislation. The public sector includes state-owned enterprises, such as Postnet, the South African Airways, Eskom, universities and other institutions as stipulated in Chapter Nine of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 2000 (Hassen and Altman, 2010). Also included, are services such as education, security, postal services, health care, police and military services, infrastructure, electricity, water supply, housing and sewerage supplies, amongst others. Municipalities, being the sphere of government closest to the community and being elected by the community to represent them, are liable to ensure that basic services are delivered to the community.

The Constitution provides for three municipal categories. The Local Government: Municipal Structures Act of 1998 (Act No. 117, 1998) contains the conditions for determining whether a municipality is a category A (metropolitan municipality), category B (local municipality) or category C (district municipality). A metropolitan municipality as defined by the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act of 1998 (Act No.117, 1998, 14) is “a municipality that has exclusive executive and legislative authority in its area and which is described in section 155(1) of the Constitution as a category A municipality”, whereas a local municipality is defined as “a municipality that shares municipal executive and legislative authority in its area with a district municipality within whose area it falls and which is described in section 155(1) of the Constitution as a category B municipality and a district municipality is defined as one that “has municipal executive and Legislative authority in an area that includes more than one municipality, and which is described in section 155(1) of the Constitution as a category C municipality”.

Municipalities also need to improve the quality of services, granting access for all, through effective, accountable and ethical local government practices. In addition, South African municipalities must ensure that their employees perform their daily tasks effectively and efficiently in order to meet customers’ (local communities’) needs by contributing to the fulfilment and wellbeing of its members (City of Cape Town Metropolitan Municipality, 2014; City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, 2011; City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality - Marketing Department, 2013).

In developing and developed countries, households and organisations are dependent on basic municipal services regarding water, wastewater, solid waste, electricity, housing, and transport. These are the cornerstones of efficient, effective, healthy, and economically vigorous societies. Subsequently, poor service delivery, disruptions, low coverage levels, cash flow deficits, and other problems can reduce the quality of life for the citizens of municipalities and diminish consumer trust and brand perception in municipalities (Bachmann and MacCleery, 2006; Mehlape, 2017). Service delivery therefore directly affects the quality of life of residents in municipal areas (Future Communities, 2009).

Despite the powers conferred on local government by various policies and legislation, South African local government does not fulfil its mandate in terms of effective and efficient service delivery. It is also known that municipalities in South Africa have enormous unpaid debts, huge backlogs of unresolved requests and a bad reputation stemming from unacceptable and incompetent service delivery and performance (Financial and Fiscal Commission, 2011; Jacobs, 2019; Morudu and Halsall, 2017; Msimanga, 2016; Statistics South Africa, 2016).

Poor service delivery is not only evident in the rural areas of South Africa, but also in the larger metropolitan cities of the country, such as Cape Town, Tshwane and Johannesburg. Although some municipalities are managed effectively and service delivery is outstanding, the general state of local government service delivery in South Africa is “precariously classified by increasing debtors, qualified audit reports, poor systems, poor performance, poor long-term planning, huge service delivery backlogs and queries, increasing salary bills, unfunded mandates, government debt, concerns about sustainability, and greater demands and expectations by all stakeholders” (Smit and Govender, 2015: 538; van der Walldt et al., 2018). Many national, provincial and local governments fall short in providing essential services to societies. The rise in community-level protests against municipalities stems from the fact that municipalities do not deliver essential services, are unethical and corrupt, and act in contradiction of the spirit of the Constitution by victimising communities who cannot afford to pay for municipal services (Pieterse et al., 2008). These protests are also a hint that service delivery is below the expectations of the community which cannot aid in improving their standard of living.

Further to this, only 21 out of 325 municipalities obtained clean audits during 2019, in comparison with 58 during 2013. This represented only 6%% of municipalities in the country (The Auditor General of South Africa, 2020). The Auditor-General (AG) noted in their 2019-20 audit report that “there was again a regression in the audit outcomes” (The Auditor-General South Africa, 2019-20: 18). The AG identified risks in human resource management, poor management and the lack of accountability by municipal managers in

local governments which highlighted hidden factors influencing employee performance (Makwetu, 2013; The Auditor General of South Africa, 2020). The AG also stated in their 2019/20 report that the root cause for all the problems in municipalities could be detected in the disregard for internal control, including leadership, performance, financial management, and governance ” (The Auditor-General South Africa, 2019-20). Apart from the fact that municipalities were performing below expectation, the AG stated that “bad service delivery is due to bad management” (Mathebula, 2016: 71) and highlighted their concern with regard to the ongoing escalation in “unauthorised, fruitless and wasteful expenditure” (Mathebula, 2016: 71), which was also related to poor management (Donnelly, 2009; Mathebula, 2016).

Mabuza (2015: 1) stated that municipalities lacked “visible progress in performance, and blame municipal leaders’ focus on leadership battles instead of service delivery”. As a result, the passion, commitment and engagement towards achieving goals are perceived to be absent in local government. Managa (2012) opined that a lack of expertise at both managerial and technical levels caused vast service-delivery backlogs that disallowed government to address problems effectively and efficiently. By enhancing their leadership behaviour, municipalities may improve their service delivery levels from the inside. Various reports (City of Cape Town Metropolitan Municipality, 2012; City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, 2016; Department of Trade and Industry, 2005) emphasised the role that public service managers should play in this regard, as they have the ability to drive effectual change and to influence the performance of employees, teams and the organisation with the intention of achieving organisational goals and objectives (Smit and Govender, 2015).

Leadership initiatives can change employees’ attitudes and equip them with positive approaches towards their work and subsequently improve their performance and enhance service delivery (Sila, 2014). Although the influence of leaders’ behaviour on the performance of employees is evident, the literature reveals various individual-level variables that may play a role in the leadership-employee performance relationship.

Furthermore, high-performance leadership competencies comprise of the ability to use competencies to form a culture that supports change, innovation, creativity, as well as learning across boundaries and all levels in the workplace (Teh et al., 2018; Van Wyk, 2007). Numerous studies have investigated different variables and processes by means of which the effect of leadership is appreciated in terms of employee performance results (Ribeiro, Duarte and Filipe, 2018; Zheng et al., 2020).

These variables are core to the performance of employees and can be regarded as pillars of employee performance (Aryee et al., 2012; Houghton and Yoho, 2005; Purcell, 2014a; Purcell, 2014b; McShane and Von Glinow, 2015; Sipe and Frick, 2015). Four of these pillars identified in the literature are employee psychological empowerment, employee citizenship behaviour, workplace spirituality and employee motivation. Ribeiro, Duarte and Filipe (2018) stated that employees identify with leaders and the manner in which the leader drives these pillars of performance. This causes employees not only to feel better about their work, but also drives them to perform beyond expectations.

Several researchers have explored the relationship between leadership, employee empowerment and employee performance. Chahardeh and Chegini (2015), El Rawas and El Seddawy (2015), Jung and Sosik (2002), Liden et al. (2008), Men (2011), Murari and Gupta (2012), and Van Wyk (2007) concluded that there was a positive correlation between leadership and employee empowerment, while Wong and Laschinger (2012) identified a positive correlation between empowerment, work effort and employee performance. Smit and Govender (2015) stated that leaders have the ability to influence the performance of employees by means of employee empowerment and that employee empowerment is fundamental in the creation of innovative ideas and the development of new opportunities. Garavan et al. (2010) concurred by emphasising the importance of employee empowerment in achieving organisational objectives, as well as driving future organisational changes. The leadership styles applied by leaders in their workplace play a pivotal role in the creation of empowering work environments, as managers craft working conditions for employees by identifying the quality of support, information and resources needed in work areas (Smit and Govender, 2015) Employee empowerment

can therefore be regarded as an important pillar in the leadership–employee performance relationship.

Another pillar of employee performance identified in the literature is employee citizenship behaviour. Kumar and Shaw (2015) defined employee citizenship behaviour as activities or behaviours which enable employees to go beyond their normal line of duty. Effective and efficient operations depend on the positive behaviour of employees in the workplace, including assisting colleagues with job-related problems, accepting commands without protest, enduring temporary burdens without objection, assisting in keeping the work area clean and orderly, making sensible and productive decisions, encouraging a culture of cohesion, protecting organisational resources, and putting in extra effort to ensure goals are met (Supriyanto, Ekowati and Maghfuroh, 2020). Accordingly, these acts are not prescribed or compulsory, but are rather a result of employees acting out of magnanimity, unselfishness and putting forth extra effort. Supriyanto, Ekowati and Maghfuroh (2020) referred to these acts as citizenship behaviours. These authors did not make a distinction between employee and organisational citizenship behaviour, as all these individual actions are interrelated in the organisation. Chinomona (2016) corroborated this by pointing out that employee citizenship behaviour and organisational citizenship behaviour are integrated concepts, as individuals form the basis of organisational behaviour. Employee citizenship behaviour is related to direct factors (such as leadership and personal growth) that create a feeling of recognition and citizenship in employees (Wang et al., 2013) and subsequently increase their performance (Sila, 2014).

Workplace spirituality is likewise viewed as a pillar of employee performance. Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson (2003: 427) said that “spirituality involves a sense of wholeness, connectedness at work, and deeper values.” Ajala (2013) explained that workplace spirituality addresses employees’ actions relating to growth, compassion, meaning and happiness at work, honesty and trust, commitment, and well-being. Khani and Fahimi (2015) indicated that workplace spirituality had a positive influence on employee commitment, reducing absenteeism and turnover, increasing employee performance and impacting directly on the quality of services in a working environment.

Geaney (2012) emphasised that numerous researchers indicated that employees desire and demand increased purpose, meaning and satisfaction from organisational values, organisational cultures, leadership, and processes. Hence, employees want to know that they contributed – not only to their own emotional, physical and spiritual well-being, but also to the good of society. Sheng and Chen (2012) indicated that workplace spirituality improved individual and organisational performance. Numerous other studies also explored the effect of leadership on employee workplace spirituality (Avolio and Yammarino, 2013; Duchon and Plowman, 2005; Ke, Qiu and Jiang, 2015; Öztürk, 2010). It is therefore evident that employee workplace spirituality plays a role in the leadership–employee performance relationship.

Employee motivation is another pillar of employee performance that needs to be taken into consideration in the leadership–performance relationship. Foran (2015: 8) simply said that motivation “refers to the direction, intensity and initiation of a person's behaviour”. Boamah (2014) cited Frey and Osterloch (2002) who said that motivation moves an individual to action and encourages their ability to develop and intensify the need of all employees to work effectively and efficiently in the organisation. Boamah (2014) also stated that although money was a huge drive for motivation, money alone cannot motivate employees without other non-monetary motivators. Motivation, empowerment and spirituality often go hand in hand (Berg, 2015; Kapoor and Meachem, 2012).

Psychological empowerment occurs when employees feel they are in control of their circumstances at work, which would improve their ability to manage and accept change in a competitive environment (Spreitzer, 1995; Stander and Rothmann, 2010). On the one hand, motivation creates action and drive (Berg, 2015), whereas spirituality is the state of mind and energy devoted to that deed and achievement (Kapoor and Meachem, 2012).

Various researchers explored the relationship between employee workplace spirituality and employee motivation, resulting in positive correlations (Afsar, Badir and Kiani, 2016; Fry and Slocum Jr., 2008; Jayalakshmi and Venkateswarlu, 2015; Pradhan, Panigrahy and Jena, 2015; Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson, 2003). Empowerment, spirituality

and citizenship behaviour also appear to be relevant in achieving enhanced employee performance in different ways. Empowerment positively influences an employee's attitude and behaviour (Ching, 2012; Zhang and Bartol, 2010), while citizenship behaviour influences philanthropy, courteousness, diligence, sportsmanship and civic virtue (Teimouri, 2015). Together, all these elements ultimately affect employee performance.

Peltier and Dahl (2009) stated that employees in service-based organisations (such as municipalities) have a strong influence on service delivery and customer satisfaction, through which they continuously attempt to drive organisational performance. However, the internal work environment and setting influence their ability to deliver services and to ensure customer satisfaction. Leaders must therefore be able to create a work environment that encourages and enhances employees' ability to apply these pillars of employee performance.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Gumede (2019: 1) confirmed that changing a “democratic South Africa into a developmental state has been the dream of the African National Congress and the democratic government since the late 1990's”. The democratic component of the state is guided by the Constitution of South Africa, 1996, in particular the Bill of Rights (Chapter 2) and Section 195(1) in Chapter 10 and governed by democratic principles (Gumede, 2019). Hence, the developmental state – national, provincial and local government – is guided by the National Development Plan: Vision for 2030, Government's leading policy for development. Moreover, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) enshrines the right to basic services and compels the state to take action to realise these. As a result, the primary focus, as stipulated in the democratic component and the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996), is service delivery and the attainment of the social contract.

Also, in terms of the developmental component, and the National Development Plan (2011), the public sector faces socio-economic challenges. These socio-economic

challenges include, amongst others, poverty, homelessness and limited essential services. Citizens need basic municipal services in respect of water, wastewater, solid waste, electricity, housing, infrastructure, and transport – that lack of which may have a perilous impact on their standard of living. These services are key to efficient, effective, healthy, and economically vigorous societies. However, many national, provincial and local governments fall short in providing these essential services to societies (Future Communities, 2009; Mehlape, 2017; Mohlapamasw and Rachidi, 2014). This, is also a direct result of risks in human resource management, poor management and the lack of accountability by municipal managers in local governments which highlighted hidden factors influencing employee performance (Makwetu, 2013; The Auditor General of South Africa, 2020). Moreover, the local sphere of government, as the sphere of government closest to the community, as well as the sphere of government tasked with integrated development planning, local economic development, reconstruction and development, growth, employment and accelerated and shared growth, etc. is significantly affected by these challenges.

In addition, most South African municipalities are perceived as delivering meager services resulting from the failure of leaders to properly manage processes and performances (BusinessTech, 2020; De Villiers, 2015; Msimanga, 2016; Shoba, 2020). Municipalities are also associated with poor ethical conduct and governance, maladministration and huge financial losses due to non-adherence to processes, policies and procedures, which are again results of poor leadership. The Public Service Commission (2008) evaluated public leaders' training needs and highlighted a critical shortage of competence which posed the challenge of how to address the dilemma to improve performance and service delivery (De Wet, 2010). De Wet (2010) also found critical shortages in leaders' competencies in local government. Consequently, a lack of leadership competencies seems to be central to poor performance in these municipalities, resulting in insufficient service delivery, fraud and corruption, damaging media exposure, labour and service delivery strikes, demotivated and discouraged employees, poor performance and governance, and unethical conduct of employees which ultimately reduce the standards of living in communities (Mashaba, 2016; Msimanga, 2016; Trollip, 2016).

A review of the literature revealed that although leadership competencies and several individual factors might play a role in employee performance, it is not clear how leadership competencies interact with the pillars of employee performance (i.e. employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, employee motivation, and employee citizenship behaviour) to subsequently influence employee performance. Although the relationships between some of these variables may have been investigated to some extent before, it was mostly done in isolation and not within one model where the dynamics of the interaction among all these variables were investigated. Furthermore, the researcher could not find any previous studies that included all these individual-level variables in the leadership–employee performance relationship, as discussed previously – especially within the context of the local government in South Africa. Previous studies focused mainly on some elements influencing employee performance in a single municipality, not considering different metropolitan municipalities.

There are specific critical elements in the development plans of the three municipalities of Cape Town, Tshwane and Johannesburg that they would like to address in order to improve performance (City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality: Business Planning , 2012; City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality - Business Planning, 2011; City of Cape Town Metropolitan Municipality - Business Planning, 2012). In addition, all three municipalities have channeled their strategic plans towards improving the quality of lives of their communities by means of enhanced service delivery and it is therefore important for these municipalities to understand how leadership competencies influence employees' performance. It is also important to acknowledge that there are other factors that may influence employee performance within the context of a municipality, which may stem from variables other than those proposed in this study. However, this study highlights the possible influence of leadership competencies on employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality and employee citizenship behaviour, and the effect thereof on employee performance within the context of municipalities.

1.3 RESEARCH AIM

The aim of the research is firstly, to explore by means of the literature how leadership competencies relate to individual-level variables (i.e. employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, motivation and employee citizenship behaviour) and how these may influence employee performance in the metropolitan municipalities in South Africa. Secondly, to develop a theoretical model depicting the interrelationships amongst these individual-level variables (independent variables) and their relationship to employee performance (dependent variable); and thirdly to evaluate the predictive ability of the structural model by means of empirical data against the theoretical model.

1.4 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The objectives of this study are to:

- i. Investigate how leadership competencies relate to employees' psychological empowerment, workplace spirituality, motivation, and citizenship behaviour, and how this influences employee performance in the metropolitan municipalities in South Africa;
- ii. Develop a theoretical model depicting the interrelationships among these individual-level variables (independent variables), and their relationship to employee performance (dependent variable);
- iii. Validate, test and explain the theoretical model by means of empirical data (quantitative and qualitative); and
- iv. Provide guidelines for municipalities on how to enhance employee performance based on the validated model.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

For the purposes of the study, the following research questions were formulated:

- i. Do each of the independent variables (leadership competencies, employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour) statistically relate to the dependent variable (employee performance)?
- ii. How does employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour explain the relationship between leadership competencies and employee performance in the top three municipalities in South Africa?
- iii. How do leaders of the top three municipalities interpret the effect that the individual-level variables have on employee performance?
- iv. What recommendations can leaders of these top three municipalities propose to improve employee performance?

1.6 FRAMEWORK FOR THE PRESENT STUDY

Chapter 1

Chapter 1 commenced with an introduction and background to the study and included the problem statement, aim and objectives of the study and the research questions.

Chapter 2

This chapter offers a conceptual and theoretical analysis of employee performance. From the onset, the researcher introduces the concept of employee performance and thereafter discusses employee performance models. The researcher then discusses employee performance in the public sector, looking at challenges and solutions for public sector employee performance.

Chapter 3

This chapter presents an evaluation of literature which provides the theoretical basis for this research and includes literature on:

- The leadership concept;
- An overview of leadership theories;

- Common denominators or elements in traditional leadership theories;
- Leadership styles;
- Public leadership theories;
- Leadership competencies; and
- Leadership competency models.

Chapter 4

This chapter offers a contextual analysis of key issues affecting employee empowerment. It commences with an introduction to the concept of empowerment and thereafter presents theories, models and approaches to empowerment. Following that, the researcher presents the outcomes and development of psychological empowerment. It is therefore assumed that, although the chapter focuses on employee empowerment, special attention will be paid to psychological empowerment. The researcher then elaborates on empowerment in the public sector.

Chapter 5

This chapter comprises of a contextual analysis of key issues affecting employee workplace spirituality. The researcher firstly offers an overview of the concept of employee workplace spirituality. Next, the researcher offers a discussion on early theories of workplace spirituality and recent theories of workplace spirituality. The outcomes and benefits of workplace spirituality are presented and following that, workplace spirituality in the public sector is discussed. The last section in this chapter is concerned with the enhancement of workplace spirituality.

Chapter 6

This chapter offers a conceptual and theoretical analysis of employee motivation. The literature review forms the foundation for analysis of the data feedback obtained through the study, and here the researcher presents the concept of employee motivation and then discusses public sector motivation. From there on, theories of motivation are discussed, highlighting the self-determination theory especially, and its suitability in the public sector.

Chapter 7

In this chapter the researcher provides an overview of the concept employee citizenship behaviour and presents a historical view. This is followed by a discussion on the dimension of employee citizenship behaviour and employee citizenship behaviour specifically in the public sector. To continue, the benefits of employee citizenship and how to encourage employee citizenship behaviour in the public sector are discussed.

Chapter 8

In this chapter, the conceptual research model is developed, based on the literature reviewed, and the hypotheses statements are outlined.

Chapter 9

This chapter describes the research methodology and design used. Information on the research design and formulation of the research questionnaire is presented in detail. The basis for selecting the sample is explained, together with the methodology to collect, record, collate, analyse and present the data.

Chapter 10

Chapter 10 provides a write-up of the quantitative findings. This chapter describes the demographic profile of the sample, as well as the other results from the research.

Chapter 11

This chapter contains a write-up on the qualitative findings, describing the demographic profile of the sample, as well as the other results from the research.

Chapter 12

This chapter presents an overall discussion of the quantitative and qualitative findings as well as an explanation of how the research aligns with other research results and how it relates to the research questions that prompted this study. It also draws from the

conceptual model in Chapter 8, the research findings in Chapter 10 and 11 and the research objectives, so that the content presents an integrated overview of the findings.

Chapter 13

This chapter includes the final conclusion and recommendations sections. It highlights problems and makes recommendations in relation to factors identified to improve employee performance. It further pinpoints the limitations of this study as well as areas where more research needs to be done in future.

The summary and conclusion are presented hereafter.

1.7 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this chapter provides an introduction and background to the researcher's interest in the topic of study.

The fundamental purpose of this study was to determine how leadership competencies in the public sector influence employee psychological empowerment, workplace spirituality, citizenship behaviour, motivation and performance, as outlined in the problem statement for the study. The aim and objectives of the study are presented, followed by the research questions. Thereafter, the framework of the study was provided.

The next chapter offers a conceptual and theoretical analysis of employee performance.

LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER 2

EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE



2.1 INTRODUCTION

The primary objective of this study was to explore factors influencing the performance of employees by investigating the relationship between leadership competencies, employee psychological empowerment, workplace spirituality, motivation and citizenship behaviour as well as to what extent these have an impact on employee performance in metropolitan municipalities in South Africa.

For a business to be successful, employees should perform exceptionally and be successful at work. It is therefore crucial to hire employees with the right skills and qualifications for the job. To ensure that goals and objectives are met, employees' work should be closely aligned with expected outcomes of an organisation. Moreover, to attain high employee performance, management should ensure that performance assessments take place and should implement training and development initiatives to address any shortcomings identified during these appraisals. In general, these performance reviews measure employee performance for the current period and assist managers in planning for the years that lie ahead. It is also important for an employee to have a clear understanding of the performance standards and responsibilities of the job.

As employees are the most important contributors to organisational performance, this chapter commences with an introduction to the concept of employee performance and after that the relevant concepts regarding performance will be reviewed.

Employee performance models will subsequently be discussed and evaluated and following that, employee performance in the public sector will be discussed. A summary will conclude the chapter.

2.2 EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE – THE CONCEPT

The composition and measurement of employee performance (EP) have been studied by both academics and practitioners for many years. Consequently, Pradhan and Jena (2016) stated that performance is a multicomponent concept, thus one can basically identify behavioural actions that support accomplishments based on actual goals or the consequences resulting from behaviours (Sehoa, 2015; Smit and Govender, 2015; Zhang et al., 2018). Carton (2004) also noted that previous empirical studies had found no consistency in methods used to represent the concept of employee performance. He also stated that he had not identified suitable research to measure overall employee performance, or a model that truly represented the employee performance construct.

To clarify, the words “employee performance” relates to an individual’s work accomplishments after employing the necessary effort at work, related to meaningful work, involving profile and concerning colleagues and team members (Hellriegel, Jackson and Slocum, 1999; Karakas, 2010; Pradhan and Jena, 2016). This includes behaviour and outcomes.

Employee performance (EP) has been defined as training, skills and resources to complete a task successfully with the necessary inner drive to create action (Kiruja and Mukuru, 2013). It also involves the conduct of employees, whether positive or negative, to attain objectives (Zhang et al., 2018). In addition, Zhang et al. (2018) stated that employee performance was the accomplishment of a set of goals, whereas Bingham (1926) and Nagle (1953) said that employee performance reflected skilled achievement of a distinct indicator comprising related benchmarks.

Furthermore, employee performance is about the well-timed, effective and efficient achievement of commonly established and agreed goals by the employee as indicated by the employer (Tinofirei, 2011), therefore the outcome for employee performance is motivated through targeted behaviour towards specific goals. Kiruja and Mukuru (2013) indicated that the rate of employee performance hinges mainly on the level of employee motivation and not only on the ability and/or skills of the employee or on the quality of the human resource management in an organisation. They postulated that employees should have ample knowledge and skills, understand the requirements of the job and be motivated in a supportive work environment to execute their duties and perform well (Kiruja and Mukuru, 2013).

All definitions include an element of behavioural consequences of employees and the effect of this on organisational performance. These definitions also indicate that there is a goal and achievement.

The construct of performance will subsequently be considered in the following discussion.

2.2.1 The construct of performance

Several disciplines have tried to determine factors that drive performance and to identify the processes leading to success. Abundant research therefore exists to demonstrate noteworthy progress in determining elements that contribute to employee performance (Hye, 2014; Krishnan et al., 2013; Krishnan, Loon and Tan, 2018).

Employee performance is defined and measured differently in diverse disciplines and is one of the most dominant variables in management research and perhaps the most significant indicator of organisational performance. Employee performance stems from human ambition and values that are imperceptible fundamentals of organisational principles which determine the reason for the existence of the organisation (Nuhu, 2010).

Employee performance is closely related to individual and team performance, skills, training, knowledge, experience and empowerment (Arinanye, 2015; Covey, 1989; Covey, 2004; Jones, George and Hill, 2000; Mohammed and Al-Khoury, 2010). Gavrea, Ilies and Stegorean (2011) highlighted that durable performance is core to any organisation. Therefore, employees will expand and grow in organisations that are empowered through high performing employees.

Spirituality also enhances employee performance and changes employees to be more honest, courageous and compassionate towards their work (Jhajharia and Gautam, 2015). Moreover, the philosophical point of view of spirituality enables understanding of an individual's meaning and purpose, improving the ability for the employee to perform better and to add innovation and creativity to their work. In contrast, the interpersonal viewpoint provides an employee with a sense of interconnectedness and community which intensifies the attachment, loyalty and sense of belonging to the organisation, which drives employee performance (Jhajharia and Gautam, 2015).

Efficiency, quality, productivity and timeliness also positively influence employee performance. Organisational commitment driven by the feeling of being part of a family as well as increased loyalty also positively influence employee performance (Arinanye,

2015). An employee's performance is further also determined by the opportunities presented and the effort and will of the employee. In fact, social and economic conditions also influence employee performance (Krishnan et al., 2013).

Table 1 provides a list of some aspects of employee performance (Pradhan and Jena, 2016).

Table 1: Key constructs on employee performance

Authors	Aspects of Employee Performance
Kennedy, Lassk, & Burns (2001)	Work role empowerment, Behavior toward customers, and Teamwork
Borman et al. (2001)	Conscientious initiative and Personal and organizational support
McCook (2002)	Perceived effort, Satisfaction with coworkers, and Opportunity for reward
Johnson (2003)	Job performance and Contextual performance
Parker, Williams, & Turner (2006)	Proactive work behavior; Problem-solving, and Idea implementation
Griffin et al. (2007)	Individual task proficiency, Individual task adaptivity, Individual task proactivity, Team member task proficiency, Team member task adaptivity, Team member task proactivity, Organizational task proficiency, Organizational task adaptivity, and Organizational task proactivity
Schepers (2011)	Work performance and Disciplined effort
Audrey, & Patrice (2012)	Creativity, Reactivity in the face of difficulties, Interpersonal adaptableness, Training efforts, and Handling work related stress
Koopmans, Berhnaards, Hildebrandt, Vet, & Berk (2014)	Task performance, Contextual performance, and Counterproductive work behavior

Source: Pradhan and Jena (2016: 5)

In the next section some performance types will be discussed.

2.2.2 Performance types

Performance has been subdivided into groups containing similar behaviours. These are:

- i. **Task performance** which consists of job-related behaviours, comprising responsibilities derived from a job description, including increased cognitive capabilities, which were mainly enabled through task knowledge (essential practical

knowledge to achieve objectives and the ability to handle various tasks). To clarify, Conway (1999) defined task skills as the ability to apply practical knowledge to achieve objectives without much supervision. Conway (1999) continued and defined task habits as the distinctive capability to react to consigned tasks that may enable or encumber performance. Hence, the principal antecedents of task performance are previous know-how and the ability to complete the tasks (Pradhan and Jena, 2016). In a work environment task performance is therefore a predetermined agreement between management and employees to achieve objectives.

Assigned task performance further comprises two subsections: technical-administrative task performance and leadership task performance (Pradhan and Jena, 2016), where anticipated job performance comprising planning, organising and daily tasks applying one's technical aptitude, professional decision making, etcetera, refer to technical-administrative task performance. Leadership task performance, on the other hand, is characterised by strategic goal setting, safeguarding performance standards, motivating and steering employees to realise goals through inspiration, rewards and recognition and positive feedback (Borman and Brush, 1993; Tripathy, 2014).

Additionally, Borman, and Motowidlo (1997) defined job performance in context to task performance as the success ratio in which employees execute their given tasks to fulfil the organisation's vision. Werner (1994) also linked task performance to organisational rewards, postulating that task performance is based on skills and behaviour that impact objectives, or any other activities that provide subsidiary support to fundamental technical procedures in an organisation (Pradhan and Jena, 2016).

- ii. **Adaptive performance** was defined as an individual's capacity to adjust and support their job in a vigorous work environment (Hesketh and Neal, 1999). Previous research established, however, that when employees were confident in their jobs they attempted to change their approach and behaviour to suit the different job requirements (Huang et al., 2014; Pulakos et al., 2000).

Baard, Rench, and Kozlowski (2014) also noted that changes in technology, job descriptions and restructuring altered employees' interpersonal behaviour and core tasks which stimulates learning (Griffin, Parker and Mason, 2010; LePine, Erez and Johnson, 2002).

In addition, industrial psychologists defined non-job components as organisational citizenship behaviour or contextual performance which represents performance stemming from the individual's own choice (Chinomona, 2016) and that assists employers' intangibly (Pradhan and Jena, 2016).

- iii. **Contextual performance** is seen as a pro-social or extra-role behaviour by employees. Brief and Motowidlo (1986) defined contextual performance as a behaviour that is (i) realised by employees, (ii) which is aimed at an individual, group, or organisation within the organisation, and (iii) the behaviour is intended to improve the individual, group, or organisation.

Supportive to the above philosophy, numerous researchers proposed that anticipated job performance comprised two vital elements; the required output by an organisation is connected to the employees' role and their optional work behaviour (LePine, Erez and Johnson, 2002; Pradhan and Jena, 2016; Van Dyne and Lepine, 1998). Only later psychologists invented contextual performance which implied assisting others to adjust with diverse roles at work (Motowidlo, Borman and Schmit, 1997; Ocampo et al., 2018). Bergeron (2007) noted that contextual performance should include elements such as teamwork, loyalty and perseverance. Further, Kahn (1990) also found that involved employees who had passion at work would perform exceptionally and this increased their extra-role behaviour.

Also, contextual performance increased the team spirit, organisational success (Jaworski and Kohli, 1993; Jones et al., 2007; William, Swee-Lim and Cesar, 2005) as well as augmented employee performance and contentment in the workplace (Alie, Beam and

Carey, 1998; Boyt, Lusch and Naylor, 2001; Cohen and Bailey, 1999). It generated behaviour such as undertaking extra work, assisting others in solving problems and handling challenging tasks, maintaining eagerness at work, creating team work, ethical conduct and work towards the vision of the organisation (Coleman and Borman, 2000; Motowidlo and Schmit, 1999) which created a culture of achievement, productivity and effectiveness in an organisation (Pradhan and Jena, 2016).

As a whole, these constructs of employee performance form the basis of excellence in an organisation, therefore, Pradhan and Jenna (2016) included measurements for task performance, adaptive performance and contextual performance which created a total umbrella effect to measure all elements of employee performance.

It is therefore necessary to assess, evaluate and capacitate employees on a continuous basis to ensure that employee performance is within or above organisational expectations. In fact, formal and informal training, empowerment, recognition and rewards, gratuities, stimulating tasks and growth and development in a challenging environment were found to enhance employee performance (Armstrong and Murlis, 2004; Dowling, Festing and Engle, 2008; Grobler et al., 2006; Tinofirei, 2011).

Although there are various methods to screen performance, the most prevalent is between objective and subjective measures, where, objective measures are defined as direct measures of verifiable behaviours or consequences (Bommer et al., 1995) and subjective performance measures relate to intangible employee abilities core to subjective criticism and advice from leaders as opposed to objective, quantifiable input and feedback (Kokemuller, 2016). Objective and subjective measures can also replace each other. However, research proposed that the two forms should be used as counterparts (Merchant, Stringer and Theivananthampillai, 2010; Rajan and Reichelstein, 2009; Rajan and Reichelstein, 2006; Van der Stede, Chow and Lin, 2006; Zhao and Yu, 2007).

The following is a discussion of employee performance models.

2.3 EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE MODELS

Historically, due to dynamic interactive market environments and the prospect of gaining a competitive advantage, companies started developing curiosity for performance measurement. Earlier research therefore showed that performance could be grouped into similar behaviours that resulted from technical knowledge, skills and flexibility and interpersonal relationships at work. It followed that segments of these behaviours were discussed in former models which resulted in remote organisational objectives, for example increased productivity, customer satisfaction, organisational development and growth, etc. (Pradhan and Jena, 2016). Imna and Hassan (2015) stated that hard and soft kinds of human resource management models are the most commonly accepted.

First, the soft version of human resource management frameworks aims to measure additional value that employees contributed to an organisation, considering training and development requirements and managing quality, commitment and adaptability. On the other hand, the hard version considers employees as an instrument in obtaining organisational objectives ensuring that employees contribute to their maximum capabilities (Dainty, Bagilhole and Neale, 1998; Ihuah, 2014; Imna and Hassan, 2015; Truss et al., 1997).

This model is however lacking in human resource management practices other than training and development. Owing to inconsistencies and conflicting views of this model (Storey, Salaman and Billsberry, 2005; Guest, 1997) it therefore became clear that this model was not properly investigated, which raised questions relating to the significance and the applicability of the model (Truss et al., 1997). As a result, this model was not applicable to this research as studies showed that not only training and development should drive employee performance (Imna and Hassan, 2015; Ming, Zivlak and Ljubicic, 2012; Puri, 2013; Tay, 2011).

In 1984 the Matching or Michigan Model of leadership was established, followed by the Harvard Model. These models are considered as the foundation of later human resource management models, such as the best practice (outcomes) model and the contingency (strategic fit) model. (Agyepong, Fugar and Tuuli, 2010). Some of these frameworks and taxonomies that were developed the last 15 years (Pradhan and Jena, 2016) to measure employee performance will be discussed below.

2.3.1 The Michigan Model of leadership

The Michigan Model of leadership (Devanna, Fombrun and Tichy, 1984) focused on hard human resource management and described the way in which people can manage positive transformation in their lifetime, teams, organisations and the community. This was deeply rooted in leadership studies done by several prominent academics across a collection of organisations in different markets and numerous countries (Agyepong, Fugar and Tuuli, 2010).

It can be explained by saying that in multifaceted and vigorous economic conditions this model empowers leaders to identify and efficiently manage challenges in organisations. These leaders, who practice mindful engagement, acquire a skill to stabilise and influence organisational challenges. In fact, leaders should be understanding, show determination, reliability and courage to constructively influence the lives of others (DeRue et al., 2012). Accordingly, the model was based on the premise that leaders should embrace leadership styles less focused on organisational outcomes and more focused on people, portraying concern for employees' needs and empowering employees to contribute towards the decision-making process.

This suggested that the core purpose of the model was to bring about positive change (DeRue et al., 2012), therefore, the values of effective leaders, surrounding this mission are empathy and commitment; being self-driven and goal-orientated; having integrity, courage, awareness of risks and innovation.

On the other hand, the Michigan model had some shortcomings. It placed too much emphasis on innovation and change which might result in shortcuts and incompetence or even disorder that would prevent the organisation from effecting innovative ideas. The model also placed emphasis on a rather tight fit between human resource and business strategy and demanded that employees be matched with specific jobs in the organisation. Likewise, Evans and Lorange (1989: 145) remarked that the model was grounded on “product market logic” which stressed that to achieve elevated profits, labour should be inexpensive, used parsimoniously, trained and exploited.

Based on the above discussion, this model was not found suitable for the municipal environment as labour is quite expensive, because for every R1 spent by South Africa’s 278 municipalities from July 2014 to June 2015, 26c was spent on salaries (Statistics South Africa, 2015). This model was also not in line with current trends and the dynamics of modern business growth and shifts. The Harvard Model will subsequently be discussed.

2.3.2 The Harvard Model

The Harvard model (1984) focused on a strategic map to guide all leaders in their relations with employees. The premise of the model therefore was that historical human resource problems could be solved only when leaders developed a perspective of how they perceived employees’ involvement and development in the organisation and how to achieve those objectives through human resource policies (Agyepong, Fugar and Tuuli, 2010).

Beer et al. (1984) claimed that demanding environments resulted in a need for strategic interventions to manage employees, including accepting people as assets rather than a cost. Hence the Harvard school claimed that human resource management consisted of two distinguishing features, being the following:

- i. Line managers accept additional accountability and responsibility to ensure that human resource policies are aligned to the competitive strategy of the organisation; and
- ii. The mission of human resource includes setting policies to direct the development and implementation of human resource activities.

It also suggested that employee and labour relations activities can be divided into four human resource groupings, whether the environment is unionised or not, whichever management style is utilised and whether the organisation is a developing or deteriorating business:

- i. “Employee influence;
- ii. Human resource flow;
- iii. Reward systems; and
- iv. Work systems” (Martins, 2012: 1).

Even so, this model did not measure organisational or stakeholder performance such as municipal customers or unions. When implementing this model, an organisation would further have to confirm that employees were involved in their work and participated in decision making which is not currently the case in municipalities (Martins, 2012) as it was found that the main challenge in municipalities for empowering employees lay in the role of effective leadership (Smit and Govender, 2015; Wong and Laschinger, 2012). The fact remains that employee influence is habitually absent in local government, which contributes to a disclaimer in using this model for this research.

The following is a discussion of the Guest Comparative Model.

2.3.3 The Guest Comparative Model

The Guest (1997), Comparative Model is based on a combination of cohesive human resource management procedures, resulting into superior individual and organisational

performances and includes elements of hard and soft approaches of human resource management.

This model highlights a logical sequence of six components:

- i. "Human resource strategy;
- ii. Human resource practices;
- iii. Human resource outcomes;
- iv. Behavioural outcomes;
- v. Performance outcomes; and
- vi. Financial outcomes" (Guest, 1997: 270).

In this instance, financial results are influenced by employee performance, which is influenced by employee behaviours. In addition, behavioural consequences result from employee commitment, superiority and elasticity which are influenced by human resource management practices. The human resource management practices must however be aligned with human resource management strategies which, in turn, are aligned with organisational strategies.

To continue, the Guest Model defined the inputs and results in the human resource management environment, although the forces of people management were extremely challenging and multifaceted, so that no model could embrace it completely. Further, the Guest Model was idealistic, indirectly embracing fundamental elements of human resource management, for instance commitment, which showed a direct correlation with valued organisational concerns. Hence the concept of commitment was muddled and the relation between commitment and high performance was hard to determine (Price, 2011).

Moreover, the Guest Model was developed in the United Kingdom and was perceived to connect employee behaviour and commitment to strategic management goals. It was also not valued by trade unions. Employee relationships were further regarded as a relationship between an employee and the organisation (Agyepong, Fugar and Tuuli,

2010; Price, 2011), the challenge here being that municipalities are highly unionised organisations and therefore this model might not be appropriate in the municipal context. In addition to this, the model did not consider differences in cultures and institutional backgrounds and did not take cognizance of the external and internal business environments (Agyepong, Fugar and Tuuli, 2010; Boselie, Paauwe and Richardson, 2003). To conclude, this model was hence not suitable for this study.

The following discussion was aimed at explaining the Warwick Model.

2.3.4 The Warwick Model

This model was developed by Hendry and Pettigrew (1990) of the University of Warwick, who focused on the centre of strategy and change, emphasizing the use of an analytical approach to human resource management and recognising the impact of the role of the personnel functions on the human resource strategy content. This model comprises five elements:

- i. External context (macro-environmental forces);
- ii. Internal context (firm specific or micro-environmental forces);
- iii. Business strategy content;
- iv. Human resource context; and
- v. Human resource content.

These elements allowed an examination of how external influences impacted on internal processes within the organisation, articulating the open-system theory of organisational thinking. The model embraced organisational strategy, human resource practices, the external and internal environment, the way in which changes took place, as well as interactions concerning changes in human resource management context and content (Agyepong, Fugar and Tuuli, 2010).

In addition to the above, the model categorised significant environmental influences on human resource management. It also mapped relationships between external and

environmental factors and explored the effect of changes in the human resource management context, although a major disadvantage was that this model was developed in a European context and reflected European ethnicities and management styles (Agyepong, Fugar and Tuuli, 2010). Because of this, plus the fact that the present study was undertaken in the South African context, this model would not be suitable.

The following is a discussion of the Balanced Scorecard.

2.3.5 The Balanced Scorecard

Kaplan and Norton (1992) developed the Balanced Scorecard, which was aligned with principles of the "Triple Bottom Line." It also offered a way to achieve social and environmental goals in an organisation whilst integrating them with financial performance and a competitive advantage. It could therefore be seen as a reasonable strategic framework which enabled organisations to express focused and clear strategic objectives and link key deliverables to the vision and strategy of the organisation (Moullin, 2017; Niven, 2003).

The Balanced Scorecard explained and attained harmony in strategy for non-profit organisations through communication, alignment of elements and goals, comprehension of procedures and focusing on improvements (Chan, 2004; Grigoroudis, Orfanoudaki and Zopounidis, 2012; Kaplan and Norton, 1996; Moullin, 2017). The balanced scorecard also extended the focus of managers to a broader field, to include non-financial aspects, providing guidance for key performance indicators in each scorecard category.

Although the morphologic construction and method of the Balanced Scorecard tended to replicate its private sector roots, typically across the four key perspectives, Gambles (1999: 24) confirmed that "in its usual form, it (the scorecard), is clearly not suitable for the vast majority of the public sector" (Moullin, 2017: 443). Also, where the Balanced Scorecard focused on finances, the focus of the public sectors is rather on social upliftment and service than on profits and shareholder worth (Euske, 2003; Moullin, 2017;

Yeung and Connell, 2006). Finances are here only perceived as enablers of performance, rather than the means to performance and sustainability (Moullin, 2017).

Northcott and Taulapapa (2012) confirmed that even though eight New Zealand local government organisations modified the Balanced Scorecard to suit their environment, they experienced substantial difficulty in doing so. Moore (2003) agreed with this and indicated that the basic elements in the Balanced Scorecard had not been modified from the private sector to suit the public sector. In addition, the Balanced Scorecard was based on processes used in the private sector and did not include service delivery, risk management and working across organisational borders (Moullin, 2006; Moullin, 2017). Cordella and Bonina (2012) further stated that in the public sector, changes influence social and political dimensions, which is not applicable in the private sector (Moullin, 2017).

Rather than to adapt the Balanced Scorecard, which was fundamentally developed as a private sector measurement tool, it was preferred in this research to consider an alternative model which was more suitable for the public sector. The researcher will therefore, hereafter discuss the Triarchy model of employee performance.

2.3.6 The Triarchy Model of employee performance

Pradhan and Jena, (2016) initially identified forty-two items that corresponded to their dimensions. They classified and theoretically grouped them into three distinct dimensions of performance. After that, they developed the Triarchy Model of employee performance, covering the anticipated lateral outcomes of employee performance as illustrated in Figure 1.

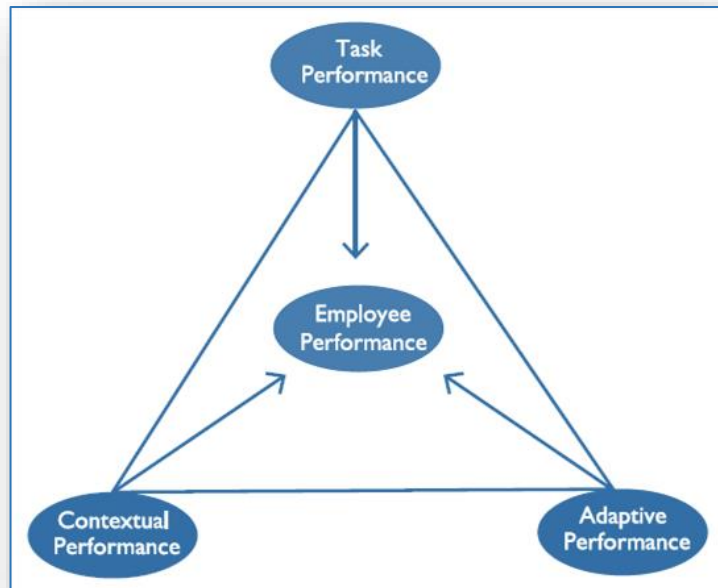


Figure 1: The Triarchy Model of employee performance

Source: Pradhan and Jenna (2016: 6)

Pradhan and Jenna (2016) described the three distinct dimensions as follows:

Firstly, task performance, which comprised clear job behaviours, including essential responsibilities allocated in terms of the job description. Task performance was defined as activities that directly linked to produce goods or services, or actions that indirectly supported the organisation's principal technical procedures (Krishnan et al., 2013; Orazi, Turrini and Valotti, 2013; Werner, 2000). Carmeli, Shalom and Weisberg (2007) postulated that results originating from the task performance of an employee would be a good indicator to map the career path of that employee (Carmeli, Shalom and Weisberg, 2007; Krishnan et al., 2013).

Task performance entails augmented intellectual skills and is primarily enabled through:

- i. Task knowledge (technical knowledge or principles to perform, having the ability to perform several tasks);

- ii. Task skills (applying technical knowledge to complete tasks without much supervision); and
- iii. Task habits (an inborn skill to perform tasks, either enabling or obstructing performance) (Pradhan and Jena, 2016).

Hence the core requirements of task performance are the capacity of employees to deliver the tasks, and former experience (Pradhan and Jena, 2016).

Secondly, adaptive performance, which is the ability of a person to adjust to fluctuating work environments and support the job profile (Lim et al., 2017). Moreover, effective adaptive performance requires the aptitude to efficiently handle unpredictable work circumstances, for example changes in technology, core responsibilities and restructuring, thus, change and innovation require employees also to engage in learning. Employees can therefore be expected to change their interpersonal behaviour during change to work effectively with a broad range of colleagues and subordinates (Pradhan and Jena, 2016). In addition, Pulakos et al. (2000) developed eight dimensions of adaptive performance:

- i. Solving challenging tasks through innovative solutions;
- ii. The ability to deal with change;
- iii. Learning capability to apply creativity and improve processes;
- iv. Flexible social interaction;
- v. Adaptability to cultural and interpersonal challenges;
- vi. Physically oriented flexibility;
- vii. Crises management; and
- viii. Stress management which capture overall adaptive performance (Pulakos et al., 2000).

Even though adaptive performance was seen as a reaction to environmental change (Hesketh and Neal, 1999; Lim et al., 2017), academics also measured the proactive form of adaptation (Ashford and Taylor, 1990; Ployhart and Bliese, 2006; Shoss, Witt and Vera,

2012) and found that in both forms, employees needed to change their behaviour (Shoss, Witt and Vera, 2012) although they might adjust their attention (Huang et al., 2014).

Thirdly, contextual performance is seen as a pro-social or extra role behaviour at work. However, this behaviour is not stipulated in a job description. Hence, Brief and Motowidlo (1986) define contextual performance as:

- i. An act by an employee;
- ii. The act is aimed at individuals, groups, or an organisation involved in the interaction whilst performing organisational tasks; and
- iii. The act is aimed at improving an individual, a group, or organisation (Pradhan and Jena, 2016).

Krishnan et al. (2013) and Werner (2000) also defined contextual performance as efforts by individuals that are not directly associated to their key functions. Accordingly, these efforts outline the organisational, psychological and social backgrounds, acting as a catalytic agent for functional activities and processes (Krishnan et al., 2013; Werner, 2000).

In addition, contextual performance embraces numerous attitudes; such as offering to do extra work, assisting others with problems, creating enthusiasm, collaborating in challenging times, resources and data sharing for organisational development, abiding by laws and legislation and supporting transformation (Coleman and Borman, 2000; Motowidlo, Borman and Schmit, 1997; Pradhan and Jena, 2016). These efforts stimulate a culture of support and a climate where individual productivity and organisational effectiveness will grow (Pradhan and Jena, 2016).

Ultimately, this model offers a comprehensive understanding of the origin and restraints of employee performance and factors that may enhance employee performance. It is also a significant building block in leadership, as the main objective of leaders is to ensure that employees perform exceptionally. The model also goes beyond formal job responsibilities

with discretionary extra role behaviours. It equally improves organisational culture and climate as discussed above. Evidently this model is highly connected to organisational performance and assists in selecting the right employees, therefore the researcher selected this model as the most suitable model to measure employee performance in the public sector.

Futhermore, to operationalise employee performance in this study, the Employee Performance Scale (EPS) form Pradhan and Jena (2016) was applied.

The researcher will now discuss employee performance in the public sector.

2.4 EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR

Municipal service delivery levels have been labelled as inadequate to meet customer expectations in terms of quality demands, service levels and resolving queries. This proposes that there may be hidden elements that influence employee performance and increased service delivery levels. Moreover, superior service delivery usually depends on numerous factors where the competence of employees is a major concern.

Commonly, scarce skills are limited in all spheres of government, mainly due to a shortage of qualified and skilled employees (Draai and Oshoniyi, 2013). The National Development Plan (NDP) (2011) places great emphasis on individual capabilities. To this effect, the NDP (2011) stipulates that individuals should be skilled and educated. In Chapter 13, page 371 the NDP (2011) specifically indicates that the public service and local government should become the “career of choice”. In addition, the NDP specifies that highly skilled people with in-depth knowledge of the sections that they serve in should be employed. The NDP (2011) also highlights that departments often use external consultants when employees are not skilled to perform their duties, which has a serious impact on expenditure. On top of this, it is advised that recruitment and promotion processes should be based on skills and experience. It is therefore important to ensure that public servants are competent to perform and achieve strategic local government

goals as aligned to the National Outcomes Approach 2009- 2014 (Draai and Oshoniyi, 2013).

With this in mind, the LGSETA (Local Government Sector Education and Training Authority, 2019) identified numerous generic and technical skills which should be acquired and improved to enhance performance. This resulted in massive skills gaps caused by the variance between the skills that are needed in the organisation and the skills that the employees offer (Mkhonza and Letsoalo, 2017; Runji, 2020). The consequence of these skills gaps results in poor employee performance (McIntyre, 2013). In addition, employees perceive the lack of skills as a huge barrier to excellence and performance (Runji, 2020).

Also, in the public sector it has not only been found that employees lack the competence, skills and capacity to handle specific job-related tasks (Chirasha, Chipunza and Dzimhiri, 2018), but employees do not perform tasks within specific planned time frames. In addition, poor planning impacts severely on deliverables and even the lack of commitment and dedication in completing tasks.

Chigunwe et al. (2016) added that incompetent employees, poor leadership, lack of consideration for consumers' needs, disheartened and demotivated employees and an absence of supervision also contributed to poor employee performance in local government. Numerous human resource studies found that poor leadership equalled poor performance (Haenisch, 2012). Some other factors which affected employee performance included extreme protocols, legislative requirements and controls, recurrent political interference, outright maladministration and a bloated staff complement (Mutegei and Ombui, 2016).

It is alleged that municipalities do not have suitably qualified, sufficiently motivated and skilled employees working in local municipalities. This may be explained by several shortcomings which were identified in the recruitment and selection processes in the

public sector, including the local sphere of government. Consequently, the less than ideal selection methods often result into the “wrong” candidate being appointed to a position.

To substantiate this, various factors were identified which represent underlying causes of poor performance. These include:

- (i) Nepotism, political interference and political placements (Nwachukwu et al., 2019);
- (ii) Cronyism (Shaheen et al., 2020);
- (iii) Lack of formal qualifications, expertise and experience (The South African Local Government Association, 2010: 12); and
- (iv) Conflicts between councillors and administrators (Njunwa, 2018)

Moreover, Lee and Van der Waldt (2020: 173) stated that “recent official reports from the Public Service Commission, the Auditor General, and the Department of Public Service Administration reveal, however, that government departments experience significant challenges as far as the talent of its staff complement is concerned”. This may result from the fact that human resource management practices such as career and talent management and coaching and mentoring are predominantly not practiced (Lee and Van der Waldt, 2020). The South African Local Government Association also conducted a study in 2010 and found that local government human resource practices were muddled and inconsistent in almost all areas of human resources (The South African Local Government Association, 2010: 57). Bwowe (2015) also found that talent management was poorly integrated in human resource management practises and that municipal leaders are poorly committed to performance management. As a result, employee performance declines as employees feel negative, demotivated and cheated (Bilal, Rafi and Khalid, 2017).

Public sector management governance in most countries, more so in developing economies, also experience poor governance conditions. In these countries where political instability is experienced, the public sector necessitates higher economic intelligence and structures that face challenges caused by bureaucracy. Moreover, the state is usually the largest employer. The public sector also comprises of the public service which employs individuals at central, regional, and local government. This also

includes public and civil servants who should deliver high quality, and essential services to the community (Betchoo, 2016). Thus, public leaders attempt to improve governance and engage employee performance in all areas. The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (2001: 7) defined the role of public leaders as being “to solve the problems and challenges faced in a specific environment”. They continue, indicating that public leaders should promote public interest and also that public leaders must promote certain “essential values that can be called public spiritedness”. However, politicization remains a challenge when implementing policies. Public leaders also experience high rates of corruption, with lack of accountability, transparency and discretionary power. The complexity of bureaucracy is further increased by distinct rules and regulations (Kearney, 2018), but to deal with bureaucrats, public sector leaders personalise relationships and interventions from third parties and involve employees who improve employee performance.

Bakker (2015) noted that employee performance in the public sector was mostly affected by poor remuneration. He recommended that leaders should encourage higher wages and place pressure on corrupt activities and ensure that employees adhere to legal requirements. In addition, employee performance was influenced by political forces and decisions made by public sector agencies (Bakker, 2015). Rewards have a vast effect on employee performance in the public sector. When employees are promoted based on political influences and not merit, employee loyalty and honesty decrease. Insufficient resources, like financial, human, and technical resources also negatively affect employee performance in the public sector (Henttonen, Kianto and Ritala, 2016).

Public sector leadership should provide comfortable and appropriate working environments and readdress the upgrading of the macroeconomic efficiency and stability. Human resource management influences employee engagement in the public sector. Strategic human resource management approaches like training and development, employee involvement, growth and participation and the alignment between employees’ goals and objectives and strategic deliverables are critical tools to achieve high employee performance (Kearney, 2018).

Historically there had been doubts regarding the level of employee involvement to maximize commitment which positively influences employee performance. Kearney (2018) postulated that leaders should frequently share vital information on significant matters with employees, which would result in empowered, high-performing employees in the public sector.

The following discussion addresses some of the challenges and solutions for employee performance in the public sector.

2.5 CHALLENGES AND SOLUTIONS OF EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR

Within the municipality, performance agreements are set for senior managers. The Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act No. 32 of 2000) empowers the executive mayor in consultation with the municipal council to appoint the municipal manager as the accounting officer and head of the administration. It is expected from the municipal manager to “serve two masters, one political and the other administrative” (Sape, 2019: 67). Hence, in the administrative role, the municipal manager must exercise leadership for the total municipality (Sape, 2019; Siegel, 2010). Moreover, in terms of the Local Government: Regulations on Appointment and Conditions of Employment of Senior Managers (2014: 8), Chapter 3, Section 6(1), “the recruitment, selection and appointment of senior managers must take place in accordance with the municipal systems and procures contemplated in Section 67 of the Local Government: Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act No. 32 of 2000) that are consistent with Sections 54A, 56, 57A and 72”. The appointment of low level management is based on the organogram created and approved in terms of Local Government: Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act No. 32 of 2000) Section 4(1)-(4).

With regards to measuring the municipal manager’s performance:- the Municipal Finance Management Act, 2003 (Act No. 56, 2003) stipulates that, on an annual basis

municipalities should adopt a Service Delivery and Budget Implementation Plan which will be the basis of setting measurable performance targets. In addition, Section 72(1) of the Municipal Finance Management Act, 2003 (Act No. 56, 2003) also stipulates that the municipal manager must submit a performance assessment report to the executive mayor, National Treasury and Provincial Treasury. Thus, key performance indicators from the Service Delivery and Budget Implementation Plan will be used to compile performance scorecards and agreements for the city manager and his direct reports (Municipal Systems Act No. 32 of 2000).

From here on, the key performance indicators are rolled down to create departmental and individual performance scorecards to ensure that organisational objectives are met. The performance management policies of the municipalities inform the performance management process of all other employees (City of Cape Town Metropolitan Municipality, 2011; City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality, 2010; City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, 2014).

Even though public organisations aim to improve employee performance, several challenges may arise in this regard. Owing to constant change, organisations need to adapt and keep abreast of trends and challenges which may impact on the performance of the business. The public sector cannot escape these dynamic changes and needs to proactively rethink business rules to meet the challenges emanating from the changing and dynamic environment. These include:

2.5.1 Volatility, uncertainty, complexity and ambiguity

Organisations, including the public sector, experience change fatigue resulting from volatility, complexity and ambiguity that seem to be a heady mix. There is a constant barrage of initiatives to manage uncertainty in the business world. Hence there are several ways of addressing uncertainty, such as a seismic change of mind from transformation management to an agile change platform tactic where organisations need to change the way employees think. Leaders must ensure that employees embrace, adapt and ultimately implement change (Arnaboldi, Lapsley and Steccolini, 2015).

2.5.2 Technology

Technology in the public sector has also posed huge challenges to leaders due to constant advancement, innovation and change in the technological environment. The concern raised was whether public service leaders could cope with the technological shifts currently occurring in the economic environment and engage society with these shifts. Not only should leaders be informed of technological trends, but they should also relate these to society and engage employees. It is vital to be informed of technological trends that may impact on service delivery to generate innovative and smarter ways to service the community (Isaac et al., 2017).

2.5.3 Changing perceptions

In addition, public sector employees have become more transparent, which changes the perceptions of consumers and other stakeholders. Society also affects how people perceive service delivery in the public sector, especially through the media. To explain this, it can be said that cell phone technology evolved rapidly, which resulted in more people having access to cameras and social media applications. Because of the coverage from radical mobile journalism, public sector leaders are more exposed to media, which may change the perception of customers and stakeholders about the standards and quality of service delivery in the public sector (Perry and Vandenabeele, 2015). This can change the attitude of public sector leaders, as leaders may be perceived to be heroes or, alternatively, villains.

2.5.4 Increasing expectations

Added to this, expectations constantly increase due to complexities and diverse demographic proportions of the public, with growing change and contradicting expectations. Consumers expect superior service delivery from the public sector in comparison to the private sector relating to personalisation, service and choices. Leaders in the public sector need to understand complex, technical and specific service requests by the society (Bakker, 2015). Owing to high demand from the digital generation the public sector also needs to change from e-government (one-stop, electronic setting for all public

sector services) (Weerakkody and Dhillon, 2008), to i-government (where the goal is to intelligently provide all consumers with services improved to suit their characteristics, desires and requirements) (Chebaro, Fakhoury and Baker, 2016).

2.5.5 People empowerment

On the other hand, technology causes a shift in the relationship between individuals and public servants creating a society that is more networked. Numerous platforms like blogs and forums are currently available to extract online health information, with the result that individuals raise numerous petitions online (Perry and Vandenabeele, 2015) which enables broad-range effects on how public leaders must service and organise service delivery.

2.5.6 Changing workforce

Public sector leaders must also adopt and embrace changes in the workforce as the older generation is being replaced by new generations. Traditionally, public sector jobs are globally perceived as safe and secure professions where individuals scale up the career ladder to their retirement, and with a commendable pension. However, evidence shows that young generations do not hold the traditional attitude towards employment. Hence, public sector leaders are challenged to handle various ethical practices, relating them to the younger generations. The public sector workforce therefore comprises of employees of two distinct ages, that is, the industrial age and the information age, and these have varying work ethics and philosophies (Arnaboldi, Lapsley and Steccolini, 2015). The young generation rejects the work-for-life notion and this may indeed induce changes that might trigger future developments of public services. Public service leaders must also introduce a more competitively oriented and performance-centred career path to motivate and retain the younger generation.

2.5.7 Socio-economic challenges

The democratic component of the state is guided by the Constitution of South Africa, 1996, in particular the Bill of Rights (Chapter 2) and Section 195(1) in Chapter 10 and governed by democratic principles (Gumede, 2019). Hence, the developmental state –

national, provincial and local government – is guided by the National Development Plan (2011), Government's leading policy for development. Moreover, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996) enshrines the right to basic services and compels the state to take action to realise these. As a result, the primary focus, as stipulated in the democratic component and the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (1996), is service delivery and the attainment of the social contract.

Also, in terms of the developmental component, and the National Development Plan (2011), the public sector faces socio-economic challenges. These socio-economic challenges include, amongst others, poverty, homelessness and limited essential services. Citizens need basic municipal services in respect of water, wastewater, solid waste, electricity, housing, infrastructure, and transport – the lack of which may have a perilous impact on their standard of living. These services are key to efficient, effective, healthy, and economically vigorous societies. However, many national, provincial and local governments fall short in providing these essential services to societies (Future Communities, 2009; Mehlahe, 2017; Mohlapamasw and Rachidi, 2014). This was identified as a direct result of risks in human resource management, poor management and the lack of accountability by municipal managers in local governments which highlighted hidden factors influencing employee performance (Makwetu, 2013; The Auditor General of South Africa, 2020). Moreover, the local sphere of government, as the sphere of government closest to the community, as well as the sphere of government tasked with integrated development planning, local economic development, reconstruction and development, growth, employment and accelerated and shared growth, etc. is significantly affected by these challenges. Therefore, leaders should ensure that human resource management risks, including poor management, the lack of accountability and poor employee performance are addressed and improved to enhance service delivery.

Drawing from current definitions, and the fact that this study is aimed specifically at local government employee performance, and for the purposes of this research, employee

performance was defined as: “Employee performance expectations in line with mutually agreed key performance indicators in a local government context”.

This leads to the following summary and conclusion.

2.6 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Zheng et al., (2020) stated that it was crucial to understand factors that influence employee performance. Arinanye (2015) pointed out that organisations require quality employees to perform. In addition, Fauzilah et al. (2011) highlighted that employees in the local government sector play a vital role in ensuring that government policies and programmes are implemented efficiently. They also indicated that there was an absence of performance measurement in the municipal area due to a lack of commitment and training (Arinanye, 2015).

It was also found that the major factors affecting employee performance in the public sector are: politicization, transparency of decisions, meritocracy, voice, wages, honesty, resources and enforcement of rules. The public sector is also experiencing challenges in the form of technological advancement, changing perceptions, increasing expectations, people empowerment and the changing work force.

To investigate employee performance in the public sector, the researcher therefore first discussed the concept Employee Performance, then discussed performance types and moved forward to analyse and discuss different employee performance models.

For this research, based on the suitability of the model, the Triarchy Model of employee performance was identified as the most suitable model to measure the performance of employees in a municipal environment.

This led to a discussion of employee performance in the public sector, highlighting some challenges and probable solutions to employee performance enhancement. In the next chapter, the leadership concept will be discussed.

LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER 3

LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES



3.1 INTRODUCTION

Leaders are essential to organisational success. They create a shared vision and ensure that objectives and strategies are met in order to secure organisational success. Leadership is also a popular and vastly researched subject (Bass, 1990).

The fact that leaders need competencies to produce superior performance has also been well established in research (Ahmed and Azmi bin Mohamad, 2016; Northouse, 2014; Tomal and Jones, 2015). Hence the concept of leadership has been analysed to great lengths by researchers, resulting in numerous theories and viewpoints. In addition, researchers have in the course of time scrutinised leadership in terms of their character

and behaviour, transactions, power, influence, circumstances and culture, as well as transformational abilities (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Yukl, 1999) and established that competencies such as social and emotional competencies are critical for effective leadership and organisational success (Ahmed and Azmi bin Mohamad, 2016; Haricharan, 2015; Northouse, 2014; Tomal and Jones, 2015; Walsh and Trovas, 2014). Leadership literature consequently revealed that multifaceted models, characteristics and leadership competencies were found in traditional trends as well as in emerging styles. Some deliberation on these elements will therefore be undertaken in this chapter.

To continue, this chapter will commence examining and extracting the concept of leadership from numerous sources on leadership literature. After that follows a historical overview of leadership theories and of traditional and emerging pivotal leadership literature, including trait or personality, behavioural, transactional and transformational and other emerging perspectives. The discussion will further venture into leadership styles and then move towards a discussion of public sector leadership. From then on, the debate on leadership competencies will continue, critically evaluating various competency frameworks in the public sector and finally reaching a summary and conclusion regarding high performance leadership competencies. An introduction to leadership will now be presented.

3.2 AN INTRODUCTION TO LEADERSHIP

Leadership is a multifaceted practice which is concerned with several essential and diverse acts and signifies figments of the imaginations of influential, powerful and vibrant individuals, commanding triumphant militias, leading huge companies and guiding the direction of nations (Aalateeg, 2017; Yukl, 2002). It is therefore perceived as a method or relationship, a mixture of skills or individual characteristics, certain conducts or leadership traits (Wolinski, 2010). According to Burns (1978: 2), “leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth.” Onyefulu and Floyd (2012) also said that various academics tried to define leadership, but found no common definition, whereas Gupton (2010: 17) stated that “more than 3000 empirical investigations have

examined leadership” and Lunenburg and Ornstein (2008) confirmed these findings by saying that during the earlier part of the 20th century several academics, researchers and practitioners had defined and investigated it.

On the other hand, Mills (2006) defined leadership as a practice that involves encouragement and influence, usually taking place within teams, and also consists in achieving goals and objectives and the author noted that the absence of leadership had dramatic effects on individual performance. Hackman and Johnson (2000) defined leadership as human communication, which changes the perspectives and conduct of individuals to meet the goals and needs of teams. In addition to this, Yukl (1999) referred to leadership as a process for influencing others in order to facilitate cohesion to achieve organisational objectives. Likewise, Gardner (1990) also defined leadership as a persuasion process where individuals are motivated to pursue the leader's goals. Kouzes and Posner (2007) concurred, stating that leadership was about associations, the leader's integrity, conduct and actions (Bechtel, 2010). Tubbs and Eric (2006) also defined leadership as a process of influencing others to achieve objectives. All these definitions concur on the fact that the leadership process influence followers to meet a mutual objective. Hence an overview of leadership theories will now be presented.

3.3 AN OVERVIEW OF LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Flowing from an introduction into leadership, the researcher found that leadership studies dated back to the 1930s, by means of which numerous leadership theories and styles were established and researched (Allio, 2013; Bennett, 2009; Martin, 2017). Initially these leadership theories explained what made great leaders, focussing mainly on specific characteristics and behaviour of leaders, but later became more interested in the behaviour of a leader's followers and the nature of leadership.

Scientific studies of leadership started with one of the founding fathers of sociology, Max Weber (1864-1920) who questioned elements such as status, authority and legality in the framework of politics, religion, and the army. After that Bennis (2009) moved from

traditional thinking and introduced the trait approach where leaders provide vision, passion, integrity, and trust. Hence, this encouraged further researchers like Kouzes and Posner (2017), who highlighted leaders' credibility, morals, values, ethics, and interaction. They also accentuated leaders' ability to construct teams, ensure the achievement of goals and recognise and reward performance (Martin, 2017).

Consequently, leadership research increased considerably in the earlier part of the twentieth century. Galton (1869) emphasized that leadership theory informed popular thoughts about leaders (Zaccaro, 2007). In addition, he noted that leaders were shaped through their characters and individual abilities to motivate followers. The following is a discussion of some well-known leadership theories starting with the Great Man Theory (Arifah et al., 2018; Charry, 2018; Ribeiro, Duarte and Filipe, 2018).

3.3.1 The Great Man Theory

Carlyle (1907) assumed that leaders are born and not made, which showed that certain traits were inherited and that leaders would naturally arise when needed. During these times leaders were therefore thought of as predominantly military and male (Hoffman et al., 2011; Ololube, 2013). The weakness of this theory is grounded on its inability to reconnoitre the role of leadership in guaranteeing organisational efficiency and reliability (Grint, 2011). The approach also presented a gender bias and stated that leadership was biologically determined, which was reflected in its name: Great Man (Spector, 2016; Van Wart, 2003). Thus, effective leadership could only be demonstrated by males. As a result, researchers moved away from the Great Man Theory to bring about an equilibrium from the previous imbalances between different sexual groups and changing economic environments.

A discussion on trait theories follows below.

3.3.2 Trait theories

Trait theories assume that people have specific characteristics or behaviours, which increase their suitability for leadership. Leadership traits also typically signify individual

characteristics and personality types that go into producing a particular style of leadership. Traditionally, measuring traits included testing the emotional, social, physical and intellectual capability to lead others (Duggan, 2018). Northouse (2013: 1 - 2) defined traits as a “distinguishing quality of an individual, which is often inherited.” He continued, explaining that defining leadership as a trait meant that each individual brought to the table certain traits that would affect the way that leaders lead. In addition, Northouse (2013) stated that everyone was born with distinctive traits that could have a positive influence in terms of leadership and that through groups of attributes, a leader could influence others. Hence, the trait approach to leadership proposed that individuals had fundamental characteristics that distinguished them from non-leaders (Onyefulu and Floyd, 2012), whereas skills are learned competencies and essential to be an effective leader (Northouse, 2013).

This theory therefore led to long lists of leadership traits. It was found, however, that despite similarities in the traits of leaders (e.g. extroversion and determination), these characteristics may also be found in people who are not leaders. Also, Stogdill (1948) stated that certain identified leadership traits did not necessarily result in successful leaders. He continued to indicate that traits were somewhat influenced by the situation in which a leader found himself or herself. In addition, traits that an individual have may not be effective in all cases. Hence, discrepancies between leadership traits and their relationship to leadership effectiveness resulted in researchers searching for new reasons for effective leadership (Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube, 2015). This raised the question of the validity of the trait theory.

After that, numerous other researchers initiated further studies into traits and infinite lists of traits appeared (Bass and Bass, 2009; Lord, De Vader and Alliger, 1986; Lussier and Achua, 2001; Mann, 1959; McClelland, 1985; McClelland, 1965; McClelland, 1975; Northouse, 2010; Yukl, 2010). In addition, Gill (2011: 67) suggested that “the picture of personal qualities of leadership” was incomplete and noted that there was a lack of evidence that leaders who had all the identified traits revealed in previous research may result in effective leaders. Hence, these broad lists of traits resulted in numerous biased

explanations which were not based on robust empirical research. It can be concluded that researchers could not find consensus on which traits were core to superior leaders, and even if more specific qualities could be identified, it would not explain the nature of leadership (Aalateeg, 2017). Northouse (2010) noted that the trait theory remained popular despite these criticisms.

Thus, the focal point of leadership research shifted then from traditional trait theories to behavioural and situational approaches, which were based on leadership skills and characteristics (Ribeiro, Duarte and Filipe, 2018). This will be discussed below.

3.3.3 Behavioural theory

The behavioural theory is based on the perception that leaders are made and not born. Hence it focuses on the actions of leaders and not on their intellect and competencies. According to this theory, people can therefore learn to turn into leaders by means of training and observation (Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube, 2015). Awareness in leaders' behaviour was consequently raised through systematically comparing autocratic and democratic leadership styles (Naylor, 1999).

Moreover, differences are found in the behaviour of employees led by autocratic leaders and those influenced by democratic leaders. In addition, autocratically led employees tend to be displeased with the leader, displaying resistance although they work well when the leader is present, whereas democratically led employees are more positive, are not hostile and work well, even if the leader is absent (Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube, 2015).

Researchers thus identified different styles of leadership, based on their behaviour. Kurt Lewin et al. (1939) also distinguished between autocratic (inculcating employees), democratic (inspiring collective decision-making) and laissez-faire (a laidback approach) in leadership styles (Aalateeg, 2017; Bass, 1990a). In addition, the Managerial Grid (Blake and Mouton, 1985: 10 - 11) also emphasised leader behaviour, which comprised

both task and people issues and identified both as essential elements of effective leadership.

The contingency theory is discussed next.

3.3.4 Contingency theory

This theory emerged in answer to shortcomings of the behavioural theory and prioritised situational factors. It should be noted that there are numerous contingencies. These approaches include the leadership continuum of Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958), Fiedler's (1964) contingency model of leadership, the situational theory of Hersey and Blanchard (1969), the path-goal theory of House and Evans (House, 1971) and the Vroom-Jago (1988) model of decision participation. Contingency theory thus attempted to envisage the most suitable leadership style in diverse situations and stated that there was no world-wide, generally accepted leadership style (Holda, 1995). Fairholm (1998: 53) therefore concluded that leadership should adjust to suit the situation or that circumstances should change to suit the leadership style applied.

On the other hand, Dunklee (2001: 4) specified that a contingency approach was a productive approach which included six critical theoretical viewpoints, namely:

- i. **The leadership continuum of Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958)** which demonstrated the relationship between the degree of independence that leaders give to a team and the amount of power exercised by the leader. Although the independence and responsibility of the employees may increase, the leader retains the same level of accountability. In addition, as the independence of employees increased, the power of the leader decreased. Democracy and autocracy are not contrasting either, but a sequential dimension where decision-making of followers increased towards the democratic extreme (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988).
- ii. **Fiedler's contingency theory of leadership** is also referred to as the path-goal theory of leader effectiveness and originated from the expectancy theory. Bass

(1990a) noted that this theory might be the most extensively investigated model of leadership. It therefore suggests that effective leaders realise goals by explaining ways in which to achieve goals and empower followers to resolve problems, which results in increased employee job satisfaction, effectiveness and performance levels (Demissie, 2017: 31; House, 1996). Thus, leadership behaviour includes instruction, support and compassion, contribution, and is goal-oriented (Blunt and Jones, 1997; Zhang, Tsui and Wang, 2011).

- iii. **The path-goal theory of leader effectiveness** postulates that effective leaders elucidate how objectives can be achieved and help cohorts to resolve problems. This increases employee satisfaction and productivity. The path-goal theory thus attempts to explain the influence that leadership behaviour has on subordinates' motivation, performance, spirituality and citizenship behaviour (Demissie, 2017).
- iv. **Hersey and Blanchard's life cycle theory** proposes four leadership styles, namely "telling, selling, participating and delegating" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982: 169) which are defined by the maturity levels of employees. It also uses the example of a parent-child relationship, whereby through parenting and controlling, the child matures and grows. Through control, direction, and coaching, the employee will therefore grow in experience and maturity in their job, resulting in empowerment (Demissie, 2017).
- v. **The cognitive resource theory** is based on individual elements of intelligence, stress, and the experiences of a leader (Demissie, 2017; Fiedler, 1996; House and Aditya, 1997). Fiedler and Garcia (1987) further indicated that intelligence improved performance when stress was minimal. They also established that experience negatively influenced performance and intelligence. Hence, to achieve excellence, companies should employ intelligent people with ample experience and knowledge (Demissie, 2017; Fiedler, 1996).
- vi. **The decision process theory** is based on a chronological tree approach to identify the most suitable decision-making process in given situations. Such factors are "the

problem structure and acceptance by followers, goals of followers, conflict among followers, quality requirements and sufficient information” (Vroom and Yetton, 1973: 69). Leaders do not, however, always apply the same leadership style, exhibit different styles, and even combine styles (Walker and McPhail, 2009).

For the purposes of this study, the researcher now moves to discuss other theories of leadership, including the situational, participative, transactional and transformational leadership, as well as neo-charisma and the skills leadership theories.

3.3.5 Other theories of leadership

Other theories of leadership include:

- i. **Situational theories**, which stipulate that the action of leaders is based on circumstances. As a result, diverse leadership styles can be applied to different situations, for example an authoritarian style where leaders need to portray experience and knowledge in a group or service leadership style where the leader needs to empower employees (Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube, 2015; Yukl, 2013). Different work situations may therefore call for different leadership styles (Maner, 2015).
- ii. The **participative theory**, on the other hand, denotes that the ideal leadership style is where leaders consider others. Hence, participative leaders inspire sharing and empowerment to enhance relevance and commitment to the decision-making processes. Participation also increases involvement, empowerment, dedication and collaboration, which improves performance (Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube, 2015).
- iii. The **transactional leadership theory** focuses on the management role, the role of the organisation, team performance, and interactions between leaders and followers. It is also based on a process of rewards and punishments (Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube, 2015; Charry, 2018; McCleskey, 2014; Northouse, 2013). These dealings

therefore result in leaders achieving objectives, completing tasks, maintaining and improving operations and motivating followers through a shared vision, thus increasing employee performance through commitment, rewards, efficiency and enhancement (McCleskey, 2014; Sadeghi and Pihie, 2012).

- iv. **Transformational leadership theory** is also known as relationship theory and bases leadership success on sustainable connections between leaders and followers. The transformational leadership theory was theorised on the basis of how it influenced and motivated exceptional performance. It includes changing prospects, hopefulness and principles of followers, which creates motivation and enhances performance (Jung and Avolio, 1999; Kark, 2018; Yaffe and Kark, 2011). It follows that leaders change their behaviours and actions, related and interrelated, with followers producing increased motivation, standards, and performance (Northouse, 2013). Transformational leaders also inspire followers to share a vision and to accomplish strategic goals. Hence, transformational leaders have traits such as self-confidence, gregariousness and strong principles which are perceived as the best motivators (Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube, 2015; Charry, 2018). Moving from the transformational leadership theory, the neo-charisma theory will be discussed next.
- v. The **neo-charisma leadership theory** (Bryman, 1992) is based on charismatic leadership theory (Conger, 1989), transformational leadership theory (Bass, 1985) and visionary leadership theory (Bennis and Nanus, 1985).

