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UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

FACULTY OF BUSINESS AND LAW

Management School

The Impact of Leadership and a Series of Organisational Factors on Employee Performance – *A Survey of Organisations in Ghana*

by

Bernard Franklin Bempong

Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

September 2014

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

ABSTRACT

FACULTY OF BUSINESS AND LAW

Management School

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THE IMPACT OF LEADERSHIP AND A SERIES OF ORGANISATIONAL FACTORS ON EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE – *A SURVEY OF ORGANISATIONS IN GHANA*

Bernard Franklin Bempong

Within global competitive markets, some developing economies (e.g. Ghana) lag behind those of developed countries (e.g. the UK), resulting in a widening economic gap. The growing disparity between the developed and the developing economies has caused great concern among political leaders, organisational leaders, management researchers, and other world bodies such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund. Such disparity raises the question as to what factors account for the differences in performance between developing and developed economies. How do firms and organisations in developed economies obtain higher levels of performance than firms and organisations in developing economies? Research indicates that factors such as transformational leadership, organisational culture, organisational climate, organisational commitment, and national culture can influence performance in the western economies. However, such evidence does not exist in the developing economies like Ghana.

This thesis therefore explores whether these western concepts similarly apply in the developing economies like Ghana. Five hundred and eighteen (518) employees were sampled from fourteen (14) organisations in Ghana in a cross-sectional survey. Multi-varied analysis of the data revealed significant relationships amongst the research variables: Significant differences across research variables also exist between organisations from the different sectors. Analyses through structural equation modelling indicated that transformational

leadership (stimulating leadership, and supportive leadership), organisational commitment, organisational climate, and organisational culture (innovative culture, tranquil culture, and bureaucratic culture) adequately explained the variance in employee performance. It was concluded that factors that affect employees in the western economies also apply, with some variation, in the developing economies like Ghana. Suggestions and recommendations were made for future research.

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DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I, BERNARD FRANKLIN BEMPONG declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

"The Impact of Leadership and a Series of Organisational Factors on Employee Performance – *A Survey of Organisations in Ghana*"

I confirm that:

1. This work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University;
2. Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated;
3. Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed;
4. Where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work;
5. I have acknowledged all main sources of help;
6. Where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself;
7. None of this work has been published before submission

Signed:.....

Date:.....

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Definitions and Abbreviations

Definitions:

First-line Management – Refers to those directly supervising employees in the basic functions of the organisation, whether manufacturing or provision of services.

Middle Management – Refers to those who interpret, translate and operationalise policies. They oversee and coordinate the functions of the first-line managers or supervisors.

Multinational Organisations – Organisations which are most often funded from sources external to the economy, and which may operate in several countries, and in some cases may operate across several continents. These are giant organisations that operate mainly for profit. The only exception is when the organisation is a charitable organisation.

Private Organisations – Organisations that are funded by private individuals or groups of individuals (e.g. friends, family, social groups). Such organisations largely operate for profit.

Public Organisations – Organisations that are publicly funded through the floating of shares to the general public. These are limited liability organisations which operate mainly for profit.

Staff – This refers to all employees who have no managerial functions. They take direct instructions from supervisors in the production of goods and services.

State Organisations – Organisations that are fully funded from state coffers or government funds. They may not necessarily operate for profit. Such organisations primarily exist to provide essential services.

Top Management – They are the policy makers. They take strategic decisions and determine the strategic direction of the organisation.

Abbreviations

AMOS– Analysis of Moment Structures

APDF– African Project Development Foundation

Burucultz– Bureaucratic Culture

CFA– Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Climatez– Organisational Climate

CMV– Common Method Variance

Commitmentz– Organisational Commitment

EFA– Exploratory Factor Analysis

Emperformance– Employee Performance

GDP– Gross Domestic Product

HRM– Human Resource Management/Manager

IBM– International Business Machines Corporation

Innocultz– Innovative Culture

MDG1B– Millennium development goals 1B

NGOs– Non-governmental organisations

NHS– National Health Service

OCB– Organisational Citizenship Behaviour

QMP– Quality management practices

Rwg – Within-group reliability index

SEM– Structural equation modelling

SMEs – Small- and medium-size enterprises

SPSS– Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

Stimuleadship– Stimulating Leadership

Suporleadship– Supportive Leadership

Tranquilcultz– Tranquil Culture

UK– United Kingdom

US– United States of America

Chapter 1: General Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Leadership is a concept which has numerous applications. It is used in Social, Political, Religious, and Economic circles. In this study Leadership is explored under the Economic domain, within the context of work organisations.

Within global competitive markets, some developing economies (e.g. Ghana) lag behind those of developed countries (e.g. the UK), resulting in a widening economic gap. For example, the World Resources Institute report of 2007 indicated that the GDP for Ghana for the last quarter of the twentieth century (1975-2000) rose from about 4,000 million US dollars to only 7,978 million US dollars, a per capita of just 413 US dollars (World Resources Institute, 2007). Conversely, for the same period (1975-2000), the GDP of the United Kingdom (UK) rose from about 200,000 million US dollars to 1,294,359 million US dollars with a per capita income rising from 15,000 to 23,000 US dollars. This poor state of affairs is even more startling when one considers the fact that most developing economies are endowed with rich natural resources. For example Ghana is endowed with huge amounts of bauxite, diamond, manganese and gold (in fact there is so much gold that Ghana used to be called the Gold Coast!). Ghana also has expansive forests that give her timber for internal use as well as exportation. Additionally, Ghana has expansive arable lands and is a leading exporter of cocoa, and also exports a lot of other cash crops. Recently Ghana has also struck huge oil reserves! With so much going in favour for developing countries like Ghana, the issue of non-performance raises the critical question as to what the real missing link is. What factors account for the differences in performance between developing and developed economies? How do firms and organisations in developed economies obtain higher levels of performance than firms and organisations in developing economies? What are the organisational factors that influence the effectiveness of leadership, and how does that impact on employee performance in organisations in Ghana?

1.2 Purpose of the Study

This study explores the impact of leadership on employee performance in organisations in Ghana. This exploration is undertaken within the context of the internal and external factors that influence employee performance. The internal factors that mediate between leadership and employee performance that are explored alongside with leadership are organisational commitment, organisational culture and organisational climate. The external factor that may moderate leadership's impact on employee performance is national culture. Therefore for this study, the independent variables are *leadership, organisational commitment, organisational culture, national culture* and *organisational climate.* The dependent variable is *employee performance*. Basically, this study replicates western studies that have examined the relationships between these organisational variables (Panagopoulos and Dimitriadis, 2009; van Woerkom and de Reuver, 2009; Neufeld *et al.*, 2010). Data are gathered through surveys.

1.3 Justification for the Study

This study is relevant within the context of the dynamic and uncertain work environment of organisations which underscores the importance of effective leadership: Organisations have to contend with challenges arising from changes in the economy, global competition, mergers and acquisitions, and changes in the stock markets. Such unpredictable changes bring about increasing uncertainties, which calls for effective leaders who can lead the organisation out of these uncertainties (Lim and Ployhart, 2004).

An insight into leadership factors which influence performance in developed economies may benefit developing economies that are grappling with underperformance: such knowledge should equip developing economies with the skills needed to increase their employee performance. The need to step up the level of performance of organisations in developing economies like Ghana is not just to succeed like the developed economies, but it is also critical for their survival within the globalised economy. While most studies have demonstrated that leadership, organisational commitment, national culture, organisational culture and organisational climate are some of the main organisational factors that influence employee performance in western economies, (Pritchard and

Karasick, 1973; Schneider, 1975; Mowday *et al.*, 1982; Gregson, 1992; James *et al.*, 1992; Hofstede, 2001; Higgs, 2003; Rashid *et al.*, 2003; Smith-Crowe *et al.*, 2003; House *et al.*, 2004; Powell and Meyer, 2004; Elele and Fields, 2010; Huang *et al.*, 2010; Liu *et al.*, 2010; O'Reilly *et al.*, 2010), little is known about how these same factors influence employee performance in an African context – like Ghana. In essence most research has been conducted in the western developed countries whose contextual factors such as technology, financial, culture, and organisational practices are different from that of developing economies like Ghana. Therefore the results of these western studies generally may not necessarily apply in a country like Ghana as indicated in the literature (Denison, 1990; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Asree *et al.*, 2010) This study therefore questions whether organisational variables that have been found to positively impact on performance in the developed economies similarly influence employee performance in developing economies like Ghana.

1.4 Study Background

For the past decade, Ghana has been seen to be a role model of development in Africa with a reputation for successful democratisation of the political system, recognition of political rights and civil liberties. In terms of economic policies, since 1983, the country has moved away from state control of productive capacity which was introduced after independence in 1957 to economic policies that are more in line with open economic system – with a reduced role of the State (Biggs and Srivastava, 1996; Fening *et al.*, 2008; Sparreboom and Albee, 2011). The results of all these have been the growth of small- and medium-scale enterprises (SME) owned by both the indigenous and foreigner entrepreneurs in the country (Biggs and Srivastava, 1996; African Economic Outlook, 2004/2005; Fening *et al.*, 2008).

In spite of these efforts, evidence has shown that important challenges have remained, which are endangering the earlier gains of low employment and high income generation. Moreover, Ghana's strive towards achieving the full and productive employment as reflected in the MDG1B indicators has been hampered (Biggs and Srivastava, 1996; Sparreboom and Albee, 2011). For example, available data on labour productivity in the manufacturing sector demonstrate that productivity in Ghanaian firms is lower than that of firms in most African

nations, and certainly lower than the productivity of firms in developed economies (Biggs and Srivastava, 1996; Gyan-Baffour and Betsey, 2001). As a result of this, the business organisational sector's contribution in Ghana has fallen short of its potential and a number of Ghanaian firms find it difficult to operate, manage and improve their businesses efficiently, making it hard for them to remain competitive in the current global market.

While others might attribute such predicaments facing business organisations in the country to, for example, managers' and or owners' inability to access credit (Adegbite, 1997; Tagoe *et al.*, 2005), it is generally ascribed to the lack of effective leadership and quality organisational practices, and the correspondent low employee performance in business operations (Jennings and Beaver, 1997; Owusu, 2006; Fening *et al.*, 2008). According to Beaver (2002), p.175, "*…the overall lack of strategic management skills and abilities has been the underlying problem*". In consequence, the importance of leadership cannot be overemphasised.

Leadership, which harnesses the human component in organisations, is crucial for improved or increased performance (Maslach and Leiter, 1997; Arvonen, 2002; Juran, 2003; Arnetz, 2005). Other authors similarly stress the importance of leadership for any organisation (Barrick *et al.*, 1991; Koene *et al.*, 2002; Bass *et al.*, 2003; Bertrand and Schoar, 2003; Judge and Piccolo, 2004). Organisations are required to meet their production or sales targets. They are also required to ensure that the quality of their products and services meets the sophisticated tastes and expectations of the ever insatiable demands of modern-day consumers. With such high demands of the current globalised economy on organisations, these organisations have to adopt continuous improvement practices (Ishikawa and Lu, 1985; Juran, 2003; Mannion, 2009). For organisations to be able to respond appropriately to these demands of the globalised economy, they need to have effective leaders (Maslach and Leiter, 1997; Waldman and Yammarino, 1999; Arvonen, 2002; Juran, 2003; Arnetz, 2005). Some authors therefore argue that leadership must be viewed in the light of the dynamic and complex business environments (Kotter, 1996; Collingwood, 2001; Higgs and Rowland, 2001; Hogan and Hogan, 2001; Higgs, 2003). Buckley *et al.* (2006) also argue that leadership effectiveness should be seen in terms of the extent to which leadership is able to establish a good match between the environment and the organisation to ensure the survival of the organisation. By implication, an effective leader is the one who can influence followers to bring about necessary

organisational changes in response to the changing business environment (Bass, 1985; Waldman and Yammarino, 1999).

The importance of leadership is further heightened by the assertion that the measure of effectiveness is shifting from organisational success to how leaders impact on their followers and on the building of capacity (Higgs and Rowland, 2001). Effective leadership therefore needs to be able to influence followers towards the attainment of organisational goals. Even though it could be argued that leadership per se cannot totally account for organisational success (Pfeffer, 1977; Hannan and Freeman, 1993; Pfeffer, 1995), particularly within the context of some uncontrollable factors external to the organisation; nonetheless, leadership still remains an important variable that contributes to organisational success (Maslach and Leiter, 1997; Arvonen, 2002; Juran, 2003; Arnetz, 2005).

It is evident that although other factors (both internal and external) of organisations affect their effectiveness, the influence of effective leadership is still deemed to have substantial positive influence on followers which invariably affect employee performance (Doig and Hargrove, 1987; Wolf, 1993; Hale, 1996; Higgs and Rowland, 2001; Meier and O'Toole, 2002). In other words effective leadership is argued to have a positive impact on followers' performance. The focus of numerous studies has been to assess the various means by which leadership is able to impact on followers' performance (Sosik and Godshalk, 2000; Avolio *et al.*, 2009; Lyons and Schneider, 2009; Huang *et al.*, 2010; Neufeld *et al.*, 2010; Panagopoulos and Avlonitis, 2010; Susita *et al.*, 2010). The underpinning assumption of these studies is that by such activities, leadership influences employee performance. Boards of Directors and stakeholders of organisations are interested in how leaders use the resources at their disposal (including their followers) to obtain results. Additionally, the increased popularity of leadership development courses and programmes in recent times, ultimately underscore the perception of effective leadership as a means of competitive advantage (Edwards *et al.*, 2013). Similarly, in Ghana there is an upsurge of the number of people enrolling for MBA programmes particularly the working class who have been patronising the Executive MBA programmes both locally and internationally.

Extant literature argues that organisational success may be enhanced through leaders' ability to motivate followers (Lyons and Schneider, 2009; Huang *et al.*, 2010), empower followers (Bartram and Casimir, 2007; Avey *et al.*, 2008; Huang *et al.*, 2010), stimulate followers' commitment (Jermier and Berkes, 1979; Angle

and Perry, 1981; DeCotiis and Summers, 1987; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Lok and Crawford, 2001), stimulate trust (Jung and Avolio, 2000; Bartram and Casimir, 2007; Liu *et al*., 2010), facilitate increased Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) (Huang *et al*., 2010), and facilitate follower well-being (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1995; Bartram and Casimir, 2007; Alimo-Metcalfe *et al*., 2008; Nielsen and Munir, 2009; Liu *et al*., 2010). Effective leadership must have the ability to influence, motivate and enable followers to effectively impact on the success of the organisation (Bass, 1985; Maslach and Leiter, 1997; Waldman and Yammarino, 1999; Arvonen, 2002; Juran, 2003; Arnetz, 2005). This success can be attained if leaders are able to ensure a congenial work environment for followers (House *et al*., 2001; House *et al*., 2002).

The implication here is that the ability of Ghanaian, and for that matter, African business organisations to compete in the global market-place is dependent on effective leadership that facilitates quality organisational practices (Oluseyi and Hammed, 2009). However, while numerous studies have been conducted in many parts of the world, particularly in the developed countries like the UK, little is known about how leadership can influence organisational variables to enhance employee performance in an African context. With the situation in Ghana, for example, so different from that of the developed countries, like the UK, it is interesting to examine how the study's results obtained on the relationship between effective leadership, organisational variables and employee performance compare with results obtained in the western economies. In essence, the current study examines how concepts from the western developed economies can be applied to the Ghanaian context (Hofstede, 2001; House *et al*., 2004; Powell and Meyer, 2004; Liu *et al*., 2010). Thus the questions that need to be answered could include: how does leadership and other organisational variables influence employee performance in the African context? Secondly, to what extent do leadership and other organisational variables enhance employees' performance? It is on the basis of these questions and the desire to find answers to them that this research was conducted.

1.5 Significance of the Study

Following an extensive literature review, and as far as the author is aware, this may be the first comprehensive research designed to explore the relationships

between several organisational variables (with particular emphasis on the effect of these organisational factors) on employee performance in organisations in Ghana. This research therefore has both practical and theoretical significance:

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, Organisational/Quality Management Practices (QMP) is an area of research that is lacking in Ghana and as such this research sheds more light on the topic. Secondly, it also offers a source of reference to both business managers and policy makers for their future strategy to improve the performance of their employees in Ghana. Thirdly, in terms of policy, findings from this research could draw the attention of the Ghanaian government who may consider the need of assisting SMEs in the practice of quality management. Again, it will give a policy direction to NGOs, foreign agencies like the Africa Project Development Foundation (APDF) and other International Development agencies that are committed to helping the developing countries like Ghana to address the problems of unemployment and low economic growth as well as poverty alleviation. Finally, this study can potentially help open avenues for opportunities in business growth since the knowledge in the implementation of quality organisational practices will help businesses to stay competitive in the market.

Theoretically, the study contributes to the literature by presenting evidence from an often-neglected part of the world in the context of management research. This research provides new data to test western theories and assumptions found in Organisational Behaviour and HRM studies about leadership and employee performance in Ghana. In particular, this study provides empirical evidence that challenge the assumptions surrounding the presumed universality of transformational leadership as it is presently constituted. Similarly, the study provides empirical evidence that suggests that all the components of organisational culture may not apply globally. Generally, these western concepts can also be applied in the developing country studied, but with some variations.

1.6 Organisation of Study

This thesis comprises six chapters. The sequence and structure of these chapters are as follows:

Chapter 1: General Introduction

Chapter One: Introduction:

Chapter One presents general theoretical and statistical background about employee performance. Discussion of the aims of this study, background of study, and elaboration of the research questions follow. In addition, this chapter explains the purpose of the study, reasons for the study, and its significance.

Chapter Two: Literature Review:

Chapter Two presents the theoretical background to major organisational terms: leadership, organisational commitment, national culture, organisational culture, leadership and organisational climate used in this study and their relations with employee performance.

Chapter Three: Research Methodology:

Chapter Three describes the techniques used in conducting the present study; it also addresses the research approach, strategy, sampling method, target population and the data collection methods, reliability and validity. Ethical issues are discussed in this chapter.

Chapter Four: Quantitative Results:

Chapter Four presents the findings from the analysis of the quantitative data collected using the study instruments. It includes a summary of the descriptive statistics and relationships between the independent variables and the dependent variable, multivariate analysis, and structural equation modelling analysis.

Chapter Five: Discussion:

Chapter Five investigates the results of the study's findings and compares and contrasts them to previous scientific research in the literature, to clarify the significance of the findings.

Chapter Six: Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations:

Chapter Six discusses the overall findings of the study, including the implications for the target groups and directions for further research. It offers recommendations arising from the findings, reports on the limitations of the study, indicates areas for future research and offers the final conclusion.

In view of the apparent importance of leadership in terms of the performance of organisations (Barrick *et al.*, 1991; Koene *et al.*, 2002; Bass *et al.*, 2003; Bertrand

and Schoar, 2003; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Judge *et al.*, 2004; O'Reilly *et al.*, 2010), there is the need not only to have a correct understanding of the concept of leadership, but also to investigate how leadership influences performance. The next chapter begins to look at the various conceptualisations of leadership over the years.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to review extant literature on the various variables to provide research direction.

Section 2.2 examines the dimensions of performance.

Section 2.3 discusses the theoretical and conceptual framework of the various leadership theories.

Section 2.4 critically evaluates the literature on leadership and performance.

Section 2.5 focuses on organisational commitment.

Section 2.6 examines the influence of national culture on performance.

Section 2.7 discusses organisational culture.

Section 2.8 explains the importance of organisational climate.

Section 2.9 poses the research questions, and

Section 2.10 presents the research hypotheses.

2.2 Dimensions of Performance

Every organisation exists to provide a product or products, whether tangible (goods) or intangible (services). Additionally, organisations are set up to achieve certain objectives or targets, whether financial or non-financial. All the efforts and activities undertaken by organisations in a bid to achieve their set targets are encapsulated in the concept of performance (Georgopoulos and Tannenbaum, 1957; Hassard and Parker, 1993). The current concept of performance embodies four different levels; namely, individual employees (performance appraisal), the team or small group (team performance), the programme (programme/work unit/business unit performance), and the organisation (organisational performance) (Hassard and Parker, 1993). The concept of organisational performance is the combined results of individual, team, and programme/work unit/business performance (Hassard and Parker). They argue that the concept and

a measurement of organisational performance should involve the perceptions of the organisation's multiple constituencies or stakeholders, including those who work within the organisation. Consequently, how well an organisation does is measured in terms of how well it achieves its reasons for existence. Organisations may have short-term, mid-term and long-term performance measures. What these short-term, mid-term or long-term measures are may vary from organisation to organisation. For example, an organisation may have its short-term performance measure annually, mid-term performance measure for a three-year period, and long-term performance measure for a ten-year period.

Since performance is not measured only in terms of the difference between input and output, but also involves multiple constituencies (stakeholders), it is very difficult to measure. Thus difficulties in measuring may not be just technical but more of conceptual (Kanter and Brinkerhoff, 1981). However since the present study focuses on leadership and performance, it is more appropriate to assess the impact of leadership at the employee level. Therefore this thesis replicates studies in the west by exploring the relationship between transformational leadership and employee performance (Panagopoulos and Dimitriadis, 2009; van Woerkom and de Reuver, 2009; Neufeld *et al.*, 2010). Consequently, the measurement of employee performance is discussed in Chapter Three. Since employee performance is the dependent variable of the study, and to avoid repetitions, its relationships with the independent variables are discussed under the sections of the respective independent variables – Transformational leadership, Organisational Climate, Organisational commitment, and Organisational culture.

2.3 Theoretical and Conceptual Framework of Leadership

Many theories have explored the phenomenon of leadership. Broadly, these theories can be classified as either Traditional, New Leadership Paradigm or Emerging theories (Bryman, 1992; Avolio *et al.*, 2009) . By reviewing these theories, obviously within their discrete domains, it should however be noted that they are not mutually exclusive and that none of them can single-handedly fully explain the concept of leadership (Bryman, 1992; Avolio *et al.*, 2009). Each of them, no matter how small, contributes to our understanding of the concept of leadership. It is only by examining the various facets of these theories together

that we can come to an informed understanding of the concept of leadership. The discourse begins with the traditional theories.

2.3.1 Traditional Theories of Leadership

Some of these traditional theories of leadership include the Traits Theories, Behavioural Theories, and Situational Theories.

2.3.2 Traits Theories of Leadership

The earliest contemporary conceptualisation of leadership was that leaders had certain characteristic traits which distinguished them from those who were not seen as leaders (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1995; Higgs and Rowland, 2001; Higgs, 2003) . These traits were not acquired but believed to be innate. Therefore a person could only be a leader if he/she is lucky enough to be born with the requisite leadership traits. This theory focuses on the inherent qualities and values that leaders possess. Such traits as bravery, visionary, honesty, eloquence, alertness, originality, personal integrity, and self-confidence were associated with effective leadership (Ghiselli, 1963) and these traits were argued to be inherited (Nature) rather than acquired (Nurture). The implication of the Trait Theory is that leaders were born but cannot be made. By extension, the personal characteristics of a leader were argued to influence his/her performance. Responding to the long-standing debate as to whether leaders are born or made (Nature-Nurture Controversy), Arvey *et al.* (2007) used identical and fraternal twins in a study to assess the varied contributions of genetics and the environment. Their findings revealed that approximately 30% of the variation in leadership style and emergence was accounted for by heritability and the remaining variation of 70% was attributed to differences in environmental factors such as individuals having different role models and early opportunities for leadership development. Arvey *et al.* (2007) therefore concluded that the context of life or the environment in which one grew up and also the environment in which one later works in, is much more important than heritability (hereditary factors) in predicting leadership emergence across one's career.

Even though the findings of Arvey *et al.* (2007) are insightful, the Trait theory was essentially a personality-based approach to leadership which defined leadership exclusively in terms of the leader's personality traits to the apparent neglect of leadership behaviours, followers and situational factors (Fiedler, 1964). This therefore paved the way for another school of thought – the Behavioural Theory.

Despite the initial shortcomings of the Trait theory which was formulated in the late 1920s, it is still considered as the beginning of the "modern" study of leadership (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1995; Higgs and Rowland, 2001; Higgs, 2003) . A major flaw of the Trait Theory was its apparent subjectivity. Recent studies however have refuted the argument that Trait Theories were subjective in nature. Currently, there are existing instruments that are used for measuring personality traits (Ones *et al*., 2005) . Such personality instruments now play a vital role in the selection procedures of many organisations (Ones *et al*., 2005) . With hindsight therefore, we could safely argue that the Trait Theory was only perceived as subjective; which was not proved. What however remains true is that the Trait Theory alone cannot explain the concept of leadership. In an attempt to find solutions to the shortcomings of the Trait Theorists, scholars developed the Behavioural approach.

2.3.3 Behavioural Theories

Since the Trait theory was initially perceived to be subjective and unreliable (although not proven), there was the need to search for a more objective and verifiable approach to leadership (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1995). Due to the perceived subjective nature of the Trait theory, Behaviourists such as (Blake and Mouton, 1967) felt that it was more objective to use the behaviour of leaders to determine whether they are effective leaders.

This theory proposed that leadership was only considered to be present if certain behavioural patterns deemed necessary for effective leadership were overtly exhibited. Effective leadership therefore referred to certain behaviours that had a positive impact on performance (Blake and Mouton, 1967) . This approach, even though it tried to overcome the problems of the traits approach, also presented its own problem. This is because, by proposing that there were certain behaviours that indicated effective leadership, the behaviourist approach neglected situational and follower factors. In other words, it suggested that certain behaviours of leaders were deemed as suitable for all situations and for all followers and therefore would have a positive impact on performance. In reality, this is not always true! Although the Behavioural Theory made modest improvements over the Trait Theory in explaining the concept of leadership, they both fall short of adequately accounting for other leadership situations. Some leadership traits that may facilitate leadership in certain circumstances may not necessarily apply in another situation. In fact, in some situations, certain traits

which might be useful in one situation may be rather inhibitory in another situation (Higgs and Rowland, 2001; Higgs, 2003). Similarly with the Behavioural Theory, certain behaviours deemed as necessary for certain leadership situations may be found inimical to leadership effectiveness in other situations. Indeed (Higgs and Rowland, 2001; Higgs, 2003p.6), have indicated that in reality there have been numerous examples of successes by employing "less desirable" styles.

Basically the Trait and Behavioural theorists portray leadership function as being fundamentally directional. Thus, to a large extent, the Trait and Behavioural theories perceive leadership's impact on performance as a result of how leadership directs followers towards the attainment of organisational goals (Bryman, 1992). These theories therefore fell short of considering the role of motivation in performance. Subsequent theories, beginning with the Situational theories (particularly the Leadership-Member-Exchange variant), Charismatic, Transactional and Transformational, responded to this gap in research (Dansereau Jr *et al.*, 1973; Dansereau, 1975; Graen and Cashman, 1975). These subsequent leadership theories are relational in orientation. They show how leadership's relationship to followers motivates followers' performance towards the attainment of organisational goals (Bryman, 1992) .

2.3.4 Situational Theories of Leadership

Fiedler (1964) proposed a contingency management model which takes into cognisance follower and situational factors. Building on the work of (Fiedler, 1964), Hershey and Blanchard (1969) suggested that the leader's style in and of itself alone, was not enough to make anyone an effective leader. What rather makes someone an effective leader is their ability to adapt their leadership style to the needs of their followers. A one "good style" fits all was untenable.

The Leadership-Member Exchange (LMX) variant of the situational theories, which was originally proposed by Graen, Dansereau and their colleagues (Dansereau Jr *et al.*, 1975; Graen and Cashman, 1975), goes a step further to examine the relationship between a leader and his/her followers on a one-to-one basis. Unlike other theories that try to explain the concept of leadership in terms of the personal characteristics of the leader, or the features of the situation, the focus of the LMX is on the dyadic relationship between the leader and follower. The LMX is unique because of its adoption of the dyadic relationship as the level of analysis (Gerstner and Day, 1997). The leader does not treat his/her followers in the same way and thus their behaviour is not consistent across all subordinates. Thus this

leadership model interprets leadership at the dyadic level of analysis in which the dyad is made up of the leader and one subordinate (Cogliser and Schriesheim, 2000). The leader makes distinctions between subordinates and consequently varies his/her style across subordinates as opposed to adopting a homogenous style for all individuals within a work group (the Average Leadership Style [ALS] or the between-group approach). In essence the leadership behaviour is tailored to the individual's needs, aspirations, strengths and weaknesses. The proposition of the Leadership-Member-Exchange theory (LMX) is that leadership processes will be effective when it develops and maintains high-quality social exchange relationship with subordinates on an individual basis. Therefore a high quality LMX would ensure more effective leadership which invariably has positive implications for employee performance. Cogliser and Schriesheim (2000) found positive relationships between LMX and performance, job satisfaction, satisfaction with supervision, organisational commitment and role clarity. Other high-quality LMX studies that have evidenced positive implications for employee performance include that by Graen *et al.* (1982) which showed decreased subordinate turnover; that by Vecchio (1982) which showed decreased propensity to quit; and the study by Schriesheim *et al.* (1998) which indicated increased subordinate career outcomes.

The concept of LMX has, however, been criticised by some scholars. These criticisms basically relate to the issue of measurement and the apparent lack of a strong theoretical basis. For example, since the theory was first proposed, many different LMX measures have been developed and used (Yukl, 1989). Consequently, Schriesheim *et al.* (1999)p.100 argued that the "LMX scales seem to have been developed on ad hoc, evolutionary basis, without any clear logic or theory justifying the changes which were made." Hogg *et al.* (2005)p.992 also observed that with a few exceptions, "the majority of research is quite explicitly located at the dyadic level, with very little theorising or empirical work examining LMX at the group level". Thus the focus of the LMX is only on the leader-follower relationship, and therefore does not acknowledge the interrelationships that exist between the various dyads within a system. In other words, the LMX theory does not conceptualise the social context within which leaders and followers operate (Yukl, 1989; Cogliser and Schriesheim, 2000). Another flaw associated with the LMX is that in the literature, research designs are mostly correlational with the consequent lack of causal reports in the extensive stream of research associated with LMX (Cogliser and Schriesheim, 2000). Finally the LMX is criticised because it does not include more objective measures of performance (Erdogan and Liden,

2002; Avolio *et al.*, 2009). Avolio *et al.* (2009) argue that research in this area has mainly collected performance outcomes generated from supervisors and leaders and also argued further that research should now collect independent outcome measures that, logically, would be influenced by the quality of LMX relationship (Avolio *et al.*, 2009). With all these shortcomings of the LMX, as compared to the other traditional theories, it is still a much improved leadership theory. However it cannot account for workers' output beyond what is normally required of them. The LMX is incapable of explaining why workers sometimes work beyond their normally required levels. The New Leadership Paradigm (NLP) seems to explain how inspirational leadership influences workers to work beyond transactional levels.

2.3.5 New Leadership Paradigm

The works of Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) paved the way for Bryman (1992) to draw a contrast between traditional theories or models of leadership and New Leadership Paradigm (NLP) or theories, which he termed New Genre leadership. According to Bryman (1992), whereas the traditional models described leader behaviour in terms of leader-follower exchange relationships, the setting of goals, providing direction and support, and reinforcement of behaviours, the New Genre leadership models emphasised symbolic leader behaviour; visionary, inspirational messages; emotional feelings; ideological and moral values; individualised attention; and intellectual stimulation. According to Avolio (2005) and Lowe and Gardner (2001), charismatic and transformational leadership theories have been the most frequently researched new-genre theories over the last 20 years. Charismatic/transformational theory suggests that such leaders raise followers' aspirations and activate their higher-order values (e.g., altruism) such that followers identify with the leader and his or her mission/vision. In consequence, followers feel better about their work and therefore they perform beyond simple transactions and base expectations (Bass, 1985; Conger and Kanungo, 1998a; Avolio, 1999). The New Leadership Paradigm basically includes Charismatic Leadership and Transformational Leadership.

2.3.6 Charismatic Leadership Theory

Charismatic leaders possess personal characteristics that enable them to substantially influence their followers towards shared goals. In contrast to the Trait theory, the Charismatic theory indicates that these leadership qualities are

not innate. Indeed some evidence exists that some charismatic/transformational skills are trainable (Howell and Frost, 1989; Bass, 1990; Barling *et al*., 1996). Generally, some of the qualities of charismatic leaders that make them effective include the following; their strong conviction in their vision, their ability to share and inspire followers towards their vision, and their ability to passionately articulate their beliefs (Conger and Kanungo, 1998a). Conger and Kanungo (1998b) identified five components of Charismatic Leadership. These five components were ordered in three main stages (please see Table 2.1, below).

Table 2.1 Conger and Kanungo 1998 Model of Charismatic Leadership

Stage 1		Stage 2	Stage 3	
Evaluation of status quo	Expressed welfare for followers	Inspiration of vision and idealised goals	Adoption of unconventional approaches	Taking of personal risks

In stage one, these authors indicated that Charismatic leaders evaluate the status quo of their environment and seek for opportunities to improve upon organisational processes. Charismatic leaders assess the deficiencies in the system and look for solutions. The second component which is also within the first stage of the Conger and Kanungo model is the concern that Charismatic leaders show for the welfare of their followers' needs. Charismatic leaders evaluate the needs of their followers and assess how best these needs can be met. The third component which is in stage two of the model is that Charismatic leaders provide inspiring vision for the future. This vision is in the form of idealised goals. These goals are commonly shared values which are seen as highly desirable, difficult to achieve but not unattainable. The articulated vision proposes a radical departure from the status quo. Thus a total paradigm shift is envisioned. This provides the basis for Charismatic leaders to adopt unconventional means to achieve the articulated vision (Rowold and Laukamp, 2009). This characteristic nature of Charismatic leaders' use of unconventional means was placed in the third stage of Conger and Kanungo's model which also constitutes the fourth component of Charismatic leadership. The fifth and final component of Charismatic leadership which obviously is in the third stage of Conger and Kanungo's model is that Charismatic leaders take personal risks to

demonstrate their deep conviction in the articulated vision and also to serve as example for followers to emulate.