To explain this, Yukl (1998) described charisma in the leadership context as the outcome of follower perceptions and attributions influenced by leaders' competencies and actions in a specific context and by the individual and collective requirements of followers. Also included in charismatic leadership is the ability to have a clear vision for an organisation and to be dissatisfied with the status quo, with the inclination to take risks. Charismatic leaders therefore preach their vision to gain support and power (Maloney, 2018). Transformational leaders, on the other hand, empower and inspire employees to gain support. They focus on changing and motivating the environment

to ensure success (Hernandez Bark et al., 2016). Owing to the leaders' emphasis on followers' requirements, employees therefore perform better and are more satisfied and motivated (Maloney, 2018).

Visionary leadership also places emphasis on the consequences of leaders' visions (Bennis and Nanus, 1985). It considers the contents of the vision and how it is communicated to employees. These leaders are also driven by strong personal principles and ethical conduct and attempt to align their vision in sustaining cultures during change (Maloney, 2018). Hence, through sharing a well-articulated philosophy and mission of the organisation the leader creates followers.

These theories overlap considerably, even though they have different focal points (Bryman, 1992; Maloney, 2016) and hence the birth of the neo-charismatic approach to leadership. Hereafter the theory of servant leadership is discussed.

- vi. **Servant leadership refers to** “the natural feeling that one wants to serve” (Spears, 2010: 26). This awareness creates the desire to lead. Also, core to servant leadership is the need to assist, help and support others with emotional agony and anguish (van Dierendonck et al., 2014). Spears (2010: 25) identified ten servant leadership characteristics. These included: “listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualization, foresight, stewardship, commitment to the growth of people, and building community”.

Reineke (2004) stated that servant leadership is based on strong ethical values, virtues and morality. Therefore, the theory of servant leadership has grown in popularity in the public and private sectors. Reineke (2004: 34) also said that servant leadership is based on “Judeo-Christian philosophical traditions and teachings” and is also integrated with other theories of leadership. For example, Greenleaf (1977) stated that servant leaders build individuals and teams at work, identifying and supporting the needs of these teams and support them to achieve their goals and objectives (McGregor, 1960; Reinke, 2004). Similarly, servant leaders also assist with building

the organisation, realising dreams and healing the organisation (Bass, 1996; Reinke, 2004).

Moreover, Greenleaf (1977) highlighted that servant leadership is based on a leadership attitude of service towards colleagues. And this, he believed differentiated servant leaders from other leaders. Therefore, servant leadership is built on integrity, trust, empathy, healing, awareness and stewardship (Parris and Peachey, 2013; Reinke, 2004). Parris and Peachey (2013) further confirmed that the servant leadership theory is suitable in diverse cultures, situations, and organisations.

The skills theory will be discussed next.

- vii. The **skills theory** was developed, based on the limitations in the trait approach. The traits are reasonably static, and it is challenging to create new leaders (Burkus, 2011). The skills theory thus focusses on the leader and on the characteristics of leaders, which influences their effectiveness. It also proposes that acquired skills and knowledge have a significant influence on the effectiveness of leadership. It therefore recognises the link between genetic traits and the ability to lead effectively, but claims that learned skills and knowledge and a leadership style specifically developed to suit the environment are vital to leadership performance.

Moreover, two main theories which were established: **Katz's three-skill approach** and **Mumford's skills model** of leadership as discussed below (Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube, 2015; Burkus, 2011). Katz (1955) identified three leadership skills which are also discussed:

- a. **Katz's three-skill approach**

Firstly, Katz (1955) found that to be proficient, leaders needed technical skills. These skills were seen as an ability based on learned knowledge, expertise and competence in a specific work area, including rules, operations, products and services. Moreover, technical skills are a critical requirement at junior management level and less

significant at middle and executive and top management level (Katz, 1974; Yukl, 2006).

Secondly, it was found that human skills (interpersonal skills) demonstrate how leaders interact with other individuals based on their knowledge about people. Typically, it includes communication, motivation, influence as well as comprehending individuals' drives and abilities to achieve goals and objectives. Likewise, Katz (1974) and Yukl (2006) noted that top-level management with augmented interpersonal skills could implement change efficiently and motivate employees to adopt change efficiently to enhance performance. Therefore, these leaders are more compassionate and portray care and altruism in their leadership style and enable motivation through their decisions to achieve objectives. Hence interpersonal skills are mandatory at all management levels: lower, middle and executive and top management.

Lastly, conceptual skills are important, which permit leaders to consider proposals and plan actions promptly, to create a vision, share ideas and to drive performance. This suggests that leaders with augmented conceptual skills can create a vision from ideas and understand financial implications principles fundamental to organisational success. Thus, conceptual skills enable leaders to give meaning and sense to abstract ideas and are critical at the top and executive management level (Northouse, 2010). This is a skill that can be learned.

- b. The next model which will be discussed is **Mumford's skills model** of leadership.

Mumford et al. (2000), on the other hand, identified three leadership competencies which resulted in increased problem-solving abilities, improved social judgment skills and more knowledgeable leaders. The competencies discussed below work in combination as well as independently to achieve outcomes.

Problem-solving skills are innovative abilities that leaders use to solve individual, once-off, unclear and complicated problems. These skills include defining essential

difficulties and issues, gathering relevant information, developing innovative methods to understand the root cause of the problem/issue and solving the problem/issue (Mumford et al., 2000)

Social judgment skills enable a leader to understand people and social systems within the contexts of both the workplace and their home life. It also allows leading change, solving problems and making sense of issues. Hence, Mumford et al. (2000: 94) identified four elements to social judgment skills: “perspective taking, social perceptiveness, behavioural flexibility, and social performance.” Northouse (2010: 51) also indicated that “social judgment skills are about being sensitive to how your ideas fit in with others.”

Knowledge refers to collecting and sorting data, as well as the graphic structuring of data in a meaningful manner. Thus, knowledgeable leaders apply highly developed, structured, and complex diagrams to collect and organise data. Knowledge is also connected to the problem-solving abilities of a leader. Knowledgeable leaders will therefore apply historical occurrences to construct and plan future change (Mumford et al., 2000).

Moreover, all theories of leadership include specific abilities that the leader must apply in business to achieve goals and objectives. Therefore, effective leaders use leadership theories to guide their action (Chambers Clark, 2008). Thus, researchers developed leadership theories to pinpoint the elements that create successful leaders, the methodology by means of which they evaluate choices and the basis whereby they initiate change. Consequently, leadership theories also explain why some leaders prosper and others are unsuccessful.

Table 2 provides a summary of the various leadership theories.

Table 2: Leadership Theory Matrix

Great Man theory • The Great Man theory stipulates that leaders are born and not made (Khan, Nawaz and Khan, 2016). • This approach accentuates that a person is born with the necessary leadership traits. It also highlights the aspect of charismatic leadership where leaders have a natural gift of leadership. (Khan, Nawaz and Khan, 2016). • Leadership qualities include a commanding personality, authority, courageousness, intelligence, persuasiveness and aggressive behaviour.	Trait theory • The trait theory of leadership requires a leader with social, physical, and intellectual traits that will differentiate him/her from other people (Dinh et al., 2014). • Traits have considerably little analytical or predictive values (Dinh et al., 2014). • This theory is based on the Great Man theory of leadership, but is more systematic in its analysis of leaders. As in the case of the Great Man theory, it is assumed that a leader's personality traits are core to leadership processes (Dinh et al., 2014). • However, this theory has limitations. There are no particular traits that act in establishing leadership in all situations. Traits predict behaviours better in weaker than in stronger conditions. There is no clear evidence of the causes and effects of the relationship between leadership and traits (Dinh et al., 2014). • This presents better prediction of the appearance of leadership than

	distinguishing effective and ineffective leaders (Dinh et al., 2014).
Behavioural theory • The behavioural theory explains what leaders do, whereas the trait theory explains what leaders are. • Leadership, according to the behavioural approach, result from effective role behaviours and is rather perceived as an individual act than an actual leadership trait (Dinh et al., 2014). • It proposes that specific behaviours segregate leaders from non-leaders. Different patterns of actions are used in identifying individuals when determining leadership potential, for instance autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire (Dinh et al., 2014). • Furthermore, it attempts to separate behaviours that distinguish effective leaders from ineffective leaders. • Behavioural studies further identify critical behavioural factors of leadership which could be used when training people to become leaders (Dinh et al., 2014).	House path-goal theory • This theory suggests that a leader's behaviour is acceptable to a subordinate insofar as it can be seen as a source of current, or future satisfaction (Dinh et al., 2014). • Leaders provide followers with information to act in support, plus resources to assist them in achieving key leadership objectives. • Leaders assist in clarifying the goal path of workers. Leaders can thus apply multiple leadership types. • Leaders also help followers in accomplishing their goals and offer direction and support, ensuring that their goals are aligned with the overall goals of the organisation (Dinh et al., 2014).
Transactional Leadership • Transactional leadership theories focus on the role of management, the	Transformational Leadership • Transformational leadership theory bases leadership success on sustain-

organisation and team performance, interactions between leaders and followers and is based on a process of rewards and punishments (Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube, 2015; Charry, 2018; Northouse, 2013; McCleskey, 2014) • These actions result in achieving objectives; completing tasks; maintaining and improving operations; and motivating followers by a shared vision. • This increases employee performance through commitment, rewards, efficiency and enhancement (McCleskey, 2014; Sadeghi and Pihie, 2012).	able connections between leaders and followers. • Transformational leadership is grounded on its influence, specifically, changing prospects, hopefulness and principles of followers, motivating exceptional performance (Jung and Avolio, 1999; Kark, 2018; Yaffe and Kark, 2011). • Leaders change their behaviours and actions, related and interrelated, with followers producing increased motivation, standards and performance (Northouse, 2013). • Transformational leaders inspire followers to have a shared vision and accomplish strategic goals (Amanchukwu, Stanley, and Ololube, 2015; Charry, 2018).
Neo-Charismatic Leadership • Based on charismatic leadership (Conger, 1989), transformational leadership (Bass, 1985) and visionary leadership (Bennis and Nanus, 1985). • Includes having a clear vision for an organization, discontent with the status quo and taking risks. • Preach their vision, gain support and power (Maloney, 2018) and empower and inspire employees, focus on changing the environment and	Servant Leadership • It is mainly based on two social theories to Social Learning and Social Exchange Theory (Karryna and Nathan, 2019). • Servant leadership considers the needs of employees by committing to assist them in developing professionalism and improving performance. • Core to servant leadership is the need to assist and help and support others

employees (Hernandez Bark et al., 2016). • Leaders must have strong personal principles and ethical conduct and attempt to align their vision in sustaining cultures during change (Maloney, 2018).	with emotional agony and anguish (van Dierendonck et al., 2014). • Servant leadership focuses on humility, genuineness, and social acceptance (van Dierendonck et al., 2014).

Some common denominators or elements in traditional leadership theories will now be discussed.

3.4 COMMON DENOMINATORS/ELEMENTS IN TRADITIONAL LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Traditional leadership theories comprise the trait approach (e.g., Great Man Theory), leadership style approaches, for example, the Ohio and Michigan State studies in the 1960s, which underlined leaders' behaviours and the contingency approach, for example the Least Preferred Coworker theory, which recognised the significance of situational factors. To clarify, the trait approach was composed by uncovering how one could lead, by means of an examination of characteristics as well as techniques of acknowledged leaders who exercised their expertise to the optimum needs of the organisation. The behavioural approach also strived to find the types of leadership behaviours that could result in accomplishing task performance, as well as the satisfaction of a worker (Lussier and Achua, 2016).

The situational approach has some elements resembling the principle of Vroom-Jago which stated that the suitable path to excellent performance as well as high job satisfaction depended on the needs and abilities of employees, the structure of the duties that must be performed and the style of leadership chosen by the leader (Dansereau et al., 2013). Hence effective leaders select one of the four styles; directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented, that is would match the situational contingencies

and assist team members along the direction of enhanced performance (Bolman and Deal, 2017). Therefore, the model of Blanchard and Hersey links the needs for supportive as well as directive behaviour to the group members' relative maturity to be accountable and take part in making decisions (Van Wart, 2013). Contingency (situational) leadership behaviour, on the other hand, is core to the amount of guidance and direction (task behaviour) that a leader provides; the quantity of socio-emotional support and the availability level that followers demonstrate in carrying out particular duties, functions or objectives (McCleskey, 2014). Therefore the moment that a leader becomes flexible and is aware of critical situational denominators like the willingness as well as the capability of members, he or she will assume a style of leadership to serve this willingness and ability (Tyssen, Wald and Spieth, 2013). This strategy could this be described as situational, since the leader illustrates flexibility in finding out and utilising a style of leadership that complements the situation to attain results (Bolman and Deal, 2017).

The role approach implies that employees must perform and complete their duties to become effective and this is similar to a trait and behavioural strategy, though it takes into account situational elements (Mendenhall, 2013). Leaders in higher positions or larger organisations may therefore more often, be required to assume a role of figurehead or liaison individual between the environment as well as the external environment (Ma and Tsui, 2015), although, at lower levels where the span of control of a leader expands broadly, coordinative, inspirational or disturbance-handling functions may be required for proper leadership (Dinh et al., 2014). Hence, the role theory of Mintzberg indicated that appropriate functions for leaders relied on situational denominators and roles would shift in response to pressure and change in organisations.

Leadership theory clarifies how a leader's style is linked with the ability and performance level of subordinates (Duggan, 2018). The leadership style is also exhibited in a leader's conduct, which is covered in the behaviourist theory. Different patterns of leaders' behaviour are thus observed and then categorised as leadership styles, as leadership style forms part of leadership theory and focuses on specific traits and behaviours of leaders (Khan, Nawaz and Khan, 2016).

Some leadership styles will be discussed in the following section.

3.5 LEADERSHIP STYLES

Leadership styles can be defined as methods by means of which leaders motivate followers through specific traits and behaviours. Hence leadership styles are cautiously selected and changed to suit companies, circumstances, teams and individuals (Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube, 2015; Charry, 2018). There are also numerous leadership styles, such as visionary leadership, collaborative and coaching leadership, agreement and pace-setting and commanding leadership. These describe the actions of leaders to accomplish goals and objectives (Duggan, 2018). Likewise, leadership styles define how leaders direct the work of groups or individuals and discuss actions by leaders to get input from subordinates, make decisions, solve problems and review results (Duggan, 2018). Equally, leadership styles contribute significantly to the enhancement, interests and commitment of employees and may have positive or negative effects on performance. Hence, Glantz (2002) highlighted the need for leaders to discover their individual leadership styles. To apply a leadership style effectively to any circumstances would involve a detailed assessment, reflection on other possibilities and actions as well as an assessment of the actual result (Duggan, 2018).

During the 1930s, Kurt Lewin redefined autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire leadership styles. In addition, Bass and Avolio redefined elements of transactional, transformation and laissez-faire leadership during the 1980s and 1990s (Martin, 2017; Sadeghi and Pihie, 2012). They used four elements of transformational leadership (idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration) and added three transactional leadership elements (contingent rewards, management by exception-active and management by exception-passive) and confirmed that laissez-faire leadership was ineffective and dormant. Hence, the arrival of new contemporary leadership styles – as discussed hereunder.

- i. **Autocratic leadership styles** represent an extreme form of transactional leadership which depicts absolute power. Here, employees and teams have no influence or opportunity to make suggestions or decisions. Typically, the advantage of autocratic leadership is that it is very efficient. There is also rapid decision-making and immediate action. On the other hand, employees dislike being dealt with in this manner, thus creating resistance to leaders' actions. As a result, autocratic leadership may be best suitable during crisis situations where quick decision-making without conflict is necessary (Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube, 2015; Charry, 2018).
- ii. **Bureaucratic leadership styles** show that leaders adhere to rules and procedures meticulously, ensuring that followers also follow precisely in their footsteps. This leadership style is therefore most suitable in an environment where severe safety or financial risks are found or where employees do monotonous tasks. However, the disadvantage is that this style may lower flexibility, creativity or innovation in companies (Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube, 2015; Charry, 2018).
- iii. **Democratic/participative leadership styles** explain how leaders include employees in the decision-making process, but ultimately make the last decisions. As a result, they encourage innovation, creativity, and teamwork. Advantages include a high job satisfaction rate, empowerment, citizenship behaviour, involvement and skills development. But the main disadvantage is that where speed or efficiency is essential, the decision-making process may be too slow. Another risk is also that team members without the required knowledge or expertise may provide invalid or wrong input (Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube, 2015) .
- iv. **Laissez-faire leadership styles** indicate that leaders relinquish their duties and elude decision-making, giving employees total autonomy and decision-making powers (Chaudhry and Javed, 2012). Goodnight (2011: 189) noted that “laissez-faire leadership may be the best or the worst of leadership styles,” which allows people to work unsupervised. Laissez-faire leaders will ensure that employees have resources and guidance when needed, but if not, will not get involved. Hence, this leadership

style may be useful if the leader measures and monitors performance and gives feedback regularly. Through autonomy it also creates empowerment, satisfaction and augmented employee performance. On the other hand, the disadvantage of laissez-faire leadership is that leaders may not have control of employees and may not have the competencies, knowledge or ability to motivate employees (Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube, 2015; Ololube, 2013). Hence, laissez-faire leaders are seldom seen as effective (Robb, 2011).

- v. **Behavioural leadership styles** are observed where leaders consider observable actions and reactions to make decisions. These leaders can be made through learnable and definable behaviours and behaviours can be conditioned to respond to certain stimuli (Blake and Mouton, 1985).

Behavioural leaders can be task-oriented leaders or people-oriented leaders, where task-oriented leaders emphasise organisational structure, operating procedures, and like to maintain control. They also consider employee motivation though it is not their core concern. In addition, they favour behaviours associated with introducing, organising, interpreting and explaining and collecting of information. Task-oriented leaders are also interested in how decisions are made and may be defined as autocratic or democratic.

On the other hand, people-oriented leaders' behaviours are centred on how to satisfy the inner requirements of employees. These leaders motivate employees through emphasising human relationships. They possess skills such as encouragement, observing and tentative listening and coaching and mentoring (Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube, 2015).

The study of the University of Michigan, which was led by Dr. Rensis Likert, identified three characteristics of effective leadership, whereas two were observed earlier in the survey conducted by Ohio State University. This research showed that task- and people-oriented behaviours were not very important in organisational psychology

studies, although in the third observation of the study the concept of participative leadership was identified. Participative leadership is a democratic leadership style that involves all team members to identify goals and to develop strategies and means to meet objectives (Naylor, 1999). These leaders act as facilitators, giving commands to enable every team member to contribute to the overall goals of the team. The way in which leaders handled these situations and choose to define them, would outline their leadership style as either charismatic, participative, situational, transactional, transformational or servant leadership.

- vi. **Transactional leadership styles** describe the notion behind this leadership style as being that employees always consent to their leader's instructions (Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube, 2015). Aalateeg (2017: 41) indicated that transactional leadership originated from "defining the relationship between superiors and subordinates as a social exchange, (and) motivated followers primarily through conditional rewards," were based on accomplishing goals and objectives. Bass (1990b) also defined a transactional leader as an individual who leads by the most economical and efficient costing modules to meet the physical and cognitive needs of employees in exchange for agreed services by the employee. Transactional leadership is also seen as a bond between leaders and followers based on trustworthiness, justice, responsibility, and mutual agreement to achieve objectives (Aalateeg, 2017). Hence transactional leaders motivate followers by exchanging rewards for performance (Bass, 1985). Thus, the leader also implements punitive measures for low performance (Amanchukwu, Stanley, and Ololube, 2015).

Consequently, Bass (1990b) indicated that the transactional leader needed to follow five logical steps to achieve shared objectives. These included the explanation of expectations and objectives; process and tasks; and performance measures and outcomes. It also provided for performance feedback and performance-based rewards.

Aside from this, Oelofse (2006) said that leaders could be transactional and transformational at the same time. However, numerous academics found that transformational leadership built on transactional leadership and not inversely (Bass, 1985; Bass, 1990; Den Hartog, Van Muijen and Koopman, 1997).

- vii. **Transformational leadership styles** overall provide more profound aspects of leadership than former theories. The situational leader for example reacts to a situation and the level of maturity of his/her employees briefly, whereas the transformational leader influences employees to have more permanent effects. In situational leadership, the leader also applies rewards and punitive measures to influence the behaviour of employees, whereas in transformational leadership the leader attempts to have a long-lasting, more sustainable commitment and more profound effects on the behaviour of the employees (Aalateeg, 2017)

Similarly, transformational leaders also emphasise individual and team performances and often display strong ethical and moral values (Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube, 2015; Charry, 2018). In addition, transformational leadership has been found to empower leaders; it has the potential to improve employee performance and can be seen as the core of ethical leadership (Burns, 1978; Yukl, 2013). Likewise, Burns (1978) referred to transformational leadership as a style where the leader mingles with employees in such a manner as to “raise each other to higher levels of motivation and morality,” the core being common beliefs, principles and objectives (Aalateeg, 2017: 41; Bass, 1990b). Hence, this is a perfect example of moving employees from a need for safety and security, working for transcendent aims and of satisfying self-actualising needs as indicated in Maslow's (1943) hierarchy (Bass, 1985; Oelofse, 2006).

In addition to this, transformational leadership cares about people and appreciates their input and strives to develop highly motivated employees (Aalateeg, 2017; Avolio and Yammarino, 2013). Chemers (1997) also said that transformational leadership did not necessarily emphasise rewards, but instead dared employees to achieve

excellence and growth (Bass and Avolio, 1994). Robbins (1997) thus stated that in his view, transformational leadership was an addition to transactional leadership.

In addition, transformational leadership applies practical formulas and profit analyses for stakeholders to accomplish employee citizenship behaviour and places emphasis on change and innovation and is highly efficient during uncertainty (van Dierendonck et al., 2014). It also encourages followers to “commit to a shared vision and goals, challenging them to be innovative problem solvers and developing followers’ leadership capacity via coaching, mentoring and provision of both challenge and support” (Bass and Riggio, 2006: 4). Transformational leaders also call upon the moral values of followers in an attempt to raise their insight into ethical issues and to activate their dynamism and resources to reform organisations (Yukl, 2013).

Hence academics found that transformational leadership had a positive influence on performance (Dola, 2015; Howell and Avolio, 1993; Morse and Buss, 2008; Teh et al., 2018; Van Wyk, 2007). Avolio and Yammarino (2013: 27) determined that “transformational leaders are linked to organisational success, efficiency and effectiveness, customer satisfaction and improved performance,” which prompted the interest for this research in discovering challenges within the leadership of the municipalities. Grant (2012) also found that transformational leadership became effective when employees shared the advantages of their work, which increased employee motivation. Conversely, while transformational leadership was successful, it seemed to be inadequate for challenges which current leaders experience and did not restrict power abuse as a tool which leaders use to accomplish goals and objectives. Thus, the gaps in this leadership style might be filled by linking some service leadership elements or other traits from alternate leadership styles to create a suitable package for the public sector.

- viii. **Charismatic leadership styles** encourage enthusiasm in teams, and this motivates employees to achieve goals. Hence, energy and commitment from employees increase productivity, motivation and achievements, although the disadvantage is the

extent of confidence in the leader rather than in the employees and charismatic leader may believe that he/she cannot do anything wrong, even if being warned, which may ruin a team or an organisation (Amanchukwu, Stanley and Ololube, 2015; Charry, 2018).

- ix. **Servant leadership styles** are described as “service to others and is a holistic approach to work, building a sense of community and shared decision making within the organisation” (Oelofse, 2006: 83). Servant leadership was introduced by Greenleaf (1970) and servant leadership prompted radical interest in leadership. Therefore numerous academics perceive servant leadership as a noteworthy attribute for future leaders (Marquardt, 2000; Oelofse, 2006; Sandler, 1993). It is also concerned with preserving the status quo and focusing on individuals, thus being more effective during stable times (van Dierendonck et al., 2014). Core to servant leadership is the need to assist and help and support others who experience emotional agony and anguish.

The attributes of servant leaders include appreciation for contributions from employees, how employees are committed to their individual, specialised and spiritual development. It also includes recognition for diminishing of control and leading by persuasion rather than intimidation, besides listening to others and their conscience and spending time to reflect and understand factors initiating change – internally and in the organisation. They also take cognizance of creating a trusting culture; reflecting on lessons learned, current realism and future consequences of decisions taken; applying abstract ideas and being a strategic planner (Sadler, 2003).

In addition, servant leadership has been found to empower leaders, it has the potential to improve employee performance and is perceived as the core of ethical leadership (Burns, 1978; Yukl, 2013). On the other hand, Nicole (2013) also indicated that service was perceived as the norm when leaders prioritised the needs of followers. Thus, through ensuring that the needs of followers are satisfied, leaders empowered them to develop, which resulted in improved efficiency. In addition,

servant leadership also applies ethical principles, respect, justice, and honesty, which are also practiced by transformational leaders. Moral principles are therefore also core to transformational and service leadership (Nicole, 2013).

Positive psychology is defined as “the scientific study of what makes life most worth living” (Peterson, 2008: 1) and it is also described as a research of “positive human functioning and flourishing on multiple levels that include the biological, personal, relational, institutional, cultural, and global dimensions of life” (Seligman, Martin and Csikszentmihalyi, 2000: 5 - 14). Researchers have recently found, in the field of positive psychology, that leadership is essential in developing employee engagement and team effectiveness to accomplish organisational objectives (Avolio and Gardner, 2005; Macik-Frey, Quick and Cooper, 2009; Mahembe and Engelbrecht, 2014).

Servant leadership was identified as the prevalent leadership style in the field of positive psychology (Mahembe and Engelbrecht, 2014; Sendjaya and Cooper, 2011; Van Dierendonck and Nuijten, 2011). Servant leadership also promotes employee citizenship behaviour amongst followers through everyday practices and principles and predominantly empowers leaders to work towards a shared vision and joint commitments and potentially improve the work environment. It is the essence of ethical leadership (Yukl, 2013).

Added to this, by means of the development and empowerment of followers, utilising shared objectives and visions and being in touch with the well-being, health and long-term happiness of followers, including expressing genuineness, humbleness, interpersonal acceptance and stewardship and through guidance, followers are expected to feel empowered through servant leadership (Mahembe and Engelbrecht, 2014). Previous research revealed that when employees were empowered, they showed an increased level of self-confidence, a greater sense of the ability to positively influence their work environment and an increment in productivity and motivation (Yukl, 2013).

Servant leadership is also an altruistic, unselfish leadership style, which potentially adds to the improvement of positive attitudes in followers, most notably organisational citizenship behaviour (Mahembe and Engelbrecht, 2014; Phipps, 2010).

- x. **The Neo-Charismatic leadership style** of Bryman (1992) is based on charismatic leadership theory (Conger, 1989), transformational leadership theory (Bass, 1985) and visionary leadership theory (Bennis and Nanus, 1985). These theories overlap considerably, even though they have different focal points (Bryman, 1992; Maloney, 2016).

Charisma describes a leader who applies visioning and influential requests when interacting with followers (Yukl, 1999). In this way, charismatic leaders differentiate from visionary leadership. On the other hand, transformational leaders frequently need some articulated vision. The focal point still rests on followers, thus creating inspiration and motivation to perform, with not as much focus on the communication or style of the vision (Maloney, 2016). Owing to overlap, researchers hence merged charismatic, transformational and visionary leadership as the Neo-Charismatic leadership style. These styles are, however, often used interchangeably (Bryman, 1992; Maloney, 2016).

The above discussions prompted an interest to review leadership in the public sector, which is discussed below.

3.6 PUBLIC SERVICE LEADERSHIP

Like many other public sectors across the world, the South African public sector also faces problems with leadership. In accordance with the Public Service Act ,1994 (Act No. 103 of 1994) public services in South Africa comprise of individuals hired by the national and nine provincial administrations funded by the exchequer (Lues, 2007; South African Government, 1994; Venter and Landsberg, 2006). Hence the public sector comprises a set of civic organisations that manage the interests of various groups which demand in

numerous ways for diverse public activities, for example water, power, health, housing, infrastructure (Lane, 2000; Marijani, 2017). The core mandate of these civic organisations in South Africa is service delivery and the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery (1997) instructed public service leaders to endeavour to deliver superior services.

The Local Government: Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act No. 32 of 2000), defines a municipal manager (also referred to as the city manager) as “a person appointed in terms of Section 82 of the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act, 1998” (Act No. 117 of 1998). The municipal manager, as the head of the administration, is responsible and accountable for the overall performance of the administration. The Local Government: Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act No. 32 of 2000) stipulates that the municipal manager (level 1 employee) will appoint Section 56 managers (chief operating officer, chief financial officer and group executive directors) who will report directly to him/her (level 2 employees). However, Section 56 managers will appoint group heads, directors and unit heads for each of the departments in the municipality (level 3 employees). These three layers of management are generally referred to as senior strategic management. However, deputy directors and assistant directors (senior managers, level 4 and 5) also participate in strategic decision making and implementation. It must also be noted, that it is the norm and generally accepted to refer to level 1 to 5 management as leaders in the municipal environment.

It is general practise in the public sector to use the terms “management” and “leadership” interchangeably. These are intertwined in practise although, in theory, management and leadership are two different concepts (Dupree, 2014). Management performs an administrative role, controlling and managing systems, financial performance and processes. whereas leaders, on the other hand, rather plan and visualise, influencing others to achieve goals and objectives (Dupree, 2014).

Current realities of public service leadership will now be highlighted.

3.6.1 Current realities of public service leadership

Hartley (2018: 203) stipulated that “public leadership has often been assumed to be about public sector leadership or public services leadership”. Public leadership may stem from the government, market or even from municipalities or political environments. And, the aim of public service leaders is to achieve public value (Hartley, 2018).

In addition, the public service system is transparent, and employees should serve the community, not promote their welfare. Owing to poor service delivery, communities and politicians, however, constantly harass leaders in the public sector. Employees must act immediately, advocate honesty and transparency, promoting the well-being and welfare of the communities they serve (Botes et al., 1996; Lues, 2007; Roux et al., 1997). The general public and the local politicians who clash with any proposed leadership agenda or operations, organise heated opposition which reduces the possibility of effective leadership in the public service and decrease the opportunity to express leadership qualities (Ljungholm, 2014). Public service leaders therefore find it difficult to deliver their best leadership and utilise their competencies, skills and knowledge to the benefit of the sector. Some even resign to ease the pressure of opposition which results in a constant change of leadership.

Furthermore, public service leaders are expected to interpret, understand and adhere to applicable legislation that guides ethical behaviour and service delivery (Lues, 2007). Modern public sector senior executives in South Africa are thus expected to demonstrate constant high levels of proficiency in specific required competencies (Marwala, 2006). Hartley and Benington (2011) highlighted the fact that leadership, historically, was mainly referred to as a set of capabilities, core to the individual leader, irrespective of circumstances or their role in the organisation. The focus has therefore shifted to how conditions influence leadership characteristics and tasks and how different sources of authority and legitimacy influence the achievements of a leader.

Communities expect robust, reliable, effective public sector leadership in crises more than they did in the past (Ink, 2006; Kapucu and Ustun, 2017). Van Wart (2013) found that in

the South African public sector leaders have personalities that hamper the performance of the sector. Some leaders are cowards, especially when facing opposition from the community, politicians, and other leaders. These leaders are easy to manipulate as they are weak of will. It has been found that as manipulation sets in, it results in mismanagement as well as corruption, as these leaders serve their own interests instead of the interests of the offices they hold (Christensen et al., 2014).

Leadership struggles in the South African public sector depict the struggle that leaders have to fight for public positions, which may lead to unrest in the country. These struggles have given rise to disputes which are then poorly handled, resulting in consistent challenges, for example, strikes and poor service delivery (Orazi, Turrini and Valotti, 2013). These struggles suppress democratic leadership, which is the practiced constitutional type of leadership in South Africa. On the other hand, power-hungry leaders suppress democratic leadership practiced in the country by applying autocratic leadership, which enables these power-hungry public service leaders to escape accountability issues (Christensen et al., 2014). Hitt, Ireland and Hoskisson (2007: 375) claimed that strategic public leadership was the “ability to anticipate, envision, maintain flexibility, and empower others to create strategic change as necessary,” which is crucial in the public service.

They postulated that in the absence of effective strategic leadership, the likelihood that a municipality can accomplish superior performance when facing economic challenges will be significantly reduced. Schutte, Barkhuizen and Swanepoel (2014) found that the public service through its strategic leaders created an ethos of empowerment, which would generate and sustain trust. They summarised leadership competencies in the public sector as collaboration within teams, using influence, empowerment and participation, highlighting change and black economic empowerment.

Effective leadership in the public sector consequently requires distinct and organisational changes; for public leaders these changes would imply suitable principles and competencies (Denhardt and Denhardt, 2007; Haricharan, 2015); for municipalities, it

would imply rigid, hierarchical structures, long chains of command and meticulous governance (Haricharan, 2015; Hartley and Benington, 2011; Ingraham, 2009).

The absence of competencies also resulted in insufficient disaster management and might cause loss of life and properties (Murphy and Dunn, 2012). Examples of such disasters are the water crisis in Cape Town during 2017-18 (Gosling, 2018; Pettersson, 2018) and in 2005, the hurricane Katrina. Poor responses to these disasters were directly related to a lack of reliable public leadership (Farazmand, 2007; Kapucu and Ustun, 2017). Leaders were required to alter the means which they were applying to address and resolve these crises in order to deliver on their mandate.

To explain, some requirements of public service leadership are discussed next.

3.6.2 Challenges of public service leadership

In South Africa, public service leadership has become a sensitive item on the agenda of interest groups and societies, among others. Public service requires people who are able to work within the legislative framework, who are capable of applying transformational leadership competencies and who remain ethical (Mokgolo, Mokgolo and Modiba, 2009; Yukl, 2013). The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (2001) found that for municipalities to achieve their goals, they were required to focus on competencies or abilities of their leaders.

The public sector in South Africa has experienced rapid change since democratisation in 1994, which increased the complexity of business (Chipunza and Gwarinda, 2010; Mokgolo, Mokgolo and Modiba, 2012; Ready, 2018; Schutte and Barkhuizen, 2016). Strategic leaders had to be more efficient and effective in the delivery of public services. Mahembe and Engelbrecht (2014) postulated that leaders in the public sector must be competent and demonstrate effective knowledge, skills and attitude. Unfortunately, the public sector is perceived to be lacking in customer service and poses high rates of unethical behaviour. Public service leaders are expected to understand and adhere to legislation that directs ethical conduct and service delivery (Lues, 2007).

Some key challenges that the public service leaders encounter today will subsequently be discussed.

i. **Technological developments**

Vital changes in technological developments occurred lately in the information and communication sector. Citizens, and especially young citizens, have accepted these changes. Government policies and leaders, however, are yet to adopt technological advancement. It is crucial for public service leaders to create consistent as well as effective capital to keep them updated to the modest technologies, together with innovations (Alig, 2012). Hence, research shows that public service leaders cannot keep up with these technological changes and trends (Ferguson, Ronayne and Rybacki, 2014).

This has created conflict between public service leaders and citizens. It follows that citizens expect the government always to be on par with technological trends, as they have the resources and funds to update their systems. It has been found that technology is vastly becoming part of every individual's daily life. To clarify, the private sector gained a competitive advantage by keeping up with current trends in technology, resolving issues swiftly and efficiently and increasing brand recognition (Murphy and Dunn, 2012). The public sector can therefore follow by example to improve performance and service delivery.

The advancement in technology also led to a change in how public leaders perceive things. Facilities for citizens, such as online payments, public service recruitment and public procurement had a significant influence on efficiency. It further reduced opacity and promoted transparency in government operations (Ferguson, Ronayne and Rybacki, 2014; Murphy and Dunn, 2012).

In addition, in the public sector, transparency critically affects how the community perceives the leadership of public service leaders. Hence the change in the

perception of the community stems also from the availability of information that was difficult to obtain during the pre-technological development era (Mahembe and Engelbrecht, 2014).

Media also emanated from technological development and played a prime role in availing information to the community. Hence, the profiles of public service leaders are available to the community and this resulted in people creating their own perception of a given leader. Accordingly, leaders in public service have found themselves exposed to the community and do not enjoy a private life (Alig, 2012).

There has been an increase in the recruitment of younger people (Generation X and Y) in the public sector since the older generation (Baby Boomers) retired (Hassen and Altman, 2010). As a result of this, younger generations have filled lower and middle management roles in the public sector (Business Tech, 2018). Traditionally, jobs in the public sector were seen as safe, protected, career-orientated and as a job for a lifetime. Thus, employees were capable of moving up the ladder, until retirement, having a handsome pension.

Conversely, the new generation does not uphold these traditions. This resulted in a challenge, meaning that public service leaders must manage the various work ethics of the new generation. Public service leaders need to cope with the rising staff turnover rates, primarily those with marketable skills and at the same time they must assist the longer-term generation to be resilient to change. Leaders consequently have the task to bring the best out of the employees with communities of two diverse age groups, the industrial age and the information age, who uphold opposing values and work ethics (Alig, 2012).

ii. **Customer expectations and empowerment**

Information technology also played an important role in modifying the relationship between citizens, politicians and public servants and created a networked society that has enhanced greater collaboration with citizens. Citizens were thus

empowered by information on online platforms. Accordingly, citizens have also influenced public services through online and offline campaigns to push for change. In addition, citizens have been allowed to be active in identifying issues in their neighbourhoods and in indicating potential solutions to these issues. This has resulted in citizens taking centre stage to shape and deliver public services. The increasing citizenship empowerment could be the solution to the problems relating to low query resolution rates, reduced maintenance and service delivery (Ferguson, Ronayne and Rybacki, 2014; Mahlatse, 2011).

As a consequence, the public service could proactively respond to queries raised and issues logged on these electronic platforms. If the public can then be allowed to have a say on how they want things done, this could be considered, although this may limit the authority of leaders in the public service, which they have been enjoying over the years.

In comparison to traditional systems, modern systems have changed and become more complex, so that these changes are becoming increasingly composite and diverse, along with developing, shifting as well as contradicting expectations. Citizens for instance expect services from the public sector to be similar to that of the private sector, which means that due to growing awareness as well as the use of technology, expectations are piling onto government agencies to provide a level of service compared to that of the private sector (Ferguson, Ronayne and Rybacki, 2014; Mahlatse, 2011; Murphy and Dunn, 2012).

Modern society is also not satisfied with “one-size-fits-all” solutions to service needs, therefore public service leaders need to understand that services must be shaped and customised to cater for the changing societal needs. Customisations have however exceeded this and have changed to cater for these needs. Customised services actually enable communities to be engaged in the type of services delivered and the way they need to be delivered. In this way,

customisation can be described as privatising public services (Mahembe and Engelbrecht, 2014).

iii. **The changing environment**

It has been found that several leaders had been contending to the changing environment. The ways in which leaders encounter challenges are therefore not limited to those of national origin or influence (Mahembe and Engelbrecht, 2014). Research also shows that leaders are facing challenges, exceptions and complexities relating to change. There are for instance changes brought about by globalisation and which have a direct bearing on leaders. Issues such as migration, natural disasters, political fluctuations and public uproars, amongst others, influence the performance of public service leaders (Hartley, 2018). Generally, some of these challenges can be controlled by the leader, where other problems are not within the span of the leader's control. It is therefore vital for public sector leaders to identify challenges that they can control, in order to eliminate apparent problems and efficiently manage change. Most leaders put more effort into things they cannot control, however, with the result that they waste time, energy and funds (Bruce, 2017; Schoeman and Van Rooyen, 2006).

3.6.3 Appropriate leadership for the public sector

To face these challenges, leaders in public service need to change their behaviour. Hence leaders need to adopt new leadership styles that include suitable skills as well as qualities to adequately respond to challenges discussed above and to improve on public service delivery. Transformational and service leadership styles would be appropriate in solving the problems discussed above. The reasons are discussed below.

i. **Transformational leadership in the public sector**

Researchers originally believed that transformational leaders were less effective and less common in the public sector (Bass and Riggio, 2006). However, transformational leadership was currently identified as the most suitable leadership style in the public sector (Bumgarner, 2016; Van Wyk, 2007).

Transformational leadership is simply a style of leadership that triggers the change in people as well as social systems. Thus, adopting transformational leadership would enable leaders to work with teams, to mark out the required changes, establishing a vision to guide change through motivation and bringing about change together with dedicated members of the public. Through transformational leadership the leaders would then become inspirational to their followers in different ways, such as associating the followers' individuality and of self-perception for a specific mission and for the shared corporate image and also to become a role model and motivator to their followers and moreover, to raise their interest in the activities, which would challenge followers to take more ownership for their work. This would give recognition to strengths as well as weaknesses of followers and allow the leader trust followers with duties to promote their performance (Flemming, 2016; Hemsworth, Muterera and Baregheh, 2013; Van Wyk, 2007; Wright and Pandey, 2009; Yasin, Fernando and Caputi, 2013).

Transformational leaders will listen to the concerns of followers and provide the necessary support. Thus, individualised consideration in transformational leadership would enable the leader to be aware of the talents of each follower, providing them the opportunity to display and develop these talents, which would allow the followers to display intrinsic motivation in their daily activities (Flemming, 2016; Hemsworth, Muterera and Baregheh, 2013; Van Wyk, 2007; Wright and Pandey, 2009).

Transformational leaders would also create an appealing vision that motivates citizens. Hence, through motivation, followers would develop high expectations of the standards of their leaders. In this way, the leader would be capable of establishing a close relationship, following which motivation would enable followers to have a powerful sense of reason. Leaders in this way provide purpose as well as meaning to propel their group forward (Flemming, 2016; Hemsworth, Muterera and Baregheh, 2013; Van Wyk, 2007; Wright and Pandey, 2009).

Moreover, transformational leadership enables leaders to become role models for their followers, which would mean that the leader had managed to bring the followers (citizens) closer and to make them follow their instructions. If the leader becomes a role model, it would promote the followers' trust in the leadership of their leader (Flemming, 2016; Hemsworth, Muterera and Baregheh, 2013; Kayaalp, 2019; Teh et al., 2018; Van Wyk, 2007; Wright and Pandey, 2009).

Transformational leaders also apply intellectual stimulation; thus, the transformational leader would challenge presuppositions, take risks and solicit the ideas of their followers. This would allow the leader to acknowledge followers through innovation, creativity and stimulation. In addition to this, recognition also encourages followers and increases their submissiveness (Flemming, 2016; Hemsworth, Muterera and Baregheh, 2013; Van Wyk, 2007; Wright and Pandey, 2009).

Both private sector leaders and public sector leaders are concerned with meeting the needs of employees. They are also worried about motivating employees and efficiently financing operations. These leaders must also implement strategies to ensure that operational and strategic goals are met by high-performing employees. Leaders in both sectors must therefore be able to communicate the vision, establish goals and objectives, monitor performance and progress and motivate employees as they try to implement solutions (Flemming, 2016).

Differences can be found between the private and public sector in terms of the structure, incentives, settings and purposes. In the public sector, leadership responsibility is blurred as no single leader has full authority and must act under the watchful eyes of the community and politicians. Incentives are also very narrowly defined, and profits are not shared in the public sector. In addition, most public leaders show weakened responsibility owing to a deficiency in accountability for decision-making purposes (Flemming, 2016).

Service leadership in the public sector will be discussed next.

ii. **Service leadership in the public sector**

Service leaders share their authority, put the needs of their followers first and assist their followers in growing their skills, knowledge and abilities to achieve their goals (Spears, 2010).

The main advantage of this leadership style is the one-on-one communication that servant leaders have with their followers concerning their desires, needs, goals and abilities (Mahembe and Engelbrecht, 2014). Thus, it helps in nurturing an individual and develop his or her talents, abilities, and skills. It creates a suitable environment in which to stay and carry out various economic activities. On the other hand, service leadership gives every individual a chance to express their feelings, which reduces conflict in society. Additionally, service leadership creates a safe emotional society for the members of the public by making acceptance a significant objective, where acceptance means that the leader agrees with various personalities, personal views, the values of their followers and understands their employees are not perfect (Parris and Peachey, 2013; Reinke, 2004; Spears, 2010; van Dierendonck et al., 2014).

Adhering to principles of service leadership allows the leader to listen to each individual or group of people. This gives followers the assurances that their issues will be solved. Service leadership also allows the leader to recognise and accept people for their uniqueness and to understand their views, thus showing empathy. By showing some understanding, the leader would enhance the emotional healing of a follower through mentoring and coaching (Reinke, 2004; Spears, 2010).

Aside from this, in order to maximise the association with the follower, it is crucial to understand the strengths, weaknesses as well as areas for development and support, which means that the leader needs to have maximum awareness of their followers. It would therefore be easier for a service leader to persuade and to work in cooperation with their followers. By these means, the leader would work with his followers by convincing them instead of coercing them.

The leader thus needs to be committed to ensuring the growth of their followers. The growth can either be economic, social, emotional, financial or physical growth. This can only be achieved if the leader conceptualises the problems their followers are facing. In this way, the leader encourages communal and societal growth.

Notably, in the public sector the leaders' conduct must be to serve first with compassion and expertise (Hanson, 2011). Public servant leaders must contribute to the quality of life of the community through stewardship of all public assets and services provided. Through the merits of servant leadership, the public leader must show care and empathy, commitment and support, which will create sustainable trusting relationships between stakeholders in the public sector. They should also communicate honestly and openly with employees and the community to provide swift and transparent solutions and feedback. Their ethics should be rooted in stewardship to generate a view of trusted caretakers for the assets of the community (Hanson, 2011; Spears, 2010; Van Dierendonck and Nuijten, 2011).

Flowing from these leadership theories and styles, the next section will discuss leadership competencies.

3.7 LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES

Spencer, McClelland and Spencer (1994: 1) defined competencies as a grouping of “motives, traits, self-concepts, attitudes or values, content knowledge or cognitive behaviour skills” and indicated that this means any personal characteristic that can be measured or tracked to identify superior performance. Competencies also comprise skills or knowledge that produce excellent performance (Northouse, 2014), including specific expertise or outcomes that result in excellence (Lodge and Hood, 2005).

Epley, Ferrari and Cochran, (2017: 51) noted that competency development might be executed through “literature reviews, focus groups, surveys, interviews, competency

menus and databases, observations, work logs, and the Delphi technique.” All these methods, however, have advantages and disadvantages which should be considered.

Numerous researchers found that high-performance leadership competencies (HPLCs), which stemmed from leadership behaviour, resulted in superior employee and organisational performance (Boyatzis, 1982; Epley, Ferrari and Cochran, 2017; Schroder, 1989; Stevens, 2012; Van Wyk, 2007). As a result, high leadership performance involves an aptitude to utilise competencies modelling to create a culture that supports change, innovation, creativity and learning across boundaries and all levels in the workplace (Teh et al., 2018; Van Wyk, 2007). Hence competencies led to competency frameworks that have been identified explicitly for leadership. Van Wyk (2007) therefore created a high-performing leadership competency model to benefit various organisations, including local government.

The next section will look at some of these leadership competency models.

3.7.1 An introduction to leadership competency models

Competency models identify skills, abilities and other characteristics that individuals need in order to execute their knowledge, responsibilities, behaviour and motivational dimensions in view of increased performance (Epley, Ferrari and Cochran, 2017). Leadership competency frameworks originated from numerous lists of competencies and various organisations acknowledged the impending benefits of competency modelling in diverse fields, including local government (Bice and Merriam, 2016; Holma and Pakalna, 2015; Pylak, Czyż and Gorgol, 2014). These benefits include improved recruiting and selection processes, training and development initiatives, career and personal development opportunities and performance management and evaluation (Campion et al., 2011; Epley, Ferrari and Cochran, 2017).

Hence leadership competency frameworks were developed from a group of competencies keyed out as imperative for success in leadership positions. Organisations typically work from a more significant leadership competency library to build and rectify

the leadership competency structure suitable for their leaders and their organisation. The following can be considered when designing a leadership competency framework (Frich et al., 2014):

- i. Centred on outcomes: there must be a clear relationship between leadership behaviour, traits and organisational performance;
- ii. Organisation-specific: In spite of the existence of numerous worldwide competencies, not every competency would be valuable to each organisation. The competencies chosen should be appropriately aligned with the objectives and strategy of the organisation;
- iii. Forward thinking: Find out what it would take to enable a firm or organisation to be successful in the future and choose your leaders based on those factors;
- iv. Clearly connected to rewards: It is crucial that there should be comparatively fast and appropriate response and recognition to pay off workers who fulfill performance criteria for essential competencies; and
- v. Accepted: There has to be buy-in from every stakeholder.

Transformational leadership competencies included in the model of Van Wyk (2007) will be discussed next.

3.7.1.1 Transformational leadership Competencies

Transformational leadership competencies also form part of the high-performance leadership model of Van Wyk (2007) and comprise of the following:

Information capacity is the ability to gather strategic data from internal and external sources and share it with employees. It enhances organisational competence through networking and surveying opportunities (Van Wyk, 2007).

It is perceived that outstanding leaders can swiftly internalise, analyse and consolidate information that assists them in understanding their surrounding environment. This aids them in being exceptional leaders, responding to opportunities, establishing a competitive

advantage. Through information capacity the leader can interconnect industries, technologies, markets and geographies and can develop strategies and sustain collaborative relationships (Neal, 2013).

The capacity to source and share information and to scan the environment to identify opportunities and benefits will enhance the organisation's competitive advantage. The leader should evaluate and authenticate information collected to guarantee the accuracy and quality in order to eliminate risks and construct procedures which may benefit the organisation.

Conceptual ability is the ability to connect different information to form ideas for the future. Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (2007) reiterated the importance of conceptual skills and pinpointed that conceptual skills allowed a leader to think through and work with ideas. Conceptual skills enable a leader to view the organisation in its entirety and to recognise the influence that all the various processes in the value chain have on organisational performance (Light, 2016).

Light (2016) defined conceptual ability as the skill to see a complete picture of an organisation, including distinguishing and envisaging the connection to the external and internal market environment and the external forces that may influence the economy.

Van Wyk (2007: 27) noted that leaders should be able to expand their planning beyond regular daily certainties and master “broader-based conceptual thinking”, as this inspires employees to be innovative and is essential for twenty-first century learning organisational leaders.

The leader, to connect abundant information and form innovative futuristic ideas, needs to:

- i. Comprehend the effect of his tasks and the relationship of these to other departments and roles;

- ii. Detect associations amid problems across diverse functionalities and find the origin of such problems;
- iii. Resolve problems and procedure solutions through the integration of strategic, operational and tactical information;
- iv. Identify themes, patterns and interrelationships in business and distinguish connections between them; and
- v. Procedure cohesive solutions to solve multiple problems (Van Wyk, 2007).

Visionary thinking means that leaders have clear visions to develop alternate methods to obtain future goals within a changing environment (Van Wyk, 2007). Young (2016: 10) defined visionary thinking as a “sense of direction that provides the focus for all activities within the organisation.” He further indicated that visionary thinking consists of a profound knowledge of the reason for the existence of the organisation, which will offer a sense of collective distinctiveness. Visionaries therefore have a sense of direction and are futuristic planners, creating a sense of “direction, discovery and destiny” (Young, 2016: 10).

Kotter (1998) pointed out that exceptional visionary leaders challenge the current status quo, take advantage of economic realities and create strategies to achieve the vision. He continued by stating that they are compulsive communicators, but know what they want and how to get it. Besides, he highlights that visionary leaders empower their followers to attain objectives, therefore, leaders should have a clear vision, allowing for innovation and creativity to change the future by identifying and implementing alternative processes to effect change or attain strategic goals and objectives. Moreover, the leader must investigate interrelationships between alternate strategies and encourage learning, compare advantages and disadvantages of pursuing other tactics through a deep understanding of each approach and create a culture in where decision-making through evaluation of alternate plans is supported to meet demands in the organisation. (Van Wyk, 2007).

People development indicates that training is a systematic process resulting in improved skills, behaviours, approaches and knowledge, which ultimately increases performance.

Hence, leaders must enforce awareness amongst employees in order to gain a competitive advantage, to improve their skills and increase their knowledge (Banerji, 2013; Khan and Baloch, 2017). Training is thus aimed at changing the behaviour of the employees to ensure that organisational goals are obtained. Therefore leaders create opportunities for employees to improve their skills, knowledge and approach (Dhamodharan, Daniel and Ambuli, 2010; Kadhim, Taqi and Shuaibu, 2012; Khan and Baloch, 2017). People development thus serves the organisation and the employee to achieve their goals and objectives (Rahman and Nas, 2013).

Training directly affects competencies, skills, and development of employees, which positively influences their performance and motivation. (Khan and Baloch, 2017; Tangthong, Trimetsoontorn and Rojniruntiku, 2014). In addition, highly motivated and skilled employees perform exceptionally to achieve organisational objectives.

The leader should be able to balance training and development strategies around the career growth expectations to develop the learning capacity and intellect of employees and to ensure an increment in performance (Regenesys Management School, 2013). This would contribute to creating and fostering a climate for employee development through development opportunities and continuous coaching (Van Wyk, 2007). The leader also needs to identify and satisfy the need to develop employees through different modes of delivery. Hence the leader should create a challenging, meaningful, and stimulating working environment, developing multi-skilled employees through training, feedback, coaching and mentoring (Van Wyk, 2007).

Purpose building means building commitment by communicating roles and purpose, aligning the vision and strategic direction of the organisation. Spangenberg, Schroder and Duvenage (1999) found that by purpose building people felt an increased sense of connection and participation, which increased their belief in the vision, purpose and direction in the organisation. It also involved that employees should adopt the organisation's vision, mission and values. Hence the leader should communicate advantages of the vision, purpose and direction to build a cohesive and supportive culture

and to align strategies throughout the organisation to create powerful coalitions with internal and external customers in order to support the strategic objectives of the organisation (Van Wyk, 2007).

Motivational capacity is where building confidence improves motivation, increases commitment, realises goals and enhances the success of teams (Van Wyk, 2007). Jiang and Luk (2016: 1) found that motivational capacity stemmed from “challenge, curiosity, control, fantasy, cooperation, competition and recognition” and drove teams to achieve their objectives. In addition, Alig (2012: 150 - 151) highlighted that a successful motivational leader needs to have the business know-how and the know-how ensure that employees perform at maximum capacity. He also noted that “mind control, belief, energy, rapport and courage to work” were vital motivational factors to change the culture to a highly productive culture.

Therefore, motivational capacity will improve employees' confidence through recognition and by rewarding successes and creating a culture based on trust and confidence in each other. This would result in increased innovation, discovering change and taking calculated risks. Through persuasive communication and confidentiality, the leader would thus create a highly motivated and performing team in an inspiring manner (Van Wyk, 2007).

Performance achievement comprises performance management and evaluation as vital tools to measure job performance and it is critical for effective human resource practices to ensure that organisational objectives are met (Pradhan and Jena, 2016). Pradhan and Jena (2016) further described employee performance as a process which indicates an individual's work achievement through effort, which is related to meaningful work, an engaging profile and compassionate co-workers. In addition, achievement is defined as something done successfully with effort and skill and can be measured by a test (Simaibang, Mulyadi and Lestari, 2017). The leader therefore needs to share organisational goals and objectives with employees and teams. Performance must also be appraised often, providing feedback and adjustments where necessary. In addition,

performance targets must be smart, meaningful, value-adding and goal-driven to enable improvement (Van Wyk, 2007).

In addition, Cockerill, Schroder and Hunt (1998) stated that high-performance leadership competencies (HPLC) are actually transformation leadership competencies. Subsequently, the leadership competency and similarities between transformational and service leadership theories model (Van Wyk, 2007) contains leadership competencies required by transformational leaders, which is currently the popular leadership style in the public sector (Haricharan, 2015) and illustrates competencies of strategic leaders (Schutte, Barkhuizen and Swanepoel, 2014).

The researcher will now discuss servant leadership competencies.

3.7.1.2 Servant leadership competencies

Including in the model of Van Wyk (2007), servant leadership competencies entail the following:

Van Wyk (2007) described **diversity learning** as sharing ideas in a non-evaluative setting and also understanding and learning from various individuals. Hence the main goal of diversity learning is considered as experiential, joint, and non-stop enhancement of employees' conduct, attitudes and learning through work-related procedures (Anard and Winters, 2008; Chavez and Weisinger, 2008; Fujimoto and Härtel, 2017). Bezrukova, Jehn and Spell (2012) likewise described diversity learning as a process which consists of using, interrogating and connecting various views of organisational development which develops learning amongst different employee levels as they cohesively drive towards the organisational goals.

Van Wyk (2007) further noted that diversity learning is a system where individuals at all levels in the organisation share ideas in a non-evaluative background. They are motivated and learn from each other to contribute to multi-national, diverse team settings. The organisation understands employees' opinions, feelings and values, ensuring that they

learn about, and from each other and treat each other with respect and dignity. This implies that the leader should be able to share common interests, be innovative, should empower employees, have integrity and inspire inter-personal relationships, teamwork, sharing, and involvement between employees.

These will be discussed in more detail below.

Cross-functional team members share common interests. Their differences in goals and objectives stem from their differences in information availability or attributions of causality. Leaders enable ideas and solutions to improve organisational performance and mutual understanding (Van Wyk, 2007). The leader should enable the team to make all decisions as a team under a particular decision-making structure, therefore the structure consists of leadership initiatives which include alienating team members' choices concerning rotations, team-building exercises, training initiatives, communication strategies, trust and empowerment (Zhijian, 2016) .

Hence the leader should inspire inter-personal relationships, teamwork, sharing and involvement between employees to create networking prospects across different functions in departments. Active communication must also be supported to share ideas and agree on goals and objectives for improved performance and to develop solutions-based communication to solve problems. The leader should ensure that initiatives are integrated across functional teams to produce high levels of understanding various functions, responsibilities and activities (Van Wyk, 2007).

Empowerment enhances the ability of employees to achieve organisational goals and objectives and is core to the effectiveness of managers. Bowen, Lawler and Edward (1992) found that empowerment increases employees' knowledge, information, power, and rewards. Conger and Kanungo (1988) defined empowerment as a process to improve the skills of employees by identifying factors causing a feeling of ineffectiveness and applying informal techniques to assist them in the organisation, whereas Karnama and Sheikhpour (2015) referred to empowerment as a process that creates power, freedom,

knowledge, skills, self-confidence, enthusiasm and instinct motivation. Empowerment creates an inner confidence that enables employees to apply innovative and independent decisions at work.

The leader should ensure that employees have a choice, take responsibility and action, moving beyond boundaries to improve performance and service delivery and creating a sense of significance in the workplace (Van Wyk, 2007). Through empowerment, the leader ensures that employees' responsibilities and cross-boundary abilities increase. A sense of teamwork should be instilled as part of the success in the achievement of objectives and leaders should be lenient towards mistakes, learn from mistakes, challenges and barriers and inspire calculated risk-taking. Through reduced bureaucratic rules, procedures and by aggressively stimulating action, cooperation, learning and inventiveness, the leader will inspire innovation and create a sense of effectiveness and competence (Karnama and Sheikhpour, 2015; Van Wyk, 2007).

“Challenges of leadership, economic culture and issues, and on the other hand the strategic development factors of human resources, including organisational learning, innovation, staff development and customer success made organisations adopt strategic direction to the empowerment of employees” (Karnama and Sheikhpour, 2015: 5495).

Karnama and Sheikhpour (2015) found that the development of organisations was critical to the correct use of human resources. Through empowerment all levels of employees cohesively drove towards the vision of the organisation by means of higher levels of commitment and responsibility, creating an atmosphere of teamwork and support through the engagement of psychological empowerment (Karnama and Sheikhpour, 2015).

Integrity necessitates persistently acting and communicating in honesty, truth and reliability at all times, ensuring adherence to values and codes of business conduct (Van Wyk, 2007). Erhard, Jensen and Zaffron, (2016) presented a positive model of integrity and found that defining integrity resulted in increased performance for individuals, groups, organisations and societies. They also stated that integrity was a critical component of

workability and consequently regulated the opportunity to improve performance. Van Wyk, (2007) cited Cox and Cooper (1989) who said that trusting relationships were core to realising profits and continuity in global knowledge-based economies. To act with integrity would include applying loyalty and confidentiality across the board, keeping promises and avoiding hypocrisy, walking the walk and creating a culture of trust and adherence to ethical standards and behaviour (Van Wyk, 2007).

Adaptability means that an individual should be able to respond efficiently and effectively to change in a business environment and comprehend the complexities of the business. Van Wyk (2007) found that adaptability was based on the assumptions that leaders responded positively to, and drove favourable change efficiently and effectively in an organisation, elaborating and communicating the need and reasons for the change; and understanding the complexity in the internal and external business environment. It also included that leaders should be innovative and open to new ideas and methods of functioning and create a changing culture to enable employees to be driven towards success through motivation (Van Wyk, 2007).

Van Wyk (2007) grounded her model of leadership competencies on high-performing competencies, which are critical in the public sector. She also found similarities between high-performance leadership competencies and transformational- and servant leadership theories. In the following section, high-performance leadership competencies will be discussed and the similarities between these competencies and other leadership theories will be illustrated.

3.7.1.3 High-performance leadership competencies

Research showed that leadership behaviour, which resulted in higher performance in stable environments, was considerably different from the leadership behaviour that results in higher achievement in competitive, fluctuating environments.

Cockerill, Schroder and Hunt (1993) recommended that leaders should have the following skills to improve organisational performance in competitive, fluctuating environments:

- i. Creating a feeling of common goals, commitment and purpose amongst employees;
- ii. Improving and growing core competencies;
- iii. Creating an environment where transformation and innovation are stimulated and appreciated;
- iv. Enabling the development of higher-level ideas as a foundation for achievements, and
- v. Building a continuous learning environment.

Schroder and Clemens (1997) then identified ten high-performance leadership competencies based on the work of Cockerill, Schroder and Hunt (1993). Van Wyk (2007) found the following high-performance competencies more suitable in the public sector.

- i. Performance achievement;
- ii. Motivational capacity;
- iii. Information capacity;
- iv. Conceptual ability;
- v. Visionary thinking;
- vi. People development;
- vii. Diversity learning;
- viii. Cross-functional teamwork;
- ix. Purpose building;
- x. Business acumen;
- xi. Empowerment;
- xii. Integrity;
- xiii. Adaptability;
- xiv. Self-responsibility; and
- xv. Leadership communication (Van Wyk, 2007).

Van Wyk (2007) proceeded to present the following table to illustrate the similarities between high-performance leadership competencies and leadership theories.

Table 3: Alignment between high-performance leadership competencies and leadership theories

Leadership competencies	Leadership theories
i. Performance achievement	Transformational leadership
	* Inspirational motivation
ii. Motivational capacity	Transformational leadership
	* Inspirational motivation
	* Developing commitment and trust
iii. Information capacity	Transformational leadership
	* Intellectual stimulation
iv. Conceptual ability	Transformational leadership
	* Strong cognitive skills
v. Visionary thinking	Transformational leadership
	* Developing a vision
vi. People development	Transformational leadership
	* Individualised consideration
	* Facilitating organisational learning
vii. Diversity learning	Service leadership
	* Building a network
viii. Cross-functional teamwork	Service leadership
	* Strong teamwork orientation
ix. Purpose building	Transformational leadership
	* Idealised influence
x. Business acumen	Service leadership
	* Foresight
	Transformational leadership
	* Risk-taking
xi. Empowerment	Service leadership
	* Decentralised decision-making and power
xii. Integrity	Service leadership

	* Awareness
	Transformational leadership
	* Clear set of core values
xiii. Adaptability	Transformational Leadership
	* Flexibility
xiv. Self-responsibility	Service leadership
	* Self-awareness
xv. Leadership communication	Service leadership
	* Listening

Source: (Van Wyk, 2007: 163 - 164)

The researcher consequently identified the high-performance leadership competency model of Van Wyk (2007) as the most suitable model for this research. Not only does this model illustrate the similarities between leadership competencies and transformational and service leadership theories, but it also takes into consideration the advantages and disadvantages of numerous competency frameworks. This model has been successfully tested in the public sector.

For this study, to operationalise these high-performance leadership competencies, the Leadership Assessment Questionnaire (LAQ) of Van Wyk (2007) was used.

3.8 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Based on the discussions in this chapter it is evident that leadership studies raised interest centuries ago. Numerous academics started investigating this phenomenon and various theories, from the Great Man theory, evolved over time. Not only did researchers base their studies on prior findings, but found new, innovative theories and leadership styles during this time.

It was necessary for leadership theory evolve and researchers were compelled to discover better models to stay abreast of changing needs, as economic conditions,

demand for excellence, and work environments changed. This dynamic change did not only occur in the private sector, but also in the public sector. As the communities, technology and needs evolved, so did the demand for service delivery. Mediocre service delivery was no longer an option anymore. Today's leaders must be able to drive employee performance, create a culture of high performance, motivate employees and ensure that companies are successful. For this purpose, they require the necessary competencies to achieve goals and objectives. The style that is applied, originated from these competencies.

Numerous competency models have been established in the private sector and the public sector, including relevant and non-relevant competencies, some quite applicable and other not so much. In this chapter, various of these frameworks have been discussed, but the relevance in terms of the implementation and the alignment to leadership styles was absent, which is the main reason why this research proposes that the high leadership competency framework, which aligns competencies to servant and transformational leadership styles, was to be identified as the most suitable framework in this research.

Not only do these competencies lead to high performance, but they also engage transformational leadership, which has been identified as currently being the most suitable leadership style in the public sector.

LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER 4

EMPLOYEE EMPOWERMENT



4.1 INTRODUCTION

Empowerment is a multi-dimensional social practice that assists people to increase control over their lives. It supports power in individuals to apply in their own lives, societies and in public to enable them to act regarding matters crucial to them. Empowerment creates power, freedom, knowledge, skills, self-confidence, enthusiasm and intrinsic motivation (Karnama and Sheikhpour, 2015). The focus of empowerment is therefore on motivating and enabling employees, rather than just delegating to them (Lashley, 2011).

In a nutshell, empowerment would realistically be linked with the relocation of power, but operationally empowerment is perceived as employee participation, intended by leaders to create commitment and improve employee input to the organisation. Although some employee participation may provide employees with new channels to boost their influence, the participation does not involve any rightful entitlement to power and authority sharing (Wilkinson, 1998). This is an interesting fact that should be further investigated and therefore this chapter will commence with discussions on the concept of empowerment, considering some critical dimensions.

The researcher will first introduce the concept of empowerment in this chapter and then different theories, models and approaches of empowerment will be presented. After that the outcomes and benefits of psychological empowerment will be discussed. The researcher will also elaborate on developing initiatives relating to psychological empowerment and following that, employee empowerment in the public sector will be discussed. A summary and conclusion will end the chapter.

4.2 EMPOWERMENT – THE CONCEPT

Domains such as feminism, theology, Freudian psychology among others inspired the concept of empowerment (Calvès, 2009; Cornwall and Brock, 2005; Simon, 1994). During the 1970s, the concept of empowerment was used by researchers and relief workers in the English-speaking environment in community development, services, psychology and health and adult literacy (Calvès, 2009). Even so, the concept of empowerment has been researched for more than six decades (Kanter, 1977; Lewin, 1947) and is still popular in the political and business domains (Hempel, Zhang and Han, 2012; Spreitzer, 2008; Wagner, III, 1994). During 2012, Ambad and Bahron noted that approximately 70% of organisations had already implemented empowerment.

Empowerment, as a theoretical model and management tool has been defined and theorised in numerous ways by many scholars across various disciplines (Wise, 2005). As a result, the complexity of empowerment programmes led to confusion with regard to

the term empowerment and the desired outcomes of these empowerment programmes. Moreover, empowerment comprises of sharing data, knowledge, performance rewards and authority with employees (Fernandez and Moldogaziev, 2012). Aside from this it includes a process of improving employees' skills by identifying those factors that make them feel incompetent and applying informal techniques to assist them in the organisation (Conger and Kanungo, 1988).

Researchers have also theorised empowerment as power-sharing (Kanter, 1984; Block, 1987), shared decision-making (Ripley and Ripley, 1992; Peters, 1994), delegation of responsibility (Gandz, 1990; Peters, 1994) and delegation of responsibility with authority (Bowen, Lawler and Edward, 1992; Greenberg and Baron, 2000). Moreover, some researchers recommended a shift from an autocratic leadership style to a people-oriented style which is more supporting and empowering (Block, 1987; Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Hosking and Morley, 1991; Parker and Price, 1994). These authors further claimed that interacting, mentoring and coaching, negotiating, enabling and facilitation were also necessary to ensure empowerment in organisations.

Theory and evidence show that empowering leadership behaviour may be considered at an individual level or group level (Fong and Snape, 2015; Srivastava, Bartol and Locke, 2006; Zhang and Bartol, 2010). Analysed at an individual level, empowerment increases employee performance and innovation (Ahearne, Mathieu and Rapp, 2005; Fong and Snape, 2015; Huang, 2017; Zhang and Bartol, 2010) and at team levels empowerment positively impacts on team performance (Huang, 2017; Srivastava, Bartol and Locke, 2006; Zhang and Bartol, 2010). Further to this, Wallace et al. (2011), Mathieu, Gilson and Ruddy (2006) and Forrester (2000) amongst others found that empowerment had a positive impact on individual, team and organisational performance. Equally, Chen et al. (2011) noted that empowerment also had a cross-level relationship with own innovation and team behaviour as well as dedication and ownership, whereas psychological empowerment and emotional commitment facilitated some of these relations.

In the same way, empowerment creates an inner confidence that enables employees to apply innovative and independent decisions at work. Empowerment can also be seen as a type of organisational procedure that accentuates independence, decision-making powers and responsibilities of employees. Consequently, empowerment results in autonomy and data to act independently (Begzadeh and Nedaei, 2017).

It has been found that leaders also have a fear of losing power, control and authority and therefore they do not trust employees, fearing that organisational strategies and trade secrets will be leaked to rivals. Employees, on the other hand, may be hesitant to take responsibility for decisions, as they fear being blamed for mistakes (Ambad and Bahron, 2012). Not only does empowerment enhance the ability of employees to achieve organisational goals and objectives, but it is core to the effectiveness of leaders. For this reason, Bowen, Lawler and Edward (1992) indicated that empowerment increased employees' knowledge, information, power and rewards. It permits individuals to act independently, deciding or choosing how they want to do things. The central principle which underlines this action is based on the trust in others to empower them (Robb, 2011).

Employee empowerment has been researched by numerous academics. Dahou and Hacini (2018) stated that employees naturally need empowerment in the form of authority, controls, decision-making and problem-solving. Likewise, employee empowerment has been defined as behaviours that share and generate power, create the ability to work autonomously, motivate and engage employees, inspire innovation, proactive response and increased performance (Huang, 2017; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990; Vecchio, Justin and Pearce, 2010). In fact, empowerment is a key effort of leaders to increase trust, creativity and innovation, decentralisation, and to eliminate unnecessary bureaucracy (Begzadeh and Nedaei, 2017).

Leaders should also ensure that employees have a choice, take responsibility and action, moving beyond boundaries to improve performance and service delivery and creating a sense of significance in the workplace (Van Wyk, 2007). Likewise, through empowerment, employees' responsibilities and cross-boundary abilities increase. Leaders should

typically be lenient towards mistakes, learn from mistakes, challenges and barriers and inspire calculated risk-taking. By reducing bureaucratic rules and procedures and actively stimulating action, teamwork, learning and initiative, the leader will encourage innovation and create a sense of effectiveness and competence (Karnama and Sheikhpour, 2015; Van Wyk, 2007). Essentially, in an empowered organisation, operational decision-making is not hierarchic, as employees can participate in strategic and operational decision-making.

Karnama and Sheikhpour (2015) therefore found that to be successful, organisations must ensure that they use human resources effectively. Empowered employees will result in a cohesive workforce, driving towards the vision of the organisation through higher levels of commitment and responsibility, creating an atmosphere of teamwork and support through engagement of psychological empowerment (Karnama and Sheikhpour, 2015).

In the following section, some theories, models and approaches to empowerment will be presented.

4.3 THEORIES, MODELS AND APPROACHES TO EMPOWERMENT

Dimensions of empowerment can be classified into three main categories, namely situational (structural), motivational (psychological) and leadership empowerment (Stander and Rothmann, 2010), where situational empowerment highlights the sharing of power and delegation of decision-making to employees, which will have an impact on organisational outcomes and will increase creativity and enhance flexibility to make decisions and take risks (Cloete, Crous and Scheepers, 2002; Greasley et al., 2005; Menon, 2001; Stander and Rothmann, 2010). Motivational or psychological empowerment is based on a process where the employee is empowered through internal processes (Menon, 2001; Stander and Rothmann, 2010), whilst the leadership category places emphasis on the leader who motivates his or her followers to act in line with the vision provided by them (Menon, 2001; Stander and Rothmann, 2010).

The interest of academics in empowerment resulted in useful models. The organisational empowerment theory of Kanter (1993) illustrates structural conditions for empowerment, whereas the model of Spreitzer (1995) represents the psychological experiences of employees, drawing on psychology, sociology, social work and education. Consequently, both models were extensively tested.

Psychological empowerment is not instinctively resulting from structural empowerment, but rather a mediator between social-structural empowerment and individual and organisational results (CoopWorkDesign, 2015). The following is a discussion of structural empowerment.

4.3.1 Structural empowerment

Structural empowerment provides access to organisational hierarchies through communication, support, information and resources which offer prospects in decision-making, improved control of resources and career prospects (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Kanter, 1993; O'Brien, 2010). Kanter (1993) further stated that informal and formal power at work, through access to the organisational structures, will result in employee empowerment. She also noted that organisations should have empowerment structures consisting of (i) a structure of opportunity and (ii) a structure of power to realise employee empowerment. She continues by defining the structure of opportunity as organisational characteristics that will facilitate employees to grow and develop at work and proceeds to explain that opportunity affects employee motivation, performance, dedication and their degree of engagement at work. She then defines the structure of power as organisational characteristics that permit employees to mobilise resources. An addition to this, she highlights that structural power emanates from information (knowledge and communication), support (feedback, coaching and assistance) and resources (people, money, and equipment) which results in the achievement of objectives (Kanter, 1993). From there on she highlights that a combination of the power and opportunity structures positively affects employees' sense of empowerment and declares that employees are more committed and experience a feeling of control and autonomy. She also indicates that employees who experience a lack of power may have a sense of failure, negative

attitudes and behaviours (e.g., non-attendance, high turnover and detachment) resulting in poor performance (Kanter, 1993).

Structural empowerment can therefore be seen as organisational features in the opportunity and power structure which facilitate employee empowerment, resulting in improved attitudes and performance (Kanter, 1993). The next section will elaborate on motivational theory.

4.3.2 Motivational theory

Motivational theory is focused on determining what drives individuals to work, with an aim of attaining particular objectives. Most organisations are intrigued in the motivational theory, as motivated employees are more productive, utilising resources more efficiently. Most motivational theories distinguish between intrinsic and extrinsic factors of motivation. These theories are also concerned with personal interests, enjoyment and the willingness of employees to participate in a job activity. Therefore, individuals who believe that they will achieve success at work through self-confidence and their abilities will have higher degrees of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Conger and Kanungo, 1988).

Extrinsic motivation is particularly centred on the results of a job opportunity and individuals are much sold by the results, instead of the activity itself. There are several motivational theories that include the escape-seeking dichotomy model, cognitive dissonance, drive-reduction theory and the motivations theory, driven by the Maslow's hierarchy of needs. The mono-motivational theories minimise the aspect that compels employees to align their activities in a single term. Psychology and economics that are evolutionary, offer mono-motivational theories, individual interest and survival as well (Kanter, 1993).

Several theories are also known to change the motivational drive into some conscious and unconscious factors that influence behaviour. For instance, self-behaviour might be due to an unconscious factor affecting the urge to work, though family duties are a conscious factor.

There is also a personality trait that affects motivation, which is known as Machiavellianism, characterised by self-interest, narcissism and the urge for power and strength. Some studies further suggest that this personality trait is commonly found among high-powered individuals in the top and executive management (Luechauer and Shulman, 1993).

Aside from this, empowerment can be linked to motivation in numerous ways. It has been theorised as a group of motivational actions resulting in increased perseverance to complete tasks, personal drive and feelings of self-efficacy (Conger and Kanungo, 1988). Furthermore, such actions are stimulating and can be related to intrinsic task motivation (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). Hence researchers highlighted the value of aligning goals between the empowered and the empowering (Luechauer and Shulman, 1993).

Empowerment is also seen as an expanded and increased theory of motivation (Frymier, Shulman and Houser, 1996) as many aspects of empowerment overlap with motivation, for example, feelings of impact or competence. Add to this, feelings of control differentiate employee empowerment from other related concepts and are also related to both empowerment and motivation (Schrodt et al., 2008). Empowerment can be experienced, like motivation, at the trait and state levels (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990) and can be influenced by leaders.

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) presented a cognitive model of empowerment, which included four related dimensions: meaningfulness, competence, impact and choice as functions of task assessments and judgements. These dimensions served as internal reinforcements as employees perform their daily tasks (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). In fact, the empowerment construct is based on self-determination principles. However, as choice is core to self-determination, Thomas and Velthouse (1990) substituted the term self-determination with choice. The four main factors of empowerment also overlay the basic human needs of Deci and Ryan (1985). To clarify, meaningfulness is based on self-belief, values and principles, whereas choice is based on the need for autonomy, while impact is based on beliefs related to making a difference or influencing a situation or

choice. Admittedly, empowerment research indicates clear connections with related constructs (Brooks and Young, 2011). The definition and the dimensions of the empowerment leadership approach can be seen below.

4.3.3 Leadership approach

Several researchers have put forth arguments regarding leadership and its effects on empowerment. These leadership discussions commenced with trait theories regarding the great assumption regarding leadership – that a leader is born bearing leadership traits. Behaviour and contingency theories were all created after the trait theory. The main aim of the trait theory is to demonstrate the effectiveness of leadership. It also shows that through leadership behaviour in contingency theories, the focus is on the condition or the situation. Currently new ideas and approaches of the trait theory have been reviewed and there have been remarkable changes to the attribution theory, charismatic leadership theory, servant leadership, transformational leadership and transactional leadership (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). One of these theories used in empowerment studies is the transformational leadership theory, which is based on motivational theories.

Apart from this, transformational leadership maximises subordinates' needs and motives. It is also mainly centred on current subordinate needs and pays much attention to the cambiums. In addition, it has a positive relationship with the employees' creativity. The relationship is mostly affected by intrinsic motivation and psychological empowerment (Brooks and Young, 2011).

Transformational leaders stimulate and support individual followers and colleagues, considering the interests of their teams and going beyond their own interests (Brooks and Young, 2011). The leadership approach model has demonstrated how transformational leadership affects psychological empowerment via the structural empowerment mediator. Transformational leadership also inspires and guides employees to effectively manage resources. The leaders influence employees to attend their activities with high spirits and this affects their organisation profoundly. These leaders can also create effective change and try to convince their staff that they are powerful and can solve problems effectively.

However, in contrast to traditional leadership styles, empowerment leadership accentuates employees' self-influence instead of the level of control.

In terms of the social exchange theory, power is a concept that can reflect a social concept and signifies controlling others and the independence of others to achieve goals. Power is therefore a control mechanism. The owner of power can give, share or keep power to themselves. Accordingly, empowerment is seen as a resource allocation strategy to decrease reliance on high power. Empowerment leadership behaviour comprises a range of leadership practices comprising of delegation, partaking, information-sharing and training (Hakimi, van Knippenberg and Giessner, 2010; McClelland, 1975).

In psychological literature, power and control define the individual's internal need to influence and control others (McClelland, 1975). This need will be satisfied when employees have power or when they believe that they can handle life events, situations or people efficiently. Power, in this perspective, is related to a notion of self-determination or self-efficacy (Bandura and Gervone, 1986).

Moreover, empowerment leadership behaviour includes any leadership decisions or technology that can improve employees' inner level of motivation by increasing their levels of self-determination and self-efficacy (Ahearne, Mathieu and Rapp, 2005; Conger and Kanungo, 1988). Thomas and Velthouse (1990) therefore stated that empowerment implied the improvement of the level of intrinsic motivation, introducing the concept of psychological empowerment.

The next section will discuss Huq's model of empowerment as another available model.

4.3.4 Huq's model of empowerment

Huq (2016) developed an empowerment model which comprises four themes of employee empowerment in management literature, being power-sharing, participative decision-making, devolution of responsibility and a people-oriented leadership style. From here on, she identified three themes of empowerment emerging from the social

work literature, being access to information, collaboration and enablement. Next, she found that there were numerous themes of employee empowerment, but they were scattered in management literature. She then created a kaleidoscope of themes which included power sharing, participative decision-making, devolution of responsibility, people-oriented leadership style, access to information, collaboration and enablement.

Huq (2010) found that there was a lack of knowledge and that numerous problems existed in management literature regarding the implementation of empowerment. Conger and Kanungo (1988) also emphasised that the understanding of employee empowerment was limited in both theory and practice. There was consequently a discrepancy among the theories of empowerment and empowerment programmes (Hales, 2000). As a result, Huq presented a new model for implementing employee empowerment as illustrated in Figure 2 (Huq, 2016).

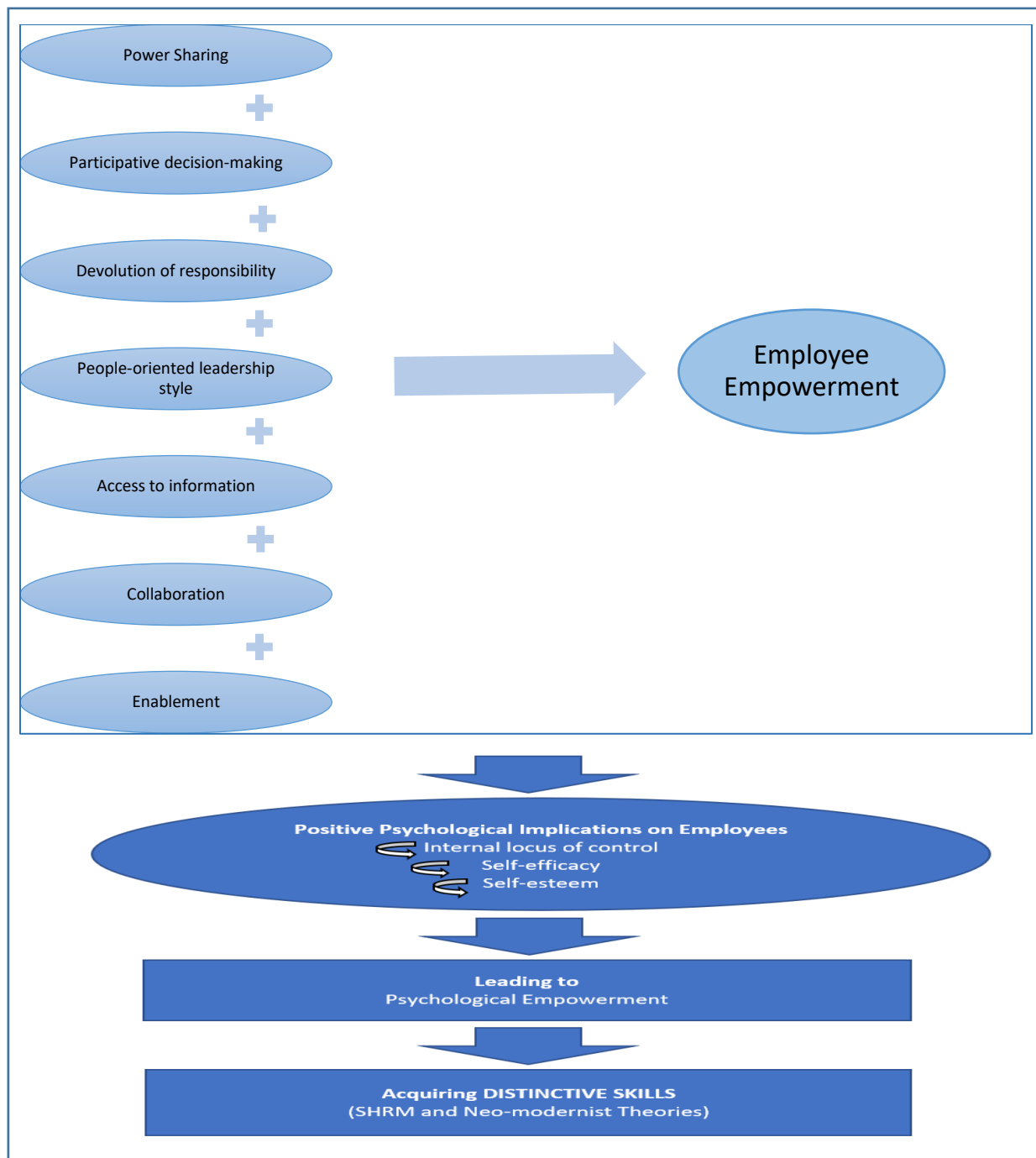


Figure 2: A Framework for Empowerment Implementation (Huq's Model D)

Source: Huq (2016: 562)

The researcher will now discuss the outcomes and benefits of psychological empowerment.

4.4 OUTCOMES AND BENEFITS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

Menon (2001) defined empowerment as a psychological state entrenched in alleged control, competence and goals, to name but a few. However, researchers explored empowerment from many angles: as a concept of productiveness (Bahron, 2006), a set of actions by leaders (Konczack, Stelly and Trusty, 2000), a process that enhances individuals' trust in their self-efficacy (Conger and Kanungo, 1988) and as a way to enhance intrinsic motivation (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990).

Psychological empowerment entails mental conditions that enable individuals to experience a feeling of control in their work and is focused on how employees experience their work. This viewpoint suggests that the element of empowerment, as seen by individuals, is the power that employees have regarding their contribution to the workplace (Ambad and Bahron, 2012; Spreitzer, 2008). Moreover, academics postulated that psychological empowerment was vital in encouraging proactive behaviour such as seeking feedback (Huang, 2012), creativity (Zhang and Bartol, 2010) and innovation (Pieterse et al., 2010).

Psychological empowerment is also a critical ingredient to successfully deal with organisational change and performance (Stander and Rothmann, 2010). It increases employees' ability to shape their environment through a sense of control, work engagement and motivation, resulting in proactive behaviour, constructive leadership and organisational results (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1997). Conger and Kanungo (1988), Thomas and Velthouse (1990) and Spreitzer (1995a) postulated that environmental influences may result in psychological empowerment which positively impacts on employee performance (O'Brien, 2010).

Thomas and Velthouse (1990) further suggested that empowerment materialised through an individual's work context and personality traits and recommended an interpretative model of intrinsic task motivation, comprising sense of meaning, competency, autonomy and impact. Spreitzer (1995) modified this model to contain meaning, self-determination,

choice and impact and indicated that, together, these elements formed the basis of the theory of psychological empowerment. He explained how to develop the concepts which are discussed in the next section.

4.5 DEVELOPING PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT

To develop psychological empowerment, the following factors were considered: Firstly, **meaning**, which provides a balance between the needs of individuals' work role and their principles, morals and behaviours (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). Meaning also indicates a feeling of purpose or individual association to work (Stander and Rothmann, 2010). Thus, meaningfulness is the result of the feeling that tasks are making a difference and of being appreciated. Hence, people have their own opinions, are creative and will endeavour to adopt work roles that can express their individuality and create meaningful work experiences. As a result, empowered employees develop a broader sense of meaning at work (Avolio et al., 2004).

Secondly, **competence**, which indicates the degree to which an individual can perform their duties effectively and efficiently (Gist, 1987). Research also indicated that feeling competent and confident towards targets and goals was related to greater intrinsic motivation and welfare (Spreitzer, 1995; Stander and Rothmann, 2010). Engaged employees therefore perceive themselves as competent and believe in their ability. As a result, competence consists in adequate knowledge and skills which enable employees to act in various situations (Spreitzer, 1995).

The third factor is **self-determination**, which is the ability to start and control one's actions (Deci, Cornell and Ryan, 1989). It is also seen as the free choice of a person without external pressure. In addition, it is seen as an inherent characteristic that leads to making choices and decisions based on personal preferences and interests and consequently measures and controls one's actions and results to be goal-driven, highly responsible and accountable employees (Spreitzer, 1995).

Lastly, **impact** demonstrates the degree to which an individual can influence strategic, administrative or operating objectives (Ashforth, 1989). It shows employees' organisational commitment and reveals whether they feel they are making a difference (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1997; Spreitzer, Kizilos and Nason, 1997). Hence, impact implies a sense of advancement towards goals and employees' empowerment.

For this reason, in the absence of any single element, the degree to which empowerment is sensed will decrease, but not be eliminated. This suggests that these four elements require an almost comprehensive or adequate set of cognitions to comprehend psychological empowerment (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). Quinn and Spreitzer (1997) also indicated that these elements were linked to the psychological conditions found by Hackman and Oldham (1980) and Kahn (1990) and influenced the intrinsic motivation of employees. Equally, they highlighted that employees who worked in an empowering environment that supported their expectations and employment conditions were more affianced to their work. This suggests that empowerment creates a sense of energy and active connection with work activities, increasing employees' ability to deal effectively with job demands.

To clarify, the nomological network of psychological empowerment in a work context model (1995) is consistent with the critical components of the notion of Thomas and Velthouse (1990) of the process of empowerment. This explains that an individual's situation at work and their individual characteristics form empowerment cognitions, which then motivate specific behaviours (Spreitzer, 1995).

Table 4 presents a summary of the structural and psychological empowerment models.

Table 4: A summary of the Structural and Psychological Empowerment models

Structural conditions of empowerment (Kanter)	Psychological experience of empowerment (Spreitzer)
Information	Meaning
Data, technical knowledge, and expertise required to function effectively.	A fit between the requirements of one's work role and one's beliefs, values and behaviours.
Resources	Competence
Time, resources, funds, supplies and the tools necessary to obtain objectives.	Self-efficacy in one's work or believing in one's ability to execute activities with skill.
Support	Self-determination
Feedback and direction received from managers, superiors, and subordinates.	A sense of choice in starting and controlling one's actions. Reflecting a feeling of independence or preference over the initiation and continuation of work behaviour and procedures (e.g. making choices about work processes, pace, and effort).
Opportunity	Impact
Freedom, growth, a sense of challenge and the chance to grow and learn.	The degree to which one can influence strategic, administrative or operating outcomes at work.
Formal Power	
Linked to jobs that have high visibility and are vital in the organisation and necessitate autonomous decision making.	
Informal Power	
Stems from relationships or associations with seniors, peers, and juniors.	

Source: CoopWorkDesign (2015)

Empowerment in the public sector will now be discussed.

4.6 EMPOWERMENT IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR

Traditionally, public organisations were grounded in and influenced by legislation, rules and laws. Consequently, their structures were bureaucratic, limiting the span of control

and a top-down management approach, including political interference. Even so, legal constrictions included service delivery and stringent employee protection which limited managerial powers. This inflexibility resulted in a perception that public sectors are poorly managed and inefficient and that they were ineffective organisations with poor performing employees (Keerthika et al., 2018; Shelton, 2002).

Resulting from this, for the past two decades the public sector attempted to implement employee empowerment to improve employee performance, contentment and innovativeness. Moreover, Fernandez and Moldogaziev (2012) stated that their comprehension of employee empowerment had been caught up by a lack of empirical research on its practices and consequences in the public sector.

Fernandez and Moldogaziev (2012) and Keerthika et al., (2012) further noted that the performance insufficiency in the public sector did not only result from lazy or ineffectual employees, but also stemmed from the complex and inflexible system of protocols, rules and political interference that had an adverse effect on creativity and innovation. Public sectors therefore demanded that their employees were effective and efficient to fulfil their service delivery objectives. This suggests that employee empowerment is critical to improve employee performance. In fact, opportunities presented by competitive and skilled employees, information technologies and the availability of information, force municipalities to implement an evolution-oriented employee empowerment process (Govender, 2016; Smit and Govender, 2015).

In addition, flexibility is critical to the success of empowerment. However, public sector organisations are very inflexible and their internal performance systems, skills development and learning abilities may be outdated and implemented only as a matter of malicious compliance (Çuhadar, 2005; Keerthika et al., 2018). As a result, these circumstances limited the implementation of empowerment in the public sector. Public leaders have therefore attempted to change their management techniques to implement employee empowerment, which included the delegation of responsibilities and decentralisation of jobs (Keerthika et al., 2018; Smit and Govender, 2015).

Conversely, empowerment aims to reduce traditional hierarchy in government as the emphasis shifts from organisational needs to customer needs. Conventional leadership styles of command and control must consequently be adjusted and empower employees to increase commitment. Instead of this, top-down information and communication flow should become a bottom-up approach (Govender, 2016; Shelton, 2002).

As there is no agreement on the suitability of empowerment in the public sector, the possibility exists that empowered public sector employees will disregard the public perspective or public service standards (Shelton, 2002; Smit, 2015).

Subsequently, organisational philosophers have, during the past twenty years, paid significant attention to the concept of employee empowerment and identified it as a tool to achieve organisational effectiveness and increased employee motivation. For this reason, Govender (2017) confirmed that employee empowerment turned out to be a basis of remodelling government proposals to improve their efficiency and services. The public sector subsequently needs to find a way forward to implement empowerment initiatives to that ensure service delivery objectives are met.

Based on the discussion above, the multidimensional measure of psychological empowerment in a public sector environment will therefore be embraced for the purposes of this research. Thus, to operationalise psychological empowerment the Psychological Empowerment Questionnaire (PEQ) of Spreitzer (1995) was used in this study.

This chapter will be concluded and summarized below.

4.7 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Psychological empowerment exists when employees feel that they are in control of their circumstances at work, which would enhance their ability to cope and accept change in a competitive environment. (Spreitzer, 1995; Stander and Rothmann, 2010).

This chapter introduced the concept of empowerment and following that, the researcher discussed theories, models and approaches to empowerment. Empowerment in the public sector was then discussed.

The psychological model of Spreitzer (1995) contains meaning, self-determination, choice and impact and is not specific to any organisation. Although there are various models of empowerment with numerous dimensions for specific environments, this study will be based on the psychological empowerment model in a work context to investigate the aspects of empowerment in the public sector.

Following this, the researcher will discuss employee workplace spirituality in the next chapter.

LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER 5

EMPLOYEE WORKPLACE SPIRITUALITY



5.1 INTRODUCTION

Spirituality presents an internal quest for optimal personal development by means of enhancement of inspirational secrecy (Singh and Mishra, 2017). Spirituality does not comprise religion only, but also intrinsic values, beliefs and notions of the meaning of life, creating a sense of security and of strength. Asharand Lane-Maher (2004) described spirituality as essential for inspiring meaning in the individual's life and made the statement that workplace spirituality includes a common behavioural element as well as promoting dedication in the workplace. Workplace spirituality, in contrast, is not only about religion, but about people seeing themselves as spirited persons whose spirit needs stimulation at work. This entails experiencing purpose and meaning beyond salaries and

daily tasks, based on the fact that people experience and share joint attachments, magnetism and togetherness at work (Dandona, 2013).

In this chapter a review of relevant literature will therefore be provided, with the focus on workplace spirituality. Firstly, the researcher will introduce the concept of employee workplace spirituality. The researcher will then discuss early and recent theories of employee workplace spirituality and after that, consider the outcomes and benefits of workplace spirituality. The next section will consider the ways in which workplace spirituality can be improved. After that, the researcher will then present a summary and conclusion to the chapter.

To start, the researcher will first discuss the concept of employee workplace spirituality.

5.2 EMPLOYEE WORKPLACE SPIRITUALITY – THE CONCEPT

Many individuals see work as a spiritual path and as a chance to give back to society (Smith and Rayment, 2007). This notion is referred to as workplace spirituality.

Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson (2003: 427) stipulated that “spirituality involves a sense of wholeness, connectedness at work, and deeper values.” Spirituality was also defined as an experience that gives individuals direction or meaning. In addition, workplace spirituality was described as an attempt to understand the meaning of life in the context of community (Ali, 2015; Ashmos and Duchon, 2000) and included an experience beyond self-actualisation (Conger and Kanungo, 1988). Spirituality consequently creates feelings of understanding, care and inner wholeness (Smith and Rayment, 2007). Workplace spirituality also improves the sincerity, reliability and honesty of employees. It increases the feeling of belonging, community and affiliation, which will increase employees' commitment, trust, productivity, performance, motivation and effectiveness (Ajala, 2013). Being an inner consciousness, spirituality rejuvenates achievement (Guillory, 2000). Happiness at work also has a positive influence on workplace spirituality (Ashmos and Duchon, 2000).

Based on commonalities in these definitions, workplace spirituality therefore captures the understanding and worth of inner life, leading to a feeling of trust and building relationships that will lead to enhanced performance in the workplace (Jhajharia and Gautam, 2015; Shahbaz and Ghafoor, 2015). The essential core of these definitions is that workplace spirituality comprises finding one's ultimate purpose in life, forging strong relationships with co-workers and other individuals in the workplace and aligning one's inner self with organisational values (Milliman, Czaplewski, and Ferguson, 2003). Another similarity can be found in the sense of meaning at work, the existence of harmony between work and life as well as belongingness, which are evident from the concepts proposed in recent organisational spirituality paradigms (Akhondi, Pourshafei, and Asgari, 2017; Yunan, Ahmad, and Omar, 2017). For this reason, workplace spirituality implies inner resources to create meaning in life. For this research, the researcher consequently proposes that the definition of workplace spirituality presents a venture into finding ultimate purpose through a meaningful life in a community-driven context.

Workplace spirituality comprises different levels:

- i. A sense of society which relates to the connectedness that employees have with their work;
- ii. Purposeful work which is based on activities at work and the value and meaning added to life through work; and
- iii. Inner life which comprises of one's "inner power" and the application thereof at work (Singh and Mishra, 2017).

By discovering their ultimate drive in life, individuals therefore develop strong and sustainable relationships with colleagues and other individuals at work which stabilise the fundamental beliefs and the values in an organisation (Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson, 2003). The result is increased fulfillment, efficiency and performance, ethical conduct and honesty, which all encourage employees to be more spirited and passionate about their work. It drives aspiration and motivates employees to accomplish their goals.

Such a philosophical outlook creates understanding, meaning and purpose for employees, improving performance and enhancing their innovative and creative side (Jhajharia and Gautam, 2015).

The researcher will now discuss early theories of workplace spirituality.

5.3 EARLY THEORIES OF WORKPLACE SPIRITUALITY

Workplace spirituality naturally developed from management theories in the early 1900s. The book *The principles of scientific management* by Taylor (1911) was founded on the concept of the “economic man,” indicating that employees were mainly motivated by money. This theory embraced the exploitation of physical energy and humans were seen as “extensions of the machines they operated” (Soder, 2016: 11).

After that, the Hawthorne studies commenced in 1924 and research was conducted by Elton Mayo and Fritz Roethlisberger on employees at the Hawthorne plant of the Western Electric Company. This research resulted in inquiries relating to the motivation of stimuli which will unlock employee potential, merits of effective supervision, as well as leadership, empowerment and contentment at work, resistance to change and group dynamics (Sonnenfeld, 1985). The studies by Mayo (1949) further exposed relational features of work and the influence of these on productivity and how employees understood these influences. This clearly revealed that physical and emotional energy influenced employee performance.

Mitroff and Denton (1999) also identified the fact that most organisations displayed a lack of spirituality amongst executives. They found that employees attached individual meanings to the concepts of religious conviction and spirituality. They mainly focused on evolving definitions of religion and spirituality especially from management, which showed that “religion was viewed primarily as a dogmatic and institutional phenomenon, whereas spirituality was viewed as an individual phenomenon” (Soder, 2016: 13). Their study therefore proposed five models of workplace spirituality: the religion-based, evolutionary-

based, recovering, socially responsible and values-based organisation. They concluded that employees who applied spirituality at work were found to be more satisfied, finding more meaning, and thus performing better (Soder, 2016).

After that, Ashmos and Duchon (2000) expanded on the research of Mitroff and Denton (1999) and developed the Spirituality at Work Scale which measured inner life, meaningful work and a sense of connection and community. The main objective of their research questionnaire was to understand how spirituality could increase productivity at work (Soder, 2016).

During 2003, Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson 2003 studied spirituality, meaningful work, sense of community, the alignment with organisational values and their relationship with employees' work attitudes. They found that there was a positive relation between workplace spirituality and organisational commitment, intention to quit, intrinsic work satisfaction, job involvement and organisation-based self-esteem. Hence, they identified three dimensions of spirituality in the workplace as illustrated in Figure 3.

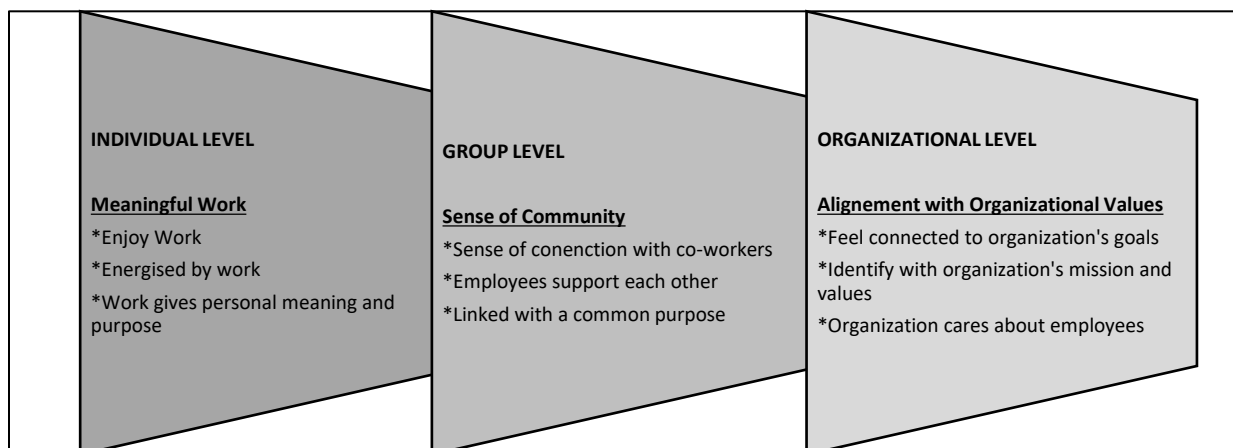


Figure 3: Conceptualising Spirituality in the Workplace

Source: Milliman, Czaplewski, and Ferguson, (2003: 428)

Based on the illustration in the Conceptualising Spirituality in the Workplace framework above, the following can be explained:

Firstly, **meaningful work** contains a profound sense of meaning and purpose at work (Milliman, Czaplewski, and Ferguson, 2003). It shows how employees work together daily, including their passion, inner motivation and desires that give meaning to their lives and the lives of others. Thus, when work is significant, substantial and worthwhile, it creates a positive personal meaning (Rosso, Dekas, and Wrzesniewski, 2010). Creating meaning in work also shows that work is critical in developing meaning. Life in totality can therefore become more meaningful through meaningful work (Steger and Dik, 2010) and it is perceived that meaningful work has a substantial positive impact on others (Grant, 2007). It also occurs when people realise their abilities and expectations and understand how to obtain success in their working environment (Steger and Dik, 2010; Steger and Dik, 2009). Meaningful work consequently stems from people recognising that their contributions are fundamental to achieving goals in the organisation as well as to the advantage of others (Kim and Beehr, 2018).

Secondly, **the sense of community** is seen as related relationships or connections between individuals. It also rests on the perception that there is some form of relation amid one's inner-self and the inner-self of others. The definition can be formulated as a group of people who, irrespective of their upbringing, have acknowledged and surpassed their differences, being able to communicate efficiently and honestly and to work in teams to achieve goals intended for their mutual benefit (Hampton, 2013). It involves “mental, emotional and spiritual connections amongst employees and includes support, freedom of expression, and genuine care” (Milliman, Czaplewski, and Ferguson, 2003: 429). Thus, communities work in cohesion towards a similar goal, caring and supporting each other for the common good.

And thirdly, **alignment with organisational values** illustrates that an individual's purpose is more significant than them self and is aimed at contributing to the organisation and society. As a consequence, the part of living one's inner truth implies being employed at an organisation with integrity and purpose that is beneficial to employees beyond making a profit (Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson, 2003).

Hicks (2003) also researched new issues relating to spirituality and religion in the workplace literature. He created the concept of respectful pluralism and encouraged organisations to permit employees to practice their spirituality and religion at work. Accordingly, spirituality at work illustrates that employees can maintain their inner values at work, and this inspires a culture where they can apply their own beliefs and values.

The largest collection of essays on spirituality was published in the Handbook of Workplace Spirituality and Organisational Performance in 2003 by those arguing for the need to link workplace spirituality to organisational performance, including psychology, spirituality and organisational science (Soder, 2016). Giacalone and Jurkiewicz (2003a) also highlighted that workplace spirituality improved employee performance. They continued and underlined the need for a scientific and practical approach to workplace spirituality in their second book.

Duchon and Plowman (2005: 809) tested the relationship between workplace spirituality and performance and argued that inner life, meaningful work and a sense of community had a theoretical base in management literature and created a “spirit-friendly climate and organisation.” This showed a positive association between workplace spirituality and employee performance (Soder, 2016). Kolodinsky, Giacalone and Jurkiewicz (2008: 465) also found that organisational spirituality considerably impacts on “job involvement, organisational identification, rewards, satisfaction, and negative organisational frustration.” Their findings sustained the concept that views of organisational spirituality influenced attitudes and citizenship behaviour at work.

Moving from earlier theories of workplace spirituality, the following discussion will elaborate on more recent theories of workplace spirituality.

5.4 RECENT THEORIES OF WORKPLACE SPIRITUALITY

In his study of workplace spirituality literature, Karakas (2010) included three perceptions of workplace spirituality affecting performance: the human resources perspective, the

philosophical perspective and the interpersonal perspective. He highlighted that workplace spirituality improved employee performance as well as employee wellbeing and quality of life. Dehler and Welsh (2010: 69) noted that “people bring their whole selves to their jobs, and that work needs to be designed to be challenging, to energise, or more appropriately inspire, people in relating to their tasks.”

Spirituality as a continuum comprises different self-identity levels. Current self-identity literature suggests that an individual can experience three stages of self-identity. The level of inclusiveness consists of personal, relational and collective levels. Collective self-identity tends to encourage people in teams to evaluate their self-esteem by means of favourable intergroup competitions and comparisons. It also encourages individuals to view group members positively and to eliminate negative influences to remain positive, which may cause intergroup conflict (Soder, 2016). Therefore, to address intergroup conflicts, several approaches have therefore been suggested, such as re-categorisation, de-categorisation and cross-categorisation.

Re-categorisation involves invoking a super-ordinate group identity on the assumption that subgroup distinctions will be replaced by a general in-group collective identity. De-categorisation is the same as individuation by not thinking of the out-group as a social classification, but of personal members in the group instead. Cross-categorisation, on the other hand, invokes multiple social identities, defining more than one dimension of social categorisations and the lowest partially, non-overlapping and salient dimensions. Crosscutting also minimises in-out-group discrepancies. Some researchers also suggested that conflict can be overcome by invoking the human species-level identity in collective self-identity at the national level (Duchon and Plowman, 2005).

Spirituality is both a fixed trait and an elastic state. Prior research suggested that self-identity was fluid, depending on the context; that it was also dynamic and that it forcefully instructed and regulated personal feelings, beliefs, perceptions, objectives, and activities. It was also suggested that every possible self coexists within the same person. Hence, in

situations where one level is vastly prominent as the working self-concept, other levels are relatively less critical in shaping individual behaviour (Hassan et al., 2016).

In current self-identity literature, spirituality is also conceptualised as a continuum, composed of distinct self-identity levels. These levels are seen as a fixed trait where the self-identity level is activated or informed by the context. It is also seen as a flexible state when a certain self-identity level is activated or primed by the context. In addition, spirituality includes and transcends religiousness. Religiousness has, however, been used to define the concept of spirituality, therefore various definitions of religiousness exist; however, their association with spirituality remains vague. To expand, current literature notes that the association of spirituality with religiousness is essential in defining religiousness. Hence religiousness consists of beliefs related to the transcendent forces, divine beings or higher powers. Functionally, religiousness is seen as a person's answer to the definitive questions of being. Religiousness is thus seen as the linkage with higher powers and with the spirituality construct in this study (Hassan et al., 2016).

To date, workplace spirituality has been researched intensively and based on the above historical background, will still be examined in the future. The dimensions of workplace spirituality will be discussed next in terms of outcomes and benefits.

5.5 OUTCOMES AND BENEFITS OF WORKPLACE SPIRITUALITY

Soder (2016) established that workplace spirituality had a strong positive influence on employee work intentions and mediation via ethical leadership. Hassan et al. (2016) confirmed that by increasing workplace spirituality, satisfaction at work was enhanced. This process would pass via trust, which would result in increased job satisfaction. They found that where workplace spirituality existed, trust and job satisfaction would increase. In addition, performance, efficiency, commitment and engagement would improve. Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson (2003) identified organisational commitment, intention to quit, intrinsic work satisfaction, job involvement and organisational-based self-esteem as outcomes of workplace spirituality. These are discussed in more detail below.

Czaplewski and Ferguson (2003) found that **organisational commitment** was positively influenced by workplace spirituality. Mowday et al. (1979) defined organisational commitment as the connection that employees have with their organisation. McShane and Glinow (2010) defined it as employees' emotional attachment to organisational affective commitment. Three elements of organisational commitment were also identified: affective commitment, being "employees' emotional attachment to the organisation"; normative commitment, being that employees feel indebted to stay with the organisation; and continuance commitment, being the "right or moral thing to do", focusing on the feeling of loyalty and honour towards the organisation (Khan, Abdul Rashid and Vytialingam, 2016: 225).

Czaplewski and Ferguson (2003) also found that there was a positive relationship between **intrinsic work satisfaction** and workplace spirituality. Herzberg, Mausner and Snyderman (1959: 35) defined intrinsic work satisfaction as core elements for "achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, growth, and the work itself." They found that in the absence of these motivational elements, instinctive work satisfaction was not necessarily dissatisfying, but when present, these elements were a motivational force. Additionally, the theory of work satisfaction describes "how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs" (Spector, 1997: 2). Locke (1976) described work satisfaction as an optimistic emotional state stemming from work assessments or experiences. Chou and Robert (2008), on the other hand, stated that it was almost impossible to find a theory which was comprehensive enough to cover all aspects of work satisfaction. Work satisfaction may therefore be the result of behaviour, part of a behavioural phase or may emanate from a regulatory system (Falkenburg and Schyns, 2007; Baylor, 2010). Work satisfaction was also referred to as the degree to which an individual feels positive or negative about intrinsic or/and extrinsic factors at work (Baylor, 2010; Boles et al., 2007; Cowan et al., 2008). This suggests that it is important to manage critical motivating elements along with culture and traditional benefits to enhance employee motivation and performance.

Subsequently, Czaplewski and Ferguson (2003) found a positive correlation between workplace spirituality and **job involvement**. Job involvement is concerned with the degree to which employees identify with and vigorously contribute to their job and consider performance to be significant to their self-esteem (Milliman et al., 1999). Job involvement has been defined as adopting values of goodness and importance of working among individuals. It is also a personal state which results in devoted employees (Rahati et al., 2015) and the willpower which influences employees to apply energy to perform optimally and achieve organisational goals (Kahn, 1990). As a result, job involvement reduced turnover rates and increased job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Carson, Carson, and Bedeian, 1995). In addition, it also resulted in increased employee citizenship behaviour, voluntary behaviour, contributions in decision-making as well as emotional attachment and loyalty to the organisation (Saks, 2006).

The last relationship identified in the model is that between workplace spirituality and **organisation-based self-esteem** where self-esteem was defined as the extent to which individuals thought positively or negatively about themselves (Baumeister, 1998; Kanning and Hill, 2012; Kanning and Schnitker, 2004; Rank and Puapradit, 2017). Judge, Locke and Durham (1997) also defined self-esteem as a facet of self-perception, including internal locus of control, self-evaluation, believing in one's abilities and one's emotional strengths. Pierce and Gardner (2004) defined self-esteem as an organisational theory using the magnitude whereby an individual believes that he contributes significantly to his organisation. This contribution is, therefore, based on three levels of self-esteem: task or situation self-esteem, organisation-based self-esteem and global self-esteem (Rank and Puapradit, 2017). Hence, employees with high organisation-based self-esteem see themselves as “important, meaningful, respected, and worthwhile” (Milliman, Czaplewski, and Ferguson, 2003: 432). Organisation-based self-esteem also positively influences job performance, organisational satisfaction, citizenship behaviour, organisational commitment and performance (Bowling et al., 2010; Gardner and Pierce, 1998; Kanning and Schnitker, 2004; Pierce and Gardner, 2004; Tang and Gilbert, 1994). In addition, Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson (2003) found positive correlations between spirituality dimensions, organisational commitment, job retention, instinct work satisfaction, job

involvement and organisation-based self-esteem. It can be noted that these elements contributed positively to workplace spirituality and employee performance.

It was also confirmed that the higher the spirituality of an employee, the lower their **intention to quit** the organisation. Intention to quit relates to whether an employee is contemplating to leave their job and is considering other employment and it is also strongly related to turnover (Milliman, Czaplewski, and Ferguson, 2003). In addition to this, the model of Greenberg (2011) regarding the voluntary turnover theory further explains the reasoning processes on which people base their decisions to quit or to stay. Greenberg (2011) found that shock to the system and decision frames are the main factors which influence the employees' decisions. A shock to the system relates to incidences that stimulate the attention of an employee to consider alternate employment and decision frames indicate the way that the employee interprets such an incident. From this model, four probable consequences can in fact be identified, namely: resigning before the incident happens; staying, as there is no other alternative employment; if there is an alternate job available it is easy to quit; and if there is no shock, no decision thus needs to be made (Mxenge, Dywili and Bazana, 2014).

Thus, workplace spirituality increases employees' retention, ownership and feeling of belonging in an organisation, which also increases innovativeness, creativity and performance. Workplace spirituality also enables leaders to embrace openness, to have various viewpoints and to ensure that work adds value and meaning to the lifestyles of employees. It further allows leaders to create environments that promote mutual respect and connectedness amongst employees, striving for something better and bigger, and achieving individual sovereignty. Since Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson (2003) confirmed the validity of the dimensions of spirituality at work and the predictive validity of these dimensions with the attitudes of several employees at work, their definition and conceptualisation of spirituality at work were adopted for the purpose of this study.

The following is a discussion on workplace spirituality in the public sector.

5.6 WORKPLACE SPIRITUALITY IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR

Ahmad and Omar (2016) found that there was a lack of research probing into workplace spirituality, especially in the public sector. The dimensions of workplace spirituality include meaningful work, a sense of community and the alignment of personal values to organisational values. Workplace spirituality in the public sector is about distinguishing actions in the framework of an organisational community (Subramaniam and Panchanatham, 2013).

The researcher had during 19 years of service in the public sector, come across low satisfaction, low performance, poor attendance and a lack of ownership. Fawcet et al. (2008) made the statement that a change in the spiritual culture in organisational values was needed, from limiting towards inspiring employees in the public sector. A spiritual culture should create meaning and purpose, enhancing creativity, learning, passion, primary attributes at work, plus commitment. These elements would then positively influence employee performance (Fawcet et al., 2008).

Ahmad and Omar (2016) found a positive correlation between employee workplace spirituality and employee performance in their research. They identified employees who found their work significantly meaningful, hence their roles – to serve the public – were interesting and satisfied their needs. They also felt appreciated, as their goal was to attend to the poor, incapacitated, vulnerable as well as the dependent young and old community groups. In addition, public sector employees believe that the community benefits from services provided. Employees grasped the link between these services that are delivered and the social benefits it provided in the community, which gave their efforts individual meaning.

Tummers and Knies (2013) also found that when public service leaders attempted to make work more meaningful for employees, it resulted in fulfillment and happiness from work and employees experienced the work as more meaningful. Meaningful work as a dimension of spirituality is therefore highly relevant for the public sector (Ahmad and

Omar, 2016; Subramaniam and Panchanatham, 2013). Where public sector employees have been found to agree that they were living the values (Subramaniam and Panchanatham, 2013), this confirmed the positive relationship between spirituality at work and employee satisfaction.

Ahmad and Omar (2016) also found that public sector employees had quite a high sense of community. Van der Wal et al. (2008) however, found that the ability to serve and respond to the community was not considered as crucial by leaders. Front-line public service employees tend to be more people-oriented and consequently they relate more easily to others at work. Subramaniam and Panchanatham (2013) also confirmed that public sector employees are relevantly committed at work.

In addition, Ahmad and Omar (2016) found that employees' principles and values matched the organisation's mission and purpose and that employees also seemed to have a positive attitude towards moral values, concern for societal needs, input to community. They felt connected to the organisational objectives and lived up to their values (Ahmad and Omar, 2016; Subramaniam and Panchanatham, 2013).

The management of attributes at work is, however, quite simple, compared to changing the environment in order to release innovation, creativity and the input of empowered employees. Teaching the skills that would produce an inspiring workplace has been found to be a mystifying task for leaders (Fawcet et al., 2008). It is therefore critical for the public and private sectors that leaders should stimulate spirituality at work to ensure that objectives are met. The following discussion will elaborate on how to enhance spirituality at work.

5.7 ENHANCEMENT OF WORKPLACE SPIRITUALITY

Leaders should bond and show concern for employees, which would improve trust, job satisfaction and performance levels. In turn, these relationships would also minimise staff turnover rates and in return would reflect savings from recruitment and training. Several

researchers found that where there were strong relationships, employees worked together better, hence group dynamics, teamwork and performance were enhanced (Baumeister, 1998). Leaders and organisations should therefore be much more spiritually inclined.

It is also important for leaders to facilitate development and motivation of employees by means of a conducive and healthy environment at work. This would in return ensure that employees would look forward to going work and would work together with leaders and not against them.

Apart from improving the living standards of the employees in general, there could be vital changes in both demographics and religious aspects within a population. This situation would increase the popularity of spirituality at work. Owing to a dynamic market environment including competition, employees experienced increased workloads, ongoing change and developments, a persistent drive for profits and savings, multi-tasking, retrenchments, downsizing and higher demands to attain goals. These challenges in spirituality originated from a dynamic, competitive and demanding working environment (Mxenge, Dywili and Bazana, 2014) and resulted in an overload of demands and under-equipped resources. Researchers therefore suggested that the number of employees should be increased to satisfy their higher-order requirements of spirituality in the workplace.

Notwithstanding the above, Greenberg (2011) highlighted that leaders should instill the spirit of teamwork and unity within the workplace and provide an avenue that would enable a robust relationship in order to enhance employee performance. It emerged that spirituality in the workplace could change the emotional, intellectual, physical, occupational and rational behaviour of employees and spirituality is also integrated and aligned to the organisational vision and mission. In addition, various studies showed that spirituality in practice most likely connects a person to themselves and other individuals in the surroundings or even beyond. Thus, in organisations where spirituality was practiced, leaders tended to apply a spiritual approach in their daily responsibilities, which increased

recognition from employees at all levels. Employees therefore worked physically, in high spirits and wholeheartedly (Greenberg, 2011). In addition, Wang et al. (2019) also found that spirituality at work, showing warmth and care, positively influenced task performance, knowledge sharing and innovation.

Workplace spirituality is not only a need which should not be overlooked, but it tends to enhance and develop trust between employees and leaders, which enhances commitment and employee performance. On top of that, an employee who is committed can also be deemed a valuable asset and committed employees are more competitive, loyal and trustworthy.

Spirituality is known to empower employees in decision-making, which enhances teamwork and productivity in an organisation. Not only does employee empowerment lead to enhanced morale among employees; it instills pride to see how their efforts make positive contributions to the organisation. Besides, other employees who witness these changes derived from empowerment, will copy and implement the same practices to enhance overall performance. The reason behind this can be explained as being that employees tend to act in terms of accepted norms, recognised by all employees in an organisation. These employees ensure that their behaviour is in line with the generally accepted norms (Mxenge, Dywili, and Bazana, 2014).

Generally, most employees are also value-driven and continuously seeking to enhance and improve themselves, while others place more emphasis on corporate social responsibility, corporate citizenship and environmental sustainability protection issues. Thus, organisations that consider spiritual values as important and attempt to achieve the expectations of the employees realistically, would experience increased devotion, commitment and performance (Mxenge, Dywili and Bazana, 2014).

Transparency, mutual appreciation and understanding from leaders and employees are required for an organisation to have a strong spiritual foundation which would enhance the level of efficiency, morale and commitment of employees. By means of improved

integration of spirituality in the organisation, the performance culture of the organisation would be transformed into a results-driven and high-performing environment. It can be gathered from this that it is therefore important for organisations to provide their employees with physical, mental, emotional and spiritual support to ensure that objectives are realised (Baumeister, 1998). These elements are therefore a necessity which will provide employees with a platform to grow spiritually and the organisation would benefit from increased commitment, innovation, loyalty, trust and employee performance.

A summary and conclusion of this chapter will now be provided.

5.8 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

It can be concluded that workplace spirituality is about people sharing and feeling mutual attachments, magnetism and closeness within their work environment. Leaders are inclined to use assessment criteria relating to the connectedness to the community and individual values, including business performance norms in pursuing development prospects. Spirituality is essential to inspiring meaning in the lives of employees and workplace spirituality includes meaningful work, a sense of community and the alignment of personal values to organisational values. These dimensions have been found to impact positively on spirituality in the workplace and therefore have been selected to be investigated in this study.

This chapter commenced with an introduction and after that the researcher discussed the concept of workplace spirituality. Then the researcher deliberated on early theories of workplace spirituality and proceeded to present some of the more recent theories of workplace spirituality. In addition to this, the researcher discussed some outcomes and benefits of workplace spirituality and then addressed workplace spirituality in the public sector. The continued discussion focused on the enhancement of workplace spirituality.

Employee motivation will be discussed in the next chapter.

LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER 6

EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION



6.1 INTRODUCTION

A crucial component that differentiates successful organisations from less successful organisations is employee motivation (Serhan, Al Achy, and Nicholas, 2018). The delivery of public services depends mainly on human resources; therefore, people are vital in obtaining the organisational objectives in the public service sector and their levels of motivation are critical in the provision of good quality service.

The task of motivating employees to enhance their performance and to achieve the objectives set in the public sector is imperative. In today's highly competitive environment, financial resources are limited in the public sector. Competition to recruit suitable

employees has also increased and multifaceted accountability administrations are part of local government. To manage these risks, amongst other things leaders can use motivation to change individual and organisational outcomes positively.

The concept of employee motivation is discussed in this chapter. After that, a discussion on public sector motivation, various theories of motivation, the self-determination theory, and the application of the self-determination theory in the public sector will follow.

The chapter will end with a summary and conclusion.

6.2 EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION – THE CONCEPT

The word motivation has been theorised and debated over several years by many academics. The concept of motivation has been in existence as a theoretical concept for almost a century and is a vital and perennial issue in the field of psychology. Motivation relates to the course, force and route of an individual's conduct (Foran, 2015). It is also the consequence of a multifaceted procedure that comprises individual characteristics, primary responsibilities and dimensions at work, labour market settings and the environment at work (Serhan, Al Achy and Nicholas, 2018).

It is challenging to define motivation, because the concept contains several features and perceptions of employees and their present circumstances. Motivation was, however, defined as the determination and will of an individual to satisfy their needs through their action (Whiseand and Rush, 1988) and as something that energises people to act (Kian, Yusoff and Rajah, 2014). The definitions also refer to the strength, course and perseverance of efforts to achieve specific goals and satisfy needs (Fuller, Valacich and George, 2008; Saraswathi, 2011). Aside from this, Hiver, Kim, and Kim (2018) defined motivation as a force that initiates pedagogical acts and directs individuals to achieve and sustain their desired self.

Ryan and Deci (2000) suggested that motivation concerns dynamism, course, perseverance and equifinality – which all represent facets of intention and purpose. Motivation is therefore at the centre of biological, cognitive and social regulation and is highly appreciated, since motivation results in productivity; hence leaders must motivate subordinates to achieve goals and objectives (Ryan and M. Deci, 2000). Moreover, motivation comprises internal forces that affect the direction, intensity and persistence of voluntary behaviour (Abbah, 2014; Pinder, 1998). Abbah (2014) consequently stated that human resources were core to the success of every organisation; as well as how to influence them by means of motivation to achieve goals. Thus, to deliver and maintain superior service and be highly productive, leaders should motivate employees and ensure that policies and conditions within the workplace are directed to enable motivation (Mohsan et al., 2015).

Herzberg et al. (1957) identified two types of motivation – intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation emanates from within, driven by enjoyment and interest in the work itself; not so much by external elements. Psychological needs associated with employment will yield instinct motivation. Instinct motivation can further be elevated through the empowerment of employees (Sesay et al., 2017). Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, is based on external elements such as competition, monetary rewards, promotion, acknowledgment, pressure and punishment (Sesay et al., 2017).

These various definitions of motivation signify elements of drive, energy and action, which result in improved performance. Academics agree that motivation begins with cognitive recognition of a need that is absent at the time that the individual notices the need. It is followed by a mental wish to realise something, resulting in a physical action to satisfy this desire (Kian, Yusoff and Rajah, 2014). Hence the researcher proposed that the definition of motivation for this study would be the purpose and willpower of an employee to achieve internal satisfaction, individual goals and enhanced performance in the public sector. Therefore, to operationalise employee motivation, the Motivation Measure (MM) questionnaire, developed by Moran et al. (2012), was used in this study.

The next section will elaborate on public sector motivation.

6.3 PUBLIC SECTOR MOTIVATION

Public service motivation is not an entirely new concept and references to this can be found in several historical writings and in various periods (Bozeman and Su, 2014; Hondeghem and Vandenabeele, 2005; Houston, 2000; Sangmook, 2006; Spicer, 1985). Employee motivation in the public sector is crucial to service delivery and can be affected by numerous factors. Public sector environments are rather bureaucratic and mainly emphasise skills and communication as a motivator. They are characterised by highly specialised, repetitive tasks while limiting employees' ingenuities (Dagher, 2010).

Apart from this, poor service delivery resulted in numerous citizen protests and strikes. As a result of these strikes and protests municipalities receive daily criticism of poor leadership and performance (Dzansi, Chipunza and Dzansi, 2016). The effect of these activities leads to an environment in which employees experience criticism and anger from citizens. This has a negative effect on their motivational levels. Dzansi, Chipunza and Dzansi (2016) and Manala (2010) also stated that unfair labour practices, nepotism, corruption and discrimination also resulted in a decline in employee motivation. Dzansi, Chipunza and Dzansi (2016: 142) further argued that employees were also greedy and corrupted, putting "their own interests above public interests" which resulted in lower levels of employee motivation to perform optimally for the good of the organisation.

Added to this, the public sector is experiencing a declining and deteriorating labour supply, which results from competition amongst employers in the private sector. Hence, general human resource policies need to ensure that employee motivation is managed as a strategy to attract, retain and reward employees (Ritz, Neumann and Vandenabeele, 2016).

Apart from the above, public sector organisations received much attention and criticism with regard to their performance. Employee motivation was identified as a central concept

to improve individual, team and organisational performance. Public sector leaders should create sustainable work settings to improve employee motivation, which will, in turn, improve overall performance. All the same, performance in the public sector stretches beyond efficiency levels as it includes creating societal performance indicators, public policy formulation, safeguarding citizens' rights to essential services and, but not limited to, adherence to laws and legislation. To clarify, this background sets the basis of employee motivation and the performance indicators in the public sector.

Moreover, Ritz, Neumann and Vandenabeele (2016), Ritz and Sager (2010) and Vandenabeele and Van Loon (2015) stated that accountability in the public sector was prolonged during the New Public Management period by adding the performance input view with a performance output orientation, thus stimulating employee motivation to function suitably for the benefit of citizens and other local government stakeholders. This resulted in an equilibrium between outcome and process values stemming from employee motivation.

In addition, traditional process-based motivational theories pinpointed three specific features to motivate public sector employees. There is firstly uncertainty that employees' efforts will result in rewards and recognition. Secondly, it is difficult to set proper goals and objectives in the local government due to the complexity of the environment. Thirdly, values and principles relating to procedures and fair distributions of rewards confirm that the culture and institutional framework strongly reinforce the perception of fairness in local government. Numerous content-based motivation theories also highlighted the contentment side of motivation, with the emphasis on meaning and purpose in motivating people. Public service motivation differs from private sector motivation, as it shows why employees rather perform to serve the community and not to enrich the organisation. In the private sector the aim is to increase profitability, whereas the public sector aims to improve service delivery in terms of their constitutional mandates. However, motivation is not always enough to explain performance. Desire and choice, as catalytic agents, inspire employees to transfer motivation into action. To clarify, motivation is inspired by the will to act. Only then will motivation produce achievement.

These choices are based on focused attention, emotion management, effectiveness, and the determination to achieve goals. These choices are core to understanding the reason for performing tasks, which is crucial in the public sector, primarily as goals are mostly aimed at improvement of service delivery (Ritz, Neumann and Vandenabeele, 2016). In fact, employee behaviour and performance are significantly reliant on motivation.

The researcher will thus commence with a discussion of the various theories of motivation, including content-based theories, process theories, behaviourism theories and personality-based theories. After that the researcher will discuss the self-determination theory of motivation and illustrate its suitability in the public sector.

Theories of motivation will be discussed next.

6.4 THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

The field of cognitive psychology developed from several different approaches and was not created from a single methodological or conceptual framework. Hence, these varied approaches assisted in understanding the nature of mental life (Edwards et al., 2017). Consequently, motivation theories are generally grouped into two different viewpoints: content and process theories, although there are numerous theories of motivation as discussed below. The content theories of motivation will first be discussed.

6.4.1 Content theories

Content theories comprise of “what” motivates people and are based on individual needs and goals. Sesay et al. (2017) found that Maslow (1943), Herzberg (1957), McClelland (1961) and Alderfer (1969) considered motivation from a content viewpoint (Serhan, Al Achy and Nicholas, 2018).

To explain, Maslow (1943) subdivided motivation into five groups of needs in the form of a pyramid, according to their priority:

- i. Physiological needs, being basic or primary needs to ensure survival;
- ii. Safety needs, which include mental, economic and physical needs in terms of moral and physical security;
- iii. The need to fit in a group, community, team, or among friends;
- iv. The need to be recognised, respected and connected to others; and
- v. Self-fulfilment through achievement.

In his Bi-Factorial Theory, Herzberg (1957) proposed two factors of motivation. Firstly, factors that result in satisfaction at work and secondly, factors leading to an absence of dissatisfaction at work. He identified motivators such as compensation, recognition, personal growth, etcetera, which result in satisfaction at work. The factors of which the absence generated dissatisfaction, were identified as the quality of the work environment, conditions at work and hierarchical relationships, to name a few. Herzberg stated that satisfaction factors had a significant effect on employee motivation (Serhan, Al Achy and Nicholas, 2018).

The Existence, Relatedness and Growth theory of Alderfer (1969) showed three types of needs. The first is the need for existence, including material needs, primary and physical needs. Secondly there are social needs, comprising the need for interpersonal and social relationships and lastly development needs which include successes, innovation and skills development.

McClelland (1961) on the other hand suggested that people had three kinds of needs that influence motivation. These include the need for:

- i. Membership or belonging, having social relationships and the need for acceptance within groups;
- ii. Power, to effect, direct or control the external environment; and
- iii. Fulfilment, to achieve goals (Serhan, Al Achy and Nicholas, 2018).

Hackman and Oldham (1976) in their job characteristics model identified five core dimensions to motivation, as stipulated below, but they stated that these dimensions would positively influence employees' psychological states at work, which would enhance employee performance and motivation:

- i. Skills identification;
- ii. Task identification;
- iii. Importance of the task;
- iv. Autonomy; and
- v. Feedback.

The following is a discussion of process theories of motivation.

6.4.2 Process theories

Psychological and behavioural processes that motivate employees to behave and act in a specific manner are referred to as process theories of motivation. Process theories also describe the “process” of motivation and look at “how” motivation transpires. Sesay et al. (2017) found that Vroom, Porter and Lawler (1964) and Adams and Locke also studied motivation from a process perspective.

Vroom (1964) suggested that employees adopted specific behaviours when they chose to perform or not to achieve, based on the anticipation of pleasure or pain as a result of their decision. To explain this, it can be said that employees are motivated when they believe that their efforts and performance will result in rewards and satisfaction of their needs, that is, that the yearning to satisfy their needs is so high that the exertion and determination to achieve this satisfaction are considered suitable. The theory of Vroom (1964) contains three dimensions: valence, expectancy and instrumentality. Valence refers to personal emotions and value-attributions (extrinsic factors such as salary, benefits, advancements, etc. and intrinsic factors, for example enjoyment, rewards and satisfaction). Instrumentality relates to the possibility that an individual may receive the anticipated reward when completing the task. Expectancy denotes the individual's belief

in his capability to accomplish the task. Vroom (1964) indicated that seen as a whole, these factors resulted in motivation, which, in turn, enhanced job satisfaction and performance (Ritz, Neumann and Vandenabeele, 2016).

One more process-based theory is the goal-setting theory of Locke and Latham (1991). This theory postulates that goals control human behaviour and is based on the belief that people vary in motivation and also vary in their goals. Leaders should therefore carefully set goals. The five principles of goal setting are aimed at improving success at work through improved employee motivation. Locke and Latham (1991) thus recommended that goals need to be specific and that the complexity of the matter should be considered to avoid ambiguity (Kovacic and Di Felice, 2019). Goals must also stimulate employees' commitment and interest. Besides, goals must enhance achievement and include feedback to ensure that expectations are clear, and goals should be adaptable to cater for change.

The goal-setting theory has been studied in a variety of public sector settings and it has been found that public sector organisations are inclined to have numerous, often opposing, challenging, inconsistent and ambiguous goals (Allison, 1983; Downs, 1967; Jung and Ritz, 2014; Moynihan, 2008). This leads to a conflict of values (Wildavsky, 1979), political interference or competing demands which influence employee motivation and performance negatively (Chun and Rainey, 2006; Jung, 2011; Ritz, Neumann and Vandenabeele, 2016).

The process-based equity theory of Adams (1965) focuses on the interpersonal equality facet of reward allocation. This theory describes the expectations that employees have of rewards for their efforts at work. It postulates that people interpret equity or fairness as a significant commodity relating to motivation at work. If employees note an indication of unfairness, they might implement any of four strategies to reinstate equity. Firstly, efforts may be reduced. Secondly, an increase in outcomes or rewards may be demanded. Thirdly, individuals might exaggerate or undervalue their attempts to psychologically justify these inequalities and in the fourth instance, employees might choose to resign.

Core public sector principles, for instance equality, consistency in law and policy application and decision making, which affect institutional values, are vital factors to improve employee performance. The equity theory, as a practical example, is not in agreement with the rigid public pay structures but recommends that these imbalances should be compared with other reference groups and pay systems inside and outside the public sector environment (Ritz, Neumann and Vandenabeele, 2016).

The following discussion elaborates on personality theories.

6.4.3 Personality theories

Freud (1900) developed the psychoanalytic theory of personality development, which claimed that character is formed through conflicts amongst three fundamental structures of the human mind: the id, the ego and the superego (McLeod, 2015). He subsequently established a topographical model, using the example of an iceberg to describe the three levels of the mind. To clarify this, the tip of the iceberg (ego) focused on current awareness and thoughts (conscious) and the unconscious comprised information and memories which could be retrieved. The most important was the unconscious – which could be seen as the real cause of most behaviour (McLeod, 2015).

Freud (1915) also found that some events and desires were often too frightening or painful for his patients to acknowledge and believed that such information was locked away in the unconscious mind, therefore unconscious thoughts, feelings and memories were not available and we are not aware of them. He consequently emphasised the importance of the unconscious mind. To elucidate, a primary assumption of Freudian theory was that the unconscious mind governs behaviour to a higher degree than people would suspect (McLeod, 2015).

In the Freudian theory, this was seen as the most fundamental element of the personality and signified essential biological needs, demands, prompt expression and instant fulfilment. Further, the ego represents “I” or “me” of the character. Thus, the core organisation and integration should adjust to the demands of reality. The id also contains

a pool of unconscious psychic energy attempting to satisfy basic sexual and aggressive needs. It operates on a pleasure principle, demanding immediate satisfaction and is not based on logical thinking (McLeod, 2015). Furthermore, the ego operates on the basic principle to satisfy one's own needs and the demands of society and is concerned with rationality. Hence it includes ego functions such as decisions, dialect, instinct, memory as well as realism and protection tools (McLeod, 2015).

On the other hand, the superego personality stands in relation to internal social ethics, morals and principles, it assists the goal of perfection and attempts to appropriate ego activities to serve its purpose. The superego thus represents inner ideals, including values and ethical standards (conscience). In addition, the ideal ego strives towards pride (McLeod, 2015). So, Freud believed that fulfilment of instincts was the primary motivator driving human behaviour, hence psychoanalysis emphasise the importance of motivation (McLeod, 2015).

After that, theories of behaviourism were established during the period 1940 to 1950, which will be discussed next.

6.4.4 Behaviourism theories

Behavioural psychology approaches prevailed in the 1950s, using classical and operant conditioning methods to comprehend human and animal behaviour (Edwards et al., 2017). Firstly, the drive theory of motivation of Clark Hull (1943) posited that all humans had four basic needs: hunger, thirst, sex and avoidance of pain. It stipulated that when deprived of something, humans were encouraged to obtain the missing component that would recreate internal equilibrium (Lavender, 2005). The theory of Hull (1943) stated that creatures learnt how to satisfy the need to maintain balance, ensuring that the subsequent behaviour would be established upon successive occurrences when the homeostatic condition was not present (Lavender, 2005). Hull (1943) also believed that human behaviour was an alternative method in which people controlled and kept themselves alive and healthy. He also stated that the theory of motivation was based on

scientific knowledge about homeostatic processes and noted that motivation originated from biological imbalances or needs.

Nevertheless, the outcome of predictions based on Hull's calculations was often not correct and it was noted in journal articles in the early 1970s that Hull's research had for 30 years not been productive (Jensen, 2006). Although Hull's theory disappeared from the scene, numerous motivational theories which were established during the 1950s and 1960s were responses to the Hullian theory. These included proposals for cognitive theory, as well as Maslow's motivational theory.

Secondly, the Classical Conditioning theory of Pavlov (1849-1936) proved that through hearing a bell while food was served, learning occurred. He measured the levels of the saliva of a dog when this method was applied. Hence he noted that the dog would salivate when the food was given and after using the bell and training the dog, the dog would continue to salivate when hearing the bell, thus linking the bell to the food (Edwards et al., 2017; Britt, 2016).

Thirdly, the Operant Conditioning Theory of Skinner (1948-1960) showed that incidents of reinforcement in the environment would link stimuli to responses. Those behaviours that are immediately rewarded are therefore likely to be repeated. On the other hand, those that led to unpleasant outcomes were not. This theory showed that all behaviour could be explained through past reinforcements (Tsanwani, 2014). To illustrate this, he placed a rat in a box. His research showed that the rat would receive food when pulling a lever and electric shocks when pushing a button. Hence, through conditioned learning, the rat only pulled the lever and eluded pressing the button. Skinner thus proved that through reinforcement, behaviour could be modified (Britt, 2016; Kalat, 2010). Accordingly, Skinner noted that rewards or reinforcements were core to the learning process. Operant conditioning therefore suggested that people and animals would most likely repeat a behaviour where it resulted in a reward and avoid repeating it if it resulted in an unpleasant outcome (Edwards et al., 2017).

In the fourth instance, the Field Theory of Lewin (1940 – 1960) showed that behaviour was a function of both the individual and the environment. He indicated that cognitive dynamics represented elements of individuals which stemmed from their experience of reality and included values, needs, goals, motives, moods, hopes, anxieties and ideals, hence the forces in this field derived from social conditions, pushing the cognitive movement to or from the goals of the individual. Moreover, these goals cause an energising or tension in the person until they are achieved. He also stipulated that goals have value, strength and psychological proximity. The behaviour of an individual is therefore planned according to the value of the desired outcome and his ability to meet the need (Tsanwani, 2014). His description of the process of mental change included three stages: unfreezing or escaping the inertia, transition without a clear idea where it leads and freezing or crystallizing new behaviours. These ideas can also be linked to the activity of neural networks, simulated in a computer or observed in neuroimaging (Duch, 2017).

After that, Rotter (1960-1990) developed the Social Learning Theory which indicated that the four conditions necessary to enable social learning are attention (to learn), retention (to remember), production (to perform or apply knowledge) and motivation (to perform exceptionally) (Johnson, 2014). Johnson (2014: 1 - 2) defined social learning as the ability of humans to “learn to speak, use tools, and to behave appropriately in social situations mostly by observing and imitating others.” He referred to this as “the essence of social learning or observational theory.”

In addition, Rotter (1960-1990) noted that behaviour is chosen, which means that persons choose their behaviour according to their expectation of the highest rewards. As a result, expectancies are derived from past reinforcement of behaviour, or similar experiences. People can also have a core locus of control, or they may feel that others, good fortune or uncontrollable situations are responsible for their behaviour and following reinforcement, thus have an external locus of control (Tsanwani, 2014).

Learning is defined as “a change in mental processes that creates the capacity to demonstrate different behaviours that occur because of observing others” (Johnson, 2014: 2). It also shows that cognition, in social learning, appears as expectations. Behaviour therefore results in rewards or punishments. Thus, instead of experiencing incremental learning, individuals steadily exclude incorrect reactions and benefit instantly from observing successes or failures of others, so learning occurs through imitation, observation and learning by doing.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1943) indicated that management needs to understand that employees have a goal of self-actualisation. The hierarchy of needs set out by Maslow (1943) therefore supports motivation as self-actualisation, which increases inner strength and performance (Shahbaz and Ghafoor, 2015). Maslow stated that human beings have an inner urge towards fulfilment and superiority and identified five levels of needs which are driven by the urge to satisfy each level and via more important needs, move to a more superior level.

The first level, psychological needs, forms the basis of the Maslow hierarchy and comprises the need for survival, including food, warmth, clothing and shelter. The second level, security needs, may also be perceived as essential, including the safety of one's health and family. Feeling safe and secure at work, building good relationships and friendships, experiencing love and intimacy, form the third level – social needs. The fourth level – self-esteem needs – entails to be recognised and appreciated by others. Maslow (1943) pinpoints self-actualisation as the highest level of satisfaction.

Maslow (1908 – 1970) and Herzberg (1923) further also presented the Neo-Human Relations School in the 1950s, emphasising psychological needs of employees (Tutor-2-You, 2015). Maslow (1943) found that as one physiological need is satisfied, the following upper-order need must be fulfilled. To clarify this, it can be said that employees can therefore be motivated through the need to attain or carry on meeting fundamental needs. Maslow (1943) also indicated that employees in an organisation struggle to satisfy needs through work. Typically, an employee's behaviour and the degree of fulfilment or

discontent they feel regarding their employment can change their conduct, which finally influences their performance. In line with this, Udechukwu (2009) highly endorses the hierarchy of needs theory of Maslow (1943) “as he believes it has and will continue to shape the understanding of job satisfaction in all companies, regardless of industry” (Foran, 2015: 19).

Contradictory to this, Moghaddam (2017), Mahmoud Wahba and Lawrence Bridgwell as well as Barlow Soper, Gary Milford and Gary Rosenthal reported a lack of empirical evidence to support Maslow’s hierarchy. Maslow’s theory has also been criticised for its inflexibility. Hence it is uncertain whether needs can regularly be ranked in this hierarchical form. Added to this, even Maslow himself questioned the validity of an inflexible arrangement of human needs, as individuals might have different priorities (Akah, 2010; Needham et al., 1999).

Following that, the Existence, Relatedness and Growth theory of Alderfer (1969) was based on shortcomings of the hierarchy of needs theory of Maslow (1943) (Arnolds and Boshoff, 2002) and provided more elasticity of movement between the needs. Arnolds and Boshoff (2002) also explained that the Existence, Relatedness and Growth theory’s conceptual model represented three significant groups of needs: existence, relatedness and growth. These groups of needs also take individual differences into consideration and give way towards fulfilling different needs at the same time (Ismail, Abdul-Majid, and Musibau, 2017; Jia et al., 2017). Arnolds and Boshoff (2002) also noted that the Existence, Relatedness and Growth theory was supported by empirical evidence, even though it showed similarities to the theory of Maslow (1943) when compared. The difference between Maslow’s approach and the Existence, Relatedness and Growth theory, however, lies in the way the needs are fulfilled. Ismail, Abdul-Majid and Musibau (2017) subsequently stated that in Maslow’s theory, motivation was absent when needs were met, whereas in the Existence, Relatedness and Growth theory it was inevitable that fulfilled needs turned out to be more substantial. The Existence, Relatedness and Growth theory postulated that simultaneous need satisfaction in the workplace inspired and motivated employees, which led to increased performance (Ismail, Abdul-Majid and

Musibau, 2017). The Existence, Relatedness and Growth theory also proposes distinctive elements such as the “Frustration-Regression phase” and recommends that leaders must admit the possibility of successfully motivating employees. This suggests that people may revert to previous, lower needs to obtain satisfaction if an obstacle prevented the fulfilment of a higher-level need (Foran, 2015).

As the significance of the Existence, Relatedness and Growth theory must still be determined, Foran (2015: 21) stated that “it cannot be considered superior or equivalent to Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs theory”. It can thus only be considered as a concept that has offered leaders a different view of situations and desires that could alter employee behaviour. Foran (2015: 21 - 22) recommended that “until the Existence, Relatedness and Growth theory has been systematically analysed and critiqued by various sources, its true nature and results remain questioned as to whether it might improve employee performance.”

The following discussion is aimed at the self-determination theory.

6.5 THE SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY

The self-determination theory, especially in the public sector, understands and supports dynamics associated with motivation, which results in enhanced employee commitment and an increase in customer service quality (Mohsan et al., 2015). Moreover, this theory shows that motivation contributes positively to goal attainment and emphasises the importance of employees' satisfaction, especially in the public sector.

In the 1970s research about self-determination emanated from studies where intrinsic and extrinsic motives were investigated. Later, in the mid-1980's, the self-determination theory was formally announced and recognised as an empirical theory. Deci and Ryan (1985) initially developed the theory which has subsequently been applied in numerous studies. In a nutshell, the self-determination theory attempts to clarify all types of motivation in terms of a single approach. Ryan (1985: 38) defined self-determination as

"a quality of human functioning that involves the experience of choice. It is the capacity to choose and have those choices ... be the determinants of one's actions". The self-determination theory seeks to discover people's natural growth propensities and inherent psychological desires that are core to their self-motivation and personality integration, as well as the environment that supports those positive processes.

According to Pintrich and Schunk (2002: 257), the self-determination theory is "one of the most comprehensive and empirically supported theories of motivation available today" and has been applied in various business sectors. The validity of the self-determination theory has, however, not been established in local government (Chen and Jang, 2010). Additionally, the self-determination theory assumes that individuals grow and integrate through an increment in activities, although the growth needs to be expedited by ensuring that there is a supportive social environment, thus, psychological needs which motivate individual independence, relatedness and capability are dependent upon the social environment (Deci and Ryan, 2012; Vansteenkiste and Van den Broeck, 2014).

Chen and Jang (2010: 742) confirmed that the self-determination theory contained three common and basic human needs: "autonomy (a sense of control and agency), competency (feeling competent with tasks and activities) and relatedness (feeling included or affiliated with others)" as illustrated in Figure 4. The self-determination theory assumes that individuals are naturally motivated, and it does not depend on the extrinsic-intrinsic motivation dichotomy, but views motivation as a range, including:

- i. Intrinsic motivation (act as it is enjoyable, optimally challenging or visually pleasing and most self-determined);
- ii. Extrinsic motivation (act leads to a separable outcome); and
- iii. Amotivation (lack the intention to act and least self-determined) (Ryan and M. Deci, 2000).

The self-determination theory also includes opportunities to act autonomously; therefore, influencing human motivation (Andrews, 2016). Moreover, the self-determination theory

embraces the fact that individuals (whether employed in the public or private sector) need to satisfy three basic psychological needs: autonomy, competence and relatedness (Ryan and M. Deci, 2000). As a result, the self-determination theory framework addresses studies aimed at investigating human motivation and personality in a social context and includes the influence that the work environment has on the employee's functioning. Self-determination theory research further emphasized the way in which social and cultural factors support or challenge individuals' rate of performance and well-being and their sense of choice and creativity (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Deci and Ryan, 2000; Deci and Ryan, 2012; Foran, 2015; Ryan and M. Deci, 2000). Typically, the self-determination theory applied in positive work environments will increase the satisfaction of the psychological needs and motivation of employees; in contrast to this, negative factors would decrease work motivation (Fernet et al., 2013; Trépanier et al., 2015). Intrinsic motivation has been found to reap the highest levels of motivation, resulting in fully autonomous regulation. Ryan and Deci (2000: 7) defined intrinsic motivation as the inclination to "engage in an activity for its own sake" and for the pleasure it arouses; in this case, no external factor is needed to move one into action (Andrews, 2016).

As a dimension of the self-determination theory, extrinsic motivation is categorised into four stages, as illustrated in Figure 4.

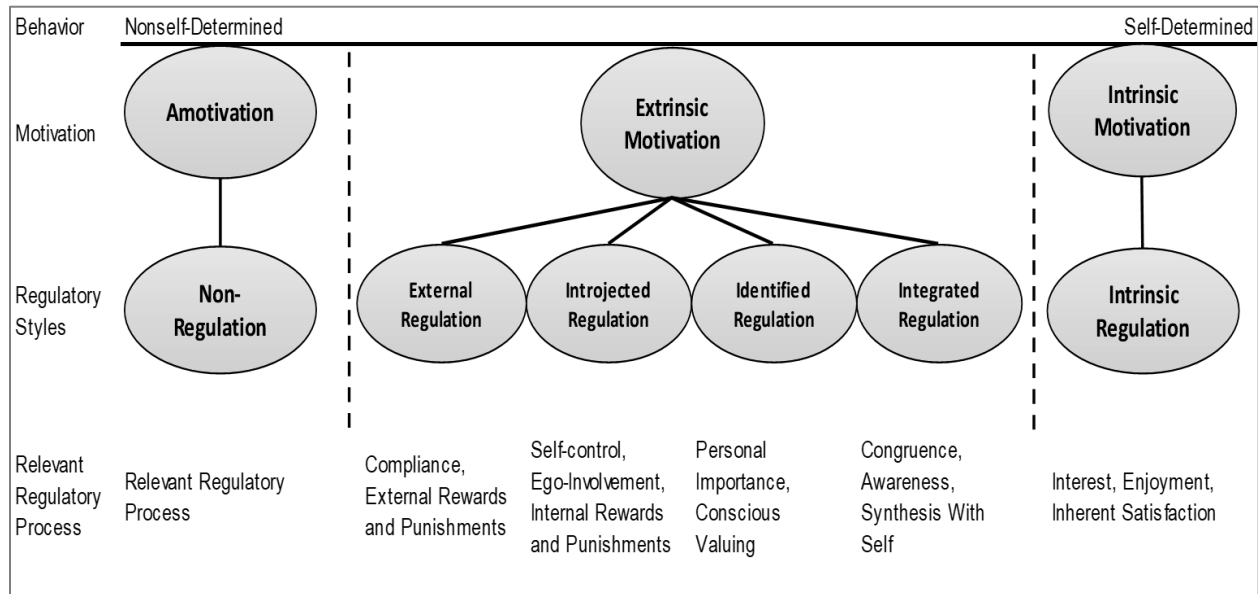


Figure 4: Model of the Self-Determination Theory

Source: Chen and Jang (2010)

The categories of extrinsic motivation are external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation and integrated regulation (Andrews, 2016; Chen and Jang, 2010).

The self-determination theory as set out by Ryan and Deci (2000) included several dimensions. These dimensions were used in the measurement of motivation for this study:

- i. Intrinsic motivation reflects the positive potential of human nature. It embraces the inherent propensities to discover innovation and challenges, to expand and use one's capacities, to explore and to acquire knowledge.
- ii. Introjected regulation involves receiving a directive but not entirely accepting it as one's own. It shows that behaviours are performed to eliminate guilt or increase ego boosts such as pride and maintain feelings of worthiness.
- iii. Extrinsic motivation refers to performance to achieve a distinguishable outcome.
- iv. Identified regulation refers to consciously valuing a goal or rule so that the supposed act is recognised as individually necessary.

- v. Integrated regulation transpires when identified rules are fully integrated into the self. This means that the individual accepted and assessed the rules concerning their other principles and needs.

Ryan and Connell (1989) found that these four styles were interrelated to a quasi-simplex pattern, providing evidence for an underlying continuum. They also found that differences in the type of extrinsic motivation were related to different experiences and outcomes. Motivational theories thus seek to justify why some employees act or do things in a certain way rather than another. Ryan and Deci (2000) noted that supportive situations which enhanced individuals' experience of independence, capability and understanding, enhanced self-determination. It also increased the quality of motivation and commitment and improved performance, perseverance and ingenuity.

The self-determination theory further contains a meta-theory aimed at motivational studies and a formal theory outlining intrinsic and extrinsic motivational causes. The formal theory describes the roles that intrinsic and extrinsic factors play in individual, cognitive and social backgrounds as discussed below.

- i. **Meta-Theory: Organismic viewpoint**

The organismic viewpoint commences by stating that people are lively organisms. As a result, people have needed to grow, becoming experts and gathering learned capabilities into an understandable "sense of self." These natural propensities therefore require continuous social settings in which to operate and may support active engagement and psychological growth or cause a lack of assimilation, resistance and the fulfilment of need replacements. In fact, it is the interaction between active organisms (individuals) and the social background that is core to the self-determination theory's forecasts regarding experience, conduct and growth (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Deci and Ryan, 2000; Deci and Ryan, 2012; Foran, 2015; Ryan and M. Deci, 2000).

In view of the above, the fulfilment of needs is a continuous process by means of which individuals grow, improve their standard of living and by means of which they experience wellness ” (Deci and Ryan, 1985; Deci and Ryan, 2000; Deci and Ryan, 2012; Foran, 2015; Ryan and M. Deci, 2000), but when dissatisfied, there is likely to be a decrease in performance and wellness which may also be referred to as “the darker sides of human behaviour such as psychopathology, prejudice, and aggression” (The Center for Self Determination Theory, 2020: 1).

ii. **Formal theory**

On the other hand, the self-determination theory comprises six mini-theories, which were established to explain various motivational-based findings that emerged from laboratory and field research. Here is a discussion of these mini theories:

Firstly, the Cognitive Evaluation Theory emphasises intrinsic motivation based on satisfying needs from within which are driven by personal enjoyment and interest. It also focuses on people's essential needs for autonomy and competence. The needs for independence are therefore satisfied when people feel they can control their behaviour. When external forces increase the feeling of competence, intrinsic motivation will increase. Skill-enhancing factors may in fact include rewards for recognition and positive feedback, whereas criticism and threats will have a negative impact on intrinsic motivation (Chae, Choi and Hur, 2017).

Secondly, the Organismic Integration Theory (OIT) (discusses extrinsic motivation in various forms: their properties, causes and concerns. It suggests that meaningful elements motivate users intrinsically regardless of external rewards (Böckle et al., 2018). To clarify, extrinsic motivation is behaviour that is external to the behaviour itself, although there are distinct forms of instrumentality, which exclude external regulation, introjection, identification and integration which are real. A range of internalisation is formed. Thus, the higher the degree of

internalised extrinsic motivation, the higher the autonomy of the individual when enacting these behaviours (Böckle et al., 2018; Chae, Choi and Hur, 2017).

The OIT also includes the social frameworks that improve or anticipate internalisation, specifically the factors that contribute to resistance, partial acceptance or internalising of goals, values or principles (Böckle et al., 2018; Chae, Choi and Hur, 2017).