In essence, Charismatic leaders are ideological in orientation and articulate their transcendental goals passionately to followers (House, 1977; Koh *et al.*, 1995; Higgs, 2003; Liu *et al.*, 2010) and coupled with their show of deep concern for the needs of their followers, they inspire them into action (Conger and Kanungo, 1998a) . As compared to earlier leadership theories, the Charismatic theory is considerably developed but still does not address some concerns about leadership. For example, much as Charismatic leaders are able to carry their followers along with them in the articulated vision, no clear room is made for followers' initiative. The Transformational leadership theory seems to progress further in this direction.

2.3.7 Transformational Leadership Theory

Transformational Leadership, as an overarching concept, is basically comprised of the transactional and transformational components, with the transformational component leapfrogging the transactional one. Both the Transactional and Transformational leadership approaches emphasise leadership as an exchange process (Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 1996) . However, whereas Transactional leaders motivate followers by extrinsic rewards, Transformational leaders motivate their followers by intrinsic rewards (Bass, 1999; Yukl, 1999a). A distinction between the transformational and transactional components was drawn by Burns (1978) but at the same time Bass (1985) integrated these main components into the Full Range Model comprising eight dimensions. These dimensions or factors are *Idealised Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation, Individual Consideration, Contingent Reward, and Management by Exception-Active, Management by Exception-Passive,* and *Laissez-faire.* According to Bass (1985) and Bass and Avolio (1996), these identified factors influenced transactional and transformational leaderships: *Contingent Reward*, *Management by Exception-Active, Management by Exception-Passive,* and *Laissez-faire*, influence Transactional leadership, while *Charismatic/Inspirational*, *Individualised Consideration, Idealised Influence,* and *Intellectual Stimulation* influence Transformational leadership (Koh *et al.*, 1995; Higgs, 2003; Liu *et al.*, 2010) .

The Transactional leader shows followers what needs to be done so that goals and objectives can be attained. They then use contingent reward and

management by exception to motivate followers to attain set goals. Followers are rewarded based on performance. Management by exception is the leadership style which intervenes only when there is substantial deviation from the goal path or substantial delay in goal attainment (Bass, 1999; Yukl, 1999a). Management by exception is further divided into two types – the active and the passive. The active type is where the leader makes deliberate efforts to seek out the exceptions and offer appropriate responses. Conversely, the passive type is where the leader makes a response only when the exception becomes glaringly obvious (Garman *et al.*, 2003). Since this leadership approach assures followers of reward contingent upon results, followers are encouraged to give of their best in order to be rewarded. Some research evidence indicate an increase in performance and satisfaction by followers (Yammarino *et al.*, 1997).

Unlike the Transactional leader who focuses followers' attention on short-term goals and actions, the Transformational leader motivates followers to attain long-term and intrinsic goals. These transcendental goals such as motivation for hard work, and self-actualisation are self-rewarding. Transformational leaders are able to influence followers through the means of their charisma, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Garman *et al.*, 2003; Higgs, 2003). The leader's charisma is related to their ability to instil the sense of pride, value and respect, and the ability to articulate clearly their vision to followers. Intellectual Stimulation deals with the ability of the leader to assist followers to rethink in rational ways when examining any situation. It also includes assisting followers to be creative such that they will challenge the status quo and cause a paradigm shift. Finally, Individualised Consideration refers to the leader's skill and commitment to meet the needs of the individual for achievement and growth. It is the recognition of the existence of individual differences among followers and the commitment to satisfying these varied needs that characterises the transformational leader (Garman *et al.*, 2003).

Generally, transformational leadership influences performance through both the mediation of the individual and the mediation of the group. As in Figure 2.1, whereas mainly, the incidence of individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation is the individual, the incidence of idealised influence and inspirational motivation is the group. Figure 2.1, generated by the author, is based on the theoretical development of Kark and Shamir (2002) and Wu *et al.* (2010) who examined effects of individual-focused (individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation), and group-focused (idealised influence and inspirational

motivation) Transformational Leadership (TFL) behaviours, which were both assessed at the group level. In consequence, whether the incidence of transformational leadership behaviour is at the individual, or the group level, they both ultimately influence organisational performance. However the distinction may become significant when it comes to measurement in terms of the unit of analysis. Recently, Wang and Howell (2010) explored the dual-level effects of transformational leadership on followers, and found the need to make a distinction between individual and group level effects.

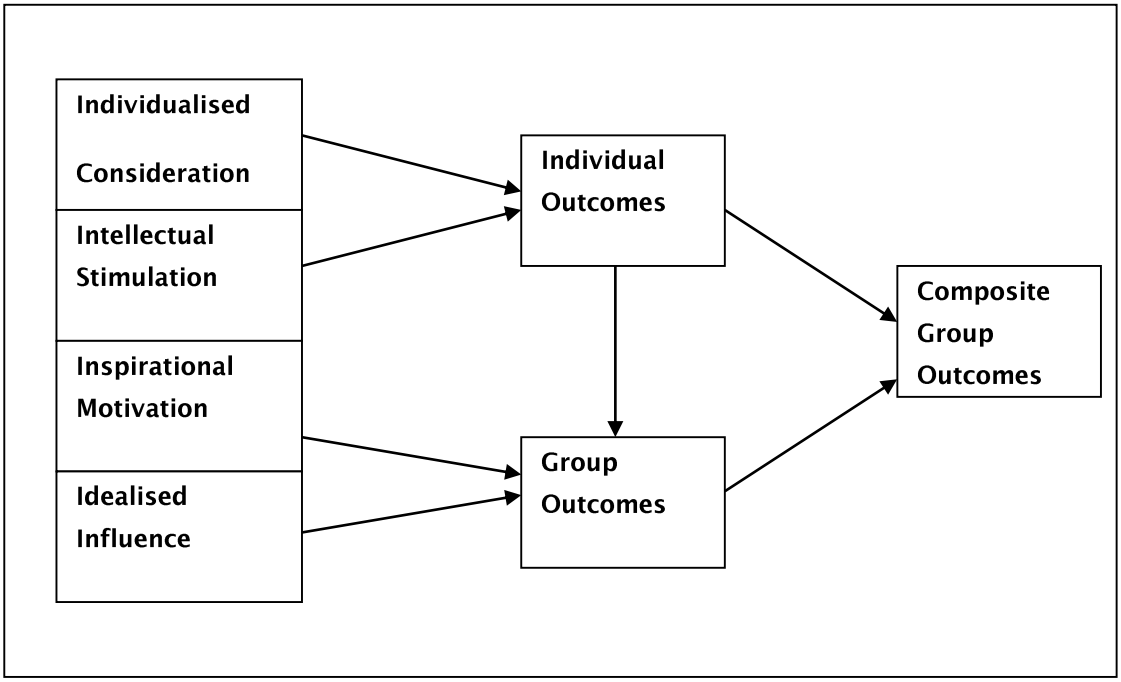

Figure 2.1: Factors of Transformational Leadership and Incidence of Impacts – A Proposed Model

Source: Author

Despite the popularity of Transformational leadership, and notwithstanding its potential in promoting employee performance, several criticisms have been levelled against it. In the forefront of these criticisms is Tourish and Pinnington (2002). The main criticisms are discussed below.

Since Transformational leadership emphasises the provision of vision by leaders, it has been criticised for not making any room for feedback from followers. The Transformational Leadership theory has been accused as providing only one-way traffic to vision provision. According to critics, the unidirectional approach to the provision of vision (by transformational leaders) produces monolithic cultures in which dissenters have no place (Yukl, 1999a; Tourish and Pinnington, 2002). Mainly, transformational leadership is criticised for the suppression of dissent. Stretching this argument further critics assert that this situation could lead to bigotry, and authoritative rule. The transforming nature of this leadership style has also been vilified as an indoctrination approach that has the potential towards turning organisations into cults (referred to as "cultic organisations" by (Tourish and Pinnington). With the growing interest expressed in the literature about Spirituality at the workplace, critics argue that the potential for transformational leadership to turn organisations into authoritarian organisations or worse still into cultic organisations is further heightened (Tourish and Pinnington).

It is not the objective of this thesis to respond to these well-intended criticisms. Suffice to say however that the practical benefits of Transformational leadership far outweigh the far-fetched fears of the prophets of doom (Hunt, 1999). Implicit in these criticisms is their admission of the potency of transformational leadership. Critics do not controvert the potency of transformational leadership per se, but on the contrary they express their fear that such influence could be used negatively, in an unethical or destructive manner (Hunt, 1999; Yukl, 1999a; Tourish and Pinnington, 2002). Notwithstanding the fears expressed by these critics, the interest of the present study is to replicate western studies that have found a positive relationship between Transformational leadership and employee performance to ascertain whether similar findings can be evidenced within an African context.

Whereas these criticisms may be valid and eye-opening, they do not in any way suggest discarding the theory of Transformational leadership per se (Tourish and Pinnington, 2002): Else it will tantamount to scrapping a fast car just because it has the potential for high-speed, and high speed arguably could kill. The knowledge that a car has the potential for high-speed, should rather advise the person who drives that car to handle the car carefully to avoid accidents and possible injuries or death, while still maximising its utility. One will not need to get rid of the car only because it has the potential for high speed. Consequently, despite the potential dangers associated with transformational leadership, its

relationship with employee performance and other organisational variables is both relevant and appropriate to explore within a very different context.

Empirical studies in the west have shown that transformational leadership does have effects on organisational outcomes. A huge collection of research summarised by Avolio *et al.* (2004(a)) ,including a series of meta-analytic studies (Judge and Piccolo, 2004) has revealed that "charismatic/transformational leadership was positively associated with leadership effectiveness and a number of important organizational outcomes across many different types of organizations, situations, levels of analyses, and cultures such as productivity and turnover" (Avolio *et al.*, 2009pp. 428 – 429). These findings have direct positive implications for the present study which is premised that leadership, among other variables, will make a difference in employee performance. This study is yet to reveal what characteristics of leaders in organisations in developed economies like the UK could account for their organisations' higher performance outcomes than organisations in Ghana. As can be expected, several studies have examined the different processes through which transformational leadership effects are ultimately realised by way of performance outcomes. According to Liao and Chuang (2007) and Walumbwa *et al.* (2008), some of these processes include followers' formation of commitment; satisfaction; identification; and perceived fairness. For job characteristics, Piccolo and Colquitt (2006) identified variety, identity, significance, autonomy and feedback. Other reported processes are trust in the leader (Wang *et al.*, 2005); and how followers come to feel about themselves and their group with regard to their efficacy, cohesion and potency (Bass *et al.*, 2003; Bono and Judge, 2004; Schaubroeck *et al.*, 2007). As compared to the Traditional leadership theories, the New Leadership Paradigm (particularly the Transformational leadership theory) appears to portray a much better picture of what leadership entails. Currently, the Transformational leadership theory appears to be the most widely accepted leadership theory, which has accordingly been the focus of researchers for the past 20 years (Lowe and Gardner, 2001; Avolio, 2005) . However there is still ongoing research and theorising, resulting in what has been aptly referred to as Emerging Theories. Most of these emerging theories focus on leadership development which is beyond the scope of this thesis. Brief mention of these theories is made in the next section and an overview is given of a few of these (based largely on popularity or most mentioned theories, and also on their reflections on transformational leadership) to give a general concept of leadership as it relates to this thesis.

2.3.8 Emerging Leadership Theories

Emerging theories are the collection of theories that have been formulated after the New Leadership Paradigm, particularly after the Transformational theory. These include Authentic Leadership, Shared, Collective or Distributed Leadership, Cross-Cultural Leadership, E-Leadership, Spirituality and Leadership, Complexity Leadership, and Cognitive Psychology and Leadership (Avolio *et al.*, 2009). This list cannot be exhaustive since more research and theories building on leadership are ongoing.

2.3.8.1 Shared, Collective or Distributed Leadership

One of the emerging theories that may be relevant to this research is Shared, Collective or Distributed Leadership. Unlike the Traditional and the New Leadership Paradigms which focus on an individual person as a leader, Shared, Collective or Distributed Leadership rotates leadership among group members in relation to group goals and processes (Pearce and Conger, 2003). According to Pearce (2004)p.48 leadership is defined as a *"simultaneous, on-going, mutual influence process within a team that is characterized by `serial emergence' of official as well as unofficial leaders*". Leadership is defined as a group-level outcome rather than an individual level-outcome (Day *et al.*, 2004). The relevance of the Shared, Collective or Distributed Leadership theory to this thesis is that even though the thesis focuses on individual personalities who are designated as leaders, practically, there may be instances in which shared, collective or distributed leadership may compliment the efforts of designated leaders. In essence, there are instances and situations "…*where responsibility is moved from the few to the many*" (Edwards, 2011, p.309).

A major criticism against the shared, collective or distributed leadership, however, is its lack of clear definitional agreement (Carson *et al.*, 2007). For example a concern has been raised as to whether there should be a generic definition of shared leadership that is qualified by terms such as transactional or transformational shared leadership (Avolio *et al.*, 2009). The lack of theoretical clarity makes it difficult if not impossible to test it. Arguably this is a developing and an unfolding concept (Edwards, 2011) which may require some time for crystallisation. Besides, the concept does not offer an alternative to the traditional concept of leadership (often embedded in individuals) but rather plays a complimentary role. In view of these considerations, this theory is not explored further in this thesis since the main focus is on individuals in leadership.

2.3.8.2 The Complexity Leadership Theory

Another emerging theory which may be relevant to this thesis is the Complexity Leadership theory. The Complexity Leadership theory perceives leadership operating within the context of a complex and dynamic system and interacting with unpredictable and dynamic agents of the system to generate complex feedback networks which in turn produce adaptive outcomes. These adaptive outcomes include innovation, learning, knowledge dissemination, and further adaptation to change (Uhl-Bien *et al.*, 2007). The argument of the complexity theory is that, in the face of the dynamic and turbulent environment of organisations (Conner, 1998; Higgs and Rowland, 2001), leadership can no longer be explained in simple and structured terms as portrayed by the traditional theories; rather, for leadership to achieve optimal levels of performance, it should be viewed as an emergent interactive phenomenon within complex organisations (Hazy *et al.*, 2007; Uhl-Bien *et al.*, 2007). In contrast to the traditional theories where the unit of analysis is the individual leader and his/her relationship to followers or group of persons, the unit of analysis of the complexity theory are systems which Uhl-Bien *et al.* (2007) referred to as the complex adaptive systems (CAS).

As these new leadership theories are being developed in the west, some scholars also argue for the development of leadership theories from the African perspective (Mokgoro, 1998; Kamwangamalu, 1999; Mangaliso, 2001; Bolden and Kirk, 2005; Bolden and Kirk, 2009). Consequently the next section reviews the development of leadership from the African perspective.

2.3.8.3 Ubuntu; the African Perspective;

2.3.8.3.1 Definition:

Ubuntu, like many African concepts, does not easily lend itself to an accurate definition. The concept cannot be easily encapsulated into words, particularly using a foreign language. According to Mokgoro (1998), p.2, *to define an African notion in a foreign language and from an abstract as opposed to a concrete approach is to defy the very essence of the African world-view and can also be particularly elusive*. She continues to argue that attempting to define the concept

of *Ubuntu* with precision is unattainable (Mokgoro, 1998). Concluding, (Mokgoro) argued that, *because the African world-view cannot be neatly categorised and defined, any definition would only be a simplification of a more expansive, flexible and philosophically accommodative idea* (Mokgoro, 1998, p.3). The concept of *Ubuntu* has generally been considered as a world-view of African societies that influence the formation of perceptions that dictate social conduct (Mokgoro, 1998). It is also seen as the traditional African values. These values have the potential to influence African development (Mokgoro, 1998; Kamwangamalu, 1999).

Notwithstanding the difficulty at attempting a comprehensive and precise definition of *Ubuntu,* some authors, albeit without any claim to perfection, have offered some definitions:

- *It is the humanness of Africans that make them treat all people with respect and human dignity. It is the universal brotherhood that Africans share with others by respecting them as human beings (Bhengu, 1996, p.5).*
- *Ubuntu is a process and philosophy which reflects the African heritage, traditions, culture, customs, beliefs, value systems and the extended family structures (Makhudu, 1993, p.40).*
- *Ubuntu is the key to all African values and involves humanness, a good disposition towards others, and a moral nature. It describes the significance of group solidarity and interdependence in African culture. It places great value on dignity, respect, conformity and reconciliation in the midst of conflict and hardship (Mthembu, 1996, p.216).*
- *Ubuntu is the "collective consciousness" of the people of Africa. It involves alms-giving, being sympathetic, caring, sensitive to the needs of others, being respectful, considerate, patient and kind (Prinsloo, 1996, pp. 113 - 114).*
- *The concept of Ubuntu is understood as collective solidarity whereby the self is perceived primarily in relation to the perception of others, that is, persons are perceived less as independent of one another, and more as interdependent of one another (Laden, 1997, p.134).*
- *Ubuntu is a statement about being human, about fundamental things that qualify a person to be a person…Being human is achieved as a person shows characteristics that qualify him or her to be so regarded…Ubuntu is*

> *about how you relate to people and is... a fountain from which actions and attitudes flow (Dandala, 1996, pp 70, 72).*

Basically, all these definitions agree that *Ubuntu* is a value system which governs African societies, and that these values constitute the measure of "humanness" of the African people (Kamwangamalu, 1999). Despite these agreements in the various definitions of the concept of *Ubuntu* above, the various authors placed different emphasis on certain aspects of *Ubuntu.* Whereas (Bhengu, 1996) and (Dandala, 1996) emphasised the sense of being humane, (Makhudu, 1993) emphasises the cultural and value systems of the people. However, (Prinsloo, 1996) and (Laden, 1997) emphasised the relational aspect of *Ubuntu* where the people see themselves as a collective group of people, and where each person is defined in relation to the group.

2.3.8.3.2 The Nature of *Ubuntu:*

Even though it is not easy to define *Ubuntu,* according to (Mokgoro) it is *one of those things that you recognise when you see it* (Mokgoro, 1998, p.2). As indicated earlier, although the concept of Ubuntu cannot be easily encapsulated in words, the concept becomes much clearer when its social values are highlighted. Essentially *Ubuntu* places much premium on relationships: It is a moral obligation for Africans to cooperate among themselves, and treat each other with respect and compassion; emphasising communalism and a high regard and collective respect for the dignity of personhood (Mthembu, 1996; Prinsloo, 1996; Mokgoro, 1998). *Ubuntu* is the potential of humanness, humanity, and morality which prescribes how one relates to others. Such attributes and attitude promote group identity and solidarity. It has to do with the sense of communality among Africans, intense sense of shared aspirations, a sense of looking after each other (Dandala, 1996; Mthembu, 1996; Prinsloo, 1996; Laden, 1997). The totality of this feeling is to play down on individuality and uphold group solidarity. The centrality of *Ubuntu* in African communities is expressed in the following statement: *a person can only be a person through others* (Mokgoro, 1998, p.2). Consequently an individual is defined in terms of the group and invariably the individual derives his or her identity from the group. Some of the specific social characteristics of *Ubuntu* are: group solidarity, conformity, compassion, respect for others, human dignity, humanistic orientation, and collective unity (Mthembu, 1996; Prinsloo, 1996; Mokgoro, 1998).

2.3.8.3.3 The Uniqueness or Otherwise of *Ubuntu*:

It has been argued that values such as dignity, humaneness, conformity, and respect (just to mention a few), may not be unique to *Ubuntu* (Prinsloo, 1996). Although some of these values are universally shared, Mokgoro (1998) argues that *Ubuntu* is unique in terms of the methods, approaches, emphasis and attitudes of Africans towards these values. The prevalence, magnitude and how well-entrenched the values of *Ubuntu* are in the lives of Africans makes this phenomena distinct, and that in itself explains the uniqueness of *Ubuntu.*

2.3.8.3.4 *Ubuntu* as a social concept, or a Cultural Issue?

Kamwangamalu (1999), argues that *Ubuntu* is first and foremost a cultural or social concept and that it is only from this perspective that we can move on to suggest its application to business. His contention however was that the adulterated state in which *Ubuntu* finds itself now, due to the impact of slavery and apartheid, needs to be reversed and its pure state recovered, before its application in other fields like business will be of any benefit. *Ubuntu* may not only be a social concept but also a cultural phenomenon. Since the values of *Ubuntu* influence the way of life of Africans, it may be more appropriately referred to as a culture which all Africans share (Mokgoro, 1998; Kamwangamalu, 1999; Bolden and Kirk, 2009).

2.3.8.3.5 *Ubuntu* and Leadership

There is debate as to whether there is anything such as *African leadership* or whether the issue should be approached as *leadership in Africa* (Bolden and Kirk, 2005). Bolden and Kirk argue that: *a more geographically located statement like "Leadership in Africa" is certainly more neutral than "African leadership" which suggests leadership that resides in, and in owned by Africans. It will provoke less emotion, and that may be its strength and weakness* (Bolden and Kirk, 2005, p.6).

However in their sample, proponents of *leadership in Africa* rather than *African leadership* argue that leadership is contextual and therefore as much as leadership elsewhere is not tagged as, for example, *European leadership* or *American leadership* or *Asian leadership* or *Australian leadership*, it would be equally appropriate to refer to *leadership in Africa* rather than *African leadership*. Conversely, proponents of *African leadership* claim that it makes them proud to have that ownership (Bolden and Kirk, 2005).

Regardless of any position taken on this issue, the essential concern should be how *Ubuntu* is related to leadership. To date there is no leadership theory or model for *Ubuntu.* Arguably, *Ubuntu* could be considered as the dominant African culture within which the life of Africans consist (Mangaliso, 2001). From this position (that *Ubuntu* is an African culture), a relationship between *Ubuntu* and leadership could be considered, as at elsewhere, the influence of culture on leadership. The work of scholars like Bolden and Kirk (2005), Bolden and Kirk (2009), Kirk and Bolden (2006), and Mangaliso (2001), in relation to *Ubuntu* have mainly been geared towards leadership development, (trying to assess how *Ubuntu* can influence leadership in Africa) which clearly goes beyond the present study. Although *Ubuntu* will not be explored further in this study (given the above explanations), this review provides information about efforts being made about leadership development in Africa. The increasing number of studies in the west and Africa and elsewhere, indicate a growing concern of the impact of culture on leadership (Bennett, 1977; McCarthy, 1998; Hofstede, 2001; Sagie and Aycan, 2003; House *et al.*, 2004; Triandis, 2004; Fujimoto and Härtel, 2006; Kanungo, 2006; Fontaine, 2007; Elele and Fields, 2010). The next section will therefore review cross-cultural leadership.

2.3.8.4 Cross-Cultural Leadership Theory

Finally, another emerging theory that may reflect on this thesis is the Cross-Cultural Leadership theory. Due to the global nature of business in recent times, there has been a growing interest in identifying leaders who are able to effectively lead across a variety of cultures. As a result of this expectation for leaders with global leadership skills, there have been numerous academic articles (Mobley *et al.*, 1999) and popular press (Goldsmith *et al.*, 2003; Green *et al.*, 2003; Lane *et al.*, 2009). Accordingly, there is increased focus on cross-cultural leadership research (Hofstede, 2001; House *et al.*, 2004; Leung *et al.*, 2005; Kirkman *et al.*, 2006; Gelfand *et al.*, 2007). The dilemma however is which approach to adopt in the conceptualisation and definition of global leadership. One approach is that, for leaders to acquire the capacity to lead global organisations, they must have the practical experience of living in different cultures (Van Dyne and Ang, 2005). The alternative approach however places emphasis on the relevant competencies that a leader needs to enable him to lead effectively and successfully across cultures (Mendenhall *et al.*, 2001). In contrast to the first approach which may

require a deep knowledge acquired by living in one or two cultures, this second approach emphasises having a broad set of experiences and competencies that gives managers or leaders the capacity to lead across cultures. This approach is endorsed by related work on global mind-set (Boyacigiller *et al.*, 2004; Clapp-Smith *et al.*, 2007) and cultural intelligence (Thomas, 2006; Earley *et al.*, 2007).

Some research evidence of the influence of culture's impact on leadership exists. For example, in a comparative study, Walumbwa *et al.* (2007) examined the effects of collectivistic (allocentrism) and individualistic (idiocentrism) cultures on the relationships among leadership and both organisational commitment and satisfaction with supervisor. Their findings indicated that whereas subordinates in the collectivistic culture (allocentrics) reacted more positively to transformational leaders, followers in the individualistic culture (idiocentrics) reacted more positively to transactional leaders (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2007).

The Globe studies indicated that many leadership attributes and behaviours varied by culture (House *et al.*, 2004). However certain implicit leadership theories (e.g. charisma/transformational, team-oriented) may have universal endorsement (Robie *et al.*, 2001; Boehnke *et al.*, 2003; Zagorsek *et al.*, 2004). Conversely, the findings of Mannheim and Halamish (2008) did not support the universality of transformational leadership theory.

Kanungo (2006) in a conceptual paper however, argues that since people in business are becoming more accommodative of changes needed in doing global business, cultural changes are becoming global norms which lead to new values and thereby make geographical borders lose their cultural significance. He argued further that

> *…specific managerial values are losing their meaning and organisations are becoming global neighbours. The blurring of culture across the lines shows a great space to accept differences and practice in businesses. Thus, as much as the managerial values are changing, so much so the organisations are cross-verging with different cultures, and a new cultural community is emerging in global businesses* (Kanungo, 2006p.28).

Since this thesis is exploring leadership's impact on employee performance using western theories in an African context (i.e. Ghana, with different cultural values), the cross-cultural leadership theory may help explain the impact of transformational leadership in a non-western context: Transformational leadership, which is a western concept, is explored within the cultural framework of Ghana (a developing country in an African context).

2.3.9 Summary

As stated at the beginning of this section, all the leadership theories in their various ways shed some light on our understanding of the concept of leadership. The trait theorists may not be at the forefront in explaining current leadership practices, but still may be able to help us to explain certain leadership situations. Similarly, the behavioural theorists can be relied on to explain some leadership situations. The Leadership-Member-Exchange of the Situational theories and Charismatic Leadership of the New Leadership Paradigm, are all mirrored in the Full Range Model of the Transformational leadership theory. The emerging leadership theories largely either appear to be off-shoots of the mainstream Transformational Leadership theory or complimentary to the Transformational Leadership theory. Consequently, in the current dispensation, the Transformational Leadership Theory seems to be the most viable theory for exploration in this thesis. Further discussions to support this choice are made in the next section.

2.4 Leadership and Performance

As mentioned above in the introduction, several studies have focused on the impact of leadership on performance (Avolio *et al.*, 2009; Lyons and Schneider, 2009; Huang *et al.*, 2010; Neufeld *et al.*, 2010; Panagopoulos and Avlonitis, 2010).

These studies reveal some links between leadership and employee performance (Lowe *et al.*, 1996; Dumdum *et al.*, 2002; Judge *et al.*, 2002; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Buckley *et al.*, 2006). According to Buckley *et al.* (2006), leadership can effectively influence employee performance when leaders are able to facilitate a match between an organisation and its environment.

Leadership influences employee performance through how it influences followers to attain organisational objectives. This is because leaders do not do all the work by themselves. In fact they cannot do all the work by themselves. (Avolio, 1999p.167) alludes to the indirect influence of leadership on performance by stating that “if a leader has direct impact on performance, she or he is probably too directly involved in what the other person or group is doing”. Leaders would have to achieve organisational objectives with and through their followers or the

people they supervise. Leadership influences performance through several means. Generally, the impact of leadership's influence on employees' performance may vary according to the level (of the organisational hierarchy) and distance of leadership's influence on followers, and the leadership style employed.

Leadership has several levels of influence on performance within the organisational structure. Although leadership is not necessarily equated to management, assessing leadership at the various managerial levels has been a convenient way of studying leadership in organisations (Nealey and Fiedler, 1968; Thomas, 1988; Chun *et al.*, 2009; Neufeld *et al.*, 2010; O'Reilly *et al.*, 2010; Edwards and Gill, 2012).

The first level is the leadership which is in direct contact with employees. This level of leadership is the first line which is supervisory in nature. It involves the implementation of policies and execution of objectives and targets. The next level above this is synonymous with middle-line management and involves the interpretation and explanation of policies from above. The final level of leadership is involved with making policies that shape the strategic direction of the organisation and this coincides with the executive level of management (Eden and Shani, 1982; Thomas, 1988; Hofmann and Jones, 2005). All these levels of leadership have varied indirect impact on performance through the various means by which they affect employees who have a direct impact on performance. Although the effect of leadership at the various levels may have varied indirect impact on performance (due to physical and psychological distance from the employee, and the manner of influence), effective leadership at each of these levels has some unique and positive indirect impact on performance which becomes even more apparent when looked at across the various leadership levels of the organisation (Chun *et al.*, 2009).

O'Reilly *et al.* (2010) examined the differences in leadership influence processes, perceptions, and multiple levels of analysis effects between close and distant charismatic and contingent reward leadership across three hierarchical levels in 13 Korean companies. The findings of this study revealed that followers' commitment to the leader mediated relationships between leadership and followers' attitudinal, behavioural, and performance outcomes in close situations, but not in distant relationships. Leadership at higher levels of management was positively related to follower outcomes at the lowest echelon. By the use of multivariate within and between analysis, results indicated multiple-level effects

differing by leader-follower distance and for the variables of interest (Chun *et al.*, 2009). Similarly, Neufeld *et al.* (2010) examined how physical distance influences leader-follower communication effectiveness or leader performance. The study also looked at how perceived leader performance is influenced by leadership style, physical distance, and communication effectiveness between leaders and followers. Their model explained 45% of the variance in communication effectiveness and 67% of the variance in perceived leader performance. Additionally, Transformational Leadership was associated more strongly with perceived leader performance than Transactional contingent reward Leadership. Furthermore, communication effectiveness was found to be a strong predictor of leader performance and acted as a mediator of leadership behaviour on performance. Finally, it was found out that distance had no influence on either communication effectiveness or perceived leader performance.

As indicated earlier, apart from level and distance of leadership influence on followers, leadership style may also influence followers' performance. Since leadership influences performance through how followers are influenced, this thesis is interested in finding out how leadership influences followers. In consequence this thesis examines what kind of leadership has the strongest influence on employees, which in turn may have the optimum impact on employee performance.

Huang *et al.* (2010) found linkage between the participative leadership style of superiors and the task performance of their subordinates, as well as the subordinates' organisational citizenship behaviour towards organisations (OCBO). They further explained that for managerial subordinates, performance and organisational citizenship behaviour towards organisations (OCBO) was mediated by psychological empowerment (motivational mediator), whereas the impact of participative leadership on performance and OCBO for non-managerial subordinates was mediated by trust-in-supervisor (exchange-based mediator). The findings of this study corroborate other studies about the influence of work context on participative leadership or vice versa (Shetzer, 1993; Beyer *et al.*, 1997; Cha and Edmondson, 2006). Even though the information-processing mechanism employed by managerial and non-managerial subordinates for interpreting superiors' participative leadership behaviour may vary, they both enhance performance. The psychological empowerment of managerial subordinates and the trust-in-supervisor of non-managerial subordinates, all

influence performance (Shetzer, 1993; Beyer *et al.*, 1997; Cha and Edmondson, 2006; Huang *et al.*, 2010).

Panagopoulos and Dimitriadis (2009) provided evidence for the mediating effect of Transformational leadership on the relationship between behaviour-based control (BBC) and key sales outcomes. Behaviour-based control (BBC) positively affects transformational leadership behaviours, which in turn, enhance salesperson performance, satisfaction with supervision, and organisational commitment. Rowold and Laukamp (2009) showed that facets of charismatic leadership were negatively related to followers' absenteeism, but positively related to their training and development activity. Charismatic leadership also showed a positive relationship to profit. Since profit is one of the measures of performance it seems plausible to suggest that the study in a way established a positive relationship between charismatic leadership and performance. van Woerkom and de Reuver (2009) examined the influence of five dimensions of multicultural personality via transformational leadership on excellent performance in a sample of managers working in an expatriate assignment or in jobs dealing with subordinates of different cultural backgrounds. This study showed that cultural empathy, open-mindedness and social initiative had positive effects on transformational leadership. No significant effects were found from emotional stability and flexibility on transformational leadership. A more transformational leadership style led to higher performance in an intercultural context (van Woerkom and de Reuver, 2009).

It has also been shown that when a leader adopts a leadership style of openness and transparency - and particularly by giving followers feedback of their performance, followers' performance is enhanced (Nadler, 1979; Podsakoff and Farh, 1989; Fedor, 1991). Feedback from leadership is the means by which employees are made aware of the quality and quantity of their performance. Feedback from leadership does not only serve as a corrective medium in the case of employee deviation from the standard of performance but also acts as a means of motivation for higher performance in cases where employee output meets and even exceeds the required standard of performance. Either way, leadership feedback to employees of their performance has been shown to have a positive impact on performance. It has also been shown that the frequency and timeliness of feedback influences performance (Nadler, 1979; Podsakoff and Farh, 1989; Fedor, 1991).

A host of other studies have also shown that the style of leadership, under certain conditions, has varying degrees of effectiveness on performance (Jung and Avolio, 2000; Sosik and Godshalk, 2000; Lyons and Schneider, 2009; Huang *et al.*, 2010; Neufeld *et al.*, 2010). In other words, some leadership styles are more effective than others, given certain situations, and therefore the need to employ the appropriate leadership style for any situation is crucial for optimum performance. For example, the impact of leadership on performance may vary as to whether it is Transactional or Charismatic Transformational (Lowe *et al.*, 1996; Dumdum *et al.*, 2002; Judge *et al.*, 2002; Garman *et al.*, 2003; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Buckley *et al.*, 2006).

Leadership style in relation to mentoring functions and job-related stress has been found to influence performance. Sosik and Godshalk (2000) came out with interesting findings in their study that examined the linkages between mentor leadership behaviours (laissez-faire, transactional contingent reward, and transformational leadership), protégé perception of mentoring functions received (career development and psychosocial support), and job-related stress of 204 mentor-protégé dyads. It was found out that mentor transformational behaviour was positively related to mentoring functions received than transactional contingent reward behaviour was. In the case of lasses-faire mentoring behaviour, mentoring functions received were negative. In terms of stress it was found out that both mentor transformational behaviour and mentoring functions received were negatively related to protégé's job-related stress (Sosik and Godshalk, 2000). The implication is that transformational leadership as compared to other leadership styles (by its level of mentoring received) generates less stress and impacts more positively on followers' performance.