Thirdly, the Causality Orientations Theory confers the trend that individuals position themselves in their environments to control or adjust behaviour in several ways. Hence, it evaluates three types of causality orientations:

- i. The autonomy orientation where an individual act out of interest, valuing the situation;
- ii. The control orientation where the emphasis is placed on rewards, improvements and support; and
- iii. The impersonal orientation, which is based on an individual's concern for his/her capability (Böckle et al., 2018; Chae, Choi and Hur, 2017).

Fourth is the Basic Psychological Needs Theory, which converses the notion of progressed psychological needs and their relationship to mental well-being. It claims that enough optimal psychological well-being is established on autonomy, competence, and relatedness. Thus, these needs have a direct impact on well-being. The Basic Psychological Needs Theory takes into consideration that these needs are indispensable and if any are distorted, it would result in distinctive functional costs. Basic needs are global characteristics of functioning. This theory thus discusses cross-development and comparative cultural settings to substantiate and modify behaviour (Böckle et al., 2018; Chae, Choi and Hur, 2017).

The Goal Contents Theory is next, which is founded on the dissimilarities between intrinsic and extrinsic objectives and their effect on motivation and wellness. Here, goals are distinctly related to well-being. Extrinsic goals such as financial achievements, popularity and presence are also compared to intrinsic objectives such as community, personal advancement and relationships, with the former more likely associated with lower wellness and greater ill-being (Böckle et al., 2018; Chae, Choi and Hur, 2017).

In the sixth place, the Relationships Motivation Theory can be found, which is concerned with superior personal relationships such as with close friends and life partners or when belonging to groups. Thus, it postulates that relationships are essential and desirable to adjust and improve an individual's well-being. Relationships therefore satisfy the need for relatedness. In addition to this, researchers found that the need for autonomy and competence is also satisfied through close relationships, especially where romantic partners support the autonomy, competence and relatedness needs of each other (Deci and Ryan, 2014).

It is also noted that the principle of the self-determination theory is based on the fact that all individuals have common psychological needs and respond alike when encountering similar conditions in their environments (Andrews, 2016). Hence people need to perceive themselves as independent and capable beings, enjoying satisfying relationships.

The researcher will now motivate why the self-determination theory is the most suitable theory for the public sector.

6.6 THE SELF-DETERMINATION THEORY IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR

The self-determination theory is of considerable significance in relation to public service employee motivation. To explain this, it can be said that the happiness component which

emphasises meaning and purpose demonstrates why tasks in the public sector have the probability of endorsing employees' identification with hidden work values (e.g., incorruptibility) and aligning them with personal principles. These principles or values are also referred to as public values (Jorgensen and Bozeman, 2007) and have been defined as "the ideals, coined as principles, to be a direction to the behaviour of public servants" (Andersen et al., 2013: 294). It is therefore crucial to consider altruism-focused tactics to explain motivation in the public sector, as numerous tasks are aimed at helping and supporting citizens. There are two types of helping behaviour – proactive and reactive actions – the first implies assisting others through self-interest and opportunities and the second implies acting out of love (Spitzmueller and Van Dyne, 2013). Hence pro-social motivation is a desire to help others and is more altruistic. Public service motivation is based on the concept of reactive helping behaviour (Koehler and Rainey, 2008), which is highly applicable to the public sector (Ritz, Neumann and Vandenabeele, 2016). Pro-social motivation and public service motivation are both considered as types of intrinsic motivation (Houston, 2011). The self-determination theory also suggests that extrinsic motivation includes natural abilities as independence increases (Koehler and Rainey, 2008). In terms of the self-determination theory, public service motivation therefore encompasses extrinsic motivation based on integrated regulation as the "reference object of public service motives is external" (Ritz, Neumann and Vandenabeele, 2016: 7). To clarify this, it can be stated that some public services are aimed at service delivery to citizens who also benefit from these services, therefore people motivated by public services accept the official public principles and join them with their beliefs and character (Ritz, Neumann and Vandenabeele, 2016).

To expand further, Lipsky (1980) also found, when setting specific performance targets in the public sector, public servants focused on the current action being assessed, rather than on the overall goals, which resulted in negligence of other significant but non-measurable objectives (Andrews, 2016). Hence intangible elements such as respect, solving problems and co-operation commonly influence the intangible aspects of performance in the public sector. Andrews (2016: 244) also found that promoting "self-motivation, pro-social behaviour and socialization within public service values" has a more

significant influence on motivation than setting targets in the public sector. Paarlberg, Perry, and Hondeghem (2008) believed that civil servants should, through empowerment and participatory decision-making, self-manage their work to increase their motivation. By managing themselves via internal values, their ability to adapt to change and innovation will thus be improved. This advice is supported in self-determination theory arguments regarding the psychological desires for independence and competency. An environment which supports cooperative interpersonal relationships in the workplace should therefore be encouraged, as this will enable individuals to satisfy their need for relatedness (Andrews, 2016).

In fact, municipalities habitually endeavour to achieve several objectives, which may be difficult to articulate (Dixit, 2002; Dur and Zoutenbier, 2015). The size and ambiguity of the targets are thus aligned to the performance assessments of employees. In addition to this, the performance system is infrequent, weak, without incentives and absent in some cases (Burgess and Metcalfe, 1999), thus the performance of public sector employees was found to depend on intrinsic motivation rather than on extrinsic incentives (Dur and Zoutenbier, 2015).

As a result of this, in a service industry such as municipalities, self-determination theory will enhance employee motivation and commitment and increase customer service quality (Mohsan et al., 2015). Moreover, motivated employees will contribute positively to goal achievement, while a demotivated employee may not only perform poorly but can act in such a manner that the goals and objectives could be ruined. This clearly emphasises the importance of employees' satisfaction in an organisation (Abbah, 2014). Perry and Vandenabeele (2015: 697) also agreed that self-determination theory was required “as a basis for understanding the dynamics associated with public service motivation”.

A summary and conclusion will now be presented.

6.7 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In this chapter the concept of employee motivation in the public sector was discussed from a theoretical perspective. Empirical research provided insights on the background and consequences of public service motivation and marked the reality of a whole concept of motivation. This is grounded in theory and connected to employees' behaviour, needs, principles, the society and public organisations context.

Public sector motivation was subsequently discussed in this chapter and the researcher then proceeded towards discussion of various theories of motivation. The researcher then ventured into an analysis of the self-determination theory and finally emphasised the suitability of the self-determination theory in the public sector.

In the next chapter, employee citizenship behaviour will be discussed.

LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER 7

EMPLOYEE CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR



7.1 INTRODUCTION

Employee citizenship behaviour is also known as organisational citizenship behaviour, organisational behaviour, or citizenship behaviour (Schuck, 2014). For the purposes of this study the researcher will, however, refer to employee citizenship behaviour. Employee citizenship behaviour defines how employee behaviour in a social working environment may positively influence employee performance and success.

In this chapter the researcher will draw from the literature on organisational behaviour and subsequently introduce the construct of employee citizenship behaviour. This will be followed by a historical overview of the construct as provided, as well as a discussion of the theories or dimensions of employee citizen behaviour, the benefits of employee citizen behaviour, employee citizen behaviour in the public sector and how to encourage employee citizen behaviour in the workplace. The chapter will end with a summary and conclusion.

7.2 EMPLOYEE CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR – THE CONCEPT

Kumar and Shah (2015) stated that Dennis Organ could be seen as the father of employee citizenship behaviour. Organ expanded on the work of Barnard (1938) who investigated the willingness to co-operate. Katz (1964) further identified three types of behaviour essential for a smooth-running organisation, namely: (i) employees must be trained to enter and remain part of the structure; (ii) employees must execute specific tasks in a reliable and consistent manner; and (iii) employees must be innovative and spontaneous to enable extra-role behaviour. Over the past two decades, awareness in employee behaviour that generally fits the definition of employee citizen behaviour has increased intensely (Podsakoff et al., 2000). As employee citizen behaviour is optional, it is strongly influenced by character and attitudes rather than by skills, knowledge or training (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Smith, Organ and Near (1983) initially presented employee citizen behaviour to define a category of employee behaviour in some employees who were not officially rewarded although they went beyond what was expected of them, for example individuals who demonstrated spontaneous and prosocial gestures in assisting others at work. These were not the only researchers who identified extra-role behaviour as a vital dimension of employee citizen behaviour, as numerous other researchers (Asiedu, Sarfo and Adjei, 2014; Pitt-Catsouphe, Kossek and Sweet, 2006; Robb, 2011) made similar findings. Organ (1997) also defined employee citizen behaviour much along the lines of the notion of Borman and Motowidlo (1993: 95) of contextual performance as "performance that

supports the social and psychological environment in which task performance takes place." From these definitions, it is evident that employee citizen behaviour necessitates that employees go beyond and above their call of duty and that employee citizen behaviour is optional behaviour performed by choice, and which is not part of daily responsibilities. This positively impacts on organisational effectiveness (Kumar and Shah, 2015).

7.3 AN HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF EMPLOYEE CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Employee citizen behaviour has undergone several changes over the past years. During 1930 to 1939 in the human relations era (Judge et al., 2001) concepts associated with employee citizen behaviour arose from the satisfaction productivity quarrel (Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 2006). Hoppock (1935) defined satisfaction as a grouping of social and psychological conditions at work that resulted in positive feelings towards work and the organisation. It was generally accepted during this time that employee satisfaction positively affected employee performance.

It was then assumed that employee satisfaction influenced productivity (Organ, Podsakoff and Scott, 2005), although research found hardly any basis for this postulation. It was only in the earlier twentieth century that the Hawthorne studies highlighted the socio-psychological facets of human behaviour in organisations (Muldoon, 2012). These studies proved that employees do not only work for money, but that other factors also influence employee performance.

The First World War (1914-1918) caused significant damage to the political and economic stability in Europe and mainly in Germany. After that, the Second World War (1939-1945) caused even further considerable damage as it involved more than thirty countries producing more than eighty million military and civilian deaths (Ocampo et al., 2018). During these times, no articles related to employee citizen behaviour were published.

In the 1950s, Herzberg et al. (1959) highlighted that more research needed to be done to understand employees' attitudes toward their work, especially at the time of extensive slowdowns, protests and strikes. Researchers therefore focused on individuals' job satisfaction as they believed that there was a direct relationship between satisfaction and organisational competence (Ocampo et al., 2018).

March and Simon (1958) presented the inducements–contributions model, which illustrated a mutual exchange among employees' contributions and incentives given by organisations. According to them, employees were more satisfied when they received more substantial rewards for their contributions. Organisations believe, however, that incentives can only be given to employees where they perform exceptionally. The model would in due course turn out to be the foundation of the interpretation of employer–organisation relationships (Coyle-Shapiro, 2002).

In 1950, Festinger presented a group cohesion theory on the basis of which group members show greater willingness to help and support co-workers (Festinger, 1950). Gross (1954) found that employees in well-integrated groups were more positive. Schacter et al. (1951) noted that positive, cooperative relationships in groups increased support amongst employees. The notion of group cohesion became one of the most noteworthy variables linked to employee citizen behaviour (Aoyagi, Cox and McGuire, 2005; Beal et al., 2004; Chen, Tang, and Wang, 2009; Ehrhart, Bliese, and Thomas, 2009). During this era, researchers also investigated the relationship between work attitudes and performance. Some researchers found that performance was positively related to the degree of pride that employees felt toward their organisation (Seashore, 1954; Whyte, 1961). Viteles (1953) postulated that employee motivation had a positive influence on employees' performance and morale.

Ensuing from that, Brayfield and Crockett (1955) published a noteworthy article on the satisfaction–performance relationship and said these elements showed a very weak or no relationship at all. According to the two-factor theory of Herzberg et al. (1959), two sets of factors influence job fulfilment and dissatisfaction. They believed that when

employees' needs are fulfilled, their performances increase. After that, researchers moved to focus on the relationship between job attitudes and optional behaviour of employees (Ocampo et al., 2018).

In the 1960s the field of organisational behaviour became more popular. Real (1962) confirmed that researchers started to explore several facets of relationships between superiors and subordinates. Because of this, researchers attempted to categorise behaviour and its sources, including attitudes and voluntary action. During this period, Katz (1964) also indicated that employees should have the opportunity to be spontaneous and innovative. Aside from this, Katz and Kahn (1966) stated that excellence in organisations depended very much on discretionary behaviour of employees.

McGregor (1960) and Bass (1965) found that employees' work environment and experience influenced organisational performance. Likert (1961) also postulated that when organisations directed their attention towards satisfying socio-emotional and physical needs of employees, productivity and performance would increase. Maier, Hoffman and Read (1963) stated that employer–employee relations directly influenced how employees communicated work-related issues and Yildirim (2014) also said that employees' communication with their superiors significantly affects employee citizen behaviour.

The Social Exchange Theory (SET) of Blau (1964) became the most common theoretical framework used in the study of employee citizen behaviour. Blau (1964) noted that organisations did not use economic (tangible and financial) and social (socio-emotional) aspects as the only incentives. He stated that employees are motivated through extrinsic and intrinsic elements that drive them to go beyond their formal task requirements.

During the 1970s inflation climbed sharply and overseas rivalry increased tremendously. This caused an escalation in unemployment and uncertainty and a decrease in motivation and performance (Parry and Tyson, 2013). Eby et al. (2015) also reported that during this time, researchers investigated the influence of employee citizen behaviour on a positive

and dynamic workplace for employees. Kegan and Rubenstein (1973) postulated that a positive social work environment enhanced employee creativity, communication and performance (Kegan, 1971). Chan and Lai (2017) confirmed that communication was a robust predictor of employee citizen behaviour. Other studies further proved that trust was critical to communication and they examined the relationship between trust and culture, leadership behaviour, characteristics of leaders and managers as well as leadership traits (Jones, James, and Bruni, 1975; Lind and Tyler, 1988). Wong, Ngo and Wong (2006) and Singh and Srivastava (2009) proved that trust influences employee citizen behaviour.

Batson et al. (1991) also corroborated the role of prosocial behaviour in the 1970s. Researchers focused mainly on examining of factors that led to employee citizen behaviour (Benson, Karabenick and Lerner, 1976; Berkowitz, 1987; Bull and Stevens, 1980; Darley and Latane, 1968; Harris and Bays, 1973; Latane and Darley, 1970; Macaulay and Berkowitz, 1970; Petty et al., 1977). On this basis, Dion et al. (1972) and Juhnke et al. (2001) assumed that employee citizen behaviour was guided by motivations, social humiliation and opportunities and perceived social settings. Staub (2013) also gathered that the idea of prosocial behaviour originated from helping behaviour shown by employees to individuals who depended on them in the attainment of their goals. This was later directly connected to employee citizen behaviour (Davila and Finkelstein, 2011).

During the 1970s, employee commitment was associated with workplace behaviour. Hrebiniak and Alutto (1972) and Buchanan (1974) believed that organisational commitment denotes to the level of employee commitment. Schein (1970) and Steers (1977) noted that employees with a high level of commitment would perform better. Hassani and Boroujerdi (2013) subsequently determined that employee commitment was significantly related to employee citizen behaviour.

Organ (1977) re-evaluated and examined the relationship between satisfaction and performance. Following that, Jha and Jha (2010) noted that this encouraged researchers to attempt to understand why employees casually go and act beyond their duties. Organ (1977) therefore recommended the use of the name employee citizen behaviour to define

this type of behaviour. It was consequently linked to job satisfaction, which turned into the prime indicator of employee citizen behaviour (Smith, Organ and Near, 1983). Ensuing from this, Organ (1977) used employee citizen behaviour to define employee behaviour in the context of employee performance and job satisfaction. No official definition was, however, formulated all through this time.

The 1980s experienced socio-economic change due to increased economic liberalisation, employee productivity and advances in technology. Farooqui (2012) stated that during this time researchers revealed a fascinating understanding of employee behaviour in an organisational context. On the other hand, Schwab (1980) was of the opinion that the literature focused more on understanding organisational citizenship relatively to other constructs, instead of clarifying what citizenship behaviour really was.

Smith, Organ and Near (1983) noted that citizenship behaviour could not easily be administered or measured, but they indicated that citizenship behaviour contributes to improved performance and alleged that it comprises of altruism and generalised compliance. They further believed that satisfaction directly influenced widespread respect and altruistic behaviour. Graham (1986) identified civic virtue as relevant to achieving objectives.

Basu, Pradhan and Jena (2015) related employee citizen behaviour to several organisational performance dimensions. Before this, Organ (1988) defined employee citizen behaviour as individual, voluntary actions, not in search of rewards, but for the greater good of the organisation. He highlighted that these contributions positively influenced performance. Resulting from this, Organ (1988) identified five dimensions of employee citizen behaviour, which became central to other future dimensions: altruism, conscientiousness, courtesy, civic virtue and sportsmanship.

Henceforth, more than thirty additional forms of employee citizen behaviour were identified by researchers (Podsakoff et al., 2000). In addition, several other concepts were developed which coincided with employee citizen behaviour, such as prosocial

organisational behaviour (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986; George, 1990; George, 1991; George and Bettenhausen, 1990), organisational spontaneity (George and Brief, 1992; George and Jones, 1997), extra-role behaviour (Van Dyne, Cummings and Parks, 1995), voice behaviour (LePine and Van Dyne, 1998; Van Dyne and Lepine, 1998; Van Dyne, Ang and Botero, 2003) and contextual performance (Borman and Motowidlo, 1993; Orazi, Turrini and Valotti, 2013).

7.4 DIMENSIONS OF EMPLOYEE CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Although several models were developed, it was found that five dimensions have been used very often in various employee citizen behaviour models (Kumar and Shah, 2015; LePine, Erez and Johnson, 2002; Mohammadi, Kiumarsi and Hashemi, 2016). These are altruism, courtesy, civic virtue, sportsmanship and conscientiousness, which were identified in the studies of Organ (1988). Although other studies considered specific employee citizen behaviour elements in isolation, this study generally acknowledged the standard concept of employee citizen behaviour and focused on understanding essential dimensions in the public sector.

Van Dyne et al. (1994) introduced a latent model, where every dimension would be an expression of employee citizen behaviour. Measures of the dimensions included some variances reflecting employee citizen behaviour, other methodical variations not associated with employee citizen behaviour and error variance (LePine, Erez and Johnson, 2002; Lucey, 2017). This resulted in a causal arrow flowing from employee citizen behaviour to the dimensions in this model. Employee citizen behaviour would thus be a hidden variable that to a degree would influence these dimensions (Van Dyne, Graham and Dienesch, 1994).

Morrison (1994) also introduced an alternate employee citizen behaviour framework. In her model, the altruism dimension integrated with the altruism and courtesy dimensions of Organ (1988). The conscientiousness dimension is a bit narrower than Organ's dimensions. She included sportsmanship and involvement dimensions, where the latter

included components of Organ's sportsmanship and civic virtue dimensions. This dimension, in keeping with the changes, also overlapped with Organ's civic virtue and conscientiousness dimensions (Argentero, Cortese and Ferretti, 2008).

Van Scotter and Motowidlo (1996) used two dimensions of contextual performance: interpersonal facilitation, which overlapped with the altruism and courtesy dimensions of Organ's (1988) and Morrison's (1994) altruism dimension, the social participation dimension and the job dedication dimension of Van Dyne et al. (1994). It also included some elements of Organ's sportsmanship, civic virtue and conscientiousness dimensions. Furthermore, job dedication in this model contained items relating to persistence in completing one's job or task, which was similar to the functional participation of Van Dyne et al. (1994) and Coleman and Borman's (2000) job-task citizenship performance.

Podsakoff et al. (2000) was amongst the primary researchers to operationalise the five dimensions of Organ (1988) and after that, these dimensions were researched in various studies (Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 2006; Podsakoff et al., 2009; Podsakoff et al., 2000; LePine, Erez and Johnson, 2002). These dimensions have been used very often in various employee citizen behaviour models (Kumar and Shah, 2015; Lucey, 2017; LePine, Erez and Johnson, 2002; Mohammadi, Kiumarsi and Hashemi, 2016). The following is a discussion of these dimensions.

To begin with, altruism is based on helping behaviour, within or outside the organisation. Snyder (2002) defined altruism as a form of motivation for one organism, benefiting another, whereas Nowak and Sigmund (2005) stated that altruism is a kind and passionate behaviour and not motivation. Piliavin and Charng (1990) also noted that altruism focuses on deeds motivated out of a selfless concern for others. Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (2006) indicated that there was no direct connection, nor a solitary affiliation, amid each case of helping behaviour. There was also not a clear advantage for the organisation, but in time, the total of employees' helping behaviour was

valuable for the organisation. Altruism is therefore aimed at improving the welfare of co-workers (Lucey, 2017; Mohammadi, Kiumarsi, and Hashemi, 2016).

Courtesy, as the next dimension, has been defined as optional behaviour that purposefully prevents work-related clashes with other employees (Law, Wong, and Chen, 2005). Mohammadi, Kiumarsi and Hashemi (2016) described courtesy as a process where an employee consults with co-workers before making conclusions, providing information and notices to ensure that they have enough time to prepare or act accordingly. It is therefore seen as helping behaviour that prevents problems from mushrooming and that includes politeness and consideration for co-workers (Lucey, 2017; Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 2006).

- i. **Civic virtue** includes behaviour of employees that show grave concern and lively interest and a positive involvement in the organisation (Kumar and Shah, 2015; Law, Wong, and Chen, 2005; Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 2006). Civic virtue includes attending meetings and gathering information which may grow and improve the organisation and increase the performance (Lucey, 2017; Mohammadi, Kiumarsi and Hashemi, 2016).
- ii. **Conscientiousness** embraces adhering to rules/standards/norms and it shows the reliability and dependability of the employee in the organisation (Kumar and Shah, 2015). It also contains compliance behaviour and employees going beyond minimum requirements in the execution of their duties (Bambale, Shamsudin, and Subramaniam, 2011; Lucey, 2017).
- iii. **Sportsmanship** is seen as willingness of employees. It indicates their tolerance for inadequate organisational conditions, not complaining or exaggerating problems (Kumar and Shah, 2015). Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (2006) described sportsmanship as an employee's ability to handle pressure due to change, even if not approving of the changes within the organisation. It also includes refraining from

reporting small, insignificant matters (Bambale, Shamsudin, and Subramaniam, 2011; Lucey, 2017; Mohammadi, Kiumarsi and Hashemi, 2016).

Other behavioural frameworks have not been used as frequently. Although there were numerous studies, there was less reliability regarding the specific behaviour researched. Contextual performance academics for instance commonly adopted a job analytic approach to detect and measure job-relevant behaviour and consequently they were inclined to utilise tools that measured specific contextual behaviour identified by specialists contributing to performance. The contextual behaviour thus studied and the mechanisms which were used to measure behaviour might have been more peculiar than in the case of studies framed in terms of employee citizen behaviour (Argentero, Cortese and Ferretti, 2008).

However, Lülfs and Hahn (2013) recently presented a more complex model, which differentiates between (i) distant predictors, like organisational framework and awareness of needs, consequences and social norms, and (ii) direct motivational elements, like alleged behavioural control, individual ethical standards and attitudes toward citizenship behaviour. In this model, customary procedures act as mediators between intents and activities grounded on voluntary pro-environmental conduct. Although this study assisted in elucidating on the role of employee citizen behaviour through conceptual models, this model also remained theoretical and has not been empirically authenticated (Boiral, Talbot and Paillé, 2015).

Although employee citizen behaviour research has continued for nearly twenty years, there is still uncertainty relating to the definition of employee citizen behaviour and how employee citizen behaviour should be measured (LePine, Erez and Johnson, 2002). Researchers recommended that extra efforts be made to gain a better understanding of how employee citizen behaviour must be adopted in organisations (Chen and Jin, 2014; Perreira and Berta, 2015). Because of this, even though many measures have been used to assess employee citizen behaviour dimensions in the course of time, the scale developed by Podsakoff et al. (1990) is one of the most quoted scales in the research

undertaken in a western context. It displays adequate psychometric properties, which makes it the most suitable model and measure to use for the present study (Kumar and Shah, 2015; Podsakoff et al., 2000; Podsakoff et al., 2009; Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1994).

7.5 EMPLOYEE CITIZENSHIP IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR

It was found that employee citizen behaviour was researched more extensively in the private sector than in the public sector (Glińska-Neweś and Szostek, 2018; Sharma, 2011).

The relevant question is, however, whether employee citizen behaviour levels are higher in the public sector than in the private sector. In response to this, research has shown that employee citizen behaviour in public sector organisations is more evident due to the relevance of widespread citizenship in government and has a secure connection to public service motivation (PSM) (Ingrams, 2018; Vigoda-Gadot and Beerli, 2012). In public service, employees also have a robust sense of community duty, being motivated to give to the greater good of humanity. Studies showed that high levels of employee citizen behaviour were measured in the public sector (Christensen and Whiting, 2009; Kim, 2006).

Employee citizen behaviour is a socio-political construct and Cohen and Vigoda (2000: 600) stated that “work and politics are similar institutions, so experience in one domain can spill over to the other.” It has also been found that Public Service Motivation (PSM) increases employee citizen behaviour (Gould-Williams, Mostafa, and Bottomley, 2013; Kim, 2006). Employees in the private sector with high levels of PSM may therefore be inclined to express an interest to rather work in the public sector (Steijn, 2008).

Professionally, public service motivation often is seen in actions intended to advance the organisation and care for colleagues in ways that are not officially expected (Gould-Williams, Mostafa and Bottomley, 2013). Commitment and satisfaction at work also have

a positive influence on employee citizen behaviour in the public sector (Bottomley et al., 2016; Gould-Williams, Mostafa and Bottomley, 2013; Kim, 2006; Liu and Perry, 2016). Liu et al. (2015) also found that public service motivation had a positive effect on employee citizen behaviour. However, motivation does not explain differences in employee citizen behaviour levels in the public and private sectors (Ingrams, 2018).

Past research established that leaders in the private and public sectors could improve employee citizen behaviour levels by enhancing attitudes of employees and by incentivising employees (Ingrams, 2018). The benefits of employee citizen behaviour are discussed below.

7.6 BENEFITS OF EMPLOYEE CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Theories of employee citizen behaviour have shown that employee citizen behaviour contains behaviour such as extra responsibilities, going the extra mile, loyalty, positive attitudes and evading work-related dissatisfaction (Singh and Mishra, 2017) and that it boosts the wellbeing of employees. It is also behaviour that is optional, with no rewards attached to it, and it is not necessarily documented, but it stimulates superior employee performance (Singh and Mishra, 2017).

Added to this, employee citizen behaviour improves customer satisfaction levels, the quality and quantity of service delivery, sales, customer complaints and income generation (Öztürk, 2010). Aside from this, employee citizen behaviour improves employees' efficiency and use of resources and therefore results in cost savings. It further enhances the synergy of activities across employees, teams and departments, resulting in a competitive advantage gained through efficient change management, adaptability and innovativeness (Ertürk, Yilmaz and Ceylan, 2004; Mohammadi, Kiumarsi and Hashemi, 2016).

Organ (1988) further found that employee citizen behaviour had a positive influence on employee and organisational performance, employee wellbeing and job satisfaction. The

effects on employee performance are three-fold. Firstly, employees who engage in employee citizen behaviour receive higher performance scores (Podsakoff, Whiting and Podsakoff, 2009). This also contributes positively to employee commitment due to the voluntary behaviour of employees (Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 2006). Secondly, improved performance ratings result in rewards (Podsakoff, Whiting and Podsakoff, 2009), for example salary increases, bonuses or other non-financial benefits. Thirdly, high-performing employees will have a lower chance of being retrenched when the organisation decides to down-size (Organ, Podsakoff, and MacKenzie, 2006). employee citizen behaviour is also connected to lower turnover and absenteeism rates and has thus been found to increase efficiency, productivity, service delivery and customer satisfaction as well as reduced costs (Podsakoff, Whiting and Podsakoff, 2009). Organ et al. (2006) further stated that employee citizen behaviour could enhance productivity, free up resources, entice and retain good employees, improve communication and networks and enable truthful information sharing.

Contradictory to this, Bolino et al. (2015) found, however, that employee citizen behaviour could result in exhaustion and strain which might arise from internal factors, which could weaken or stop the will and ability of an employee to participate in employee citizen behaviour. Employee citizen behaviour may also create stress related to justice and effectiveness as the extra responsibilities would increase outputs and expectations, thus causing feelings of exhaustion. It is therefore critical to ensure that teams portray similar behaviour in order to manage individual citizen fatigue (Bolino et al., 2015). Hence, to stimulate increased performance and commitment for employees to go the extra mile, leaders need to encourage employee citizen behaviour in the workplace. This is discussed below.

7.7 HOW TO ENCOURAGE EMPLOYEE CITIZEN BEHAVIOUR IN THE WORKPLACE

Employee citizen behaviour is considered as a useful tool to improve profits and to reduce costs, absenteeism and employee turnover rates, due to the influence that employee

citizen behaviour has on employee productivity and proficiency. Simultaneously, employee citizen behaviour improves employee performance, welfare and the social environment at work (Zhang, 2011).

Employees usually lack in spotting the association between employee citizen behaviour and the rewards gained through citizenship behaviour as recognised by leaders at work (particularly altruistic and courtesy-related behaviour). They do not realise that employees who engage in employee citizen behaviour usually receive higher performance ratings from leaders and that it is linked to increased rewards and recognition (Organ, 1997). Leaders perceive employees who engage in employee citizen behaviour more favourable as they believe that these employees play a more significant role in the overall performance of the organisation due to their voluntary nature (Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 2006).

Employee citizen behaviour can be boosted through improved employee motivation and relationships at work. It can also be enhanced by implementing a social working environment that encourages employees to adopt and exercise employee citizen behaviour at work. Some group standards can asphyxiate employee creativity and spontaneity, a fact that may have a negative effect on employee citizen behaviour. Leaders can however encourage employees to socialise more at work, for example to attend office functions and to join in social interaction such as birthday lunches (Zhang, 2011).

Leaders should train and educate lower management to create awareness of employee citizen behaviour, which would for instance result in management including employee citizen behaviour in performance appraisals or even generating an informal reward process that can enhance employee citizen behaviour (Zhang, 2011).

Although the role of personality in employee citizen behaviour may be minor, a focused, outgoing, enthusiastic employee who is highly motivated, positive and has an 'I can do it' attitude will be more inclined to contribute and participate in employee citizen behaviour.

When hiring employees, leaders can by means of psychometric testing attempt to identify the traits of employee citizen behaviour. Such employees would then help change and motivate the behaviour of others to demonstrate employee citizen behaviour at work (Zhang, 2011).

When leaders implement employee citizen behaviour initiatives at work, employee motivation, retention, dedication and performance would increase, which would improve organisational performance.

This chapter will now be summarised and concluded.

7.8 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

This chapter commenced with an introduction to employee citizen behaviour. Following that, the construct of employee citizen behaviour was discussed. The researcher then ventured into a historical overview of employee citizen behaviour and after that presented some theories and dimensions of employee citizen behaviour. The researcher then elaborated on employee citizen behaviour in the public sector and continued to discuss the benefits of employee citizen behaviour. It was said that employee citizen behaviour could also improve organisational effectiveness by allowing employees to create innovation, manage resource transformation and maximize adaptability (Lucey, 2017: 76). Employee citizen behaviour could also enhance organisational health, both at the organisational level and at the intra-personal level between employees and may improve employee performance (Perreira and Berta, 2015). As employee citizen behaviour is beneficial to organisations, it is reasonable for leaders to consider ways to encourage employee citizen behaviour among their employees.

In Chapter 8, the conceptual model and the development of the hypotheses will be discussed.

CHAPTER 8

CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND DEVELOPMENT OF HYPOTHESES

8.1 INTRODUCTION

As explained in Chapter 1, the aim of the study was firstly to explore by means of the literature how leadership competencies relate to individual-level variables (i.e. employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, motivation and employee citizenship behaviour) and how these may influence employee performance in the metropolitan municipalities in South Africa; secondly to develop a theoretical model depicting the interrelationships amongst these individual-level variables (independent variables) and their relationship to employee performance (dependent variable); and thirdly to evaluate the predictive ability of the structural model by means of empirical data against the theoretical model.

In this chapter the researcher provides a graphic representation of the conceptual model (see Figure 5) and discusses the development of the hypotheses as proposed for this study. The development of hypotheses and proposed conceptual model are based on relevant models and theories, as well as on previous research.

8.2 THE PROPOSED CONCEPTUAL MODEL

Robinson et al. (2015: 2814) defined a conceptual model as a “concise and precise consolidation of all goal-relevant structural and behavioural features of the system under investigation presented in a predefined format”. It forms the basis of the proposed hypothesised relationships between the research variables. The model is also an analytical tool which illustrates hypothesised relationships between various variables and contexts and clearly identifies the goals of the study. It therefore guides the study through a graphic illustration of theoretical constructs and variables of interest (Robinson et al.,

2015). In addition to this, Regoniel (2015) defined a conceptual framework as the way in which a researcher understands the links between the variables in a study, viewing it as a map to continue with an investigation into these variables. Hence, the model provides an overview of the proposed theoretical relationships (as investigated in the present study), based on previous literature and/or empirical evidence.

Before the development of the hypotheses is discussed, a graphic representation of the proposed conceptual model, based on the proposed hypotheses, is provided in Figure 5.

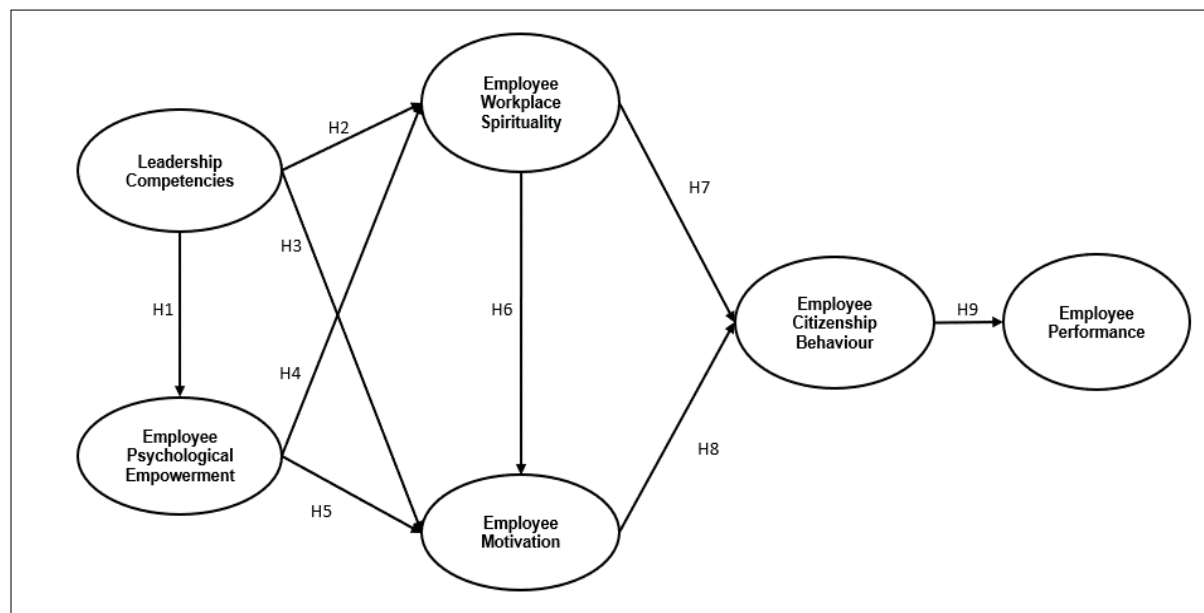


Figure 5: Proposed conceptual model

Source: Researcher's proposed conceptual model

8.3 DEVELOPMENT OF THE HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses of a research study are defined as a tentative, testable statement that suggests a probable reason for some phenomenon or event and may include a prediction. It is created by a researcher or researchers who speculate about the results of an experiment or a study. It can be generated via several means, but is generally the result

of a method of inductive reasoning where findings lead to the development of a theory (Mourougan and Sethuraman, 2017).

8.3.1 The relationship between leadership competencies and employee psychological empowerment

Numerous researchers (Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Kanter, 1979; Kanter, 1983; McClelland, 1975) found that leadership competencies, when applied in an organisation, were critical to enable the leader to empower employees. Regarding empowerment, academics have distinguished between two main views on employee empowerment, and these are: structural and psychological approaches. A structural approach entails empowerment of management processes by delegating decision-making powers to subordinates (Heller, 1998; Heller et al., 1998), improved access to resources and information (Bowen and Lawler, 1992; Rothstein, 1995), and the power to act independently (Mills and Ungson, 2003).

Psychological empowerment is, however, based on intrinsic task motivation formed by basic circumstances of employees' tasks, which results in motivation and fulfilment (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). It also refers to several psychological conditions that make it possible for employees to feel in control at work and deals with the way in which employees experience their work (Spreitzer, 1995). Psychological empowerment further refers to "empowerment as the personal beliefs that employees have about their role in relation to the organization" (Spreitzer, 1995: 56). Moreover, to develop psychological empowerment, the following dimensions must be present: Firstly, there should be a sense of meaning, which balances the needs of individuals' work roles, their principles, morals, and behaviours (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). These dimensions cause a sense of purpose or individual association to work (Stander and Rothmann, 2010). Secondly, there should be competence, which is the degree to which individuals can perform their duties effectively and efficiently (Gist, 1987). Thirdly, there should be self-determination, which is the ability to kick-start and control one's actions (Deci, Cornell and Ryan, 1989), in order to have a free choice without external pressure. And lastly, there must be impact,

which demonstrates the degree to which an individual can influence strategic, administrative or operating objectives (Ashforth, 1989).

Van Wyk (2007) found that high-performance leadership competencies resulted in employee empowerment and considerably superior employee performance by their effect on specific performance indicators. She noted that high-performance leadership competencies would enable self-directed learning that would, in turn, provide leaders with the ability to empower employees, creating high employee performance (Van Wyk, 2007). The BC Public Agency (2014) listed six core strategic leadership competencies, namely: the ability to build strategic alliances; to create a shared vision and to set cohesive goals; to create and manage change; to solve problems, and experience executive presence, where all these would result in empowered employees.

Schroder and Clemens (1997) subsequently constructed a model of high-performance leadership competencies which comprised of:

- i. Cognitive (thinking) competencies, information search and concept formation, as well as conceptual complexity, which include strategy design and formation. From this, leaders can create meaning at work for employees by sharing the vision, mission and objectives of the organisation with them. The sharing of the mission, objectives and strategy of the organisation helps employees to understand how their contributions influence overall organisational successes and create meaning to their roles and the impact of this on achieving strategic objectives. Subsequently, it enhances the employee psychological empowerment (Martina, 2014).

Likewise, by enhancing employees' learning capabilities, leaders can ensure that they have appropriate skills to execute their duties. As a result, employees may feel supported, acquire the applicable knowledge and improve themselves, thus becoming more competent at work. Employee empowerment can also be enhanced through leaders' conceptual abilities. By involving employees in problem-solving scenarios and decision making, employees can identify solutions and experience the impact of their

contributions. When employees feel that they have more control over their work, their sense of competence and meaning will increase, resulting in feeling more psychologically empowered (Berberick, Lindsay and Fritchen, 2017; Folkman, 2017).

- ii. Capabilities comprising of interpersonal learning, understanding of how other people feel and think, and cross-boundary learning. These capabilities further include group interaction, understanding team dynamics and development, and development of employees. By generating an environment where employees are challenged to gather information, create ideas, take calculated risks (Schroder, 1983; Van Wyk, 2007), and have learning opportunities to develop new skills, where employees' competencies are enhanced. When employees feel more knowledgeable and competent in the execution of their duties, they feel more psychologically empowered. Competence is seen as the degree to which individuals can perform their duties effectively and efficiently (Gist, 1987). Research showed that when employees feel competent and confident, they are more motivated and perform better (Spreitzer, 1995; Stander and Rothmann, 2010). Employees feel more valued when leaders invest in their growth and abilities and they are then more self-determined (and therefore psychologically empowered) to perform exceptionally (Berberick, Lindsay and Fritchen, 2017; Folkman, 2017).
- iii. Inspirational competencies comprise of purpose building where the leader builds committed teams. This stimulates the creation of innovative ideas with shared purposes to accomplish strategic objectives. It also creates confidence in teams where members value the input of all team members, resulting in a culture of sharing and success (Schroder, 1983; Van Wyk, 2007). By inspiring teamwork, employees do not only participate, but become team leaders (Berberick, Lindsay and Fritchen, 2017; Folkman, 2017). In so doing, self-determination in employees is enabled – the ability to commence and control one's actions (Deci, Cornnell and Ryan, 1989) and the freedom to make choices without external pressure, which subsequently enhance psychological empowerment. By creating common goals with shared purposes, the leader inspires employees to make choices and decisions, creating an empowered, goal-driven, highly responsible and accountable employee force (Spreitzer, 1995).

iv. Achievement competencies comprise of actions where the leader proactively reduces organisational limitations and controls. This makes it possible for employees to effectively take more responsibility and implement innovative ideas relating to objectives and change. Impact, as a dimension of psychological empowerment, which demonstrates the degree to which an individual can influence strategic, administrative or operating objectives (Ashforth, 1989) is stimulated when the leader sets challenging objectives (Schroder, 1983; Van Wyk, 2007). By being flexible and open to new ideas, leaders enable employees to feel empowered (Folkman, 2017). Leaders' visionary thinking, adaptability and purpose-building competencies ensure that a sense of advancement towards goals as well as employees' psychological empowerment is achieved.

Consequently, drawing from the literature and the abovementioned empirical evidence, the study hypothesises that:

H1: There is a statistically significant relationship between leadership competencies and employee psychological empowerment in the three top metropolitan municipalities in South Africa.

The relationship between leadership competencies and employee workplace spirituality will be discussed next.

8.3.2 The relationship between leadership competencies and employee workplace spirituality

One of the ways to achieve a competitive advantage, to sustain profitability and sustainability and to ensure dedicated employees, is by means of employee workplace spirituality, which is a result of leaders' constant focus on guiding, mentoring and supporting employees (Makgoba, 2012).

Spirituality is a feeling of completeness, of relatedness at work, and of strong values (Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson, 2003) which gives individuals a sense of meaning, direction (Ashmos and Duchon, 2000) and an experience beyond self-actualisation (Conger and Kanungo, 1988). Spirituality also creates greater personal awareness and it helps individuals to live and work better and be happier. Likewise, spirituality goes beyond religion and avoids prescribed and ceremonial connotations of religion (Dhiman, 2018). It is thus seen as an inner search of meaning or fulfilment that can be undertaken by anyone, irrespective of their religion.

Employee workplace spirituality can be classified into three areas:

- i. The quest for meaningful and purposeful work;
- ii. The yearning to bond with other people; and
- iii. The need to be part of a community (McLaughlin, 2015).

Leadership competencies such as altruistic conduct, empowerment, modesty, sincere love, cultivating trust, and an enthused, shared vision (Patterson and Stone, 2003; Roberts, 2013), influence employee workplace spirituality as they create a sense of meaning, alignment of values and purpose at work (Barnett, 2018; Burack, 1999; Meng, 2016; Naidoo, 2014; Paul and Saha, 2015). A vision, being an explanation of what a leader would like to achieve in the short-term or in future, is basically a quest for meaning and purpose. It includes goals and objectives and presents a direct link between the ability of a leader to assist employees to create personal goals through a shared vision (Business Dictionary, 2015; CIMA, 2001; Yukl, 2013). As employee workplace spirituality also contains a quest for meaning, purpose and shared goals, it can be argued that leaders have a role to play in matters of employee workplace spirituality (Pradhan and Jena, 2016; Pradhan, Panigrahy and Jena, 2015). As 'meaning makers' (Ulrich, Ulrich and Ulrich, 2011: 1), leaders create sentiment and meaning when discussing their strategy. By creating stories that capture the imagination and desires of employees; the strengths and values of employees are used to generate a link to current objectives, while creating an energetic, sustainable culture (Ulrich, Ulrich and Ulrich, 2011).

A sense of meaning is also enhanced by other leadership competencies, such as building a spiritual organisational culture, appealing to the intrinsic values of employees, and nurturing a sense of belonging amongst them. A spiritual organisational culture recognises that employees have a mind and a spirit and that they seek to find meaning and purpose in their work. Workplace spirituality also includes intrinsic values (spirituality comes from within) and existentialist values (based on a theory that people determine their actions through their own will). Intrinsic values constitute the inner consciousness that drives people to act beyond their programmed values and beliefs. In this regard, competent leaders study employees' emotions, understanding how and why they act the way they do at work. From the knowledge gained by understanding employees' behaviours, these leaders use effective communication techniques to engage employees in shared values. The outline of organisational values creates a sense of belonging amongst followers and assist them to notice their involvement to achieve objectives (Reference for Business, 2016). As strategists, leaders generate a feeling of cohesion and alignment to organisational strategies. Employees will consequently feel part of the team and have a purpose to achieve organisational objectives. In so doing, employees experience a sense of belonging and commitment at work, feeling appreciated and part of the community. Subsequently, it enhances their workplace spirituality (Byrd, 2017; Pradhan, Panigrahy and Jena, 2015).

By means of performance management initiatives, as well as training and development interventions, leaders can assist employees to find the gap to realise their inner sense of calling and destiny. When leaders fill such a gap with suitable training and learning opportunities, employees feel that they add greater value to the organisation and that their contributions have meaning – increasing their workplace spirituality (Byrd, 2017; Pradhan, Panigrahy and Jena, 2015). Therefore, through training and developing employees, recognising excellence and implementing performance management initiatives, work satisfaction and job involvement increase, thus enhancing employee workplace spirituality (Ulrich, Ulrich and Ulrich, 2011).

Employee workplace spirituality is also influenced by ethics, values, work–life balance and leadership elements in an organisation which creates a sense of purpose at work. By applying principle-centred competencies such as willingness to assist; creating a harmonious environment; and maintaining a balance between constant change and external pressures, leaders increase employees' intrinsic motivations and enhance employee workplace spirituality (Meng, 2016). Furthermore, it has been found that when leaders possess a strong sense of spirituality themselves, which affects their attitudes, emotions and behaviours in a positive way, they influence employees to track the growth of spirituality in their personal lives (Reference for Business, 2016). When leaders show appreciation, concern and gratitude and encourage employees, the inner consciousness, which drives them, increases – encouraging them to go beyond what is expected of them (Ulrich, Ulrich and Ulrich, 2011). When leaders fully interact with employees through cognitive, inspirational, learning and achievement competencies, employees can find meaning and purpose in their work, while their workplace spirituality is enhanced (Beehner, 2019).

Drawing from the literature and the above-mentioned empirical evidence, for the purposes of this study it can therefore be hypothesised that:

H2: There is a statistically significant relationship between leadership competencies and employee workplace spirituality in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa.

The following discussion elaborates on the relationship between leadership competencies and employee motivation.

8.3.3 The relationship between leadership competencies and employee motivation

Motivation relates to the progression, force and route of an individual's conduct (Foran, 2015). Ryan and Deci (2000) stated that motivation concerns dynamism, course, persistence and equifinality – which all signify facets of intention and purpose. Motivation

is facilitated by leadership competencies, including the encouragement of autonomy, thus assisting employees to understand that they have choices. Leadership competencies such as effective communication and non-controlling language; and more flexible boundaries, encourage employees to render valuable input and to make choices towards implementing common goals and objectives at work (Fowler, 2018). Kay (2015: 1) is of the opinion that “the level of employee motivation is directly related to the quality of life at work, which is directly associated with leaders’ competencies”.

Herzberg et al. (1957) recognised two types of motivation – intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation originates from within, driven by enjoyment and interest in the work itself. The fulfilment of psychological needs, when associated with employment, will yield intrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, is based on external elements such as rivalry, rewards, advancement, recognition, pressure and punishment (Sesay et al., 2017). Leaders who are able to complement and align employees’ and organisational needs, and who are able to recognise employees’ contributions by means of effective performance management techniques, while showing appreciation, stimulate intrinsic employee motivation (Juneja, 2015). On the other hand, leadership competencies such as creating purpose for employees through people development initiatives that can lead to career advancement; rewarding employees for performance; recognising skills shortages; seeing situations or problems from the view of employees; creating stimulating brainstorming platforms; and communicating on their level, enhance extrinsic employee motivation (Bauer, 2016; Juneja, 2015; Kay, 2015).

Moreover, Naile and Selesho (2014) and Van Wyk (2007) mentioned the importance of the quality of the relationships between leaders and employees in employee motivation. According to Naile and Selesho (2014) relationships of a good quality would create positive, professional, trusting and respectful employee conduct. High-quality relationships also motivate employees to assume similar tactics with their peers, thus adding to enjoyment of work. They also stated that leadership competencies, comprising of creating trust, communicating effectively, inspiring a shared vision, encouraging innovation and creativity, recognising and rewarding employees and implementing

development initiatives, were positively related to employee motivation as these competencies created job satisfaction and enjoyment at work. Van Wyk (2007) proposed that the quality of a leader's relationship with an employee is the most powerful element of employee motivation. When leaders cultivate strong relationships with employees, they can influence employees and motivate them to perform better. Bauer (2016) also stated that through leadership competencies such as interactive communication, empowerment and delegation, employees would be motivated to perform better.

Thus, drawing from the literature and the abovementioned empirical evidence, it is hypothesised in this study that:

H3: There is a statistically significant relationship between leadership competencies and employee motivation in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa.

The following discussion elaborates on the proposed relationship between employee psychological empowerment and employee workplace spirituality.

8.3.4 The relationship between employee psychological empowerment and employee workplace spirituality

Psychological empowerment comprises of the dimensions: "self-determination, meaning, competence and impact" (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1997: 41). This includes the choice and the value of the work for employees, caring for their work and their ability to perform their duties. On the one hand, employee workplace spirituality comprises of meaningful work, a sense of community, alignment of values and commitment at work. When employees are psychologically empowered, they will be able to feel a sense of wholeness and their behaviour will include greater authenticity and energy. Employees consequently experience increased meaning in what they do when doing it for a greater purpose. They also connect to others in a deeper way and often feel more compassionate and joyful in their relationship with others (Chegini and Nezhad, 2012; Jurkiewicz and Giacalone, 2004).

Lowder (2011) stated that an intensified level of employee workplace spirituality includes qualities and features such as trust and respect, common meanings, mutual ideals and principles, a strong feeling of purpose, emphasis on personal spiritual growth, humanistic work practices, and open employee expression enabled by competencies. These qualities and features of workplace spirituality are enhanced by means of a psychologically empowered work force. Empowered employees are allowed to give input and receive feedback from their ideas, to be innovative and creative and to openly express themselves. This stimulates a sense of self-belief and assurance that even if something does not turn out right, leaders would protect employees, thus creating trust. A sense of community and higher levels of job involvement are thus created, leading to enhanced workplace spirituality (Chegini and Nezhad, 2012).

Elmes and Smith (2001) further identified numerous ways in which empowerment was related to employee workplace spirituality. They highlighted that the alignment of individual and shared organisational visions and values empowered employees in the sense that individual visions and values were based on employees' hopes to be successful (Block, 1987). Such an alignment enhances employees' workplace spirituality. For many employees, "work is a calling" (Elmes and Smith, 2001: 37) where employees find their inner spirit, energy and purpose when being of service to others. To serve is to become empowered. Empowerment is aimed at changing individual efforts into business practices where concern for others, improved quality of life, enhanced service delivery and social circumstances for all are addressed, which enhance employee workplace spirituality (Elmes and Smith, 2001).

Covey (1989) also highlighted that employees who felt in charge of their lives, using self-awareness, creativity and integrity to proactively be empowered at work, also experienced an increased sense of meaning and involvement at work. Moreover, Srivastava and Pathak (2016) stated that when employees believed in the organisation, understood the vision, felt appreciated, valued and protected and experienced autonomy, they would be psychologically empowered. This would enhance their sense of community and an

alignment with organisational goals and values, thus contributing to a higher sense of employee workplace spirituality.

Drawing from the literature and the abovementioned empirical evidence, it can therefore be hypothesised that:

H4: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee psychological empowerment and employee workplace spirituality in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa.

The next section will elaborate on the relationship between employee psychological empowerment and employee motivation.

8.3.5 The relationship between employee psychological empowerment and employee motivation

Empowerment and motivation are complex concepts and a better understanding of these concepts assists leaders to harness the effect that they have on employee performance (Agwu, 2015). Empowerment improves employee devotion, innovation, efficiency, fulfilment and motivation and is internal to an individual. Monetary rewards do not necessarily motivate employees, but intrinsic motivators such as recognition and gratitude, meaningful work, being content and flexible at work and a feeling of accomplishment and success are powerful motivators. Empowerment enables increased motivation through these mechanisms (Sarkissian, 2013).

Mullins and Peacock (1991) confirmed a strong, positive relationship between employee empowerment and employee motivation and noted that empowerment was almost the same as motivation. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) defined psychological empowerment as psychological (intrinsic) motivation, highlighting four dimensions: meaning, impact, competence and self-determination. In addition, Liden, Wayne and Sparrowe (2000) stipulated that psychologically empowered employees were highly motivated, that they performed above expectation and were geared towards achieving organisational

objectives. Such employees, through increased ownership, trust, autonomy and authority were found to be more competent and they found meaning in their jobs, which increased their levels of motivation.

Zang and Bartol (2010) indicated that empowerment as a motivational construct formed part of power and control, which are internal to individuals. Thus, individuals are assumed to have a need for power, which implies that people have an internal urge to influence and control others. So, power in a motivational sense refers to a fundamental need for autonomy or a belief in personal self-efficacy. In terms of this conceptualisation, empowerment has its basis within an employee's motivational nature. Any empowerment initiative that supports this self-determination need or self-efficacy belief of employees would increase their motivation (Conger and Kanungo, 1988). In addition, Tutar, Altinoz and Cakiroglu (2011) indicated that employee empowerment was used in the same context as authorising and assigning of responsibilities or transferring of authority. They continued by stating that the focus of employee empowerment was mainly to increase employee motivation and employees' contextual performance. Hence, empowered employees would understand their own abilities and potential and this would affect their motivation positively (Tutar, Altinoz and Cakiroglu, 2011). Sibota (2010) also confirmed a strong relationship between employee empowerment and motivation and stated that empowerment strategies such as delegation, effective communication, respect, authority and sharing in decision making had a positive effect on employee motivation.

Literature also showed the effect of empowerment initiatives like independence, training, recognition and rewards, compensation linked to performance, and participative management to influence employee motivation. These initiatives create meaning, competence, self-determination and impact at work (the degree to which an individual can influence strategic, administrative or operating objectives) and have a positive effect on employee motivation (Grant and Ashford, 2008). It was further found that individuals are more likely to be motivated in their work responsibilities by diverse components of empowering dimensions. Moreover, Nazarian (2018) agreed with Sibota (2010) and

stated that through empowerment initiatives like job autonomy and discretionary authority, employee motivation would increase.

Conger and Kanungo (1988) noted that when employees' empowerment levels were raised, their self-confidence and self-determination to execute tasks would likewise increase. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) expanded on this, noting that empowerment was intrinsic task motivation stemming from meaningful work and understanding it. Further to this, they also highlighted that impact, competence; meaningfulness and self-determination would positively influence intrinsic task motivation. When employees make positive contributions to these four dimensions, they have an increased level of intrinsic motivation and they are empowered (Moldogaziev, 2013).

Therefore, inferring from the literature and the empirical evidence discussed above, it is hypothesised in this study that:

H5: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee psychological empowerment and employee motivation in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa.

In the next section the researcher will elaborate on employee workplace spirituality and the influence thereof on employee motivation as a hypothesis.

8.3.6 The relationship between employee workplace spirituality and employee motivation

Employee workplace spirituality can be defined as recognising that employees have an inner life that sustains and is sustained by meaningful work in a community setting (Charoensukmongkol, Daniel and Chatelain-Jardon, 2015). Initial research on internal motivation indicated a theoretical and experimental link between meaning at work and intrinsic work motivation. Employees who experience meaning at work are more likely to be motivated and as such, researchers proposed by means of the self-determination theory that employees become motivated when they experience independence,

competence and connections at work. Therefore, when they feel that their contributions at work contain meaning and enjoyment and are interesting, they are likely to participate with a sense of choice and spiritual freedom which increases motivation (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Fried, Yitzhak and Ferris, 1987; Hackman and Oldham, 1976; Ryan and Deci, 2006).

Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson (2003) stated that almost all academic definitions recognised that spirituality contains a feeling of wholeness, of belonging at work, and of deeper values. It also includes having a deep sense of meaning and purpose in their work; a deep connection with others; and a strong sense of alignment between personal values and the organisation's mission and purpose. They summarised this by stating that employee workplace spirituality could be defined as "... the acknowledgment that employees have an inner life that nourishes and is nourished by meaningful work that takes place in the context of community" (Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson, 2003: 427). In addition, their study provided empirical support for the proposed relationship between employee workplace spirituality and employee motivation (Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson, 2003).

Moreover, Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson (2003) stated that a deep sense of meaning and purpose, as a dimension of spirituality, demonstrated how employees act on a daily basis and how through intrinsic motivation they increase meaning to their lives and the lives of others. They also stipulated that through a sense of community, based on employee interactions and the sense of belonging to a group, employees tended to be more motivated to work together to achieve goals. When employees had a strong sense of aligning their own values to that of the organisation and believed that managers cared for them, their motivation level also increased (Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson, 2003).

Employee workplace spirituality also positively influences employee motivation and performance as it creates joy and happiness at work (Ashmos and Duchon, 2000; Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson, 2003; Mydin, Abdullah and Pitchay, 2018; Rego and

e Cunha, 2008). It comprises pleasant working involvement which leads to increased motivation and is a necessary determinant of employee commitment, job satisfaction and work–life balance and satisfaction. When these elements of employee workplace spirituality are achieved and satisfied, employees will be motivated (Janfeshan et al., 2011).

Employees' intrinsic motivation is enhanced by elements such as responsibility, autonomy, as well as exciting, interesting and meaningful work, involvement, or fairness, where some of these are also elements of employee workplace spirituality (Ciobanu and Androniceanu, 2015; Piatak, 2016). Where employees also have autonomy to make decisions and increase their interest and involvement at work, their motivation would increase (Sahoo, Sahoo and Jena, 2019). Employee workplace spirituality therefore positively influences employee motivation. Chen and Seng (2013) found that employee workplace spirituality influenced employee motivation through a sense of belonging, commitment and happiness at work.

Johnson (2019: 36) stated that "...a spiritual workplace can align with motivation theories, particularly intrinsic motivation". Marques, Dhiman and King (2007) also found that meaning, self-expression and interconnectedness as spiritual dimensions enhanced motivation. Through daily interaction, daily involvement and self-expression in tasks, and desires at work being met, a sense of meaning at work increased, which stimulated intrinsic motivation. Interconnectedness, a sense of belonging and community, and striving for common goals also increased employee motivation levels.

Drawing from the literature and the empirical evidence discussed above, it is consequently hypothesised that:

H6: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee workplace spirituality and employee motivation in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa.

The hypothesised relationship between employee workplace spirituality and employee citizenship behaviour is discussed next.

8.3.7 The relationship between employee workplace spirituality and employee citizenship behaviour

Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson (2003) indicated that workplace spirituality included the effort to discover one's ultimate purpose in life, to create strong connections with colleagues and other people at work, and to find uniformity between one's fundamental values and beliefs, as well as with the values of the organisation. On the other hand, employees who portray citizenship behaviours are more willing to undertake extra tasks without expecting anything; and would serve their organisation by going the extra mile, being loyal, having a positive attitude and being happy (Jiao, 2007; Singh and Mishra, 2017). Jiao (2007) and Singh and Mishra (2017) identified five dimensions of employee citizenship behaviour: altruism, sportsmanship, civic virtue, conscientiousness and courtesy.

Employee citizen behaviour is encouraged by workplace spirituality. According to Isen and Baron (1991) and Shaw (1999), employees who experienced workplace spirituality, showed a high degree of determination and effort and performed extra-role duties to achieve objectives at work. Employee workplace spirituality also positively influenced employees' dynamism, vigour and supportive work-related behaviour. It created responsiveness in individuals and in their beliefs and value systems, which influenced their efforts and supported employee citizenship behaviour. When employees found meaning in their work, when they had a sense of community and alignment of values, were committed, involved and highly satisfied at work, they would be more inclined to perform extra-role duties and to perform extraordinarily. In other words, by means of workplace spirituality, employees bring their physical, mental, emotional and spiritual efforts to the organisation (Shahbaz and Ghafoor, 2015) through which they enhance their employee citizenship behaviour.

Singh and Mishra (2017) indicated that employee workplace spirituality encouraged employees to go the extra mile. A sense of belonging created a safe platform for employees to be themselves. Therefore, this sense of belonging/security enabled them to venture outside the realm of their immediate responsibility and to perform extra-role behaviours (Singh and Mishra, 2017).

Charoensukmongkol, Daniel and Chatelain-Jardon (2015) found that meaningful work as a dimension of employee workplace spirituality, created a positive contribution towards a culture of employee citizenship behaviour. It is thus likely that such meaningful work, reflecting inner motivations, desires, and truths presents key “drivers” of extra-role behaviour. As a result, these employees most likely have the motivation and desire to perform extra-role behaviours (Charoensukmongkol, Daniel and Chatelain-Jardon, 2015).

Sense of community, another dimension of workplace spirituality, is indicative of a working environment where employees experience strong relationships amongst colleagues (Ashmos and Duchon, 2000). Employees with an augmented sense of community exhibit pro-social behaviour, which comprises of the enthusiasm to assist, defend or endorse the well-being of others (Schwartz and Bilsky, 1990). In a sense, by performing these extra-role behaviours employees are able to “protect” this sense of community (which is related to employee workplace spirituality). As a result, pro-social behaviour motivates employees to achieve employee citizenship behaviour.

The alignment of employees’ values with organisational values also reveals that the employees had a greater purpose and intent to contribute to the organisation and society rather than to their individual goals. As a consequence, a facet of living one's inner truth implies being employed at an organisation with integrity and purpose that is beneficial to employees beyond securing a return, resulting in employees going the extra mile to accomplish goals and objectives (Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson, 2003). Czaplewski and Ferguson (2003) also found that organisational commitment – a feeling of obligation, loyalty and honour, and the emotional attachment to the organisation – was positively

influenced by employee workplace spirituality. These feelings drive the employee to express citizenship at work (Khan, Abdul Rashid and Vytialingam, 2016).

From the above it is clear that employee workplace spirituality has a positive effect on employee citizenship behaviour (Ashmos and Duchon, 2000; Singh and Mishra, 2017). Therefore, inferring from the literature and the empirical evidence discussed above, it can be hypothesised that:

H7: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee workplace spirituality and employee citizenship behaviour in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa.

Hereafter the researcher discusses the relationship between employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour as a hypothesis.

8.3.8 The relationship between employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour

Employee motivation plays a critical role in determining citizenship behaviour of employees. Previous studies (Demirel, Elhusadi and Alhasadi, 2018; Moradi, 2015; Organ, 2018) revealed a strong relationship between motivation and employee citizenship behaviour. When employees were internally motivated by intrinsic, altruistic and overall motivational factors, their citizenship behaviour increased. Moradi (2015) found that all dimensions of workplace motivation played a part in defining defined employee citizenship behaviour, while Organ (2018) also stipulated that employee motivation improved employee citizenship behaviour. He further stated that motivation started as a psychological need which contributed to commitment at work. When motivation was stimulated by factors such as salary, recognition, relationships and working conditions, status and security, it would positively influence employee citizenship behaviour. These studies equally established that highly motivated employees showed higher employee citizenship behaviour than others.

Furthermore, the literature on organisational behaviour highlighted that employee citizenship behaviour was a motive-based behaviour that developed due to motivation. Both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation developed and strengthened employee citizenship behaviour directly (Ibrahim and Aslinda, 2014; Niehoff, 2000). Intrinsic motivation exists within the individual and underlies people's natural inclination to seek novelty. It is perceived to be the purest form of motivation that could influence employee citizenship behaviour. Intrinsically motivated employees are more involved in teamwork and according to Dysvik and Kuvaas (2008: 2), intrinsic motivation is also concerned with the motivation to execute tasks, therefore, "it is highly associated to measures of task involvement or task interest". Subsequently, intrinsic motivation increased employee citizenship behaviour (Dysvik and Kuvaas, 2008; Gagné and Deci, 2005).

To further explain the relationship between motivation and employee citizenship behaviour, it can be said that employees are motivated to act or behave in a certain manner. An employee who always helps others, for example, is referred to as a good citizen. The achievement–affiliation–power motive framework (McClelland, 1961; McClelland and Boyatzis, 1982; McClelland and Burnham, 1976) is a multiple source model of human motivation which explains why people exhibit employee citizenship behaviour. This includes elements such as helping others, communicating changes that involve colleagues, to stop complaining, to engage and add value and to contribute to teams towards achieving goals and objectives. An employee who is motivated to portray these behaviours will therefore persist in demonstrating employee citizenship behaviour (Niehoff, 2000). As a result, employee citizenship behaviour is driven by motives based on achievement, affiliation and power.

Therefore, drawing from the literature and the empirical evidence discussed above, it can be hypothesised that:

H8: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa.

The following discussion is aimed at the hypothesised relationship between employee citizenship behaviour and employee performance.

8.3.9 The relationship between employee citizenship behaviour and employee performance

Charoensukmongkol, Daniel and Chatelain-Jardon (2015) found that employee citizenship behaviour was a crucial component that contributed significantly to higher employee performance. As employees perform extra activities beyond their roles, they also contribute towards increased performance in the organisation. However, by performing extra-role behaviours, employees do not necessarily expect anything in return (i.e. external motivation). Nevertheless, as these extra-role behaviours seem to contribute to their own performance, they will share in the “external rewards” associated with such performance at a later stage. Podsakoff et al. (2009) considered employee citizenship behaviour as a core ingredient to improved performance and concluded that leaders should stimulate and support employee citizenship behaviour through enhancing the organisational climate in order to improve employees’ performance (Charoensukmongkol, Daniel and Chatelain-Jardon, 2015).

Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (2006) and Podsakoff et al. (2009), among others, found that employee citizenship behaviour was positively related to organisational efficiency, effectiveness and team and employee performance (Klotz and Bolino, 2013). They found that when employees support each other, defend each other’s images and uphold the culture and values of the organisation, employee citizenship behaviour will increase. Employees then tend to be more innovative and perform extra-role activities which influence employee performance positively. Employee citizenship behaviour also plays a critical role in enhancing the social and psychological state of employees in the workplace and this increases employees’ performance (Organ, 1997).

Zhang (2011) argued that employee citizenship behaviour reflected the flexible nature of employees’ responsibilities in the modern workplace. He added that most employees

adopted a culture of working harder, helping others, working long hours to improve their relationships with leaders and to maintain a conducive atmosphere at work.

In order to enable employees to perform extra-role activities and to help others, Chelagat, Chepkwony and Ambrose (2015) identified sportsmanship, altruism, civic virtue and courtesy as dimensions of employee citizenship behaviour which had positive and significant effects on employee performance. They stated that altruism enabled employees to perform extra-role duties, going beyond the call of duty, completing difficult tasks, sharing experiences and knowledge, and helping and supporting other employees. In addition, employees who exhibit courtesy would encourage other employees and communicate initiatives with other team members before implementation. An employee who implements processes to eliminate, tolerate or avoid problematic scenarios through sportsmanship will also positively influence performance at work. In addition, civic virtue describes the participation, involvement and concern that employees have for the organisation. Chelagat, Chepkwony and Ambrose (2015) also found that these factors of employee citizenship behaviour positively influenced employee performance. Employees with positive spirituality and citizenship behaviour therefore accomplished higher levels of performance (Isen and Baron, 1991; Shaw, 1999).

Likewise, Khuzaini, Zainul and Zamrudi (2019) agreed with the findings of Chelagat, Chepkwony and Ambrose (2015) and confirmed that the dimensions of employee citizenship behaviour positively affected employee performance. They also stated that “employee citizenship behaviour is a factor of performance” (Khuzaini, Zainul and Zamrudi, 2019: 24) and that performance would improve as employee citizenship behaviour improved. Bolino and Turnley (2003: 60) also stated that “based on anecdotal accounts, citizenship behaviour clearly contributes to organizational competitiveness and performance”. Through increased helpful and positive behaviour, offering and contributing to support organisational tasks, employee citizenship behaviour increased employees’ responsibility and tolerance levels, responsiveness and proactivity and consequently increased employee performance (Maharani, Troena and Noermijati,

2013). Accordingly, inferring from the literature and the empirical evidence discussed above, it can be hypothesised that:

H9: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee citizenship behaviour and employee performance in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa.

Below, is a summary of the hypotheses discussed above:

- i. There is a statistically significant relationship between leadership competencies and employee psychological empowerment in the three top metropolitan municipalities in South Africa;
- ii. There is a statistically significant relationship between leadership competencies and employee workplace spirituality in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa;
- iii. There is a statistically significant relationship between leadership competencies and employee motivation in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa;
- iv. There is a statistically significant relationship between employee psychological empowerment and employee workplace spirituality in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa;
- v. There is a statistically significant relationship between employee psychological empowerment and employee motivation in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa;
- vi. There is a statistically significant relationship between employee workplace spirituality and employee motivation in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa;
- vii. There is a statistically significant relationship between employee workplace spirituality and employee citizenship behaviour in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa;
- viii. There is a statistically significant relationship between employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa; and

- ix. There is a statistically significant relationship between employee citizenship behaviour and employee performance in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa.

A summary of the chapter is presented below.

8.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The researcher commenced this chapter with an introduction and then presented the proposed conceptual model.

After that, the researcher discussed the development of the conceptual model and elaborated on the hypotheses. A summary of the proposed hypotheses was also provided.

The next chapter is aimed at a discussion about the research methodology and design.

CHAPTER 9

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

9.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the research methodology followed for the purposes of this study, is discussed.

This research aims firstly, to explore by means of the literature how leadership competencies relate to individual-level variables (i.e. employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour) and how these may influence employee performance in the metropolitan municipalities in South Africa. Secondly, it aims to develop a theoretical model depicting the interrelationships amongst these individual-level variables (independent variables) and their relationship to employee performance (dependent variable); and thirdly to evaluate the predictive ability of the structural model by means of empirical data against the theoretical model.

The research questions guiding this study were as follows:

- i. Do each of the independent variables (leadership competencies, employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour) statistically relate to the dependent variable (employee performance)?
- ii. How do employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality and employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour explain the relationship between leadership competencies and employee performance in the top three municipalities in South Africa?

- iii. How do leaders of the top three municipalities interpret the effect that the individual-level variables have on employee performance?
- iv. What recommendations can leaders of these top three municipalities propose to improve employee performance?

This chapter commences with an introduction to the research design followed in this study. Thereafter, the researcher discussed the research approach and population, sampling and sampling methodology and the measuring instruments. The data gathering technique and data analysis techniques were also discussed. Following that, the researcher presented trustworthiness in qualitative design and summarised and concluded the chapter.

9.2 AN INTRODUCTION TO THE RESEARCH DESIGN

Research is defined as a cautious study and examination, particularly aimed at discovering new realities or evidence (Nouri, 2012; Smit, 2015). In this study the Explanatory Sequential Mixed Methods design was used. Plano Clark and Ivankova (2016: 59) defined mixed research methods as “a process of research when researchers integrate quantitative methods of data collection and analysis and qualitative methods of data collection and analysis to understand a research problem”.

Quantitative research methodologies concentrate on questions about cause and effect, generalisability, or the extent of influence. On the other hand, qualitative research approaches explore why or in what way something happens, to develop theories or explain the nature of a person’s experience (Fetters, Leslie and Creswell, 2013).

The research design is presented below.

9.2.1 Research Design

Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) identified three approaches to mixed methods: concurrent, sequential and conversion.

In general, mixed method designs usually focus on:

- i. Research questions that will enable factual background comprehension, multilevel viewpoints and cultural effects;
- ii. Employing demanding quantitative research, evaluating the scale and occurrence of constructs and demanding qualitative research investigating the implications and meaning of constructs;
- iii. Utilising various methods (e.g. intervention trials and in-depth interviews); and
- iv. Deliberately combining the methods to draw on the strengths of each and outlining the study within rational and academic positions (Wium and Louw, 2018).

The notion to use both quantitative and qualitative methods in combination offers an enhanced comprehension of the research problem when compared to using a single approach (Creswell, 2003; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011; Wium and Louw, 2018). In addition to this, mixed-methods research accumulates and investigates data, integrates the findings and interprets the findings, using both approaches in a single study (Creswell et al., 2011; Wium and Louw, 2018). The result of this is improved data precision. Mixed methods permits producing an improved all-inclusive representation on a new occurrence by joining the strengths of the quantitative and qualitative research methods (Collins, Onwuegbuzie and Sutton, 2006; Täuscher, 2018: 7).

Thus, to capitalise on these advantages, specific principles must be applied:

- i. The mixed methods must be a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods within one research project;
- ii. The methodology of qualitative and quantitative research elements must be well-defined; and
- iii. The way the data triangulation takes place must be clearly indicated (Denscombe, 2008; Wium and Louw, 2018).

In explanatory sequential mixed methods, results of the quantitative phase are used to inform data collection and analysis in the qualitative phase. The qualitative component is used to clarify or expand on the quantitative research results in order to gain insight into the quantitative findings (Creswell, 2003).

Hence, this study applied the explanatory sequential approach where the researcher started with the quantitative phase (numbers), followed by the qualitative phase (personal experiences of leaders) (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). In this study qualitative findings were used to contextualise quantitative data (Creswell et al., 2003). Apart from this, the qualitative data was used to enhance and enrich findings from the quantitative data (Taylor and Trumbull, 2005; Mason, 2006) and to help generate new knowledge (Stange, 2006).

In using this design, quantitative and qualitative processes take place in two separate, yet collaborative phases.



Figure 6: The explanatory sequential design – Quantitative design

Source: Researcher's Concept

In the first phase, quantitative data was collected and analysed and took priority for addressing the research questions. Following this, the second phase comprised of the collection and analysis of the qualitative data as follow-up to the quantitative results. The quantitative results therefore informed the qualitative research questions that would be asked during the interviews. Qualitative research also explains and expands on the findings of the quantitative results (Bowen, Rose and Pilkington, 2017).

To clarify, the process as illustrated in Figure 6 above can be summarised as follows:

- i. Collect and interpret quantitative data;
- ii. Formalise qualitative questions based on quantitative results;
- iii. Formalise qualitative questions where the study needs to provide additional context;
- iv. Collect qualitative data; and
- v. Interpret and combine results.

In addition to this, philosophical assumptions regarding the explanatory sequential approach are firstly for the quantitative phase as it starts from post positivism and thereafter moves to constructivism for the qualitative phase. Common variants are also follow-up “explanations variants and participant-selection variants” (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011: 76, 85, 446).

Figure 7 illustrates the research process followed in this study.

Quantitative Phase

Aim: This research aims to explore by means of the literature how leadership competencies relate to individual-level variables (i.e. employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, motivation and employee citizenship behaviour) and how these may influence employee performance in the metropolitan municipalities in South Africa. Secondly, to develop a theoretical model depicting the interrelationships amongst these individual-level variables (independent variables) and their relationship to employee performance (dependent variable); and thirdly to evaluate the predictive ability of the structural model by means of empirical data against the theoretical model.

Research Questions:

1. Does leadership competencies relate to employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour and subsequently impact on employee performance?
2. How do employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour explain the relationship between leadership competencies and employee performance in the top three municipalities in South Africa?

Method: Survey.

Consisting of pre-formulated close-ended questions for each construct

Analysis:

Descriptive statistics

* Testing the reliability of the instruments

Determining the Minimum, Maximum, Mean and Standard Deviation

Inferential Statistics

*Correlation

*Regression Analysis

*Variance-based structural equation modelling

Qualitative Phase

Aim: To explain or expand on the results of the quantitative research

Research Questions:

3. How do leaders of the top three municipalities interpret the effect that the individual-level variables have on employee performance?
4. What recommendations can leaders of these top three municipalities propose to improve employee performance?

Method: Individual, open-ended in-depth interviews with five top managers in each of the three municipalities

Analysis:

Thematic Analysis

Figure 7: The Research Process

In accordance with this, owing to the suitability of the explanatory design and to reap the advantages of this method, the researcher required to have a more in-depth understanding of the survey results. The researcher thus set interviews to further explain and expand on the quantitative results. Hence, the following section explains the quantitative process of the explanatory sequential design in more detail.

9.3 QUANTITATIVE DESIGN

9.3.1 Research approach

A quantitative research approach embraces the fact that the findings are objective, reliable, valid and reproducible (Curtis and Drennan, 2013). It is therefore compatible to research scenarios where research concepts and phenomena of interests are clear and relationships between the variables are recognised. It is also predominantly relevant where the research is rooted in existing theory to identify an analytical model and/or hypothesis a priori and tested through the research. In addition, quantitative methods are appropriate to develop and empirically test quantifiable measures of new variables (Morris, 2009).

Furthermore, quantitative research approaches are quite compatible to research situations where research concepts and occurrences of interest are distinct and the relationships between the variables are recognised. Thus, it is mainly valid where the research can be entrenched in current theories to detect a logical model and/or hypothesis a priori and verified through the investigation. Quantitative methods are also appropriate to develop and empirically examine quantifiable measures of new variables (Wium and Louw, 2018; Smit, 2015).

Consequently, quantitative approaches are more “structured, formal, objective” (Yilmaz, 2013: 314) and scientifically-based than qualitative methods, and more organised, formal, unbiased and scientifically-based (Du Plessis, 2007). The samples are usually larger and more representative than the samples in qualitative research. The data to be gathered is subjected to quantitative analysis from which conclusions were to be made regarding the

population. Therefore, research outcomes were typically conclusive in nature (Morris, 2009). The quantitative research phase of the present study took place in a natural environment where the researcher acted as an instrument in the collection and analysis of the data. The research population is discussed in the next section.

9.3.2 Research population

Municipal employees formed the main body of the population for this research study. The top metropolitan municipalities in South Africa were identified, based on results extracted from the Municipal IQ (2016) findings whereby municipalities were ranked in terms of performance and efficiency drawn from the Municipal Productivity Index (MPI), which includes financial and non-financial data. Factors that were included in this research were capacity requirements, reporting, basic planning and financial management. The Municipal Productivity Index (MPI) influences the course of performance in municipalities (Allan and Heese, 2016). The results extracted are seen in Table 5.

Table 5: Performance Results of Three Metropolitan Municipalities in South Africa

Metropolitan Municipality	RANKED ACCORDING TO				
	Spending	Non-financial factors	Best Performing	Best Run	Households
City of Johannesburg	3	3	2	3	1
City of Tshwane	2	2	1	2	2
City of Cape Town	1	1	3	1	3

Source: (Statistics South Africa, 2011; Allan and Heese, 2016)

The total population size in the top three municipalities equated to 74,039 employees, where 25,000 were employed at the City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality,

26,349 at the City of Cape Town Metropolitan Municipality and 23,590 at the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality (City of Cape Town Metropolitan Municipality, 2016; City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality, 2015; City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, 2017). Furthermore, approximately 40% employees were general workers and technical staff who were excluded from the total population, which then totalled 44,963 employees.

Flowing from the sample size, the researcher firstly applied purposive sampling to select the top three municipalities, based on “deliberately obtaining units of analysis in such a manner that the sample that the researcher obtains may be regarded as representative for the total population” (Welman, Kruger and Mitchell, 2006: 69). These municipalities were selected as they seemed to be the best performing metropolitan municipalities in South Africa, based on results extracted from the Municipal IQ (2016) findings where municipalities were ranked in terms of performance and efficiency, drawn from the Municipal Productivity Index (MPI), which includes financial and non-financial data (Allan and Heese, 2016; Statistics South Africa, 2011).

Owing to the large population in municipalities, the target population was perceived as unmanageable and a sample was selected from each municipality to study, interpret and understand. The population formed the basis to select a sample as discussed in the next section.

9.3.3 Sampling and sampling methodology

Sampling is seen as a rational method of making statements regarding the total population, based on the findings from a smaller population (Regenesys Business School, 2013). Hence, a sample was drawn from the total population.

Technically, the researcher applied a two-stage sampling approach. Firstly, purposive sampling was used to select the top three municipalities. Secondly, simple random sampling was applied to select the participants from the top three municipalities as

everyone had the same chance of being chosen in the sample (Maree and Pietersen, 2012).

The simple random sampling method was based on the following criteria for the municipal employees:

- i. Employed within the chosen municipalities;
- ii. Knowledgeable;
- iii. Experience to add value to the study;
- iv. For the quantitative sample, employees employed in service-orientated departments in the municipality, such as the Revenue, Billing, Customer Liaison Departments; Business Support and Credit Management departments in the City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality were selected. Employees in Revenue, Electricity Generation and Distribution, Water and Sanitation, Customer Relations and Solid Waste Management Departments were selected in the City of Cape Town Metropolitan Municipality (City of Cape Town Metropolitan Municipality, 2017). And, employees in Group Financial Services: Revenue Management, Customer Care, Electricity, Water and Sanitation and Waste Removal and Management Department employees in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality were selected (City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, 2017).
- v. For the quantitative part of the study, participants included all office-bound employees, as well as junior to middle management (levels 6 and 7). General workers, technical staff (working on roads, potholes, streetlights etc.) and senior management (levels 1 to 5) were not included.

The researcher requested a listing of all employees in the service-orientated departments from the municipalities (the population) to extract the sample. The municipalities supplied the researcher with a list of the relevant employees, including the levels and e-mail addresses of the employees. As a result, the total population comprised of 74,939 employees. However, 29,976 technical employees and 3,597 employees employed in management levels 1 to 5 (8%) were removed. Hence, core (office-bound) employees

which formed the population for the quantitative research totalled 41,366 employees (Table 6).

The researcher consulted the guidelines of Sekaran (2003) in determining a reasonable sample size given the population. Although there is a difference between the sample size suggested by Sekaran (2003) and the sample used in the present study, it should not be a cause for concern. Firstly, the actual sample size ($n = 789$) of the present study resulted in the collection of reliable and valid data. This data was adequate to evaluate the various hypotheses. Secondly, the majority of the hypotheses were supported, leading to the conclusion that the data supported existing theory.

It is therefore possible to conclude that, even though there was a difference between the suggested sample size (Sekaran, 2003) and the actual sample size ($n = 789$), the possible influence thereof on the quality of the data and the confirmation of the majority of hypotheses seem to have been negligible. In short, the recommended sample size was calculated as 1,122 at a confidence level of 95%, based on the work of Sekaran (2003) as reflected in the sampling frame, Table 6.

Table 6: Calculation of Population for Sample Selection

Description	City of			TOTAL
	Johannesburg	Cape Town	Tshwane	
	Metropolitan Municipality			
Total Population	25,000	26,349	23,590	74,939
Less: Technical Employees	(10,000)	(9,436)	(10,540)	(29,976)
Office Bound Employees (including management)	15,000	16,913	13,050	44,963
Less: Management levels 1 - 5	(1,200)	(1,132)	(1,265)	(3,597)

Total Office Bound Employees	13,800	15,781	11,785	41,366
Suggested Sample Size	374	376	372	1,122

Source: City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality, (2015); City of Cape Town Metropolitan Municipality, (2016); City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, (2016).

In the next section the measuring instruments are presented, including the scales and alpha coefficients.

9.3.4 Measuring Instruments

The researcher used pre-formulated, close-ended questions to operationalise the various constructs. These questions were structured according to the various constructs in the study and were grouped into seven sections: A to G as follows:

- i. Section A consisted of questions relating to the demographic profiles of the sample;
- ii. Section B to F focused on questions regarding the independent constructs; and
- iii. Section G focused on the dependent construct as illustrated in Figure 8.

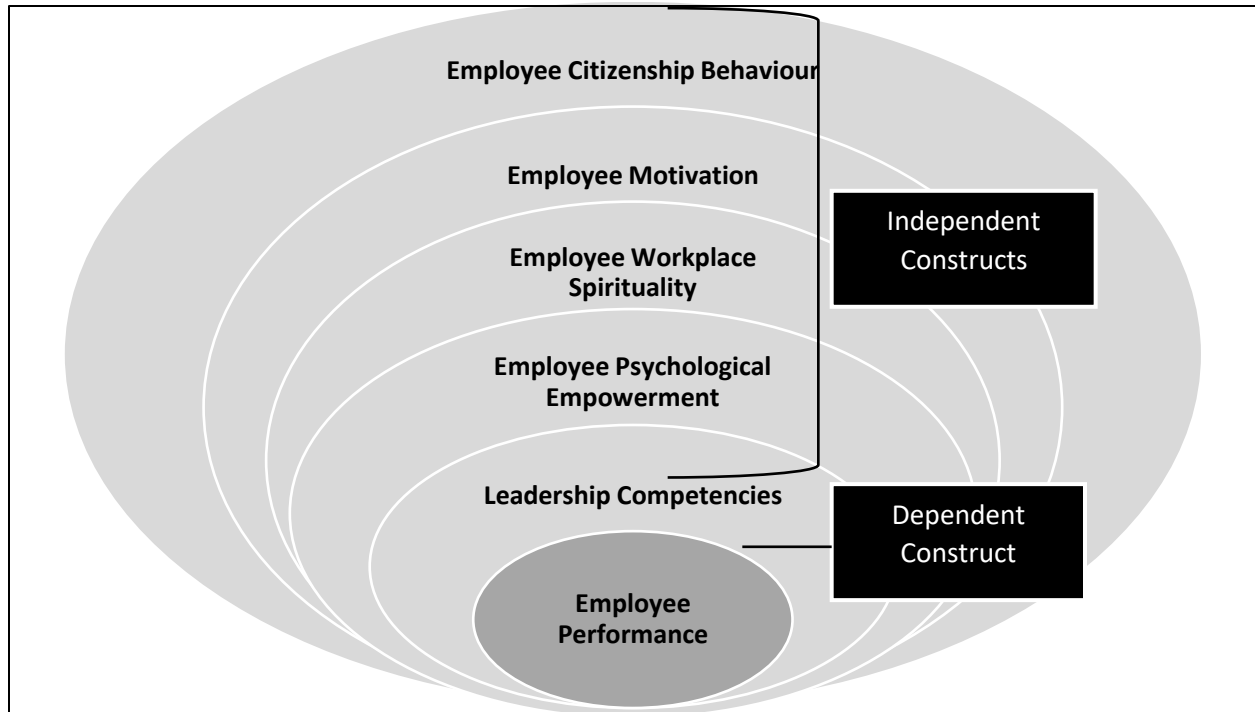


Figure 8: Constructs in the Study

Source: Researcher's Concept

(a) Leadership Competencies – Section B

The Leadership Assessment Questionnaire (LAQ) (Van Wyk, 2007) was used to measure leadership competencies. The responses were measured on a 5-point Likert scale as follows:

Table 7: Likert Scale - Leadership Assessment Questionnaire

1	Immediate development is essential	Development is needed. Doubt if the person is capable of meeting expectations.
2	Development is needed	Development is needed. Dedication and effort are necessary if the person is to be successful.
3	Adequate but could improve	The performance of the person is acceptable, but there is room for improvement.
4	Fully meets expectations	Development is not essential, although ongoing development is desirable.

5	Superior to others	Superior to others in meeting expectations. Widely recognised throughout the organisation as superior to others.

Source: Van Wyk (2007: 255)

These questions were answered by all employees. Thus, the employees rated their leader's competencies based on the above scales 1 to 5, where 1 showed that immediate development was essential for their leaders and 5 indicated that their leader was superior to others.

Schroder and Clemens (1997) developed and validated High Performance Leadership Competencies (HPLC). Following that, Van Wyk (2007) developed and validated the LAQ based on the HPLC (Schroder and Clemens, 1997).

Van Wyk (2007) identified fifteen dimensions, comprising of fifty-eight questions to measure the leadership construct, which were discussed in more detail in the literature review in Chapter three of this dissertation. These are:

Table 8: Leadership Dimensions

Dimensions	Number of Items
Integrity	4
Conceptual Ability	4
Diversity Learning	4
Empowerment	4
Leadership Communication	4
Visionary Thinking	6
Adaptability	4
Performance Achievement	4
Motivational Capacity	4
Self-Responsibility	4

Information Capacity	4
Cross-Functional Teamwork	4
Purpose Building	4
People Development	3
Business Acumen	1

Source: Van Wyk (2007: 162)

Van Wyk (2007) also cited De Coning (1996) who developed behavioural indicators for each of the South African HPLCs to fit the environment of South African organisations.

Coefficient alphas for previous research were found to range from .58 to .92 (Van Wyk, 2007: 165). Similarly, other researchers such as Boyatzis (1982), Levinson (1980), Kotter (1979) and Stogdill (1974) also confirmed the validity of each of the High Performance Leadership Competencies. These researchers found that each competency was significantly correlated to superior performance, resulting in average validity of .42, which suggested that the competencies of leaders were over 15% of the total unit performance (Van Wyk, 2007: 152). Alan-Metcalf and Alimo-Metcalf (2011: 62) confirmed criterion validity coefficients which ranged from .61 to .86.

(b) Employee Empowerment – Section C

The Psychological Empowerment Questionnaire (PEQ) (Spreitzer, 1995) was used in this study as a measure of employee empowerment. These questions were measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) (Spreitzer, 1995).

Table 9: Psychological Empowerment 7-point Likert Scale

1	Very strongly disagree
2	Strongly disagree
3	Disagree
4	Neutral

5	Agree
6	Strongly agree
7	Very strongly agree

Source: Spreitzer (1995: 1465)

The dimensions of PEQ were discussed in detail in Chapter 4 of this study. The PEQ contains three items for each of the four dimensions of psychological empowerment. These dimensions are reflected in Table 10.

Table 10: Empowerment Psychological Dimensions

Dimensions	Number of Items
Competence	3
Meaning	3
Self-Determination	3
Impact	3

Source: Spreitzer, (1995: 1445, 1465)

Spreitzer (1995: 1453) also used an adjusted goodness-of-fit index, which is “independent of sample size and relatively robust against departures from normality”, and should reach or surpass the 0.9 rule. In addition, Spreitzer (1995: 1453) also used the root-mean-square residual (RMSR), which is an estimation of the “average magnitude of the fitted residuals”, which should be smaller than 0.05. Finally, Spreitzer (1995: 1453) applied the noncentralized normed fit index (NCNFI), which measured the “hypothesized model to a null model” and should equal or exceed a 0.9 threshold.

Spreitzer (1995) found that the validity of the psychological empowerment measures has an excellent fit for the industrial sample at RMSR = .04, and NCNFI = .97. A modest fit was also attained for the insurance sample (AGFI = .87, RMSR = .07, NCNFI = .98). Overall, Spreitzer (1995: 1995) found that the Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient for the overall psychological empowerment construct was .72 and applied second-order

confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to assess the convergent and discriminant validity of the psychological empowerment measures which proved an excellent fit.

The researcher now proceeds to discuss the research instrument for the construct: employee workplace spirituality.

(c) Employee workplace spirituality – Section D

The Spirituality at Work (SAW) questionnaire from Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson (2003: 427) was used for this study. These questions were measured on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 7 (very satisfied) as illustrated in Table 11 (Ashmos, 2000; Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson, 2003).

Table 11: Employee Workplace Spirituality 7-point Likert Scale

1	Very strongly disagree
2	Strongly disagree
3	Disagree
4	Neutral
5	Agree
6	Strongly Agree
7	Very strongly agree

Source: Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson (2003: 434 - 436)

Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson (2003) placed emphasis on three critical dimensions which represent employee's spirituality in the workplace: meaningful work (individual level), sense of community (group level) and alignment with the organisation's values and mission (organisational level) as discussed in Chapter 5 of this study. Table 12 hereunder lists the Employee Workplace Spirituality Dimensions.

Table 12: Employee Workplace Spirituality Dimensions

Dimensions	Number of Items
Meaningful Work	6
Sense of Community	7
Alignment of Values	8

Source: Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson, (2003)

The coefficient alphas, in previous studies, ranged from .82 to .94 and validity was assessed using CFA, which produced a Comparative Fit Index (CFI) of .98 (Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson, 2003: 436, 438).

(d) Employee Motivation – Section E

The Motivation Measure (MM) questionnaire, developed by Moran et al. (2012), was used in this study. The questionnaire poses the question "Why are you motivated to do your work?" and contains fifteen items measured using a 6-point Likert scale ranging from "Strongly Disagree" to "Strongly Agree" as listed in Table 13.

Table 13: Employee Motivation 6-point Likert Scale

1	Strongly disagree
2	Slightly Disagree
3	Disagree
4	Agree
5	Slightly Agree
6	Strongly Agree

Source: Moran et al. (2012)

Moran et al. (2012) used this questionnaire to determine the types and factors of motivation that express how employees experience current and future motivation. This questionnaire consists of five distinct dimensions of motivation listed in Table 14. These

dimensions were adapted by Foran (2015) and include three items each. These dimensions were discussed in detail in Chapter 6 of this study.

Table 14: Employee Motivation Dimensions

Dimensions	Number of Items
Intrinsic motivation	3
Introjected Regulation	3
Extrinsic motivation	3
Integrated Regulation	3
Identified Regulation	3

Source: Foran (2015: 71)

Foran (2015: 71) confirmed the Cronbach alpha at .82, whereas Markland and Hardy (1997: 24, 29) confirmed the Cronbach alpha at .827, with a CFI between .911 and .861.

(e) Employee Citizenship Behaviour – Section F

Podsakoff et al. (1990) developed the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Scale (OCBS) which was adopted by Kumar and Shah (2015) and used in this study. The OCBS questionnaire adopted by Kumar and Shah (2015) is based on a seven-point Likert scale where 1 = “Strongly Disagree” and 7= “Strongly Agree” as indicated in Table 15.

Table 15: Employee Citizenship Behaviour 7-point Likert Scale

1	Very strongly disagree
2	Strongly disagree
3	Disagree
4	Neutral
5	Agree
6	Strongly Agree
7	Very strongly agree

Source: Kumar and Shah, (2015: 53)

The OCBS comprises of five dimensions (listed below) and fifteen items. These dimensions were discussed in detail in Chapter 7 of this study.

Table 16: Employee Citizenship Behaviour Dimensions

Dimensions	Number of Items
Altruism	3
Courtesy	3
Civic Virtue	3
Sportsmanship	3
Conscientiousness	3

Source: Kumar and Shah (2015: 53)

Kumar and Shah (2015: 57) confirmed Cronbach's Alpha from .58 to .70 with a CFI of .92.

(f) Employee performance – Section G

The Employee Performance Scale (EPS) is a comprehensive measure that is easy to administer and was used in this study (Pradhan and Jena, 2016).

Employee performance was measured on a 5-point Likert scale as seen in Table 17, where 1 = "Disagree" and 5 = "Agree" (Pradhan and Jena, 2016: 6).

Table 17: Employee Performance 5-point Likert Scale

1	Strongly disagree
2	Disagree
3	Neutral
4	Agree
5	Strongly agree

Source: Pradhan and Jena (2016: 6)

The EPS comprises of three performance components which were discussed in detail in Chapter 2 of this study. The components have six items for task performance, seven for adaptive performance and ten for contextual performance (Pradhan and Jena, 2016: 10).

Table 18: Employee Performance Dimensions

Dimensions	Number of Items
Task Performance	6
Adaptive Performance	7
Contextual Performance	10

Source: Pradhan and Jena (2016: 10)

Pradhan and Jena (2016: 12) found that the composite reliability value for the total scale was more than .70 and the Cronbach's alpha for individual dimensions ranged from .80 to .90 with the total scale of .80.

In the next two sections the process applied to gather the data, as well as the ethical considerations guiding the process, are discussed.

9.3.5 The data gathering process

After identification of the various instruments to measure the constructs in this study, the questionnaires were coded on the EVASYS system and an electronic link was e-mailed to all participants. The e-mail included a cover letter explaining the objectives and aim of the study and the contact information of the researcher and the promoters. The e-mail also contained permission letters from the Municipalities as well as an explanation of the ethical conduct and process and the ethical clearance approval letter. In addition, the data and information collected were treated as confidential and only people directly involved with the gathering and analysing of data had the privilege to access the information. The researcher also explained the research process and objectives in the cover e-mail.

9.3.6 Ethical considerations

It was important to emphasise ethics in the data collection process to achieve the objectives of this study. The research was guided by the principles of Cummings and Worley (2009) including informed consent, voluntary participation and anonymisation of quantitative data. Further, the research was safeguarded in terms of the ethical clearance approval, approved by EMS Research Ethics Committee, issued by the University of the Free State, reference number UFS-HSD2017/0670.

The research was based on the following ethical conduct principles:

- i. The right to independently choose to participate in the study, to express one's own meaning and to access the information, hence, research participants had the right to not complete questionnaires;
- ii. The right to privacy, confidentiality and anonymity of the participants and interviewees; therefore, to preserve anonymity, the names of participants were not used, and the data was coded;
- iii. Informed consent by the sample selected from the total population;
- vi. Always achieving and maintaining professionalism and proficiency;
- vii. Being accountable and responsible, acting with honesty and integrity;
- viii. Being authentic and truthful;
- ix. Avoiding conflicts of interest;
- x. Participants were not harmed – specifically relating to data gathered from employees who completed questionnaires; data was only used for research purposes; therefore, participants were guaranteed that third parties would not have access to the data;
- xi. Data extracted from the EVASYS system reflected truthful and authentic situations, ensuring that outcomes reflected accurate relationships; and
- xii. Conflict situations were managed efficiently (Cummings and Worley, 2009; Smit, 2015).

The researcher also ensured that the target sample received consent forms, which was part of the electronic questionnaires in EVASYS. In a cover e-mail, participants were

informed on the process to safeguard their responses. In addition, the researcher highlighted that participants had the right to freedom of choice, expression and access to information through voluntary participant involvement. Participants further had the choice to withdraw or terminate their participation in the research at any time without fear of prejudice.

After that, the data analysis took place, which is described in detail below.

9.3.7 Data analysis

After collecting the data, the process to analyse, inspect, summarise and define the data commenced. The process included the analysis of descriptive and inferential statistics as explained below.

9.3.8 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics examine, condense, describe and present data in ways to understand it better. In addition, descriptive statistics are largely measures of central tendencies, i.e. the mean, median and mode (Connor and Johnson, 2017). The researcher started with frequency distributions on demographic variables.

The following data was collected:

- i. Gender;
- ii. Age;
- iii. Marital status;
- iv. Department;
- v. Number of years employed;
- vi. Contract type;
- vii. Employee level or grade; and
- viii. Highest qualification.

Hence, this data was collected to obtain insight into the demographic composition of participants. It shows who the people were who participated in the study, whether the sample was representative of the entire population and provided some background of the population. After completing the analysis and interpreting the biographical data, the next step was to scrutinise and establish reliability of the research instrument

9.3.8.1 Reliability of research instruments

The main aim of a questionnaire in research is to collect relevant data in a valid and reliable manner, therefore the accuracy and consistency of research questionnaires are vital to the research methodology and are referred to as validity and reliability. Lee Cronbach developed the Cronbach alpha “ α ” in 1951. Cronbach’s alpha measures reliability or internal consistency. Reliability tests the stability and consistency of a research instrument (Tanderdoost, 2016; Tavakol and Dennick, 2011).

The researcher therefore used Cronbach's alpha for testing reliability, which is not only a statistical test, but rather a coefficient of reliability or consistency amongst the constructs that were under investigation (Montshiwa and Moroke, 2014; Tavakol and Dennick, 2011).

Table 19 presents the guidelines which were applied for interpreting the outcome of Cronbach’s alpha. Generally, a reliability coefficient of greater than .7 is acceptable, but some researchers recommend higher values from .90 to .95 (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011).

The following table indicates the guidelines to interpret the alpha for dichotomous or Likert scale questions:

Table 19: Cronbach's Alpha

Cronbach’s Alpha	Internal Consistency
$\alpha \geq .9$	Excellent
$.9 > \alpha \geq .8$	Good

$.8 > \alpha \geq .7$	Acceptable
$.7 > \alpha \geq .6$	Questionable
$.6 > \alpha \geq .5$	Poor
$.5 < \alpha$	Unacceptable

Source: Montshiwa and Moroke (2014: 355), Evans (1996) and Datta and Chakrabarti (2018).

After determining the internal consistency of the instruments, the researcher determined the Minimum, Maximum, Mean and Standard Deviation as discussed below.

9.3.8.2 Minimum, Maximum, Mean and Standard Deviation

The range of the data is the difference between the minimum and maximum values (Taylor, 2017) which provides researchers with an enhanced insight to understand how varied the data is. The data set includes the mean (midpoint) of the data and the formula is $\text{Range} = \text{Maximum value} - \text{Minimum value}$.

The standard deviation (σ) determines how close the sets of data are to the mean or how they are spread out and expressed in the same unit as the data. It is the average or mean of all averages for numerous data sets (Taylor, 2017). Hence, a low standard deviation implies that the data points are closer to the mean.

Inferential statistics will be discussed next.

9.3.9 Inferential statistics

There are several types of inferential statistics and each is suitable for a specific research design and sample characteristics. Inferential statistics are frequently used to compare differences between groups. It uses dimensions from the sample in the research to compare the groups and make assumptions about the whole population. Both Pearson's product moment correlation and stepwise multiple regression will be discussed below.

9.3.9.1 Pearson's Product Moment Correlation

Pearson's Product Moment Correlation was selected to interpret the relationship between two quantitative, continuous variables. It is also the most popular statistical tool and is applied in numerous actual circumstances and sciences (Puth, Neuhäuser and Ruxton, 2014).

A Pearson correlation (r) ranges between -1 and 1 and shows the degree to which two dimensions are linearly correlated. A correlation of 1 indicates a perfect positive relationship and -1 a perfect negative relationship. Evans (1996) suggested that .00 - .19 is "very weak", .20 - .39 is "weak", .40 - .59 is "moderate", .60 - .79 "strong" and .80 - 1.0 "very strongly" related (Datta and Chakrabarti, 2018; Özcan and Korkmaz, 2018). Hence, the scale of Evans (1996) was used to interpret the absolute value of r and describe the strengths or weaknesses of the correlations.

The coefficient can be calculated by using the following formula:

$$r = \frac{n(\sum xy) - (\sum x)(\sum y)}{\sqrt{[n \sum x^2 - (\sum x)^2][n \sum y^2 - (\sum y)^2]}}$$

where n = number of pairs of scores; $\sum xy$ = sum of the products of the paired scores; $\sum x$ = sum of x scores; $\sum y$ = sum of y scores; $\sum x^2$ = sum of squared x scores; $\sum y^2$ = sum of squared y scores (Asri et al., 2016: 2).

Hereafter, stepwise multiple regression follows.

9.3.9.2 Stepwise multiple regression

Multiple regression analysis is a powerful technique used by numerous researchers. It permits researchers to statistically model the relationship between a dependent variable and a group of independent variables. It further includes assessments to calculate whether independent variables are related to dependent variables (outcome/criterion). In addition, it also controls results where there are overlapping relations with other variables

(Jeon, 2015). The rationale for using stepwise regression is that it modifies the forward selection. Thus, after each step where a variable was added, all contender variables in the model are inspected to verify whether their significance was reduced beneath the specified tolerance level. Hence, when the researcher identifies a nonsignificant variable, it will be removed from the model and an adjusted model presented (Jeon, 2015; Lewis, 2007; Wang and Chen, 2016).

To elaborate, stepwise multiple regression analysis makes use of both forward and backward movement where forward movement is used more commonly (Wang and Chen, 2016) and was also used in this study. It includes developing a series of linear models that is seen as variant of the forward selection method as predictor variables are entered one at a time. However, in each step of stepwise analysis, the elimination of each entered predictor is also regarded. Hence, entered predictors are eliminated in successive steps should they no longer add value to the substantial exclusive predictive power to the regression when measured in combination with new predictors entered (Jeon, 2015; Lewis, 2007).

Stepwise multiple regression also has some limitations, which are: (i) by using incorrect degrees of freedom it causes exaggerated statistical significance levels when compared to tabled values; (ii) the researcher identifies the best predictor set of a prespecified size; and (iii) stepwise regression commonly does not result in replicable assumptions due to its dependence on the sampling error (Lewis, 2007; Thompson, 1995). The tests themselves have also proved to be biased, as they are based on the same data (Jeon, 2015; Lewis, 2007; Rencher and Pun, 1980).

In general, regression analysis will thus identify which independent variable influences the dependent variable. It will also indicate the relationships between the independent and dependent variables and provide an estimation of the dependent variables in line with fluctuations in a group of independent variables (Jeon, 2015).

Therefore, to summarise, stepwise regression is seen as a linear sequence and systematic repetitive creation of a regression model that contains automatic choices of independent dimensions and aims to select a model systematically by adding or removing a predictor based on their statistical significance. Hence, the outcome of this systematic procedure is a single regression model (Wang and Chen, 2016).

The following is a discussion of variance-based structural equation modelling.

9.3.9.3 Variance-based structural equation modelling (SEM)

Variance based structural equation has been used in several disciplines, such as strategic management, information systems, marketing, organisational behaviour and consumer studies (Becker, Ringle and Sarstedt, 2019). The partial least squares path modelling or partial least squares structural equation modelling (PLS-PM, PLS-SEM) is a method of structural equation modelling which allows estimating complex cause-effect relationship models with latent variables. Most researchers recommend that variance-based models at the initial stages of theoretical development for testing and validation of the exploratory models. There is another characteristic for Partial Least Squares (PLS) path modelling, in that it is suitable for prediction-oriented research. The model assists researchers who pay much attention on explanation of the endogenous constructs. PLS path modelling also delivers latent variable scores such as the proxies of the constructs that are evaluated by one or several indicators or the manifest variables. This technique can be utilised in estimating very complex models with many latent and manifest variables and can handle both reflective and formative measurement models. PLS is by implication supposed to be the only method that can withhold formative indicators and does not resist multicollinearity (Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics, 2009). In this study, SmartPLS (version 3.2.8) was used to estimate both the outer and inner models (Ringle, Wende and Becker, 2015).

In summary, variance-based SEM is primarily used when making predictions, which is what this study attempts to show. Although theory testing can still form part of variance-based SEM, it is not as strictly applied as in the case of covariance-based SEM. In short,

all forms of SEM require theory to inform the model (Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics, 2009).

Linked to the above, variance-based SEM is also useful for exploratory studies and does not require the data to have an approximate normal distribution (Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics, 2009). In addition, PLS can be used with small sample sizes (whereas covariance-based SEM require larger sample sizes). To add to this, variance-based SEM can deal successfully with a model with numerous variables (i.e. model complexity) without the need for a large sample (Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics, 2009).

To expand, Jeon (2015) noted that SEM offers the following advantages:

- i. Measurement Variables and Latent Variable Measurement which are concerned with the input of latent variables (latent constructs), e. g. motivation; hence, SEM produces increased accuracy to measure causal relationships amid constructs;
- ii. More than one of the extrinsic variables and ascetic variables are simultaneously estimated. SEM also estimates the causal relationship between ascetic variables;
- iii. The direct, indirect and total effect can be seen, as more than one extrinsic and ascetic variables are simultaneously estimated (although true, this was not investigated in this study);
- iv. Multiple statistical analysis (correlation, regression and confirmatory factor analysis) can be done in a model;
- v. Reciprocal Causal Relationships can be seen between latent variables (although true, this was not investigated in this study); and
- vi. The software system is easily accessible and convenient.

Although SEM also has several disadvantages, it remains the most suitable method to inform the model in this research, as it can cope with numerous variables (i.e. model complexity) without the need for a big sample (Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics, 2009). Therefore SEM comprises of a structural model illustrating the relations between latent variables of interest and the measurement models show the relations between the latent variables and their obvious or visible indicators (Nachtigall et al., 2003).

In addition, variance-based structural equation modelling (VBSEM) mainly attempts to find correlations between latent variables and their indicators. The rationale behind VBSE is core to two characteristics, namely:

- i. The primary requirement of structural models is similar; approaches concerning the development of the model, the requirements, theoretic context, evaluations and clarifications are, however, different (Hair et al., 2010); and
- ii. VBSEM aims to clarify variance, i.e. forecast of the construct correlations (Fornell and Bookstein, 1982; Hair et al., 2010; Hair et al., 2012).

To illustrate, the differences between variance-based and co-variances based structural equation modelling is presented in the table 20:

Table 20: Structural Equation Modelling – Co-variance and Variance-based

TOPIC		SEM	
		COVARIANCE (CBSEM)	VARIANCE (VBSEM)
Theory	Theory background	strictly theory driven	based on theory, but data driven
	Relation to the theory	confirmatory	predictive
Model specification	Research orientation	parameter	prediction
	Type of the latent measures (constructs)	reflective indicators (<i>and</i> formative, if identified by reflective)	reflective and/or formative indicators
	Latent variables	factors	components
	Model parameters	factor means	component weights
	Type of study	psychometric analysis (attitudes, purchase intention, etc.)	drivers of success, organizational constructs (market / service / consumer orientation, sales force, employees, etc.)
Sample	Structure of unobservables	indeterminate	determinate
	Reliability measures	Cronbach's α (and / or Guttman's λ and GLB)	a) Cohen's f^2 b) ρ_c indicator or Cronbach's α , Guttman's λ and GLB (for the reflective models only)
	Input data	covariance / correlation matrix	individual-level raw data
Goodness-of-fit	Sample size	ratio of sample size to free model parameters – minimum 5 observations to 1 free parameter, optimum is 10	a) Ten observations multiplied with the construct that has highest number of indicators b) The endogenous construct with the largest number of exogenous constructs, multiplied with ten observations
	Data distribution assumption	identical distribution	"soft" modeling, identical distribution is not assumed
	Assessment of the model fit	a) Overall (absolute) fit measures b) Comparative (incremental) fit measures c) Model parsimony	a) Model predictiveness (coefficient of determination, Q^2 predictive relevance and average variance extracted – AVE) b) Stability of estimates, applying the resampling procedures (jack-knifing and bootstrapping).
	Residual co/variance	residual covariances are minimized for optimal parameter fit	residual variances are minimized to obtain optimal prediction
Software		LISREL, AMOS, etc.	SmartPLS, SPSS (PLS module), etc.

Source: St. Davčik (2014: 50)

In the next section the process of evaluating the theoretical model is discussed.

9.3.9.3.1 Evaluating the theoretical model

There are two sub-models in a variance-based structural equation model; (i) the outer model which shows the relations between latent variables and their observed indicators, and, (ii) the inner model which shows the relations between the independent and dependent latent variables. In SEM, a variable is either exogenous (path arrows pointing towards other variables, but none leading to it) or endogenous where at least one path leads to another variable and signifies the influence of other variable(s) (Wong, 2013).

The process of evaluating the outer model is now discussed.

(i) The outer model

The outer model represents the relationship of the latent variables with their respective indicators. It also provides an indication as to the quality of the measurements used to operationalise each of the latent variables (i.e. constructs) in the model. When assessing the outer model, quality criteria must be considered to evaluate the results. Most importantly, determining the reliability and consistency of the model is indicative of high-quality results (Wong, 2013). In short, the outer model tries to answer the question as to how valid and reliable the measures are that we are using to test the proposed theoretical model. The answer to the above question is important: If we find that the quality of our measures is not good enough, they may have a negative impact on the results we may find when evaluating the inner model.

Quality criteria used to evaluate the outer model are now discussed below.

(a) Quality Criteria used to evaluate the outer model

To determine whether the measures are valid and reliable (as is the focus of the outer model), the following quality criteria should be consulted:

- i. For reliability of the indicators this study focuses on composite reliability. This should be higher than 0.7 (Tavakol and Dennick, 2011).
- ii. For validity of the latent variables the researcher uses AVE (Average Variance Extracted). The AVE must be 0.5 and higher (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). Thus, when using the variance-based approach to structural equation modelling, the average variance extracted (AVE) could be consulted as a possible source of information regarding the validity of a latent variable. Also, when evaluating the outer model, several indicators (e.g. sub-dimensions) are used to represent specific latent variables (i.e. constructs). It is therefore important to determine the extent to which these indicators explain enough of the variance in the latent variable for a researcher to conclude that it is valid. In addition, the guideline of 0.5 and higher for values associated with the AVE points, related to the fact that the indicators explain at least 50% of the variance in the particular latent variable on average (Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics, 2009). It should therefore be noted that if the value of the AVE is below the recommended value of 0.5, the combination of indicator variables would be deemed as inappropriate (i.e. less valid) – hence a less valid measure of the construct; and
- iii. In addition to the above, the researcher also looks at the relationship between each indicator and its respective latent variable (i.e. construct). This will show that each of the indicators has a statistically significant loading/relationship with its respective construct.

When the above quality criteria have been met, the inner model can be evaluated.

(b) The inner model

The purpose of the inner model is to provide a depiction of the relationships amongst the variables in the proposed theoretical model. To add to this, the inner theoretical model comprises of predictive or descriptive statements. With the use of this model, the relationship between specific independent and dependent variables is well expressed.

The inner model also contains “the justificatory knowledge and explains why the artifact has the effects it does, and why certain features should be constructed into the artifact in the first place” (Niehaves and Ortbach, 2016: 307). The advantages of applying this model

in the research are that (i) it discloses both dependent and independent variables and their relationships as key elements of the justified knowledge as a result from kernel theory and links them to other elements of design theory; (ii) it also permits multiple reasons for the same outcome, and (iii) the approach includes justified knowledge as part of the design theory and not as an isolated theoretical object (Niehaves and Ortbach, 2016).

In short, the inner model represents the structural model which comprises the theoretical constructs which further expresses their relationships as well as the intuition of the researcher. Such constructs are known for expressing the correlation between the cause (independent variables) and the effects (dependent variables) which can be envisaged through interconnected paths (Niehaves and Ortbach, 2016).

The researcher will subsequently discuss the quality criteria applicable to evaluate the inner model.

(a) Quality criteria used to evaluate the inner model

When evaluating the inner model, the following quality criteria are emphasised:

- i. The strength of the paths between the variables as proposed by the theoretical model (referring to the beta/path coefficients);
- ii. Whether these paths are statistically significant (looking at p - values of 0.05 and lower); and
- iii. The “predictive power/ability” of the proposed theoretical model; the R-squared value is specifically consulted, which is the coefficient of determination of the endogenous latent variables;
- iv. Chin (1988) stated that values for R^2 could be grouped into substantial, moderate and weak, as shown in table 21.

Table 21: Interpreting the coefficient of determination R^2

0.67	Substantial
0.33	Moderate
0.19	Weak

Source: (Chin, 1988)

Based on the above, substantial outcomes show good representation. Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics (2009) stated, however, that a moderate R^2 may also be acceptable when some inner path model structures elucidate an endogenous latent variable by only a couple of exogenous latent variables. But if the endogenous latent variable is dependent on numerous exogenous latent variables the R^2 should be at a substantial level. Moreover, lower results raise uncertainties relating to theoretical foundations and reveal that the model is unable to describe the endogenous latent variable.

The inner model, in addition, is also assessed through estimated values of path coefficients in the structural model. These are assessed as based on sign, scale, and significance (Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics, 2009). It has been found that when mediating latent variables have a suppressor effect on the direct path, standardised inner path model coefficients are usually rejected when having huge quantities of indirect relations. This may cause direct relationships to change; to become irrelevant and insignificant when including extra indirect relationships (Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics, 2009). Based on this, the overall effect should remain stable; sizeable to offer more sensible reasons for assumptions on the inner path model.

All the above quality criteria are used to make a “judgment” whether the inner model is good enough at depicting the proposed relationships of the theoretical model. The diagram below (Figure 9) also captures the differences between inner and outer models.

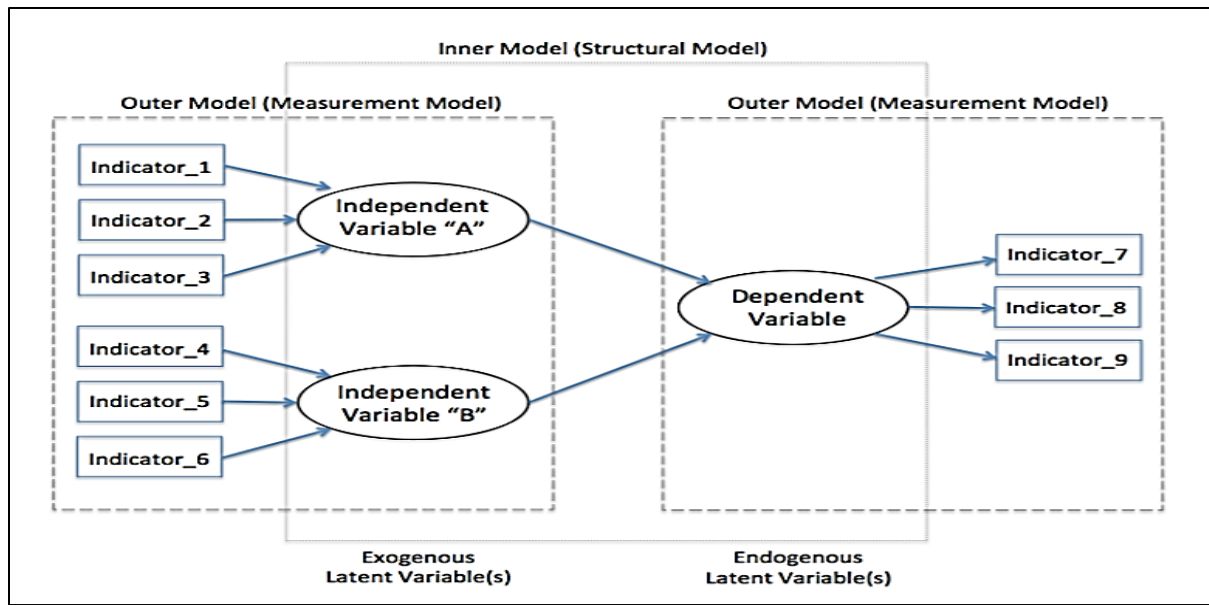


Figure 9: Inner Model vs. Outer Model

Source: Wong (2013: 2).

Hereafter, from the discussion on the Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) approach, based on Partial Least Squares (PLS), which is a popular developing path modelling approach, the researcher formulated a discussion of the qualitative research design.

9.4 QUALITATIVE DESIGN

Qualitative research is defined as “a research strategy that usually emphasises words rather than quantification in the collection and analysis of data” (Bryman and Bell, 2007: 402). Figure 10 illustrates the explanatory sequential design applied in the qualitative research.



Figure 10: The explanatory sequential design - Qualitative Design

Source: Researcher's Concept

9.4.1 Research approach

Creswell (2003) describes qualitative research as an inquiry constructed on specific approaches of inquiry that investigates social or human problems and understanding of how things occur. Therefore, qualitative approaches have been found to be more appropriate when justifications for certain occurrences are needed (e.g. understanding problems or determining treatments or solutions) (Wium and Louw, 2018). In addition, the qualitative research phase of the study is intended to “qualitatively explain” to the results of the first quantitative phase. Researchers typically place more emphasis on the quantitative method than on the qualitative method (Ivankova, Creswell and Stick, 2006).

Hence, it is the researcher’s view that the qualitative research component is important to add value to the analysis of the issues being probed. The focus is rather on exploring how leadership competencies influences employee performance within the chosen municipalities.

To follow, the researcher now discusses the qualitative research population.

9.4.2 Research population

The population for the qualitative research component comprised leaders holding a position not lower than that of assistant director (levels 1 to 5 management). The Local Government: Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act No. 32 of 2000), defines a municipal manager (also referred to as the city manager) as “a person appointed in terms of Section 82 of the Local Government: Municipal Structures Act, 1998” (Act No. 117 of 1998). Van Baalen, Schutte & Von Leipzig (2015) stipulated that, the municipal manager needs numerous skills, accountability and leadership competencies. Moreover, the municipal manager, as the head of the administration, is responsible and accountable for the overall performance of the administration. The Local Government: Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act No. 32 of 2000) stipulates that the municipal manager (level 1 employee) will appoint Section 56 managers (chief operating officer, chief financial officer and group executive directors) who will report directly to him/her (level 2 employees). However, Section 56

managers will appoint group heads, directors and unit heads for each of the departments in the municipality (level 3 employees). These three layers of management are generally referred to as top-, or strategic management. However, deputy directors and assistant directors (managers, level 4 and 5) also participate in strategic decision making and implementation. It must also be noted that it is the norm and generally accepted to refer to level 1 to 5 management as leaders in the municipal environment. Thus, based on the aforesaid, management (levels 1 to 5) were targeted to participate in the qualitative interviews in this study.

Thus, the population of leaders totalled 3,597 employees, of whom 1,200 were employed in the Revenue, Billing, Customer Liaison, Business Support and/or Credit Management Departments in the City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality (City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality, 2015). In the City of Cape Town Metropolitan Municipality, 1,132 were employed in the Revenue, Electricity Generation and Distribution, Water and Sanitation, Customer Relations and the Solid Waste Management Departments (City of Cape Town Metropolitan Municipality, 2017), whereas in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, 1,256 were employed in Group Financial Services: Revenue Management, Customer Care, Electricity, Water and Sanitation, and Waste Removal and Management Departments (City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, 2017).

On this basis, Table 22 illustrates the full population of leaders in the relevant municipalities that was used to calculate the sample required.

Table 22: Calculation of Population for Sample Selection

Description	City of			Total
	Johannesburg	Cape Town	Tshwane	
	Metropolitan Municipality			
Leaders	1 200	1 132	1 265	3 597
Sample Size	5	5	5	15

Source: City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality, (2015); City of Cape Town Metropolitan Municipality, (2016); City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality, (2016).

From the total population of leaders, a sample was then selected as indicated below.

9.4.3 Sampling and sample methodology

The qualitative sample was selected from a population of 3,597 leaders. The sample comprised of fifteen leaders; five from each municipality employed in the relevant departments mentioned in paragraph 9.4.2 above.

There are numerous methods that can be used to select a sample in qualitative research. Purposive sampling, also known as judgmental, selective or subjective sampling, comprises of a group of sampling methods that depend on the judgement of the researcher when choosing the elements that should be investigated. Hence, purposive sampling techniques contain “maximum variation sampling, homogeneous sampling and typical case sampling; extreme (deviant) case sampling, total population sampling and expert sampling” (Sharma, 2017: 751).

Purposive sampling has the following advantages and disadvantages:

Table 23: Advantages and Disadvantages of Purposive Sampling

PURPOSIVE SAMPLING	
Advantages	Disadvantages
The target sample scope is quickly reached, and the researcher can make generalisations from the results.	It does not cater for proportionality.
It comprises of seven different types, thus permitting researchers to discover homogenous samples, perform classic case sampling, look for divergent case sampling, or view characteristics from a total population.	It is susceptible to researcher bias. The conscious or unconscious bias of the researcher may be reflected in the data collected.

Research designs may comprise of multiple stages where each stage is built upon the previous. Thus, in each stage different sampling technique types can apply; hence, a wider range of non-probability sampling can be used to draw conclusions upon.	Results may be difficult to defend and therefore researchers need additional convincing through other data gathering techniques to ensure that results from this sampling method are valid.

Source: Ayres (2018)

The researcher used purposive sampling to select 15 individuals to be interviewed. These leaders were highly skilled in the municipal field and their input was used as confirmation or to add further knowledge or input into the results of the quantitative findings; hence, it is not a lone-standing result that needs to be defended, but rather an additional expansion or contribution to quantitative findings. These leaders also shared similar mannerisms, characteristics or experiences in the municipalities (Etikan, Musa and Alkassim, 2016).

In addition, the sampling was also based on those employees in the metropolitan municipalities who were employed in senior management and held a position not lower than assistant director (levels 1 to 5 management).

The data gathering technique is discussed next.

9.4.4 Data gathering technique

Qualitative interviewing is seen as a deliberate method of exploring the feelings of people and understanding what they think. Semi-structured interviews were therefore conducted with the selected leaders to gather more information and explanations regarding the quantitative results and included, amongst other things, discussions regarding:

- i. Comments and possible explanation of results obtained from the quantitative study; and

- ii. Clarifying or expanding on the quantitative research results in order to gain insight into the quantitative findings.

A list of questions asked during the interview process is included in Chapter 11 of this thesis.

As explained before, it was important to place emphasis on ethics in collecting the data to achieve the objectives of this study, therefore the process of collecting qualitative data was based on the same ethical principles as alluded to during the quantitative phase.

The researcher also ensured that the participants received consent forms before the interviews started. Participants were further informed of the process to safeguard their responses. Subsequently, confidentiality and privacy were again guaranteed verbally during interviews. These interview sessions were arranged beforehand as a method to collect the qualitative data and were arranged as one-on-one interviews with leaders in the relevant municipality. The purpose of this interview was to collect the qualitative data.

The researcher highlighted that participants had the right to freedom of choice, expression and access to information through voluntary participant involvement. Participants further had the choice to withdraw or terminate their participation in the research at any time without fear of prejudice.

Moreover, in these interviews, explicit issues were studied. Thus, for the duration of the semi-structured interview, the researcher aimed at obtaining specific information to gather more insights or explanations from leaders into quantitative findings. In so doing, the researcher attempted to understand the knowledge and insights of the interviewee's world (Rubin and Rubin, 1995).

Hence, the primary data collected for the research from the actual sites of occurrence of the events through semi-structured interviews was recorded and transcribed.

Thereafter the researcher commenced to analyse the data.

9.4.5 Data analysis

Denzin and Lincoln (1994) highlighted that qualitative research uses inductive analysis based on categories, themes and patterns from the data. The categories that materialise from field notes, documents and interviews are thus not imposed preceding data collection.

The researcher employed a thematic analysis as qualitative data analysis technique which is a very flexible method of detecting patterns or themes in qualitative data and it is not associated with specific epistemological or theoretical perspectives. There are several techniques for doing a thematic analysis (Alholjailan, 2012; Javadi and Zarea, 2016), but this variety causes some misperception regarding the nature of thematic analysis, as well as how it differs from a qualitative content analysis (Vaismoradi, Turunen and Bondas, 2013).

Braun and Clarke (2006) differentiated between two different levels of themes: semantic or explicit themes and latent or interpretative themes. Semantic themes are identified within the obvious or superficial meanings in the data, not attempting to identify anything beyond the response of the participant. On the other hand, latent themes study hidden and underlying concepts, assumptions, conceptualisations and beliefs that are suggested as forming or informing the interpretation of the data (Braun and Clarke, 2006: 84; Maguire and Delahunt, 2017).

Braun and Clarke (2006) proposed a 6-step framework to study latent themes, as illustrated in Figure 11.

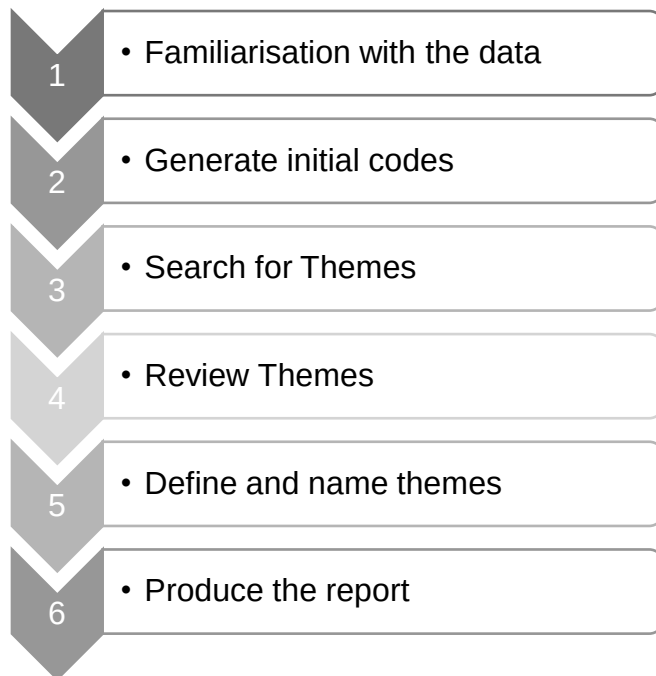


Figure 11: Braun and Clarke's 6-Step Framework of Thematic Analysis

Source: Braun and Clarke (2006: 91 - 98)

To explain:

Step one entails that the researcher should record initial views and should understand and be familiar with the content of the data. This step forms the foundation of the following analysis. The next step includes identifying preliminary codes from patterns where the data seems to be interesting or noteworthy to discuss. Thereafter, step three commences with the revelatory analysis and here the data is sorted according to codes, themes and sub-themes. Moving to step four, the researcher then sorts, combines, separates or discards initial themes. Here, the themes must be sorted according to coded extracts (phase one) and to a complete data set (phase two). Thereafter, during step five, the researcher defines, enhances and refines themes and sub-themes in the data. The aim is to tell a story from the themes. Then, in the final step, the analysis must be transformed into a logical and meaningful explanation, using examples relating to the research questions and literature (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Maguire and Delahunt, 2017).

It is evident that any process to code and interpret data has its pros and cons and therefore Table 24 lists some advantages and disadvantages for thematic data analysis.

Table 24: Advantages and Disadvantages of Thematic Analysis

Advantages	Disadvantages
Highly flexible.	Flexibility can cause variations and absence of coherence when themes are created.
Modify to suit any study.	It disallows the researcher to make statements about language use.
Provides rich, detailed and complex data analysis.	
More accessible form of analysis.	There is a lack of substantial literature in comparison to quantitative literature.
Easy to learn.	
Suitable to: • Examine viewpoints of different research participants; • Highlight resemblances and variances; and • Produce unexpected perceptions.	
Valuable when summarising key elements of large data sets.	

Source: Maguire and Delahunt (2017)

In conclusion, this approach offered more advantages and a clear and practical framework for doing thematic analysis and therefore the researcher used thematic analysis as a qualitative data analysis technique.

In qualitative research, validity and reliability are defined through trustworthiness approaches and therefore a discussion of trustworthiness is required.

9.5 TRUSTWORTHINESS

Trustworthiness of qualitative research is frequently questioned by positivists, since the concepts of validity and reliability cannot be handled in the same way as naturalistic work (Anney, 2014).

Lincoln and Guba (1985) proposed that the significance of research is supported by its trustworthiness and indicated that it comprises of:

- i. Credibility – where Lincoln and Guba (1985) identified continued engagement; determined reflection; triangulation; peer probing; negative incident scrutiny; referential suitability; and participant scrutiny for establishing credibility.
- ii. Transferability – findings can be validated in other situations and employed by thick description which assists to achieve external validity (Amankwaa, 2016; Lincoln and Guba, 1985).
- iii. Dependability can be reached through a method known as inquiry audit (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Inquiry audits are independently done in the absence of the researcher, examining the research process and results (Amankwaa, 2016).
- iv. Confirmability – to have a degree of neutrality or is formed by participants and not by researcher bias, motivation, or interest (Amankwaa, 2016). Lincoln and Guba (1985) recommended confirmability audits, audit trails, triangulation and reflexivity where an audit trail is a clear explanation of all the research steps to the reporting findings (Amankwaa, 2016).

For this study and through the conscious efforts of the researcher, GUBA's model for trustworthiness was thus applied (Finnson et al., 2012); therefore, the researcher did the following:

- i. Made use of triangulation methods which comprised of carefully revising data gathered through different approaches to attain more precise and valid estimates of qualitative results. Triangulation compares data to find corroboration through cross-verification and can be used to confirm proposed results or to determine data completeness; hence, the results from the surveys and interviews were combined to add richness and depth to the research;
- ii. Clarified uncertainties during interviews;
- iii. Used relevant sampling decisions;
- iv. Together with an independent researcher analysed the raw data to reach consensus about the categories that emerged from the themes and checked the consistency in the analysis; and
- v. Remained objective.

To address researcher bias in this study, the researcher also made sure to remain totally independent and did not react to or expand on any input from the interviewees.

Leaders who were interviewed responded to questions asked and their answers were transcribed and reflected in their own words.

The following is a summary and conclusion of this chapter.

9.6 SUMMARY

This chapter commenced with an introduction into the objective and research design. It provided a comprehensive description of the study's research methodology.

The study used an Explanatory Sequential Mixed Methods Design which consisted of two phases, namely quantitative and qualitative research methods. The quantitative research method was used to test the formulated hypotheses of the study and the qualitative method was used to clarify, explain and expand on the results obtained from the quantitative study.

A description of the quantitative research design and approach was provided. After identifying the research population, simple random sampling techniques were used for selecting the respondents in the study. Structured questionnaires were then distributed. Moreover, before the data was collected, respondents' permission was obtained. The researcher ensured to safeguard the anonymity, confidentiality and dignity of the respondents.

A description of the qualitative research design and method was provided thereafter. Once the target group had been identified, purposive sampling techniques were used to identify the respondents for the qualitative research to the study.

Semi-structured interviews were held after that. In addition, before the interviews and gathering of data, respondents' permission was acquired. Data was coded to warrant the anonymity, confidentiality and dignity of the respondents.

The data collection techniques used were envisioned to yield comprehensive, reliable and unbiased results concerning relations between independent and dependent variables in the study. Thematic analysis was applied to interpret the data. Trustworthiness was then discussed.

The results of the qualitative study are presented in Chapter 10. In Chapter 11 the qualitative data analysis is to be discussed, using the methods mentioned in this chapter.

CHAPTER 10

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS: QUANTITATIVE COMPONENT

10.1 INTRODUCTION

This research aimed to explore by means of the literature how leadership competencies relate to individual-level variables (i.e. employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, motivation and employee citizenship behaviour) and how these may influence employee performance in the metropolitan municipalities in South Africa.

Therefore, this chapter aimed to evaluate the conceptual model. This included confirming the relations between the latent variables and their observed indicators and showing the relations between the independent and dependent variables.

The researcher investigated how leadership competencies influence psychological empowerment, spirituality at work, motivation and citizenship behaviour and the effect thereof on employee performance in the metropolitan municipalities in South Africa. This was addressed by stepwise multiple regression results (in conjunction with correlations), as related to total performance.

The second specific objective of the study was to develop a theoretical model depicting the interrelationships amongst these individual-level constructs (independent variables) and their relationship to employee performance (dependent variable). This was addressed in Chapter 8, which focused on the development of the conceptional model.

In the third specific objective, the study aimed at validating or testing and explaining the theoretical model by using empirical data (quantitative and qualitative). Focusing on the quantitative results, the focus will be shifted to the PLS-results of the inner model.

In order to achieve the specific objectives discussed before, the study adopted a mixed-methods research design. Considering that both descriptive and inferential statistical analyses formed the basis of making sense of the information gathered, this chapter offers an illustration and description regarding the findings. The researcher commenced with the descriptive statistics relating to the demographic composition of the sample. Thereafter the researcher presented the results of the study and a summary of the chapter.

10.2 DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

10.2.1 Sample characteristics (demographic variables)

Understanding the demographic composition of participants is important to get a picture as to who the people were that participated in the study. The main demographic characteristics included in the study were gender, age, marital status and information regarding employees' present department, years of experience working in their present department, type of contract, employment grade level in their present position and their educational qualifications. Tables 25 to 32 summarise the demographic characteristics associated with the participants who took part in the study.

Before reporting on the various demographic variables, the following should be noted: The sample consisted of 789 individuals, with 220 from Cape Town, 370 from Johannesburg, and 199 from Tshwane respectively.

Table 25: Frequency Distributions for Demographic Variables – Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	382	48.4	48.7	48.7
	Female	403	51.1	51.3	100.0
	Total	785	99.5	100.0	
Missing	System	4	.5		
Total		789	100.0		

The above table indicates that 785 employees responded, whereas 4 were missing. It illustrates that 48.7% were male and 51.3% female.

Table 26 highlighted that most employees who responded to the questionnaires fell in the age group 41 – 50 years (35%), followed by 31 – 40 years (27.5%). What was also interesting was the fact that only 1.3% was younger than 25 and 3.8% older than 60 years of age.

Table 26: Frequency Distributions for Demographic Variables – Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	25 years and younger	10	1.3	1.3	1.3
	26-30 years old	69	8.7	9.0	10.3
	31-40 years old	211	26.7	27.5	37.8
	41-50 years old	269	34.1	35.0	72.8
	51-60 years old	180	22.8	23.4	96.2
	older than 60 years	29	3.7	3.8	100.0
	Total	768	97.3	100.0	
Missing	System	21	2.7		
Total		789	100.0		

Table 27 reflects marital status. It shows that 56.8% of employees were married and 30.4% single, whereas only 3.5% were separated.

Table 27: Frequency Distributions for Demographic Variables – Marital Status

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Single	240	30.4	30.4	30.4
	Married	448	56.8	56.8	87.2
	Divorced	73	9.3	9.3	96.5
	Separated	28	3.5	3.5	100.0
	Total	789	100.0	100.0	

It was interesting to note (see table 28) that 38.7% of the respondents seemed to be in management support departments, 26% were based in finance, whereas only 3.4% worked in credit management.

Table 28: Frequency Distributions for Demographic Variables – Department

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Billing	26	3.3	5.5	5.5
	Credit Management	16	2.0	3.4	8.9
	Finance	123	15.6	26.0	34.9
	Customer Services	125	15.8	26.4	61.3
	Management	183	23.2	38.7	100.0
	Total	473	59.9	100.0	
Missing	System	316	40.1		
Total		789	100.0		

Table 29 shows the number of years the respondents were employed at the municipality. From this table it is evident that the majority of of the sample (27%) were employed for 6 – 10 years , where >20 years included 25.8% of the total sample. The lowest percentage was found in employees in the bracket 16 – 20 years (9.4%).

Table 29: Frequency Distributions for Demographic Variables – Tenure

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	0-2 years	75	9.5	9.8	9.8
	3-5 years	95	12.0	12.4	22.2
	6-10 years	207	26.2	27.1	49.3
	11-15 years	119	15.1	15.6	64.8
	16-20 years	72	9.1	9.4	74.2
	More than 20 years	197	25.0	25.8	100.0
	Total	765	97.0	100.0	
Missing	System	24	3.0		
Total		789	100.0		

Table 30 shows that more than 90% of the sample were permanent type of employees where only .9% were short-term and 7.1% fixed-term or employed on a five-year performance contract.

Table 30: Frequency Distributions for Demographic Variables – Contract Type

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Fixed Term	54	6.8	7.1	7.1
	Permanent	696	88.2	91.9	99.1
	Short Term	7	.9	.9	100.0
	Total	757	95.9	100.0	
Missing	System	32	4.1		
Total		789	100.0		

Table 31 shows that 50.5% of all respondents fell within junior and middle management, whereas 16.7% of respondents were junior to senior administrators in each municipality.

Table 31: Frequency Distributions for Demographic Variables – Grade

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Clerical	43	5.4	5.7	5.7
	Junior to Senior Administrator	125	15.8	16.7	22.5
	Officers	202	25.6	27	49.5
	Junior and Middle Management	378	47.9	50.5	100
	Total	748	94.7	100	
Missing	System	41	5.2		
Total		789	100		

The next table presents the qualification levels of employees. Those who held bachelor's degrees represented 44.3% of the total sample and after that, 15% related to employees who held master's degrees, while only 8.7% presented employees with a high school certificate.

Table 32: Frequency Distributions for Demographic Variables – Qualification

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	High School	67	8.5	8.7	8.7
	Certificate	65	8.2	8.5	17.2
	Diploma	176	22.3	22.9	40.1
	Bachelor's Degree	341	43.2	44.3	84.4
	Master's Degree	115	14.6	15.0	99.3
	PhD	5	.6	.7	100.0
	Total	769	97.5	100.0	
Missing	System	20	2.5		
Total		789	100.0		

The following is a discussion of the reliability of the research instrument.

10.2.2 Reliability of research instrument characteristics (demographic variables)

Before conducting further analysis, the researcher wanted to be sure that the data collection instruments used, were reliable. As a result, the researcher used Cronbach's alpha for determining reliability. Notably, Cronbach's alpha is not a statistical test, but rather a coefficient of reliability or consistency amongst the constructs under investigation. The results of Cronbach's alpha as obtained from the analysis are illustrated in the following tables.

10.2.2.1 Leadership Dimensions

The Cronbach's alpha results for Leadership Dimensions are illustrated in the following table. There was a total of 15 dimensions that measured leadership within the study. For each aspect, there were a different number of items:

Table 33: Cronbach's Alpha Test for Reliability: Leadership Assessment Questionnaire

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Integrity	.903	4
Conceptual Ability	.912	4
Diversity Learning	.896	4
Empowerment	.863	4
Leadership Communication	.918	4
Visionary Thinking	.934	6
Adaptability	.923	4
Performance Achievement	.899	4
Motivational Capacity	.940	4
Self-Responsibility	.891	4
Information Capacity	.907	4
Cross-Functional Teamwork	.919	4
Purpose Building	.938	4

People Development	.912	3
Business Acumen	N/A	1

The dimensions of the construct of leadership were discussed in more detail in the literature review in Chapter three of this dissertation.

From the findings in Table 33, the alpha coefficient of the different leadership dimensions ranged between .863 and .940. This suggested that, for the various dimensions of leadership measuring leadership competencies, the items were very reliable. Normally, an alpha coefficient of .7 is seen as an acceptable level of internal consistency, whereas .6 is considered poor and .8 good, amongst items used in measuring constructs (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

It could therefore be concluded from the study that the instrument for measuring the leadership construct was reliable, considering the high internal consistency amongst the dimensions used in measuring it.

10.2.2.2 Psychological Empowerment

The Cronbach's alpha for reliability testing of the items used in measuring Psychological Empowerment are provided in the following table:

Table 34: Cronbach's Alpha Test for Reliability: Psychological Empowerment Questionnaire

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Competence	.806	3
Meaning	.850	3
Self-Determination	.837	3
Impact	.817	3

The dimensions of the construct psychological empowerment were discussed in more detail in the literature review in Chapter 4 of this dissertation.

The results of Table 34 indicated that for all the dimensions used in measuring competence, meaning, self-determination and impact, the alpha coefficient was between .806 and .850, which was higher than the recommended .7. This showed a relatively higher internal consistency amongst these dimensions, hence, confirming that the Psychological Empowerment Questionnaire for psychological empowerment could be considered reliable.

10.2.2.3 Spirituality at Work

In the same way as for the previous instruments, the researcher tested for internal consistency within the dimensions adopted for measuring Spirituality at Work. The results of Cronbach's alpha test for reliability were as follows:

Table 35: Cronbach's Alpha Test for Reliability: Spirituality at Work

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Meaningful Work	.911	6
Sense of Community	.905	7
Alignment of Values	.941	8

The dimensions of the construct of Spirituality at Work were discussed in more detail in the literature review in Chapter 5 of this dissertation. It is evident from the results in Table 35 that alpha coefficient ranged between .905 and .941 which was higher than the recommended .7. The implication here is that there was relatively higher internal consistency amongst these dimensions measuring the construct of Spirituality at Work. Consequently, it could be concluded from the study that the instrument for measuring Spirituality at Work in this study was reliable.

10.2.2.4 Motivation Measure

The researcher also tested whether the instrument used for measuring Motivation Measure could be regarded as reliable. The alpha coefficients for the items used in measuring motivation measure are illustrated in Table 36.

Table 36: Cronbach's Alpha Test for Reliability: Motivation Measure

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Intrinsic Motivation	.831	3
Introjected Regulation	.875	3
Extrinsic Motivation	.544	3
Integrated Regulation	.791	3
Identified Regulation	.848	3

The dimensions for the construct Motivation Measure was discussed in more detail in the literature review in Chapter 6 of this dissertation.

In Table 36 the alpha coefficients ranged between .544 and .875 for each dimension. Since the recommended alpha coefficient is .7, it was established in the study that items used for measuring the dimension: Extrinsic Motivation could not be termed as reliable, since its alpha coefficient was only .544. On the other hand, the rest of the items were regarded as having higher internal consistency. Hence, the items used in measuring the dimension of extrinsic motivation had low internal consistency; therefore, extrinsic motivation was identified as a challenge which calls for further investigation.

10.2.2.5 Employee Citizenship Behaviour

The other construct adopted in this study was Employee Citizenship Behaviour. The researcher needed to find out whether the items used in measuring different dimensions for Employee Citizenship Behaviour had high or low international consistency. The alpha coefficients calculated are reported in the following table:

Table 37: Cronbach's Alpha Test for Reliability: Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Scale

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Altruism	.890	3
Courtesy	.844	3
Civic Virtue	.718	3
Sportsmanship	.425	3
Conscientiousness	.744	3

The dimensions of the construct of Employee Citizenship Behaviour were discussed in more detail in the literature review in Chapter 7.

The results in Table 37 indicated that the alpha coefficients ranged from .425 to .890. The alpha coefficients of .7 and more are considered to have higher internal consistency. However, items used in measuring the dimension of Sportsmanship (as a construct of Employee Citizenship Behaviour) had very low internal consistency and low reliability. The remainder of the dimensions had higher internal consistency, as their alpha coefficients were greater than .7. It was therefore concluded that they were reliable. In this case, a challenge with the dimension of Sportsmanship was identified, especially as regards measuring the construct of Employee Citizenship Behaviour. This may form the basis of recommendations for future researchers.

10.2.2.6 Employee Performance

The last construct under evaluation was Employee Performance. The researcher used three dimensions to measure the construct of Employee Performance. The alpha coefficients for these three dimensions were established and the results displayed in the following table:

Table 38: Cronbach's Alpha Test for Reliability: Employee Performance Scale

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Task Performance	.839	6
Adaptive Performance	.735	7
Contextual Performance	.907	10

The dimensions of the construct Employee Performance were discussed in detail in Chapter 2 of this study. Considering the findings in Table 38, the researcher concluded that since all the alpha coefficients were greater than .7, the items had a high internal consistency, demonstrating that the constructs were reliable in the measurement of Employee Performance.

Having established the reliability of the instruments adopted in this study, the researcher went ahead to perform further descriptive statistics as illustrated in the following sections.

10.2.3 Minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation

10.2.3.1 Leadership Dimensions

The first construct under investigation was the Leadership construct. The researcher obtained descriptive statistics of the various Leadership Dimensions and the results are displayed in Table 39.

Table 39: Descriptive Statistics of the Leadership Assessment Questionnaire

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
Integrity (LAQ)	789	1.00	5.00	3.0811	1.04972
Conceptual Learning (LAQ)	789	1.00	5.00	3.0387	.99333
Diversity Learning (LAQ)	789	1.00	5.00	3.0511	1.03637
Empowerment (LAQ)	789	1.00	5.00	2.8875	.98674

Leadership Communication (LAQ)	789	1.00	5.00	2.8863	1.06264
Visionary Thinking (LAQ)	789	1.00	5.00	2.9805	.99436
Adaptability (LAQ)	789	1.00	5.00	2.9345	1.02387
Performance Achievement (LAQ)	789	1.00	5.00	2.9776	1.02611
Motivational Capacity (LAQ)	789	1.00	5.00	2.5945	1.13677
Self-Responsibility (LAQ)	789	1.00	5.00	3.0585	1.05735
Information Capacity (LAQ)	789	1.00	5.00	2.9624	1.01750
Cross-Functional Teamwork (LAQ)	789	1.00	5.00	2.9336	1.00414
Purpose Building (LAQ)	789	1.00	5.00	2.8365	1.07335
People Development (LAQ)	789	1.00	5.00	2.7468	1.11772
Valid N (listwise)	789				

To find the items with the highest and lowest means pictorially, the information in Table 39 was presented in the following chart (Figure 12):

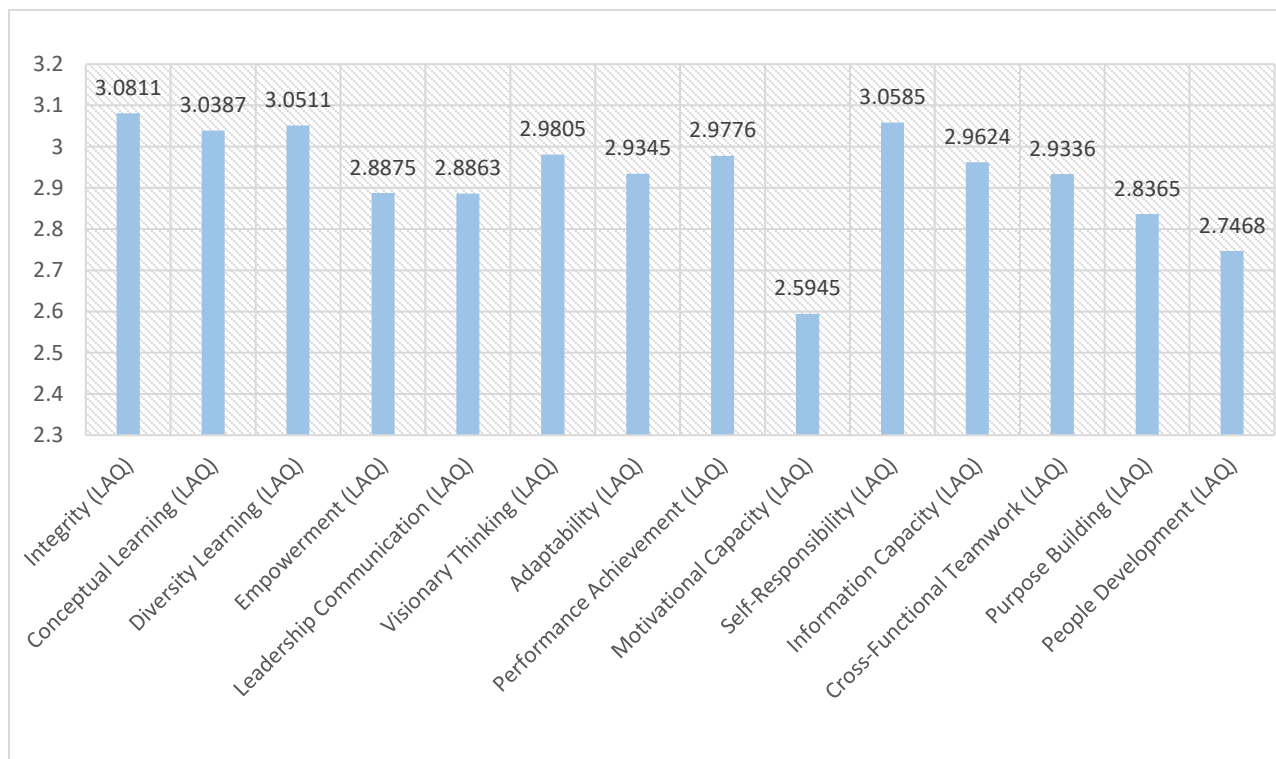


Figure 12: Descriptive Statistics – Leadership Assessment

Based on the findings presented above in Table 39, integrity had the highest mean ($M = 3.0811$, $SD = 1.04972$), implying that of the numerous dimensions that measured the leadership construct, integrity was the leadership competency being demonstrated the most by their leadership.

On the other hand, motivational capacity had the lowest mean ($M = 2.5945$, $SD = 1.13677$). This implies that motivational capacity, according to the sample, was the leadership competency exhibited the least by their leadership.

However, considering that if all the means were rounded off to the nearest number, the result would on average be three (3). This means that on average, participants were fairly satisfied with their leaders' levels of competence in general – across most of the competencies.

Following this, next construct under investigation is Employee Psychological Empowerment.

10.2.3.2 Employee Psychological Empowerment

The second construct of interest in this study was Employee Psychological Empowerment. The descriptive statistics of the Psychological Empowerment construct were obtained and the results displayed in Table 40.

Table 40: Descriptive Statistics for Psychological Empowerment

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
Competence (PEQ)	789	1.00	7.00	5.9792	.90519
Meaning (PEQ)	789	1.00	7.00	5.8416	1.06699
Self-Determination (PEQ)	789	1.00	7.00	5.1636	1.30851
Impact (PEQ)	789	1.00	7.00	4.6837	1.44299
Valid N (listwise)	789				

There was a need to identify the psychological empowerment dimensions that had the highest and lowest perceived use amongst the sample. The results were then graphed as follows (Figure 13):

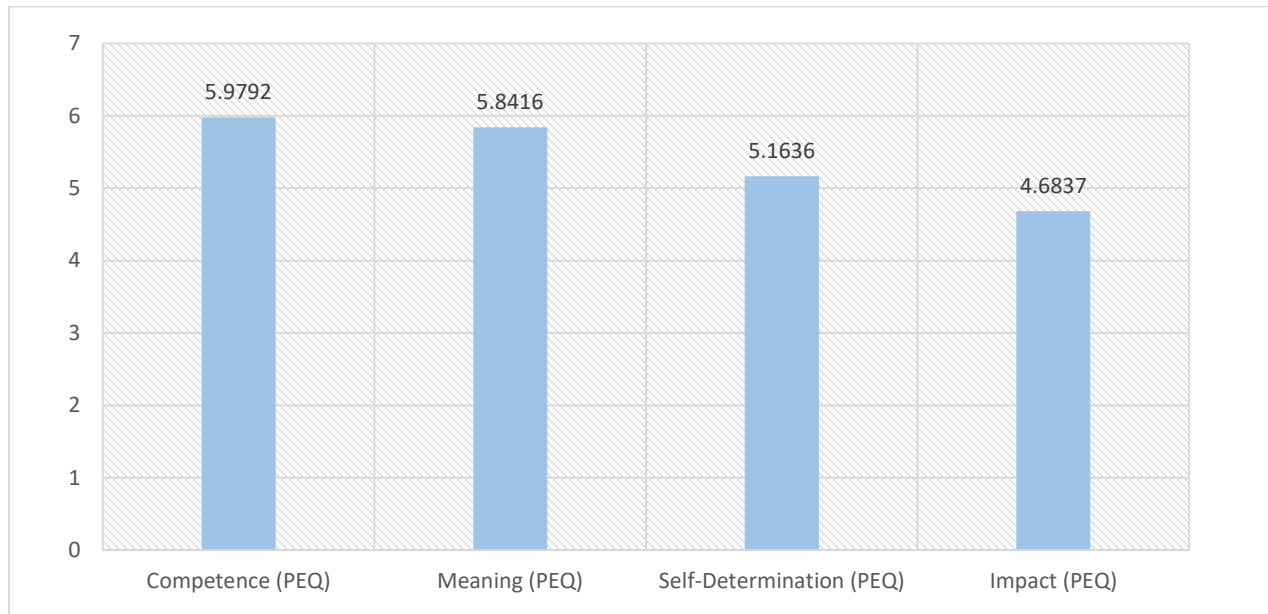


Figure 13: Descriptive Statistics for Psychological Empowerment

From the above results, the Competence dimension, when measuring psychological empowerment, had the highest mean ($M = 5.979$, $SD = .90519$). Impact had the lowest mean ($M = 4.6837$, $SD = 1.44299$). This implies that employees felt that they were mostly empowered because their leaders made them to believe in their competencies (as a dimension of psychological empowerment) to perform work activities with skill. On the other hand, impact as the degree to which one can influence strategic, administrative or operating outcomes at work is perceived to be used less by leadership. However, on average, participants were fairly satisfied with their levels of empowerment in general – across most of the dimensions.

Hereafter, the researcher discusses Employee Workplace Spirituality.

10.2.3.3 Employee Workplace Spirituality

Descriptive statistics on Spirituality at Work were also established for the purposes of determining the level of employee workplace spirituality in general, and each dimension specifically.