From the foregone discussions, this research explores the impact of transformational leadership on performance. However, this exploration is done within the context of other organisational variables which may either mediate or moderate leadership's impact on performance. The major organisational variables identified from the literature that could either mediate or moderate leadership's impact on performance are *organisational commitment, national culture, organisational culture* and *organisational climate.* These are discussed in turn.

2.5 Organisational Commitment

Several studies have found a positive relationship between organisational commitment and transformational leadership behaviour (Alley and Gould, 1975; Porter *et al.*, 1976; Glisson and Durick, 1988; Savery, 1994; Wilson, 1995; Avolio *et al.*, 2004). Conversely, Hunt and Liebscher (1973) found a negative relationship between commitment and leadership behaviour. O'Reilly and Roberts (1978), Savery (1994) and Hampton *et al.* (1986), however, found no link between leadership behaviour and commitment.

Koh *et al.* (1995) studied the effects of transformational leadership on teacher attitude and student performance in Singapore. By examining the influence of transformational leadership of principals in relation to organisational commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, and teacher satisfaction with leader, and student academic performance, Koh *et al.* (1995) showed that transformational leadership had significant add-on effects to transactional leadership in the prediction of organisational commitment as well as organisational citizenship behaviour and teacher satisfaction. It was also found out that transformational leadership had indirect effects on students' academic achievement. Transactional leadership however had little add-on effect on transformational leadership in predicting outcomes.

Organisational commitment's relationship to transformational leadership has been found to mediate between transformational leadership and employee performance. In consequence, numerous studies have linked commitment to performance (Porter *et al.*, 1974; Steers, 1977; Farrell and Rusbult, 1981; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Williams and Hazer, 1986; Gregson, 1992). Other scholars however argue that this relationship is not clear (Maxwell and Steele, 2003); neither direct (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990) nor consistent (Steers, 1977). This situation therefore necessitates a study such as this present one, and more, in an attempt to shed more light on the nature of the relationship between transformational leadership, commitment and performance.

It has been argued that a committed employee is the one who remains with an organisation at all times. Such a person stays with the organisation whether the organisation is facing favourable or unfavourable circumstances (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Meyer and Allen (1997) further characterise the attitude and behaviour of a committed employee as constituting regular attendance to work, putting in a full day or even more, protecting the company's assets, and sharing of the

company's goals. It has also been argued that committed employees influence performance through their persistence in set tasks to achieve set goals (Salancik, 1977); through the improvement of service quality (Iverson *et al.*, 1996); through their acceptance of organisational change (Salancik, 1977); and through their preparedness to assume extra role responsibilities (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986). The present globalised economy which places so much demand on organisations, calls for more committed employees to make a difference.

Other studies have also argued that appropriate leadership engenders commitment (Jermier and Berkes, 1979; Angle and Perry, 1981; DeCotiis and Summers, 1987; Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Liou, 1995; Lok and Crawford, 2001). Therefore this present study explores how commitment, as engendered by leadership within the cultural framework, influences performance of various organisations in Ghana.

2.5.1 The Concept of Organisational Commitment

Buchanan (1974) referred to the term 'commitment' as the willingness of people (social actors) to exert their energy and loyalty to a social system. Buchanan (1974) further argues that this attachment to the organisation transcends the instrumental value of the relationship. Rashid *et al.* (2003) describe organisational commitment as the psychological state of employees that defines their relationships with their organisation.

An enduring definition of commitment provided by (Porter *et al.*, 1974p.604) states that commitment is the strength of an individual's identification and involvement with a particular organisation, characterised by three factors;

(a) A strong belief in and acceptance of the organisation's goals and values;
(b) A willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation;
(c) A definite desire to maintain organisational membership.

2.5.2 Components of Organisational Commitment

Affective Commitment: This kind of commitment refers to employees' emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organisation. Basically it is the extent to which an employee is emotionally attached to the organisation.

Employees who have affective commitment towards their organisations stay with their organisations because they *want to* (Elele and Fields, 2010). As their stay with their organisations arises from a desire (McKenna, 2005) or passion to do so, their stay seems like a matter of choice.

Continuance Commitment: This kind of commitment is based on employees' assessment of costs associated with their leaving the organisation. This is a kind of cost and benefits analysis of employees' prospects should they leave their organisation, so that employees stay with their organisation because the costs of leaving it are considered to be too high (McKenna, 2005). Therefore employees stay with their organisation because they *need* to (Elele and Fields, 2010).

Normative Commitment: This kind of commitment refers to employees' feelings of obligation to remain with the organisation. According to Elele and Fields (2010), this feeling of obligation to remain with the organisation may be influenced by social norms. In other words, employees sense that staying with their organisation is the right thing to do (McKenna, 2005). Therefore employees stay with their organisation because they feel they *ought to* (Elele and Fields, 2010).

Since these three components of commitment have different mind-sets, they may have different implications for employee performance (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Powell and Meyer, 2004): Affective commitment is characterised by a strong belief and acceptance of an organisation's goals and values. This strong sense of identification of employees, who are influenced by affective commitment with their organisation, may make them willing to exert considerable effort on behalf of their organisation (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990). An organisation where the majority of its employees are influenced by affective commitment may therefore stand a greater chance of increasing its employee performance: Similarly employees who are influenced by normative commitment may have substantial impact on performance because they have a mind-set of an obligation to their organisation: However, continuance commitment may have the least impact on performance because the mind-set of employees with continuance commitment is only that of self-interest; unlike employees with affective commitment, there is no love nor passion for the organisation, or unlike employees influenced by normative commitment, there is no sense of obligation towards the organisation. Employees influenced by continuance commitment may not be happy with their organisation but they stay on only because it is convenient for them: either they have no better options or they would lose more by leaving. Either way, it serves

only the self-interests of the employees without any consideration for the interests of the organisation. Such employees are likely to exert the minimum effort on behalf of their organisation so long as it is enough to retain them in their jobs. Some research evidence seems to support the relative impact of these three components of organisational commitment (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Begley and Czajka, 1993; Meyer *et al.*, 1993; Leong *et al.*, 1994; Saks, 1995). Affective commitment seems to have the strongest impact on employee performance, followed by normative commitment. Continuance commitment seems to have the least impact on employee performance. Ideally, organisations may wish to have employees who are largely influenced by affective commitment.

2.5.3 Incidence of Commitment

Generally, commitment is deemed to affect the organisation as a whole. However, in practical terms, commitment can also be directed towards sub-units or elements of the organisation (Becker, 1992; Meyer and Allen, 1997). McKenna (2005) argues that an employee's commitment may focus on specific factors of the organisation such as the boss, team, projects or customers. Earlier, Brooks (2002) had argued about the general acceptability of the impact of commitment on a range of foci, such as work unit, top management, peers and the organisation itself. With such differentiation in the focus of commitment, McKenna (2005) further argues that it is possible for an employee to have *continuance* commitment to an organisation overall, but that he or she may have *affective* commitment to a manager, peers in his/her team, or to customers.

2.5.4 Theory and Evidence of the relationship between Commitment and Performance

It has generally been perceived that a higher commitment level would lead to higher performance. A number of studies provide evidence of the impact of commitment on performance. Mowday *et al.* (1982) and Gregson (1992) have shown that commitment has an impact on job performance and turnover. Similarly, other studies have shown commitment's impact on several dimensions of the organisation that affect performance. Commitment has been shown to impact on absenteeism (Angle and Perry, 1981), pro-social behaviour (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986), and turnover intentions or likelihood (Porter *et al.*, 1974; Porter *et al.*, 1976; Poznanski and Bline, 1997).

Steers (1977) however found that commitment was generally unrelated to performance (weak relationship). Rashid *et al.* (2003) argued that Steers' findings of weak relationship between commitment and performance may be due to the following reasons. First, it was revealed that the two samples used in Steers (1977) study had reported difficulties in trying to reduce their absenteeism and their turnover rates. Additionally, Rashid *et al.* (2003) observed that the managers in Steers' samples tended to retain more security-minded "settlers" who were loyal but did not attach any importance to high-role performance. In consequence, the two organisations constituting the two samples ended up being stable but having less productive or creative workforces. Rashid *et al.* (2003) attributed this situation to the strong concern the managers in the two organisations placed on employee retention rather than concern for high performance.

Lee and Miller (1999) also found that organisational commitment was positively related to the return on asset (ROA). Similarly, Conchas (2000) found that the more committed employees were, the greater the returns that shareholders received on their investments.

2.6 National Culture – Effect of Cultural Context on Organisational Commitment and its resultant influence on Performance

It has been shown by studies in the previous sections that there is a link between commitment and employee performance (Mowday *et al.*, 1982; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986; Williams and Hazer, 1986; Gregson, 1992; Poznanski and Bline, 1997; Lee and Miller, 1999; Conchas, 2000; Rashid *et al.*, 2003). However, whatever link there is between commitment and employee performance, that link is not without the influence of the cultural environment in which the organisation operates (Clugston *et al.*, 2000; McKenna, 2005; Kirkman *et al.*, 2006). Numerous studies on culture (Bennett, 1977; McCarthy, 1998; Hofstede, 2001; Sagie and Aycan, 2003; House *et al.*, 2004; Triandis, 2004; Fujimoto and Härtel, 2006; Kanungo, 2006; Fontaine, 2007; Elele and Fields, 2010) underscore its importance in management theory and research. It has been pointed out that Anglo-derived management practices may not have the same effects when applied in other contexts or settings, particularly if these settings differ

substantially from western countries, such as the United Kingdom (Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede, 2001). Indeed, previous studies on employee participation have been criticised for neglecting to consider their cultural contexts (Hofstede, 2001; Sagie and Aycan, 2003). It is, however, not uncommon for researchers to mix up the various forms of culture (Rashid *et al.*, 2003). In relation to corporate culture, Scholz (1987) stresses the importance of making distinctions in what we refer to as *culture*. McKenna (2005) accordingly attempts some form of classification of culture; namely, Culturalist Tradition, Institutionalism, Universalist, and Contingency or Contextual Approach. McKenna (2005) refers to the culture that is derived from the socio-economic life of a people as Culturalist Tradition. This approach is primarily associated with the work of (Hofstede, 1980; Hofstede, 1991) which reflects differences in racio-ethnicity and societal values (Triandis, 1980). Essentially, this type is synonymous with national culture. The main argument of this approach is that cultural differences act as the basis for the differences in management practice and organisational behaviour. This approach further assumes that "culture" would determine the type of commitment an employee would have to an organisation (McKenna, 2005). Institutionalism (Institutional Culture) as espoused by Wilkinson (1995) and Chen (1995) emphasises a broader explanation of cross-national social, economic, organisational and managerial differences. These differences include political, legal, cultural (culturalist tradition) and socio-economic dimensions.

The Universalist approach proposes an increasing similarity of global business systems.

Conversely, the Contingency or Contextual approach suggests that managerial and organisational differences between industries might be more important than differences between cultures (culturalist tradition). In essence the norms of the industry and the environment within which organisations operate may be more important as drivers of organisational responses and behaviours than "cultural" norms (culturalist tradition) (McKenna, 2005). It is further suggested that at a micro-level, the contingency approach depends on social relations and other factors within any particular organisation as drivers of managerial and organisational behaviour (Townley, 1998).

Since the present study involves the exploration of western concepts in organisations from a different cultural background (in an African context), it seems obvious or reasonable to explore the Culturalist tradition in relation to

organisational commitment. The point of interest here is to find out whether these western concepts equally apply to organisations in Ghana by significantly influencing employee performance through the mediation of organisational commitment. According to Hofstede (1999), management processes are embedded in cultural values which differ from society to society but which show strong continuity within each society. On this basis, it is expected that culture will be a predictor of employee performance through the mediation of organisational commitment. Therefore culture may make a difference in employee performance for organisations in Ghana.

Two main studies that have greatly influenced the Culturalist's tradition are those done by Hofstede (1980) and House *et al.* (2004).

Hofstede (1980) pioneering work identified several cultural dimensions: These are individualism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, long-term orientation and power distance. Within Hofstede's data, Ghana, Nigeria and Sierra Leone were placed into one West African group as being collectivistic and having a high power distance culture. Thus this cluster is described as scoring high on Power Distance, low on Individualism (and therefore high Collectivists), moderate on Masculinity, high on Uncertainty Avoidance, and low on Long Term Orientation.

Conversely, the developed economies of the west were placed in the category of countries that have individualistic and low power distance culture.

Building on the work of Hofstede (1980), House *et al.* (2004) in the GLOBE study that covered 62 countries, identified the dimensions of assertiveness, performance orientation, humane orientation, future orientation, institutional collectivism, in-group collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, power distance and gender egalitarianism.

The culturalist tradition, particularly with reference to Hofstede's categorisations(Hofstede, 1980; 2001) and House et al.'s GLOBE study (2004), has been widely criticised for its over-simplicity (Wilkinson, 1995). Wilkinson seems to suggest that culture is more complex and therefore all cultures of the world cannot be placed in such discrete categories. Recently, Elele and Fields (2010) have also criticised (Hofstede (1980); 2001) and House *et al.* (2004) categorisations. Nigeria, according to these categorisations, falls into a high power distance culture and America falls into a low power distance culture. Based on the theory of this dimension, Elele and Fields (2010) expected American

employees to have more desires for PDM (participation in decision making) than Nigerian employees. However, contrary to expectations, Nigerian and American employees did not differ in their desires for PDM as suggested by the characterisations derived from this dimension (Elele and Fields, 2010). While these criticisms are valid, they do not in any way totally discount the merits of these categorisations. Indeed, Elele and Fields conceded that these generalisations about cultural tendencies are useful in some circumstances (Elele and Fields, 2010): at the least, these categorisations may serve as guide and point of reference for further research. The present study believes that the Culturalist tradition, for that matter, still has some merits that need to be explored. As expressed earlier, the growing number of studies on the Culturalist tradition indicates its importance and relevance in management theory and practice (Kim, 1994; Sinha and Tripathi, 1994; Choi *et al.*, 1999; Hofstede, 2001; Sagie and Aycan, 2003; Williams, 2003; House *et al.*, 2004; Triandis, 2004; Fujimoto and Härtel, 2006; Kanungo, 2006; Fontaine, 2007; Elele and Fields, 2010).

In a study of cultural socialisation, Clugston *et al.* (2000) tested whether individualised measures of power distance, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and collectivism were related to an employee's level of commitment. Combining Hofstede (1980) model and Meyer and Allen (1984) organisational commitment components, Clugston *et al.* (2000) found that cultural dimensions were significant predictors of multiple bases of foci of commitment. Uncertainty avoidance was related to continuance commitment but power distance was related to normative commitment. The collectivism dimension was however found to be related to all the three types of organisational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative). In a similar study, Geiger *et al.* (1998) assessed the impact of cultural values on the escalation of commitment. Geiger *et al.* (1998) study was based on the relationship between escalating commitment and Hofstede (1980) value dimensions (power distance, collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, and masculinity). Cultural values were found to mediate the relationship between exposure to an escalation situation and escalation commitment. The study also showed that the higher the level of masculinity and individualism in a culture, the more likely that an escalation situation would lead to organisational commitment (Geiger *et al.*, 1998). Finally it was found out that the weaker the uncertainty avoidance in a culture is, the more likely that an escalation situation will lead to escalation of commitment (Geiger *et al.*, 1998). With this research evidence, it is expected that organisational commitment of

employees in Ghanaian organisations will be influenced by several dimensions of the Culturalist Tradition. The present study explores three most relevant dimensions of culture as they relate to the commitment of employees of Ghanaian organisations. These dimensions are the Individualistic versus Collectivism (I/C), Power Distance, and Performance Orientation.

According to Triandis (1989) observation, cross-cultural studies across the cultures of the world reveal that the most important dimension of cultural differences is the relative emphasis on individualism and collectivism. Triandis (2004) further argues that the Individual versus Collectivism (I/C) dimension is the most important factor in studying cultural differences. Oyserman *et al.* (2002) indicate that the Individualism/Collectivism (I/C) dimension provides a powerful explanatory tool for understanding the variability in the behaviour of individuals in different parts of the world. Williams (2003)also argues that the importance attached to the I/C dimension is due to the fact that the I/C dimension makes up a portion of a culture's core set of values and serves as organising principles for both interpersonal and intrapersonal relationships. Aside from the fact that the Individualism/Collectivism dimension is normally researched into, alongside with the Power Distance, and Performance Orientation dimensions (Wang *et al.*, 2011), in this study Power Distance has special relevance to Transformational Leadership since it defines the relationship between leaders and followers, and similarly, Performance Orientation has specific relevance to Employee Performance.

2.6.1 The Individualistic and Collectivists (I/C) Dimension

The literature on the I/C dimension places considerable emphasis on an important cultural reality, in the sense that individuals and the society at large can simultaneously hold I/C beliefs and attitudes (Wagner and Moch, 1986; Kim, 1994; Sinha and Tripathi, 1994).The concepts of individualism and collectivism relate to the attitude of any society with respect to how it faces life's challenges. Basically, any society in which individuals see themselves as largely independent of their society is referred to as an individualistic culture. Similarly a society where individuals see themselves as largely part of and dependent on the society or social groups within the society is referred to as a collectivistic culture. House *et al.* (2004) describe the I/C dimension as the extent or degree to which a person defines herself or himself as either part of a group or an independent agent of the group and the degree to which a society reinforces group welfare and harmony or individual achievement.

In more individualistic cultures such as the United Kingdom, where employees tend to look after themselves and their immediate families, 'self' may be viewed as autonomous and independent of the group, and individual goals may take precedence over group goals. Employees in an individualistic culture are therefore more likely to influence employee performance through the mediation of normative commitment and continuance commitment.

In more collective cultures such as Ghana, though, group loyalty and harmony may be encouraged even at the expense of individual pursuits; rewards tend to be driven by seniority; critical decisions may be made by the group over and above individual considerations; and duties and obligations may be important determinants for social behaviours (House *et al.*, 2004). Employees in a collective culture like Ghana are more likely to influence employee performance through the mediation of affective commitment and normative commitment.

2.6.2 Power Distance

Power Distance is the extent to which the society accepts inequality in power as legitimate (House *et al.*, 2004). A society with high power distance tends to differentiate people on the basis of class, makes resources available to only a few, and controls information and social interaction. In a high power distance culture, power is seen as a means of providing social order and relational harmony. Conversely, low power distance cultures tend to have a large middle class, share information widely, make information available to all and view power as linked to coercion (House *et al.*, 2004). In a high power distance culture like Ghana, employees tend to distance themselves from leaders and hold leaders in very high esteem. There is sense of feeling of a "master-servant" relationship. Employees see it as their duty to only obey leadership, but not to give their opinions on work-related issues. Similarly leadership may also see decision making as a preserve of leadership and would neither expect nor encourage suggestions or opinions from followers or subordinates. In such a paternalistic society as Ghana where the upbringing of children reinforces obedience and external punishment (Oyserman *et al.*, 2002), a clear distinction is made between leadership and followers (between bosses and subordinates). Followers are therefore more likely to be influenced by only normative commitment and probably also by continuance commitment, but not by affective commitment.

2.6.3 Performance Orientation

This dimension describes the degree to which persons in society tend to place more value on task accomplishment than on societal expediency (House *et al.*, 2004). Performance orientation also refers to the extent to which a society encourages and rewards innovation, high standards, and excellence (Elele and Fields, 2010).

High-performing cultures promote individual self-determination and achievement, competiveness, initiative, and direct and explicit communication. Western economies, like the United Kingdom, in the data of GLOBE studies are identified as countries that are high on performance orientation (House *et al.*, 2004). Employees in organisations, in a stimulating environment that promotes their personal development, are more likely to be influenced by affective commitment towards higher output for which they receive direct rewards.

Lower-performing cultures on the contrary tend to value family and societal relationships over competitive success. Lower-performing cultures place much premium on harmony and frown on any person or circumstances that undermine group cohesion, such that even a formal feedback may be viewed as discomfiting and judgemental (House *et al.*, 2004). Similarly, the data of the GLOBE studies place Ghana among countries that have low performance orientation (House *et al.*, 2004). Employees in Ghana may be influenced by affective commitment and normative commitment but they may not necessarily translate into higher performance but rather towards harmony and other human issues.

In a similar study between Nigeria and the United States of America, Elele and Fields (2010) found some relationship between culture and organisational commitment. For Nigerian employees, both actual levels of participation and actual versus desired participation were related to affective and normative organisational commitment. Neither measure of participation was related to continuance commitment. For Americans, only actual versus desired levels of participation were positively related with affective and normative commitment. Actual levels of participation were negatively related to continuance commitment.

Elele and Fields (2010) findings of culture's impact on commitment, however, was not conclusive because the study failed to measure the influence of corporate culture. This present study extends the work of Elele and Fields (2010) by

proposing to explore both corporate culture and institutional culture of Ghanaian organisations.

The next section would therefore explore the influence of corporate culture on employee performance.

2.7 Organisational Culture

As evidenced from the preceding section, a study of this nature that involves many organisations would be incomplete without exploring the impact of Organisational or Corporate Culture (Hajro, 2009). It has been argued that national and organisational cultures may not be totally independent of each other and that in reality there is a constant interplay between the two (McCarthy and Winters, 1995; Winters, 1996). McCarthy and Winters (1995), and Winters (1996), explored the relationship between cultural values and interpersonal perceptions of Russian and Irish managers who worked together in a joint venture organisation in Moscow. The research findings indicated that Irish managers tended to advocate masculine values of individuality and advancement (which is a reflection of their national culture). Conversely, and also in consonance with their feminine national culture, Russian managers exhibited qualities such as strong emphasis on loyalty and relationships. This therefore seems to suggest that the national culture and organisational culture should be explored simultaneously in any relevant research for a better appreciation of their individual and combined impacts on any variables of study. Other studies have also confirmed the need for the simultaneous exploration of both the national culture and the organisational culture (England, 1983; Weber, 1996; Hajro, 2009; Elele and Fields, 2010). Indeed Elele and Fields (2010) indicated that the lack of measurement of organisational culture in their study robbed them of the certainty of their findings. In the study, and contrary to expectations, Elele and Fields (2010) found similarities among American employees and Nigerian employees who came from national cultures with substantial differences on three dimensions – power distance, performance orientation, and individualism/collectivism. In their attempt to explain this unexpected finding, they suggested that the observed similarities among Nigerian and American employees could be due to the institutionalised similarities in the organisational cultures of their sample. However, these findings were not validated since they failed to measure specific aspects of organisational

culture. The specific aspects of the organisational cultures that Elele and Fields (2010) failed to measure include for example the type of organisational cultures (e.g. competitive, entrepreneurial, bureaucratic, and consensual) and the levels of the organisational cultures (e.g. visible, expressed values, and underlying assumptions).

Although this is not a comparative study, it still seems prudent to explore both national and organisational cultures simultaneously since this study also involves the exploration of western concepts in an African context (Ghana). Not many studies exist in the literature, which have explored – simultaneously – the effects of both national culture and organisational culture on performance. Yiing and Ahmad (2009) observed that only few studies have explored the relationships between multiple organisational variables (such as national culture, organisational culture, performance, leadership and commitment) simultaneously. Much of the extant literature focuses only on independent relationships among organisational variables, such as the relationship between commitment and performance only (Leong *et al.*, 1994; Lee and Miller, 1999; Conchas, 2000; Suliman and Iles, 2000), or that between culture and performance only (Lim, 1995; Chow *et al.*, 2003; Lee and Yu, 2004; de Hilal *et al.*, 2009), or between organisational culture and commitment only (Lok and Crawford, 1999; Mathew and Ogbonna, 2009). A study exploring the relationships between corporate culture, national culture, leadership, commitment and employee performance simultaneously would fill this gap by providing some insight into the complexities of the interactions of organisational variables and their relevance for the performance of organisations.

To some extent, organisational culture acts as the micro environment and the national culture acts as the macro environment within which the organisation operates, all of which, even though varied, influence the organisation simultaneously (Cooper *et al.*, 2001; Zellmer-Bruhn *et al.*, 2001). According to Rashid *et al.* (2003), Corporate or Organisational Culture has received much attention over the past two decades due to its effects and potential impact on organisational success. Researchers' and consultants' interest in the concept as a means of guiding employees' behaviour in the organisation towards greater success was cited by Deal and Kennedy (2000). Heskett and Kotter (1992) argued that organisational culture could enhance employee performance. This suggests that organisational culture could be fashioned out in such a way that it will facilitate employee performance. Consistent with this argument, Smircich (1983)

stressed that organisational culture may be the critical factor that managers can use to direct the course of their organisations. Consequently, culture is an organisational factor that has huge potential to positively influence employee performance. Similarly, Schein (2006) contended that the most important function of top-level leaders is the creation and managing of organisational culture This position is also confirmed by the 1998 Fortune survey among the CEOs of the most admired companies (*Fortune*, 1998). This survey of CEOs indicated that organisational culture was the most important lever in enhancing their capabilities (*Fortune*, 1998). More recently, other scholars have also supported this position. For example, Trefry (2006) observed that previous research explored organisational culture as the prime factor in the success or failure of a large-scale change effort of organisations as well as the source of competitive advantage in post-merger/acquisition integration. Xenikou and Simosi (2006) also found that the achievement and adaptive cultural orientations have a direct impact on performance of a large financial organisation in Greece.

2.7.1 Concept

The concept of corporate or organisational culture like many other concepts in management does not easily lend itself to a universal definition (Hajro, 2009). Therefore a number of scholars have articulated the concept differently. The following are some of the definitions provided by some authors.

2.7.1.1 Definitions

According to Daft (2005), organisational culture refers to the set of values, assumptions, understandings and norms that shape the behaviour of employees of an organisation. These values, norms, beliefs, understandings and assumptions do not only act as the basis of correct behaviour in the organisation but also act as the means of socialising new members into the organisation.

Pheysey (2002), however, perceived organisational culture as including all the experiences that employees of an organisation have gone through over a period of time. These experiences acquired over a period of time are reflected in their beliefs, myths, rituals, symbols and practices (Pheysey, 2002).

Conversely, Van der Post *et al.* (1998) viewed organisational culture as the "personality" of an organisation. He argued that culture is to the organisation what personality is to the individual, so that culture is perceived as the unifying force that provides meaning and direction to the organisation. This sense of

direction is achieved through the systems of beliefs and values that ultimately shape employee behaviour (Van der Post *et al.*, 1998). Organisational culture is also perceived as the dominant values espoused by an organisation or the set of values that prescribe how things are done in an organisation (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Quinn, 1988).

Schein (1992b) also defined organisational culture as a pattern of basic assumptions invented, discovered or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration. For Schein (1999), culture is the sum total of all the shared and taken-for-granted assumptions that a group has learned throughout its history. Culture is therefore determined to be the residue of success and also the structure and control system to generate behavioural standards (Schein, 1992b).

2.7.1.2 Consensus across Definitions

Although all the above definitions of organisational culture seem varied, there seems to be some consensus on the main themes. It seems safe to suggest that many scholars agree that organisational culture refers to a set of values, beliefs and behaviour patterns that constitute the core identity of organisations, and helps in shaping employees' behaviour (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Kotter and Heskett, 1992; Schein, 1992a; Van der Post *et al.*, 1998; Deshpande and Farley, 1999; Pheysey, 2002; Daft, 2005).

2.7.1.3 Measurement of Culture

Although Schein (1992b) argued that Corporate Culture cannot be measured and therefore could not be studied quantitatively, the evidence in the literature seems to suggest otherwise. For example, Denison and Mishra (1995) demonstrated that corporate culture can be studied both qualitatively and quantitatively. In a study to explore the relationship between corporate culture and organisational effectiveness, these authors used both qualitative and quantitative approaches, and found corporate culture to be measurable. Denison and Mishra (1995) further suggested that qualitative and quantitative approaches should be viewed as complimentary approaches in the study of corporate culture.

As varied as the various definitions are, so also are the types of organisational cultures as perceived by different scholars. These organisational types are discussed in the next section.

2.7.2 Types of Organisational/Corporate Culture

According to Yiing and Ahmad (2009), the study of organisational culture can take on a multitude of aspects, including levels (visible, expressed values, and underlying assumptions); strength (strong or weak), and adaptiveness (adaptive or unadaptive). Organisational culture can therefore be assessed from many angles which may result in conceptually different but fundamentally similar theories or models (Yiing and Ahmad, 2009).

In keeping with this view, a number of scholars have suggested various typologies of organisational/corporate culture. Culture, for example, can be categorised as either Competitive/Entrepreneurial/Bureaucratic/Consensual (Deshpande and Farley, 1999); Clan/Adhocracy/Hierarchical/Market (Quinn and Cameron, 1983; Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983; Cameron and Freeman, 1985); Adaptability/Achievement/Clan/Bureaucratic (Daft, 2005); Communal/Fragmented/Networked/Mercenary (Goffee and Jones, 1998), or Bureaucratic/Innovative/Supportive (Wallach, 1983). It is beyond the scope of this thesis to account for the details of all the various typologies; however an overview of some of these typologies is given in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2: Components of the Various Cultural Typologies

	Components of Deshpande and Farley's (1991) Typology
Competitive Culture	Values relate to goals, competitive advantage, marketing superiority and profits.
Entrepreneurial Culture	Emphasises innovation, risk-taking, high levels of dynamism and creativity.
Bureaucratic Culture	Places much value on formalisation, rules, standard operating procedures, and hierarchical coordination. The long-term objective is to ensure stability, predictability and efficiency.
Consensual Culture	The values of importance to this cultural dimension include loyalty, personal commitment, extensive socialisation, self-management, social influence and the elements of tradition.
	Components of Wallach's (1983) Typology
Innovative Culture	This refers to an organisation which provides a challenging work environment which encourages creativity and is also results-oriented.
Supportive Culture	This refers to a culture that provides a trusting work environment which promotes teamwork. It is basically people-oriented and provides assistance and encouragement for all employees to give of their best.
Bureaucratic Culture	This refers to a work environment which is highly structured, organised, hierarchical, and systematic. Processes are compartmentalised and lines of authority are clearly defined.
	Components of Quinn's (1988) Typology
Clan Culture	This culture type produces a warm and friendly workplace where people can freely share knowledge.
Adhocracy Culture	This cultural type provides a dynamic, entrepreneurial, and creative workplace which encourages individual initiative and provides freedom for people who are willing to stick their necks out and to take risks.
Market Culture	Produces a workplace with hard-driving competitiveness; a results-oriented organisation led by tough and demanding leaders who are hard drivers, producers, and competitors.
Hierarchy	This type produces a workplace with formalised and structured

Culture	procedures which govern what people do
	Denison and Mishra's (1995) Typology
Adaptability Culture	This cultural type describes an organisation that has the capacity to make internal changes in response to external conditions.
Consistency Culture	This indicates the degree of normative integration based on internalised values as a means of more effective means of achieving coordination.
Mission Culture	This reflects the long-term vision of an organisation other than economic considerations. It is the reason for the existence of the organisation which prescribes acceptable course of action for the organisation and its members.
Involvement Culture	This indicates the degree of involvement and participation of members of an organisation in the business of the organisation which promotes the sense of ownership and responsibility.

Based on their typology, Deshpande and Farley (1999) studied the relationship between corporate culture and market orientation in Japanese and Indian firms. Their findings showed that most successful firms in India had entrepreneurial culture, whereas for Japanese firms, those that were most successful had entrepreneurial and competitive cultures. Consensual culture was also found to be prevalent among the Japanese firms. The study of Deshpande and Farley (1999) also found that entrepreneurial culture was a more important predictor of good performance for Indian firms whereas competitive culture was a more important predictor for Japanese firms. The results of their study further showed that entrepreneurial and competitive cultures (which involved innovation and risk taking) performed better than consensual and bureaucratic cultures (which were more inward looking and closed). Based on the typology of Deshpande and Farley (1999), Rashid *et al.* (2003) found that all the four cultural types have significant influence on both the return on assets and return on investments. The findings were consistent with results of previous research on corporate culture and financial performance (Kotter and Heskett, 1992; Ravendran, 1993; Van der Post *et al.*, 1998).

Another typology based on the competing values framework is developed by Quinn and his associates (Quinn, 1988; Quinn and Spreitzer, 1991; Cameron *et al.*, 2006). The four distinct categories, each with its own strategic emphasis, are

Group, Developmental, Hierarchical, and Rational (Quinn and Spreitzer, 1991; Cameron *et al.*, 2006). The developmental culture, for example emphasises flexibility and change and also deep concerns for creativity, growth and external adaptation (Quinn, 1988; Lau and Ngo, 1996). The developmental culture has been found to be positively related to a firm's innovation performance (Lau and Ngo, 2004).

Wallach (1983) considers an organisation's culture as a combination of three categories – innovative, supportive or bureaucratic – to varying degrees. Based on Wallach (1983) typology, Yiing and Ahmad (2009) undertook a study that examined the relationships between leadership, organisational culture, organisational commitment, job satisfaction and employee performance. Yiing and Ahmad (2009) report that although all three types of organisational culture did not moderate the relationship between organisational commitment and employee performance, their findings were somewhat in agreement with previous western studies, where supportive cultures were predominantly associated with higher levels of job satisfaction and performance, while bureaucratic cultures did the opposite (Krausz *et al.*, 1995; Silverthorne, 2004).

It is interesting to note that there exists some overlap amongst the typologies proposed by the various scholars. For example Deshpande and Farley (1999) Entrepreneurial Culture and Bureaucratic Culture overlaps (Quinn (1988); Denison and Mishra (1995)) and Quinn and Spreitzer (1991) Developmental Culture and Hierarchical Culture respectively: Similarly, Denison and Mishra (1995) Adaptability/Entrepreneurial Culture and Bureaucratic Culture overlaps Wallach (1983) Innovative and Bureaucratic Cultures respectively. Whereas the bureaucratic track seems to be the most stable organisational culture, the adaptive/entrepreneurial (innovative) track seems to be the most dynamic. Given the present turbulent and ever-changing business environment, it seems safe to suggest that the adaptive/entrepreneurial (innovative) culture would be more relevant to organisations that want to live up to the challenges of the present globalised economy (Daft, 2007). Daft (2007)p.368, describes the adaptive/entrepreneurial (innovative) culture as,

> *…characterised by strategic focus on the external environment through flexibility and change to meet customer needs. The culture encourages entrepreneurial values, norms, and beliefs that support the capacity of the organisation to detect, interpret, and translate signals from the environment into behaviour responses. This type of company however doesn't just react quickly to environmental changes – it actively creates changes.*

The proactive nature of the adaptive (innovative) culture arguably makes it the most effective and high-performing culture for present-day organisations which operate in turbulent environments (Daft, 2007).

Even though culture is generally perceived at the organisational level, in practice there could be several sub-cultures within every organisation (McCarthy, 1998). These sub-cultures which are argued to reflect the problems, experiences, situations and conditions under which employees work may be more numerous in larger organisations (McCarthy, 1998). Sub-cultures may be formed horizontally, vertically or both: for example a horizontal sub-culture may be formed among functional specialists like auditors, accountants, sales executives, etc., and vertical sub-cultures may be formed if a product division has a culture uniquely different from other divisions (McCarthy, 1998). Mostly, sub-cultures may be formed according to departments or work units, geographical locations and/or by gender (Maddock and Parkin, 1993; McCarthy, 1998). Irrespective of the number and nature of the sub-cultures in an organisation, the common or dominant culture that runs through all the sub-cultures emerges as the organisational culture (Robins, 1990). The strength of an organisation's culture may therefore be determined by the extent to which the values and goals of the sub-cultures are aligned to organisational values and goals.

2.7.3 Strong and Weak Organisational Cultures

Organisational culture may be referred to as weak or strong depending upon how endemic and how widespread it is in the organisation (Peters and Waterman, 1982; Hofstede *et al*., 1990; McCarthy, 1998; Lee and Yu, 2004). Strong cultures are characterised by strong norms; which are very clear, unambiguous, unbending and strictly enforced so that deviation attracts harsh sanctions. Strong cultures are normally associated with companies that have been around for quite some time; long enough to reinforce what has worked in the past and discard what has not worked in the past (Peters and Waterman, 1982; Schein, 1990; McCarthy, 1998). Conversely, a weak culture is the one in which norms are not clearly defined or entrenched but rather accommodative of new values (Peters and Waterman, 1982; Hofstede *et al*., 1990). It is argued that strong cultures predict corporate achievement (Hofstede *et al*., 1990; Kotter and Heskett, 1992; Beaumont, 1993; Morgan, 1997). The premise of this argument is that organisations benefit from highly motivated employees who are dedicated and unified by common goals (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Peters and Waterman, 1982;

Kotter and Heskett, 1992). Studies involving the quantitative analysis of firms by Kotter and Heskett (1992) and Gordon and DiTomaso (1992) showed that firms which had strong cultures outperformed firms with weak cultures. This was because the firms with strong cultures facilitated coordination and control, emphasised common goals, and increased employees' efforts. It is further argued by Tushman and O'Reilly III (1997) that through employees' clarity about their organisational objectives, strong cultures enhance an organisation's ability to execute its strategy. Gordon and DiTomaso (1992) also demonstrated that consensus surrounding cultural values increased a company's performance.

These studies basically measured culture through the nomothetic approach, mostly through surveys. However Kotter and Heskett (1992) also used the nomothetic approach in a longitudinal study. Consequently the present study also employs the nomothetic approach.

Although the above studies indicate a positive relationship between strong cultures and employee performance, this appears to be so only in stable external environments. By reanalysing the Kotter and Heskett (1992) data, Sørensen (2002) found that organisations with strong cultures performed more consistently over time only when industry volatility was low. Sorensen observed that strong-culture organisations may even be ill-suited for exploratory learning by having greater difficulty in recognising the need to change. Since strong-culture organisations fail to discover alternative routines, technologies and purposes, the reliability of their benefits diminish in volatile environments (Sørensen, 2002). Hofstede *et al.* (1990) however argue that cultural strength may be good or bad depending on where the organisation wants to go. Flynn and Chatman (2001) observed that even though generally cultural strength limits individual creativity, creativity may be even better facilitated by a strong culture that emphasises particular innovation-enhancing norms. It is therefore suggested that for organisations to enhance their performance, they may do well to have strong cultures that have norms that reflect the realities of both their internal and external environments (Daft, 2007).

2.7.4 Culture's Impact on Performance (directly or mediated by commitment)

A considerable body of research has demonstrated the linkage between organisational culture and firm performance (Saffold, 1988; Denison, 1990; Cameron and Freeman, 1991; Kotter and Heskett, 1992; Ogbonna and Harris,

2000; Wilderom *et al.*, 2000; Rashid *et al.*, 2003; Xenikou and Simosi, 2006; Ngo and Loi, 2008; Asree *et al.*, 2010).

For example, in a study which investigated the relationships among HR flexibility, organisational culture, and firm performance, the expectations of the researchers were met by the data collected from multi-national corporations (MNCs) in Hong Kong. Ngo and Loi (2008) anticipated that HR flexibility would foster the development of adaptive culture (a type of organisational culture that emphasises responsiveness and flexibility) which would in turn lead to high HR-related and market-related performance. The empirical results largely supported their hypotheses. They found that employee behaviour flexibility and HR practice flexibility had positive effects on adaptability culture. Employee skills flexibility however did not have an effect on adaptive culture (Ngo and Loi, 2008). Additionally, they found that adaptability culture had a direct impact on HR-related performance and an indirect impact on market-related performance as mediated by HR-related performance. Ngo and Loi (2008) argued that HR-related performance (e. g. employees' morale and staff retention) is the proximate outcome of HRM and organisational culture. They further argued that this aspect of a firm's performance subsequently affects performance in other aspects such as sales, profitability and new product development. Concluding, Ngo and Loi (2008) stressed that their argument is consistent with findings of some recent HRM-firm performance studies (Way and Johnson, 2005; Katou and Budhwar, 2006).

Xenikou and Simosi (2006) also explored the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational cultural orientations, as well as the joint effect of transformational leadership and organisational culture on business unit performance. This study showed that organisational culture mediates the effect of transformational leadership on performance. Similarly, organisational culture's mediating role in the leadership-performance link has been demonstrated by Ogbonna and Harris (2000). Specifically, Ogbonna and Harris (2000) found that supportive, participative and instrumental leadership styles had an indirect effect on performance via their impact on organisational culture. Rashid *et al.* (2003), also in a study to examine the influence of corporate culture and organisational commitment on financial performance in Malaysian companies, found a significant correlation between corporate culture and organizational commitment. Furthermore, they found out that both corporate culture type and organisational commitment have an influence on financial

performance of the companies (Rashid *et al.*, 2003). Asree *et al.* (2010) also investigated the operations strategy of service firms (hotels) in order to ascertain whether leadership competency and organisational culture will affect performance (increase in revenue) through the mediation of their responsiveness to their employees and customers. The empirical data indicated that leadership competency and organisational culture have positive relationships with responsiveness. Additionally, responsiveness had a positive relationship with hotel revenue – performance (Asree *et al.*, 2010).

The dynamics of the ability of organisational culture to influence employee performance may be explained in several ways. Firstly, it is contended that organisational culture can influence employee performance by energising and motivating employees, unifying people around shared goals, and shaping and guiding employee behaviours (Daft, 2007). Secondly, according to the resource-based view, organisational culture is seen as a valuable, unique, and inimitable resource. This forms the basis for a firm's sustained competitive advantage and hence enhances performance (Barney, 1986; Fiol, 1991; Chan *et al.*, 2004). Finally, organisational culture may help the organisation adapt to the changing market conditions, particularly when its strategic focus is on the external environment rather than on internal functioning. In such situations the organisation can respond promptly to customer needs and the moves of its competitors, and this improves organisational effectiveness (Daft, 2007).

Generally, there are limited empirical studies that have examined the relationship between leadership and culture and their joint impact on organisational outcomes such as performance (Schein, 1985; Trice and Beyer, 1993; Tichey and Cohen, 1997). Schein (2006) argues that the most important function of top-level leadership is the creation and management of organisational culture. Consistent with this argument, some research exists that has found that a good fit between appropriate leadership behaviours and certain types of organisational cultures can positively influence employees' performance (Hickman and Silva, 1984; Lim, 1995; Harris and Ogbonna, 2001). Organisational culture has also been found to play an important role in generating commitment and enhancing performance (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Peters and Waterman, 1982; Lok and Crawford, 2001).

2.7.5 Effects of Culture Types

Existing literature indicates that the positive correlation that exists between organisational culture and performance varies with the type of organisational

culture employed (Ouchi, 1981; Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Kilmann *et al.*, 1985; Denison, 1990). Rashid *et al.* (2003) conducted a survey of 200 companies listed on the Kuala Lumpur Stock Exchange and found that different types of corporate culture significantly affect financial performance of these companies (returns on investment, returns on assets). However, Yiing and Ahmad (2009) argue that different types of leadership behaviour affect organisational commitment which in turn influences both satisfaction and employee performance. The effects of the interactions between these organisational variables are in turn prescribed by the type of organisational culture employed by the companies. This argument is also confirmed by Li (2004) in a Taiwanese study which indicated that the effect of leadership behaviour on organisational commitment differs by organisational culture type. Findings from Yiing and Ahmad (2009) Malaysian study further indicated that bureaucratic, innovative and supportive cultures have significant moderating effects on the relationship between participative and supportive leadership behaviours and organisational commitment. The findings further indicated that the relationship between directive leadership behaviour and organisational commitment is significantly moderated by both innovative and supportive cultures; but bureaucratic culture did not significantly moderate this relationship (Yiing and Ahmad, 2009). This finding resonates to some extent with previous western studies in which innovative and supportive cultures were found to exert stronger influence or even enhance employees' commitment than a bureaucratic culture (Wallach, 1983; Kratina, 1990; Brewer, 1993; Brewer, 1994). Yiing and Ahmad (2009) concluded that a bureaucratic environment (culture) does not affect organisational commitment and other consequences such as satisfaction and performance in the Malaysian setting. However, Rashid *et al.* (2003) found that consensual (supportive) culture positively influenced affective commitment but entrepreneurial (innovative) culture did not. Examining the relationship between organisational culture and performance, Denison (1990) found that organisations with participative culture performed better than other cultural types. Deshpande and Farley (1999) studied the relationship between corporate culture and market orientation in Indian and Japanese firms using their cultural categories of competitive, consensual, entrepreneurial and bureaucratic. Their results indicate that most successful Indian firms had an entrepreneurial culture while most Japanese firms had both entrepreneurial and competitive cultures. Consensual culture was also prevalent among the Japanese firms in the study. The study also found that entrepreneurial culture is a more important predicator of good performance for Indian firms, while competitive culture is a

more important predictor for the Japanese firms. Overall, the results showed that entrepreneurial and competitive cultures performed better than consensual and bureaucratic cultures (Deshpande and Farley, 1999).

From the above findings of the various cultural studies across the literature, it appears that there is no definite consensus about which culture type works best at all places, and in all situations, and at all times (Goffee and Jones, 1998). This is partly because there are numerous typologies and the author is not yet aware of any study that has attempted to synchronise the findings of the various studies for easy comparability. The lack of such a study amounts to an obvious gap in the literature. Although it is not the aim of this thesis to address this, this apparent gap suggests that researchers can pick and choose any cultural type that best fits their research. Consequently, some researchers argue that the culture type or dimension that may work best may be determined by where the organisation wants to go to (Hofstede *et al.*, 1990; Goffee and Jones, 1998). Consistent with this liberty, this thesis intends to adopt the cultural typology of Wallach (1983). Based on the influence of national culture of collectivism, indigenous Ghanaian organisations are generally more likely to emphasise supportive organisational culture. Conversely, multi-national organisations are more likely to adopt bureaucratic organisational culture. Finally, private organisations are more likely to lean towards innovative organisational culture.

Another concept that relates to the work environment is organisational climate. This concept is discussed in the next section.

2.8 Organisational Climate

Organisational climate, like organisational culture, is a variable that is thought to be useful in explaining how organisations can influence the feelings, attitudes, well-being and even the behaviour of employees. Employees' perception of their work environment (psychological climate) has been found to influence their job satisfaction (Schneider and Snyder, 1975), job involvement (Brown and Leigh, 1996), organisational citizenship behaviour (Moorman, 1991), burnout (McIntosh, 1995), and job performance (Pritchard and Karasick, 1973).

Unfortunately, organisational climate is a variable that has been greatly confused with other concepts in the organisational environment; for example, it has been

confused with culture (Schneider, 2000; Glisson and James, 2002; Parker *et al*., 2003). This confusion surrounding climate and culture is reflected in the indiscriminate use of these constructs in the literature; being used interchangeably without any distinction between them (Glisson and James, 2002). The next session therefore examines the differences and relationships between these two concepts (organisational climate and organisational culture).

2.8.1 Organisational Climate and Organisational Culture

According to James *et al.* (1990), organisational climate refers to the perceptions of individuals about features of the organisation, and these features are deemed to be relatively enduring or stable. Verbeke *et al.* (1998) provide a distinction between climate and culture in the following words:

> *…organisational climate is a reflection of the way people perceive and come to describe the characteristics of their environment and … organisational culture reflects the way things are done in an organisation,* (Verbeke *et al*., 1998, p.320).

It is emphasised that climate is the property of the individual since it is the individual's perceptions of organisational features that is considered, making it an individual unit of analysis (James, 1982). In contrast, the unit of reference for culture is the society or work group and therefore this makes the organisation or the work group the unit of analysis (Chan, 1998). Consequently, whereas climate is the property of the individual, culture is the property of the organisation or work group (James *et al*., 1990). Another source of difference between the two constructs is that climate refers to the perceptions of the individual of the psychological impact of the work environment on his/her psychological well-being, but culture refers to the normative beliefs and the behavioural expectations shared by employees in an organisational unit (Cooke and Szumal, 1993). The beliefs and shared expectations of employees prescribe how work is done and how employees relate to each other in the discharge of their individual and collective duties. These beliefs and shared expectations do not only regulate attitudes and behaviour at the work place but also act as the means of socialising new members into the organisation or work unit (Cooke and Szumal, 1993; Hofstede, 1998). Basically, climate deals with *perceptions of the individual* but culture deals with *group behavioural expectations* (Glisson and James, 2002). Other differences outlined by Glisson and James (2002) includes the argument that psychological, quantitative, nomothetic approaches have been used to study climate over the last half-century whereas anthropological, qualitative, and

idiographic methods have been used to study culture (Glisson and James, 2002). Therefore the methods of study of the two constructs (climate and culture) are entirely different. The different methods of study also reflect the different disciplines and theoretical backgrounds of the two constructs – climate from Psychology with a positivistic approach, and culture from Anthropology with an ethnographic approach (Glisson and James, 2002).

2.8.2 Concept of Organisational Climate

Organisational climate may be referred to as the shared psychological climate of members of an organisation (James and James, 1989; Glisson and James, 2002; Parker *et al.*, 2003). Psychological climate refers to the perceptions, evaluations and assessments of the impact of work environment on an individual employee's psychological well-being (James and James, 1989). In other words, it is how an individual interprets and responds psychologically to environmental factors of the organisation in the course of one's duties. Sense-making of organisational contexts is deemed to be derived from individual properties or characteristics of people within the organisation: When employees of a work unit agree on their perceptions of the impact of their work environment, their shared psychological climate reflect their unit or organisational climate (Jones and James, 1979; Joyce and Slocum, 1984). James *et al.* (1990) strongly argued that the properties of individuals determine the meanings derived from the organisational contexts. These meanings derived from the organisational context (psychological impact of the work environment) can be measured at the individual level as multiple dimensions. Hart *et al.* (2000) give seven dimensions: (a) *goal congruence*, which is the degree of fit between the goals of the individual and the goals of the organisation; (b) *professional interaction*, which reflects the quality of communication and support among employees; (c) *participative decision-making*, indicates the degree of employees' involvement in decision making about work place issues; (d) *role clarity*, which is the extent to which work expectations and responsibilities are clearly defined; (e) *supportive leadership*, which refers to the extent to which supervisors support their staff; (f) *professional growth,* which is the degree to which skill development is encouraged and supported, and (g) *appraisal and recognition*, which indicates the extent to which feedback and acknowledgement is given.

It is argued that Hart *et al.* (2000) approach includes the core dimensions of psychological climate typified in the literature (Kopelman *et al.*, 1990; Carless,

2004). However, a single, higher-order, general psychological climate factor (PCg) is argued to underlie climate. This general (PCg) factor represents the individual's perception of the overall psychological impact of the work environment on the individual in either positive or negative terms (James and James, 1989; James *et al.*, 1990). Other researchers have replicated the finding of the general factor and described it as representing the psychological safety and meaningfulness of the work environment for the individual employee (Brown and Leigh, 1996; Glisson and Hemmelgarn, 1998). The controversy, however, borders on the appropriate unit of analysis for climate, since the construct is based on both the objective context and the subjective understanding of the individual people in the group (Joyce and Slocum, 1984; Glick, 1985). Before researchers can make any inferences about organisational climate, individuals within the work group or organisation would first have to demonstrate a substantial level of agreement in their perceptions of the organisational context (James, 1982). It is only when there is a substantial level of shared psychological climate that an organisational climate can be derived. According to Chan (1998) *direct consensus* model, there must be agreement of shared psychological climate of 0.7 or above on the within-group reliability (*rwg)* index of within-group consensus as a prerequisite for calculating organisational climate as a work unit mean of individual responses to a psychological climate measure (James *et al.*, 1984). When there is a sufficient level of shared psychological climate of individuals in a group or an organisation, then it may be safe to infer the organisational climate is present (Jones and James, 1979; Joyce and Slocum, 1984). The implication is that there will be no organisational climate if there is not a sufficient degree of shared psychological climate among members of an organisation (James, 1982; Glick, 1985). Irrespective of whether there is agreement or disagreement in their perceptions of psychological climate, the construct of psychological climate remains the property of the individuals in the work unit or organisation (James, 1982). It is the shared general "feeling" of individuals (psychological climate - PCg) of a work unit or an organisation that may constitute the organisational climate (James *et al.*, 1984). How well leadership facilitates a congenial work climate for employees could have positive work outcomes such as increased performance (Schneider, 1975; James *et al.*, 1992; Schneider *et al.*, 2000). The reasons for the choice of organisational climate typology for this study are given under the instrumentations' section (p. 95).

2.8.3 Leadership and Organisational Climate

Leadership is argued to have close links with organisational climate (Schein, 1985; Denison, 1990; Trice and Beyer, 1993; Gil *et al.*, 2005). According to Mumford *et al.* (2002), culture and climate are social constructs over which leaders have substantial control and influence. Parry (2002) concluded that leaders who inspired and helped create adaptive climates and cultures possessed transformational leadership qualities. Yukl (1989) found out that leaders' behaviour can influence individuals within organisations. Therefore a leader's ability to facilitate a congenial climate will have positive implications for employee performance. Whereas situational theories prescribe the limits of the influence of leaders' behaviour (Fiedler, 1978), and role theories focus on the variability of leader behaviours (Graen and Scandura, 1987), the emphasis of transformational theories is on the potential for substantial influence (Seltzer and Bass, 1990). Thus, since leadership behaviours have a direct influence on organisational climate, what kind of leadership behaviour is exhibited is an important factor. According to Lewin *et al.* (1939), the most important task of a leader is to create a "social climate" in the group. Similarly Fiedler (1964) revealed that a vital leadership element is the atmosphere of the group which he referred to as "leader-member relations". The implications of research findings by De Vries and Miller (1984) is that the kind of personality style of top management can influence organisational climate. The above arguments and findings of the various scholars indicate that leaders, to a very large extent, can use organisational climate as a tool for influencing employees' increased performance (Yukl, 1989; Seltzer and Bass, 1990) through their facilitation of congenial and stimulating work environments (Lewin *et al.*, 1939; Fiedler, 1964).

Earlier research by Golembiewski and Carrigan (1970a) and Golembiewski and Carrigan (1970b) used management training for leaders to attempt to change organisational climate. In an experimental study, 16 managers were exposed to a learning design. Findings indicated improved self-report as a reflection of improved psychological well-being. Similarly, Griffin and Mathieu (1997) studied the relationships of climate, leadership and processes within nested groups and found positive correlations of perceptions of climate across the two hierarchical levels of their research sample. Griffin and Mathieu (1997) argued that although the samples may have their own peculiarities, their findings have implications for processes in which organisational interventions can be expected to flow through hierarchical levels of an organisation. The consistency between perceptions of

organisational climate at each level of the organisation suggests that individuals within work groups at different levels of the organisation tended to "see" the same organisation (Griffin and Mathieu, 1997). Thus this shared psychological climate across the various levels of the organisation is a reflection of its organisational climate. The implication is that even though there may be specific perceptions of climate relative to the various levels or units of analysis that create a perceived micro-climate, a common perception of climate may run through the entire organisation to constitute a macro-climate or organisational climate.

With reference to organisational climate as "the way organisational members experience the quality of their internal environment", Moxnes and Eilertsen (1991) assessed changes in organisational climate resulting from the manipulation of Management Training programmes specifically designed for promoting a better climate at the work place. Their findings indicate that Management Training has limited, little but specific effects on organisational climate. Organisational Climate, which has been described as the characteristics of the workplace that facilitate or inhibit the exhibition of certain behaviours (Schneider, 1975; James *et al*., 1992; Schneider *et al*., 2000), is argued to have moderating effects between individual difference variables within the organisation. For example this moderation could be between knowledge and job performance. Several studies have tested this hypothesis that organisational climate moderates relations between individual difference variables (Brown, 1981; Rouiller and Goldstein, 1993; Tracey *et al*., 1995). Of particular reference is the large-scale meta-analytic study by Brown (1981) in which organisational climate moderated relationships between scores on an insurance sales personnel selection procedure and individual sales volume during employees' first year on the job. Brown's (1981) findings provide unquestionable evidence for the potential role of organisational climate as a moderator of relations between individual variables. Basically, organisational climate's moderating influence operates in two dimensions: by the restrictiveness of the climate (James *et al*., 1992) and by how strategically focused the climate is (Schneider, 1975).

"Restrictiveness-of-climate" refers to the degree to which characteristics of organisational environments restrict individual decision-making and individual differences in job performance measures (James *et al*., 1992; Russell and Gilliland, 1995). Consequently, all things being equal, there is bound to be more variations in correlations between individual variables in organisations with less restrictive organisational climate than those with more restrictive organisational

climate. James *et al.* (1992), demonstrating organisational climates' moderating effect through criterion variance restriction, examined ability-job performance relationship. By holding task, performance criterion and aptitude test constant, the authors observed the moderating effect of organisational climate in terms of restrictiveness in relation to the performance of individuals from different organisational climates. Thus, performance was restricted in variance to the extent of restrictiveness of the respective organisational climates. The ability-performance relationship was constrained in climates with restricted criterion variance but was relatively stronger in less restrictive climates. Smith-Crowe *et al.* (2003), also, in studying how organisational climate moderates between safety knowledge and safety performance (i.e. the transfer of safety training) in the hazardous waste worker domain, found out that relationships were stronger in a less restrictive (more supportive) organisational climate.

The "strategically focused" dimension of organisational climate's moderating influence on relationships between individual differences variables in organisations is measured by the extent to which the organisation promotes a strategically focused climate. In other words, organisational climates that are more aligned with organisational goals have more of a moderating influence on individual organisational variables than those in organisational climates that are less aligned with organisational goals. Supporting this view, Schneider (1975) argued that since individuals seek information on proper behaviour from their environments, if an organisational climate is strategically focused, then individuals will exhibit more role-appropriate behaviours. Burke *et al.* (1992) also hypothesised that individuals strive to achieve an adaptive environmental fit when organisationally espoused goals are explicit and organisational policies and practices are directly aligned with such goals. This objective of individuals obtaining an adaptive environmental fit can be achieved, for example, through the development of requisite skills. As expected, organisations vary in how they articulate goals and develop practices that are consistent with strategic goals. Therefore to the extent that organisations vary with respect to how they articulate goals and develop practices that are consistent with strategic goals, the magnitudes of relations between individual differences in the respective organisations would be expected to differ; with stronger relationships being observed in more strategically focused organisational climates (Burke *et al.*, 1992).

Since it is argued that transformational leaders have substantial and sufficient influence over organisational culture and climate (Mumford *et al*., 2002), and that leaders inspire and create adaptive cultures and climates (Parry, 2002), transformational leaders are more likely to facilitate less restrictive, and more strategically-focused organisational climate which may positively influence employee performance (Pritchard and Karasick, 1973).

2.9 Summary of Literature

As evidenced from the literature, several studies have established bilateral relationships among the research variables *(transformational leadership, organisational culture, organisational climate, national culture, organisational commitment,* and *employee performance)*. However an obvious gap in extant literature is the absence of studies that have simultaneously examined the interrelationships among several organisational variables in an interactive way. Secondly, existing literature on these research variables come largely from the western world and therefore there is an apparent dearth of studies on these organisational variables from the developing world. The present study hopes to fill these gaps by examining these variables in an interactive way in a developing economy. Consequently this thesis empirically investigates the extent to which the elements of Leadership, National Culture, Organisational Culture, Organisational Climate and Organisational Commitment, as organisational factors, impact on the Employee Performance of organisations in Ghana. This study is conducted within the framework of the research questions (in section 2.10), subsequent research hypotheses, and resultant proposed conceptual research model (in section 2.11).

2.10 Research Questions

1. "What organisational factors influence employee performance of organisations in Ghana?"

2. "Will the organisational factors that have been identified to influence employee performance in the western world similarly influence employee performance of organisations in Ghana?"

2.11 Hypotheses

From the literature the following hypotheses were generated to address the research questions:

1. Transformational leadership will have a positive indirect relationship with employee performance (Avolio, 1999; Sosik and Godshalk, 2000; Griffith, 2004; Xenikou and Simosi, 2006).
2. Transformational leadership will have a positive direct relationship with organisational commitment (Limsila and Ogunlana, 2008; Yiing and Ahmad, 2009; McMurray *et al.*, 2010).
3. Transformational leadership will have a positive direct relationship with organisational climate (Denison, 1990; Parry, 2002; McMurray *et al.*, 2010).
4. Transformational leadership will have a positive direct relationship with organisational culture (Trice and Beyer, 1993; Ogbonna and Harris, 2000; Xenikou and Simosi, 2006).
5. Organisational culture will have both direct and indirect positive relationships with employee performance (Lee and Yu, 2004; Silverthorne, 2004; Yiing and Ahmad, 2009).
6. Organisational culture will have a positive direct relationship with organisational commitment (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Peters and Waterman, 1982; Lok and Crawford, 1999; Lok and Crawford, 2001).
7. Organisational culture will have a positive direct relationship with organisational climate (Glisson and James, 2002).
8. Organisational commitment will have a positive direct relationship with employee performance (Rashid *et al.*, 2003).
9. Organisational climate will have a positive direct relationship with organisational commitment (Fink, 1992; Iverson, 1996; McMurray *et al.*, 2004).

10. Organisations from the various organisational sectors will significantly differ on most of the research variables (Gordon, 1985; Chatman and Jehn, 1994).
11. Transformational leadership, Organisational Culture, Organisational Commitment, and Organisational Climate will adequately explain the variance in Employee Performance.

Based on the extensive review of extant literature and the generated hypotheses above, a proposed conceptual research model is offered in Figure 2.2 below.

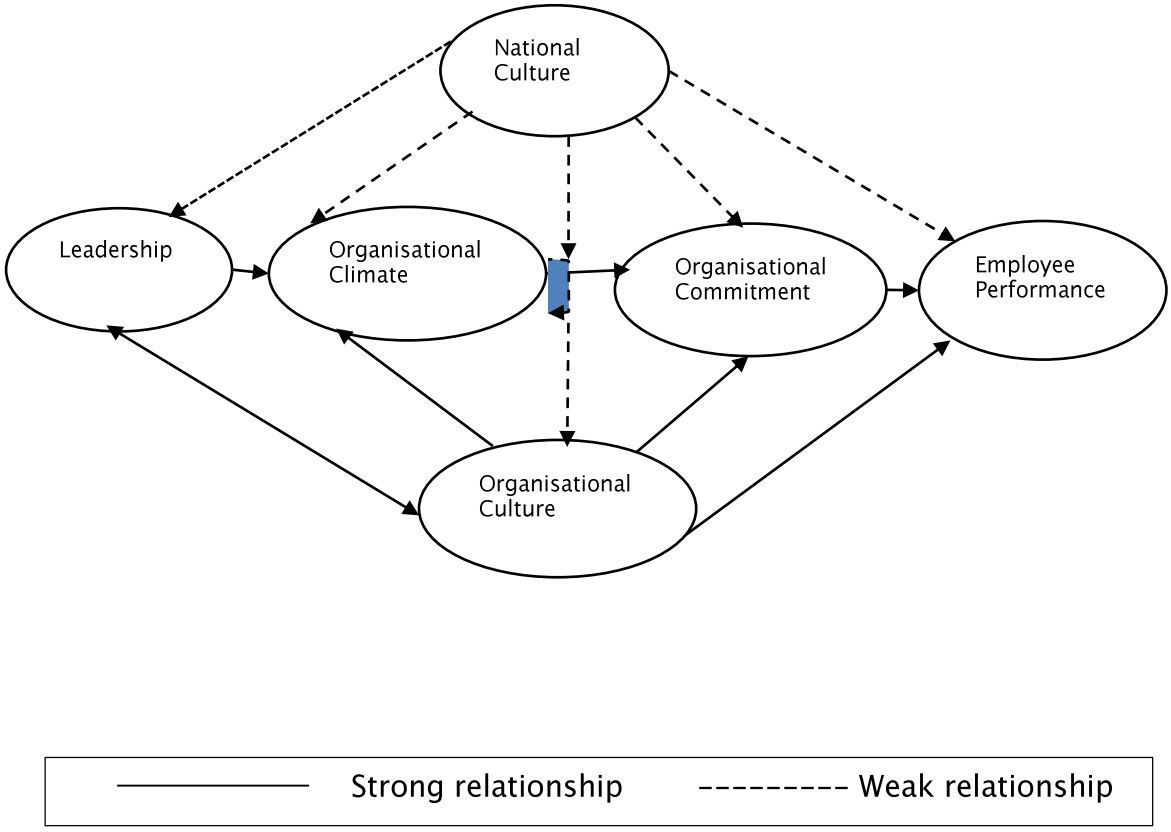

Figure 2.2 Proposed Conceptual Research Model

Source: Author

The present study is therefore conducted within the framework of the above hypotheses and the proposed conceptual research model reflected in Figure 2.2. This model is derived from the literature (Denison, 1990; Trice and Beyer, 1993; Iverson *et al*., 1996; Lok and Crawford, 1999; Ogbonna and Harris, 2000; Glisson and James, 2002; Rashid *et al*., 2003; Lee and Yu, 2004; McMurray *et al*., 2004; Gil *et al*., 2005; Xenikou and Simosi, 2006; Limsila and Ogunlana, 2008; Yiing and Ahmad, 2009; McMurray *et al*., 2010) with respect to the interrelationships between the organisational variables of study, as also reflected in the hypotheses above. The next chapter examines the methodology and methods adopted in the study.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter considered the literature review of the variables of study in their theoretical contexts. The organisational variables reviewed included *transformational leadership, organisational commitment, organisational culture, national culture, organisational climate,* and *employee performance.* From these reviews, the relationships between these variables were identified and developed in the form of hypotheses to be tested. To progress further with the research, this chapter on methodology considers the philosophical basis of the study and the justification for the methodology employed. In furtherance of this objective, the chapter begins by reviewing the general assumptions that underpin social science research and human behaviour. An understanding of the assumptions about the nature of social science research and the nature of social behaviour provides the necessary background for the selection of an appropriate method for data collection and analysis, and the consequent justification of the findings. The chapter then examines the research design, conceptual research model, research instrumentation, data-gathering procedures and data analysis strategies.

3.2 General Assumptions about the Nature of Social Science Research and the Nature of Social Behaviour

It has been argued that our world views are prescribed by the philosophical and theoretical assumptions that we hold (Morgan and Smircich, 1980; Hopper and Powell, 1985; Chua, 1986). Thus the world can be viewed from different perspectives, based on the set of theoretical and philosophical assumptions that we hold. It is, therefore, imperative for any researcher to clarify the assumptions that underpin his/her research in order to determine its consistency with his/her beliefs (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Hopper and Powell, 1985). Clarification of assumptions that underpin a study helps to determine the appropriate method for data collection and analysis. According to Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2008), clarification of the research philosophy enables a researcher to assess different methodologies and thereby provides him/her with the opportunity to avoid selecting an inappropriate one. Corbetta (2003), pp. 12 - 13 argues that

competing approaches in social science research are contrasted on three bases. These bases are (a) *ontological* – which is related to the existence of a real and objective world; (b) *epistemological* – which is related to the possibility of knowing the world and the forms that this knowledge takes; and (c) *methodological* – which refers to the technical instruments used to acquire the knowledge. Whereas the ontological and epistemological bases are philosophical, the methodological base is the practical research approach. The methodological approach derives its strength and meaning from the ontological and epistemological philosophies or assumptions(Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2008). Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2008) make distinctions between ontology, epistemology, methodology and method. These distinctions are summarised in Table 3.1 below.

Table: 3.1 Ontology, epistemology, methodology and method

Ontology	Philosophical assumptions about the nature of reality**.**
Epistemology	General set of assumptions about the best ways of inquiring into the nature the world.
Methodology	Combination of techniques used to enquire into a specific situation
Methods	Individual techniques for data collection, analysis, etc.