The results of the descriptive statistics on Spirituality at Work are illustrated in the following Table 41:

Table 41: Descriptive Statistics for Spirituality at Work

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
Meaningful Work (SAW)	789	1.00	7.00	4.8536	1.22408
Sense of Community (SAW)	789	1.00	7.00	4.6505	1.20154
Alignment of Values (SAW)	789	1.00	7.00	4.3006	1.34412
Valid N (listwise)	789				

The above results were translated into the following chart (Figure 14):

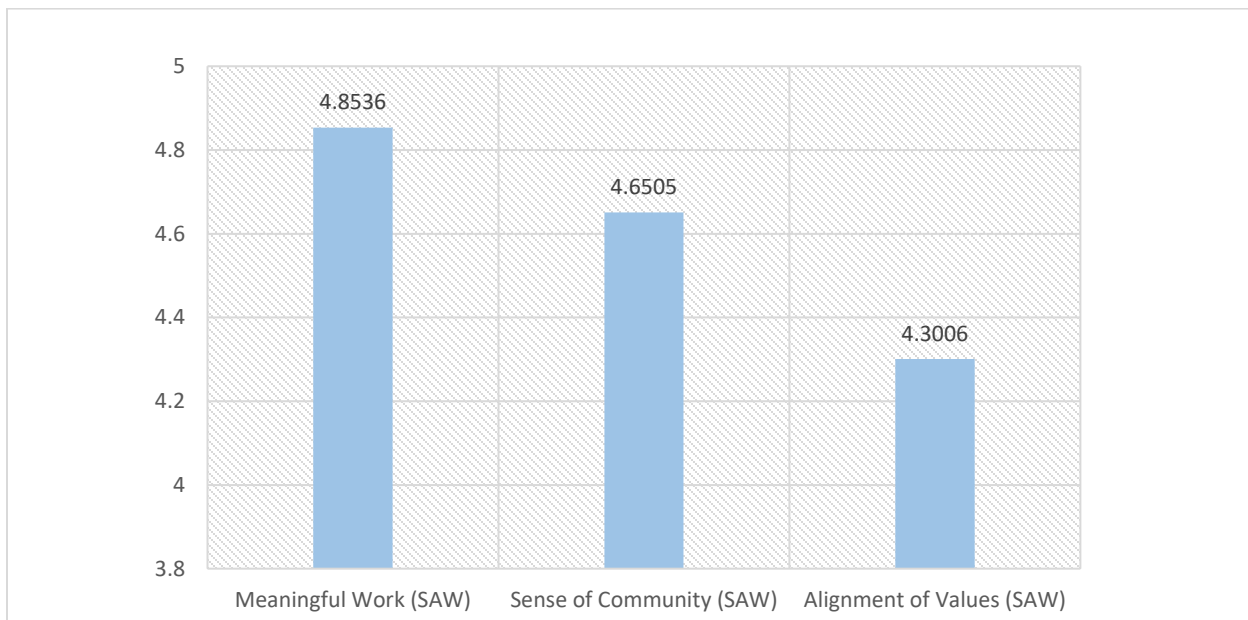


Figure 14: Descriptive Statistics for Spirituality at Work

According to these results, meaningful work had the highest mean ($M = 4.8536$, $SD = 1.22408$) and alignment of values had the lowest mean ($M = 4.3006$, $SD = 1.34412$). This implies that meaningful work had the highest average score on Spirituality at Work.

The 7-point Likert scale adopted in this study would mean that, on average, participants who took part in this study experienced meaningful work, a sense of community, and an alignment of values as factors that contribute towards Spirituality at Work. The results further indicated that participants were reasonably satisfied with their levels of Spirituality at Work in general – across all the dimensions.

Following the above, the construct Employee Motivation is discussed next.

10.2.3.4 Employee Motivation

The researcher also concentrated on the Employee Motivation construct. Different dimensions were used to measure employee motivation. A descriptive statistical analysis of the various constructs used, yielded the results displayed in Table 42:

Table 42: Descriptive Statistics for the Motivation Measure

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
Intrinsic Motivation (MM)	789	1.00	6.00	4.1700	1.04152
Introjected Regulation (MM)	789	1.00	6.00	4.8098	.94814
Extrinsic Motivation (MM)	789	1.00	6.00	4.1056	.83222
Integrated Regulation (MM)	789	1.00	6.00	4.0801	1.03225
Identified Regulation (MM)	789	1.00	6.00	4.8015	.88054
Valid N (listwise)	789				

After presenting the data in Table 42, a chart was also used to demonstrate the construct that had the highest mean and the lowest mean. The findings are illustrated Figure 15.

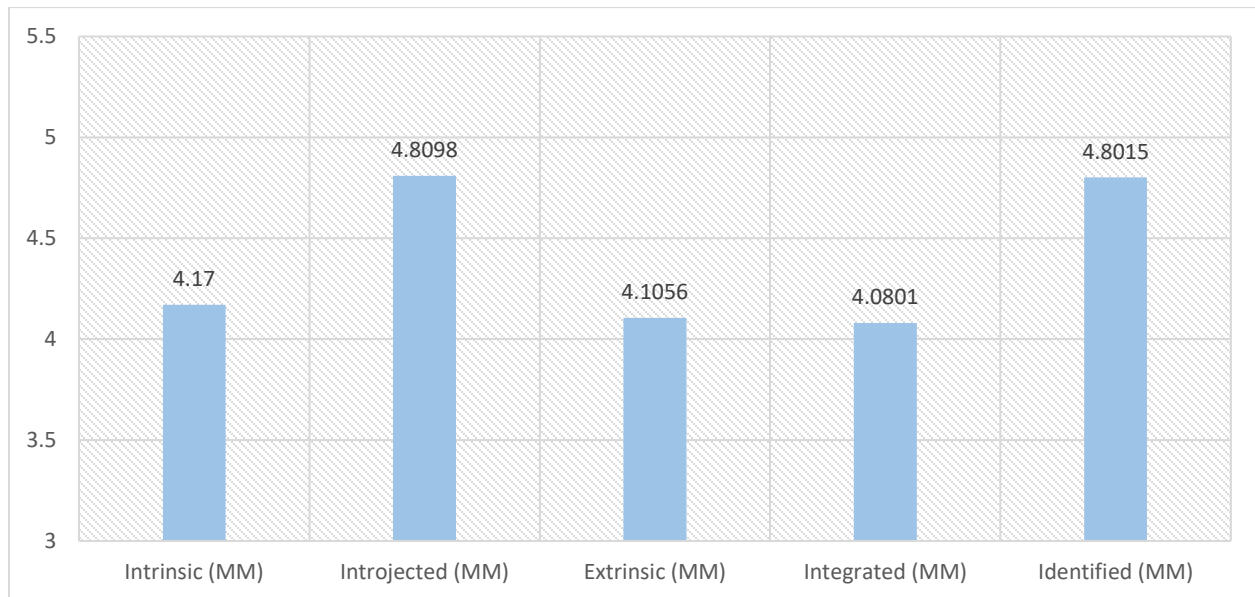


Figure 15: Descriptive Statistics for the Motivation Measure

The results indicated that the dimension of Introjected Regulation had the highest mean ($M = 4.8098$, $SD = .83222$) and the dimension of Integrated Regulation where employees accepted and assessed the rules concerning their other principles and needs, had the lowest mean ($M = 4.08$, $SD = 1.03225$). Thus, according to the participants in the study, the dimension of Introjected Regulation, which involves performing duties to eliminate guilt or increase ego boosts such as pride and maintaining feelings of worthiness, had the greatest influence on employee motivation.

Participants, on average, felt strongly that the dimensions of Introjected Regulation and Identified Regulation mostly influence their levels of motivation. In terms of motivation, the dimensions of Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation and Integrated Regulation had a less important role to play in the motivational levels of the sample.

The construct Employee Citizenship Behaviour will be discussed next.

10.2.3.5 Employee Citizenship Behaviour

The other construct of interest in this study was Employee Citizenship Behaviour. As indicated in Chapter 5, Employee Citizenship Behaviour is also known as Organisational Citizenship Behaviour, Organisational Behaviour or Citizenship Behaviour (Schuck, 2014). But, for the purpose of this study, the researcher will refer to Employee Citizenship Behaviour. The descriptive statistics of Employee Citizenship Behaviour are illustrated in the following Table 43.

Table 43: Descriptive Statistics for Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Scale

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
Altruism (OCBS)	789	2.00	7.00	5.9701	.82491
Courtesy (OCBS)	789	3.00	7.00	5.9627	.82196
Civic Virtue (OCBS)	789	1.00	7.00	5.3889	.92516
Sportsmanship (OCBS)	789	1.00	7.00	4.3293	1.00372
Conscientiousness (OCBS)	789	1.00	7.00	5.6857	.97274
Valid N (listwise)	789				

Figure 16 illustrates the results indicated in Table 43 above.

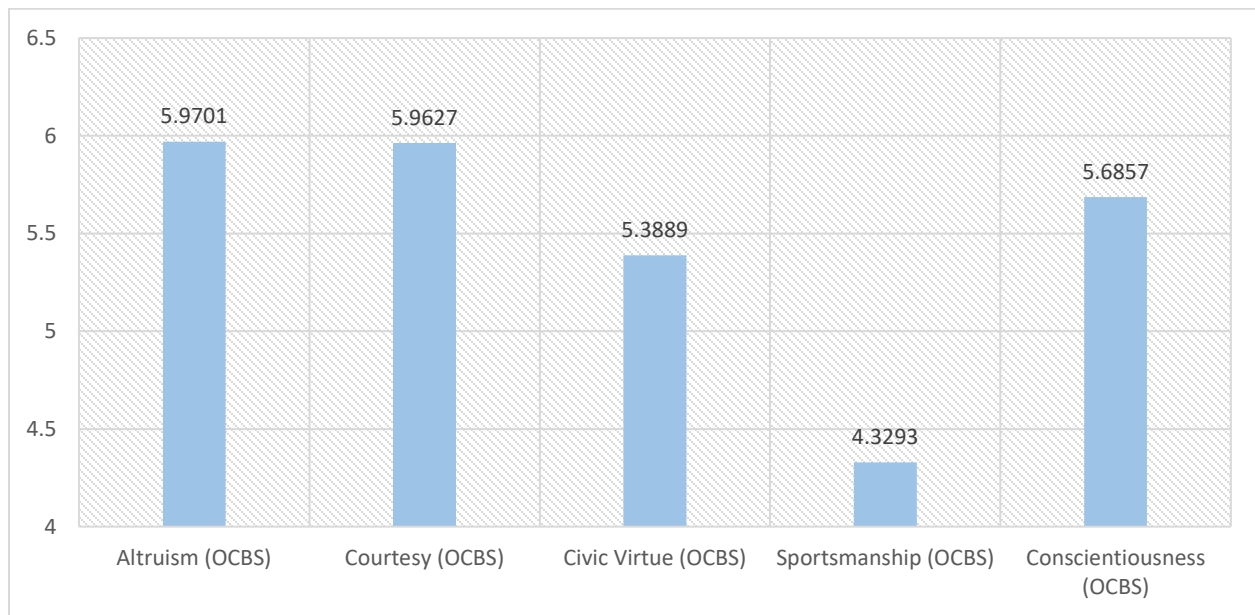


Figure 16: Descriptive Statistics of Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Scale

The findings indicated that of the all dimensions used to measure Employee Citizenship Behaviour, Altruism had the highest mean ($M = 5.9701$, $SD = .82491$) with Sportsmanship having the lowest mean ($M = 4.3293$, $SD = 1.00372$).

This implies that, whereas altruism which is the helping behaviour of an employee and aimed at improving the welfare of co-workers, contributed most toward employee citizenship behaviour, sportsmanship (the willingness of employees) contributed the least. What is more, it had been found earlier that sportsmanship did not have high internal consistency; hence leaving room for improvement.

The construct Employee Performance will be discussed next.

10.2.3.6 Employee Performance

The last construct that was used to assist in meeting the study objectives was Employee Performance. The descriptive statistics for Employee Performance are illustrated in the following Table 44.

Table 44: Descriptive Statistics for the Employee Performance Scale

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
Task Performance (EPS)	789	2.00	5.00	4.3387	.51168
Adaptive Performance (EPS)	789	1.00	5.00	4.0913	.47808
Contextual Performance (EPS)	789	2.00	5.00	4.2387	.48899
Valid N (listwise)	789				

The above data was illustrated in a chart to assist with the visual depiction on the dimensions that had the highest or lowest influence on employee performance, based on their means. Figure 17 illustrates the data presented in Table 44.

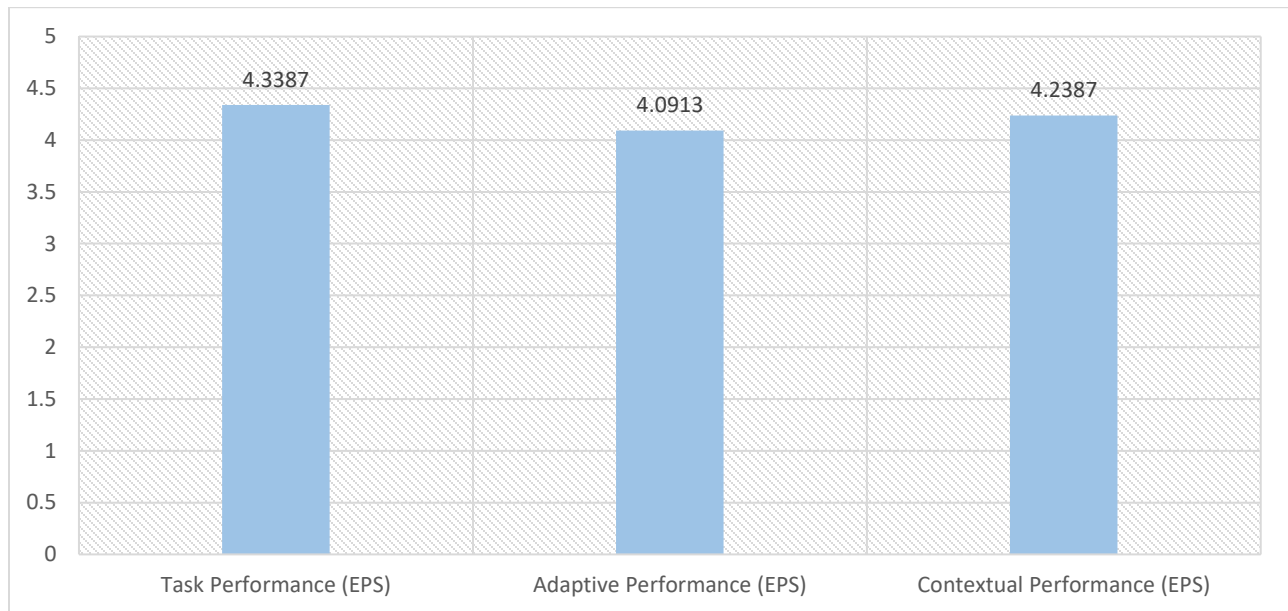


Figure 17: Descriptive Statistics on Employee Performance Scale

From the above findings, task performance had the highest mean ($M = 4.3387$, $SD = .51168$) whilst adaptive performance had the lowest mean ($M = 4.0913$, $SD = .47808$). On average, it appeared as if the sample seemed to perceive their performance as above average.

Next, the researcher presents the results from inferential statistics starting with correlations.

10.3 INFERENTIAL STATISTICS

10.3.1 Correlation

The previous section provided an overview of employees' Levels of Performance, Empowerment, Spirituality at Work, Motivation and Citizen Behaviour and their perceptions of their leaders' competency levels.

Therefore, in this section, the possible relationships between all the constructs in the study and Employee Performance were investigated.

The guidelines suggested by Evans (1996) were used to interpret the absolute value of r and to describe the strengths or weaknesses of the correlations. Evans (1996) proposed that .00 - .19 was “very weak”, .20 - .39 was “weak”, .40 - .59 was “moderate”, .60 - .79 “strong” and .80 – 1.0 “very strong (Datta and Chakrabarti, 2018; Özcan and Korkmaz, 2018).

Thus, Pearson correlation coefficients were generated from the data analysis program and the results are illustrated below:

10.3.1.1 Correlation between Leadership Competencies and Employee Performance

Table 45 presents an analysis of the correlations between Leadership Competencies as these are related to three dimensions of Employee Performance.

Table 45: Correlations between Dimensions of the Leadership Assessment Questionnaire and Employee Performance Scale

Leadership Dimensions (LAQ)		Task Performance (EPS)	Adaptive Performance (EPS)	Contextual Performance (EPS)
Integrity (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.093**	.141**	.080*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.009	.000	.025
	N	789	789	789
Conceptual Learning (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.107**	.151**	.074*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	.000	.039
	N	789	789	789
Diversity Learning (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.118**	.155**	.099**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.006
	N	789	789	789

Empowerment (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.112**	.145**	.066
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.000	.062
	N	789	789	789
Leadership Communication (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.125**	.149**	.103**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.004
	N	789	789	789
Visionary Thinking (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.118**	.160**	.090*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.011
	N	789	789	789
Adaptability (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.119**	.130**	.065
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.069
	N	789	789	789
Performance Achievement (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.119**	.158**	.115**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.001
	N	789	789	789
Motivational Capacity (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.150**	.170**	.136**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	789	789	789
Self-Responsibility (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.125**	.139**	.080*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.024
	N	789	789	789
Information Capacity (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.118**	.155**	.094**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.008
	N	789	789	789

Cross-Functional Teamwork (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.119**	.162**	.095**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000	.008
	N	789	789	789
Purpose Building (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.131**	.156**	.117**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.001
	N	789	789	789
People Development (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.133**	.147**	.108**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.002
	N	789	789	789
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).				
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).				

In the first correlation analysis, the researcher needed to establish the correlation of all Leadership Dimensions to Task Performance, Adaptive Performance and Contextual Performance.

It is evident from Table 45 that all the Leadership Competencies are significantly correlated with the Task Performance dimension of Employee Performance.

Adaptability, being the ability of a leader to respond efficiently and effectively to change in a business environment and comprehend the complexities of the business, had a non-significant correlation with Contextual Performance, therefore there was no statistically significant correlation between the two constructs. Looking at motivational capacity (building confidence) and performance achievement (performance management and evaluation), the researcher observed that there was a statistically significant correlation with Task Performance ($r = .150$, $p = .000$), Adaptive Performance ($r = .170$, $p = .000$) and Contextual Performance ($r = .136$, $p = .000$) at both 5% and 1% significance levels. However, since all the correlation coefficients were less than .20, the researcher concluded that in as much as the correlations were positive and statistically significant, they were very weak in nature (Evans, 1996; Datta and Chakrabarti, 2018; Özcan and

Korkmaz, 2018). On the other hand, integrity (acting and communicating in honesty, truth and reliability, adhering to values and codes of conduct), showed the lowest correlation ($r = .093$) with Task Performance with $p = .009$. Adaptability responding efficiently and effectively to change and understanding complexities of the business) showed the lowest correlation with Adaptive Performance ($r = .093$). Adaptability also showed the lowest and very weak correlation ($r = .065$) with Contextual Performance with a p value of .069, which implied that this correlation was not statistically significant. Similarly, these dimensions are also considered as having a very weak, positive relationship with Employee Performance.

Overall, the researcher established that integrity correlated positively to Task Performance, Adaptive Performance and Contextual Performance. It should also be noted that most of the leadership competency dimensions had higher correlations with Adaptive Performance. Hence, the different leadership competencies were not as strongly related to these three dimensions of Employee Performance.

This also implied that some aspects associated with leadership showed a statistically significant correlation with the different dimensions of employee performance as summarised in the following table:

Table 46: Summary of the correlations between the Dimensions of the Leadership Assessment Questionnaire and Employee Performance Scale

Leadership Dimensions (LAQ)	Task Performance (EPS)	Adaptive Performance (EPS)	Contextual Performance (EPS)
Integrity (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak
Conceptual Learning (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak
Diversity Learning (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak

Empowerment (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak	Statistically Non-Significant (.062); positive and very weak
Leadership Communication (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak
Visionary Thinking (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak
Adaptability (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak	Statistically Non-Significant (.069); positive and very weak
Performance Achievement (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak
Motivational Capacity (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak
Self-Responsibility (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak
Information Capacity (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak
Cross-Functional Teamwork (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak
Purpose Building (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak
People Development (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak	Significant; positive and very weak

In the above correlation analysis, the researcher established the correlation of all leadership dimensions to Task Performance, Adaptive Performance and Contextual Performance. This prompted the researcher's interest in an overall correlation analysis to establish the relationship of all the leadership dimensions to the overall employee performance. Thus, Table 47 illustrates the outcomes of the investigation:

Table 47: Correlations between Dimensions of the Leadership Assessment Questionnaire and Overall Employee Performance

Leadership Dimensions (LAQ)		Performance (Composite Score)
Integrity (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.120**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
	N	789
Conceptual Learning (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.128**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789
Diversity Learning (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.143**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789
Empowerment (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.124**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789
Leadership Communication (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.145**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789
Visionary Thinking (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.141**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789
Adaptability (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.121**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001
	N	789
Performance Achievement (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.150**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789
Motivational Capacity (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.176**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789
Self-Responsibility (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.133**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

	N	789
Information Capacity (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.141**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789
Cross-Functional Teamwork (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.144**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789
Purpose Building (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.155**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789
People Development (LAQ)	Pearson Correlation	.150**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789

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

From the table above, it is evident that leadership dimensions range from $r = .120$ and $r = .176$. Integrity shows the lowest correlation with employee performance ($r = .120$; $p = .001$), whereas motivational capacity shows the highest correlation with employee performance ($r = .176$; $p = .000$). However, all the leadership dimensions showed a highly statistically significant correlation with the composite score for employee performance.

This also implied that the aspects associated with leadership had a statistically significant correlation with employee performance as summarised in the following table:

Table 48: Summary of the Correlations between Dimensions of the Leadership Assessment Questionnaire and Overall Employee Performance

Leadership Dimension (LAQ)	Performance (EPS)
Integrity (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak
Conceptual Learning (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak
Diversity Learning (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak

Empowerment (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak
Leadership Communication (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak
Visionary Thinking (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak
Adaptability (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak
Performance Achievement (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak
Motivational Capacity (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak
Self-Responsibility (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak
Information Capacity (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak
Cross-Functional Teamwork (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak
Purpose Building (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak
People Development (LAQ)	Significant; positive and very weak

10.3.1.2 Correlation between Psychological Empowerment and Employee Performance

Having established the correlation between leadership and employee performance, the next focus was to identify how psychological empowerment correlated with employee performance. Pearson correlation coefficients between the various dimensions of Psychological Empowerment and those of Employee Performance were established and presented in the following table:

Table 49: Correlations between Dimensions of Psychological Empowerment and Employee Performance Scale

Psychological Empowerment Dimensions (PEQ)		Task Performance (EPS)	Adaptive Performance (EPS)	Contextual Performance (EPS)
Competence (PEQ)	Pearson Correlation	.549**	.463**	.404**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	789	789	789
Meaning (PEQ)	Pearson Correlation	.455**	.354**	.324**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000

	N	789	789	789
Self-Determination (PEQ)	Pearson Correlation	.336**	.315**	.217**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	789	789	789
Impact (PEQ)	Pearson Correlation	.330**	.296**	.271**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	789	789	789
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).				

Based on the findings, the researcher established that at 5% significance level, the Competence dimension had the highest statistically positive and moderate correlation with Task Performance ($r = .549$, $p = .000$), Adaptive Performance ($r = .463$, $p = .000$) and Contextual Performance ($r = .404$, $p = .000$). This implied that competence, as a measure of Psychological Empowerment, had a positive influence on performance.

The dimension of Impact, on the other hand, at 5% significance level, showed the lowest, statistically significant, positive, but weak correlation with Task Performance ($r = .330$, $p = .000$), Adaptive Performance ($r = .296$, $p = .000$) and Contextual Performance ($r = .271$, $p = .000$). Thus, impact as a measure of Psychological Empowerment showed a positive correlation with employee performance.

A summary of the correlations between Psychological Empowerment and Employee Performance is presented in this table:

Table 50: Summary of the Correlations between Dimensions of Psychological Empowerment and Employee Performance Scale

Psychological Empowerment Dimensions (PEQ)	Task Performance (EPS)	Adaptive Performance (EPS)	Contextual Performance (EPS)
Competence (PEQ)	Statistically significant, positive and moderate	Statistically significant, positive and moderate	Statistically significant, positive and moderate
Meaning (PEQ)	Statistically significant, positive and moderate	Statistically significant, positive and weak	Statistically significant, positive and weak
Self-Determination (PEQ)	Statistically significant, positive and weak	Statistically significant, positive and weak	Statistically significant, positive and weak
Impact (PEQ)	Statistically significant, positive and weak	Statistically significant, positive and weak	Statistically significant, positive and weak

From the findings it could be noted that all dimensions showed positive correlations related to the three dimensions of Employee Performance. Thus, Psychological Empowerment, in general, had a statistically significant positive correlation with Employee Performance.

The researcher then established the Pearson Correlation Coefficients between the various dimensions of Psychological Empowerment and overall Employee Performance as presented in the following table:

Table 51: Correlations between Dimensions of Psychological Empowerment and Overall Employee Performance

Psychological Empowerment Dimensions (PEQ)		Performance (Composite score)
Competence (PEQ)	Pearson Correlation	.547**

	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789
Meaning (PEQ)	Pearson Correlation	.438**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789
Self-Determination (PEQ)	Pearson Correlation	.335**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789
Impact (PEQ)	Pearson Correlation	.346**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).		

Based on the above findings, the researcher established that at a 5% significance level, the dimension of competence showed the highest statistically positive and moderate correlation with Employee Performance ($r = .547$, $p = .000$), whereas self-determination showed the lowest statistically positive and weak correlation to Employee Performance ($r = .335$, $p = .000$). A summary of the correlations between Psychological Empowerment and Employee Performance is presented in Table 52:

Table 52: Summary of the Correlations between Dimensions of Psychological Empowerment and Overall Employee Performance

Psychological Empowerment Dimensions (PEQ)	Performance (EPS)
Competence (PEQ)	Statistically significant, positive and moderate
Meaning (PEQ)	Statistically significant, positive and moderate
Self-Determination (PEQ)	Statistically significant, positive and weak
Impact (PEQ)	Statistically significant, positive and weak

10.3.1.3 Correlation between Spirituality at Work and Performance

Having completed the above, the researcher was then concerned with establishing how Spirituality at Work correlated with Employee Performance. The Pearson Correlation Coefficients obtained from performing the correlation between spirituality at work and performance are illustrated in the following table:

Table 53: Correlations between Dimensions of Spirituality at Work and Employee Performance Scale

Employee Workplace Spirituality (SAW) Dimensions		Task Performance (EPS)	Adaptive Performance (EPS)	Contextual Performance (EPS)
Meaningful Work (SAW)	Pearson Correlation	.411**	.361**	.296**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	789	789	789
Sense of Community (SAW)	Pearson Correlation	.258**	.285**	.295**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	789	789	789
Alignment of Values (SAW)	Pearson Correlation	.260**	.287**	.250**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	789	789	789
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).				

The Pearson Correlation for all the dimensions related to Spirituality at Work varied between $r = .250$ and $r = .417$.

The Pearson Correlation for all the dimensions related to Task Performance also varied between $r = .258$ (sense of community) and $r = .411$ (meaningful work). The researcher found that at 5% significance level, the dimension of Meaningful Work showed the highest

correlation, statistically significant, positive, but moderate correlation with Task performance ($r = .411$, $p = .000$).

For adaptive performance the Pearson Correlation varied between $r = .285$ (sense of community) and $r = .361$ (meaningful work). At a 5% significance level the dimension of Meaningful Work ($r = .361$, $p = .000$) showed the highest statistically significant positive, but weak correlation with Adaptive Performance.

In addition to this, in respect of Contextual Performance, the Pearson Correlation ranged between $r = .250$ (alignment of values), which was statistically significant and $r = .296$ (meaningful work).

It is clear from the above that all three the dimensions of Spirituality at Work showed a significant relationship with performance. It would therefore be important to enhance spirituality at work in the organisation to improve performance, as it relates to the three dimensions of Employee Performance. In general, all dimensions of Spirituality at Work had a positive effect on Employee Performance.

A summary of the correlations between Spirituality at Work and performance is presented in Table 54:

Table 54: Summary of the Correlations between Dimensions of Spirituality at Work and Employee Performance Scale

Employee Workplace Spirituality (SAW) Dimensions	Task Performance (EPS)	Adaptive Performance (EPS)	Contextual Performance (EPS)
Meaningful Work (SAW)	Statistically significant, positive and moderate	Statistically significant, positive and weak	Statistically significant, positive and weak
Sense of Community (SAW)	Statistically significant, positive and weak	Statistically significant, positive and weak	Statistically significant, positive and weak

Alignment of Values (SAW)	Statistically significant, positive and weak	Statistically significant, positive and weak	Statistically significant, positive and weak

From the above findings, all the dimensions of Spirituality at Work were thus found to be statistically significantly correlated to Employee Performance. This would mean that spirituality at work, in general, had a statistically significant positive correlation with employee performance. The above findings led to an interest to investigate the correlations between the dimensions of Spirituality at Work and overall performance. The Pearson Correlation Coefficients obtained from performing this correlation analysis between Spirituality at Work and overall Employee Performance are illustrated in the following table:

Table 55: Correlations between Dimensions of Spirituality at Work and Overall Employee Performance

Employee Workplace Spirituality Dimensions (SAW)		Performance (Composite Score)
Meaningful Work (SAW)	Pearson Correlation	.412**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789
Sense of Community (SAW)	Pearson Correlation	.323**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789
Alignment of Values (SAW)	Pearson Correlation	.307**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789

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

The above table illustrates correlations ranging from $r = .307$ to $r = .412$. The dimension of Alignment of Values, measured at a 5% significance level, showed the lowest, but statistically significant positive, but weak, correlation with performance ($r = .307$, $p = .000$).

The dimension of Meaningful Work showed a statistically significant, positive, but weak correlation with Contextual Performance ($r = .412$, $p = .000$).

To summarise, Spirituality at Work in general showed a statistically significant positive correlation with performance.

A summary of the correlations between Spirituality at Work and overall employee performance is presented in Table 56.

Table 56: Summary of the Correlations between Spirituality at Work and Overall Employee Performance

Employee Workplace Spirituality (SAW) Dimensions	Performance (EPS)
Meaningful Work (SAW)	Statistically significant, positive and moderate
Sense of Community (SAW)	Statistically significant, positive and weak
Alignment of Values (SAW)	Statistically significant, positive and weak

Although there were no aspects with non-statistically significant correlations, this implied that Spirituality at Work, in general, had a statistically significant positive correlation with performance.

10.3.1.4 Correlation between Motivation Measure and Employee Performance

The researcher was also interested in establishing how motivation measured up when correlated with performance. The Pearson Correlation Coefficients obtained from performing the correlation between Motivation Measure and performance are illustrated in the following table:

Table 57: Correlations between Dimensions of Motivation Measure and Employee Performance Scale

Motivation measure Dimensions (MM)		Task Performance (EPS)	Adaptive Performance (EPS)	Contextual Performance (EPS)
Intrinsic Motivation (MM)	Pearson Correlation	.405**	.368**	.297**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	789	789	789
Introjected Regulation (MM)	Pearson Correlation	.478**	.415**	.365**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	789	789	789
Extrinsic Motivation (MM)	Pearson Correlation	.291**	.237**	.300**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	789	789	789
Integrated Regulation (MM)	Pearson Correlation	.451**	.357**	.351**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	789	789	789
Identified Regulation (MM)	Pearson Correlation	.543**	.481**	.423**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	789	789	789
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).				

The findings indicated that at 5% significance level the dimensions of Motivation Measure showed statistically significant, positive, but moderate to weak correlations with Task Performance ($r = .291$ to $r = .543$), Adaptive Performance ($r = .237$ to $r = .481$), and Contextual Performance ($r = .297$ to $r = .423$).

Findings indicated that at 5% significance level the dimension of Identified Regulation, showed a statistically significant, positive, but moderate correlation with Task Performance ($r = .543$, $p = .000$), Adaptive Performance ($r = .481$, $p = .000$) and Contextual Performance ($r = .423$, $p = .000$).

On the other hand, the dimension of Extrinsic Motivation also showed statistically significant, positive, but weak correlation with Task Performance ($r = .291$, $p = .000$) and Adaptive Performance ($r = .237$, $p = .000$). Moreover, the researcher found that at 5% significance level the aspect of Intrinsic Motivation had the lowest statistically significant, positive, but weak correlation to Contextual Performance ($r = .297$, $p = .000$).

These findings indicated that all the dimensions of Motivation Measure showed positive correlations as related to the three dimensions of Employee Performance and that they were statistically significant as summarised in the following table:

Table 58: Summary of the Correlations between Motivation Measure and Employee Performance

Motivation Measure Dimensions (MM)	Task Performance (EPS)	Adaptive Performance (EPS)	Contextual Performance (EPS)
Intrinsic Motivation (MM)	Statistically significant, positive and moderate	Statistically significant, positive and weak	Statistically significant, positive and weak
Introjected Regulation (MM)	Statistically significant, positive and moderate	Statistically significant, positive and moderate	Statistically significant, positive and weak
Extrinsic Motivation (MM)	Statistically significant, positive and weak	Statistically significant, positive and weak	Statistically significant, positive and weak
Integrated Regulation (MM)	Statistically significant, positive and moderate	Statistically significant, positive and weak	Statistically significant, positive and weak

Identified Regulation (MM)	Statistically significant, positive and moderate	Statistically significant, positive and moderate	Statistically significant, positive and moderate

From the above summary it can be noted that Motivation Measure, in general, had a positive correlation as related to the three dimensions of Employee Performance. This means that the more employees were motivated, the higher the likelihood that productivity would increase; hence, motivation had a positive effect on employee performance in the organisations in question.

Based on the above results the researcher was also interested in establishing how Motivation Measure correlated with overall Employee Performance. The Pearson Correlation Coefficients obtained from performing the correlation between Motivation Measure and Performance are illustrated in the following table:

Table 59: Correlations between Motivation Measure and Employee Performance

Motivation Measure Dimensions (MM)		Performance (Composite Score)
Intrinsic Motivation (MM)	Pearson Correlation	.413**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789
Introjected Regulation (MM)	Pearson Correlation	.486**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789
Extrinsic Motivation (MM)	Pearson Correlation	.319**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789
Integrated Regulation (MM)	Pearson Correlation	.447**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789
Identified Regulation (MM)	Pearson Correlation	.559**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

	N	789
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).		

The findings in Table 59 above indicated that at 5% significance level the dimensions of Motivation Measure showed statistically significant, positive, but weak to moderate correlations with Employee Performance ($r = .319$ to $r = .559$). The dimension Identified Regulation showed the highest correlation with $r = .559$ and $p = .000$. Extrinsic Motivation showed the lowest correlation with $r = .319$ and $p = .000$.

Based on these findings, the researcher identified that all the dimensions of Employee Motivation had positive correlations with Performance and that they were statistically significant as summarised in the following table:

Table 60: Summary of the Correlations between Motivation Measure and Employee Performance

Motivation Measure Dimensions (MM)	Performance (EPS)
Intrinsic Motivation (MM)	Statistically significant, positive and moderate
Introjected Regulation (MM)	Statistically significant, positive and moderate
Extrinsic Motivation (MM)	Statistically significant, positive and weak
Integrated Regulation (MM)	Statistically significant, positive and moderate
Identified Regulation (MM)	Statistically significant, positive and moderate

Thus, Table 60 shows that in general, Motivation Measure showed a positive correlation with Performance.

10.3.1.5 Correlation between Employee Citizenship Behaviour and Employee Performance

The last concept to address was that of Employee Citizenship Behaviour and the effect thereof on the three dimensions of Employee Performance. Pearson's Correlation Coefficients were used to establish the correlation between Employee Citizenship Behaviour and Employee Performance as summarised in the Table 61:

Table 61: Correlation between the Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Scale and Employee Performance Scale

		Correlations		
		Task Performance (EPS)	Adaptive Performance (EPS)	Contextual Performance (EPS)
Altruism (OCBS)	Pearson Correlation	.486**	.448**	.562**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	789	789	789
Courtesy (OCBS)	Pearson Correlation	.433**	.424**	.527**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	789	789	789
Civic Virtue (OCBS)	Pearson Correlation	.453**	.417**	.470**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	789	789	789
Sportsmanship (OCBS)	Pearson Correlation	.048	-.030	.140**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.176	.398	.000
	N	789	789	789
Conscientiousness (OCBS)	Pearson Correlation	.515**	.406**	.409**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000
	N	789	789	789
**, Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).				

As illustrated in Table 61 above, it was established that at 1% level of significance, the dimension of Conscientiousness showed the highest statistically significant, positive, but moderate, correlation with Task Performance ($r = .515$, $p = .000$), whereas Altruism showed the highest statistically significant, positive, but moderate, correlation with Adaptive Performance ($r = .448$, $p = .000$) and with Contextual Performance ($r = .562$, $p = .000$).

The other findings indicated that the dimension of Sportsmanship had a non-significant, positive, and very weak correlation with Task Performance ($r = .048$, $p = .176$). Sportsmanship also had a non-significant, negative, and very weak correlation with Adaptive Performance ($r = -.030$, $p = .398$). Only Contextual Performance ($r = .140$, $p = .000$) was significantly related to Sportsmanship.

Table 62 summarises the correlations between Organizational Citizenship Behaviour and Employee Performance.

Table 62: Summary of the Correlations between Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Scale and Employee Performance Scale

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Dimensions (OCBS)	Task Performance (EPS)	Adaptive Performance (EPS)	Contextual Performance (EPS)
Altruism (OCBS)	Statistically significant positive and moderate	Statistically significant positive and moderate	Statistically significant positive and moderate
Courtesy (OCBS)	Statistically significant positive and weak	Statistically significant positive and moderate	Statistically significant positive and moderate

Civic Virtue (OCBS)	Statistically significant positive and moderate	Statistically significant positive and moderate	Statistically significant positive and moderate
Sportsmanship (OCBS)	Non-significant, positive and weak	Non-significant, negative and very weak	Statistically significant positive and very weak
Conscientiousness (OCBS)	Statistically significant positive and moderate	Statistically significant positive and moderate	Statistically significant positive and moderate

The findings summarised in the above table depict that it becomes easier to improve the three dimensions of Employee Performance with positive employee citizenship behaviour. these findings prompt the interest of illustrating the correlation between employee citizenship behaviour and performance in general.

Thus, at 1% level of significance, the researcher found that the dimension of Altruism showed the highest statistically significant positive, but moderate, correlation with Performance ($r = .576$, $p = .000$) and Sportsmanship showed the lowest correlation (non-significant) with Performance ($r = .062$, $p = .084$), as set out in the table 63.

Table 63: Correlation between Organizational Citizenship Behaviour Scale and Overall Employee Performance

Correlations		
		Employee Performance (Composite Score)
Altruism (OCBS)	Pearson Correlation	.576**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789
Courtesy (OCBS)	Pearson Correlation	.533**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789

Civic Virtue (OCBS)	Pearson Correlation	.517**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789
Sportsmanship (OCBS)	Pearson Correlation	.062
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.084
	N	789
Conscientiousness (OCBS)	Pearson Correlation	.514**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	789
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).		

These findings indicated that all the dimensions of Employee Citizenship Behaviour had positive correlations with Performance and that they were statistically significant, as summarised in the following table. However, Sportsmanship showed a very weak positive correlation with Performance.

Table 64: Summary of the Correlations between Employee Citizenship Behaviour and Overall Employee Performance

Organizational Citizenship Behaviour (OCBS) Dimensions	Performance (EPS)
Altruism (OCBS)	Statistically significant positive and moderate
Courtesy (OCBS)	Statistically significant positive and moderate
Civic Virtue (OCBS)	Statistically significant positive and moderate
Sportsmanship (OCBS)	Non-significant, positive and very weak
Conscientiousness (OCBS)	Statistically significant positive and moderate

The regression analysis is discussed next.

10.3.2 Regression analysis

Even though the correlational analysis offered insight on how the different independent constructs correlated with the dependent construct, it was difficult to establish the degree of influence or the effect of the former on the latter.

As a result of this, a Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis was performed. The results of the Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis are provided and discussed in the following sections:

10.3.2.1 Stepwise Multiple Regression: Task Performance (All Independent Variables)

The study conducted a Stepwise Multiple Regression with Performance as the dependent construct and Task Performance as a dimension of Performance and all the other constructs – Leadership, Psychological Empowerment, Spirituality at Work, Employee Motivation and Employee Citizenship Behaviour – being the independent constructs.

Different models were developed and the findings are summarised in the following tables:

Table 65: Model Summary: Stepwise Multiple Regression: Task Performance (All Independent Variables)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
8	.711 ^h	.506	.501	.36163

According to the findings, there are eight significant predictors of Task Performance, accounting for 50.6% of the variance in the dependent variable. The eight significant predictors were Competence, a dimension of the construct of Psychological Empowerment; Identified Regulation and Introjected Regulation from the construct Motivation; Conscientiousness, Civic Virtue and Altruism as dimensions of Employee Citizenship Behaviour; and Meaningful Work and the Sense of Community dimension of the construct Spirituality at Work.

The study also performed ANOVA, of which the findings are summarised in the following table:

Table 66: ANOVA: Stepwise Multiple Regression: Task Performance (All Independent Variables)

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	104.309	8	13.039	99.704	.000 ⁱ
	Residual	102.003	780	.131		
	Total	206.312	788			

According to the results, the F-statistic test for this model was statistically significant at 5% level of significance. This means the regression model was statistically significant.

The next step was to establish how the various Independent Constructs – Leadership, Psychological Empowerment, Spirituality at Work, Employee Motivation and Employee Citizenship Behaviour – would have an impact on the dimension Task Performance of the dependent construct, Employee Performance.

The coefficients of the stepwise multiple regression for Task Performance were obtained and the results were as follows:

Table 10.67: Coefficients: Stepwise Multiple Regression: Task Performance (All Independent Variables)

Coefficients ^a						
Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
	(Constant)	1.372	.113		12.177	.000
	Competence (PEQ)	0.162	0.02	0.287	9.665	0
	Conscientiousness (OCBS)	0.095	0.02	0.180	5.76	0

Identified Regulation (MM)	0.082	0.02	0.141	3.556	0
Meaningful Work (SAW)	0.049	0.02	0.117	3.18	0
Civic Virtue (OCBS)	0.061	0.02	0.110	3.574	0
Introjected Regulation (MM)	0.059	0.02	0.110	3.227	0
Altruism (OCBS)	0.065	0.02	0.104	3.181	0
Sense of Community (SAW)	-0.04	0.01	-0.090	-2.654	0.01
PEQ – Psychological Empowerment MM – Motivation Measure SAW – Spirituality at Work OCBS – Organizational Citizenship Behaviour					

From the findings it appeared that all the t-test statistics were statistically significant at 5% level of significance given that their p values < .05. The selected model showed all the t-values for the included constructs as being statistically significant at 5% level of significance since their p values < .05.

Given the results, competence has the greatest effect on Employee Task Performance ($\beta = .287$) followed by conscientiousness ($\beta = .180$), identified regulation ($\beta = .141$), meaningful work ($\beta = .117$), civic virtue and introjected regulation ($\beta = .110$), altruism ($\beta = .104$), and sense of community ($\beta = -0.090$) showed a negative effect on Employee Task Performance.

The findings also indicated that none of the leadership competencies were significant predictors of Task Performance.

10.3.2.2 Stepwise Multiple Regression: Adaptive Performance (All Independents)

The other interest of the researcher was to evaluate how all the independent constructs – Leadership, Psychological Empowerment, Spirituality at Work, Employee Motivation

and Employee Citizenship Behaviour – affected Adaptive Performance as a dimension of performance. As a result, various models were developed to assist in establishing how the various independent constructs would impact on the Adaptive Performance Dimension.

The findings obtained from the analysis are summarised in the following sections:

Table 10.68: Model Summary: Stepwise Multiple Regression: Adaptive Performance (All Independent Variables)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
8	.623 ^h	.388	.381	.37604

According to the Stepwise Multiple Regression results, there were eight (8) statistically significant predictors of employees' levels of Adaptive Performance. These eight predictors were: Identified regulation from the construct Motivation, competence as a dimension of Psychological Empowerment, civic virtue, courtesy, sportsmanship and conscientiousness, dimensions of Employee Citizenship Behaviour, self-determination from the construct Psychological Empowerment, and introjected regulation from the construct Motivation. These eight predictors explained 38.8% of the variance in adaptive performance.

The study also performed ANOVA, of which the findings are summarised in the following table:

Table 69: ANOVA: Stepwise Multiple Regression: Adaptive Performance (All Independent Variables)

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Total	180.109	788			
	Regression	69.814	8	8.727	61.716	.000 ⁱ

	Residual	110.294	780	.141		
	Total	180.109	788			

According to the results, the F-statistic test for this model was statistically significant at 5% level of significance. This means the regression model was statistically significant.

The next step was to establish how the various independent constructs – Leadership, Psychological Empowerment, Spirituality at Work, Employee Motivation and Employee Citizenship Behaviour – would have an impact on the dimension Adaptive Performance of the dependent construct, Performance. The coefficients of the Stepwise Multiple Regression for Adaptive Performance were obtained and the results were as follows:

Table 70: Coefficients: Stepwise Multiple Regression: Adaptive Performance (All Independent Variables)

Coefficients ^a						
Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
	(Constant)	1.747	.128		13.631	.000
	Competence (PEQ)	0.111	0.02	0.210	6.179	0
	Identified Regulation (MM)	0.081	0.02	0.150	3.673	0
	Civic Virtue (OCBS)	0.078	0.02	0.150	4.403	0
	Courtesy (OCBS)	0.082	0.02	0.142	4.031	0
	Conscientiousness (OCBS)	0.042	0.02	0.086	2.462	0.01
	Introjected Regulation (MM)	0.041	0.02	0.081	2.128	0.03
	Self-Determination (PEQ)	0.028	0.01	0.076	2.384	0.02

	Sportsmanship (OCBS)	-0.05	0.01	-0.100	-3.387	0
PEQ – Psychological Empowerment OCBS – Organizational Citizenship Behaviour MM – Motivation Measure						

From the findings, all the t-test statistics were statistically significant at 5% level of significance, given that their p values < .05. The selected model shows all the t-tests for the included constructs as being statistically significant at 5% level of significance because of their p values < .05.

According to the stepwise multiple regression results, there were eight (8) significant predictors, where competence had the greatest effect on Adaptive Performance ($\beta = .210$), followed by the constructs identified regulation and civic virtue ($\beta = .150$); thereafter courtesy ($\beta = .142$), conscientiousness ($\beta = .086$), introjected regulation ($\beta = .081$) and self-determination ($\beta = .076$). On the other hand, sportsmanship ($\beta = -.0100$) had a negative influence on employee Adaptive Performance.

The findings also indicated that none of the leadership competencies were significant predictors of Adaptive Performance.

10.3.2.3 Stepwise Multiple Regression: Contextual Performance (All Independent Variables)

The researcher conducted a Stepwise Multiple Regression with the dimension Contextual Performance, of performance as the dependent construct and all the other constructs – Leadership, Psychological Empowerment, Spirituality at Work, Employee Motivation and Employee Citizenship Behaviour – being the independent constructs. Different models were developed and the findings are summarised in the following table:

Table 71: Model Summary: Stepwise Multiple Regression: Contextual Performance (All Independent Variables)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
6	.656 ^f	.431	.427	.37029

According to the Stepwise Multiple Regression results, there were six (6) significant predictors of employees' levels of Contextual Performance. These six predictors were: Altruism, Civic Virtue and Courtesy as dimensions of the construct Employee Citizenship Behaviour; Competence of the construct Psychological Empowerment; the dimension Extrinsic Motivation of the construct Motivation and Sense of Community from the dimension Spirituality at Work. These six predictors explained 43.1% of the variance in Contextual Performance.

The study also performed ANOVA, of which the findings are summarised in the following table:

Table 72: ANOVA: Stepwise Multiple Regression: Contextual Performance (All Independent Variables)

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	81.200	6	13.5334	99.703	.000 ^g
	Residual	107.221	782	.137		
	Total	188.421	788			

According to the results, the F-statistic test for this model was statistically significant at 5% level of significance. This means the Regression Model was statistically significant.

The next step was to establish how the various Independent Constructs – Leadership, Psychological Empowerment, Spirituality at Work, Employee Motivation and Employee

Citizenship Behaviour – would influence the dimension Contextual Performance, from the Dependent Construct Performance.

The coefficients of the Stepwise Multiple Regression for Contextual Performance were obtained and the results were as follows:

**Table 73: Coefficients: Stepwise Multiple Regression: Contextual Performance
(All Independent variables)**

Coefficients ^a						
Model	Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			
(Constant)	1.352	0.122		11.070	.000	
Altruism (OCBS)	0.151	0.023	0.255	6.561	0.000	
Courtesy (OCBS)	0.115	0.022	0.193	5.151	0.000	
Civic Virtue (OCBS)	0.090	0.017	0.169	5.247	0.000	
Competence (PEQ)	0.069	0.017	0.129	4.152	0.000	
Extrinsic Motivation (MM)	0.064	0.017	0.108	3.778	0.000	
Sense of Community (SAW)	0.031	0.012	0.076	2.590	0.010	
OCBS – Organizational Citizenship Behaviour PEQ – Psychological Empowerment MM – Motivation Measure SAW – Spirituality at Work						

From the findings, all the t-test statistics are statistically significant at 5% level of significance given that their p values < .05. The selected model showed all the t-tests for the included constructs as being statistically significant at 5% level of significance because of their p values < .05.

According to the Stepwise Multiple Regression results, there were six (6) significant predictors of Contextual Performance where altruism had the greatest effect on

Contextual Performance ($\beta = .255$), followed by courtesy ($\beta = .193$), civic virtue ($\beta = .169$), competence ($\beta = .129$), extrinsic motivation ($\beta = .108$) and sense of community ($\beta = .076$).

The findings also indicated that none of the leadership competencies were significant predictors of Contextual Performance.

10.3.2.4 Stepwise Multiple Regression: Overall Employee Performance (All Independent Variables)

The researcher conducted a Stepwise Multiple Regression with Employee Performance as the Dependent Construct and all the other constructs – Leadership, Psychological Empowerment, Spirituality at Work, Employee Motivation and Employee Citizenship Behaviour – being the independent constructs. Different models were developed, and the findings were summarised in the following table:

Table 74: Model Summary: Stepwise Multiple Regression: Overall Employee Performance (All Independent Variables)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
8	.747 ^h	.558	.554	.85496

According to the Stepwise Multiple Regression results, there were eight (8) significant predictors of employees' levels of overall performance. These eight predictors were: For the construct Employee Citizenship Behaviour, the dimensions altruism, civic virtue, conscientiousness and courtesy; from the construct Motivation, the dimensions identified regulation and introjected regulation; competence as a dimension from the construct Psychological Empowerment and meaningful work as a dimension from the construct Spirituality at Work. These eight predictors explained 55.8% of the variance in overall performance.

The study also performed ANOVA, of which the findings are summarized in the following table:

Table 75: ANOVA: Stepwise Multiple Regression: Overall Employee Performance (All Independent Variables)

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
	Regression	720.077	8	90.010	123.139	.000 ⁱ
	Residual	570.147	780	.731		
	Total	1290.224	788			

According to the results, the F-statistic test for this model was statistically significant at 5% level of significance. This means the Regression Model was statistically significant. Also note that these results reflected the Independent Variables that were significant predictors of overall performance.

The next step was to establish how the various independent constructs – Leadership, Psychological Empowerment, Spirituality at Work, Employee Motivation and Employee Citizenship Behaviour – would have an impact on the dependent construct Performance. The coefficients of the Stepwise Multiple Regression for overall Employee Performance were obtained and the results were as follows:

Table 76: Coefficients: Stepwise Multiple Regression: Overall Employee Performance (All Independent Variables)

Coefficients ^a						
Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
	(Constant)	4.353	.275		15.837	0.000
	Competence (PEQ)	0.346	0.040	0.245	8.728	0.000
	Altruism (OCBS)	0.244	0.054	0.157	4.492	0.000
	Civic Virtue (OCBS)	0.208	0.040	0.150	5.133	0.000
	Conscientiousness (OCBS)	0.156	0.039	0.119	3.994	0.000

Courtesy (OCBS)	0.186	0.053	0.119	3.542	0.000
Identified Regulation (MM)	0.159	0.055	0.109	2.895	0.004
Introjected Regulation (MM)	0.118	0.043	0.087	2.709	0.007
Meaningful Work (SAW)	0.070	0.031	0.067	2.246	0.025

From the findings, all the t-test statistics were statistically significant at 5% level of significance, given that their p values < .05. The selected model showed all the t-tests for the included constructs as being statistically significant at 5% level of significance because of their p values < .05.

According to the Stepwise Multiple Regression results, there were eight (8) significant predictors where competence ($\beta = .245$) had the greatest effect on overall Employee Performance, followed by altruism ($\beta = .157$), civic virtue ($\beta = .150$), conscientiousness and courtesy ($\beta = .119$), identified ($\beta = .109$), introjected ($\beta = .087$) and meaningful work ($\beta = .067$).

The findings also indicated that none of the Leadership Competencies were significant predictors of overall Employee Performance.

Hereafter, variance-based structural equation modelling is discussed.

10.4 VARIANCE-BASED STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING

From the empirical framework, a conceptual framework was necessary to illustrate the relationships amongst constructs under investigation. The following figure illustrates the main constructs as well as their relationships, which formed a significant basis for performing deeper analysis, discussions, illustrations, and interpretations.

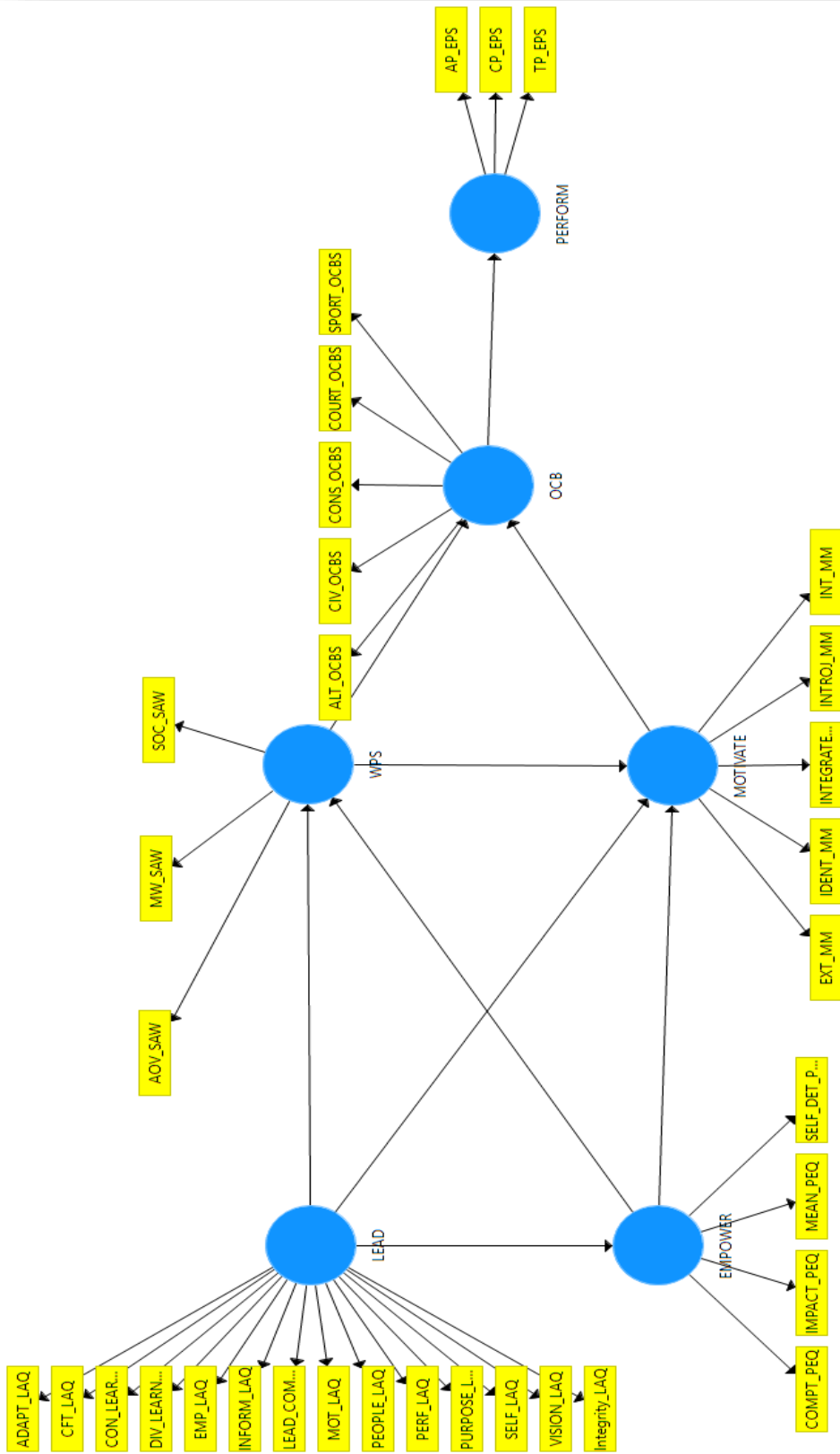


Figure 18: Conceptual Model

The following diagram can be used to explain the abbreviations in the Conceptual Model, Figure 18:

Table 77: Explanation of Abbreviations in the Conceptual Model

ABBREVIATION	EXPLANATION	ABBREVIATION	EXPLANATION
LEAD	Leadership Dimensions (LAQ)	WPS	Employee Workplace Spirituality (SAW) Dimensions
ADAPT_LAQ	Adaptability (LAQ)	AOV_SAW	Alignment of Values (SAW)
CFT_LAQ	Cross-Functional Teamwork (LAQ)	MW_SAW	Meaningful Work (SAW)
CON_LEAN...	Conceptual Learning (LAQ)	SOC_SW	Sense of Community (SAW)
DIV_LEARN...	Diversity Learning (LAQ)		
EMP_LAQ	Empowerment (LAQ)	MOTIVATE	Employee Motivation Dimensions (MM)
INFORM_LAQ	Information Capacity (LAQ)	EXR_MM	Extrinsic Motivation (MM)
LEAD_COM...	Leadership Communication (LAQ)	IDENT_MM	Identified Regulation (MM)
MOT_LAQ	Motivational Capacity (LAQ)	INTEGRATE...	Integrated Regulation (MM)
PEOPLE_LAQ	People Development (LAQ)	INTROJ_MM	Introjected Regulation (MM)
PERF_LAQ	Performance Achievement (LAQ)	INT_MM	Intrinsic Motivation (MM)
PURPOSE_L...	Purpose Building (LAQ)		
SELF_LAQ	Self-Responsibility (LAQ)	OCB	Employee Citizenship Behaviour (OCBS) Dimensions
VISION_LAQ	Visionary Thinking (LAQ)	ALT_OCBS	Altruism (OCBS)
INTEGRITY_LAQ	Integrity (LAQ)	CIV_OCBS	Civic Virtue (OCBS)
		CONS_OCBS	Conscientiousness (OCBS)
EMPOWER	Employee Psychological Empowerment Dimensions (PEQ)	COURT_OCBS	Courtesy (OCBS)
COMPT_PEQ	Competence (PEQ)	SPORT_OCBS	Sportsmanship (OCBS)
IMPACT_PEQ	Impact (PEQ)		
MEAN_PEQ	Meaning (PEQ)	PERFORM	Employee Performance (EPS) Dimensions
SELF_DET_P..	Self-Determination (PEQ)	AP_EPS	Adaptive Performance (EPS)
		CP_EPS	Contextual Performance (EPS)
		TP_EPS	Task Performance (EPS)

Note: Employee citizenship behaviour (ECB) is also known as organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), organisational behaviour (OB), or citizenship behaviour (Schuck, 2014). The study used Partial Least Squares (PLS) Structural Equation Modelling to evaluate the proposed theoretical model. The findings obtained from the PLS are presented in the following sections.

In the next section the outer model is assessed.

10.4.1 Outer Model Criteria – Round 1

Table 78 (Round 1: Quality) reflects the results of internal consistency in the outer model.

Table 78: Outer Model – Round 1: Quality

	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
EMPOWER	0.809	0.830	0.874	0.635
LEAD	0.987	0.987	0.988	0.856
MOTIVATE	0.854	0.886	0.896	0.637
OCBS	0.728	0.800	0.820	0.504
PERFORM	0.832	0.837	0.899	0.748
WPS	0.841	0.852	0.904	0.758

The Average Variance Extracted (AVE) was used as convergent validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). The latent variable can explain more than half of the variance of its indicators on average, as they are all greater than 0.5.

The composite reliability results of the different leadership dimensions ranged between .820 and .988. Leadership showed the highest composite reliability (.988) with Employee Citizenship Behaviour (OCBS) reflecting the lowest reliability (.820). Although Employee Citizenship Behaviour showed the lowest Average Variance Extracted, they still meet the criteria, but there may be room for improvement. Thus, as the composite reliability for all the constructs is >.80, their reliability is regarded as satisfactory (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994).

Moreover, in Table 78 the alpha coefficient of the different constructs ranged between .728 and .987. This suggested that the various constructs were very reliable. Normally an alpha coefficient of .7 is seen as an acceptable level of internal consistency, whereas .6 is considered poor and .8 good, amongst items used in measuring constructs (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010).

Outer loadings indicate the strength between the constructs and their dimensions/items.

Table 79: Outer Model – Round 1: Outer Loadings

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (O/STDEV)	P Values
ADAPT_LAQ <- LEAD	0.934	0.933	0.006	148.382	0.000
ALT_OCBS <- OCB	0.833	0.832	0.015	56.463	0.000
AOV_SAW <- WPS	0.863	0.863	0.013	67.784	0.000
AP_EPS <- PERFORM	0.855	0.855	0.012	72.978	0.000
CFT_LAQ <- LEAD	0.923	0.923	0.007	138.752	0.000
CIV_OCBS <- OCB	0.746	0.746	0.022	34.173	0.000
COMPT_PEQ <- EMPOWER	0.691	0.688	0.032	21.664	0.000
CONS_OCBS <- OCB	0.748	0.746	0.022	34.359	0.000
CON_LEARN_LAQ <- LEAD	0.920	0.920	0.007	131.769	0.000
COURT_OCBS <- OCB	0.817	0.817	0.014	56.390	0.000
CP_EPS <- PERFORM	0.869	0.869	0.010	86.430	0.000
DIV_LEARN_LAQ <- LEAD	0.917	0.916	0.007	140.503	0.000
EMP_LAQ <- LEAD	0.933	0.933	0.006	155.583	0.000
EXT_MM <- MOTIVATE	0.586	0.582	0.038	15.477	0.000
IDENT_MM <- MOTIVATE	0.888	0.888	0.009	101.517	0.000
IMPACT_PEQ <- EMPOWER	0.841	0.841	0.014	58.088	0.000
INFORM_LAQ <- LEAD	0.925	0.925	0.007	128.389	0.000
INTEGRATED_MM <- MOTIVATE	0.866	0.866	0.011	78.986	0.000
INTROJ_MM <- MOTIVATE	0.760	0.760	0.022	33.981	0.000
INT_MM <- MOTIVATE	0.850	0.849	0.012	71.717	0.000
LEAD_COM_LAQ <- LEAD	0.936	0.936	0.006	168.027	0.000
MEAN_PEQ <- EMPOWER	0.828	0.828	0.013	62.590	0.000
MOT_LAQ <- LEAD	0.907	0.907	0.007	132.776	0.000
MW_SAW <- WPS	0.887	0.887	0.010	89.886	0.000

PEOPLE_LAQ <- LEAD	0.904	0.904	0.008	119.481	0.000
PERF_LAQ <- LEAD	0.926	0.925	0.006	144.512	0.000
PURPOSE_LAQ <- LEAD	0.921	0.922	0.007	129.822	0.000
SELF_DET_PEQ <- EMPOWER	0.818	0.818	0.015	53.580	0.000
SELF_LAQ <- LEAD	0.926	0.926	0.006	156.110	0.000
SOC_SAW <- WPS	0.862	0.862	0.013	66.446	0.000
SPORT_OCBS <- OCB	0.212	0.207	0.057	3.729	0.000
TP_EPS <- PERFORM	0.871	0.870	0.011	81.181	0.000

The relationships between a construct and its variables should be higher than 0.7 (Hair et al., 2014: 103; Wong, 2013). Competence as a dimension of Psychological Empowerment, extrinsic as a dimension of the construct Motivation, and sportsmanship as a dimension of the construct Employee Citizenship were therefore removed for the second round as they had loadings below the acceptance level of 0.7. In addition, from the findings, all the t-test statistics were statistically significant at 5% level of significance given that their p values < .05. After removal of these dimensions, the second-round results were subsequently presented.

10.4.2 Outer Model Criteria – Round 2

The composite reliability results of the different constructs/latent variables ranged between .867 and .988. Leadership showed the highest composite reliability (.988) with Citizenship Behaviour reflecting the lowest composite (.867). Thus, as the composite reliability for all the constructs is > .80, their reliability is regarded as satisfactory (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). Hence, the quality criteria of Psychological Empowerment, Employee Citizenship Behaviour and Motivation improved after removal of the indicators discussed above.

Table 80 presents the Outer Model Round 2 quality assessments.

Table 80: Outer Model: Round 2: Quality

	Cronbach's Alpha	rho_A	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
EMPOWER	0.798	0.800	0.881	0.713
LEAD	0.987	0.987	0.988	0.856
MOTIVATE	0.871	0.882	0.912	0.722
OCBS	0.795	0.797	0.867	0.621
PERFORM	0.832	0.836	0.899	0.748
WPS	0.841	0.852	0.904	0.758

Hereafter Table 81 shows the results of the analysis of the Outer Model Round 2, Outer Loadings.

Table 81: Outer Model: Round 2: Outer Loadings

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (O/STDEV)	P Values
ADAPT_LAQ <- LEAD	0.934	0.934	0.006	154.770	0.000
ALT_OCBS <- OCB	0.836	0.837	0.013	64.002	0.000
AOV_SAW <- WPS	0.864	0.863	0.012	70.938	0.000
AP_EPS <- PERFORM	0.856	0.856	0.011	79.343	0.000
CFT_LAQ <- LEAD	0.923	0.923	0.007	141.951	0.000
CIV_OCBS <- OCB	0.744	0.744	0.022	33.820	0.000
CONS_OCBS <- OCB	0.748	0.747	0.023	32.978	0.000
CON_LEARN_LAQ <- LEAD	0.920	0.919	0.007	126.371	0.000
COURT_OCBS <- OCB	0.819	0.819	0.014	56.497	0.000
CP_EPS <- PERFORM	0.868	0.868	0.010	89.173	0.000
DIV_LEARN_LAQ <- LEAD	0.917	0.917	0.007	134.819	0.000
EMP_LAQ <- LEAD	0.933	0.933	0.006	144.682	0.000
IDENT_MM <- MOTIVATE	0.899	0.899	0.008	106.006	0.000
IMPACT_PEQ <- EMPOWER	0.878	0.878	0.011	80.368	0.000
INFORM_LAQ <- LEAD	0.925	0.924	0.007	131.356	0.000
INTEGRATED_MM <- MOTIVATE	0.867	0.867	0.011	77.565	0.000
INTROJ_MM <- MOTIVATE	0.757	0.756	0.024	31.281	0.000
INT_MM <- MOTIVATE	0.869	0.869	0.011	77.307	0.000
LEAD_COM_LAQ <- LEAD	0.936	0.936	0.005	174.466	0.000
MEAN_PEQ <- EMPOWER	0.814	0.814	0.013	61.186	0.000

MOT_LAQ <- LEAD	0.907	0.907	0.007	129.554	0.000
MW_SAW <- WPS	0.887	0.887	0.009	95.565	0.000
PEOPLE_LAQ <- LEAD	0.903	0.903	0.008	117.886	0.000
PERF_LAQ <- LEAD	0.926	0.925	0.006	145.784	0.000
PURPOSE_LAQ <- LEAD	0.921	0.920	0.007	128.233	0.000
SELF_DET_PEQ <- EMPOWER	0.839	0.839	0.015	55.437	0.000
SELF_LAQ <- LEAD	0.926	0.926	0.006	155.751	0.000
SOC_SAW <- WPS	0.861	0.859	0.013	65.044	0.000
TP_EPS <- PERFORM	0.871	0.871	0.010	89.217	0.000

The results of the outer loadings also improved, and all latent variables reflected loadings higher than 0.7. All constructs were found to be statistically significant and very reliable.

The inner model criteria were subsequently presented.

10.4.3 Inner Model Criteria – Round 1

In Table 82 the R^2 values for all the constructs ranged between .126 and .504. A moderate result may be acceptable, but if the construct relied on various external latent variables, which was true in this case, the R^2 should at least have had a substantial level. Hence, the proposed theoretical models explained approximately 46.5% of the variance in Employee Performance.

Table 82: Inner Model – Round 1: R-Square

	R Square	R Square Adjusted
EMPOWER	0.126	0.125
MOTIVATE	0.504	0.502
OCB	0.335	0.335
PERFORM	0.465	0.464
WPS	0.478	0.477

Table 83 reflects the results of the path coefficients.

Table 83: Inner Model – Round 1: Path Coefficients

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (O/STDEV)	P Values
EMPOWER -> MOTIVATE	0.285	0.286	0.038	7.443	0.000
EMPOWER -> WPS	0.545	0.547	0.031	17.477	0.000
LEAD -> EMPOWER	0.355	0.356	0.032	11.264	0.000
LEAD -> MOTIVATE	-0.093	-0.095	0.032	2.913	0.004
LEAD -> WPS	0.273	0.273	0.031	8.761	0.000
MOTIVATE -> OCB	0.591	0.587	0.038	15.559	0.000
OCB -> PERFORM	0.682	0.682	0.022	30.571	0.000
WPS -> MOTIVATE	0.533	0.534	0.040	13.333	0.000
WPS -> OCB	-0.018	-0.012	0.044	0.407	0.684

From the results in Table 83, it appears that the inner model proposed that Employee Citizen Behaviour was the only direct predictor of Employee Performance ($\beta = .682$). In addition, it showed that Spirituality at Work had no effect on Employee Citizenship Behaviour and because it has a non-significant path coefficient, it was removed. Leadership had a negative effect on Motivation. Hence, after removal of the path **WPS-> OCB** the inner model was tested again.

10.4.4 Inner Model Criteria – Round 2

Table 84 reflects r^2 values for all the constructs ranges between .126 and .504. However, the revised theoretical model still explains approximately 46.5% of the variance in Employee Performance.

Table 84: Inner Model: Round 2: R-square

	R Square	R Square Adjusted
EMPOWER	0.126	0.125
MOTIVATE	0.504	0.502
OCB	0.335	0.335
PERFORM	0.465	0.464
WPS	0.478	0.477

From the results in Table 85, it appeared that the inner model suggested that Employee Citizenship Behaviour now had the strongest effect on Employee Performance ($\beta = .682$), although it still reflects that leadership had a negative effect on Motivation.

From the initial reading of the literature, it seemed as if Leadership might be “acting” as a suppressor variable that resulted in a change of direction.

Hence, after removal of the path **LEAD -> MOTIVATE**, the inner model was tested again.

Table 85: Inner Model: Round 2: Path Coefficients

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (O/STDEV)	P Values
EMPOWER -> MOTIVATE	0.237	0.239	0.040	5.985	0.000
EMPOWER -> WPS	0.547	0.549	0.032	17.120	0.000
LEAD -> EMPOWER	0.355	0.356	0.033	10.809	0.000
LEAD -> MOTIVATE	-0.102	-0.101	0.029	3.515	0.000
LEAD -> WPS	0.249	0.247	0.030	8.304	0.000
MOTIVATE -> OCB	0.579	0.577	0.026	21.846	0.000
OCB -> PERFORM	0.682	0.682	0.022	30.962	0.000
WPS -> MOTIVATE	0.621	0.620	0.039	15.860	0.000

Now, the criteria for the inner model assessment, round 3, are presented hereunder.

10.4.5 Inner Model Criteria – Round 3

Table 86 reflects R^2 values for all the constructs still ranging between .126 (Empowerment) and .497 (Motivation). The R^2 for the Dependable Variable was still .465, therefore the revised theoretical model explained approximately 46.5% of the variance in employee performance.

Table 86: Inner Model – Round 3: R-square

	R Square	R Square Adjusted
EMPOWER	0.126	0.125
MOTIVATE	0.497	0.496
OCB	0.335	0.335
PERFORM	0.465	0.464
WPS	0.478	0.477

Path coefficients all reflect positive, statistically significant relationships ranging between $\beta = .224$ and $\beta = .682$. However, it should be noted that, after the removal of the path between Leadership Competencies and Motivation, the predictive power of the theoretical model did not change. The path coefficients now reflected the following:

Table 87: Inner Model: Round 3: Path Coefficients

	Original Sample (O)	Sample Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (STDEV)	T Statistics (O/STDEV)	P Values
EMPOWER -> MOTIVATE	0.276	0.276	0.041	6.748	0.000
EMPOWER -> WPS	0.545	0.546	0.033	16.386	0.000
LEAD -> EMPOWER	0.355	0.355	0.032	11.054	0.000
LEAD -> WPS	0.273	0.270	0.030	9.019	0.000
MOTIVATE -> OCB	0.579	0.578	0.025	23.507	0.000
OCB -> PERFORM	0.682	0.683	0.021	31.966	0.000
WPS -> MOTIVATE	0.495	0.496	0.040	12.265	0.000

The researcher therefore presented a revised conceptual model.

10.4.6 Revised Conceptual Model

From here, the revised conceptual model in Figure 19 is presented.

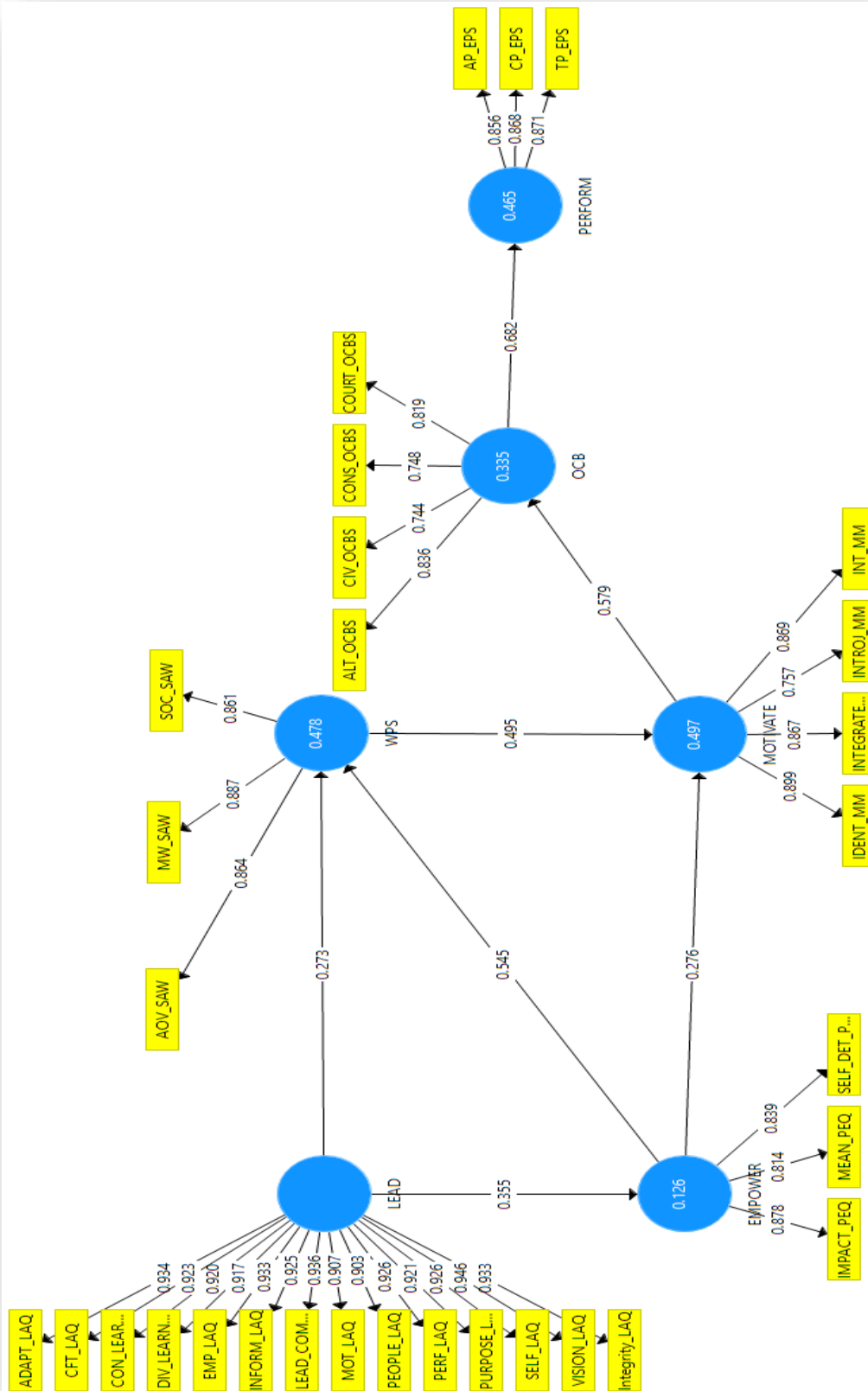


Figure 19: Revised Conceptual Model

Note: Employee citizenship behaviour (ECB) is also known as organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), organisational behaviour (OB), or citizenship behaviour (Schuck, 2014).

Table 88 consequently provides a summary of the paths that were retained from the theoretical model:

Table 88: Summary of Paths Retained

Proposed Conceptual Model	Adjusted Conceptual Model
LEAD -> EMPOWER	LEAD -> EMPOWER
LEAD -> WPS	LEAD -> WPS
LEAD-> MOTIVATE	REMOVED
EMPOWER -> MOTIVATE	EMPOWER -> MOTIVATE
EMPOWER -> WPS	EMPOWER -> WPS
WPS -> MOTIVATE	WPS -> MOTIVATE
WPS -> OCB	REMOVED
MOTIVATE -> OCB	MOTIVATE -> OCB
OCB -> PERFORM	OCB -> PERFORM

Based on the above findings, it can be noted that of all the variables investigated, Leadership Competencies contributed to Psychological Empowerment and Spirituality at Work, which then resulted in Motivation Measure, Employee Citizenship Behaviour and Employee Performance.