Source: Easterby-Smith et al. (2008, p.60)

3.2.1 Ontological Assumptions

Ontology is related to the existence of a real and objective world and the forms this knowledge takes. Ontology deals with *what* we study or the object of our investigation. In essence, it "…is how the world fits together and how we make sense of it" (Della Porta and Keating, 2008, p.21). There are two approaches to the nature of reality – *nominalist* and *realist* (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). *Nominalists* assume that reality is contextually defined and that subjectivity is determined by the observer. Nominalists basically emphasise the meaning the observer derives from his/her environment. Therefore, for nominalists, categories exist through the arbitrary creation of man. *Realist*s, however, assume that there is only one reality and that this reality is objective and exist independently of human and social reality. Corbetta (2003) argues that the reality phenomenon is autonomous, exists outside the human mind, and is independent of any interpretation by the subject. Therefore, for realists, categories really do naturally

exist and only remain to be discovered (Della Porta and Keating, 2008). Social scientists refer to the realists' approach as "hard" and to the nominalists' approach as "soft".

3.2.2 Epistemological Assumptions

Epistemology relates to the possibility of knowing the world. Epistemology is about the nature of knowledge, its sources and its limits (Klein, 2005). Della Porta and Keating (2008), p.1 refer to this phenomenon as "the meta-theories within which particular theories are located". Epistemology encompasses the purpose of research as to whether we want to understand a phenomenon, explain a phenomenon, evaluate a phenomenon, or just to have normative knowledge of the phenomenon. Basically, epistemology involves *how* we know things and the world. Positivists, based on their belief in the reality of social concepts use "hard" methods, but Non-Positivists (Nominalists or Interpretivists), based on their belief in the subjectivity of social concepts, use "soft" methods to acquire knowledge about the world. Table 3.2 outlines the ontologies and epistemologies in social science.

Table 3.2: Ontologies and epistemologies in social science

Ontology of social science	**Representationalism (Realism)**	**Relativism**	**Nominalism**
Truth	Requires verification of predictions.	Is determined through consensus between different viewpoints.	Depends on who establishes it.
Facts	Are concrete, but cannot be accessed directly.	Depend on viewpoint of observer.	Are all human creations.
Epistemology of social science	Positivism	Relativism	Social constructionism

Source: Easterby-Smith et al. (2008, p. 62)

3.2.2.1 Positivists

Positivists perceive the world as an objective entity, outside the mind of the observer and contend that this entity can be known in its entirety. A social phenomenon is perceived as a social reality which is ordered, structured and knowable. Therefore the researcher's task is to discover, describe and analyse this reality (Della Porta and Keating, 2008). Positivists assume that phenomena can be studied by researchers independently, without the objects of study being influenced by the researchers. In other words, the world can be studied in a neutral way. Positivists assume that relationships exist between social variables and the researcher can discover these relationships through research. Consequently, the positivists' approach lends itself to "hard" methods of seeking unambiguous data. These data are empirical and are acquired through rigorous rules and regularities. The philosophical assumptions of positivism are presented in Table 3.3 below.

Table 3.3: Philosophical assumptions of positivism

▪ ***Independence:*** **the observer must be independent from what is being observed.**
▪ ***Value-freedom:*** **the choice of what to study, and how to study it, can be determined by objective criteria rather than by human beliefs and interests.**
▪ ***Causality:*** **the aim of the social sciences should be to identify causal explanations and fundamental laws that explain regularities in human social behaviour.**
▪ ***Hypothesis and deduction:*** **science proceeds through a process of hypothesising fundamental laws and then deducing what kinds of observations will demonstrate the truth or falsity of these hypotheses.**
▪ ***Operationalisation:*** **concepts need to be operationalised in a way which enables facts to be measured quantitatively.**
▪ ***Reductionism*****: problems as a whole are better understood if they are reduced into the simplest possible elements.**
▪ ***Generalisation:*** **in order to be able to generalise about regularities in human and social behaviour it is necessary to select samples of sufficient size, from which inferences may be drawn about the wider population.**
▪ ***Cross-sectional analysis:*** **such regularities can most easily be identified by drawing comparisons of variations across samples.**

Source: Easterby-Smith et al. (2008, p.68)

3.2.2.2 Interpretivists

Interpretivists derive from social constructionism, which believes that classifications are not determined by how the world is, but rather that these classifications are only convenient ways of representing it (Hacking, 1999). Interpretivists or social constructionists believe that since human beings are "meaningful" actors, researchers must therefore aim at finding out what motivates human behaviour rather than finding out the universal laws that are external to them (Della Porta and Keating, 2008). Consequently, Interpretivists emphasise the depth and meaning of a phenomenon, rather than the breadth of it as expressed in relationships between social variables. Geertz (1973)p.5 argues

that social science is “not an experimental science in search of laws but an interpretive science in search of meaning”. Consequently, Interpretivists adopt “soft” methods which are subjective and allow interplay between the researcher and the object of research. Such methods also allow for ambiguities and contingencies (Della Porta and Keating, 2008).

3.2.3 Methodological Approaches

As previously highlighted, the selection of an appropriate methodology is an important and a crucial choice that a researcher has to make in the quest for knowledge. This choice is influenced by the ontological and epistemological assumptions that underpin the particular research objectives. The Positivist’s epistemological orientation leans towards the realist’s ontological assumptions, whereas the Interpretivist’s epistemological orientation leans on the nominalist’s ontological assumptions. Whereas the positivists are only interested in variables and their relationships to each other, Interpretivists are interested in the meanings derived from cases. This major difference in objectives between Positivists and Interpretivists provides the basis for determining which methodologies and methods are appropriate for any particular research. Positivists adopt the nomothetic methodology, in which data are collected from a large number of people, as for example, through questionnaire surveys, so that findings can be generalised to a wider population. Conversely, Interpretivists adopt an idiographic methodology, such as in-depth interviews of a small number of cases which may be atypical and, therefore, may not enable generalisation of the findings. The objective of an ideographic methodology is to capture rich, complex and in-depth data of a phenomenon (Breakwell *et al.*, 2000). Table 3.4 contrasts the methodological implications of positivism and social constructionism.

Several scholars have criticised the quantitative approach used in the study of leadership and culture, especially as in the case of the GLOBE studies (Graen, 2006; Ailon, 2008; Bolden and Kirk, 2009; Jepson, 2009; Edwards, 2014). The criticisms generally are aimed at the fact that quantitative methods do not provide data about the nuances of contextual factors. However, by default quantitative methods do not aim at local specificity but focus on the wider generalisability of results to populations (Breakwell *et al.*, 2000; Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2008). Quantitative methods do not provide context specific information but rather focus on the commonalities of a phenomenon across a sample, much

the same way in which qualitative methods focus on context specific data and cannot capture commonalities across large samples (Breakwell *et al.;* Easterby-Smith *et al.*). Therefore the criticism against the quantitative methods used in the study of leadership and culture in the GLOBE studies is not an isolated case. Indeed it goes beyond its use in the study of leadership and culture to the very fabric of the controversy between quantitative and qualitative methods. The way forward for scientific research is not to focus on the weaknesses of either of the approaches but rather focus on the strengths of the two approaches to overcome each other's weaknesses in a complimentary manner. The reality is that no single research tool is full-proof. Neither the quantitative nor the qualitative method can single-handedly provide both generic and context-specific data about any phenomenon at the same time. Thus whereas quantitative methods provide the larger framework of relationships between variables, qualitative methods compliment by providing in-depth context-specific data.

Table 3.4: Contrasting the implications of positivism and social constructionism

	Positivism	***Social constructionism***
The observer	must be independent	is part of what is being observed
Human interests	should be irrelevant	are the main drivers of science
Explanations	must demonstrate causality	aim to increase general understanding of the situation
Research progress through	hypotheses and deductions	gathering rich data from which ideas are induced
Concepts	need to be defined so that they can be measured	should incorporate stakeholder perspectives
Units of analysis	should be reduced to simplest terms	may include the complexity of "whole" situations
Generalisation through	statistical probability	theoretical abstraction
Sampling requires	large numbers selected randomly	small numbers of cases chosen for specific reasons

Source: Adapted from Easterby-Smith et al. (2008, p.59)

3.2.4 Choices for the Current Study

As indicated above, the selection of an appropriate methodology for any study is influenced by the ontological and epistemological orientation of the researcher. Consequently several authors have investigated leadership and other organisational variables like culture from the ethnographic orientation, employing social constructionist methodology, through interviews and using qualitative/interpretivist analysis to understand and explain phenomena (Graen, 2006; Ailon, 2008; Bolden and Kirk, 2009; Jepson, 2009; Edwards, 2014). Typically, case studies are employed and provide rich sources of data which enable the researcher to have an in-depth knowledge of what is studied (Graen, 2006; Ailon, 2008; Bolden and Kirk, 2009; Jepson, 2009; Edwards, 2014). Conversely, authors of the realist ontological assumption who are influenced by

the positivist epistemology employ nomothetic methodology, which typically involve surveys across wide samples and the use of quantitative analysis and interpretation of data (House *et al.*, 2004; Daft, 2005; Yang, 2009; Elele and Fields, 2010; Liu *et al.*, 2010; Wu *et al.*, 2010). An interesting recent development in the study of leadership, culture, and other organisational variables involves the use of post-modernist approaches such as pragmatism and critical realism. Pragmatism as a research approach emphasises the uses to which truth is put into. It therefore lends itself to case studies since it is a research method that offers the possibility of studying a problem-defined situation in great detail (Easton, 2010). Critical Realism is a relatively new approach to ontological, epistemological and axiological issues (Easton, 2010). According to Easton (p.119), Critical Realism *assumes a transcendental realist ontology, an eclectic realist/interpretivist epistemology and a generally emancipatory axiology*. The basic tenet of critical realism is the use of causal language to describe the world. Critical realism employs case research, irrespective of the number of research units involved, to engage in thoughtful in-depth research processes with the objective of understanding why things are as they are (Easton, 2010). Critical realists assume that there is a real world out there but this assumption cannot be proved or disproved as argued by social constructionists, pragmatists and positivists.

However, in replicating western studies by exploring the relationships between organisational variables, this thesis subscribes to the positivistic philosophical research design as opposed to the ethnographic or ideographic research design (Glisson and James, 2002). This is because the current study involves testing existing theories rather than theory generation. Through hypotheses, the relationships between several organisational variables are explored. These organisational variables are *transformational leadership, organisational commitment, organisational culture, organisational climate, national culture,* and *employee performance*. Quantitative methods were, therefore, utilised; specifically, surveys were used for data collection. This method was chosen as in this context where a large number of respondents from dispersed geographical locations were surveyed, the questionnaire was the most appropriate data collection tool (Limsila and Ogunlana, 2008). Primarily this method has the advantage of yielding responses in standard formats from a large participant pool (Limsila and Ogunlana, 2008). Unlike longitudinal studies, which require long periods of developmental or process examination, the survey method gives a snapshot in time of what is being studied (Cavana *et al.*, 2001). Furthermore,

findings from this cross-sectional approach can be generalised across organisations in Ghana. Additionally, considering the time frame for this thesis as well as costs, the cross-sectional survey seemed to be the most logical and pragmatic option.

3.2.4.1 Cross-sectional surveys

The cross-sectional survey design involves approaching a sample of respondents *only once.* This design has both advantages and disadvantages (Breakwell *et al.*, 2000). These advantages and disadvantages are outlined in Table 3.5 below.

Table 3.5: Advantages and Disadvantages of the Cross-Sectional Survey Design

Advantages	Disadvantages
1. Relatively low cost associated with data gathering. **2. Anonymity and assurance of confidentiality.** **3. Response rate is generally higher than other procedures.** **4. Results can be obtained in a fairly short period of time.** **5. Conclusions can be drawn and published quickly in time for policy change purposes, etc.**	1. Data are unduly susceptible to time of measurement effects.

Source: Adapted from Breakwell, Hammond and Fife-Schaw (2000)

One potential challenge that data collected through cross-sectional survey face is *common methods variance (CMV)* or *bias (CMB)*. This variance, which is attributed to the measurement method rather than the constructs the measures represent, is a potential problem in behavioural research (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). Biases in methods may lead to measurement errors which threaten the validity of conclusions about the relationships between measures (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). These errors may have both a random and a systematic component (Nunnally, 1978; Spector, 1987; Bagozzi and Yi, 1991). The systematic measurement error type is considered more problematic since it offers an alternative explanation for

observed relationships between measures of different constructs, independent of the hypothesis (Podsakoff *et al*., 2003). Systematic error variance may have serious confounding influence on empirical results and consequent misleading conclusions (Campbell and Fiske, 1959). Common methods variance (CMV) or bias (CMB) may arise because self-reported data, collected through the same questionnaire and during the same period of time, may cause systematic measurement error, which may bias the estimates of the true relationship among theoretical constructs. The bias may either inflate or deflate observed relationships among constructs of study and consequently lead to Type I and Type II errors (Avolio *et al*., 1991; Podsakoff *et al*., 2003).

To address this potential set-back of the cross-sectional approach for this study, Herman's one-factor test in SPSS was used. All the variables of study are constrained into a single factor and if this factor explains more than 50% of the variance, then it indicates the presence of CMV or CMB. For this study, the single factor extracted explains only 25.70% of the variance. This therefore implies that the present study is less likely flawed with CMV (CMB). This is indicated in Table 4.1 (page 115).

3.3 The Research Design

The research design is an integral part of the strategy employed in a research project. Whereas the research strategy provides the overall direction of the research, as influenced by ontological and epistemological assumptions, the research design is the process of translating a problematic or puzzling thought into something on which valid data can be gathered so that compelling inferences can be made (Della Porta and Keating, 2008). It is also the overall plan or structure for conducting the entire study (Shaughnessy *et al*., 2012). The research design is in essence the framework or plan used to collect and analyse data in a research study. Consequently, this section presents the framework of this study in the form of the research design (Figure 3.1, below), an overview of the research design and the empirical model, followed by a brief description of the conceptual research model.

3.3.1 Overview of Research Design

The Literature Review and theoretical bases:

From the literature review, several organisational variables were identified for this study (transformational leadership, organisational commitment, organisational culture, organisational climate, national culture and employee performance). The literature revealed several relationships among these research variables. This includes a positive relationship between leadership and organisational commitment (Alley and Gould, 1975; Porter *et al.*, 1976; Lok and Crawford, 2001; Avolio *et al.*, 2004(a); McMurray *et al.*, 2010). It also revealed positive relationships among leadership, organisational climate, and organisational culture (Ogbonna and Harris, 2000; Parry, 2002; Xenikou and Simosi, 2006; McMurray *et al.*, 2010). Mainly the literature review revealed the moderating role of national culture, the mediatory roles of organisational culture, organisational climate and organisational commitment of leadership's impact on employee performance (Chen, 1995; Rashid *et al.*, 2003; Silverthorne, 2004; Limsila and Ogunlana, 2008; Yiing and Ahmad, 2009; Elele and Fields, 2010; McMurray *et al.*, 2010). These reviews ensured that the research questions were soundly based on theory and evidence from the literature. From these sound theoretical and empirical bases, appropriate hypotheses were developed.

Hypotheses

Based on these, the research design needs to incorporate six variables which are transformational leadership, organisational commitment, organisational culture, national culture, organisational climate, and employee performance. The main interest was the impact of transformational leadership on employee performance through the moderation of national culture, and the mediation of organisational culture, organisational commitment and organisational climate. These hypotheses are presented in Chapter 2: section 2.11.

The Empirical Research Model

The empirical research model provides the theoretical framework for operationalizing the research hypotheses. It begins with the operationalisation of the hypotheses, and continues through the rest of the research design.

The Pilot

Since the sets of instruments for this research were all validated and widely-used questionnaires, the purpose of the pilot survey was to ascertain how respondents were likely to interpret certain words and sentences based on their cultural backgrounds. Therefore, the pilot study was carried out among fellow PhD students who come from several backgrounds and also among employees of an NHS trust. The diverse background of the respondents and their consequent interpretations informed the researcher about the possible distortions of meanings that could occur with the actual research sample. Therefore, based on the feedback from this pilot study, some words and phrases were altered such as "Boss" which was changed to "immediate supervisor"; "burned out" which was changed to, "worn out"; and "fair hand shake" which was changed to "fair chance".

The Data Collection

This stage of the empirical framework refers to the data collection process. This was achieved through purposive sampling: The researcher made personal contacts with several organisations. Given the underdeveloped nature of the postal and electronic networks in Ghana and consequent limited access, the only feasible option was using personal contact as the means of data collection. Details of the sampling of organisations and the data administration in each organisation are described later in the chapter.

The Data Processing/Analysis

A number of research analytical tools were used in the data analysis process. These included tests of validity, factor analysis, correlational analysis, regression, and structural equation modelling. Correlations were used to assess the relationships between the research variables; regressions were used to assess the direct and indirect impacts of some of the research variables on others; and structural equation modelling was used to test the fit of the model to the data. These techniques and several others were employed in the data analysis process to ensure that conclusions were drawn from the data that were as representative as possible of the survey population. Chapter 4 specifically deals with all the data-processing techniques employed.

The Results and Findings/Implications

The results and findings from the data analysis are compared to the research hypothesises. The main findings are compared and contrasted to findings in the literature review. The details can be found in Chapter 5.

Implications/Guidelines

Theoretical and practical implications of the findings are assessed, guidelines are proposed and recommendations are made. These are incorporated in Chapter 6.

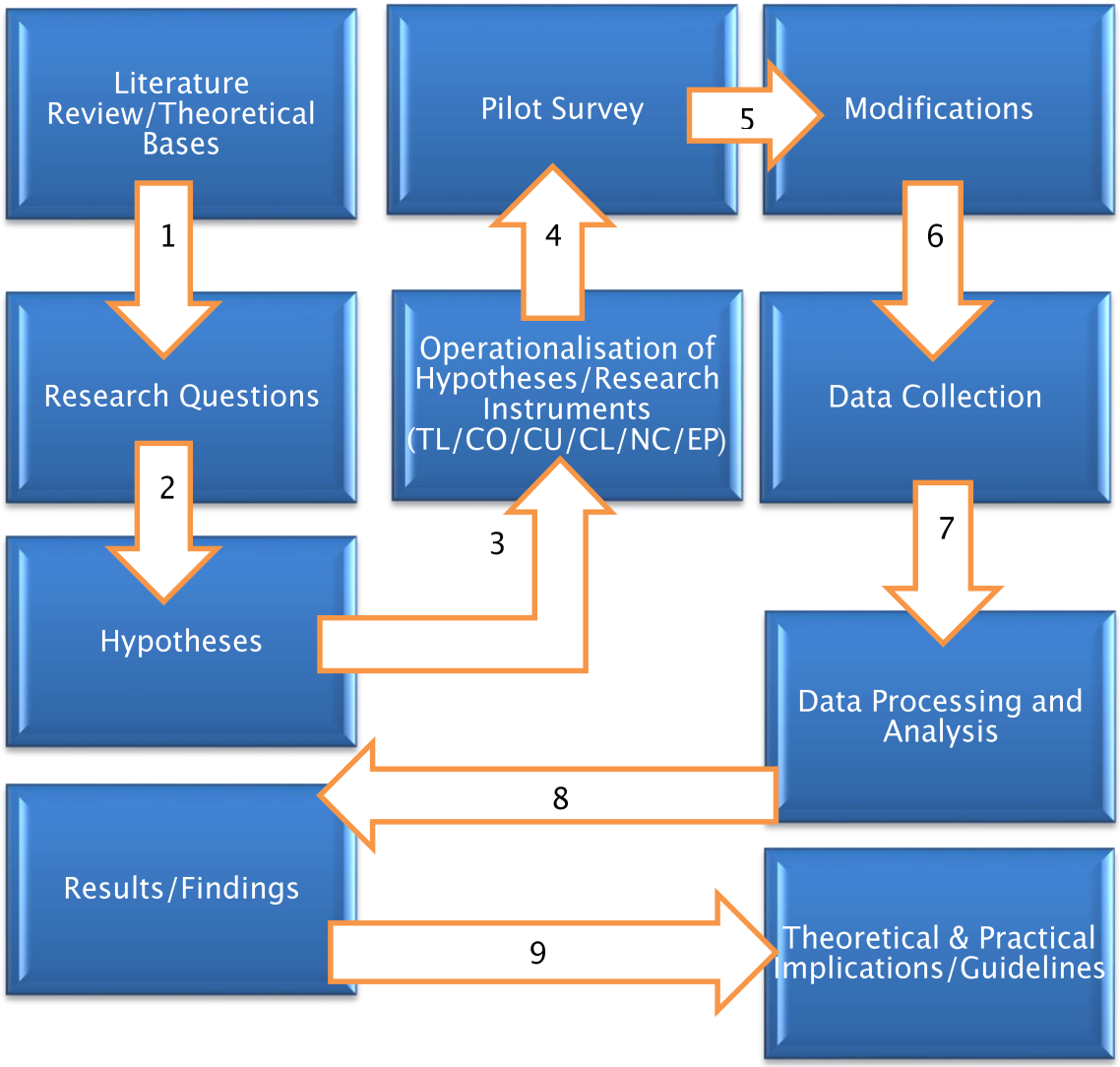

Figure 3.1: Research Design

3.3.2 The Empirical Research Framework

As illustrated in Figure 3.1, the empirical research framework is an integral part of the research design. Apart from the fact that the empirical research framework is an integral part of the research design, it is also an important section of the research design. This is because it is the stage in the process of the research design where theory translates into practice through the operationalisation of a research hypothesis (Della Porta and Keating, 2008). The operationalisation of a hypothesis provides the basis for data collection, data measurement and data analysis. This is the empirical stage of the research, which enables the research hypotheses to be tested (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2008). The empirical research framework begins from the operationalisation stage through to the final stage of the research design where recommendations and suggestions are made, based on the findings from the research.

3.3.3 The Empirical Research Model

From the literature review, five organisational variables were envisioned to have either direct or indirect – or both – influences on employee performance. These independent variables were *transformational leadership, organisational commitment, organisational culture, national culture,* and *organisational climate* (Pritchard and Karasick, 1973; Hofstede, 1980; Mowday *et al.*, 1982; DeCotiis and Summers, 1987; Meyer and Allen, 1997; Lok and Crawford, 2001; Lee and Yu, 2004; Mathew and Ogbonna, 2009; Huang *et al.*, 2010). In addition to the main focus of the research which was to explore the relationships between these independent variables and the dependent variable (employee performance), further exploration among the independent variables was to be undertaken. The anticipated relationships between the variables of the research together with their corresponding measures or questionnaires (italicised labels) are depicted in Figure 3.2. The strong relationships are indicated by unbroken lines (arrows) whereas the weak relationships are indicated by broken lines (arrows).

Originating from the discussions of the literature, and expressed in the research hypotheses, several relationships are expected to be found between the research variables. For example, transformational leadership is expected to have a direct influence on both organisational climate and organisational culture. Similarly, organisational culture is expected to have a direct influence on organisational commitment, organisational climate, employee performance, and even on

transformational leadership. The choice of appropriate questionnaires for the various research variables are discussed in the next section on Instrumentation.

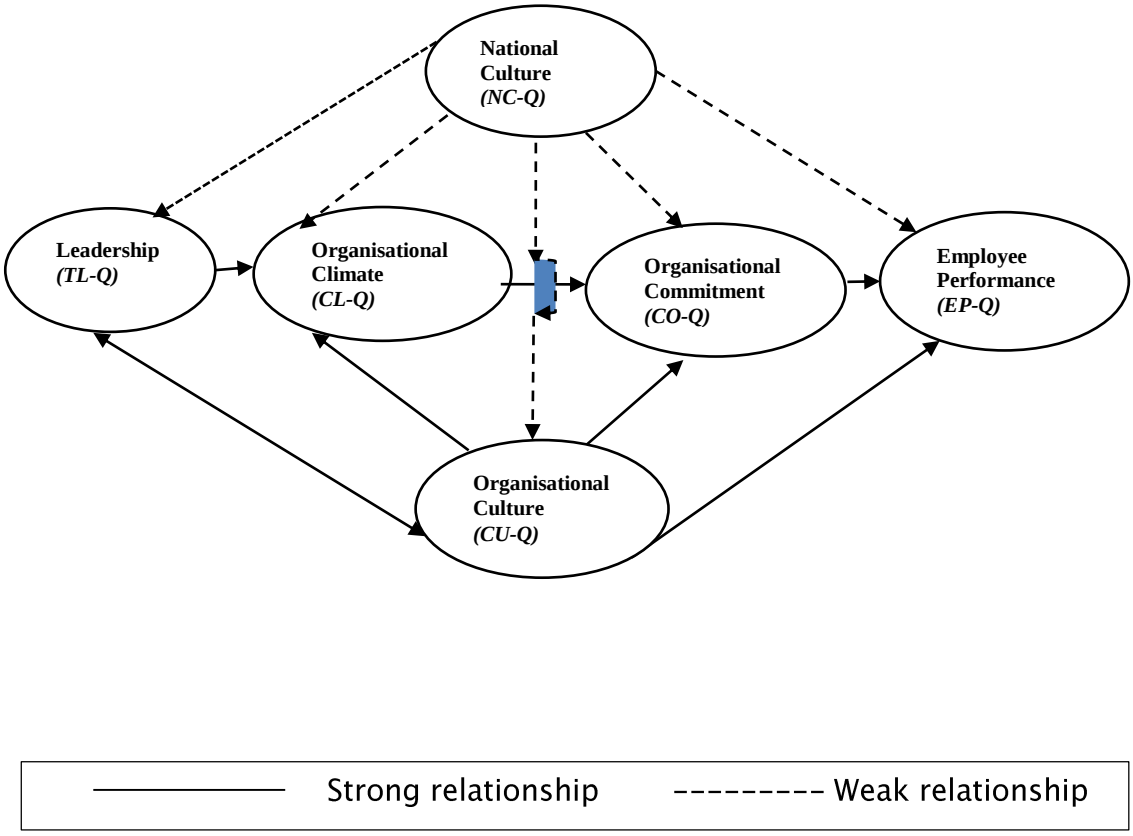

Figure 3.2 Empirical Research Model

Source: Author

3.4 Instrumentation

Since this study involved several organisational variables, the researcher decided that constructing his own measuring instruments, with all the associated demands, was not an option or a feasible venture. Time constraints, costs, and potential lack of validity and reliability, were some of the challenges that faced the construction of new research measurement instruments. Secondly, since

validated measurement instruments for the variables of study already existed, they were adopted for this study, in consonance with existing practice.

The measurement scales, discussed below, were for *transformational leadership, organisational commitment, organisational culture, organisational climate, national culture* and *employee performance.* The purpose of using these instruments was to assess the impact of leadership on employee performance through the mediation of organisational climate, organisational culture, and organisational commitment, and also through the moderation of national culture. Beyond this fundamental objective, the researcher was also interested in finding out the inter-relationships between the independent variables (transformational leadership, organisational commitment, organisational climate, and national culture). The expected relationships between the research variables, as indicated above, were reflected in the empirical research model in Figure 3.2.

3.4.1 Leadership Measures

This study sought to explore the impact of transformational leadership on employee performance. Consequently, it was necessary to measure this type of leadership. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) is the most widely used leadership questionnaire to measure transformational leadership (Rafferty and Griffin, 2004). However, the MLQ was not used, but rather a questionnaire devised by Rafferty and Griffin (2004). This is because concerns have been raised about how the sub-dimensions that constitute the factor structure of the MLQ have been defined (Bryman, 1992; Yukl, 1999b). For example, some authors have observed that over time, the theoretical distinctions between charisma and inspirational motivation have become blurred (Barbuto, 1997; Rafferty and Griffin, 2004). Additionally, (Yukl (1999b); Yukl (1999a)) has identified the diversity of behaviours that are encompassed by contingent reward and individualised consideration as being problematic. The most critical issues relating to definitional challenges have been identified with contingent reward. It has been argued that the way in which the construct of contingent reward has been operationalised allows it to access both the transactional and transformational processes (Goodwin *et al.*, 2001; Rafferty and Griffin, 2004). According to Rafferty and Griffin (2004) these issues have meant that empirical research has generated mixed support for the differentiation of the components that constitute the transformational leadership model. Research has either failed to provide convincing support for the transformational leadership model (Tepper

and Percy, 1994; Bycio *et al.*, 1995) or only provided conflicting evidence of the factor structure of the model (Carless, 1998; Avolio, 1999; Tejeda *et al.*, 2001).

Several attempts have been made to address these challenges. (a) Some scholars have reduced the set of items used to measure transformational leadership, based on the empirical results, but without any theoretical bases to justify how items are allocated to factors (Tejeda *et al.*, 2001); (b) Another category of scholars has disregarded the components and concentrated only on the higher-order construct of transformational leadership (Carless, 1998; Pillai *et al.*, 1999), and (c) Other scholars have also developed their own measures of transformational leadership (Podsakoff *et al.*, 1990). Rafferty and Griffin (2004), however, stressed the importance of adopting a theoretically-driven approach to evaluate the sub-dimensions of transformational leadership. This is because such an approach ensures that sound evaluations of findings are made, and this also enables replication and comparison of studies (Shaughnessy *et al.*, 2012). Consequently, Rafferty and Griffin (2004) used the theoretical base of the Bass (1985) model, but redefined the components to make them more focused. For example, the general construct of charisma according to Weber (1968) involves five components, which *ipso facto* may account for some of the mixed findings from research since scholars' use of the construct 'charisma' could have different meanings. Referring to these five components identified by Weber, Rafferty and Griffin (2004), p. 331 indicated that charisma involves,

> *…an extraordinary gifted person; a social crisis; a set of ideas providing a radical solution to the problem; a set of followers who are attracted to the exceptional person and believe that the leader is linked to transcendent powers; and the validation of the leader's extraordinary gifts through repeated success*

For the research findings to be consistent, the definition of the construct 'charisma' must be more focused. Rafferty and Griffin (2004) rightly disagree that charisma in the transformational model should include all these components. Rather, they identified *vision* as an important leadership component that is encompassed by the general construct of charisma. Therefore, instead of using charisma or idealised influence – as proposed by Bass and associates – as the basis of their transformational leadership measure, Rafferty and Griffin (2004) used *vision.* They defined vision as, "the expression of an idealised picture based around organisational values" (Rafferty and Griffin, 2004, p.332) Additionally Rafferty and Griffin made a distinction between the vision component and the inspirational component of charisma. The other components were similarly

redefined, with the exception of *intellectual stimulation,* which was retained in its original form because the authors felt that it was focused enough to be used in an unambiguous manner. Again, instead of the four sub-dimensions of the MLQ, Rafferty and Griffin (2004) identified five, more focused, sub-dimensions of transformational leadership. These more focused sub-dimensions or components used for Rafferty and Griffin's transformational leadership measure were *vision, inspirational communication, supportive leadership, intellectual stimulation* and *personal recognition.* A comparison of the components of transformational leadership, as given by Bass (1985), and as given by Rafferty and Griffin (2004), is shown in Table 3.6 below.

Table 3.6: Comparison between Bass' components of transformational leadership and Rafferty and Griffin's components of transformational leadership

Bass' (1985) sub-dimensions of transformational leadership	Rafferty and Griffin's (2004) sub-dimensions of transformational leadership
1. **Charisma**	1. Articulation of vision
2. **Inspiration**	2. Inspirational communication
3. **Individualised consideration**	3. Supportive leadership
4. **Intellectual stimulation**	4. Intellectual stimulation
	5. Personal recognition

Source: Author

Although Carless (1998) suggested that we focus on the higher-order construct of transformational leadership obtained from the MLQ-5X (apparently due to the conflicting findings with respect to the components), the present author concurs with Rafferty and Griffin (2004) that an accurate measurement of the components is equally important. Examining the components rather than a higher-order construct of transformational leadership will be more beneficial since the separate dimensions can be assessed (rather than a nebulous concept of leadership) for the purposes of performance appraisal, training and development, and also for succession planning (Rafferty and Griffin, 2004).

The decision to use this alternative measurement for transformational leadership is supported by (Limsila and Ogunlana, 2008). Having used the MLQ and Porter *et*

al. (1974) Organisational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ), Limsila and Ogunlana (2008) suggested in their recommendations that it would be interesting if future research could use an alternative instrument to the MLQ, and the OCQ for comparison. Whereas it is not the objective of this thesis to make such comparisons, the author considers it more relevant to use Rafferty and Griffin's questionnaire as an alternative to the popular MLQ. This is because Rafferty and Griffin (2004) components or sub-dimensions of transformational leadership are more focused (Rafferty and Griffin, 2004). For each of the five dimensions of leadership (vision, inspirational communication, intellectual stimulation, supportive leadership, and personal recognition), three items were used. Rafferty and Griffin (2004) recorded acceptable reliabilities for all these five dimensions, as shown in Table 3.7 below.

Table 3.7: Reliabilities of leadership dimensions scales

Leadership Dimensions	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Articulation of Vision	3	.82
Inspirational Communication	3	.88
Supportive Leadership	3	.95
Intellectual Stimulation	3	.84
Personal Recognition	3	.96

Source: Rafferty and Griffin (2004)

Responses to these 15 items were assessed on a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 represents "I completely disagree" and 7 represents "I completely agree". Examples of the items used were;

- "…has a clear understanding of where he/she wants our unit/department to be in 5 years" (articulation of vision),
- "…says things that make employees proud to be part of the organisation" (inspirational communication),
- "…sees that the interests of employees are given due consideration" (supportive leadership),
- "…challenges me to think about old problems in new ways" (intellectual stimulation),

- "…commends me when I do a better than average job" (personal recognition).

All the 15 items of the five scales were used for this research. These items are shown in Appendix 1, Section 1A.