The adjusted conceptual model therefore proposes that:

- i. Leadership Competencies have a statistically significant positive influence on Employee Psychological Empowerment;
- ii. Leadership Competencies have a statistically significant positive influence on Spirituality at Work;
- iii. Employee Psychological Empowerment has a statistically significant positive influence on Motivation Measure;

- iv. Employee Psychological Empowerment has a statistically significant positive influence on Spirituality at Work;
- v. Spirituality at Work has a statistically significant positive influence on Motivation Measure;
- vi. Motivation Measure has a statistically significant positive influence on Employee Citizenship Behaviour; and
- vii. Employee Citizenship Behaviour has a statistically significant positive influence on Employee Performance.

This chapter can be concluded as follows:

10.5 SUMMARY

In line with the objectives of the study as listed hereunder, the researcher focused on examining the relationships between Leadership Competencies, Employee Psychological Empowerment, Spirituality at Work, Motivation and Employee Citizenship Behaviour and the effects of these aspects on Employee Performance in the three top-performing municipalities in South Africa.

A simple random sampling method was used, comprising of municipal office-bound employees, excluding general workers, technical staff and senior management (levels 1 to 5), but including junior to middle management (level 6 and 7). Of the 789 employees who responded, the demographic variables included the frequency distribution for age and gender, marital status, department, tenure and contract type, the job grade and qualification of the employee.

The researcher then continued to establish the reliability of the research instrument.

The instruments for Leadership Competencies, Psychological Empowerment and Spirituality at Work were found to be very reliable. However, for Motivation, all dimensions, but extrinsic motivation, showed higher internal consistency and were

reliable. In addition to this, the dimensions for employee citizenship were generally reliable, although sportsmanship showed very low internal consistency and low reliability. Moreover, for employee performance, all dimensions had high internal consistency and were found reliable.

The researcher subsequently looked at minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation, with reference to:

- i. Leadership Competencies – in general participants were fairly satisfied with their leaders' levels of competence across most competencies;
- ii. Spirituality at Work – participants were reasonably satisfied with their levels of spirituality at work across all dimensions;
- iii. Motivation Measure – on average, participants strongly agreed that introjected regulation and identified regulation were the most influential dimensions, whereas intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation and integrated regulation reflected lower effects on motivation; and
- iv. Employee Citizenship Behaviour – most of the dimensions substantially influenced Employee Citizenship Behaviour.

To conclude, the dimensions of task, adaptive and contextual performance, on average, contributed almost equally to the construct of Employee Performance.

From here, the researcher addressed inferential statistics, starting with correlations. Hence, overall, all the Leadership Dimensions, Psychological Empowerment, Spirituality at Work, Motivation Measure and Employee Citizenship Behaviour showed highly statistically significant correlations with the composite score of Employee Performance.

The researcher then proceeded to discuss the results of Regression Analysis. In the Stepwise Multiple Regression for Task Performance and Adaptive Performance, eight significant predictors were identified, and six significant predictors were identified for Contextual Performance. It was interesting to note from these regressions that the

findings also indicated that none of the leadership competencies were significant predictors of Task, Adaptive or Contextual Performance.

The researcher then applied Stepwise Multiple Regression of overall Employee Performance and found eight significant predictors of employees' levels of overall Employee Performance. An empirical framework was presented and thereafter the researcher proceeded to present supplementary results and a revised conceptual model.

This was followed by a discussion of structural equation modelling and commencement of the Outer Model Criteria rounds one and two. Then the Inner Model Criteria rounds 1, 2 and 3 were discussed and a revised conceptual model was presented where two of the paths were removed.

An overview of the results will be discussed in Chapter 12 of this dissertation. In the next chapter the researcher will also present the qualitative findings.

CHAPTER 11

QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS,

RESULTS AND PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

11.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the researcher presents the results of the qualitative data analysis (by means of thematic analysis) and a discussion of the results.

The purpose of the qualitative research was to:

- i. Comment on, and possibly explain unexpected results obtained from the quantitative study;
- ii. Qualitatively explain, clarify or expand on the quantitative research results in order to gain insight into the quantitative findings; and
- iii. Obtain suggestions on how performance of employees of the municipality can be enhanced.

Qualitative approaches have been found to be more appropriate when justifications for certain occurrences are needed (e.g. understanding problems or determining treatments or solutions) (Wium and Louw, 2018). It is intended to “qualitatively explain” the results of the first quantitative phase (Ivankova, Creswell and Stick, 2006). In the researcher's view, the qualitative research component is therefore essential to add value to the analysis of the issues being probed. The focus is consequently on exploring how leadership competencies influence employee performance within the chosen municipalities.

The sample for the qualitative research component comprised of 15 leaders, 5 in each municipality, holding positions not lower than that of assistant director (levels 1 to 5 managers).

The interviewing process commenced with the following: The researcher asked the respondents whether they would agree to be interviewed. Hence it was confirmed, in view of their consent, that their names would not be mentioned in the research report as their names would be coded to protect privacy and confidentiality.

The following questions were then asked during the interview process:

1. According to the empirical results of this study, leadership competencies do not directly influence employee performance. This was unexpected. Why do you think the competencies of the leaders in the municipality do not have a significant influence on employees' performance?
2. Although leadership competencies do not have a direct influence on employee performance, the empirical results of the study showed other variables that seem to influence the leadership competency – employee performance relationship. These other paths should be discussed:
 - 2.1 The results of the study showed that employee psychological empowerment had a statistically significant positive influence on employees' motivation and workplace spirituality. In other words, those employees' who feel more empowered, are more motivated and experience their work to be more meaningful. The empowerment of employees therefore seems to be very important. The results also showed that leadership competencies had a statistically significant influence on employee psychological empowerment, meaning that leaders within the municipality play an essential role in the empowerment of employees. In the light of this, according to you, what factors in the municipality are working against

employee empowerment and how could leaders empower employees of the municipality?

2.2 The results also showed that employees' workplace spirituality, in other words, the meaning and sense of community that they experience in their work (feeling part of a team), and the alignment of their values to those of the organisation, had a statistically significant influence on their motivation. The results further showed that leaders can influence employees' workplace spirituality positively and increase their levels of meaningfulness, sense of community and value-alignment. What do you think is working against the enhancement of employee workplace spirituality in the municipality and what do you think leaders could do to increase workplace spirituality in the municipal environment?

2.3 The results of the study also show that employees' motivation influenced their citizenship behaviour (their willingness to go beyond their usual line of duties, or beyond what is expected of them, in other words to walk an extra mile). Subsequently, their level of citizenship behaviour had a direct statistically significant influence on their performance. In light of the above, what can leaders within the municipality do to:

2.3.1 increase employees' motivation?

2.3.2 get employees to go the extra mile?

3. What factors, additional to these, do you believe have an important influence on performance of employees of the municipality? How can you enhance, improve or encourage this?

The qualitative research approach was based on the same ethical principles as alluded to during the quantitative phase.

Hence, the next section will discuss the data analysis and present the findings.

11.2 DATA ANALYSIS

The researcher employed thematic analysis as a qualitative data analysis technique, which is a very flexible method of detecting patterns or themes in qualitative data analysis. It is worth noting that qualitative data analysis is not linked with specific theoretical perspectives.

Thematic analysis is associated with several techniques, as noted by Alholjailan (2012) and Javadi and Zarea (2016), listed below:

- i. Data reduction, which is “a form of analysis that sharpens, sorts, focuses, discards, and organizes data in such a way that ‘final’ conclusion can be drawn and verified” (Miles and Huberman, 1994: 11);
- ii. Listing and validation of themes;
- iii. Displaying data which assists to arrange thoughts and concepts; and
- iv. Data interpretation and conclusions to create meaning to the data (Alholjailan, 2012; Javadi and Zarea, 2016).

The data was firstly transcribed into audible and visual data (Bailey, 2008). Following the transcription, the data was analysed to detect patterns or themes in the data, which is presented hereafter.

Qualitative data is made up of words, observations, images as well as symbols. In this research, qualitative data analysis therefore required the researcher to become familiarised with the data, keeping in mind the objectives and research questions of the study. Based on the results obtained from the thematic analysis, various themes emerged that were interpreted within the bigger context of the present study. The researcher also identified patterns as well as connections in the data.

11.3 FINDINGS

The responses to the qualitative research questions, as stated above, were analysed. The findings are presented below.

11.3.1 The lack of direct influence of leadership competencies on employee performance

The first question raised was related to the quantitative findings of the study, which indicated that the competencies of leaders in the municipality did not have a direct influence on employees' performance. Participants were asked why they thought this was so. Based on the responses of the respondents, the following themes emerged:

11.3.1.1 Leadership instabilities

Leadership instabilities result from people being placed in leadership positions due to political agendas. Every four years, when political parties are elected, with new political heads, leaders therefore change. This change in leaders in effect results in constant change in strategic objectives. These newly appointed leaders also change the next level of leaders, by appointing their own support staff, thus changing at least the top three levels of senior management. This causes instability in the environment, as every new leader has his/her own strategy, objectives and leadership style.

Such instabilities in leadership thus have a negative influence on employee performance and may affect issues relating to teamwork as well as employee motivation. If stable leadership is put in place, the employees' performance would also improve. One of the participants (P04) indicated that "proper processes should be implemented to minimise this interference in the administration, which will enable the leaders to perform better". Another participant (J02), also indicated that "there must be stable leadership". On the other hand, J03 noted that "they are hoping the leaders will lead by example but await the results".

11.3.1.2 Lack of a shared, unified vision

It was identified from the interviews that one of the explanations for this lack of direct influence of leaders' competencies on the performance of employees might be that there was no shared, unified vision within the municipality. On the one hand, different leaders set forward different visions and goals. On the other hand, employees do not necessarily support the vision and objectives set forward by the leader. For instance, one of the participants (P01) made the following comment: The leader must ensure that leaders and employees "are on the same page in terms of visions and targets and what they want to achieve here". P01 also said that "if your team behind you is not supportive and they do not have a similar vision and goals, then you will struggle".

11.3.1.3 Political influence

The political environment within which leaders work also seems to affect the lack of influence of leadership competencies on employee performance. Political appointments and political executives often take control, interfere, or influence the administration in the municipalities, which denies leaders the chance to explain what they have in mind and to make the best decisions in the administrative environment. For example, a participant (P03) said that "leaders do not have the opportunity to express their leadership styles, to make up their minds, or to take decisive decisions, because they are subject to, or afraid of dependencies and involvement of political executives." Another participant (P04) added that "all the red tape and the political interference take over. There is very little that a leader can do differently with the skills or their know-how in the municipality." Thus, "political appointments may affect the level of engagement" of employees as they feel uncertain in such a changing political and challenging environment (P03).

Other participants indicated that leaders find they are unable to strike a balance between political offices and administrative offices. This is a critical challenge in fully implementing or leveraging skills, as well as for leadership competencies. One of the participants (P02) said: "I do not think the environment fully allows or enables leaders and leadership to fully apply and use their competencies." This seems to suggest that political interference

negatively affects leaders' ability to lead the municipality effectively and therefore they have a limited influence on employee performance.

11.3.1.4 Organisational culture, systems and processes

The highly legislative environment and compliance culture in the municipality have an influence on how leaders lead and manage in the municipalities. Bureaucratic influences shape organisational culture where it becomes difficult for leaders to use their competencies to shape the vision and enable the desired outcomes. A participant (C03) also stated that municipalities often appoint "people who do not necessarily embrace the culture."

Furthermore, most of the leaders are easily "lost" due to the complexity of the systems and processes in the organisation. Systems are difficult to understand, and processes are highly bureaucratic and politically driven. Owing to the wide range of services, the value chain in the municipalities is complex and processes are long, difficult and cumbersome. One of the participants (P04) stated that "leaders get swallowed by the system." Another (C02) also said "if you do not tighten up our procedures and systems within the organisation and have a clear understanding of the difference between a political leadership role and an administrative role, we will continue to have the same problems without finding solutions." It is therefore difficult for leaders to apply their competencies in an environment with complex systems that have a huge influence on performance. Leaders are also not willing to take any risks due to the highly bureaucratic environment that results in a lack of delegation and power-sharing initiatives. A participant (C03) highlighted that "... competencies like impact or influence leadership are potentially a little bit weaker, and employees have maybe become used to the fact that they cannot expect much from leadership. So, they have learned to almost cope on their own without having to have the guidance of a leader". In view of this, the researcher therefore noted that the bureaucratic culture and complex systems and processes in the municipality may limit the influence of leadership competencies on employee performance.

11.3.1.5 Lack of leadership competencies

According to the findings, leaders must possess specific core competencies to enable them to motivate employees to perform. The importance of competencies to manage employee performance and organisational change were specifically mentioned. However, it was found that although leaders may be competent in some areas, they do not always have suitable or relevant competencies to deliver the mandates in their areas or departments in the municipalities. This resulted in leaders having low confidence levels. Owing to the gap in knowledge and competencies, these leaders also cannot drive employees to perform optimally. Participants also said that leaders without skills could be the reason for leaders' incompetence, but this does not necessarily influence employees' performance. They went further by stating that leaders are not necessarily employed for their skills or competencies, but rather for their relationships with political leadership or other senior management. Employee performance may also be affected by incompetent leaders who are not able to implement and adhere to performance management processes. One of the participants (J04) noted that "there are not excellent leadership skills available currently in the City". This participant continued by saying that the skills audit that was conducted in the municipality, showed that "on all the senior management levels, a serious lack of competencies was identified". However, some participants felt that the reason why leadership competencies did not influence employee performance was due to the notion that many employees are self-driven to perform, despite the lack of leadership received from their leaders. Their performance is based on their own inner motivation to deliver results and to perform.

11.3.1.6 Lack of performance management and effective change management

The lack of effective performance management may also be a reason why leadership competencies do not necessarily have a direct influence on employees' performance in the municipalities. One of the participants (P03) indicated that "there is not an adequate level of involvement of leaders in the performance management of staff". The findings showed that performance management in the municipality is often a process of malicious compliance. Another participant (J03) stated that "people are also not appropriately coached at any stage". Thus, owing to a lack of performance management, the

performance level of employees is unsatisfactory. In addition, some leaders, due to personal relationship issues, implement unfair performance management processes. With fair, unbiased leadership practices, there would be effective performance management processes that would improve employee performance. Some leaders also do not receive incentives for performance. These could be some of the many causes of the lack of performance management in the municipalities.

The findings also show that leaders may lack adequate involvement in change management initiatives within municipalities. Change management is established from the top and leaders do not involve or motivate employees to effect change. It is also possible that leaders do not know how to manage change in the municipality. A participant (J01) highlighted that it is “challenging to change” and further stated that “new leaders do not have the competencies and skills to change this culture.” Thus, if leaders should develop competencies to improve change initiatives, the change might positively impact employee performance.

The researcher subsequently considered Question 2.1, which concerns the factors that may work against the empowerment of employees of the municipality. Respondents also made suggestions for how leaders could empower these employees.

11.3.2 Factors working against the empowerment of employees and what leaders can do to empower employees

The second question raised, was related to the quantitative findings of the study that indicated the importance of employee empowerment for employee motivation and workplace spirituality. The results also showed that leaders in the municipality play an essential role in the empowerment of employees. Participants were therefore asked what the obstacles to the empowerment of employees might be, and how employees could be empowered. Based on the responses of the respondents, the following themes emerged:

11.3.2.1 Management by fear

One of the main factors that affect the empowerment of employees was identified as fear. Some of the respondents argued that most leadership approaches are fear-based, thus causing employees to be reluctant to take risks or even to attempt doing new things. One of the respondents (P02), for example, stated that “I generally get the sense that many management approaches are fear-based”. It was further noted that the level of fear within the municipalities was high if compared to that in the private sector. P02 also said that “the type of fear that they feel is very different from the private sector – as compliance for the apparent reasons is extremely important, and sometimes, they get the impression that compliance outweighs performance”. As compliance seems to carry more weight than employee performance, the empowerment of employees is not key, because employees rather focus on compliance than on creativity and performance.

11.3.2.2 Failure of involvement in decision making

The researcher also found that employee empowerment could be affected by the failure of employee involvement in the decision-making processes in the municipality. This is perceived to be quite common where a bureaucratic form of leadership is found, as in the municipality. For example, P01 said: “I think employees must be given opportunities to take on tasks and make decisions to feel more empowered”. Another respondent, P04, also said that “.... you are not allowed to participate in decision making”. Likewise, J02 mentioned that “leaders should allow you some sort of freedom when making decisions so that you can grow”.

It was also found, however, that the fact that leaders did not have delegation authority, affected employee empowerment. Leaders have limited power and to this effect P03 said “... they are subject to, or afraid of dependencies and involvement of political executives”. This consequently translated to failure to be given chances to participate in essential matters in the municipality.

In resolving this issue, according to the findings, leaders need to exercise a more participative leadership style and should empower employees to feel needed and

appreciated for their contributions. Leaders may then realise the importance of employees and the impact that they may make in accomplishing organisational objectives.

11.3.2.3 Poor management support and lack of training and learning opportunities

Further analysis of the findings of respondents showed that a lack of management support, a lack of training and learning opportunities and a lack of mentoring or coaching processes also worked against the empowerment of employees. It was identified that people do not have the opportunity to grow and move forward in their careers. P04 indicated that “there is also no career planning”.

Providing support to employees could empower them to a greater extent. J02 noted that “leaders should also support you and empower you as a person to grow in your work environment and to move forward in your career”. One of the strategies raised during this investigation and that relates to employee empowerment, was that leaders should expose their employees to learning opportunities, that they should finance employees’ education and training and provide technical assistance to employees to boost their empowerment. Leaders should give employees opportunities to undertake short courses or workshops to boost their skills and competencies in order to empower them and ultimately improve their performance. In so doing, employees would acquire more knowledge and understanding of various concepts that they could apply to improve their organisations. Additionally, employees would acquire more knowledge and if given a chance to exercise whatever they have learned in their organisations they would become more empowered and their morale and performance might improve. J02 also stated that “leaders should create opportunities for employees to climb the corporate career”.

11.3.2.4 A highly legislative and regulated environment with limited delegating powers

According to the participants, the highly legislative and regulated environment in the municipality does not allow employees the freedom to perform their duties without strict measures. This negatively influences empowerment. Even the leaders are limited in exercising their authority to empower employees. For example, respondent P02 said: “I

think that because of the imbalance between the political offices as well as administrative offices, there is sometimes really a challenge to fully implement use or leverage your skills and leadership competencies". Another respondent, P04 said: "they (leaders) get swallowed by the system, and all the red tape and the political interference take over. So, there is very little that a leader can do differently with their skills or their know-how in the municipality." This shows a critical challenge of political interference in the working environment that might influence employee empowerment. It was recommended that employees must be freer to perform their duties without such strict measures.

The following is a discussion of responses to Question 2.2 regarding the obstacles to employee workplace spirituality and how this can be enhanced.

11.3.3 Obstacles to employee workplace spirituality and how workplace spirituality can be enhanced

The next question raised, related to the quantitative findings of the study which indicated that employee workplace spirituality had a positive influence on employee motivation. Participants were asked if they could think of any factors that worked against employee workplace spirituality and to propose initiatives to enhance employee workplace spirituality in the municipality. Based on the responses of the respondents, the following themes emerged:

11.3.3.1 Lack of teamwork and social interaction among employees

Many participants felt that there was a lack of teamwork in the municipality as people rather worked in silos. One of the respondents (C04) indicated that "people put up walls, they were not willing to be more open and exercise teamwork". C02 also confirmed the lack of teamwork by stating: "in this bureaucratic environment, with a silo mentality, there are no incentives, and collaboration is not encouraged". This has a negative influence on employee workplace spirituality – specifically feeling part of a community, as one participant (P03) asked: How do you build a sense of community "if you feel distant and not part of the team"?

Team building would boost employees' workplace spirituality and performance at work. One of the participants, P01, mentioned that team building for employees would increase the workplace spirituality level in the municipalities. Working harmoniously in teams, creates a sense of belonging and increases meaningfulness. P05 even said that "people will be so motivated and driven that they do not even want to take leave as they just want to be with the team".

Respondents also identified that social interaction and employees' religion influence workplace spirituality. Workshops, prayer groups, social get-togethers and birthday parties were given as examples to improve social interaction and teamwork in the municipality. A participant, J05, highlighted a few points here: "it is imperative to have empathy towards employees"; and "taking individuals from their offices to an environment where they are free to socialise, interact, and network"; also "socialising enables understanding of a person and having these engagements build trust in teams and thriving team culture". Having such opportunities would lead to the improvement of employee performance in the municipality.

11.3.3.2 Lack of support to improve workplace spirituality

Little is done in the municipality to improve employee workplace spirituality. J01 stated that "there should be programs that the municipality introduces that specifically focus on the enhancement of employee workplace spirituality considering the diversity of the municipalities' workforce". The findings also showed a lack of acknowledgment from leaders as far as cultural and spiritual values are concerned. Some form of acknowledgement would help in boosting employee performance. P03 said that "...it is a matter of management, at all levels, to make a considerable effort of acknowledging spirituality." Participants also indicated a lack of motivation, trust and support from the top down. In this regard, P05 responded by indicating that "we are neglecting our internal environment and our employees". Another respondent (J03) indicated that "there is a trust deficit from junior to senior management, and until that trust deficit is broken down, it will not improve".

Therefore, failure to safeguard workplace spirituality within the municipality might lead to a decline in employee motivation. Acknowledgment by leaders as far as cultural and spiritual values are concerned, would help in boosting workplace spirituality, and subsequently employee motivation.

11.3.3.3 Political interference

From the findings it seemed that the political environment and interference in the municipalities, impacted the sense of community, as it has a negative influence on teamwork, the creation of meaning, as well as on the alignment of values. Putting it quite brilliantly, C04 said “you find yourself in a much-politicised environment. So, it is a dog eat dog organisation. Somebody else will, if I can put it that way, either you die, or the other person dies, so I think then it creates, people put up walls, they were not willing to be more open and exercise teamwork”. J04 also said that “within the municipal sphere, it is so saturated that you might have people placed in positions that do not have the skills to perform their duties”. This is caused by political agendas or even unethical behaviour, like nepotism, and employees cannot move from these positions unless they have connections. J05 stated, to this effect: “there is a thin line between the demarcation of the political and administrative offices, and this will affect then the entire structure and culture”.

In the following section, the researcher discusses the results based on the findings that employee motivation had a positive influence on employee citizenship behaviour. The questions to be answered, related to factors in the municipality that worked against the motivation of employees and what could be done to motivate employees in the municipality.

11.3.4 Factors working against employee motivation and how motivation can be enhanced

The fourth question raised (Question 2.3.1) related to employee motivation. Participants were asked what they thought might be obstacles to employee motivation and how they

suggested employees' motivation in the municipality could be enhanced. Based on the responses of the respondents, the following themes emerged:

11.3.4.1 Lack of participation

According to the findings, employees would be motivated when they could participate in planning and making decisions in the municipality. However, there seems to be a lack of participation in various areas in the municipality. A participant (P03) highlighted that “staff need to feel part of an organisation” and “...the whole environment needs to change from an authoritative directive type of environment to an involved or participative type of management”. Participant C02, on the other hand stated that “when employees are engaged, one of the indicators of engagement is motivation, and engaged employees perform better”. Another participant, C05 also indicated that active participation and motivation go hand in hand by stating that: “you can have the best policies in place, the best strategies, but if I am not motivated, I will not be an active participant” and vice versa. Thus, from the responses of participants, it is evident that a lack of participation and involvement in decision making result in a lack of motivation, which would subsequently influence employee's willingness to go the extra mile.

11.3.4.2 Lack of rewards and recognition

The researcher identified that employees felt unappreciated and demotivated due to a lack of incentives at work. The findings also showed that through acknowledging the efforts of employees, motivation would increase. A respondent, P04 said that “if we get recognised, and if there is career planning where you can see where you are going to, then staff morale and performance will improve”. Participant J02 also said “I would improve motivation through incentives and reward schemes. This is almost non-existent in a municipality”. Adding to this, participant J04 indicated that “there are no formal programs which recognise and acknowledge people that perform exceptionally well”. This escalates the issue of a lack of recognition and rewards and the fact that it influences the motivation of employees.

According to the participants, municipalities should start motivating employees by acknowledging employee effort and achievements, as well as by means of salary adjustments and increments. Other factors, such as allowances and commissions, would also act as motivating factors to employees. The reward system used in the municipality is rather weak and only involves rewarding employees linked to certain levels, thus leaving other employees unrewarded. Employee recognition, as well as career planning, would also improve staff morale and employee citizen behaviours (i.e. a greater willingness to go the extra mile). P04 indicated that “if we get recognised, and if there is career planning where you can see where you are going to, then staff morale and performance will improve”, confirming this.

11.3.4.3 Lack of growth and development opportunities

According to the findings, there seemed to be a lack of growth and development opportunities for employees, which often left them demotivated. For example, instead of motivating employees by giving them opportunities to work on new projects or in other areas than they were accustomed to, the municipality would rather appoint external service providers. This took away the opportunity to grow and to develop other skills. Employees were in a rut in their jobs and were not given opportunities to learn and grow. They were often not allowed to apply their newly acquired skills and knowledge at work, and all of this had a negative influence on their motivation and performance.

According to the participants, leaders need to give employees more responsibilities to deliver services to the community, and by doing so, reaping the satisfaction of accomplishment and increasing employee motivation. C01 recommended, to improve motivation, that “this is where management of retention and what they call the EDP (the employee value proposition or employee development program) and management must be focused on understanding what you need and what you have”. C05 stated that “there should be some career or a progression planning, succession planning”. P04 also said that “if career planning is nicely plotted, ...however, it is not happening”.

Below, the researcher discusses the analysis of the responses regarding what leaders can do to improve employee citizenship behaviour in the municipality.

11.3.5 Factors inhibiting employee citizenship behaviour and how to enhance employee citizenship behaviour

The fifth question (Question 2.3.2) raised, related to the quantitative findings of the study that indicated that employee citizenship behaviour had a positive influence on employees' performance. Participants were asked what prevented employees to exhibit employee citizenship behaviours and what needed to happen to make employees to go the extra mile. Based on the responses of the respondents, the following themes emerged:

11.3.5.1 Physical working environment

The work environment seems to influence employee citizenship behaviour, which in turn influences employee performance. In this respect, participant J01 highlighted that successful organisations “do not only deal with the bare minimum resources” and said that “our physical work environment has quite a considerable impact on employee behaviour and performance”. J01 continued by stating that “currently, we are moving back in time to that because the furniture and fittings are old and creaky now and not being replaced”. C02 also asked: “How can people be excited about doing their work in such a working environment?” If employees could therefore be provided with a suitable working environment, they could undoubtedly go the extra mile at work, thus improving their performance. Buildings could be upgraded, the lighting improved, technology could be updated, and a suitable office ambiance could be created to enhance performance.

11.3.5.2 Opportunity-driven environment

The results also indicated a lack of opportunities for employees to enhance their abilities, skills, learning or even their careers. Participant J02 responded by saying that “there must be actual specialist career paths from an entry level to more specialists' levels” and continued by stating “there is no plan to meet their dreams and aspirations to grow”. Leaders must create opportunities for their employees to grow and attain goals, to feel

accomplished and part of a successful team. This would encourage them to walk the extra mile and to exhibit employee citizenship behaviour.

11.3.5.3 Leadership style

Further analysis showed that taking care of employees would lead them to take care of customers in the municipality, which is based on civic duty. Employees would be able to offer their best and be in a better position to deliver services to the citizens. For this to happen, leaders should be present and visible; people should know them and identify with them. This would make employees work extra hard and perform exceptionally to realise the goals of the municipality. It seems that this is not always the case and that leaders' behaviour in the municipality may sometimes work against employee citizenship behaviour. For instance, a respondent (P01), stated that "when you start performing duties that go beyond your work, you get negative comments from management". Participant P04 also indicated that leaders' style should change, "...letting leaders lead without the red tape, without the politics, without blurred lines between the politicians and the administration". P04 also indicated that "there is much political interference" that influences employees' willingness to go the extra mile, negatively. Participant C05 stated that "we need to transform and not just function or perform as a result of malicious compliance – that is what is happening very often in the organization". It is evident from this that the leadership in the municipality often has a negative influence on employee citizenship behaviour and subsequently on employee performance.

The last question asked, was to identify any other factors that might affect employees' performance in the top three municipalities, and to offer suggestions on how employees' performance can be enhanced.

11.3.6 Factors influencing employee performance and how to enhance employee performance

In conclusion, the next question (Question 3) prompted respondents to identify any additional factors that might enhance, improve or encourage employee performance. Based on this, the following themes emerged:

11.3.6.1 Flexible working terms and conditions

The researcher further found that there were rigid working terms and conditions. It is almost impossible to change the current status quo in such a highly bureaucratic environment. In this respect, employee value propositions such as the economic development partnership (EDP) play a critical role in improving employee performance. The EDP contains initiatives such as stakeholder management, knowledge-sharing and learning, partnering skills, mapping and movement of employees as well as adaptive leadership. The EDP is aimed at creating a flexible environment that supports employees in attaining goals and objectives. It is also aimed at creating sustainable partnerships with all stakeholders to attain maximum economic benefit for the municipality. C02 recommended that the EDP could for example be used to create flexi hours which would enable women with children to work hours that suit and support their family needs as well as those of the company. In such partnership the municipality and employee would benefit, as service deliverables would be attained. This would also enhance the employees' feeling of appreciation and increase their performance in the municipality.

11.3.6.2 Outdated systems

Outdated systems were also identified as a factor that influences the performance of employees. There is for instance no proper system in the municipality that keeps track of the number of hours that employees work. C04 said that "systems in the City are very outdated" and continued to describe the poor human resource management system. P03 also commented on the human resource management systems, stating that "we need to relook our performance management system". A lack of proper systems in the municipality led to wastage of resources and hence influenced employee performance negatively.

Table 89 provides a summary of the results as discussed above:

Table 89: A summary of themes that emerged from the analysis

No	Question	Themes
1	According to the empirical results of this study, leadership competencies do not directly influence employee performance. This was unexpected. Why do you think the competencies of the leaders in the municipality do not have a significant influence on employees' performance?	Leadership instabilities
		Lack of a shared, unified vision
		Political influence in municipal work environments
		Organisational culture, systems and processes
		Lack of leadership competencies
		Lack of performance management and effective change management
2.1	The results of the study showed that employee empowerment has a statistically significant positive influence on employees' motivation and workplace spirituality. In other words, those employees' who feel more empowered, are more motivated and experience their work to be more meaningful. Therefore, the empowerment of employees seems to be very important. The results also show that leadership competencies have a statistically significant influence on employee empowerment, meaning that leaders in the municipality play an essential role in the empowerment of employees. In the light of this, according to you, what factors in the municipality work against employee empowerment and how can leaders empower employees in the municipality?	Management by fear
		Failure of involvement in decision making
		Poor management support and lack of training and learning opportunities
		A highly legislative and regulated environment with limited delegating powers
2.2	The results also showed that employees' workplace spirituality, in other words, the meaning and sense of community that they experience in their work (feeling part of a team), and the alignment of their values to	Lack of teamwork and social interaction among employees
		Lack of support to improve workplace spirituality

	those of the organisation, has a statistically significant influence on their motivation. The results further showed that leaders can influence employees' workplace spirituality positively and increase their levels of meaningfulness, sense of community and value-alignment. What do you think is working against the enhancement of employee workplace spirituality in the municipality and what do you think leaders can do to increase workplace spirituality in the municipal environment?	Political interference
2.3	The results of the study also show that employees' motivation influenced their citizenship behaviour (their willingness to go beyond their usual line of duties, or beyond what is expected of them/to walk an extra mile). Subsequently, their level of citizenship behaviour had a direct statistically significant influence on their performance. In the light of the above, what can leaders in the municipality do to:	
2.3.1	increase employees' motivation?	Lack of participation
		Lack of rewards and recognition
		Lack of growth and development opportunities
2.3.2	get employees to go the extra mile?	Physical working environment
		Opportunity-driven environment
		Leadership style
3	What factors, additional to these, do you believe have an important influence on employees' performance in the municipality? How can you enhance, improve, or encourage this?	Flexible working terms and conditions
		Outdated systems

The researcher will now present a conclusion to this chapter.

11.4 CONCLUSION

This chapter provided an overview of the qualitative data analysis as well as the results and presentation of data relating to the topic under consideration.

Based on the objectives of this study, the researcher focused on examining leadership competencies, employee psychological empowerment, workplace spirituality, employee

motivation, employee citizenship behaviour, and the influence of these on employee performance in the three municipalities in South Africa.

In conclusion, the results showed that political interference influenced leadership competencies as well as employee workplace spirituality and, through a highly regulated environment, even employee empowerment. Respondents also indicated that the environment, in general, had a strong influence on employee performance. They highlighted issues such as a lack of opportunities for growth and development in the environment, outdated systems and a poor physical environment.

Not only these themes emerged strongly in the analysis, but so did other issues such as poor, unsupportive leadership; a lack of trust and opportunities to grow; and the lack of career prospects in the municipality, that were also identified. Respondents also felt that performance management systems were poor and that there was a lack of recognition and rewards in the municipalities.

In the next chapter, the researcher will present a discussion of the overall results.

CHAPTER 12

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

12.1 INTRODUCTION

In line with the objectives of the study, the researcher focused on examining the relationships between leadership competencies, employee psychological empowerment, workplace spirituality, employee motivation, and employee citizenship behaviour and the effect of these relationships on employee performance in the three top-performing municipalities in South Africa. It must also be noted that the terms employee citizenship behaviour, organisational citizenship behaviour, or citizenship behaviour (Schuck, 2014) could be used interchangeably. For the purposes of this study, however, the researcher refers to employee citizenship behaviour.

This chapter commences with an overview of the demographics. Thereafter, a summary of the reliability of the instruments will be presented. The following discussion will be aimed at summarising the minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviations of the data. The researcher will then proceed to present a consolidated discussion of the overall results relating to the research questions.

To conclude, a summary of the chapter will be presented.

12.2 OVERVIEW OF DEMOGRAPHICS

Firstly, the researcher presents an overview of the demographics.

Of the 789 employees who responded, 48.7% were male and 51.3% female. The frequency distribution for age shows that 35% of the respondents were between 41 – 50

years old, followed by 27.5% (31 – 40 years); 1.3% were younger than 25 and 3.8% were over 60 years old. It may also be said that 56.8% of the employees were married and 30.4% single, whereas only 3.5% were separated. In addition to this, 38.7% of the respondents worked in management support departments, 26% were based in finance and 3.4% worked in credit management. Apart from this, 27.1% had been employed in local government for a period between 6 and 10 years and 35.2% had been employed for more than 16 years. The demographics also display the employment contract obligation, level of seniority and qualification level.

Secondly, the researcher then determined the reliability of the research instruments as summarised below.

12.3 RELIABILITY OF THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Items that measured leadership competencies were found to be reliable and the alpha coefficients ranged between .863 and .940. Items that measured employee psychological empowerment also showed a relatively higher internal consistency, confirming reliability. The alpha coefficients for the items measuring employee psychological empowerment ranged between .806 and .850, which is higher than the recommended .7. Likewise, for employee workplace spirituality, items were found reliable and the alpha coefficients ranged between .905 and .941. On the other hand, for motivation, all items, except those that measured external motivation, showed higher internal consistency and are reliable. The alpha coefficients ranged between .544 and .875. The items measuring external motivation could not be termed as reliable, since the alpha coefficient was only .544 and showed a low internal consistency. For employee citizenship behaviour the alpha coefficients also ranged between .425 and .890. Here, the items measuring sportsmanship (as a dimension of employee citizenship behaviour) showed very low internal consistency (.425). In contrast, all the other dimensions displayed higher internal consistency and were found to be reliable. Moreover, for employee performance all dimensions showed high internal consistency, and were found reliable; the alpha coefficient ranged between .735 and .907.

Following this, the researcher then looked at minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation.

12.4 MINIMUM, MAXIMUM, MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION

With reference to leadership competencies, the researcher found that, in general, participants were fairly satisfied with their leaders' levels of competence across most competencies. Here, based on the findings, integrity had the highest mean ($M = 3.0811$, $SD = 1.04972$) and motivational capacity had the lowest mean ($M = 2.5945$, $SD = 1.13677$).

Similarly, in view of employee psychological empowerment, the results demonstrated that participants were reasonably satisfied with their perceived levels of psychological empowerment at work across all dimensions. It was also found that the competence dimension, when measuring employee psychological empowerment had the highest mean ($M = 5.979$, $SD = .90519$) and impact had the lowest mean ($M = 4.6837$, $SD = 1.44299$). This implies that competence, as a dimension of employee psychological empowerment is perceived to be used quite often by leadership where competence indicates the degree to which an individual can perform their duties effectively and efficiently (Gist, 1987). On the other hand, impact is perceived to be used less by leadership. Impact suggests a sense of advancement towards goals and employees' psychological empowerment (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1997; Spreitzer, Kizilos and Nason, 1997) whereas competence consists in adequate knowledge and skills which enable employees to act in various situations (Spreitzer, 1995).

Likewise, in respect of employee workplace spirituality the results showed that participants were reasonably satisfied with their levels of spirituality at work across all dimensions. The dimension of meaningful work had the highest mean ($M = 4.8536$, $SD = 1.22408$) and alignment of values had the lowest mean ($M = 4.3006$, $SD = 1.34412$).

On the other hand, with reference to motivation, introjected was the most influential dimension with the highest mean ($M = 4.8098$, $SD = .83222$), whereas integrated had the lowest mean ($M = 4.08$, $SD = 1.03225$) and participants, on average, were satisfied with the levels of motivation at work across all the dimensions. This shows that, in general, employees felt motivated, even though leaders lack in the ability to motivate them.

It may be added that in measuring employee citizenship behaviour, it was found that most of the dimensions reflected fairly high levels of employee citizenship behaviour and altruism had the highest mean ($M = 5.9701$, $SD = .82491$). Therefore, employees exhibit fairly high levels of altruism. Nowak and Sigmund (2005) described altruism as kind and passionate behaviour. Kumar and Shah (2015) indicated sportsmanship as willingness of employees to execute tasks. The results indicated that sportsmanship had the lowest mean ($M = 4.3293$, $SD = 1.00372$).

To conclude, the participants perceived their performance, related to task performance (as a dimension of performance) as fairly high. Here, task performance had the highest mean ($M = 4.3387$, $SD = .51168$) whilst adaptive performance had the lowest mean ($M = 4.0913$, $SD = .47808$).

Hence, the researcher addressed inferential statistics, starting with correlations. The results are shown in line with the research questions that guided this study.

12.5 CONSOLIDATED RESULTS RELATING TO RESEACH QUESTIONS

A consolidated overview is now presented, based on the quantitative and qualitative data analysis in response to the research questions posed in this study.

12.5.1 Research Question 1

The first research question of this study was “Do each of the independent variables (leadership competencies, employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace

spirituality, employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour) statistically relate to the dependent variable (employee performance)?”

In response to this question, the direct relationships between each of the independent variables and performance are discussed. It must be noted, however, that although the discussion of the direct relationships was guided by the quantitative results, where appropriate, some qualitative results were also be consulted to provide support for the findings. In addition, where there are some “contradictions” in the quantitative results, the qualitative results were consulted for possible explanations. (This is especially relevant to the multiple regression results). The first discussion is therefore aimed at why there is a relationship between leadership competencies and employee performance.

12.5.1.1 The relationship between leadership competencies and employee performance

The overall research results showed that all the leadership competency dimensions displayed a highly significant statistical correlation with the composite score for employee performance. Almatrooshi, Singh and Farouk (2016) also found that leadership competencies were determinants of performance which influence both employee and organisational performance. Competent leaders consequently have the ability to influence employees to perform better.

The quantitative results showed that all the leadership competency dimensions had highly significant statistical correlations with the composite score for performance ranging from $r = .120$ to $r = .176$. Numerous academics (Boyatzis, 1982; Kotter, 1998; Levinson, 1980; Schroder and Clemens, 1997; Van Wyk, 2007) revealed the validity of the leadership dimensions which support the results of this study. These academics also noted that all the leadership competencies are significantly related to performance. High-performance leadership competency dimensions include integrity; conceptual learning; diversity learning; empowerment; leadership communication; visionary thinking; adaptability; performance achievement; motivational capacity; self-responsibility; information capacity; cross-functional teamwork; purpose building; and people development.

The quantitative results showed that motivational capacity had the highest correlation with performance ($r = .176$; $p = .000$). Alig (2012) and Van Wyk (2007) also found that when leaders create confidence amongst employees, their motivation and commitment improve. The ability to motivate will also result in increased team effort to realise goals and celebrate successes (Jiang and Luk, 2016; Van Wyk, 2007). As a result, the capacity to motivate employees positively influences performance in the municipality.

In addition, the quantitative results showed that integrity had a positive, although the lowest correlation, with performance ($r = .120$; $p = .001$). Various authors, including Erhard, Jensen and Zaffron (2016) and Al-Abrrow, Abdullah and Atshan (2019) support the notion that integrity would result in increased performance. They said that leaders who act with integrity are loyal and confident at work, keep promises and avoid hypocrisy, which are factors that influence how employees perform. On the other hand, an absence of integrity may, however, also result in a decline in performance (Al-Abrrow, Abdullah and Atshan, 2019; Erhard, Jensen and Zaffron, 2016). The fact is that respondents (participating in the qualitative interviews) stated that there were indeed challenges to deal with individuals in municipalities that behave unethically, for example not getting rid of fraudsters and liars and appointing executive and top management based on political influence. Leaders may however not be able to directly manage and control these issues, therefore, this does not imply that (i) they lack integrity, and may indeed imply that (ii) the political context makes it difficult to deal with such matters. If the above is accurate, then it might be a possible explanation for the relatively small influence integrity has on employee performance.

In addition, the quantitative results showed that motivational capacity had the highest correlation with performance ($r = .176$; $p = .000$). To support this, Jiang and Luk (2016: 1) found that motivational capacity stemmed from “challenge, curiosity, control, fantasy, cooperation, competition and recognition” which motivated and drove teams to achieve their objectives. Alig (2012) further highlighted that a successful motivational leader needs to have the business know-how to ensure that employees perform at maximum capacity.

He also noted that “mind control, belief, energy, rapport and courage to work” were vital motivational factors to change the culture to a highly productive one.

Moreover, the quantitative results showed that all the leadership competencies had a highly significant statistical correlation with the composite score for performance. This includes competencies such as conceptual abilities, diversity learning, communication and visionary thinking, adaptability, performance achievement, self-responsibility and information capacity, cross-functional teamwork and purpose building, people development and business acumen. In this respect, Cockerill, Schroder and Hunt (1993), Pradhan and Jena (2016) and Van Wyk (2007) amongst others, confirmed that these leadership competencies result in high performance.

Participants from the qualitative interviews also agreed that leaders are competent to build visions, motivate teams and develop people. They also stated that although factors like political interference and bureaucracy may have a limiting effect on leaders to exercise or apply their competence in the municipalities, leaders are competent and create shared visions and joint efforts to achieve objectives through excellence. Therefore, leadership competencies positively influence employee performance.

The following section explains why there is a relationship between employee psychological empowerment and performance.

12.5.1.2 The relationship between employee psychological empowerment and employee performance

The quantitative results of this study demonstrated that the competence dimension of the construct employee psychological empowerment showed the highest statistically significant positive and a moderate correlation with performance ($r = .547$, $p = .000$), whereas self-determination had the lowest statistically positive and weak correlation with performance ($r = .335$, $p = .000$). However, for employee psychological empowerment the results generally showed statistically significant and positive relationships between all the dimensions of psychological empowerment and the composite score for performance.

These results are in line with those of previous studies. Dedago (2014), for example, found that the dimensions of psychological empowerment (meaning, competence, self-determination and impact) were all positively and significantly related to employee performance. He recommended that leaders should empower employees to increase performance. He stated that initiatives such as autonomy made employees feel more competent and determined and therefore, they performed better. Further, when employees are empowered through having a choice to initiate and regulate their actions, they experience an increased sense of responsibility and therefore perform better. Thus, employee psychological empowerment shows a positive relationship with employee performance.

Bose (2018) also found that psychological empowerment dimensions (meaning, competence, self-determination and impact), create the feeling of increased autonomy, self-determination, and influence employee performance. When employees experience independence, for example, their sense of power increases, which influences their determination to succeed; therefore, improving their performance. Mohapatra and Sundaray (2018) concurred with this and also found that employees need to be granted authority to make independent decisions which positively influenced performance. They went further, stating that empowered employees had increased feelings of self-efficacy and felt valued and competent, and therefore, performed better. Brooks and Young (2011) indicated that impact is based on how employees attempt to make a difference, or influence a situation, or make better choices; factors that empower them to perform better. Respondents (participating in the qualitative interviews) specified that employees were managed bureaucratically and that it was difficult to share decision-making power at higher levels with staff. However, respondents generally believed that when employees are given the opportunity to upskill and learn, being part of the decision-making processes at lower levels, their self-efficacy and competence levels improve, which enhances their performance.

The following discussion elaborates on why there is a relationship between employee workplace spirituality and employee performance.

12.5.1.3 The relationship between employee workplace spirituality and employee performance

The results indicated that the correlations for the construct employee workplace spirituality ranged from ($r = .307$ to $r = .430$). The dimension alignment of values, measured at a 5% significance level, showed the lowest, although statistically significant positive, but weak, correlation with performance ($r = .307$, $p = .000$). The dimension of meaningful work showed a statistically significant, positive, but weak correlation with contextual performance ($r = .412$, $p = .000$).

These results can perhaps be explained by the notion that workplace spirituality can assist employees to “understand the big picture” towards which they are working much more clearly (Pradhan, Panigrahy and Jena, 2015: 45) and therefore will work harder to achieve their goals and objectives. Added to this, Pradhan, Panigrahy and Jena (2015) also stated that workplace spirituality could enhance task and non-task behaviours of employees, which would result in their working harder and performing better. Thus, workplace spirituality increases employees’ creativity, honesty and trust, commitment and personal accomplishments, which will increase performance. Through enhanced processes and customer service, performance will also increase (Pradhan, Panigrahy and Jena, 2015). When employees experience meaningful work (a dimension of spirituality at work), they are more likely to be energised and enjoy what they are doing (Milliman et al., 1999). This results in devoted and committed employees (Rahati et al., 2015; Saks, 2006) who work harder and perform better. In addition, when employees find meaning at work, their contributions towards realising the vision of the organisation increase, which enhances performance (Javanmard, 2012).

Through a sense of community, based on employee interactions and the sense of belonging to a group, employees tended to be more motivated to work together to achieve goals. When employees had a strong sense of aligning their own values to that of the

organisation and believed that managers cared for them, their motivation level also increased (Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson, 2003).

Employees who identify and connect with the values and goals of the organisation experience higher levels of spirituality at work (Milliman et al., 1999). Such alignment with organisational goals, values, and mission facilitates an employees' performance as they see a direct link between their own goals and values and that of the organisation. Employees who experience spirituality at work are also more likely to view the organisation as caring ((Milliman et al., 1999), which makes it easier for employees to stay with the organisation and reciprocate by increased performance. Aside from this, by having faith in and love for their organisation, employees experience a sense of community. By finding meaning at work and being part of the community, employees perform better (Mousa, 2020). Also, when individual values are aligned to organisational values, spiritual elements, such as care, team spirit, common purpose, and a sense of community will positively influence performance (Mousa, 2020).

The following is a discussion of why there is a relationship between employee motivation and employee performance.

12.5.1.4 The relationship between employee motivation and employee performance

The findings indicated that all the dimensions of the construct employee motivation had statistically significant positive but weak to moderate correlations with performance ($r = .319$ to $r = .559$). In support of this, Shahzadi et al. (2014) confirmed that through autonomy and freedom and increased responsibility, respondents felt more motivated and performed better. They also said that motivators such as fairness in remuneration packages, good working conditions, promotion and securities lead to increased performance. Mustapha (2020) agreed and found that elements such as promotion, training, welfare services, incentives and good employee/employer relationships positively influence performance.

To further support the findings, Harahap, Matondang and Pardede (2019) also agreed that work motivation has a positive and significant influence on employee performance. They found that motivation stimulates employee punctuality, work quality and dedication, which increases performance. Moreover, Ali et al. (2016) also indicated that elements such as reasonable remuneration and incentives, job security, growth and development opportunities would increase performance.

Participants in the qualitative study also concurred and noted that the reason for a weak relationship between motivation and performance may be based on limited opportunities for recognition and rewards, or the inability (based on the highly regulated environment) of leaders to reward employees. They also noted that the lack in participation in decision making and planning in the municipality may influence employees' motivation levels negatively, which may then reduce their performance.

In the next section, the researcher discusses why there is a relationship between employee citizenship behaviour and employee performance.

12.5.1.5 The relationship between employee citizenship behaviour and employee performance

The results demonstrated that all the dimensions of employee citizenship behaviour (altruism, courtesy, civic virtue, sportsmanship and conscientiousness) showed statistically significant and positive correlations with overall performance within the range $r = .517$ and $r = .576$. To support these findings, it can be said that Cho and Johanson (2008) and Chelagat, Chepkwony and Kemboi (2015) found that committed employees would engage in altruistic behaviours towards co-workers. Thus, altruistic behaviour enables employees to perform beyond job requirements, completing difficult tasks, assisting co-workers and solving difficult problems together, and this increases performance. Moreover, the research of Cho and Johanson (2008) also confirmed that employees who are courteous, caring and who help others, who are polite and voice ideas to improve work, will create a sense of belonging and ownership amongst employees, which will improve performance. When employees show civic virtue (concern and

interest) in each other and are positively involved at work, team dynamics also improve and this behaviour enhances performance (Kumar and Shah, 2015; Law, Wong and Chen, 2005; Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 2006). When employees care for each other and work together to achieve objectives, they tend to “go the extra mile” (Bambale, Shamsudin and Subramaniam, 2011; Lucey, 2017), which also enhances performance. Employees thus work harder to ensure that they do not let the team down. Performance will also increase when employees refrain from reporting insignificant matters, wasting time on minor issues and are willing to accept minor difficulties (Kumar and Shah, 2015). Consequently Chelagat, Chepkwony and Kemboi (2015) stated that altruism, courtesy, sportsmanship and civic virtue as dimensions of employee citizenship behaviour positively influence employee performance.

The previous section focused on possible explanations for the results indicating statistically significant correlations between the various independent variables and employee performance. The researcher was also interested, however, in identifying which of these independent variables were significant predictors of employee performance. In short, the mere fact that an independent variable is correlated with employee performance does not automatically provide information about its relative importance in relation to other predictor variables. Hence, the following discussion consolidates the findings of the stepwise multiple regression analysis.

12.5.1.6 The results of the stepwise multiple regression analysis

Based on the qualitative results, respondents confirmed that leaders in the municipalities had the necessary competencies to execute their duties and achieve their objectives. Respondents highlighted the fact that leaders’ influence to enhance performance was, however, limited by numerous factors, such as the political environment, fear of mistakes, unsuitable skills, the highly regulated environment and the lack of rewards and recognition. This being considered, the question that comes to mind is whether leadership competencies have a positive effect on performance? Interestingly, in the stepwise multiple regression analysis the findings showed that none of the leadership competencies were significant predictors of overall performance. This is not an indication,

however, that leaders in these three metropolitan municipalities do not have any leadership competencies. It merely reflects the complex nature of such competencies and how they indirectly influence employee performance as evident from the conceptual model. Based on the conceptual model, the results also indicated an indirect relationship between leadership competencies and performance, which is substantiated by the research to be discussed later in this chapter.

To analyse the contribution of each of the independent variables on performance, all the independent variables were included in the regression analysis. The next step was to establish how the various independent constructs would have an impact on the dependent construct. The coefficients of the stepwise multiple regression for overall performance were obtained, and the results revealed eight significant predictors of performance which explained 55.8% of the variance in overall performance.

The significant predictors, from the construct employee citizenship behaviour were:

- (i) **Altruism** ($b = .157$), which is employees' helping behaviour aimed at improving the welfare of co-workers. To support this finding Lucey (2017) and Mohammadi, Kiumarsi and Hashemi (2016) found that others benefit from employees who are altruistic, even if they do not expect favours. Therefore, when employees support and assist others out of love, it positively influences performance;
- (ii) **Civic virtue** ($b = .150$), which is the behaviour of employees showing concern and lively interest in the organisation. Numerous authors (Kumar and Shah, 2015; Law, Wong and Chen, 2005; Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 2006) supported this finding and showed that employees who are concerned for others and their organisation become citizens of that organisation. These employees aim to achieve organisational objectives and therefore perform better; and
- (iii) **Courtesy** ($b = .186$), which is a helping behaviour where employees prevent problems from mushrooming and are polite and considerate towards co-workers. Lucey, (2017) and Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (2006) found that helping behaviour increases the feeling of support which results in an increase in

commitment and satisfaction, which subsequently have a positive influence on performance.

It is therefore not surprising to confirm that employee citizen behaviour enhances performance. Employees act out of feelings of love, care and courtesy, which increase support and commitment amongst employees. This motivates them to perform better to achieve their objectives. Respondents to the qualitative interviews also agreed that when employees work in teams, support each other and feel part of the organisation, their performance improves.

To continue, from the construct employee psychological empowerment the predictor was:

- (i) **Competence** ($b = .245$), which was also the highest predictor of performance. Competence indicates the degree to which an individual can perform their duties effectively and efficiently (Gist, 1987). Marhayani and Mahdani (2019: 25) supported this finding and confirmed that the “ability factor” or know-how has a definite and significant influence on performance. Competent employees will therefore be able to perform their duties and achieve set objectives which will enhance performance. Participants in the qualitative interviews also said that when employees are competent and skilled, their ability to execute their responsibilities efficiently increases.

Next, the significant predictors from the construct employee motivation were:

- (i) **Identified** regulation ($b = .109$), where motivation is internal to an individual, grounded on conscious values which are of personal importance to an individual (Deci and Ryan, 2000). The study of Trigueros et al. (2019) supports this finding and they showed that self-motivation acts as a predictor for performance. Rochniak et al. (2020) also agreed that identified regulation, through the desire to achieve personal objectives, stimulates and enhances performance. Even respondents who participated in the qualitative interviews stated that motivation

comes from within and when individuals are self-motivated, they perform better; and

- (ii) **Introjected** regulation ($b = .087$) which involves receiving a directive, but not entirely accepting it as one's own. It shows that duties are performed to eliminate guilt or increase ego boosts such as pride and to maintain feelings of worthiness (Deci and Ryan, 2000). In support of this relationship, Trigueros et al. (2019) found that positive emotions, for example the sense of pride and worthiness, increased performance.

Hence, these relationships, supported by theory, indicate that when employees are internally motivated, their performance will increase (Steijn, 2008).

And last, the significant predictor from the construct employee workplace spirituality was:

- (i) **Meaningful Work** ($b = .067$) which shows how employees work together daily; comprising of their passion, inner motivation and desires that give meaning to their lives and the lives of others (Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson, 2003). Authors supporting this result indicated that when employees find meaning in their work, their performance increases (Rosso, Dekas and Wrzesniewski, 2010; Steger and Dik, 2009). Employees find meaning in their work when they realise their abilities and expectations and understand how to obtain success in their working environment (Steger and Dik, 2010). Meaningful work can be accomplished through training and development initiatives as identified by respondents to the qualitative interviews.

These results therefore showed, in summary, that employee performance is mostly influenced by employee citizenship behaviours. Christensen and Whiting (2009) and Kim (2006) supported the fact that employee citizenship behaviour is a significant predictor of employee performance. They indicated that in the public service the level of employee citizenship behaviour is higher, due to employees attempting to achieve higher levels of organisational responsiveness to their citizens. They therefore portray altruistic behaviour, show positive concerns and are courteous. In addition, employees feel

competent through learning and development opportunities and therefore perform better. Performance is likewise stimulated by internal motivators such as feelings of pride and worthiness. Hence, all these factors create committed and loyal employees who go the extra mile, work harder and perform better.

The results showed that none of the leadership competencies were significant predictors of overall performance. However, they were still correlated with performance. In addition, leadership competencies did have an indirect influence on performance as indicated in the conceptual model.

Notwithstanding the above comments and whereas the correlations and multiple regression results alluded to the direct influence of the independent variables on performance, the conceptual model pointed to a more complex situation. In short, the conceptual model pointed to different pathways (combining different independent variables) that can explain performance, and which will be discussed in more detail below in Research Question 2.

12.5.2 Research Question 2

The second research question of this study was “How do employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour explain the relationship between leadership competencies and employee performance in the top three municipalities in South Africa?”

The idea of this question was to establish how several aspects explain or intervene in the relationship between leadership competencies and employee performance in the top three municipalities in South Africa. From the revised conceptual model, the following was identified:

To test the reliability and validity of the measures used to evaluate the conceptual model, the outer model was analysed in two rounds. When analysing the outer model criteria in round 1, leadership competencies showed the highest composite reliability ($r = .988$) with

employee citizenship behaviour reflecting the lowest reliability ($r = .820$). After this, competence (employee psychological empowerment), external (employee motivation), and sportsmanship (employee citizenship behaviour) were removed for the second round as they had loadings below the acceptance level of 0.7. Then, for the analysis of round 2 (outer model) leadership competencies had the highest composite reliability ($r = .988$) with employee citizenship behaviour reflecting the lowest composite reliability ($r = .867$). As a result, the quality criteria of employee psychological empowerment, employee citizenship behaviour and employee motivation improved.

Hereafter, the inner model was evaluated in three rounds. In round 1, the inner model showed that employee citizenship behaviour is the only direct predictor of performance ($\beta = .682$). The model also showed that workplace spirituality had no effect on employee citizenship behaviour and had a non-significant path coefficient. Before the removal of the paths the model reflected 46,5% variance in employee performance. At that time the path WPS->OCB was removed, and the inner model was tested again. Hereafter, leadership competencies also showed a negative effect on motivation, which was contrary to expectations based on the theory and thus the path LEAD->MOTIVATE was removed and the inner model tested again.

The fact that leadership competencies showed a negative effect on motivation was contrary to expectations based on the theory. Roßnagel (2017: 217) stated that motivating employees is “a crucial leadership task”. Motivating employees contributes to enhancing employee skills, abilities, knowledge and performance. Motivation further increases employees’ intensity and dedication to achieve excellence. Roßnagel (2017) stated that leadership may influence performance positively or negatively. Some elements which may influence motivation and performance negatively are communication abilities of leaders, rewards and recognition initiatives and expectancies and skills of employees. However, Mustapha (Mustapha, 2020) stated that elements such as promotion, training, welfare services, enticements and sustainable relationships positively influence performance. In addition, respondents (participating in the qualitative interviews) stated that motivation, in their understanding, comes from within. People need to be self-

motivated. Correspondingly, respondents believed that through psychological empowerment, recognition and rewards strategies, employee motivation can increase.

Hence, the third assessment of the inner model resulted in all path coefficients reflecting positive, statistically significant relationships ranging between $\beta = .224$ and $\beta = .682$. But it should be noted that after the removal of the path between leadership competencies and motivation, the predictive power of the theoretical model did not change and therefore the adjusted model predicted that leadership competencies do not have a direct, but do indeed have an indirect relationship with employee performance. The R^2 values for round 2 ranged between 0.126 (psychological empowerment) and 0.566 (motivation) and remained the same for round 3. Yet, the model still reflected 46,5% variance in employee performance. This is an indication that the model did not lose any predictive power or ability.

In addition, when looking at the qualitative results, respondents indicated that some leadership competencies may have a negative influence on performance. Respondents also stated, however, that leaders are competent and although their skills may be a mismatch to the skills required in the specific area, leaders are quite capable to influence employee performance. And the conceptual model supports an indirect role that leadership competencies play in employee performance.

To continue, the third assessment of the inner model criteria resulted in all path coefficients reflecting positive statistically significant relationships. Also, the adjusted conceptual model showed that of all the variables investigated, leadership competencies contributed the most towards employee psychological empowerment and workplace spirituality, which then resulted in employee motivation. Aside from this, according to the PLS, employee motivation was responsible for employee citizenship behaviour, which then resulted in employee performance. Using SmartPLS, the indirect effects of the different variables on the relationship between leadership competence and employee performance were determined. It should also be noted that all the indirect effects were statistically significant ($p \leq .001$). The following paths are therefore discussed here:

Indirect Effect	Path	Variables in the path
.057	1	LEAD->WPS->MOTIVATE->ECB->PERFORM
.045	2	LEAD->EMPOWER->WPS->MOTIVATE->ECB->PERFORM
.031	3	LEAD->EMPOWER->MOTIVATE->ECB->PERFORM

Firstly, Path 1 reflects the strongest indirect effect 0.057 and will be discussed first.

12.5.3 Path 1: LEAD->WPS->MOTIVATE->ECB->PERFORM

Path 1 explains the influence of leadership competencies on employee performance via employee workplace spirituality, motivation, and employee citizenship behaviour. This path had the strongest indirect effect. For the whole conceptual model, the variables explained 46.5% of the variance in employee performance. The R-squared values for the other variables are merely highlighted as possible guides when trying to interpret the three different paths. In short, not all of them are necessarily relevant to this first mediating path. Thus, during the testing of the model, the researcher found that leadership competencies explained approximately 13% of the variance in psychological empowerment. Moreover, according the model, both leadership competencies and psychological empowerment explain approximately 46% of the variance in workplace spirituality. In addition to this, leadership competencies, psychological empowerment and workplace spirituality explain approximately 56% of the variance in motivation.

Numerous researchers (Barnett, 2018; Burack, 1999; Meng, 2016; Naidoo, 2014; Paul and Saha, 2015) agreed that leadership competencies such as altruistic conduct, psychological empowerment, modesty, sincere love, cultivating trust, and an enthused, shared vision, influence employee workplace spirituality as they create a sense of meaning, alignment of values and purpose at work. A vision, being an explanation of what a leader would like to achieve in the short-term or in future, is basically a quest for meaning and purpose. It includes goals and objectives and presents a direct link between the ability of a leader to assist employees to create personal goals through a shared vision

(Business Dictionary, 2015; CIMA, 2001; Yukl, 2013). When employees therefore have insight into a shared vision and their values are aligned with those of the organisation, their purpose and meaning at work will be enhanced and their performance will increase (Pradhan and Jena, 2016). A sense of meaning is also enhanced by other leadership competencies, such as building a spiritual organisational culture, appealing to the intrinsic values of employees and nurturing a sense of belonging amongst them. In addition, leaders use effective communication techniques to engage employees in shared values. By outlining the organisational values, leaders create a sense of belonging amongst followers and assist them to recognise their involvement to achieve objectives (Reference for Business, 2016). As a result, employees feel part of the team and have a purpose to achieve organisational objectives. In so doing, employees experience a sense of belonging and commitment at work, feeling appreciated and part of the community. Subsequently, it enhances their workplace spirituality and performance (Byrd, 2017; Pradhan, Panigrahy and Jena, 2015).

Fowler (2018) also said that motivation is facilitated by leadership competencies, including encouraging autonomy, effective communication, non-controlling language, flexible boundaries and assisting employees to understand that they have choices. These leadership competencies encourage employees to render valuable input and to make choices towards implementing common goals and objectives at work which enhance performance. Moreover, employee workplace spirituality, when enhanced through leadership competencies, creates a sense of meaning, alignment of values and purpose at work (Makgoba, 2012). In addition, employees who experience meaning at work are more likely to be motivated and as such, researchers proposed by means of the self-determination theory that employees become motivated when they experience independence, competence and connections at work (i.e. a sense of community). Thus, when they feel that their contributions at work contain meaning and enjoyment and are interesting, they are likely to participate with a sense of choice and spiritual freedom which increases motivation (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Fried, Yitzhak and Ferris, 1987; Hackman and Oldham, 1976; Ryan and Deci, 2006). Shahzadi et al. (2014) further confirmed that

through autonomy and freedom and increased responsibility, respondents felt more motivated and performed better.

To substantiate the findings, several researchers (McClelland, 1961; McClelland and Boyatzis, 1982; McClelland and Burnham, 1976) stated that the achievement–affiliation–power motive framework is a multiple source model of human motivation which explains why people exhibit employee citizenship behaviour. This includes elements such as helping others, communicating changes that involve colleagues, to stop complaining, to engage and add value and to contribute towards teams achieving goals and objectives. These elements motivate employees to perform better.

Previous studies (Demirel, Elhusadi and Alhasadi, 2018; Moradi, 2015; Organ, 2018) revealed a strong relationship between motivation and employee citizenship behaviour. When employees were internally motivated by intrinsic, altruistic and overall motivational factors, their citizenship behaviour increased. Literature on organisational behaviour also highlighted that employee citizenship behaviour is a motive-based behaviour that develops due to motivation. Both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation developed and strengthened employee citizenship behaviour directly (Ibrahim and Aslinda, 2014; Niehoff, 2000). Intrinsically motivated employees are more involved in teamwork and according to Dysvik and Kuvaas (2008), intrinsic motivation results in increased task performance.

The achievement–affiliation–power motive framework (McClelland, 1961; McClelland and Boyatzis, 1982; McClelland and Burnham, 1976) is also a multiple-source model of human motivation which explains why people exhibit employee citizenship behaviour. It contains elements such as helping others, communicating changes that involve colleagues, to stop complaining, to engage and add value and to contribute towards teams achieving goals and objectives. Hence, an employee who is motivated to portray these behaviours will persist in demonstrating employee citizenship behaviour (Niehoff, 2000). Employee citizenship behaviour is also discretionary and non-rewarded behaviour and comprise of trust and interpersonal relationships.

Researchers also confirmed that employee citizenship behaviour influences, and even predicts employee performance through trust and interpersonal relationships, altruism, generalised compliance, sportsmanship, courtesy and civic virtue (Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 2006). It also improves the capability of employees to achieve goals and objectives through efficient planning, preparation and problem-solving initiatives, contributing to increased service quality and high-performing employees (Hui, Lee and Rousseau, 2004). Moreover, organisations that adopt good citizenship behaviours can also recruit and retain high performing employees (George and Bettenhausen, 1990). Charoensukmongkol, Daniel and Chatelain-Jardon (2015) found that employee citizenship behaviour was a crucial component that contributed significantly to higher employee performance. Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (2006) and Podsakoff et al. (2009), among others, found that when employees support each other, defend each other's images and uphold the culture and values of the organisation, employee citizenship behaviour will increase. Added to this, employees then tend to be more innovative and perform extra-role activities which influence employee performance positively. Employee citizenship behaviour also plays a critical role in enhancing the social and psychological state of employees in the workplace and this increases employees' performance (Organ, 1997). As a result, employee citizenship behaviour is driven by motives based on achievement, affiliation (relationships) and power and influences employee performance.

Leaders, through their traits, values, qualities and behaviours therefore generate, foster and inspire the involvement, commitment and growth of employees (Agus and Alamsyah, 2018). By involving employees in decision-making initiatives, their conduct towards their roles changes, in that they become more committed. This results in increased extra-role behaviour. As a result of this, by stimulating employee workplace spirituality and motivation through applying leadership competencies, employees experience a higher sense of appreciation and belonging and will go the extra mile to perform better.

Consequently, leadership competencies have a positive influence on employee workplace spirituality, employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour which, in combination, have a positive influence on employee performance. This supports the results which indicated that leadership competencies, through the other variables, have an indirect relationship with employee performance.

Respondents in the qualitative interviews noted that it is difficult for leaders to apply their competencies at work, due to the imbalance between political and administrative offices. In addition, respondents stated that the level of involvement of leaders in performance management and change management in the municipality was inadequate to motivate and empower employees to enhance employee performance. Further to this, respondents also stated that leaders were not necessarily hired for their competencies, but rather for their political connections and this, they believed, had a negative influence on employee performance.

On the other hand, respondents stated that leaders were competent and although their skills may be a mismatch to the skills required in the specific area, leaders were quite capable to influence employee performance. Respondents indicated that leaders enhance workplace spirituality through teamwork (i.e. a sense of community), sharing visions, and motivating employees. Leaders implement training initiatives, reward and recognise excellence and support employees, which ensured that employees performed better. Respondents also highlighted the fact that leaders implemented system upgrades, protected employees from political interference and ensured equal opportunities for career advancement and growth which would result in augmented employee performance. Moreover, although some respondents indicated that leaders managed rather through fear of failure and compliance, respondents generally agreed that leadership competencies, along with the other variables, positively influenced employee performance. Therefore, considering the quantitative and qualitative data, leadership competencies, through all the other variables, have an influence on employee performance.

Hereafter, Path 2 is discussed. The indirect effect of Path 2 is 0.045.

12.5.4 Path 2: LEAD->EMPOWER->WPS->MOTIVATE->ECB->PERFORM

Path 2 shows the influence of leadership competencies on employee performance via employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, motivation, and employee citizenship behaviour. Flowing from Path 1, this path also includes employee psychological empowerment.

Leadership competencies explained approximately 13% of the variance in employee psychological empowerment and both leadership competencies and employee psychological empowerment explained approximately 46% of the variance in workplace spirituality. In addition to this, leadership competencies, employee psychological empowerment and workplace spirituality explain approximately 56% of the variance in motivation.

To substantiate the findings, van Wyk (2007) found that high-performance leadership competencies enabled self-directed learning that would, in turn, provide leaders with the ability to empower employees, resulting in high-performing employees. Added to this, the structural approach entails empowerment of management processes by delegating decision-making powers to subordinates (Heller, 1998; Heller et al., 1998), improved access to resources and information (Bowen and Lawler, 1992; Rothstein, 1995), and the power to act independently (Mills and Ungson, 2003), consequently improving their performance (Van Wyk, 2007). Psychological empowerment is based on intrinsic task motivation (Thomas and Velthouse, 1990) and refers to several psychological conditions that make it possible for employees to feel in control at work and deals with the way in which employees experience their work (Spreitzer, 1995).

Schroder and Clemens (1997) also constructed a model of high-performance leadership competencies which comprised of cognitive (thinking) competencies, interpersonal learning, inspirational and achievement competencies. These competencies influenced employees' psychological conditions, making it possible for them to feel in control at work,

which increased their attitude towards the way in which they experienced their work (Spreitzer, 1995). Leadership, through these competencies, influenced psychological empowerment, which resulted in increased employee devotion, innovation, efficiency, fulfilment, motivation and performance internal to an individual (Agwu, 2015). Leadership competencies, via employee psychological empowerment thus have an influence on employee performance.

Previous studies showed that workplace spirituality was influenced through leaders' vision, values, and relations (Daft and Lengel, 1998) and caused employees to perform beyond expectations (Zsolnai and Illes, 2017). Other leadership competencies such as unselfish behaviour, empowerment, enablement, care and creating trust (Patterson and Stone, 2003; Roberts, 2013) also influence employee workplace spirituality, as they create a sense of meaning, alignment of values and purpose at work (Barnett, 2018; Burack, 1999; Meng, 2016; Naidoo, 2014; Paul and Saha, 2015). Likewise, when employees feel in control at work (Spreitzer, 1995) and their values are aligned to those of the organisation, their sense of purpose increases, which stimulates their desire to achieve objectives (Block, 1987; Lowder, 2011).

Furthermore, Lowder (2011) also stated that an intensified level of employee workplace spirituality includes qualities and features such as trust and respect, common meanings, mutual ideals and principles, a strong sense of purpose, emphasis on personal spiritual growth, humanistic work practices, and open employee expression enabled by competencies. These qualities and features of workplace spirituality are enhanced by means of a psychologically empowered work force. Empowered employees can give input and receive feedback from their ideas; they can be innovative and creative and openly express themselves. This stimulates a sense of self-belief and assurance, so that even if something does not turn out right, leaders would protect employees, thus creating trust. A sense of community and higher levels of job involvement are therefore created, leading to enhanced workplace spirituality (Chegini and Nezhad, 2012).

Early researchers on internal motivation confirmed that there is a theoretical and experimental link between meaning at work and intrinsic work motivation when leaders apply competencies that enable psychological empowerment and workplace spirituality. So, when employees feel that their contributions at work contain meaning and enjoyment and are interesting, they are likely to participate with a sense of choice and spiritual freedom which increases motivation (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Fried, Yitzhak and Ferris, 1987; Hackman and Oldham, 1976; Ryan and Deci, 2006). It was also said by Ryan and Deci (2000) that motivation is based on vigour, course, determination and equifinality – which imply that there is intention and purpose to perform. As a result, employees' intrinsic motivation is boosted by responsibility, autonomy, excitement, interesting and meaningful work, involvement, or fairness, whereas some of these are also elements of employee workplace spirituality (Ciobanu and Androniceanu, 2015; Piatak, 2016).

In addition, Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson (2003) stated that a deep sense of meaning and purpose, as a dimension of spirituality, demonstrated how employees act on a daily basis and how, through intrinsic motivation, they increase meaning to their lives and the lives of others. They also postulated that through a sense of community, based on employee interactions and the sense of belonging to a group, employees were inclined to be more motivated and work together to achieve goals. Thus, when employees had a strong sense that their own values were aligned to those of the organisation, and they felt that managers cared for them, their motivation level also increased (Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson, 2003).

Furthermore, when employees experience joy and happiness at work, their levels of motivation and performance increase (Ashmos and Duchon, 2000; Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson, 2003; Mydin, Abdullah and Pitchay, 2018; Rego and e Cunha, 2008). When there is a pleasant working environment, motivation therefore increases, which is a necessary determinant of employee commitment, job satisfaction and work–life balance. Consequently, when these elements of employee workplace spirituality are achieved and satisfied, employees are motivated (Janfeshan et al., 2011).

To substantiate the findings, it was said by Robbins, Judge and Sanghi (2009) that leaders should be able to influence employees to sustain a common vision and achieve common objectives. In addition, leaders must also understand employee behaviour and attitudes in order to improve workplace spirituality, motivation and citizenship behaviour (Agus and Alamsyah, 2018). Thus, when leaders have the ability to influence how employees feel about their contributions and common goals and objectives, employees become more loyal and have an increased sense of belonging and increases their performance (Lian and Tui, 2012).

Furthermore, the literature on organisational behaviour emphasised that employee citizenship behaviour was a motive-based action that developed due to motivation. Both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation established and reinforced employee citizenship behaviour directly (Ibrahim and Aslinda, 2014; Niehoff, 2000). Intrinsic motivation occurs within an individual and inspires people's natural tendency to pursue originality. It is alleged to be the purest form of motivation that could influence employee citizenship behaviour. Intrinsically motivated employees are more involved in teamwork and according to Dysvik and Kuvaas (2008), intrinsic motivation is also concerned with the motivation to execute tasks and therefore intrinsic motivation increased employee citizenship behaviour (Dysvik and Kuvaas, 2008; Gagné and Deci, 2005).

Correspondingly, the achievement–affiliation–power motive framework (McClelland, 1961; McClelland and Boyatzis, 1982; McClelland and Burnham, 1976) is a multiple source model of human motivation which explains why people exhibit employee citizenship behaviour. This comprises of elements such as helping others, communicating changes that involve colleagues, to stop complaining, to engage and add value and to contribute towards teams achieving goals and objectives. Thus, an employee who is motivated to portray these behaviours will continue demonstrating employee citizenship behaviour (Niehoff, 2000). Accordingly, employee citizenship behaviour is driven by motives based on achievement, affiliation and power.

Podsakoff et al. (2009) also said that employee citizenship behaviour was a core ingredient to improve performance and determined that leaders should stimulate and support employee citizenship behaviour through enhancing the organisational climate (Charoensukmongkol, Daniel and Chatelain-Jardon, 2015). Although several employee citizenship behaviour models were developed, it was found that five dimensions (altruism, courtesy, civic virtue, sportsmanship and conscientiousness) had been used very often in various employee citizenship behaviour models (Kumar and Shah, 2015; LePine, Erez and Johnson, 2002; Mohammadi, Kiumarsi and Hashemi, 2016). In addition, research has shown that employee citizenship behaviour in public service organisations was more evident due to the relevance of widespread citizenship in government and showed a secure connection to public service motivation (Ingrams, 2018; Vigoda-Gadot and Beerli, 2012). In public service, employees also have a robust sense of community duty, being motivated to give to the greater good of humanity. Studies further showed that high levels of employee citizenship behaviour were measured in the public service (Christensen and Whiting, 2009; Kim, 2006). Commitment and satisfaction at work also have a positive influence on employee citizenship behaviour in the public service (Bottomley et al., 2016; Gould-Williams, Mostafa and Bottomley, 2013; Kim, 2006; Liu and Perry, 2016). Therefore, when employees portray employee citizenship behaviour their performance improves.

However, why would the introduction of employee psychological empowerment lead to a decrease in the indirect effect of the proposed path? The following section tries to explain this observation.

Fernandez and Moldogaziev (2012) and Keerthika et al. (2012) noted that performance insufficiency in the public service did not only result from lazy or ineffectual employees, but also stemmed from the complex and inflexible system of protocols and rules and political interference that had an adverse effect on creativity and innovation. Additionally, flexibility is critical to the success of empowerment. However, public service organisations are very inflexible and their internal performance systems, skills development and learning abilities may be outdated and implemented only as a matter of malicious

compliance (Çuhadar, 2005; Keerthika et al., 2018). As a result, these circumstances limit the implementation of empowerment in the public service. Aside from this, even though empowerment is limited through this highly regulated and bureaucratic environment in local government, researchers still found that when opportunities, information technologies and information are available and presented to competitive and skilled employees, municipalities were forced to implement an evolution-oriented employee empowerment process (Kaymakçı and Babacan, 2014).