3.4.2 Measures of Commitment

As in the case of leadership measurement, the most widely used measure of organisational commitment is Porter *et al.* (1974) Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ). The dimensions of the well accepted OCQ were *identification, involvement* and *loyalty*. The OCQ produced a single score that reflected employees' commitment to the organisation, thus projecting commitment as a one-dimensional measurement (Metcalfe and Dick, 2000). However, factor analysis of the OCQ measured by Benkhoff (1997)a indicated that the questionnaire is not homogenous, but rather consists of three separate constructs. Consequently, the major flaw of the OCQ, for which it has been criticised by many authors, is that it construed organisational commitment as one-dimensional and ignored the range of multiple commitments that workers may have towards their organisations (Meyer and Allen, 1997; Siegel and Sisaye, 1997; Baruch, 1998; Metcalfe and Dick, 2000). Of the multidimensional conceptualisations, the model that has been well accepted is that proposed by Meyer and Allen (1997). In contrast to Porter *et al.* (1974) one-dimensional construct of commitment, Meyer and Allen (1997) proposed a three-component model comprising *affective commitment, continuance commitment,* and *normative commitment*. Several studies have examined the reliability of the organisational commitment questionnaire provided by the Meyer and Allen (1997) model. Meyer and Allen (1997) reported acceptable Cronbach's alpha coefficients for their affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment scales as shown in Table 3.8 below.

Table 3.8: Internal Consistency reliabilities of Meyer and Allen's Organisational Commitment scales.

Components of Commitment	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Affective commitment	8	.85
Continuance commitment	8	.79
Normative commitment	8	.73

Source: Meyer and Allen (1997)

The original questionnaire contained 24 close-ended items, with each of the three components having eight items. In a study, Stallworth (2004) reported a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of 0.81 for the entire questionnaire of 24 items. Michael and Petal (2009) – also using Meyer *et al.* (1993) three scales as they it appeared in Weisner (2003) – had 18 items (with six items in each component). With respect to the component which is of interest to this thesis, the *affective commitment*, Michael and Petal (2009) found the internal consistency of Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.89. As discussed in the literature review, of the three components of commitment (affective, normative, and continuance), the affective commitment was chosen for this study because several studies have shown that it is the component that is most strongly related to positive work outcomes (Meyer and Allen, 1997; Meyer *et al.*, 2002; Wasti, 2005). Mathew and Ogbonna (2009) also argue that affective commitment is the most often studied in the literature because of its consequence for work outcomes. This background has provided justification for the selection of the affective commitment for this study, as this thesis examined the influence of commitment on employee performance (work outcome).

An example of the items used for the affective commitment scale is, "I really feel like the organisation's problems are my own". A 7-point Likert scale was used to measure the degree of responses to the questions. 1 indicates "I completely disagree" and 7 indicates "I completely agree". For this thesis, all the eight items of Meyer and Allen (1997) affective commitment scale were used and these are shown in Appendix 1, Section 1A.

3.4.3 Measurement of Organisational Culture

As discussed in the literature (Chapter 2) Wallach (1983) typology of organisational culture was the basis of this thesis' exploration of organisational culture. This choice was informed by the fact that several of the organisational culture typologies had some apparent redundant components (as discussed in the literature review) and that the Wallach typology seemed more pragmatic. Additionally, it has been argued that the components (supportive, innovative and bureaucratic subcultures) are more comprehensive and important compared to other subcultures or cultural typologies (Wallach, 1983; Lai and Lee, 2007). This position is also endorsed by Ababaneh (2010). Consequently, Wallach (1983) Organizational Culture Index (OCI) was used to measure organisational culture. The OCI has been widely used by numerous authors (Koberg and Chusmir, 1987; Li, 2004; Lok and Crawford, 2004; Yiing and Ahmad, 2009). This is a 24-item instrument comprised of three scales; *bureaucratic, innovative,* and *supportive.* Each of these scales has eight items. For example, some of the items on the *bureaucratic* scale are “procedural”, “hierarchical” and “power-oriented”: items on the innovative scale are “risk taking”, “results-oriented” and “driving”: and some of the items on the *supportive* scale are “collaborative”, “relationship-oriented” and “trusting”. Responses to these items are anchored at four points where 0 = “does not describe my organisation”, to 3 = “describes my organisation most of the time”.

Li (2004), in a study of a Chinese sample, using the OCI, measured responses on a five-point Likert scale. The response “does not describe my organisation” was valued as “1”, to “describes my organisation most of the time” valued as “5”. The Cronbach alpha of internal consistencies reliabilities coefficients were 0.86, 0.70, and 0.97 for bureaucratic, innovative, and supportive cultures, respectively. This thesis could have employed a 7-point Likert scale, thus increasing the variability of responses over that in Li (2004) study with a possible increase in validity and reliability of the findings. This would also be consistent with the other scales of the research. However, it was thought best to retain the original 4-point Likert scale. Not only was the original 4-point Likert scale maintained for this thesis, but the original format was also retained. These decisions were informed by the following considerations: First, the 4-point Likert scale is more concise. Secondly, the format of the original instrument (as shown in Appendix 1, Section 1A: Part 2) may break any potential monotony that respondents may face in responding to the questionnaire, since about 80% of the entire questionnaire is in

the statement form. However, number 1 was assigned to “does not describe my organisation” instead of 0 and number 4 was assigned to “describes my organisation most of the time” instead of number 3. This change is indicated in Figure 3.3 below.

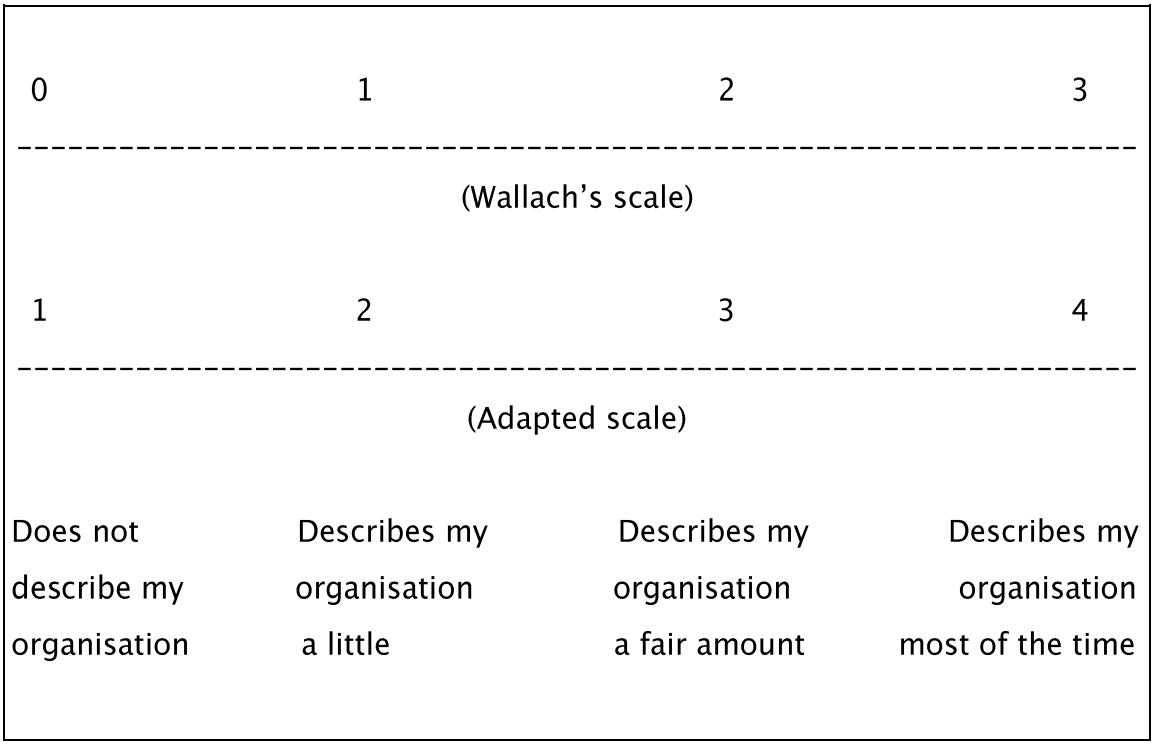

Figure 3.3: Adaptation of Wallach's (1983) scale

This change was made because the researcher conceded that, in reality, there may not be absolute absence of any of the variables being measured (as implied in 0) in any organisation. This change did not, however, affect the relativities and measurement of the scale. For this change, however, the validity coefficients of the original scale may not apply to this study. The rest of the items are shown in Appendix 1, Section 1A.

3.4.4 Measures of Organisational Climate

The measurement of the organisational climate has been fraught with many challenges. Basically, these challenges relate to the lack of dimensional clarity and its resultant multiplicity of dimensions (Koys and Decotiis, 1991). Numerous

authors produced various dimensions with respect to the measurement of the psychological climate.

Koys and Decotiis (1991), however, have responded to these challenges by reviewing the literature and generating a "universe of psychological climate dimensions" (Koys and Decotiis, 1991 , p.266). Their objective was not to develop a unique domain of dimensions for given settings but "…to specify a theoretically-meaningful and analytically-practical universe of all possible climate dimensions" (Koys and Decotiis, 1991, p.267).

Beginning with the review of over 80 differently labelled dimensions in the literature, Koys and Decotiis (1991) systematically reduced the dimensions to eight. Based on these eight dimensions, they generated five items each to produce a valid and reliable measurement of the psychological climate, with a total of 40 items. Using this instrument (consisting of the 40 items) on a sample (n = 367) of managerial employees, Koys and Decotiis (1991) obtained alpha coefficients for the scales within the range of 0.80-0.89. Factor analysis with an oblique rotation confirmed the eight scales. These scales are *autonomy, trust, cohesiveness, innovation, support, recognition, fairness,* and *pressure*. A separate sample (n = 84) of managerial and professional employees validated their results. The author is not aware of the existence of any other streamlined measurement of the psychological climate apart from that provided by Koys and Decotiis (1991) (McMurray, 2003; McMurray *et al*., 2004). Consequently, this measure of psychological climate was used for this research. However, not all the 40 items in the original instrument were used for this study; this was because of the need for brevity. The study of the psychological climate was conducted together with other variables and there was a crucial need to keep the entire questionnaire for the study as brief as possible. Therefore, eight of the 40 items, each representing one of the eight scales, were used. For each scale, the item with the highest corrected correlations for the two samples was chosen. This was much the same way as Koys and Decotiis (1991) reduced the initial seven items of the eight scales to the best five by using the highest corrected correlation between the item score and the scales score, plus the highest Cronbach's alpha for each scale. The decision to use one item from each scale rather than all the five items is also consistent with the rationale behind dimension-saliency as argued by Koys and Decotiis (1991), citing Smith *et al.* (1969) use of only three of the five scales of the Job Description Index and also Lofquist and Dawis (1969) use of five of the 21

scales of the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire. The reliability coefficients of the original scales may, therefore, not apply in this study. Some of the items for this study were "I determine my own work procedure" and "There is a lot of team work and cooperation among people in my organisation". Responses to these item statements were measured on a 7 – point Likert scale, where 1 represents "I completely disagree" and 7 represents "I completely agree". The rest of the items used are shown in Appendix 1, Section 1A.

3.4.5 Measures of National Culture

To measure national culture, a 9-item questionnaire by Wang *et al.* (2011) was utilised. This instrument was adapted from Hofstede (1980) original bipolar scales by Wang *et al.* (2011) into unipolar scales. This instrument was chosen because the scales are pertinent to the Ghanaian culture: Hofstede put West African countries (which includes Ghana) high on the power distance scale, low on the individualism-collectivism scale, and high on the uncertainty avoidance scale. The instrument of (Wang *et al.*, 2011) contains these pertinent scales for the culture of Ghana (*individualism-collectivism, power distance,* and *uncertainty avoidance)* as categorised by (Hofstede, 1980). Additionally, the (Wang *et al.*, 2011) instrument was considered appropriate for Ghana because it has been successfully used recently (2011) by the authors in a study of a similar economy to Ghana (a developing country). There were three main scales, each consisting of three items. These scales were *Individualism-collectivism*, *Power distance*, and *Uncertainty avoidance*. All these scales had acceptable reliabilities as shown in Table 3.9 below.

Table 3.9 Reliabilities of the National Culture scales

Dimension of Culture	Number of items	Cronbach's Alpha
Individualism – Collectivism	3	.81
Power Distance	3	.77
Uncertainty Avoidance	3	.76

Source: Wang, Su and Yang (2011)

Items were measured on a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 represents "I completely disagree" and 7 represent "I completely agree". An example of items for the individualism-collectivism scale is,

"Our firm emphasises cooperation and collectivism".

An example of items from the power distance scale is,

"The hierarchical line is very distinct in our firm and it is not allowed to be bypassed".

An example of items on the uncertainty avoidance scale is,

"We believe that a change in market creates a positive opportunity for us" (inversed).

The rest of the items are shown in Appendix 1, Section 1A.

3.4.6 Measures of Employee Performance

The instrument used for measuring employee performance was that developed by Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994). This is a 3-item self-rating of an employee's overall definition of their performance (comprising task performance and contextual performance). Similar to all other rating scales, self-rating scales have their own shortcomings. Mainly, researchers have criticised self-rating scales for their tendency to inflate positive responses, for their social desirability bias, and for their leniency tendencies. The argument further recommends the use of a multi-rated approach (including, but not limited to, subordinate rating, peer rating and supervisor rating). In pursuit of more accurate data, using all the possible rating scales, otherwise known as the 360 degrees approach may seem ideal. The 360 degrees approach comprises all the ratings from superiors, subordinates, peers; even self-rating and other stakeholders like customers and shareholders. However, Fletcher *et al.* (1998) argued that using the 360 degrees approach does not necessarily offer the best solution unless feedback systems are constructed and evaluated along the lines associated with psychometric tests. Without such precautions, they further argued, the 360 degrees approach was potentially just as likely to display deficiencies in psychometric properties as in ordinary appraisal ratings. Therefore, the effectiveness or validity of a rating approach is based on how well it is constructed via its feedback and evaluation systems. In essence, a self-rating scale can be accurate and useful based on how well it is constructed as reflected in its psychometric properties. Consequently, the next paragraph provides justification for using the self-rating approach for this research.

Notwithstanding the potential flaws with the self-rating approach, as discussed above, Yiing and Ahmad (2009) argued that it has been successfully used in other performance measurements by Stevens *et al.* (1978), Al-Gattan (1983), and Yousef (2000). In particular, Li (2004), and Yiing and Ahmad (2009) used the self-rating approach for measuring employee performance. Some studies have also assessed the validity of the self-rating scale by comparing it with "other" rating scales like peer or supervisor ratings. According to Young and Dulewicz (2007), through varied indices, "self-other" agreement has been extensively used to operationalise external, public or congruent self-awareness: Atwater and Yammarino (1992), Atwater *et al.* (1998), and Brutus *et al.* (1999) were cited.

According to Young and Dulewicz (2007), self-reports have been used in other opinion surveys, personnel selection and attitude studies, but until 1982 no significant study involving the use of self-evaluation of performance had been carried out. From a major paper review, Mabe and West (1982), as cited by Young and Dulewicz (2007), concluded that "under certain measurement conditions, self-evaluation of ability may closely correspond to the performance on criterion measures" (Mabe and West, 1982) cited by Young and Dulewicz (2007), p.466. Mabe and West (1982) further argued that enhancing the validity of self-assessment scales required more than "simple modification in the self-evaluation instructions, e.g. using social comparison terminology or instructing subjects that self-evaluations were to be validated". Extending Mabe and West (1982) argument further, Dulewicz (1992), although mindful that not all individuals will make an accurate self-assessment, concluded that well-designed self-rating scales can produce data that are closely related to a boss's ratings of actual performance. This position was validated by Young and Dulewicz (2007). Whereas other studies have focused on self-other agreements as an operationalisation of self-awareness in relation to leadership performance (Atwater and Yammarino, 1992) and managerial performance (Atwater *et al.*, 1998; Brutus *et al.*, 1999), in a study of the British Royal Navy, Young and Dulewicz (2007) examined the self-other agreement in relation to performance, with the "other" being the actual performance data from an organisation's appraisal system. The authors found significant positive correlations between the self-evaluation of a soldier's own performance with the appraised (actual) performance which was obtained through different psychometric questionnaires. Using the Leadership Dimension Questionnaire (LDQ), Young and Dulewicz (2007) demonstrated that self-evaluation of own performance was significantly correlated with appraised (actual) performance ($r = 0.13$, $p<0.05$). Similarly, Edwards and Gill (2012), in a study of

38 UK manufacturing organisations in which 367 managers completed the 360-degree version of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), the authors obtained similar results across the various rating scales (self, peer, superior and subordinate). Particularly significant was their finding of strong agreement between subordinate and self-ratings. These studies by Edwards and Gill (2012), using the MLQ, and Young and Dulewicz (2007), using the LDQ, provide empirical evidence in support of the use of self-rating scales.

The Leadership Dimensions Questionnaire (LDQ), (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2004; 2005a) measures leadership competencies against 15 leadership dimensions. Similar to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), the LDQ has a dimension on the self-assessment of leadership performance. This scale contains six items that cover overall performance, which are aggregated to form a total score (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2004; 2005a). According to Dulewicz and Higgs (2005b) and Young and Dulewicz (2007), the LDQ, which has been used in studies involving a variety of commercial and public organisations, has been shown to be a reliable instrument. In all these studies, all the dimensions had recorded acceptable levels of reliability, with Cronbach's alphas >0.7) (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2005b).

Whereas the LDQ may be specialised for self-evaluation of leadership performance, the 3-item scale constructed by Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) may be used for self-evaluation of performance by all employees, irrespective of rank. Consequently, in this study, all employees from top management to the lowest-ranked employee who responded to the questionnaire were required to self-evaluate his or her performance.

The three scales of overall employee performance of Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) were each measured on a 7-point scale. Each scale, however, had a different set of anchors at high, moderate, and low ranges. One of the scales was anchored with high (6-7) = *exceeds standard for job performance*, moderate (3-5) = *meets standards for job performance*, and low (1-2) = *does not meet standards for job performance*. Another scale was anchored with high (6-7) = *performs at a high level compared with others of the same rank*, moderate (3-5) = *performs at an average level compared with others of the same rank*, and low (1-2) = *performs at a low level compared with others of the same rank*. Finally, another scale was anchored with high (6-7) = *contributes more to unit effectiveness than most members of the work unit*, moderate (3-5) = *makes an average contribution to unit effectiveness*, and low (1-2) = *contributes less to unit*

effectiveness than most members of the work unit. The mean of the three scales formed the overall performance score. Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) found an alpha of above .96 for all the scales. In the Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) study, these scales were used by supervisors to evaluate subordinates. However, for this thesis, these scales were adapted for self-rating and, therefore, the validity coefficients found by Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) may not apply. For each item the wording of the question was changed (without changing the meaning) such that instead of the evaluation being done by a supervisor, it required self-rating. The answers to the questions remained unchanged. Basically the question items were rephrased from the third person singular to the second person singular. For example the item,

> *"How do you rate **his/her** contributions to the effectiveness of **his/her** work unit/department?"*

which was originally designed to be used by a superior to evaluate a subordinate became

> *"How do **you** rate **your** contributions to the effectiveness of **your** work unit/department?"*

Another example of question items on the Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) scales which was rephrased for this thesis was; "How do *you* rate *your* performance on *your* job?" with responses such as "Very much exceeds standards for job performance" at the positive extreme, and "Does not meet standards for job performance" at the negative extreme. The rest of the items can be found in Appendix 1, Section 1A.

3.5 Sampling

The selection of a sample for any research is as crucial as the use of appropriate and valid measurement instruments for data collection. Consequently, the researcher was duly guided by this consideration when choosing his sample. No sample size was predetermined since it was limited by access. However N in subsamples was less than 100. In selecting the organisations for the study, the purposive sampling method was used. This was because there was a need to ensure that organisations were drawn from across the various sectors; namely,

the private, public, state and multinational. The operational definition of these sectors is as follows:

> ***Public*** – Organisations that are publicly funded through the floating of shares to the general public. These are limited liability organisations which operate mainly for profit.
>
> ***State*** – Organisations that are fully funded from state coffers or government funds. They may not necessarily operate for profit. Such organisations primarily exist to provide essential services.
>
> ***Private*** – Organisations that are funded by private individuals or groups of individuals (e.g. friends, family, social groups). Such organisations largely operate for profit.
>
> ***Multinational*** – Organisations which are most often funded from sources external to the economy, and which may operate in several countries, and in some cases may operate across several continents. These are giant organisations that operate mainly for profit. The only exception is when the organisation is a charitable organisation.

After the selection of the organisations through purposive sampling, the administration of questionnaires within each organisation was made through stratified random sampling. The stratified random sampling was employed to ensure that, in each organisation, a representative sample was obtained for the various organisational strata. These stratifications were top management, middle management, first-line management, and staff. These stratifications are operationally defined below.

> ***Top Management*** – They are the policy makers. They take strategic decisions and determine the strategic direction of the organisation.
>
> ***Middle Management*** – Refers to those who interpret, translate and operationalise policies. They oversee and coordinate the functions of the first-line managers or supervisors.
>
> ***First-line Management*** – Refers to those directly supervising employees in the basic functions of the organisation, whether manufacturing or provision of services.

Staff – This refers to all employees who have no managerial functions. They take direct instructions from supervisors in the production of goods and services.

The process of ensuring that representative samples are obtained for each of the above categories, in each organisation, is explained further in the section on *procedure.*

3.5.1 Location

The population for this study was the work organisations in the Accra-Tema Metropolis, which has the highest number, concentration and diversity of work organisations in the country (Ghana). Findings may, therefore, be representative of organisations in Ghana. Eighteen (18) work organisations were initially approached to be part of the research, of which fourteen (14) consented (78%). Of these 14 organisations, four were multinationals, five were state-owned, two were public and three were private.

3.5.2 Sample Size

A total of seven hundred and sixty-three (763) questionnaires were distributed across these 14 organisations. Of this number, five hundred and twenty-six (526) completed questionnaires were returned. This represents a response rate of 69%. Of these 526 returned questionnaires, 518 were found to be usable (98%).

Responses from across the various sectors of organisations are indicated in Table 3.10 below.

Table 3.10: Sectors of organisations

		Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Valid	State	209	40.3	40.3	40.3
	Public	82	15.8	15.8	56.2
	Private	138	26.6	26.6	82.8
	Multi-national	89	17.2	17.2	100.0
	Total	518	100.0	100.0	

3.5.3 Sample Characteristics

A sample of 518 respondents is drawn from 14 organisations in the Accra-Tema metropolis. These include manufacturing, commercial, and service organisations spread across the various sectors: two organisations from the Public sector; three organisations from the Private sector; five organisations from the State sector; and four organisations from the Multinational sector. The biographical data of the sample included gender, age, level of seniority, tenure of office, length of office with present organisation, academic qualification, and professional qualification.

In terms of gender, 64% were males and 36% were females. The average age of the sample is 36 years, and the age range is 19 to 69 years.

In terms of tenure, 70% of the sample had served up to 5 years, 20% had served between 6 and 10 years, 7% had served between 11 and 20 years, 1% had served between 21 and 30 years, and, 0.2% had served for more than 40 years in their current positions, respectively.

Twenty percent of the sample had served in their present organisations for up to 5 years, and another 20% had served for between 6 and 10 years, 15% had served between 11 and 20 years, 7 % had served between 21 and 30 years, and 3% had served for over 30years in their present organisations respectively.

Academically, 30% of the sample had qualifications below the bachelors' degree level, 43% had bachelors' degrees and 24% had postgraduate degrees.

Professionally, 39% of the sample either had Certificate or Foundation level qualifications, 20% had Intermediate qualifications, and 13 had Final or Chartered qualifications.

Indigenous Ghanaians constituted 92% of the sample.

Further details of the statistics of these biographical variables are provided in the results chapter (Tables 4.2 to 4.9).

3.6 Procedure

To obtain the necessary data for the research, several procedures were followed. These procedures can be briefly categorised into three main stages. These stages are the pre-data collection stage, data collection stage, and post-data collection stage or data treatment stage.

3.6.1 Pre-data collection

A year prior to the data collection, the purposive sampling method was used to select organisations for the research (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2008). Eighteen (18) organisations were approached through personal contacts (as opposed to emails and letters). Personal contact was the preferred approach since it had superior benefits over the email and the post. Personal contacts have the advantage of offering the researcher the opportunity to address any misconceptions and queries that the organisations may have about the research, instantly and in a more interactive way. Moreover, issues of what data will be required from them and the assurance of confidentiality were better handled in person than would have been in the case of either emails or through the post.

After presenting the letter of introduction from the University in person to the Human Resources departments of the various organisations, and discussions about the research had been held, 14 out of the initial 18 organisations that were approached consented to take part in the research. Consequently, contacts of the respective Human Resource Managers (HRMs) were collected. Most of them willingly provided the researcher with their complimentary/business cards which had their email addresses, telephone numbers and mobile numbers on them.

Within the period of one year prior to the data collection, after the consent to participate had been given by the 14 organisations, the researcher maintained and reinforced the initial relationship made with the HRMs (made in person) through emails and telephone calls from time to time. Social networks like LinkedIn and Facebook were also utilised to maintain the contact with HRMs.

Advantage was also taken during occasions like Easter and Christmas to send seasonal greetings to the HRMs as a means of maintaining contact with them. All these efforts resulted in the high response rate, as evidenced above.

3.6.2 Data Collection

On arrival at each of the organisations, the first point of contact was the HRM's office. In some cases the HRM personally assisted in terms of giving out employee statistics such as how many positions fall under top management, middle management, first-line management, and junior staff. In other instances the HRM delegated an official to provide the necessary information and also to facilitate assess to the respondents according to the stratification indicated earlier (i.e. top management, middle management, first-line management, and staff). No specific numbers were predetermined for any organisation. Therefore, such statistics obtained from the HR department acted as a good guide to the researcher as to how many questionnaires should be given to each of the various categories to ensure adequate and proportionate representation of each category in the organisation. For top management (depending on the size of the organisation), between three and five persons (representing about two to six per cent of respondents from the organisation), completed the questionnaire. Similarly, about 20 to 25 per cent of the questionnaires were completed by middle management; about 20% for first-line management, and the bulk of the questionnaires (between 45 and 60 per cent) were completed by junior staff.

For every organisation, once the appropriate numbers were determined, the stratified random sampling approach was used (Easterby-Smith *et al*., 2008). Personnel in the various categories were approached with the questionnaires and those willing to participate in the research were given the questionnaires, which in most cases were answered instantly. The fact that those who took part in the research were *willing* respondents may theoretically raise potential issues of response bias. However, considering the nature of the variables of the study it is inconceivable how the *willingness* of respondents to participate in this research could meaningfully sway the outcome in any untoward direction. This is because, although they were willing participants, they were drawn from the various categories of the research stratification. The appropriate numbers for the various categories were ensured. Additionally, every social research study, regardless of the sampling method employed, covertly or overtly is underpinned by the willingness of respondents to participate rather than coercion (Easterby-Smith *et*

al., 2008). Indeed, ethical provisions for social research requires respondents' informed consent to participate, and also their choice to exit at any stage of the research if they so desire without any victimisation of any sort for this decision (please find attached the University's Consent Form in Appendix 1, Section 1B). The fundamental issue here is that respondents in any social research must be *willing* participants regardless of the sampling method, including random sampling.

As mentioned above, personal contact was used in this study. This was also because the electronic and postal systems in Ghana are underdeveloped and largely inaccessible to most respondents. Even in a few instances of accessibility to the electronic system, the frequent power outages at the time made it inaccessible for the research since it was unreliable and, therefore, planning was not possible. Similarly, in instances of accessibility to the postal system, it was still not suitable because it was very slow and unreliable. Some mail could even get lost in transit or unduly delayed. The only viable option left for the researcher was through personal contact. Questionnaires were, therefore, given out to respondents directly by the researcher, and as indicated earlier, most of the respondents filled in the questionnaires instantly. However, arrangements were made with the few respondents who could not fill out the questionnaires instantly as to when they would be ready for collection. The researcher kept a record of these persons, left his contact details with them, and also collected their contact details so that there could be communication between the researcher and these respondents. This measure was put in place in order that their questionnaires could be collected when they were filled out and ready for collection. Follow-ups were made accordingly, until all questionnaires that were ready for collection had been retrieved.

3.6.3 Data Analysis

For the analyses of the collected data, the widely used IBM *statistical package for the social sciences* (SPSS), and the SPSS compatible *analysis of moment structures* (AMOS) were used. As a prerequisite for data analysis in any research, data cleaning was undertaken. Frequencies, descriptive statistics, correlations, *t* tests and structural equation modelling procedures were undertaken to analyse the data.

3.6.3.1 Data Cleaning

The researcher went through all the responses of the returned questionnaires. Out of the 526 questionnaires received, eight were found to contain a lot of unanswered items and therefore they were discarded and not used in the analysis. These eight questionnaires which constituted 1.5 % of the returned questionnaires were not used for the research because more than 15% of the questions on these questionnaires were not answered (George and Mallery, 2012). Consequently, 518 of the returned questionnaires were retained for the analysis. Several of these retained questionnaires had a few items unanswered, but these omissions were adjudged not to adversely affect the outcomes (George and Mallery, 2012). Such missing values were replaced by the mean scores of the responses of the various items. Tests of normality were conducted and all outliers were removed from the data. Items with extreme values of skewness and kurtosis were removed. George and Mallery (2012) recommend kurtosis and skewness values between +/-1.0 as excellent, and values between +/-2.0 as acceptable for most purposes. For this study the cut-off point was values between +/-1.5 for both kurtosis and skewness. Reliability tests for the measurement scales used were conducted, and factor analysis was also conducted for the core research variables.

3.6.3.2 Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistical analyses were conducted to give the researcher a general feel for the data and also to obtain leads to other necessary data analyses. Descriptive statistics, for example, gives information about the distributions of the data – such as measures of central tendency (mean, median, and mode). It also gives information about measures of variability around the mean (standard deviation, and variance) (George and Mallery, 2012). Such information enables a researcher to get a good idea about his data.

3.6.3.3 Correlations

Bivariate correlations were undertaken to outline the relationships between the research variables. Pearson product – moment correlation (Pearson *r*) was used for the analysis since it is based on the assumption that data have a normal distribution. The data for this research meet this assumption of normality. Additionally, although the Pearson *r* assumes normality, it has been found to work well even in instances where this assumption of normality is violated

(George and Mallery, 2012). The correlations were conducted along three main lines. First, correlations were conducted between the independent variables (transformational leadership, organisational commitment, organisational climate, and organisational culture). Secondly, correlations were conducted between these independent variables and the dependent variable (employee performance). Finally, correlations were conducted between the independent variables, the dependent variables and the biographical variables:

(i) Bivariate correlations between the independent variables: –

(a) Correlation between transformational leadership and organisational commitment, (b) correlation between transformational leadership and organisational climate, (c) correlation between transformational leadership and organisational culture.

(ii) Bivariate correlations between the independent variables and the dependent variable: –

(a) Correlation between leadership and employee performance, (b) correlation between organisational culture and employee performance, (c) correlation between organisational commitment and employee performance, (d) correlation between organisational climate and employee performance.

(iii) Bivariate correlations between the independent variables, dependent variable, and the biographical variables of the sample:–

Bivariate correlations were used to assess the relationships between the independent variables (transformational leadership, organisational climate, organisational commitment, organisational culture), the dependent variable (employee performance), and the biographical variables (age, gender, level of seniority, length of service, length of time on present rank, academic qualification, and professional qualification).

3.6.3.4 Means/*t* Tests

The *Independent t Test* was used to ascertain whether there were significant differences across the various sectors (Public, Private, Multinational, State) with respect to the research variables (transformational leadership, organisational culture, organisational climate, organisational commitment, employee performance), and also with respect to the biographical data (gender, age, etc.). Independent *t* tests were conducted over these research variables and

biographical variables among the various organisational sectors along the following permutations:

(i) Public and Private Organisations,

(ii) Multinationals and State Organisations,

(iii) State and Private Organisations,

(iv) State and Public Organisations,

(v) Private and Multinational Organisations.

3.6.3.5 Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was used to assess the validity of the research model. This included examining whether the dimensions of the model (structural model, the path model and the measurement model) fit the data. First, the principal components of the research variables were used in the model, with leadership as the exogenous factor. Secondly, the main components of the research variables (generated through exploratory factor analysis) were used in the model with leadership as the exogenous factor. Thirdly, the main components of the research variables were used in the model, with organisational culture as the exogenous factor. Finally, the model was used to assess whether it fitted the various subsets of the data, along the lines of the various organisational sectors, as well as different permutations of the various sectors.

3.7 Summary

In order to ascertain the validity of the findings of any research and the consequent conclusions drawn from it, the philosophical background of the particular research needs to be specified. This enables a researcher to choose an appropriate methodology and methods. Therefore, in this chapter on methodology, the researcher first examined the philosophical assumptions that underpin social science research. Having considered the ontological and epistemological assumptions that underpin social science research, this study went down the path of positivism. Consequently, the cross-sectional survey research paradigm was adopted for the study. Appropriate validated questionnaires for the variables of study were selected and used to collect data

for this research. The purposive sampling method was adopted to select organisations for the study. Within each organisation, the stratified random sampling method was used to administer the questionnaires, in person, to the respondents. An overview of the treatment of the collected data was also given. The next chapter gives the details of the data treatment/analyses and the results obtained from the analyses.

Chapter 4: Results

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter provided the procedural framework within which the research was conducted. This framework ensured that the researcher obtained valid measurements of the research variables, through the use of reliable measurement instruments (survey questionnaires), to generate reliable empirical data. Consistent with the dominant paradigm in business and management research, the cross-sectional survey method was used to provide the needed empirical data. This data serves as evidence and a prerequisite to any assertion of contribution to the body of extant knowledge (Remenyi, 1998). To achieve this, due diligence must be taken in analysing the data. Therefore the focus of the present chapter is to ensure that the data collected are given the appropriate treatment that will provide sound basis for ascertaining the key relationships between the research variables.

As indicated in the previous chapter, the expected relationships among the research variables are expressed in the empirical research model, per the corresponding questionnaires (Figure 3.2). To outline these relationships, multivariate techniques were employed, using IBM SPSS software version 21 and AMOS software version 21. As indicated in the previous Chapter 3, the techniques employed included Factor Analysis, Correlations, *t* Tests, and Structural Equation Modelling. However, prior to these analyses, there was the need to clean up the data to ensure reliable data quality, leading to sound data analysis and consequent sound inferences from the data. A route map of the data treatment is given in Figure 4.1 below.

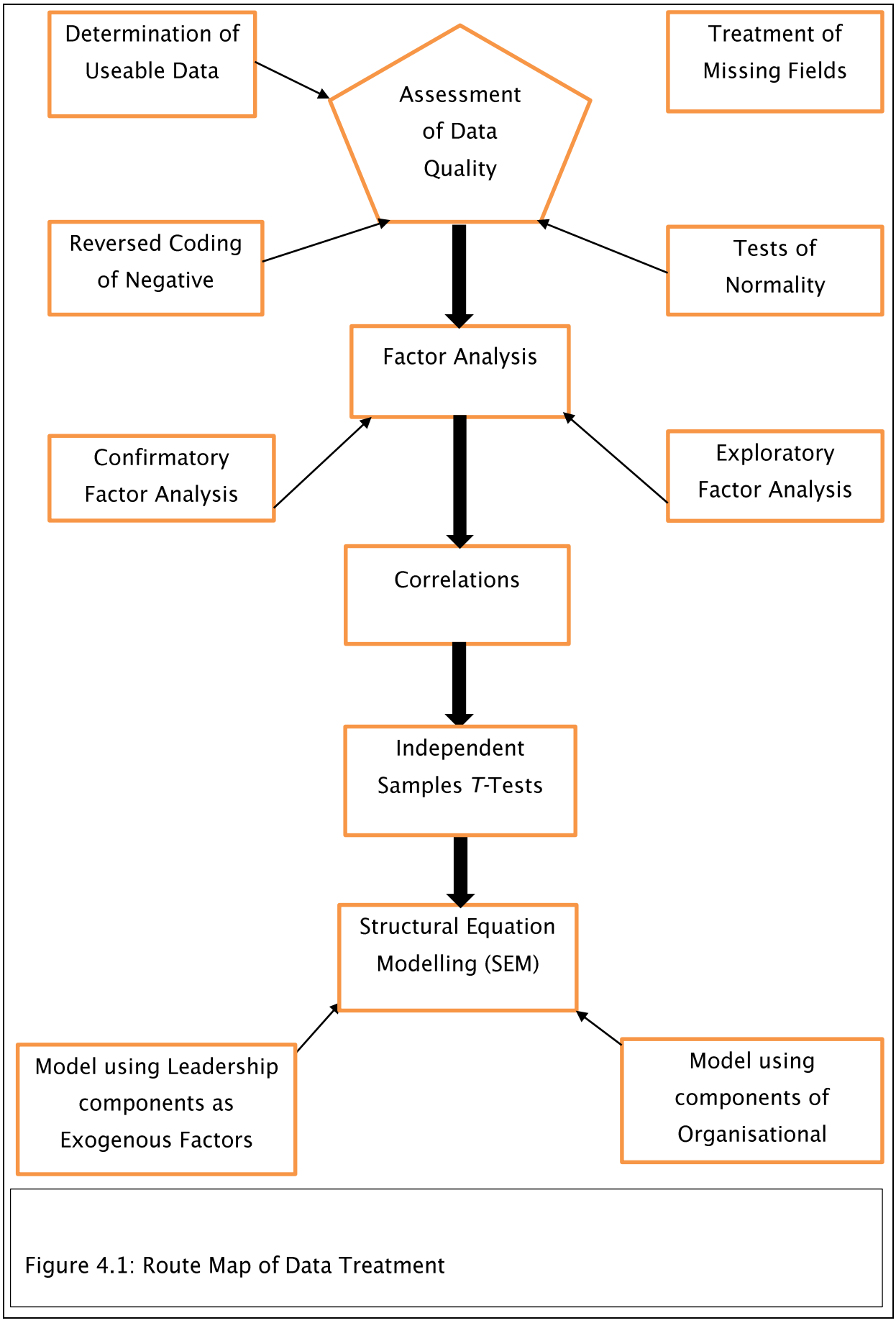

Figure 4.1: Route Map of Data Treatment

4.2 Assessment of Data Quality (Pre-analysis Data Treatment):

4.2.1 Determination of Useable Data

To ensure reliable data quality, the first stage of the pre-analysis data treatment examined responses given by the sample. There was the need to specify which responses were usable. This was determined by the item non-response rate. Data from respondents who were found to have item non-response rate of 15% and above were dropped from the analysis (George and Mallery, 2012). Responses from respondents originally with ID numbers 020, 031, 121, 133, 211, 220, 359, and 500 were accordingly excluded from the research data. With the exclusion of these eight questionnaires the resultant useable questionnaires numbered 518.

4.2.2 Reversed Coding

Items that were negatively framed or worded were reversed-scored. These negative statements that were reversed-scored were identified as items SN10, SN18, SN21, SN25, SN29, SN31, SN32 and SN37 (please refer to Appendix 1, Section 1A).

4.2.3 Missing Data/Fields:

The next step was to address the issue of missing responses of some items by some respondents. This was resolved by replacing non-response items by their respective item mean scores. Missing fields in the biographical data were replaced by “99”.

4.2.4 Test of Normality

A key assumption for most statistical analysis is the issue of normality. Hair Jr *et al.* (2010), referred to Normal Distribution as the benchmark for statistical methods. They stated further that:

> *If the variation from the normal distribution is sufficiently large, all resulting statistical tests are invalid, because normality is required to use the* F *and* t *statistics* (Hair Jr et al., 2010, p.71).

Even though the software used (IBM SPSS 21) is robust and works well with both normal and non-normal distributed data (George and Mallery, 2012), to be consistent with a basic requirement of multivariate analyses, the researcher considered it appropriate to ensure that the data used were normally distributed. Therefore there was the need to examine all outliers. Items with high or extreme skewness and kurtosis (X > +/- 1.5) were removed. Consequently, questionnaire items SN01, SN02, SN06, SN10, SN11 and SN28 were removed from the data (Appendix 1, Section 1A).

4.2.5 Test for Common Method Variance (CMV) – Harman's Single Factor Test:

To ascertain whether the data were flawed by common method variance (Lindell and Whitney, 2001; Podsakoff *et al*., 2003), Harman's Single Factor test in IBM SPSS 21 was employed. As indicated in the methodology chapter, all the variables of study were constrained into a single factor which explained only 25.70% of the variance (Table 4.1). Since the variance of the single factor is less than 50% of the total variance, it is an indication that the present study is less likely flawed with CMV.

Table 4.1: Harman's Single Factor for Common Methods Variance (CMV)

(Total Variance Explained)						
Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	11.052	25.702	25.702	11.052	25.702	25.702
2	3.746	8.711	34.412			
3	2.095	4.871	39.284			
4	1.904	4.427	43.711			
5	1.656	3.852	47.563			
6	1.199	2.789	50.352			
7	1.118	2.600	52.952			
8	1.002	2.330	55.282			
9	.959	2.230	57.512			
10	.928	2.158	59.670			
11	.872	2.027	61.697			
12	.839	1.951	63.649			
13	.805	1.873	65.522			
14	.792	1.843	67.364			
15	.743	1.727	69.091			
16	.740	1.721	70.812			
17	.734	1.706	72.518			
18	.698	1.624	74.142			
19	.687	1.598	75.741			
20	.631	1.467	77.208			
21	.625	1.454	78.662			
22	.587	1.366	80.028			
23	.573	1.333	81.361			
24	.567	1.318	82.680			
25	.542	1.260	83.939			
26	.523	1.215	85.154			
27	.508	1.182	86.336			
28	.486	1.130	87.466			
29	.463	1.076	88.543			
30	.459	1.068	89.611			
31	.434	1.010	90.621			
32	.416	.967	91.588			
33	.392	.912	92.499			
34	.385	.895	93.395			
35	.367	.854	94.249			
36	.360	.837	95.086			
37	.350	.814	95.900			
38	.333	.774	96.674			
39	.309	.718	97.391			
40	.300	.698	98.090			
41	.285	.662	98.752			
42	.275	.639	99.392			
43	.262	.608	100.000			
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.						

4.3 Biographical Data:

Table 4.2: Gender

Variable		Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Valid	Male	258	49.8	49.8	49.8
	Female	147	28.4	28.4	78.2
	Gender not declared	113	21.8	21.8	100.0
	Total	518	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.3: Age

Variable		Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Valid	Below 20 years	1	.2	.2	.2
	20-29	154	29.7	29.7	29.9
	30-39	189	36.5	36.5	66.4
	40-49	97	18.7	18.7	85.1
	50-59	65	12.5	12.5	97.7
	60-69	2	.4	.4	98.1
	Age category not declared	10	1.9	1.9	100.0
	Total	518	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.4: Present level of seniority

Variable		Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Valid	Staff	241	46.5	46.5	46.5
	First-line management	120	23.2	23.2	69.7
	Middle management	120	23.2	23.2	92.9
	Top management	23	4.4	4.4	97.3
	Status undeclared	14	2.7	2.7	100.0
	Total	518	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.5: Tenure of office

Variable		Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Valid	Below 1 year	115	22.2	22.2	22.2
	1–2	126	24.3	24.3	46.5
	3–5	119	23.0	23.0	69.5
	6–10	107	20.7	20.7	90.2
	11–20	36	6.9	6.9	97.1
	21–30	5	1.0	1.0	98.1
	41 or more	1	.2	.2	98.3
	Tenure undeclared	9	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	518	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.6: Length of service with organisation

Variable		Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Valid	Below 1 year	92	17.8	17.8	17.8
	1–2	72	13.9	13.9	31.7
	3–5	101	19.5	19.5	51.2
	6–10	109	21.0	21.0	72.2
	11–20	80	15.4	15.4	87.6
	21–30	36	6.9	6.9	94.6
	31–40	15	2.9	2.9	97.5
	41– 50	1	.2	.2	97.7
	Length of service undeclared	12	2.3	2.3	100.0
	Total	518	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.7: Academic qualification

Variable		Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Valid	Other (please specify)	34	6.6	6.6	6.6
	Ordinary Level Certificate of Education	25	4.8	4.8	11.4
	Advanced Level Certificate of Education	23	4.4	4.4	15.8
	Diploma	74	14.3	14.3	30.1
	Graduate	225	43.4	43.4	73.6
	Post graduate	123	23.7	23.7	97.3
	Academic level not declared	14	2.7	2.7	100.0
	Total	518	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.8: Professional qualification

Variable		Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Valid	Other (please specify)	43	8.3	8.3	8.3
	Certificate	138	26.6	26.6	34.9
	Foundation	21	4.1	4.1	39.0
	Intermediate	101	19.5	19.5	58.5
	Final (chartered)	65	12.5	12.5	71.0
	Undeclared professional qualification status	150	29.0	29.0	100.0
	Total	518	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.9: Nationality

Variable		Frequency	Per cent	Valid Per cent	Cumulative Per cent
Valid	GHANAIAN	474	91.5	91.5	91.5
	INDIAN	1	.2	.2	91.7
	NIGERIAN	3	.6	.6	92.3
	TANZANIAN	1	.2	.2	92.5
	TOGOLEESE	1	.2	.2	92.7
	UGANDAN	1	.2	.2	92.9
	UNDISCLOSED	36	6.9	6.9	99.8
	ZAMBIAN	1	.2	.2	100.0
	Total	518	100.0	100.0	

4.4 Test of Reliability of Measuring Instruments:

To ensure that the measuring instruments used were reliable, reliability analyses were conducted for the various measuring instruments. According to Nunnally (1978), a Cronbach's alpha of .70 and above indicate an acceptable level of internal consistency of a measuring instrument. As indicated in Table 4.10 below, all the measuring instruments had Cronbach's alphas above .70 with the sole exception of the measuring instrument for employee performance. The Cronbach's alpha for employee performance was .690, which, according to Morgan *et al.* (2007), is acceptable by most researchers for a 3-item measuring instrument.

As can be seen in Table 4.10, items with extreme skewness/kurtosis (as discussed in section 3.6.3.1) were removed (George and Mallery, 2012). For Transformational Leadership, out of the original 15 items, five were removed because their skewness/kurtosis exceeded 1.5. Similarly, out of eight items, an item was removed from the Organisational Climate scale for extreme skewness/kurtosis. For the other scales (employee performance, organisational culture and organisational commitment), no items were removed for extreme skewness/kurtosis.

To further increase the internal consistencies of the measuring scales, items that were found to inflate the inconsistencies in the scales were removed (George and Mallery, 2012). As recommended by (George and Mallery) and (Coakes, 2013), items that compromised the internal consistencies of the various scales were removed using the "Cronbach's Alpha if item Deleted" output of SPSS to guide in item removal to ensure increased alphas. Consequently, with this guidance appropriate items were removed and as a result the alphas of the various scales were improved to acceptable levels as shown in Table 4.10 below (Nunnally, 1978). For Organisational Commitment, Organisational Culture and Organisational Climate, two, five, and two items, respectively, were removed for high item-scale inconsistency. Although 5 of the 15 original items of the Transformational Leadership instrument were removed, the original subscales were not adversely affected, but rather their internal consistencies were increased, which increases the validity of subsequent statements about findings.

Table 4.10: Internal Consistency Reliability of Measuring Scales

Variable	Initial Items	Items Removed for Extreme Skewness/ Kurtosis	Items Removed to Improve Internal Consistency	Items Retained for Study	Cronbach's Alpha
Transformational Leadership	15	5	-	10	.836
Organisational Commitment	8	-	2	6	.770
Organisational Culture	24	-	5	19	.916
Organisational Climate	8	1	2	5	.708
Employee Performance	3	-	-	3	.690*

* Acceptable to most researchers for 3-items (Morgan *et al.,* 2007)

4.5 Factor Analysis:

In most instances in research, the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) precedes the Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA). However, in this thesis, the CFA preceded the EFA. This was because in this instance, well-known and validated instruments were used and there was the need to first find out whether the data confirmed the scales of these instruments. The next session provides the outcome of the CFA.

4.5.1 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

Having had evidence of acceptable levels of internal consistency of reliability of the measuring instruments, the next stage of the analysis was to ascertain whether the data supported the original component scales of the various measuring instruments. This was assessed through confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The extraction method was the Principal Components Analysis, and factors were extracted through varimax rotation. For Organisational Commitment, one factor was confirmed (Table 4.11). Similarly one factor each was confirmed for Employee Performance and Organisational Climate (Table 4.12 and Table 4.13 respectively).

Table 4.11: Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Organisational Commitment

(Component Matrix)	
Items	Component
	1
not feel like part of the family (Oco 6)	.793
no strong sense of belonging (Oco 7)	.768
not feel emotionally attached to organisation (Oco 5)	.686
feels organisation's problems as own (Oco 3)	.658
great deal of personal meaning (Oco 8)	.591
happy to spend the rest of working life (Oco1)	.585
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.	
a. 1 component extracted.	

Table 4.12: Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Employee Performance

(Component Matrix)	
Items	Component
	1
performance compared to colleagues' (Per c)	.800
contribution to unit's performance (Per u)	.785
performance on job (Per j)	.775
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.	
a. 1 component extracted.	

Table 4.13: Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Organisational Climate

(Component Matrix)	
Items	Component
	1
quick to recognise good performance (Cli r)	.784
Fair chance to develop career (Cli f)	.739
supervisor behind me 100% (Cli s)	.653
I can level with immediate supervisor (Cli t)	.646
Team spirit (Cli c)	.604
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.	
a. 1 component extracted.	

Although three factors were confirmed for Organisational Culture, these factors varied slightly from the original scales (*bureaucratic culture, innovative culture,* and *supportive culture*). The items for the various scales were redistributed such that they were no longer consistent with the original scales. Please refer to Table 4.14 and Figure 4.2 below. However, CFA failed to support the five factors of Transformational Leadership (*articulation of vision, inspirational communication,*

supportive leadership, intellectual stimulation, and *personal recognition*), as shown in Table 4.15 and Figure 4.3.

Table 4.14: Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Organisational Culture

(Rotated Component Matrix)			
Items	Component		
	1	2	3
creative (Cul i3)	.762	.280	.087
encouraging (Cul s3)	.694	.373	.114
stimulating (Cul i5)	.654	.093	.222
enterprising (Cul i7)	.650	.414	-.050
results-oriented (Cul i2)	.642	.202	.313
relationships-oriented (Cul s2)	.620	.243	.229
driving (Cul i8)	.608	.313	.172
collaborative (Cul s1)	.606	.051	.370
challenging (Cul i6)	.566	.147	.332
sociable (Cul s4)	.550	.390	.158
safe (Cul s7)	.249	.638	.073
cautious (Cul b7)	.016	.624	.452
established, solid (Cul b6)	.240	.620	.345
equitable (Cul s6)	.378	.613	-.037
trusting (Cul s8)	.426	.566	.154
procedural (Cul b2)	.119	.159	.719
ordered (Cul b4)	.153	-.004	.713
regulated (Cul b5)	.236	.251	.680
structured (Cul b3)	.451	.145	.606
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.[a]			
a. Rotation converged in seven iterations.			

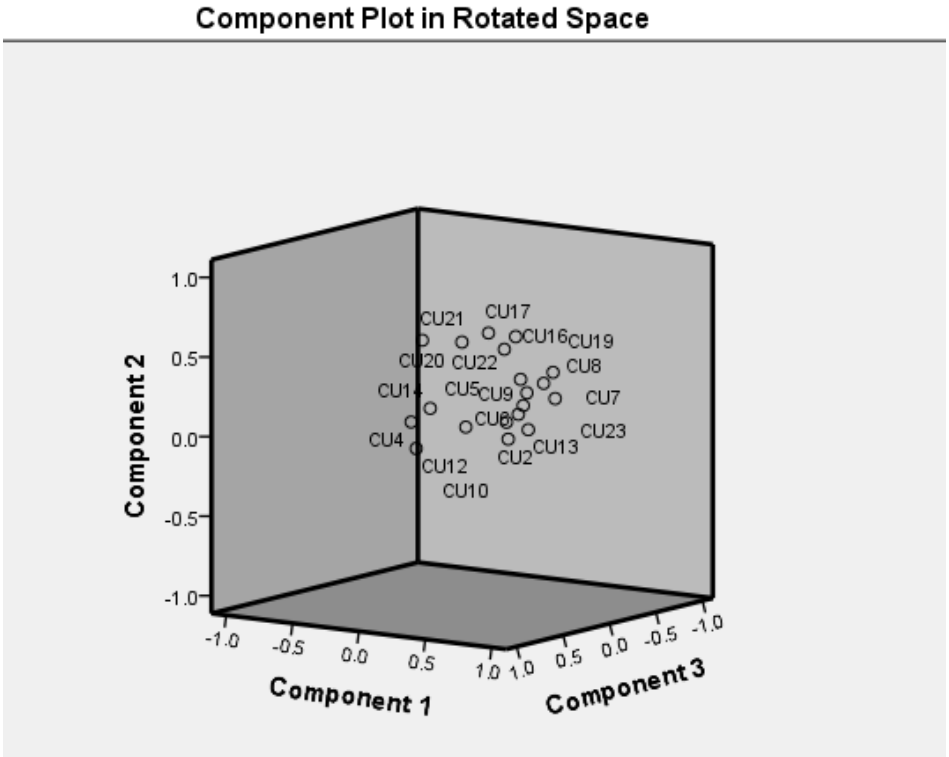

Figure 4.2: Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Organisational Culture

Table 4.15: Confirmatory Factor Analysis – Transformational Leadership

(Rotated Component Matrix)					
Items	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
clear sense of unit in the next five years (Lvi 3)	.714	.236	.277	.038	.170
interest of employees given due consideration (Lsl 2)	.696	.289	.063	.358	-.129
see challenging environment as full of opportunities (Lic 2)	.669	.209	.293	-.008	.278
utterances make employees proud to be part of organisation (Lic 3)	.318	.775	.104	.083	.118
commendations when over-works (Lpr 3)	.246	.692	.149	.226	.138
challenges to think about old problems (Lis 2)	.272	-.004	.837	.136	.069
rethink basic assumption (Lis 3)	.148	.301	.762	.102	.183
behaves in a thoughtful manner (Lsl 1)	.301	.003	.078	.794	.301
considers personal feelings before acting (Lsl 3)	-.076	.419	.195	.737	-.067
ideas that push thinking (Lis 1)	.138	.172	.183	.138	.897
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.[a]					
a. Rotation converged in seven iterations.					

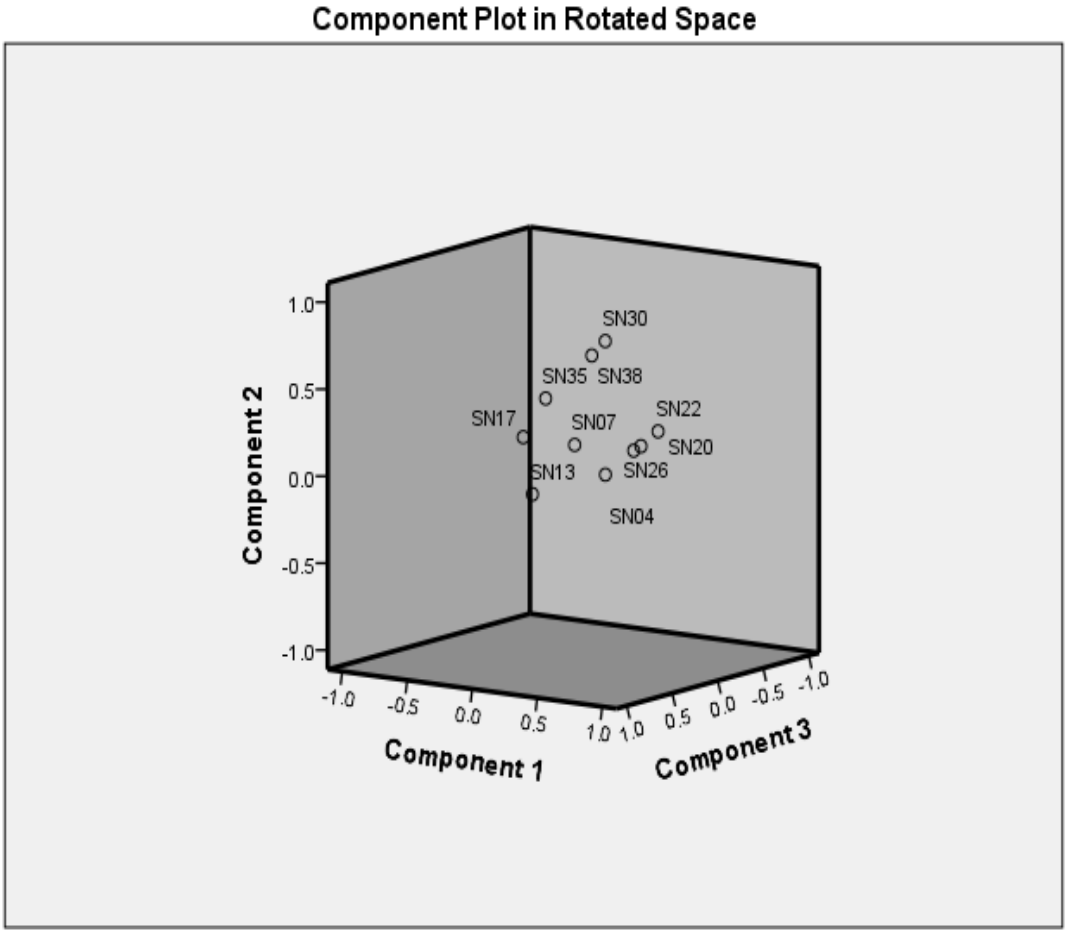

Figure 4.3: Confirmatory Factor Analysis – Components of Transformational Leadership

4.5.2 Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

It is normal research practice to report EFAs before CFAs. However as explained in section 4.5, in this study, well-developed and widely used measures were used. The author therefore decided to first assess the validity of these scales in relation to the sample. These CFAs were reported in section 4.5.1 above. Since some of the scales were not confirmed, EFAs were then conducted. The relevant EFAs are now presented in sections 4.5.2.1 and 4.5.2.2 below.

4.5.2.1 Transformational Leadership Questionnaire

Instead of the original five scales of Transformational Leadership (*articulation of vision, inspirational communication, supportive leadership, intellectual stimulation,* and *personal recognition*), the Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) produced two factors – *Supportive Leadership* and *Stimulating Leadership*. These

were obtained through the Principal Components Analysis method and varimax rotation. Similar results were obtained when the promax rotation was used. According to Hair Jr *et al.* (2010), varimax is the most popular orthogonal factor rotation, which is generally considered to be superior to the other orthogonal factor rotation methods in achieving a simplified factor structure. Therefore the researcher decided to work with the varimax procedure. Below are the details of the factor structure in Table 4.16 and a pictorial representation in Figure 4.4. The scales of these component factors had acceptable Alphas (Table 4.17).

Table 4.16: Exploratory Factor Analysis – Component structure of Transformational Leadership

(Rotated Component Matrix)[a]			
	Component		
	1	2	
see challenging environment as full of opportunities (Lic 2)	.723	.222	STL*
challenges to think about old problems (Lis 2)	.723	.093	
rethink basic assumption (Lis 3)	.702	.220	
clear sense of unit in the next 5 years (Lvi 3)	.689	.287	
ideas that push thinking (Lis 1)	.570	.205	
considers personal feelings before acting (Lsl 3)	-.007	.792	SPL*
behaves in a thoughtful manner (Lsl 1)	.203	.678	
commendations when over-works (Lpr 3)	.361	.611	
interest of employees given due consideration (Lsl 2)	.362	.588	
utterances make employees proud to be part of organisation (Lic 3)	.402	.564	
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.[a]			
a. Rotation converged in three iterations.			

*STL: Stimulating Leadership

*SPL: Supportive Leadership

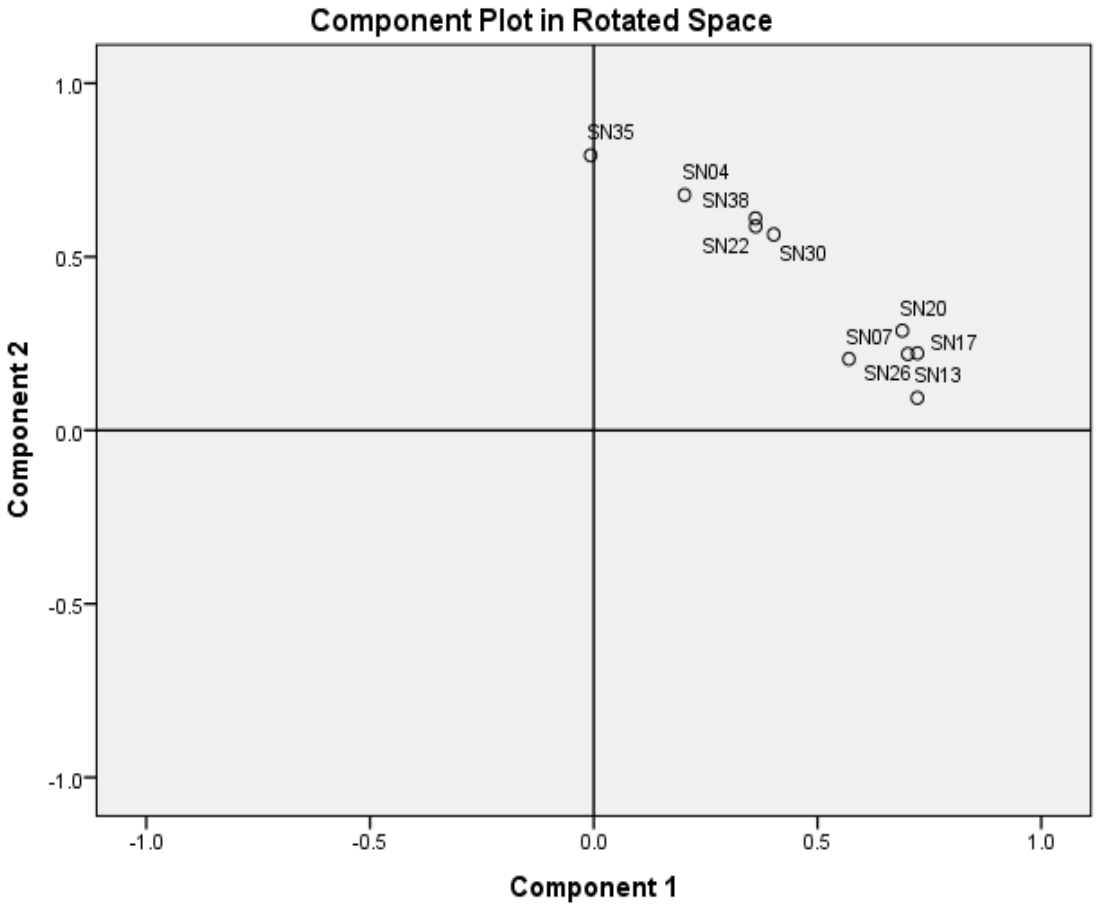

Figure 4.4: Component Factors of Transformational Leadership

Table 4.17: Internal Consistency Reliability of Component Scales of Transformational Leadership Generated from Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Component Factor	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Supportive Leadership	5	.743
Stimulating Leadership	5	.769

4.5.2.2 Organisational Culture:

As already indicated under the Confirmatory Factor Analysis section, three factors were confirmed for Organisational Culture but with slight variation in their compositions as well as the characteristics of one of the factors. The original

factors were *bureaucratic culture, supportive culture,* and *innovative culture.* However, Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) generated *bureaucratic culture, innovative culture,* and *tranquil culture*. The method employed was the Principal Component Analysis and the extraction option was varimax. Details of these factors are shown in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18: Exploratory Factor Analysis – Component Factors of Organisational Culture

(Rotated Component Matrix[a])				
	Component			
	1	2	3	
creative (Cul i3)	.762	.280	.087	Innovative Culture
encouraging (Cul s3)	.694	.373	.114	
stimulating (Cul i5)	.654	.093	.222	
enterprising (Cul i7)	.650	.414	-.050	
results-oriented (Cul i2)	.642	.202	.313	
relationships-oriented (Cul s2)	.620	.243	.229	
driving (Cul i8)	.608	.313	.172	
collaborative (Cul s1)	.606	.051	.370	
challenging (Cul i6)	.566	.147	.332	
sociable (Cul s4)	.550	.390	.158	
safe (Cul s7)	.249	.638	.073	Tranquil Culture
cautious (Cul b7)	.016	.624	.452	
established, solid (Cul b6)	.240	.620	.345	
equitable (Cul s6)	.378	.613	-.037	
trusting (Cul s8)	.426	.566	.154	
procedural (Cul b2)	.119	.159	.719	Bureaucratic Culture
ordered (Cul b4)	.153	-.004	.713	
regulated (Cul b5)	.236	.251	.680	
structured (Cul b3)	.451	.145	.606	
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.[a]				
a. Rotation converged in seven iterations.				

These factors are also presented pictorially in Figure 4.5 below.

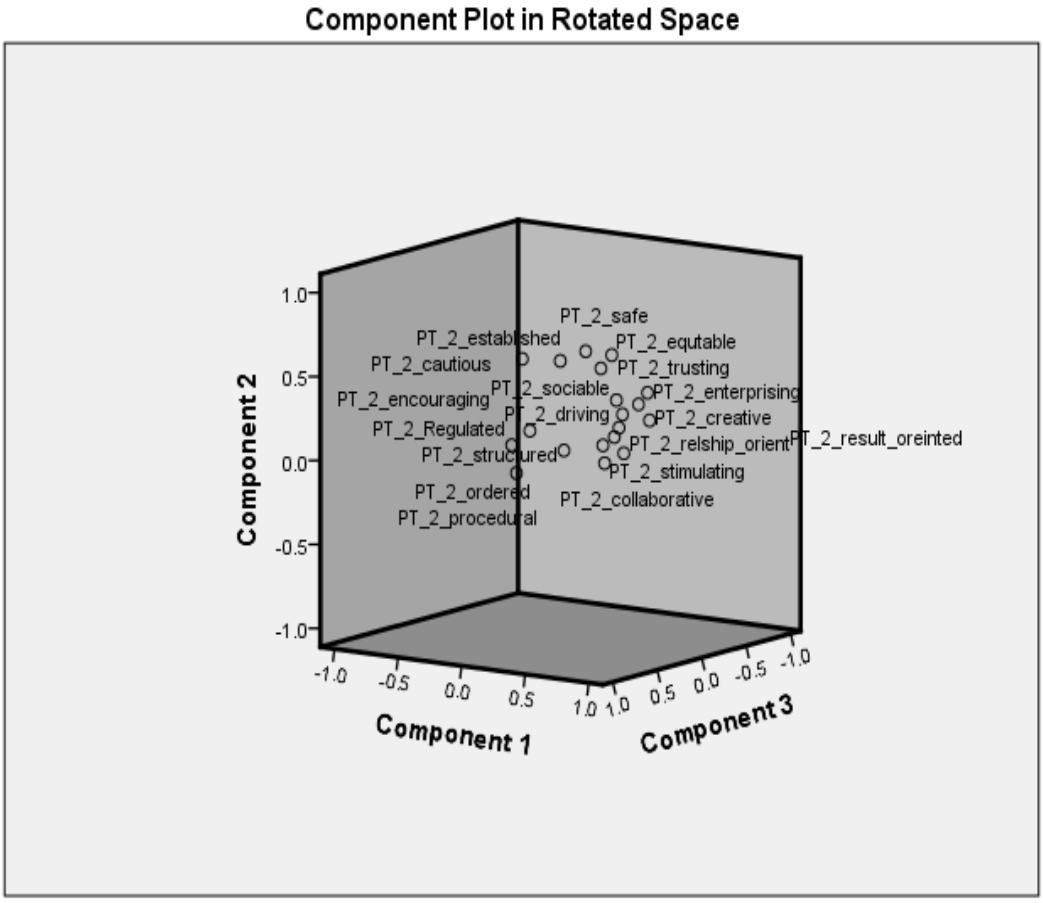

Figure 4.5: Exploratory Factor Analysis – Component Factors of Organisational Culture

All the component factors of Organisational Culture generated by the EFA have acceptable Alphas (above .70). These are shown in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19: Internal Consistency Reliability of Component Scales of Organisational Culture generated from Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

Component Factor	Number of Items	Cronbach's Alpha
Bureaucratic Culture	4	.750
Innovative Culture	10	.893
Tranquil Culture	5	.746

4.6 Correlations:

To explore the relationships between the research variables, bivariate correlations were employed. All the assumptions for the use of bivariate correlations were met (Coakes, 2013). These assumptions specify that (1) the data collected must be from related pairs, (2) the scale of measurement must be interval or ratio, (3) data must be normally distributed, (4) relationship between two variables must be linear, and (5) the variability in scores for one variable should roughly be the same at all values of the other variable (homoscedasticity) (Coakes, 2013). Assumptions 1 and 2 were met through the research design; assumption 3 was met by examining the skewness and kurtosis of scores; and assumptions 4 and 5 were met by examining the scatter dots of the variables. The correlations among the research variables were assessed at two levels by the Pearson product-moment correlation or the Pearson ***r***. First the correlations were assessed amongst the core (principal components) research variables and the biographical variables. At the second level, correlations were assessed amongst component factors of the research variables and the biographical variables. The correlation matrix is shown in Appendix 2, Section 2A.