Respondents from the qualitative interviews noted that empowerment is in some measure retained at leadership and can be very limited because of the regulatory framework that these respondents work in. Some respondents also said that leaders attempt to expose employees to learning opportunities which enhances employees' skills and knowledge and employees are therefore empowered to perform better. Moreover, leaders need to involve employees in decision making to a greater extent, allowing them to solve problems on their own, providing employees with feedback, which would make employees feel appreciated – this would empower employees and increase performance.

Apart from the above, respondents to the qualitative interviews generally agreed that all variables in this study influenced performance. Respondents noted, for example, that leaders do have competencies, although not necessarily the correct technical abilities related to specific areas, but that they do have the skills to empower employees through team dynamics, sharing the same vision and objectives. In this way respondents also said that when leaders involve employees to a greater measure in the daily processes and decisions, employees feel connected to the teams and organisation and they work harder to ensure that they are successful in the execution of their duties. Likewise, by building stronger teams, sharing visions and motivating employees through training, rewards and recognition, employees will attempt to achieve all their objectives performing beyond what is required, going the extra mile to be successful. Respondents also highlighted that by means of system upgrades, limited political interference and equal opportunities, employee performance would increase. When leaders create opportunities for employees to grow and excel in their jobs, employees work harder to realise their

dreams, influencing performance positively. Thus, considering the quantitative and qualitative data, leadership competencies, via all the other variables have an influence on employee performance.

It is evident from the above that the challenges experienced in public service organisations regarding the empowerment of employees (positive and negative) might account for the decrease in the overall indirect effect of Path 2.

Consequently, leadership competencies have a positive influence on employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour which, in combination, have a positive influence on employee performance. This supports the results which indicated that leadership competencies, through the other variables, have an indirect relationship with employee performance.

Hence, Path 3 is discussed. The indirect effect of Path 3 is 0.031.

12.5.5 Path 3: LEAD->EMPOWER->MOTIVATE->ECB->PERFORM

Path 3 shows the influence of leadership competencies on employee performance via employee psychological empowerment, employee motivation, and employee citizenship behaviour.

This path has the weakest indirect effect (0.031). It should also be mentioned that the moment when employee psychological empowerment is put into the mix, the indirect effect becomes weaker. Nevertheless, using Path 2 as the starting point, the following section will attempt to explain the proposed path:

To substantiate the findings, it may be said that several researchers found flexibility to be critical to the success of psychological empowerment. Public service organisations have, however, been found to be very inflexible and their internal performance systems, skills development and learning abilities may be outdated and implemented only as a matter of

malicious compliance (Çuhadar, 2005; Keerthika et al., 2018). Their structures are also bureaucratic, limiting the span of control, and a top-down management approach, including political interference. Moreover, legal constrictions and stringent employee protection limited managerial powers (Keerthika et al., 2018). Consequently, these conditions could restrict the employment of empowerment in the public service.

Fernandez and Moldogaziev (2012) and Keerthika et al., (2012) noted that the performance inadequacy in the public service stemmed mainly from the complex and inflexible system of protocols, rules and political interference that had an adverse effect on creativity and innovation. Public service leaders therefore attempted to change their management techniques to implement employee empowerment, including the delegation of responsibilities and decentralisation of jobs (Kaymakçı and Babacan, 2014; Keerthika et al., 2018). Leaders in the public service also attempted to implement employee empowerment to improve employee performance, contentment and innovativeness (Fernandez and Moldogaziev, 2012; Keerthika et al., 2018).

Even respondents from the qualitative interviews highlighted that leaders expose employees to learning opportunities to empower them to perform better. These learning opportunities increase their skills and abilities and create the opportunity to grow at work. Employees are also given the chance to contribute to daily tasks, like report writing and operational decision making and problem solving which enhances their performance. Respondents recognise that empowerment is limited by the bureaucratic and political environment, however, and believe that employees can be empowered through delegation of some responsibilities at an operational level, which would enhance employee performance.

Thus, empowerment may be seen as a double-edged sword: leaders may have the competencies to empower employees, but the bureaucratic and political environment may limit their ability to do so. It might also be difficult for leaders to empower employees because empowerment opportunities which influence employee performance arise at operational level. Moreover, empowerment is context dependent as it can be positive

where leaders are competent to empower, and they are given the freedom to enable empowerment. However, empowerment can be limited when leaders have the ability to empower employees, but the systems, protocols and environment do not support empowerment.

On the other hand, when employee workplace spirituality is excluded from the mix, the indirect effect also becomes weaker. Workplace spirituality is enhanced through meaningful work, which results in fulfilment and happiness for employees (Ahmad and Omar, 2016). The following is therefore important about employee workplace spirituality in the complex relationship between leadership competencies and employee performance:

Ahmad and Omar (2016) identified a lack of research probing into workplace spirituality, especially in the public service. The dimensions of workplace spirituality include meaningful work, a sense of community and the alignment of personal values to organisational values. Ahmad and Omar (2015) further stated that when employees experience spirituality at work, their level of work engagement increases, positively influencing employee citizenship behaviour and performance. A respondent from the qualitative interviews also said that performance compliance outweighs performance and therefore employees do not necessarily focus on achieving organisational objectives.

Even Fawcett et al. (2008) said that a change in the spiritual culture in organisational values in the public service is needed, from limiting towards inspiring employees. Correspondingly, a spiritual culture will create meaning and purpose, enhancing creativity, learning, passion, primary attributes at work, plus commitment. Together, these elements would then positively influence employee performance (Fawcett et al., 2008). The results of the study showed, however, that workplace spirituality had no effect on employee citizenship behaviour and was therefore excluded in this path. However, it should be noted that workplace spirituality, by means of employee motivation, influenced employee citizenship behaviour. (See the conceptual model.)

Meaningful work as a dimension of spirituality is highly relevant for the public service (Ahmad and Omar, 2016; Subramaniam and Panchanatham, 2013). It was found that where public service employees agreed that they were living the values of the organisation (Subramaniam and Panchanatham, 2013), a positive relationship between spirituality at work and employee performance was confirmed. In addition, Ahmad and Omar (2016) found that employees' principles and values matched the organisation's mission and purpose and that employees also seemed to have a positive attitude towards moral values, concern for societal needs and input to community. They felt connected to the organisational objectives and lived up to their values (Ahmad and Omar, 2016; Subramaniam and Panchanatham, 2013). Furthermore, respondents to the qualitative interviews stated that the political and highly regulated environment also limited spirituality at work. They said there is a silo mentality with no incentives, where collaboration is not encouraged, and limiting spirituality at work.

As a result, leaders should bond and show concern for employees, which would improve trust, job satisfaction and performance levels. In turn, these relationships would also minimise staff turnover rates and in return would reflect savings from recruitment and training. Several researchers found that where there were strong relationships, employees worked together better, hence group dynamics, teamwork and performance were enhanced (Baumeister, 1998). Leaders and organisations should therefore be much more spiritually inclined. Respondents to the qualitative interviews also indicated that it was important for leaders to facilitate development and motivation of employees by means of a conducive and healthy environment at work. This would in return ensure that employees look forward to going work and would work together with leaders and not against them, performing better.

Thus, in the absence of empowerment, workplace spirituality perhaps plays a more prominent role in facilitating enhanced employee performance (via motivation). When employees are for example happy and content, find meaning in what they do, and are committed, their levels of spirituality would increase, positively influencing their levels of motivation and eventually their performance. Likewise, when leaders are limited through

external elements to empower employees, they could still stimulate employees' sense of community, alignment of values, satisfaction and involvement which would enhance performance. Even with the exclusion of spirituality at work and based on the discussions in Paths 1 and 2, it can still be concluded that leadership competencies have a positive influence on employee performance via employee psychological empowerment, employee motivation, and employee citizenship behaviour.

Hereafter, the researcher responds to Research Question 3.

12.5.6 Research Question 3

The third research question of this study was "How do leaders of the top three municipalities perceive the effect that the individual-level variables have on employee performance?"

Based on the qualitative studies which sought to assess leaders' understanding of the individual level variables of performance and considering the results of the qualitative interviews, the researcher highlights the following:

12.5.3.1 The effect of leadership competencies on employee performance

Participants in the interviews said that without competent and skilled leaders, the organisation would perform poorly. They noted that performance levels may be low due to the inability of leaders to motivate employees, create sustainable cultures that support workplace spirituality and citizenship behaviour as well as the inability of leaders to empower employees.

In addition to this, participants said that leaders should improve on their delegation abilities. To improve performance, employees should be given the opportunity to make decisions and be involved in planning sessions. Participants also highlighted that the levels of leaders' confidence were very low and that they lacked involvement due to the political intrusion in the administration of municipalities, and this affected performance.

Participants further noted that leaders were not necessarily appointed for their abilities, but rather because of the political agenda. They indicated that leaders every so often lack the skills or do not have suitable skills, and/or cannot apply their skills operationally in the municipality. This, they believed, had a negative effect on employees.

Furthermore, participants indicated that performance was influenced through management by fear. Leaders fear to act, fear to make decisions and fear to manage due to political pressures. They also stressed that compliance outweighed performance; therefore, why perform, just comply!

Accordingly, leaders identified numerous leadership competencies that had an effect on employee performance, some negative and some positive. As a result of this, it can be said that leadership competencies have a definite effect on employee performance.

Flowing from this, the next discussion will elaborate on whether employee psychological empowerment had an influence on performance.

12.5.3.2 The effect of employee psychological empowerment on employee performance

It was noted that employees in the municipality were not empowered since they had no chance of being exposed to learning activities such as career progression, training and workshops. Participants also noted that when employees are exposed to learning opportunities, they are not given the opportunity to execute their knowledge and skills, but are rather being suppressed, which affects performance negatively.

In addition, participants said that technical assistance to employees could be one of the strategies to empower employees, as this would influence their performance positively. Participants also identified the failure to involve employees in decision making in the municipality as a negative influence on performance. The proposed approach in solving this issue as per the respondents is to incorporate employees in making decisions.

Aside from this, participants again highlighted the highly regulated, political environment which reduces the ability of leaders to empower employees and therefore affects performance negatively.

The next discussion is based on leaders' understanding of the effect of workplace spirituality on employee performance.

12.5.3.3 The effect of employee workplace spirituality on employee performance

As a result, the conclusion was drawn from the quantitative results that employee workplace spirituality had a weak correlation on performance in the municipality. The participants in the interviews argued that, with the incorporation of team-building activities in the workplace, the levels of workplace spirituality would improve, resulting in increased employee interaction and motivation, therefore improving their performance.

The lack of programmes focussing on employee workplace spirituality was also identified as a negative factor. Participants highlighted that the municipality should consider employees' levels of meaningfulness, sense of community and value-alignment which would enhance spirituality in the workplace. Moreover, participants said that the work culture (consisting of norms and values) in municipalities needs to be changed to support workplace spirituality and to create a sense of ownership which would positively influence performance. This, they believed, should include workshops to address beliefs, values and cultural background and principles, awareness sessions and social get togethers.

Some, in addition, noted that the absence of recognition may cause a decrease in employees' sense of belonging. This, they felt, would also have a negative impact on performance. Participants also identified inclusiveness of employee value prepositions to be paramount in improving their levels of workplace spirituality and performance, which would involve having programmes such as employee development programmes.

Participants also said that workplace spirituality creates a sense of belonging amongst employees. This results in improved teamwork, which will in turn cause higher productivity

and performance. The following discussion is based on leaders' responses to the effect that employee motivation has on employee performance.

12.5.3.4 The effect of employee motivation on employee performance

In the ensuing assessment whether employee motivation had an effect on performance, the results showed motivation to have a weak influence on performance. To explain, some of the reasons obtained from the respondents for arriving at this conclusion included that employees were motivated when they were given an opportunity in the decision-making process, which was not the case in the municipality. Secondly, due to a lack of participation in policy making in the municipality, employees could not visualise the impact of their contributions to the objectives and this impacted their motivation levels and performance. Neither are employees are given the opportunity to work on projects, therefore they do not reap the benefit to contribute their knowledge and skills to achieve results, which affects their motivation levels and performance. Instead of this, leaders go ahead to outsource projects to other people, which also demotivates employees and affects performance.

Furthermore, participants identified a lack of motivational elements such as salary increments, allowances and commissions, which negatively influenced performance. Participants also noted that performance management systems were weak and not properly implemented which resulted in a lack of career succession planning. They believed that this had a negative effect on motivation and performance.

Participants added that old and outdated systems were still used in the municipality and this had a negative effect on employee performance. Participants said, for example, that the system for keeping track of the number of hours that each employee worked was not effective. It was consequently noted that employees wasted a lot of time for not having a system to monitor them and this affected their work performance. These systems also affect the motivation of employees as they feel they are treated unfairly due the docking of hours, which influences their performance.

Again, the culture and political interference were highlighted as factors that demotivate employees and negatively influence performance. Participants believed that the culture comprised of a “sticklike” environment where only punitive and fear-based management approaches seemed to be implemented. This was mostly driven by political agendas and was pinpointed as a negative influence on the motivation and performance levels of employees. However, some participants believed that motivation came from within and that employees are motivated and therefore perform optimally.

The researcher then assessed the responses of leaders regarding the effect of employee citizenship behaviour on employee performance.

12.5.3.5 The effect of employee citizenship behaviour on employee performance

It was concluded that employee citizenship behaviour had a weak influence on employee performance. Participants stipulated that employees were not provided with a good, supportive working environment which would make them to go to an extra mile to deliver their best. Furthermore, participants said that when leaders take care of employees it would motivate them to take care of customers in the municipality, hence improving their performance. Added to this, when employees notice the presence of leaders, they feel a heightened sense of belonging which increases their mojo to go the extra mile to increase performance.

Another factor that was identified as a big influence on the performance of employees was social recognition in terms of employee religion as well as their social interactions. In such a multi-cultural employee base, participants felt that leaders do not understand the backgrounds of employees. The relationships between leaders and employees are therefore not built on trust and interaction. Leaders should therefore attempt to understand employees not only in a work context, but also from social interaction. With such opportunities in the municipality, there would be high likelihood of improved performance of employees as the employees would feel valued as part of the organisation.

In addition, participants identified a lack of a cohesive vision, which affected the desire of employees to achieve organisational objectives. Employees only aim to achieve their own objectives and do not understand the bigger picture. Because of this, their commitment is not aimed at the team, but at their own goals. This affects their desire to go the extra mile and work harder, which thus affects their performance. Consequently, if the vision is shared and employees work together with a cohesive objective in mind, their desire to go the extra mile to achieve and be successful would increase and would influence their performance positively.

Based on this discussion it was therefore concluded that employee citizenship behaviour has a weak, but positive influence on the employee performance.

Hereafter, the researcher discussed the results in relation to Research Question 4.

12.5.7 Research Question 4

The last research question of this study was “What recommendations can leaders of these top three municipalities propose to improve employee performance?”

The whole idea behind this question was to assist the top three municipalities to improve on employee performance. Hence, to establish such strategies, participants in the qualitative interviews were asked for recommendations and strategies to improve performance.

Participants firstly recommended that leaders’ competencies must be improved through various human resource management practices such as training and development. Looking at the mismatch of competencies, the participants also said that when employing leaders, their skills should be assessed beforehand to ensure that the capabilities of leaders are applicable to the unit or department they will lead. In such a way, their knowledge would contribute to the success and achievement of objectives in the department which would contribute to increased performance.

Participants said that employee empowerment was one of the key factors that influence employee performance in the municipalities. They stated that when employees have the power to make decisions, the business runs more smoothly, and problems are resolved more quickly. This increases employee commitment and satisfaction, which participants believed would improve performance.

Another strategy was proposed, which was to implement training and development initiatives for employees. The capabilities, knowledge and skills of these employees would increase, and the employees would subsequently be able to contribute to and participate in the organisation's affairs, which would improve performance. Moreover, participants felt that leaders should support employees in the form of financial aid to increase their knowledge and allow them to participate in other workshops too. This would increase the employee knowledge base in the municipality and produce higher performers.

Participants also said that in order to ensure that individuals perform optimally, they should be motivated. They pinpointed unfairness in the performance management processes and that the systems were outdated; hence, they recommended that the performance management system should be reviewed and upgraded. This, they believed, would ensure that employees are rewarded according to their performance. In view of the performance management process, employees should likewise be made aware of growth and career prospects which would impact positively on their performance levels. Participants also indicated that the fact of unfair performance management reviews should be addressed by emphasising ethical conduct at work and upgrading the system to reflect actual performance, rather than depending a hundred percent on feedback from managers.

Apart from this, participants also indicated unfairness in the remuneration processes. They felt that politically appointed employees reaped the benefits of higher salaries, as opposed to employees going through normal appointment processes. Employees are aware of these imbalances and this demotivates them, which affects their performance negatively. Participants proposed that all employees should go through the same

recruitment processes and that political influence should not be allowed in the operational administration. They believe that this would improve performance as it would create heightened trust between leaders and employees.

One of the most discussed factors to which participants eluded was that of organisational culture. In this respect they highlighted that the culture was fear-based and highly bureaucratic, with political influence, not supporting innovation and empowerment of employees. Performance was also rather a matter of compliance. Moreover, people work in silos; there are no incentives, and collaboration is not encouraged. Apart from this, the communication levels are rather low, or in some instances, non-existent. As a result of this, participants pinpointed that leaders need to reshape the culture to support excellence, communication, trust, integrity and empowerment. In view of such a huge challenge, leaders need to identify strategies to implement positive change to enhance the culture in the municipality, which would improve performance.

Leaders consequently anticipate that these proposed strategies will culminate in enhanced productivity stemming from tasks, adaptations, and contexts in the organisation. Thus, looking back on the responses to the four research questions, the researcher highlights the fact that leadership competencies, through the individual variables, influence employee performance.

Hence, the researcher presented a summary of the chapter.

12.6 SUMMARY

This chapter provided an analysis of the overall discussion of the results obtained during the study. This involved a discussion combining the results from the qualitative and quantitative data to respond to the research questions.

The researcher commenced with an introduction to the chapter and thereafter presented an overview of the demographics. After that, a summary of the reliability of the research questions was presented. To continue, the researcher provided a summary of the minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviations.

The results of the quantitative research questions and qualitative data were then applied to assess how leadership competencies, employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, employee motivation, and employee citizenship behaviour influence employee performance in the top three municipalities in South Africa.

It must be highlighted that these results confirmed that leadership competencies have an indirect influence on employee performance through the other variables in the model.

The next chapter will present implications and conclusions of this thesis.

CHAPTER 13

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

13.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented consolidated results drawn from Chapters 10 and 11 and responses to the research questions.

In this chapter the researcher draws general conclusions and identify implications of the study. The strengths and limitations of the study are also discussed briefly. Thereafter recommendations for future research is discussed, followed by the final conclusion of this thesis.

13.2 CONCLUSIONS

Conclusions will be conversed in two sectors, the first based on conclusions drawn from the literature review and the second based on conclusions from the empirical study.

13.2.1 Conclusions based on the literature review

The literature study was aimed at exploring the effect that leadership competencies have on employee performance. Within this framework four variables were identified that could influence employee performance. Therefore, the researcher attempted to explore the relationship between leadership competencies, employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour and their influence on employee performance. Hence, the literature review concluded with a proposed conceptual model showing the theoretical relationships between leadership competencies, employee psychological empowerment, employee

workplace spirituality, employee motivation, employee citizenship behaviour and employee performance. Hereafter the model was tested, and the outcomes were presented in Chapter 10 (quantitative results), Chapter 11 (qualitative results) and Chapter 12 (consolidated results). The literature review was aimed firstly at:

- (i) Conceptualising leadership competencies, employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, employee motivation, employee citizenship behaviour and employee performance.

The theoretical fundamentals of these six constructs were profoundly studied during the literature review in Chapters 2 to 7.

From the literature, Van Wyk (2007) identified 15 dimensions for the leadership competencies construct as more suitable for the public service. These were: conceptual ability; diversity learning; empowerment; leadership communication; visionary thinking; adaptability; performance achievement; motivational capacity; self-responsibility; information capacity; cross-functional teamwork; purpose building; people development and business acumen. Various researchers showed that high-performance leadership competencies resulted in superior performance (Boyatzis, 1982; Epley, Ferrari and Cochran, 2017; Schroder, 1989; Stevens, 2012; Van Wyk, 2007).

For empowerment, the study shows that the concept empowerment is theorised as power-sharing (Block, 1987; Kanter, 1984), shared decision-making (Peters, 1994; Ripley and Ripley, 1992), delegation of responsibility (Gandz, 1990; Peters, 1994) and delegation of responsibility with authority (Bowen, Lawler and Edward, 1992; Greenberg and Baron, 2000). Further to this, Wallace et al. (2011), Mathieu, Gilson and Ruddy (2006) and Forrester (2000) amongst others found that empowerment had a positive effect on performance. Equally, Chen et al. (2011) found that empowerment stimulates innovation, team behaviour, dedication and ownership, which positively influences performance. In psychological literature, power and control define the individual's internal need to influence and control others (McClelland, 1975). The psychological model of Spreitzer

(1995) contains meaning, self-determination, choice and impact and is not specific to any organisation. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) also stated that empowerment implied the improvement of the level of intrinsic motivation, introducing the concept of psychological empowerment. Moreover, Kaymakçı and Babacan (2014) confirmed that employee empowerment turned out to be a basis of remodelling government proposals to improve their efficiency and services.

To conceptualise spirituality at work the concept was based on the work of Milliman, Czaplewski, and Ferguson (2003). In their view, employees, by discovering their ultimate drive in life, develop strong and sustainable relationships with colleagues which stabilise the fundamental beliefs and the values in an organisation and improve performance. Also, for this study, the concept employee workplace spirituality, (containing the dimensions meaningful work, sense of community and alignment of values) was identified as a spiritual path and opportunity for employees to give back to society (Ali, 2015; Ashmos and Duchon, 2000; Smith and Rayment, 2007). In addition, workplace spirituality captures the understanding and worth of inner life, leading to a feeling of trust and building relationships that will lead to enhanced performance in the workplace (Jhajharia and Gautam, 2015; Shahbaz and Ghafoor, 2015).

The researcher then approached the employee motivation concept from the self-determination theory (SDT) perspective. The SDT understands and supports dynamics associated with motivation, which results in enhanced employee commitment and an increase in customer service quality (Mohsan et al., 2015). Moreover, this theory shows that motivation contributes positively to goal attainment and emphasises the importance of employees' satisfaction, especially in the public service. The SDT as set out by Ryan and Deci (2000) included several dimensions - intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, introjected regulation, identified regulation and integrated regulation. Also, in a service industry such as municipalities, the SDT will enhance employee motivation and commitment and increase customer service quality and enhance performance (Mohsan et al., 2015).

The other construct of interest in this study was employee citizenship behaviour which consists of five dimensions: altruism, courtesy, civic virtue, sportsmanship and conscientiousness. Numerous researchers (Asiedu, Sarfo and Adjei, 2014; Pitt-Catsouphes, Kossek and Sweet, 2006; Robb, 2011) defined employee citizenship behaviour as extra-role behaviour. This construct was approached from the perspective of Podsakoff et al., (1990) and Kumar and Shah (2015) who agreed with these researchers and also based their studies on the five dimensions listed above. Further, in the public service, employees have a vigorous sense of community duty, being motivated to give to the greater good of humanity and work harder to achieve this. Studies showed that high levels of employee citizenship behaviour were measured in the public service (Christensen and Whiting, 2009; Kim, 2006).

The last construct that was used to assist in meeting the study objectives was employee performance and contained three dimensions: task-, adaptive-, and contextual performance. For this study the construct employee performance was approached, based on the work of Pradhan and Jena (2016), who stated that together, these three dimensions form the basis of excellence in an organisation. Also, employee performance is closely related to team performance, skills, training, knowledge, experience and empowerment (Arinanye, 2015; Covey, 1989; Covey, 2004; Jones, George and Hill, 2000; Mohammed and Al-Khour, 2010) and core to any organisation (Gavrea, Ilies and Stegorean, 2011). Therefore, employees will expand and grow in organisations that are empowered through high performing employees.

Thus, all variables have been conceptualised through theoretical evidence and the basis to continue the research was established.

The next section summarises the theoretical relationships between these constructs.

The theoretical relationships between leadership competencies, employee empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour and employee performance.

The conceptual framework established between the variables in the current study was informed by Robinson et al. (2015) who defined a conceptual framework as the way in which a researcher understands the links between the variables in a study. Therefore, the researcher presented a proposed conceptual model. The empirical evidence also supported the majority of the hypothesized relationships in the conceptual model. The proposed relationships are discussed below.

The first hypothesis relates to the relationship between leadership competencies and employee psychological empowerment and was formulated as follows:

H1 - There is a statistically significant relationship between leadership competencies and employee psychological empowerment in the three top metropolitan municipalities in South Africa.

Also, the results from the adjusted conceptual model confirmed the above hypothesis, indicating that leadership competencies had a statistically significant positive influence on employee psychological empowerment.

To substantiate this, Van Wyk (2007) found that high-performance leadership competencies resulted in employee empowerment and considerably superior employee performance by their effect on specific performance indicators. She noted that high-performance leadership competencies would enable self-directed learning that would, in turn, provide leaders with the ability to empower employees, creating high employee performance (Van Wyk, 2007). By being flexible and open to new ideas, leaders enable employees to feel empowered (Folkman, 2017). Also, leaders' visionary thinking, adaptability and purpose-building competencies ensure that a sense of advancement towards goals as well as employees' psychological empowerment is achieved. Leaders can also create meaning at work for employees by sharing the vision, mission and objectives which assist employees to understand how their contributions influence overall organisational successes. Subsequently, it enhances the employee's psychological

empowerment (Martina, 2014). Leaders can, by involving employees in problem-solving scenarios and decision making, and by enhancing their learning capabilities - ensure that employees feel in control of their work. This will enhance their sense of competence and meaning, resulting in feeling more psychologically empowered (Berberick, Lindsay and Fritchen, 2017; Folkman, 2017). Also, when leaders generate an environment where employees are challenged to gather information, create ideas, and take calculated risks (Schroder, 1983; Van Wyk, 2007), employees will feel more valued. Therefore, employees will be more self-determined (and therefore psychologically empowered) to perform exceptionally (Berberick, Lindsay and Fritchen, 2017; Folkman, 2017). Leaders can, furthermore create common goals with shared purposes, inspiring employees to make choices and decisions, creating an empowered, goal-driven, highly responsible and accountable employee force (Spreitzer, 1995).

The second hypothesis relates to the relationship between leadership competencies and employee workplace spirituality and was formulated as follows:

H2: There is a statistically significant relationship between leadership competencies and employee workplace spirituality in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa.

Moreover, the adjusted conceptual model confirmed the above hypothesis and showed that leadership competencies had a statistically significant positive influence on spirituality at work.

Spirituality is a feeling of completeness, of relatedness at work, and of strong values (Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson, 2003) and gives individuals a sense of meaning, direction (Ali, 2015; Ashmos and Duchon, 2000) and an experience beyond self-actualisation (Conger and Kanungo, 1988). Leadership competencies such as altruistic conduct, empowerment, modesty, sincere love, cultivating trust, and an enthused, shared vision (Patterson and Stone, 2003; Roberts, 2013), effect employee workplace spirituality as they produce a sense of meaning, alignment of values and purpose at work (Barnett,

2018; Burack, 1999; Meng, 2016; Naidoo, 2014; Paul and Saha, 2015). As employee workplace spirituality also contains a quest for meaning, purpose and shared goals, some researchers argued that leaders have a role to play in matters of employee workplace spirituality (Pradhan and Jena, 2016; Pradhan, Panigrahy and Jena, 2015). As strategists, leaders create a feeling of cohesion and alignment to organisational strategies. Employees will therefore feel part of the team and have a purpose to achieve these objectives. In so doing, employees experience a sense of belonging and commitment at work, feeling appreciated and part of the community. As a result, their workplace spirituality increases (Byrd, 2017; Pradhan, Panigrahy and Jena, 2015). Also, leaders can - through training and development of employees and the implementation of performance management initiatives - contribute to an increment in work satisfaction and job involvement, therefore enhancing employee workplace spirituality (Ulrich, Ulrich and Ulrich, 2011).

The third hypothesis relates to the relationship between leadership competencies and employee motivation and was formulated as follows:

H3: There is a statistically significant relationship between leadership competencies and employee motivation in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa.

Contrary to expectations, the results based on the variance-based approach to SEM showed that there was a significant negative path coefficient between leadership competencies and motivation. No theoretical explanation could be found, as the other results (e.g. correlations) confirmed a significant positive correlation between leadership competencies and employee motivation. Hence, this proposed path was removed from the conceptual model.

Ryan and Deci (2000) defined motivation as dynamism, course, persistence and equifinality – which all signify facets of intention and purpose. Leaders stimulate employee motivation by means of balancing and aligning employees' and organisational needs; spotting employees' contributions by means of effective performance management

techniques; and showing appreciation (Juneja, 2015). Also, leadership competencies such as creating a purpose for employees through training and development initiatives leading to career advancement; rewards; identifying skills shortages; seeing situations or problems from the understanding of employees; creating stimulating brainstorming platforms; and communicating on their level, enhance extrinsic employee motivation (Bauer, 2016; Juneja, 2015; Kay, 2015). In addition, Bauer (2016) said that through leadership competencies such as interactive communication, delegation, empowerment and delegation, employees would be motivated to perform better.

The fourth hypothesis relates to the relationship between employee psychological empowerment and employee workplace spirituality and was formulated as follows:

H4: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee psychological empowerment and employee workplace spirituality in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa.

The adjusted conceptual model indicated that employee psychological empowerment had a statistically significant positive influence on spirituality at work – hence, confirming the above hypothesis.

Psychological empowerment comprises of the dimensions: “self-determination, meaning, competence and impact” (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1997: 41). Employee workplace spirituality comprises of meaningful work, a sense of community, alignment of values and commitment at work, intrinsic work satisfaction and job involvement (Chegini and Nezhad, 2012; Jurkiewicz and Giacalone, 2004). Empowered employees give input and receive feedback from their ideas, they are innovative and creative and to openly express themselves. This stimulates self-belief and assurance for employees knowing that leaders would protect them, therefore creating trust. A sense of community and higher levels of job involvement are generated, leading to enhanced workplace spirituality (Chegini and Nezhad, 2012). Elmes and Smith (2001) highlighted that the alignment of individual and shared organisational visions and values empowered employees in the sense that

individual visions and values were based on employees' hopes to be successful and this enhances employees' workplace spirituality.

The fifth hypothesis relates to the relationship between employee psychological empowerment and employee motivation and was formulated as follows:

H5: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee psychological empowerment and employee motivation in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa.

The results of the present study provided evidence that confirmed this hypothesis. The adjusted conceptual model indicated that employee psychological empowerment had a statistically significant positive influence on employee motivation.

Empowerment improves employee devotion, innovation, efficiency, fulfilment and motivation and is internal to an individual (Agwu, 2015). Intrinsic motivators such as recognition and gratitude, meaningful work, being content and flexible at work and a feeling of accomplishment and success are powerful motivators (Sarkissian, 2013). Empowered employees would also understand their own abilities and potential and this would affect their motivation positively (Tutar, Altinoz and Cakiroglu, 2011). Sibota (2010) also confirmed a strong relationship between employee psychological empowerment and motivation and stated that empowerment strategies such as delegation, effective communication, respect, authority and sharing in decision making had a positive effect on employee motivation.

The sixth hypothesis relates to the relationship between employee workplace spirituality and employee motivation and was formulated as follows:

H6: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee workplace spirituality and employee motivation in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa.

The adjusted conceptual model confirmed this hypothesis, showing that spirituality at work has a statistically significant positive influence on employee motivation.

Employees who experience meaning at work; feeling that their contributions contain meaning and enjoyment and are interesting, are likely to participate with a sense of choice and spiritual freedom which increases motivation (Deci and Ryan, 2000; Fried, Yitzhak and Ferris, 1987; Hackman and Oldham, 1976; Ryan and Deci, 2006). Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson (2003) also stated that a deep sense of meaning and purpose, as a dimension of spirituality, demonstrated how employees act daily and how, through intrinsic motivation increase meaning to their lives and the lives of others. Marques, Dhiman and King (2007) also found that meaning, self-expression and interconnectedness as spiritual dimensions enhanced motivation. Daily interaction, involvement and self-expression in tasks, where desires at work are met, increase the sense of meaning at work, which stimulate intrinsic motivation. Interconnectedness, a sense of belonging and community, and striving for common goals also increased employee motivation levels. These dimensions of employee workplace spirituality therefore have a positive influence on employee motivation.

The seventh hypothesis relates to the relationship between employee workplace spirituality and employee citizenship behaviour and was formulated as follows:

H7: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee workplace spirituality and employee citizenship behaviour in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa.

However, the results of the PLS-SEM indicated that the path between workplace spirituality and employee citizenship behaviour was non-significant and was therefore removed from the conceptual model.

Employee citizen behaviour is encouraged by workplace spirituality. Isen and Baron (1991) and Shaw (1999) indicated that employees who experienced workplace spirituality, showed a high degree of determination and effort and performed extra-role duties to achieve objectives at work. When employees found meaning in their work, when they had a sense of community and alignment of values, were committed, involved and highly satisfied at work, they would be more inclined to perform extra-role duties and to perform extraordinarily (Shahbaz and Ghafoor, 2015). When employees experience a sense of belonging/security they will venture outside the realm of their immediate responsibility and perform extra-role behaviours (Singh and Mishra, 2017). Also, employees will find meaning at work, through inner motivations, desires, and truths which are key drivers of extra-role behaviour. As a result, these employees have the motivation and desire to perform extra-role behaviours (Charoensukmongkol, Daniel and Chatelain-Jardon, 2015). Employees with an augmented sense of community exhibit pro-social behaviour, which comprises of the enthusiasm to assist, defend or endorse the well-being of others (Schwartz and Bilsky, 1990). Hence, by performing these extra-role behaviours employees can protect this sense of community.

The eight hypotheses relate to the relationship between employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour and was formulated as follows:

H8: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa.

The results of adjusted conceptual model confirmed the above hypothesis, suggesting that employee motivation had a statistically significant positive influence on employee citizenship behaviour.

Intrinsically motivated employees are more involved in teamwork and according to Dysvik and Kuvaas (2008: 2), intrinsic motivation is concerned with the motivation to execute tasks, therefore, "it is highly associated to measures of task involvement or task interest".

Subsequently, intrinsic motivation increased employee citizenship behaviour (Dysvik and Kuvaas, 2008; Gagné and Deci, 2005).

The achievement–affiliation–power motive framework (McClelland, 1961; McClelland and Boyatzis, 1982; McClelland and Burnham, 1976) explains why people exhibit employee citizenship behaviour. It includes elements such as helping others, communicating changes that involve colleagues, to stop complaining, to engage and add value and to contribute to teams towards achieving goals and objectives. An employee who is motivated to portray these behaviours will therefore persist in demonstrating employee citizenship behaviour (Niehoff, 2000).

The ninth hypothesis relates to the relationship between employee citizenship behaviour and employee performance and was formulated as follows:

H9: There is a statistically significant relationship between employee citizenship behaviour and employee performance in the top three metropolitan municipalities in South Africa.

The results of the adjusted conceptual model confirmed the above hypothesis, suggesting that employee citizenship behaviour had a statistically significant positive influence on employee performance.

As employees perform extra activities beyond their roles, they also contribute towards increased performance in the organisation their roles; they also contribute towards increased performance in the organisation (Charoensukmongkol, Daniel and Chatelain-Jardon, 2015). Organ, Podsakoff and MacKenzie (2006) and Podsakoff et al. (2009) among others, found that when employees support each other, defend each other's images and uphold the culture and values of the organization, employee citizenship behaviour will increase. Chelagat, Chepkwony and Ambrose (2015) said that sportsmanship, altruism, civic virtue and courtesy as dimensions of employee citizenship behaviour enabled employees to perform extra-role duties, going beyond the call of duty,

completing difficult tasks, sharing experiences and knowledge, and helping and supporting other employees. In addition, through increased helpful and positive behaviour, offering and contributing to support organisational tasks, employee citizenship behaviour increased employees' responsibility and tolerance levels, responsiveness and proactivity and consequently increased employee performance (Maharani, Troena and Noermijati, 2013).

In summary, the literature and empirical evidence supported the hypothesised relationships proposed for the conceptual model in this study. The next discussion will summarise the conclusions regarding the empirical study.

13.2.2 Conclusions from the empirical study

The next objective of this study was to validate, test and explain the theoretical model by means of empirical data (quantitative and qualitative). The empirical results showed that all the variables investigated contributed to employee performance.

In terms of all the relationships tested, the strongest relationship was found between employee citizenship behaviour and employee performance, and the weakest relationship was found between employee psychological empowerment and employee motivation.

In stepwise multiple regression, the outcome of the data analysis showed eight (8) significant predictors of employees' levels of overall performance. These eight predictors were: altruism (OCBS), competence (PEQ), identified (MM), civic virtue (OCBS), conscientiousness (OCBS), courtesy (OCBS), introjected (MM), meaningful work (SAW). These eight predictors then explained 55.8% of the variance in overall performance.

Hereafter, the researcher established how the various independent constructs would have an impact on the dependent construct. The results showed that there were eight (8) significant predictors. Competence (PEQ), reflected the greatest effect on overall

performance, followed by altruism (OCBS), civic virtue (OCBS), conscientiousness (OCBS), courtesy (OCBS), identified (MM), introjected (MM) and meaningful work (SAW).

Additionally, the findings indicated that none of the leadership competencies were significant predictors of overall performance. However, hereafter, the researcher used Partial Least Squares (PLS) structural equation modelling to evaluate the proposed theoretical model.

The results of the PLS-SEM affirmed the majority of hypotheses, except the following two:

- (i) The path between workplace spirituality and employee citizenship behaviour was non-significant and was therefore removed from the conceptual model.
- (ii) Contrary to expectations, there was a significant negative path coefficient between leadership competencies and motivation. No theoretical explanation could be found, as the other results (e.g. correlations) confirmed a significant positive correlation between leadership competencies and employee motivation. Hence, this proposed path was also removed from the conceptual model.

Thus, relating to this, for path 1 (LEAD->WPS->MOTIVATE->OCB->PERFORM), when considering all the variables in the conceptual model, the researcher concluded that employee workplace spirituality, employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour combined, had an indirect effect on the relationship between leadership competencies and employee performance. Also, for path 2, considering all the variables in the conceptual model (LEAD->EMPOWER->WPS->MOTIVATE->OCB->PERFORM), the researcher concluded that employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour combined, also had an indirect effect on the relationship between leadership competencies and employee performance, but not as strongly as path 1. Lastly, for path 3, (LEAD->EMPOWER->MOTIVATE->OCB->PERFORM), considering all the variables in the conceptual model, the researcher concluded that employee psychological

empowerment, employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour combined, again had an indirect effect on the relationship between leadership competencies and employee performance, but not as strongly as path 1 and path 2.

Hereafter implications and practical recommendations are presented.

13.3 THEORETICAL AND PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

Through the lens of the study's conceptual and theoretical framework, and mixed-methods research and data collection instruments, the results of this study have certain theoretical and practical implications for leadership in public organisations.

Previous literature proposes several theoretical paths in terms of how leadership competencies ultimately influence employee performance. These paths include variables such as employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour. However, despite starting off the research with a complicated theoretical model that included these theoretical proposed paths, the results of this study could not confirm all of these paths within the municipalities. For example, the results of Path 1 reduced the complexity of the theoretical model by explaining the optimal combination of variables (employee workplace spirituality, motivation and employee citizenship behaviour) that play a role in explaining the relationship between leadership competencies and employee performance. This implies that not all the proposed theoretical relationships seem to be necessary in all contexts to describe how leadership competencies indirectly influence employee performance.

Furthermore, despite the quantitative results of the study showing that leadership competencies did not have a direct effect on employee performance, the quantitative results emphasize the role of leadership competencies in increasing workplace spirituality, employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour, and subsequently employee performance. Also, in terms of employee empowerment, the model shows that empowerment may not have the same importance as the other variables in employee

performance. However, that does not mean that it is not important - the absence thereof is still problematic.

As for the practical implications, it is evident from the qualitative data that the organisational culture in the various municipalities is rather limited through bureaucracy and high political interference in the administration. Moreover, the systems and processes in municipalities are outdated and do not cater for efficiency, while performance management systems do not measure performance but is seen as compliance tools. The organisational culture and ineffective systems have a perilous effect on employee motivation, psychological empowerment and employee performance, as well as service delivery in the municipalities.

Considering the above, it is clear that, on the one hand, leadership competencies are needed to create inspired, motivated and empowered employees who are willing to walk the extra mile in order to deliver effective services. On the other hand, a culture and systems that are conducive to workplace spirituality and employee empowerment are also needed.

Since it is crucial for leaders in municipalities to have a strong sense of strategic direction with a dedicated, committed and a supportive workforce to enable performance, municipalities need to define and identify the core competencies needed for leaders to enable employee performance. Based on this, municipalities can upskill leaders with these core competencies to achieve their strategic objectives. Consequently, when leadership competencies are properly applied in the municipality, the path to accomplish strategy and increased performance will be more efficient and effective.

Also, municipalities have already implemented competency or skills audits (City of Joburg Skills Audit 'in full steam', 2018; Cloete et al., n.d.; Du Plessis and Lues, 2011), and therefore should apply the knowledge gained from these audits to move leaders to departments or units where their competencies would reap the highest results and benefits to the organisation. This concern was also raised by respondents to the qualitative interviews where they stated that the competencies of leaders may not be

directly related to the department or position that they are in, and therefore there is a mismatch between the competencies of the leaders and the departmental requirements and objectives. The municipality should therefore recognize the link between service delivery initiatives and training and development interventions to eliminate the current challenges and gaps stemming from these imbalances. Also, to align core skills to business requirements.

Consequently, leadership should attempt to minimise political interference at the administrative level. This will ensure that administrative leaders perform their tasks with confidence and with strategic objectives in sight. It is unlikely that leaders, individually, would be able to accomplish the anticipated results to reduce political interference. Thus, this should be a joint effort by all public administration leaders to ensure buy-in from the political arena. Also, administrative leaders should be empowered to be more innovative in their respective departments and roles.

The fact that administration allows politicians to influence the appointment of leaders and managers should be restricted. Clear roles and responsibilities should be defined to ensure that the administration in municipalities capacitate their structures to support and enhance service delivery. It is clear, that when leaders enter the system without the correct competencies, employee performance suffers the consequences.

Notwithstanding the above, it is critical to review municipal policies annually to ensure that policies are applicable, user friendly and relevant, supporting the changing environment, ensuring optimum performance and service delivery. Currently, policy change and development are hindered by long value chain processes and bureaucracy. These policies can relate to empowerment initiatives to ensure human resource development and skills development to suit the need of the business and career advancement which will increase employee performance. In addition, policy makers, human resource management and organisational development practitioners in the public service should seriously take cognisance of the multiple implications of leaders' competencies and the effect thereof on employees' performance. Possible areas to reflect

on, include leadership frameworks and training and development initiatives, empowerment strategies, recruitment and selection policies, career paths, performance modelling and improvement, skills transfer and succession planning.

Drawing from the fact that respondents said that the culture in the municipalities had a perilous effect on employee motivation, psychological empowerment and performance, leadership should consider a total revamping of the culture. It should be changed to an environment conducive for psychological empowerment, support, trust, employee citizenship behaviour and workplace spirituality, in order to stimulate and improve employee motivation and performance. The inflexible, bureaucratic and hierarchical governance structures must be enhanced to support employee innovation, empowerment and growth. These structures should be reviewed more often, and initiatives identified to empower employees, being it through improved communication and delegation in terms of authority and autonomy.

In addition, municipal leaders in the 21st century should review the inflexible bureaucratic and hierarchical governance structures, changing their awareness and energy towards strengthening and applying their competencies to enhance employee performance enabling excellent service in the municipality. Only then, the perception of employees and consumers will shift, believing that municipalities act on their agenda, to provide basic services with pride to the community which will result into enhanced employee performance.

The strengths of the study are discussed next.

13.4 STRENGTHS OF THE STUDY

The following strengths were identified:

- (i) A mixed methods approach, containing quantitative and qualitative research methods were applied – allowing the researcher to use the qualitative results to inform the quantitative results, as participants could voice their opinions and experiences;
- (ii) The present study evaluated both the reliability and validity of the measuring instruments using various statistical techniques (e.g. Cronbach's alpha, average variance extracted, etc.); and
- (iii) The results from the outer model provided evidence of acceptable levels of reliability and validity (Boyatzis, 1982; Foran, 2015; Kotter, 1979; Levinson, 1980; Milliman, Czaplewski and Ferguson, 2003; Spreitzer, 1995; Stogdill, 1948).

Notwithstanding the assurance in the research design and the results of the study, some limitations were observed. These are discussed hereafter.

13.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The following limitations were identified in this study:

Firstly, items measuring extrinsic motivation could not be termed as reliable since its alpha coefficient was only .544 and had a low internal consistency. Therefore, extrinsic motivation was identified as a challenge, which calls for further investigation.

The second limitation was that the items measuring sportsmanship (as a dimension of employee citizenship behaviour) had very low internal consistency (.425) which means that in theory it does not measure the overall latent construct in question. Sportsmanship is the willingness of employees to perform their duties and shows their tolerance for inadequate organisational circumstances, not complaining or exaggerating problems at work (Kumar and Shah, 2015). Past research established that leaders in the private and public sectors could improve employee citizenship behaviour levels by enhancing attitudes of employees and by incentivising employees (Ingrams, 2018).

Likewise, a methodological challenge was identified, being that the transferability of the findings of the study may be limited to the municipal environment only as the study was done at a public service organisation and all participants were public employees.

Also, from a measurement perspective, the study only focused on the three top performing municipalities. Other types of municipalities could also have been included.

In the next section the researcher will make recommendations for future research.

13.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

With regard to the measurement properties of the items measuring extrinsic motivation in the Motivation Measure questionnaire, as well as the items measuring sportsmanship in the Organisational Citizenship Behaviour Questionnaire, the reliability of these items was lower than expected in this study. Therefore, possible improvements to the measurement of both these dimensions should be further explored. Alternatively, other measuring instruments could also be considered.

In order to test the generalizability of the leadership competency – employee performance model, it is also recommended that the model should be applied to smaller and poorly performing municipalities in South Africa. This research may assist leaders in these municipalities to enhance employee empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, employee motivation and employee citizenship behaviour to improve employee performance. It is also suggested that a large-scale study with similar design elements might be replicated in the private service and municipalities in other countries. This will increase the benefit to additional testing of the research design and the outcomes.

Additionally, the findings of this study highlighted the possibility that political interference might play a prominent role in the administration of the municipality. Future studies are encouraged to include political interference as a construct in the model.

From this, the conclusion of the chapter is presented next.

13.7 CONCLUSION

This thesis comprised of 13 Chapters. The chapters were structured as follows:

Chapter 1 commenced with an introduction and background to the study and included the problem statement, aim and objectives of the study and the research questions.

Chapter 2 offered a conceptual and theoretical analysis of employee performance. Here, the researcher introduced the concept of employee performance and thereafter discussed some employee performance models. The researcher then discussed employee performance in the public service and presented challenges and solutions for public service employee performance.

Chapter 3 presented an evaluation of the literature which provided the theoretical basis for this research and included literature on (i) The leadership concept; (ii) An overview of leadership theories; (iii) Common denominators or elements in traditional leadership theories; (iv) Leadership styles; (v) Public leadership theories; (vi) Leadership competencies; and (vii) Leadership competency models.

Chapter 4 offered a contextual analysis of key issues affecting employee empowerment. It started with an introduction to the concept of empowerment and thereafter presented theories, models and approaches to empowerment. Following that, the researcher presented the outcomes and development of psychological empowerment. Hereafter, the researcher then discussed empowerment in the public service.

Chapter 5 comprised of a contextual analysis of key issues affecting employee workplace spirituality. The researcher firstly gave an overview of the concept of employee workplace spirituality. Next, the researcher discussed early theories of workplace spirituality and thereafter, recent theories of workplace spirituality. The outcomes and benefits of

workplace spirituality were presented and following that, workplace spirituality in the public service was discussed. The last section in this chapter was based on the enhancement of workplace spirituality.

Chapter 6 offered a conceptual and theoretical analysis of employee motivation. The literature review formed the foundation for analysis of the data feedback obtained through the study, and here the researcher presented the concept of employee motivation and discussed public service motivation. From there on, theories of motivation were discussed, highlighting the self-determination theory, and its suitability in the public service.

Chapter 7 provided an overview of the concept employee citizenship behaviour and thereafter presented a historical overview. This was followed by a discussion on the dimensions of employee citizenship behaviour and employee citizenship behaviour in the public service. The benefits of employee citizenship were discussed thereafter and lastly how to encourage employee citizenship behaviour in the public service.

In **Chapter 8** the conceptual research model was developed, based on the literature reviewed. Also, the hypothesis statements were outlined.

Chapter 9 described the research methodology and design used. Information on the research design and formulation of the research questionnaire were presented in detail. The basis for selecting the sample was explained, together with the methodology to collect, record, collate, analyse and present the data. Ethical aspects as well as limitations to the study were also addressed.

Chapter 10 provided a detailed write-up of the quantitative findings. This chapter described the demographic profile of the sample, as well as the other results from the research.

Chapter 11 contained a write-up on the qualitative findings.

Chapter 12

This chapter presented an overall discussion combining quantitative and qualitative findings as well as how it related to the research questions that prompted this study.

The final chapter (Chapter 13), presented the conclusions based on the literature review and conclusions regarding the empirical study. Hereafter, the researcher highlighted the theoretical and practical implications of the study. Strengths and limitations were presented next. Hereafter research-related recommendations were presented, followed by practical/managerial/policy recommendations.

In conclusion, results from this study confirmed that leadership competencies, employee psychological empowerment, employee workplace spirituality, employee motivation, and employee citizenship behaviour are significant variables that influence employee performance in the public service. And, this mixed method study also offered substantial evidence to support this assumption.

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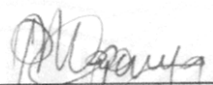
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ANNEXURES

i. Permission to conduct research – City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality

 CITY OF TSHWANE IGNITING EXCELLENCE	City Strategy and Organisational Performance Room CSP23 Ground Floor, West Wing, Block D Tshwane House 320 Madiba Street Pretoria 0002 PO Box 440 Pretoria 0001 Tel: 012 358 742 Email: NosiphoH@tshwane.gov.za www.tshwane.gov.za www.facebook.com/CityOfTshwane
My ref: Research Permission/ Smit Contact person: Pearl Maponya Section/Unit: Knowledge Management	Tel: 012 358 4559 Email: PearlMap3@tshwane.gov.za
Ms. Petra Smit 14th Floor Metropolitan Building 153 Loveday Str Braamfontein	Date: 26 September 2017
Dear Ms. Smit, RE: LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES, INDIVIDUAL-LEVEL VARIABLES AND EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE IN SOUTH AFRICAN METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITIES. Permission is hereby granted to Ms Petra Smit, a Doctor Philosophiae Degree candidate in Business Administration at University of Free State (UFS), to conduct research in the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality. It is noted that the research study aims to examine the relationships between leadership competencies, employee empowerment, workplace spirituality, employee motivation, and employee citizenship behaviour and the effect thereof on employee performance in the three top performing municipalities in South Africa (City of Tshwane inclusive). The City of Tshwane further notes that all ethical aspects of the research will be covered within the provisions of UFS Research Ethics Policy. You will be required to sign a confidentiality agreement form with the City of Tshwane prior to conducting research. Relevant information required for the purpose of the research project will be made available upon request. The City of Tshwane is not liable to cover the costs of the research. Upon completion of the research study, it would be appreciated that the findings in the form of a report and or presentation be shared with the City of Tshwane. Yours faithfully,  PEARL MAPONYA (Ms.) ACTING DIVISIONAL HEAD: RESEARCH AND INNOVATION DIVISION City Strategy and Organisational Performance • Stadstrategie en Organisasieprestasie • Lefapha la Thulaganyo ya Tiro le Togamaano ya Toropokgolo • UmNyango wezokuSebenza namaQhinga ahleliweko kaMasipala • Kgoro ya Leanopeakanyo la Toropokgolo le Bodiragatli bja Mmasipala • Mulaaho sea Vhupulani ha Dorobo khulwane na Mashumele • Ndzawulo ya Maqhinga ya Dorobakulu na Matirhele ya Masipala • Umnyango Wezeqhinga Ledolabha Nokusebenza Kweqhongo	

ii. Confidentiality agreement – City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality



City Strategy and Organisational Performance

Room CSP23 | Ground Floor, West Wing, Block D | Tshwane House | 320 Madiba Street | Pretoria | 0002
PO Box 440 | Pretoria | 0001
Tel: 012 358 7542
Email: NosiphoH@tshwane.gov.za | www.tshwane.gov.za | www.facebook.com/CityOfTshwane

My ref: Research Permission/ Smit
Contact person: Pearl Maponya
Section/Unit: Knowledge Management

Tel: 012 358 4559
Email: PearlMap3@tshwane.gov.za

CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENT BETWEEN THE RESEARCHER AND THE CITY OF TSHWANE MUNICIPALITY

(To be completed by researchers who require access to conduct research within the City of Tshwane Municipality)

Name of Researcher	Ms. Petra Smit
ID Number	630218 0005 088
Research Topic	Leadership Competencies, Individual-Level Variables and Employee Performance in South African Metropolitan Municipalities.

I, the undersigned, acknowledge, understand and agree to adhere to the following conditions of access.

(Insert details of dataset fields and other information to be accessed in course of research)

- I will maintain the privacy and confidentiality of all accessible research data and understand that unauthorized disclosure of personal/confidential data is an invasion of privacy and may result in disciplinary, civil, and/or criminal actions against me.
- I will not disclose data or information to anyone other than those to whom I am authorized to do so.
- I will access data only for the purposes for which I am authorized explicitly. On no occasion will I use research data, including personal or confidential information, for my personal interest or advantage, or for any other business purposes.
- I will comply at all times with the City of Tshwane's data/information security policies and confidentiality code of conduct.

iii. Permission to conduct research – City of Cape Town Metropolitan Municipality



CITY OF CAPE TOWN
ISIXEKO SASEKAPA
STAD KAAPSTAD

Date: 17 August 2017
TO: EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR: DIRECTORATE OF THE MAYOR
DOM:

Research Approval Request

In terms of the City of Cape Town System of Delegations (July 2017) - Part 29, No 2 Subsection 4, 5 and 6

"Research:

- (4) To consider any request for the commissioning of an organisational wide research report in the City and approve or refuse such a request
- (5) To grant authority to external parties that wish to conduct research within the City of Cape Town and publish the results thereof
- (6) To after consultation with the relevant Executive Director: grant permission to employees of the City of Cape Town to conduct research, surveys etc related to their studies, within the relevant directorate.

The Executive Director: Directorate of the Mayor is hereby requested, in terms of subsection 5, to consider the request received from

Name: Mrs Petra Smit
Designation: PhD candidate
Affiliation: University of Free State
Research Title: *Leadership competencies, individual-level variables and employee performance in South African metropolitan municipalities*

Taking into account the recommendations below (see Annexure for detailed review):

Recommendations

That the CCT Executive Director: Directorate of the Mayor grants permission to **Petra Smit (PhD candidate at the University of Free State)** to conduct research in the City of Cape Town subject to following conditions:

- That the CCT via the ED: Directorate of the Mayor grants permission to Petra Smit in her capacity as doctoral candidate at the University of Free State (UFS) Business School in the Faculty of Economic and Management Science to conduct research subject to the following conditions:
- All relevant Executive Directors be contacted and informed of the planned research, and to advise on recruitment of respondents for the qualitative research component (i.e. directors and managers);
- The Office of the City Manager is contacted and agreement obtained on participation in the study;
- Engagement with the Organisational Effectiveness and Innovation and Human Resource (HR) departments for assistance with identification of potential participants and disseminating the link to the online questionnaire (on EvaSys) to 376 CCT staff, in line with the sampling frame.
- The willingness and/or availability of individual staff members to participate in the research in a voluntary capacity;
- CCT management staff members agreeing to have their individual interviews or group discussion results used for the purposes of the doctoral research;
- Clear acknowledgement in the report that the views of the CCT staff are not regarded as official CCT policy;
- Submission of the completed research report to the Office of the Executive Director: Directorate of the Mayor and the Research Branch: Department of Organisational Policy and Planning, Directorate of the Mayor within 3 months of completion of the report and research; and
- Permission being obtained from the ED: Directorate of the Mayor to publish CCT insights to the study.

Approved ☒ Comment: _____

Not Approved ☐ Comment: _____


Craig Kesson – Executive Director: Directorate of the Mayor

CIVIC CENTRE IZIKO LEENKONZO ZOLUNTU BURGERSENTRUM
12 HERTZOG BOULEVARD CAPE TOWN 8001 PRIVATE BAG X9181 CAPE TOWN 8000
www.capetown.gov.za

C. Kesson Dir: OPA 17/08/2017
21/08/17
Date _____

iv. Permission to conduct research – City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality



a world class African city

City of Johannesburg
Department of Group Corporate & Shared Services: Human Capital Management
Office of the Deputy Director: Employee Relations and Development

6th Floor, B Block
Metropolitan Centre
158 Civic Boulevard
Braamfontein

PO Box 1049
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2000

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Fax +27(0) 11 339 1878
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Memorandum

TO : Petra Smit
(Student No: 2015214402))
University of Free State
Philosophia Doctoral in Business Administration

FROM : Enoch Mafuyeka
Deputy Director: Employee Relations and Development

DATE : 15 June 2017

SUBJECT : **RESPONSE ON THE REQUEST TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH
ON TOPIC: "LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES, INDIVIDUAL-
LEVEL VARIABLES AND EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE IN
SOUTH AFRICAN METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITIES."**

The above matter refers to the letter received on the 14 June 2017, in which a request was made to conduct a research in the City of Johannesburg.

The City of Johannesburg hereby grants permission to conduct the above-mentioned study, on the provision that proof of granting ethical clearance be provided prior to commencement of the study.

Please note that on completion of the study, a copy of the research report should be submitted to the City of Johannesburg in honour of your commitment.

The City of Johannesburg wishes you the best during the period of research.

Please do not hesitate to contact us if we can be of further assistance.

Kind Regards


Enoch Mafuyeka
Deputy Director: Employee Relations and Development
Tel: (011) 407-7250
Email: Enochm@joburg.org.za

15/06/2017

v. Quantitative research questionnaire

LETTER OF INVITATION TO MUNICIPAL OFFICIALS

Dear Sir/Madam

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY

I am a student at the University of the Free State currently studying towards my PhD. I am undertaking a research project with the title: Leadership competencies, individual-level variables and employee performance in South African metropolitan municipalities.

I kindly hereby invite you to participate in this research project.

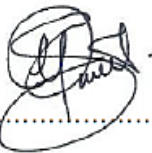
Participation is voluntary with the option of withdrawing at any stage of the process and no negative consequences linked to non-participation.

Your responses will be used for the purposes of the study only and I undertake to ensure that the information will be used in such a way that you cannot be identified. Therefore, the final report will not include identifying information.

You are not obliged to answer all the questions. If you feel uncomfortable answering any question, you need not answer it.

The findings will be used to demonstrate the role that leadership competencies plays in employee performance.

Yours truly



.....
Petra Smit

I hereby consent to participate in this study

YES

NO

QUESTIONNAIRE

SECTION A - Social and demographic data

Please tick or select **ONE** applicable option.

1. Gender

MALE

FEMALE

2. Age

BELOW 25

26-30

31-40

41-50

51-60

OVER 60

3. Marital status

SINGLE

MARRIED

DIVORCED

SEPARATED

4. Which department do you work in?

BILLING

CREDIT MANAGEMENT

FINANCE

CUSTOMER SERVICES

MANAGEMENT SUPPORT

OTHER (specify)

5. How many years have you worked for your current employer?

0-2

3-5

6-10

11-15

16-20

MORE THAN 20

6. My contract type is:

FIXED TERM

PERMANENT

SHORT TERM

OTHER (specify)

7. My employment grade or level in my current position is:

CLERICAL

JUNIOR TO
SENIOR
ADMINISTRATOR

OFFICER
TO JUNIOR
MANAGER

MIDDLE
MANAGER

SENIOR
MANAGER

TOP
MANAGEMENT

8. The highest qualification that I hold is:

HIGH
SCHOOL

CERTIFICATE

DIPLOMA

BACHELOR'S
DEGREE

MASTER'S
DEGREE

PHD

Please proceed to the next page.

SECTION B - Leadership Competencies

1	Immediate development is essential	Development is needed. Doubt if the person is capable of meeting expectations
2	Development is needed	Development is needed. Dedication and effort are necessary if the person is to be successful
3	Adequate but could improve	The performance of the person is acceptable, but there is room for improvement
4	Fully meets expectations	Development is not essential, although ongoing development is desirable
5	Superior to others	Superior to others in meeting expectations. Widely recognised throughout the organisation as superior to others

Please answer the questions 1 to 58 hereunder truthfully, based on the above scale:

NB: You are assessing your manager

He/she:

1.1	displays commitment towards company values	1	2	3	4	5
1.2	demonstrate the capacity to see the connections between different parts	1	2	3	4	5
1.3	successfully assists team members to adapt to a multicultural organisation	1	2	3	4	5
1.4	appropriately displays tolerance for mistakes	1	2	3	4	5
1.5	inspires trust in subordinates	1	2	3	4	5
1.6	adapts communication style to suit the requirements of the receiver	1	2	3	4	5
1.7	keeps up to date with new developments in the field of business	1	2	3	4	5
1.8	successfully creates an environment conducive to change	1	2	3	4	5
1.9	demonstrates an understanding of the ideas, views and feelings of others	1	2	3	4	5
1.10	successfully links performance objectives with the strategy of the company	1	2	3	4	5
1.11	effectively assists others to adapt to changing circumstances	1	2	3	4	5
1.12	takes responsibility for own development	1	2	3	4	5
1.13	successfully anticipates potential problems	1	2	3	4	5
1.14	applies business principles in performing duties	1	2	3	4	5
1.15	adheres to organisation standards of ethical behaviour	1	2	3	4	5
1.16	displays an openness for constructive criticism	1	2	3	4	5
1.17	gathers information about the future (e.g.) changing technology, future competition	1	2	3	4	5
1.18	understands how own tasks logically impact on other disciplines and functions	1	2	3	4	5
1.19	facilitates the formation of a network of cross-functional teams	1	2	3	4	5
1.20	encourages calculated risk-taking	1	2	3	4	5
1.21	responds positively to a changing environment	1	2	3	4	5
1.22	takes ownership of solving problems	1	2	3	4	5
1.23	easily adapts between different roles and situations	1	2	3	4	5
1.24	facilitates input from different teams to enhance customer service	1	2	3	4	5
1.25	is results - and action orientated	1	2	3	4	5
1.26	leads by example	1	2	3	4	5
1.27	facilitates regular analysis of alternative plans to meet objectives	1	2	3	4	5
1.28	fully understands the principles of business environment	1	2	3	4	5
1.29	fully understands the impact of diversity on business	1	2	3	4	5
1.30	accepts accountability for own behaviour	1	2	3	4	5
1.31	efficiently practices two-way communication	1	2	3	4	5
1.32	gathers information on the current operations of the company	1	2	3	4	5
1.33	treats others with respect and dignity	1	2	3	4	5
1.34	forms integrated solutions that will solve more than one existing problem	1	2	3	4	5

1.35	integrates initiatives across functional teams	1	2	3	4	5
1.36	creates opportunities for people to think from different perspectives	1	2	3	4	5
1.37	establishes systems for the gathering of important information	1	2	3	4	5
1.38	effectively integrates different kinds of information	1	2	3	4	5
1.39	facilitates interaction between teams for the formation of new ideas	1	2	3	4	5
1.40	develops possible future scenarios	1	2	3	4	5
1.41	provides people with relevant and updated information	1	2	3	4	5
1.42	clarifies the role and function of all team members	1	2	3	4	5
1.43	ensures that the company vision and values are owned by the team	1	2	3	4	5
1.44	provides opportunities for personal development of employees	1	2	3	4	5
1.45	develops mechanisms for team members to measure performance continuously	1	2	3	4	5
1.46	utilises reward systems in motivating team members	1	2	3	4	5
1.47	removes performance barriers and constraints	1	2	3	4	5
1.48	creates an environment where team members are motivated to perform	1	2	3	4	5
1.49	takes ownership of efficient communication to team members	1	2	3	4	5
1.50	successfully influences others in accepting the team purpose	1	2	3	4	5
1.51	stimulates a desire within team members to succeed	1	2	3	4	5
1.52	utilises the performance management system to enhance the performance of subordinates	1	2	3	4	5
1.53	clearly explains the role of the team in reaching company goals	1	2	3	4	5
1.54	promotes self-confidence of team members	1	2	3	4	5
1.55	effectively provides continuous on-the-job coaching	1	2	3	4	5
1.56	takes effective action to determine the purpose of the team	1	2	3	4	5
1.57	implements appropriate employee development actions	1	2	3	4	5
1.58	enables the team to schedule own work	1	2	3	4	5

SECTION C – Employee Empowerment

1	Very strongly disagree
2	Strongly disagree
3	Disagree
4	Neutral
5	Agree
6	Strongly Agree
7	Very strongly agree

Based on the above scale, kindly answer all the questions hereunder:

2.1	I am confident about my ability to do my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.2	The work that I do is important to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.3	I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.4	My impact on what happens in my department is large	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.5	My job activities are personally meaningful to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.6	I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.7	I can decide on my own how to go about doing my own work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.8	I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.9	I have mastered the skills necessary for my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.10	The work I do is meaningful to me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2.11	I have significant influence over what happens in my department	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.12	I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION D – Employee Workplace Spirituality

1	Very strongly disagree
2	Strongly disagree
3	Disagree
4	Neutral
5	Agree
6	Strongly Agree
7	Very strongly agree

Based on the above scale, kindly answer all the questions hereunder:

3.1	Meaningful work							
3.1.1	I experience joy in work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.1.2	My spirit is energized by work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.1.3	My work is connected to what I think is important in life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.1.4	I look forward to coming to work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.1.5	I see a connection between work and social good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.1.6	I understand what gives my work personal meaning	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.2	Sense of community							
3.2.1	Working cooperatively with others is valued	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.2.2	I feel part of a community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.2.3	I believe people support each other	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.2.4	I feel free to express opinions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.2.5	I think employees are linked with a common purpose	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.2.6	I believe employees genuinely care about each other	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.2.7	I feel there is a sense of being part of a family	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.3	Alignment of values							
3.3.1	I feel positive about the values of the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.3.2	My Organisation is concerned about the poor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.3.3	My Organisation cares about all its employees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.3.4	My Organisation has a conscience	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.3.5	I feel connected with the organisation's goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.3.6	My Organisation is concerned about health of employees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.3.7	I feel connected with the mission of the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.3.8	My Organisation cares about whether my spirit is energized	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.4	Organisational commitment							
3.4.1	I am proud to tell others I'm part of the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.4.2	My organisation inspires the very best in me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.4.3	I am glad I chose this organisation to work for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3.4.4	I talk about this organisation to my friends	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.4.5	I would accept almost any job assignment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.4.6	I really care about the fate of the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.5	Intention to quit							
3.5.1	I will probably look for a new job next year	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.5.2	I scan sources for prospective jobs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.5.3	I frequently think of quitting my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.6	Intrinsic work satisfaction							
3.6.1	I have opportunities for advancement in this job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.6.2	I am satisfied with chances for advancement	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.6.3	I am satisfied with career opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.6.4	I am satisfied with nature of work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.7	Job involvement							
3.7.1	I am very much personally involved in my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.7.2	I consider my job essential to my existence	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.7.3	I like to be absorbed in my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.7.4	I live, eat and breathe my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

SECTION E – Employee Motivation

1	Strongly disagree
2	Disagree
3	Agree
4	Strongly Agree

Kindly answer the questions hereunder based on the above scale:

Why are you motivated to do your work? Because.....

4.1	work is fun	1	2	3	4
4.2	I would feel ashamed if I did poorly	1	2	3	4
4.3	I was requested to do the work	1	2	3	4
4.4	my work is a big part of who I am	1	2	3	4
4.5	I believe my work is valuable	1	2	3	4
4.6	I find the work interesting	1	2	3	4
4.7	I would feel guilty if i did not do well	1	2	3	4
4.8	I get paid to do so	1	2	3	4
4.9	my work and personal goals are integrated	1	2	3	4
4.10	I value my work	1	2	3	4
4.11	I find the work engaging	1	2	3	4
4.12	I would feel bad about myself if I did not perform well	1	2	3	4
4.13	the situation demands it	1	2	3	4
4.14	my work helps to define me	1	2	3	4
4.15	my work is important	1	2	3	4

SECTION F – Employee Citizenship Behaviour

1	Very strongly disagree
2	Strongly disagree
3	Disagree
4	Neutral
5	Agree
6	Strongly Agree
7	Very strongly agree

Based on the table above, please answer the questions hereunder:

5.1	Altruism								
5.1.1	I help others who have heavy workloads	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5.1.2	I willingly help newcomers to get oriented towards their job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5.1.3	I am always ready to lend a helping hand to those around me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5.2	Courtesy								
5.2.1	I always try to avoid creating problems for co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5.2.2	I am mindful of how my behaviour affects other people's jobs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5.2.3	I don't abuse the rights of others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5.3	Civic Virtue								
5.3.1	I always keep myself abreast of changes in the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5.3.2	I keep myself updated with organisational announcements & memos	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5.3.3	I attend meetings that aren't compulsory but help my department anyway	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5.4	Sportsmanship								
5.4.1	I always require frequent doses of motivation to get the work done	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5.4.2	I usually find fault with what my organization is doing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5.4.3	I usually focus on what is wrong rather than positive in a situation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5.5	Conscientiousness								
5.5.1	I obey organisational rules even when no one is watching	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5.5.2	I don't take extra or long breaks while on duty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
5.5.3	My attendance at work is above the norm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

SECTION G – Employee Performance

1	Strongly disagree
2	Disagree
3	Neutral
4	Agree
5	Strongly agree

Please answer the questions hereunder based on the table above:

6.1	Task Performance								
6.1.1	I maintain high standard of work	1	2	3	4	5			
6.1.2	I am capable of handling my assignments without much supervision	1	2	3	4	5			
6.1.3	I am very passionate about my work	1	2	3	4	5			
6.1.4	I know I can handle multiple assignments for achieving organisational goals	1	2	3	4	5			
6.1.5	I complete my assignments on time	1	2	3	4	5			
6.1.6	My colleagues believe I am a high performer in my organisation	1	2	3	4	5			
6.2	Adaptive performance								
6.2.1	I perform well to mobilize collective intelligence for effective team work	1	2	3	4	5			
6.2.2	I manage change in my job very well whenever the situation demands	1	2	3	4	5			
6.2.3	I handle my work team effectively in the face of change	1	2	3	4	5			
6.2.4	I always believe that mutual understanding can lead to a viable solution in organisation	1	2	3	4	5			
6.2.5	I lose my temper when faced with criticism from my team member/s	1	2	3	4	5			
6.2.6	I am very comfortable with job flexibility	1	2	3	4	5			
6.2.7	I cope well with organisational changes from time to time	1	2	3	4	5			

6.3	Contextual Performance					
6.3.1	I extend help to my co-workers when asked or needed	1	2	3	4	5
6.3.2	I love to handle extra responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5
6.3.3	I extend my sympathy and empathy to my co-workers when they are in trouble	1	2	3	4	5
6.3.4	I actively participate in group discussions and work meetings	1	2	3	4	5
6.3.5	I praise my co-workers for their good work	1	2	3	4	5
6.3.6	I derive a lot of satisfaction nurturing others in the organisation	1	2	3	4	5
6.3.7	I share knowledge and ideas among my team members	1	2	3	4	5
6.3.8	I maintain good coordination among fellow workers	1	2	3	4	5
6.3.9	I guide new colleagues beyond my job scope and responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5
6.3.10	I communicate effectively with my colleagues for problem-solving and decision-making	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you very much for your contribution to this research!

vi. Qualitative participant consent form

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FREISTATA



RESEARCH STUDY

INFORMATION AND CONCENT FORM

13 JULY 2017

LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES, INDIVIDUAL-LEVEL VARIABLES AND EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE IN
SOUTH AFRICAN METROPOLITAN MUNICIPALITIES

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Faculty:

Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences

Study Leader:

Professor Tina Kotzé

Contact Number:

051 401 7304

Research help us to gain knowledge about the way in which things and people work. It helps us to gather information to find better ways in order to improve how we work.

I am Petra Smit, employed at the City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality as a Deputy Director in the Group Corporate and Shared Services, Finance Department. I have more than 15 years' experience in the Municipal environment and has vast knowledge in the value chain of the municipality.

The aim of my research is to identify factors that influence employee performance in three municipalities in South Africa.

You have been selected to participate in this research as you are employed at the City of Johannesburg/Cape Town/Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality and can add value to this study. Your knowledge and expertise may assist the Municipality to enhance employee performance in line with the goals and objectives of the Municipality.

Your participation is voluntary and that there is no penalty or loss of benefit for non-participation. Being part of this study is voluntary and you are under no obligation to consent to participation. If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a written consent form. You are free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason, but please note that it will not be possible to withdraw once you have been interviewed.

Your input will assist to identifying factors and elements that may improve employee performance, impact positively on customer service delivery and satisfaction.

Interviews may result in you feeling uncomfortable as you may acknowledge certain gaps or shortcomings which you were not aware off. These interviews/meetings will be approximately scheduled for an hour, but follow-up meetings may be scheduled.

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While every effort will be made by me to ensure that you will not be connected to the information that you share during the interviews, I cannot guarantee that other participants in the meeting will treat information confidentially. I shall, however, encourage all participants to do so. For this reason, I advise you not to disclose personally sensitive information in the focus group. You may refuse to take part in this study.

Your answers will be given a fictitious code number and you will be referred to in this way in the data, any publications, or other research reporting methods such as conference proceedings. I, the Municipalities, my supervisors and transcriber/external coder will have access to the data.

Confidentiality agreements will be signed by all the relevant parties, including members of the Research Ethics Committee.

Otherwise, records that may identify you will be available only to people working on the study, unless you give permission for other people to see the records. Anonymous data may be used for other purposes like research reports, journal articles, conference presentations, etc. but your privacy will be protected in any publication. A report of the study may be submitted for publication, but individual participants will not be identifiable in such a report.

Hard copies of your answers will be stored by me for a period of five years in a locked cupboard/filing cabinet at the City of Johannesburg Metropolitan Municipality for future research or academic purposes.

Electronic information will be stored on a password protected computer.

Future use of the stored data will be subject to further Research Ethics Review and approval if applicable. Once the five year period has lapsed, electronic information will be deleted and hard copies shredded. You will not be affected in any way by these processes.

Due to the nature of this study I do not foresee any harm that may come to you should you be identified as a participant in this study.

You will not receive any payment for participating in this study.

If you would like to be informed of the final research findings, please contact Petra Smit on petras@joburg.org.za.

The findings are accessible for six months as from December 2018.

Should you require any further information or want to contact the researcher about any aspect of this study, please contact me on petras@joburg.org.za.

Should you have concerns about the way in which the research has been conducted, you may contact Professor Tina Kotzé on kotzem@ufs.ac.za.

Thank you for taking the time to read this information sheet and for participating in this study.

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY

I, ... (participant name), confirm that the person asking my consent to take part in this research has told me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation.

I have read (or had explained to me) and understood the study as explained in the information sheet. I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and am prepared to participate in the study. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time. I am aware that the findings of this study will be anonymously processed into a research report, journal publications and/or conference proceedings.

Y	N

 I agree to the recording of the qualitative data collection by means of interview/meeting.

Y	N

 I have received a signed copy of the informed consent agreement.

Full Name of Participant:

Signature of Participant: Date:

Full Name(s) of Researcher: Petronella Frederika Smit

Signature of Researcher: Date:

vii. Qualitative research questionnaire

QUALITATIVE QUESTIONNAIRE

1. According to the empirical results of this study, leadership competencies do not directly influence employee performance. This was unexpected. Why do you think the competencies of the leaders in the municipality do not have a significant influence on employees' performance?
2. Although leadership competencies do not have a direct influence on employee performance, the empirical results of the study show that there are other variables that seem to influence the leadership competency – employee performance relationship. Let's discuss these other paths:
 - 2.1 The results of the study showed that employee empowerment has a statistically significant positive influence on employees' motivation and workplace spirituality. In other words, those employees' who feel more empowered, are more motivated and experience their work to be more meaningful. Therefore, the empowerment of employees seems to be very important. The results also show that leadership competencies have a statistically significant influence on employee empowerment, meaning that leaders in the municipality play an essential role in the empowerment of employees. In the light of this, according to you, what factors in the municipality work against employee empowerment and how can leaders empower employees in the municipality?
 - 2.2 The results also showed that employees' workplace spirituality, in other words, the meaning and sense of community that they experience in their work (feeling part of a team), and the alignment of their values to those of the organisation, has a statistically significant influence on their motivation. The results further showed that leaders can influence employees' workplace spirituality positively and increase their levels of meaningfulness, sense of community and value-alignment. What do you think work against the enhancement of employee workplace spirituality in the municipality and what do you think leaders can do to increase workplace spirituality in the municipal environment?

2.3 The results of the study also show that employees' motivation influenced their citizenship behaviour (their willingness to go beyond their usual line of duties, or beyond what is expected of them/to walk an extra mile). Subsequently, their level of citizenship behaviour had a direct statistically significant influence on their performance. In light of the above, what can leaders in the municipality do to:

2.3.1 increase employees' motivation?

2.3.2 get employees to go the extra mile?

3. What factors, additional to these, do you believe have an important influence on employees' performance in the municipality? How can you enhance, improve, or encourage this?