4.6.1 Correlations using the Principal Components:

The significant correlations in Appendix 2 (Section 2A) have been summarised along the various variables, and are hereby presented below:

4.6.1.1 Age:

Age correlated positively with Present level of seniority (***r*** =.753, ***p*** =.000, r_{pb} = 0.02), Tenure of office (***r*** =.944, ***p***=.000, r_{pb} = 0.02), Length of service with organisation (***r***=.718, ***p*** = .000, r_{pb} = 0.02), Academic qualification (***r*** = .660, ***p*** = .000, r_{pb} = 0.07), and Professional qualification (***r*** = .159, ***p*** = .000, r_{pb} = 0.37). However age correlated negatively with Transformational Leadership (***r*** = -.093, ***p*** = .034, r_{pb} = 0.00). The high negative correlation between transformational leadership and age is an interesting development. This may be due to the high-power distance culture which is embedded in the Ghanaian national culture, and which may become more apparent with aging leadership. Aging leaders may become either more complacent and therefore see no need to continue to employ transformational leadership style, or become more comfortable in their positions and become more "power drunk". Either way, less of the transformational

leadership style will be employed, or more of other leadership styles (e.g. autocratic) may be employed. This relationship between age and transformational leadership is further explored in the discussions chapter.

4.6.1.2 Present Level of Seniority:

Present level of seniority correlated with Tenure of office (r = .792, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.00), Length of service with organisation (r = .597, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.04), Academic qualification (r = .555, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.08), and Professional qualification (r = .132, p = .003, r_{pb} = 0.37).

4.6.1.3 Tenure of Office:

Tenure of office correlated positively with Length of service with organisation (r = .759, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.04), Academic qualification (r = .696, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.10), and Professional qualification (r = .173, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.38). Tenure of office however correlated negatively with Transformational leadership (r = -.091, p = .039, r_{pb} = 0.04). Like age, the high negative correlation between tenure of office and transformational leadership may be due to the high-power distance culture within the national culture. It is likely that as leaders spend more years in their posts they may become more complacent and less careful to employ the transformational leadership style. Again, this relationship between tenure of office and transformational leadership is explored further in the discussions chapter.

4.6.1.4 Length of Service with Organisation:

Length of service correlated positively with Academic qualification (r = .833, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.05), and Professional qualification (r = .213, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.36).

4.6.1.5 Academic Qualification:

Academic qualification correlated positively with Professional qualification (r = .217, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.34).

4.6.1.6 Employee Performance:

Employee Performance correlated positively with Organisational Commitment (r = .151, p = .001, r_{pb} = 0.18), and Organisational Culture (r = .127, p = .004, r_{pb} = 0.87).

4.6.1.7 Transformational Leadership:

Transformational Leadership correlated positively with Organisational Commitment (r = .439, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.02), Organisational Climate (r = .730, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.03), and Organisational Culture (p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.81).

4.6.1.8 Organisational Commitment:

Organisational Commitment correlated positively with Organisational Climate (r = .486, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.05), and Organisational Culture (r = .442, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.05).

4.6.1.9 Organisational Climate:

Organisational Climate correlated positively with Organisational Culture (r = .400, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.79).

4.6.2 Correlations Using the Component Factors:

To get a deeper insight into the relationships among the research variables, the component factors of these variables generated from the exploratory factor analyses (EFA) were examined through bivariate correlations by employing the Pearson product-moment correlation or the Pearson r (Appendix 2, Section 2A). As was in the case with the Principal components, the significant correlations among the factor components and the biographical variables are presented below:

4.6.2.1 Innovative Culture:

Innovative Culture correlated positively with Employee Performance (r = .120, p = .006, r_{pb} = 0.86), Supportive Leadership (r = .357, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.77), Stimulating Leadership (r = .402, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.78), Transformational Leadership (r = .425, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.80), Organisational Climate (r = .415, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.78), Organisational Commitment (r = .440, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.75), Organisational Culture (r = .949, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.02), Tranquil Culture (r = .708, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.05), and Bureaucratic Culture (r = .567, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.14).

4.6.2.2 Tranquil Culture:

Tranquil Culture correlated positively with Supportive Leadership (r = .274, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.78), Stimulating Leadership (r = .332, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.79), Transformational Leadership (r = .340, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.81), Organisational Commitment (r = .367, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.76), Organisational Climate (r = .328, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.79), Bureaucratic Culture (r = .504, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.18), and Organisational Culture (r = .874, p =. 000, r_{pb} = 0.07).

4.6.2.3 Bureaucratic Culture:

Bureaucratic Culture correlated positively with Employee Performance (r = .125, p = .004, r_{pb} = 0.84), Supportive Leadership (r = .201, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.74), Stimulating Leadership (r = .317, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.76), Organisational Commitment (r = .280, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.72), Organisational Culture (r = .733, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.13), Organisational Climate (r = .218, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.75), and Transformational Leadership. Bureaucratic Culture however correlated negatively with Age (r = -.096, p = .030, r_{pb} = 0.09).

4.6.2.4 Supportive Leadership:

Supportive Leadership correlated positively with Organisational Commitment (r = .435, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.02), Organisational Climate (r = .707, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.06), Employee Performance (r = .087, p = .047, r_{pb} = 0.21), Stimulating Leadership (r = .596, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.07), Transformational Leadership (r = .890, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.04), and Organisational Culture (r = .344, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.77).

4.6.2.5 Stimulating Leadership:

Stimulating Leadership correlated positively with Organisational Commitment (r = .351, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.05), Organisational Culture (r = .417, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.80), Transformational Leadership (r = .897, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.04), and Organisational Climate (r = .599, p = .000, r_{pb} = 0.00).

Stimulating Leadership however correlated negatively with Age (r = -.094, p = .032, r_{pb} = 0.01), and Tenure of Office (r = -.093, p = .035, r_{pb} = 0.05). It is further interesting to note that supportive leadership does not have any significant relationship with age and tenure of office but stimulating leadership does; just like transformational leadership does. Supportive leadership and stimulating leadership constitute the two dimensions of transformational

leadership in Ghana. Therefore if only the stimulating component has relationships with age and tenure of office, and these relationships are negative, then it could be interpreted that as leaders age and also as they spend more years at their posts, they "burn out" and lose their power to stimulate subordinates.

Generally there have been numerous significant correlations amongst the independent variables and also between the independent variables and the dependent variable: Significant relationship exists between organisational commitment and transformational leadership. Significant relationship also exists between organisational commitment and employee performance. There is also a significant correlation between transformational leadership and organisational climate. A significant relation also exists between transformational leadership and organisational culture. Organisational culture also has a significant relation with employee performance. Details and implications of all these relationships are discussed in the next chapter.

4.7 Independent Samples *t* Tests:

To ascertain whether the organisations within the various sectors varied significantly across the research variables, the Independent Samples *t* Test was employed. The assumptions for the use of the independent *t* test are that (1) the scale of measurement should be at the interval or ratio level, (2) scores should be randomly sampled from the population, (3) scores should be normally distributed in the population, (4) participants should belong to only one group, and (5) groups should come from populations with equal variances (Coakes, 2013). The data indicate an absence of violation of any of these assumptions.

T Tests were therefore conducted across various permutations of the sectors of organisations. For easy reference, the operational definitions of these sectors of organisations provided in the methodology chapter are repeated below:

> ***Public*** – Organisations that are publicly funded through the floating of shares to the general public. These are limited liability organisations which operate mainly for profit.
>
> ***State*** – Organisations that are fully funded from state coffers or government funds. They may not necessarily operate for profit. Such organisations primarily exist to provide essential services.

Private – Organisations that are funded by private individuals or groups of individuals (e.g. friends, family, social groups). Such organisations largely operate for profit.

Multinational – Organisations which are most often funded from sources external to the economy, and which may operate in several countries, and in some cases may operate across several continents. These are giant organisations that operate mainly for profit. The only exception is when the organisation is a charitable organisation.

The ensuing sections provide the results of the Independent Samples *t* tests conducted across the various sectors, beginning with the State and Public sectors.

4.7.1 State and Public Organisations

Generally, organisations within the State and Public sectors did not show any significant differences on the research variables except in Employee Performance and Tranquil Culture (Table 4.20 and Table 4.21).

4.7.1.1 Employee Performance:

On Employee Performance, the independent-samples *t* test analysis indicates that the two groups differ significantly from each other: $t\,(289) = -2.67$, $p < .01$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.36$. The 82 respondents from the Public sector had a mean score of 5.68, and the 209 respondents from the State sector had a mean score of 5.39. The higher mean score of the Public sector is therefore suggestive of higher employee performance among employees of the Public sector than among employees of the State sector.

4.7.1.2 Tranquil Culture:

State organisations differed significantly from Public organisations on Tranquil Culture: $t\,(289) = -2.87$, $p < .01$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.38$. The mean score of 209 participants from State organisations was 2.84, and the mean score of 82 participants from Public organisations was 3.07. Since the mean score of Public organisations is higher than the mean score of State organisations, it could be safely concluded that employees of Public organisations experienced more Tranquil Culture than did employees of State organisations.

Table 4.20: Group Statistics for State and Public organisations

Dependent Variable	Sector of organisation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Effect Size *d*
Employee Performance (EP)	State	209	5.3955	.84786	.05865	0.3557
	Public	82	5.6829	.76605	.08460	
Tranquil Culture	State	209	2.8364	.63140	.04368	0.3833
	Public	82	3.0659	.56398	.06228	

Table 4.21 Independent Samples *t* Test (Public and State)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		*t* test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Employee Performance (EP)	Equal variances assumed	2.484	.116	-2.671	289	.008	-.28739	.10760	-.49917	-.07561
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.792	162.915	.006	-.28739	.10294	-.49066	-.08413
Tranquil Culture	Equal variances assumed	2.003	.158	-2.872	289	.004	-.22949	.07991	-.38677	-.07221
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.017	164.738	.003	-.22949	.07607	-.37969	-.07929

Below is a summary of the significant differences between State and Public organisations.

Table 4.22: Summary of Significant Differences between State and Public Organisations. *= more than

Variable	State	Public
Employee Performance		*
Tranquil Culture		*

4.7.2 State and Private Organisations

The independent samples *t* tests revealed significant differences between State and Private Organisations on numerous research variables (Table 4.23 and Table 4.24). These variables are Professional Qualification, Employee Performance, Supportive Leadership, Stimulating Leadership, Transformational Leadership, Organisational Commitment, Organisational Climate, Innovative Culture, Tranquil Culture, and Organisational Culture. These variables are now addressed in turn below.

4.7.2.1 Professional Qualification:

There was a significant difference between these two sectors on professional qualification: t (272.08) = -2.09, p <.05, (two-tailed), d = 0.23. The mean score on professional qualification by 209 State employees was 26.78 whereas that by 138 employees from the Private sector was 36.99. The higher mean score of the Private organisations indicate that Private organisations have more professionally qualified employees than those in State organisations.

4.7.2.2 Employee Performance:

On employee performance the statistic t (345) = -2.06, p <.05, (two-tailed), d = 0.23 indicates a significant difference between the two sectors. The mean score of 209 employees from State organisations was 5.40 and the mean score of 138 employees from Private organisations was 5.58. The higher mean score of Private

organisations indicates that Private organisations have higher employee performance levels than the performance levels in State organisations.

4.7.2.3 Supportive Leadership:

For the deploying of supportive leadership among State organisations and Private organisations, the independent samples *t* test statistics indicates that $t(345) = -3.17$, $p < .01$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.35$. This indicates a significant difference in the deployment of supportive leadership in organisations of the Private sector from the deployment of supportive leadership in organisations of the State sector. Considering the higher mean score of Private organisations of 5.27 (of 138 respondents) as against the mean score of 4.92 of 209 respondents from state organisations, it could be safely concluded that Private organisations deploy more supportive leadership than do State organisations.

4.7.2.4 Stimulating Leadership:

For the deploying of stimulating leadership among State organisations and Private organisations, the independent samples *t* test statistics indicates that $t(321.33) = -4.43$, $p < .01$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.48$. This indicates a significant difference in the deploying of stimulating leadership between organisations in the Private and State sectors. Considering the higher mean score of Private organisations of 5.49 (of 138 respondents) as against the mean score of 5.03 of 209 respondents from State organisations, it could be safely concluded that Private organisations deploy more stimulating leadership than do State organisations.

4.7.2.5 Transformational Leadership:

For the deploying of transformational leadership among State organisations and Private organisations, the independent samples *t* test statistics indicates that $t(345) = -4.22$, $p < .01$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.47$. This indicates a significant difference in the deploying of transformational leadership between organisations in the Private and State sectors. Considering the higher mean score of Private organisations of 5.38 (of 138 respondents) as against the mean score of 4.97 of 209 respondents from state organisations, it could be safely concluded that Private organisations deploy more transformational leadership than do State organisations. This finding is not surprising given the fact that the components (stimulating leadership and supporting leadership) produced similar results.

4.7.2.6 Organisational Commitment:

With respect to the level of commitment employees have towards their organisation, the independent samples *t* test statistics of $t(345) = -3.20$, $p < .01$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.36$ demonstrates that there is a significant difference between State organisations and Private organisations. The mean score of 138 employees from the Private sector was 5.40 and the mean score of 209 employees from the State sector was 5.02. Given the significant difference between the two categories, the higher mean score from the Private sector suggests higher levels of organisational commitment exhibited by employees of organisations in the Private sector than the levels exhibited by employees of organisations in the State sector.

Table 4.23: Group Statistics (State and Private Organisations)

Dependent Variable	Sector of organisation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Effect Size *d*
Professional Qualification	State	209	26.78	41.678	2.883	0.2320
	Private	138	36.99	46.194	3.932	
Employee Performance (EP)	State	209	5.3955	.84786	.05865	0.2279
	Private	138	5.5821	.78826	.06710	
Supportive Leadership	State	209	4.9196	1.03108	.07132	0.3503
	Private	138	5.2681	.95703	.08147	
Stimulating Leadership	State	209	5.0278	1.04283	.07213	0.4789
	Private	138	5.4942	.89970	.07659	
Transformational Leadership	State	209	4.9737	.90667	.06272	0.4661
	Private	138	5.3812	.84028	.07153	
Organisational Commitment	State	209	5.0247	1.07482	.07435	0.2553
	Private	138	5.3853	.95069	.08093	
Organisational Climate	State	209	5.0890	1.02560	.07094	0.4286
	Private	138	5.5246	1.00661	.08569	
Innovative Culture	State	209	2.8809	.58253	.04029	0.9605
	Private	138	3.3884	.46796	.03984	
Tranquil Culture	State	209	2.8364	.63140	.04368	0.6610
	Private	138	3.2232	.53495	.04554	
Organisational Culture	State	209	2.9375	.52914	.03660	0.8006
	Private	138	3.3284	.44358	.03776	

Table 4.24 Independent Samples *t* Test (State and Private)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		*t* test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Professional Qualification	Equal variances assumed	16.215	.000	-2.138	345	.033	-10.206	4.774	-19.596	-.815
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.093	272.082	.037	-10.206	4.876	-19.805	-.606
Employee Performance (EP)	Equal variances assumed	1.043	.308	-2.063	345	.040	-.18659	.09046	-.36451	-.00867
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.094	307.911	.037	-.18659	.08912	-.36195	-.01123
Supportive Leadership	Equal variances assumed	.413	.521	-3.170	345	.002	-.34850	.10994	-.56474	-.13226

	Equal variances not assumed			-3.219	308.223	.001	-.34850	.10828	-.56155	-.13544
Stimulating Leadership	Equal variances assumed	4.793	.029	-4.302	345	.000	-.46645	.10842	-.67970	-.25320
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.434	321.325	.000	-.46645	.10521	-.67344	-.25947
Transformational Leadership	Equal variances assumed	.819	.366	-4.217	345	.000	-.40748	.09662	-.59752	-.21743
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.283	308.512	.000	-.40748	.09513	-.59466	-.22029
Organisational Commitment	Equal variances assumed	2.470	.117	-3.200	345	.002	-.36054	.11268	-.58218	-.13891
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.281	317.075	.001	-.36054	.10989	-.57676	-.14433
Organisational Climate	Equal variances assumed	.192	.661	-3.901	345	.000	-.43564	.11167	-.65528	-.21600
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.916	297.205	.000	-.43564	.11124	-.65457	-.21672

Innovative Culture	Equal variances assumed	12.845	.000	-8.570	345	.000	-.50754	.05923	-.62403	-.39106
	Equal variances not assumed			-8.957	331.910	.000	-.50754	.05666	-.61901	-.39608
Tranquil Culture	Equal variances assumed	6.292	.013	-5.927	345	.000	-.38682	.06526	-.51518	-.25847
	Equal variances not assumed			-6.131	324.252	.000	-.38682	.06310	-.51096	-.26269
Organisational Culture	Equal variances assumed	8.832	.003	-7.170	345	.000	-.39083	.05451	-.49803	-.28362
	Equal variances not assumed			-7.432	325.894	.000	-.39083	.05259	-.49428	-.28737

4.7.2.7 Organisational Climate:

State and Private organisations differed significantly on the impact of their organisational climates on employees. The independent samples *t* test generated the following: $t(345) = -3.90$, $p < .01$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.43$. The mean score of the 138 employees from the Private sector was 5.52 and the mean score of the 209 employees from the State sector was 5.09. Given the significant difference between the two sectors, and also the fact that the mean score of the Private sector was larger than the mean score from the State sector, it could be safely concluded that employees in the Private sector are more impacted by their organisational climates than employees from the State sector.

4.7.2.8 Innovative Culture:

The independent samples *t* test statistics indicate a significant difference between the prevalence of innovative culture in state organisations and its prevalence in Private organisations. The obtained statistics is: $t(331.91) = -8.96$, $p < .01$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.96$. Since the mean score of 3.39 from the 138 employees of the Private sector is larger than the mean score of 2.88 from the 209 employees from organisations of the State sector, it could be concluded that innovative culture is more prevalent in Private organisations than in State organisations.

4.7.2.9 Tranquil Culture:

On the prevalence of Tranquil Culture, State organisations differed significantly from Private organisations. The obtained statistics is: $t(324.25) = -6.13$, $p < .01$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.66$. Since the mean score of 3.22 from the 138 employees of the Private sector is larger than the mean score of 2.84 from the 209 employees from the State sector, it is concluded that Tranquil Culture is more prevalent in Private organisations than in State organisations.

4.7.2.10 Organisational Culture:

The independent samples *t* test statistics indicate a significance difference between the influence of Organisational Culture in State organisations and its influence in Private organisations. The obtained statistics is $t(325.89) = -7.43$, $p < .01$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.80$. Since the mean score of 3.33 from the 138 employees of the Private organisations is larger than the mean score of 2.94 by the 209 employees from State organisations, it could be concluded that

Organisational Culture is more influential in Private organisations than in State organisations.

The key differences between the State and Private organisations are summarised in Table 4.25 below.

Table 4.25 Summary of significant differences between State and Private Organisations *= more than

	State	Private
Professional Qualification		*
Employee Performance		*
Supportive Leadership		*
Stimulating Leadership		*
Transformational Leadership		*
Organisational Commitment		*
Organisational Climate		*
Innovative Culture		*
Tranquil Culture		*
Organisational Culture		*

4.7.3 State and Multinational Organisations

State and Multinational organisations varied significantly on both biographical and organisational variables (Table 4.26 and Table 4.27).

4.7.3.1 Age:

On age, the independent samples *t* test statistics for State and Multinational organisations was: t (211.27) = 2.75, $p < .01$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.27$. The mean age category for the 209 employees from State organisations was 5.93 but the mean age category for the 89 employees from Multinational organisations was 2.87. These age categories were progressive and therefore higher values represented higher ages. Since the mean age-category score of the State

organisations is higher and reflects higher ages, it can be concluded that generally employees from State organisations are older than employees from Multinational organisations.

4.7.3.2 Tenure of Office:

State and Multinational organisations differed significantly on tenure of office. The independent samples *t* test statistics for the two groups on tenure of office was t (214.16) = 2.81, $p < .01$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.28$. The mean score of the 209 employees from State organisations was 5.35 whereas the mean score of the 89 employees from Multinational organisations was 2.46. Since the mean score of the State organisations was higher than the mean score of the Multinational organisations, it is concluded that employees from State organisations have been in their posts far longer than employees from Multinational organisations have.

4.7.3.3 Length of Service:

The independent samples *t* test statistics on length of service for State and Multinational organisations was significant: t (213.89) = 3.11, $p < .01$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.31$. The mean score of the 209 employees from State organisations was 6.43 and the mean score of the 89 employees from Multinational organisations was 2.96. The higher mean score of the State organisations indicates that employees from State organisations have served their organisations for longer periods than employees from Multinational organisations have.

4.7.3.4 Supportive Leadership:

For the deploying of supportive leadership among State organisations and Multinational organisations, the independent samples *t* test statistics indicates that, t (296) = -2.17, $p < .05$, (two-tailed), d =0.28. This indicates a significant difference in the deploying of supportive leadership between organisations in the Multinational and State sectors. Considering the higher mean score of Multinational organisations of 5.19 from the 89 respondents as against the mean score of 4.92 of 209 respondents from State organisations, it could be safely concluded that Multinational organisations deployed more supportive leadership than did State organisations. This is to be expected since most Multinational organisations are profit-oriented, and supportive leadership may facilitate increased performance, which in turn may lead to increased profits.

4.7.3.5 Stimulating Leadership:

For the deploying of stimulating leadership among State organisations and Multinational organisations, the independent samples *t* test statistics indicates that, $t\,(296) = -2.69$, $p < .01$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.34$. This indicates a significant difference in the deploying of stimulating leadership between organisations in the Private and State sectors. Considering the higher mean score of Multinational organisations of 5.38 by 89 respondents, as against the mean score of 5.03 by 209 respondents from State organisations, it could be safely concluded that Multinational organisations deploy more stimulating leadership than do State organisations.

4.7.3.6 Transformational Leadership:

For the deploying of Transformational leadership among State organisations and Multinational organisations, the independent samples *t* test statistics indicates that, $t\,(296) = -2.74$, $p < .01$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.35$. This indicates a significant difference in the deploying of transformational leadership between organisations in the Multinational and State sectors. Considering the higher mean score of Multinational organisations of 5.29 by 138 respondents as against the mean score of 4.97 by 209 respondents from State organisations, it could be safely concluded that Multinational organisations deploy more transformational leadership than do State organisations.

Table 4.26: Group Statistics – State and Multinational organisations

Dependent Variable	Sector of organisation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Effect Size *d*
Age	State	209	5.93	16.064	1.111	0.2689
	Multinational	89	2.87	.932	.099	
Tenure of office	State	209	5.35	14.754	1.021	0.2761
	Multinational	89	2.46	1.178	.125	
Length of Service with Organisation	State	209	6.43	16.037	1.109	0.3050
	Multinational	89	2.96	1.251	.133	
Supportive Leadership	State	209	4.9196	1.03108	.07132	0.2825
	Multinational	89	5.1933	.90174	.09558	
Stimulating Leadership	State	209	5.0278	1.04283	.07213	0.3416
	Multinational	89	5.3798	1.01759	.10786	
Transformational Leadership	State	209	4.9737	.90667	.06272	0.3485
	Multinational	89	5.2865	.88833	.09416	
Innovative Culture	State	209	2.8809	.58253	.04029	0.6804
	Multinational	89	3.2562	.51873	.05499	
Tranquil Culture	State	209	2.8364	.63140	.04368	0.6218
	Multinational	89	3.1978	.52613	.05577	
Organisational Culture	State	209	2.9375	.52914	.03660	0.6294
	Multinational	89	3.2543	.47602	.05046	

Table 4.27 Independent Samples *t* Test (State and Multinational)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		*t* test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Age	Equal variances assumed	8.138	.005	1.799	296	.073	3.068	1.706	-.289	6.425
	Equal variances not assumed			2.750	211.268	.006	3.068	1.116	.869	5.267
Tenure of Office	Equal variances assumed	5.776	.017	1.843	296	.066	2.889	1.568	-.196	5.974
	Equal variances not assumed			2.809	214.160	.005	2.889	1.028	.862	4.915
Length of Service with Organisation	Equal variances assumed	7.563	.006	2.040	296	.042	3.476	1.704	.123	6.829

	Equal variances not assumed			3.111	213.888	.002	3.476	1.117	1.273	5.678
Supportive Leadership	Equal variances assumed	3.287	.071	-2.174	296	.030	-.27364	.12586	-.52134	-.02594
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.294	188.541	.023	-.27364	.11926	-.50890	-.03838
Stimulating Leadership	Equal variances assumed	.303	.582	-2.686	296	.008	-.35202	.13105	-.60994	-.09411
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.713	169.932	.007	-.35202	.12976	-.60818	-.09587
Transformational Leadership	Equal variances assumed	.335	.563	-2.742	296	.006	-.31283	.11407	-.53733	-.08833
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.765	169.295	.006	-.31283	.11314	-.53617	-.08949
Innovative Culture	Equal variances assumed	4.182	.042	-5.255	296	.000	-.37532	.07143	-.51589	-.23475
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.506	185.289	.000	-.37532	.06817	-.50981	-.24083

Tranquil Culture	Equal variances assumed	6.349	.012	-4.743	296	.000	-.36139	.07620	-.51135	-.21143
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.102	197.596	.000	-.36139	.07084	-.50108	-.22170
Organisational Culture	Equal variances assumed	5.498	.020	-4.869	296	.000	-.31674	.06505	-.44476	-.18872
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.081	183.479	.000	-.31674	.06234	-.43973	-.19375

4.7.3.7 Innovative Culture:

The independent samples *t* test statistics indicate a significance difference between the prevalence of innovative culture in State organisations and its prevalence in Multinational organisations. The obtained statistics is t (185.29) = -5.51, $p < .01$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.68$. Since the mean score of 3.26 from the 89 employees of the Multinational sector is larger than the mean score of 2.88 from the 209 employees from the State sector, it is concluded that Innovative Culture is more prevalent in Multinational organisations than in State organisations.

4.7.3.8 Tranquil Culture:

State organisations differed significantly from Multinational organisations on Tranquil Culture: t (197.60) = - 5.10, $p > .01$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.62$. The mean score of 209 participants from State organisations was 2.84, and the mean score of 89 participants from Multinational organisations was 3.20. Since the mean score of Multinational organisations is higher than the mean score of State organisations, it could be safely concluded that employees of Multinational organisations employed more Tranquil Culture than did employees of State organisations.

4.7.3.9 Organisational Culture:

The independent samples *t* test statistics indicate a significance difference between the influence of Organisational Culture in State organisations and its influence in Multinational organisations. The obtained statistics is t (183.48) = -5.08, $p < .01$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.63$. Since the mean score of 3.25 from the 89 employees of the Multinational organisations is larger than the mean score of 2.94 by the 209 employees from State organisations, it is concluded that Organisational Culture is more influential in Multinational organisations than in State organisations.

The key differences between State and Multinational Organisations are summarised in Table 4.28 below.

Table 4.28: Summary of significant differences between State and Multinational organisations

*= more than

	State	Multinational
Age	*	
Tenure	*	
Length of Service with Organisation.	*	
Supportive Leadership		*
Stimulating Leadership		*
Transformational Leadership		*
Innovative Culture		*
Tranquil Culture		*
Organisational Culture		*

4.7.4 Public and Private Organisations:

Public and Private organisations differed significantly on several organisational variables. However they did not differ significantly on any of the biographical variables (Table 4.29 and Table 4.30).

4.7.4.1 Stimulating Leadership:

For the deploying of stimulating leadership among Public organisations and Private organisations, the independent samples *t* test statistics indicates that $t(218) = -2.31$, $p < .05$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.31$. This indicates a significant difference in the deploying of stimulating leadership between organisations in the Private and Public sectors. Considering the higher mean score of 5.49 by 138

respondents form Private organisations, as against the mean score of 5.17 by 82 respondents from Public organisations, it could be safely concluded that Private organisations deploy more stimulating leadership than do Public organisations.

4.7.4.2 Organisational Climate:

Public and Private organisations differed significantly on the impact of their Organisational Climate on employees. The independent samples *t* test generated the following: $t\,(218) = -2.75$, $p < .01$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.38$. The mean score of the 138 employees from the Private sector was 5.52 and the mean score of the 82 employees from the Public sector was 5.11. Given the significant difference between the two sectors, and also the fact that the mean score of the Private sector was larger than the mean score from the Public sector, it could be safely concluded that employees in the Private sector are more impacted by their Organisational Climate than employees from the Public sector.

4.7.4.3 Innovative Culture:

The independent samples *t* test statistics indicate a significant difference between the prevalence of Innovative Culture in Public organisations and its prevalence in Private organisations. The obtained statistics is: $t\,(129.26) = -4.86$, $p < .01$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.71$. Since the mean score of 3.39 from the 138 employees of the Private sector is larger than the mean score of 2.98 from the 82 employees from the Public sector, it is concluded that Innovative Culture is more prevalent in Private organisations than in Public organisations.

4.7.4.4 Tranquil Culture:

On the prevalence of Tranquil Culture, Public organisations differed significantly from Private organisations. The obtained statistics is: $t\,(218) = -2.07$, $p < .05$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.29$. Since the mean score of 3.22 from the 138 employees of the Private sector is larger than the mean score of 3.07 from the 82 employees from the Public sector, it is concluded that Tranquil Culture is more prevalent in Private organisations than in Public organisations.

4.7.4.5 Organisational Culture:

The independent samples *t* test statistics indicate a significant difference between the influence of Organisational Culture in Public organisations and its influence in Private organisations. The obtained statistics is $t\,(145.81) = -3.72$, $p < .01$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.53$. Since the mean score of 3.33 from the 138 employees of

the Private organisations is larger than the mean score of 3.07 by the 82 employees from Public organisations, it is concluded that Organisational Culture is more influential in Private organisations than in Public organisations.

Table 4.29: Group Statistics – Public and Private Organisations

Dependent Variable	Sector of organisation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Effect Size *d*
Stimulating Leadership	Public	82	5.1732	1.14083	.12598	0.3124
	Private	138	5.4942	.89970	.07659	
Organisational Climate	Public	82	5.1171	1.15511	.12756	0.3761
	Private	138	5.5246	1.00661	.08569	
Innovative Culture	Public	82	2.9829	.66366	.07329	0.7061
	Private	138	3.3884	.46796	.03984	
Tranquil Culture	Public	82	3.0659	.56398	.06228	0.2861
	Private	138	3.2232	.53495	.04554	
Organisational Culture	Public	82	3.0668	.53706	.05931	0.5311
	Private	138	3.3284	.44358	.03776	

Table 4.30 Independent Samples *t* Test (Public and Private)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		*t* test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Stimulating Leadership	Equal variances assumed	2.861	.092	-2.311	218	.022	-.32103	.13889	-.59478	-.04729
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.177	140.580	.031	-.32103	.14744	-.61251	-.02955
Organisational Climate	Equal variances assumed	1.362	.245	-2.747	218	.007	-.40756	.14839	-.70002	-.11511
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.652	152.264	.009	-.40756	.15367	-.71116	-.10397
Innovative Culture	Equal variances assumed	11.636	.001	-5.298	218	.000	-.40548	.07653	-.55632	-.25464
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.861	129.260	.000	-.40548	.08342	-.57052	-.24044
Tranquil Culture	Equal variances assumed	.440	.508	-2.067	218	.040	-.15733	.07612	-.30736	-.00731

	Equal variances not assumed			-2.039	163.181	.043	-.15733	.07715	-.30968	-.00499
Organisational Culture	Equal variances assumed	4.572	.034	-3.905	218	.000	-.26162	.06699	-.39365	-.12959
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.721	145.810	.000	-.26162	.07031	-.40058	-.12267

The key differences between Public and Private Organisations have been summarised in Table 4.31 below.

Table 4.31: Summary of significant differences between Public and Private Organisations *= more than

	Public	Private
Stimulating Leadership		*
Organisational Climate		*
Innovative Culture		*
Tranquil Culture		*
Organisational Culture		*

4.7.5 Public and Multinational Organisations:

Public and Multinational organisations varied significantly on only one biographical variable and three organisational variables (Table 4.32 and Table 4.33). These variables on which these organisations differed significantly are presented below.

4.7.5.1 Length of Service:

The independent samples *t* test statistics on Length of Service for Public and Multinational organisations was significant: t (82.06) = 2.23, $p < .05$, (two-tailed), d = 0.35. The mean score of the 82 employees from Public organisations was 6.62 and the mean score of the 89 employees from Multinational organisations was 2.96. The higher mean score of the Public organisations indicates that employees from Public organisations have served their organisations for longer periods than the length of time that employees from Multinational organisations have served their organisations.

4.7.5.2 Employee Performance:

On Employee Performance, the t (169) = 2.34, p <.05, (two-tailed), d = 0.36 indicates a significant difference between the two sectors. The mean score of 82 employees from Public organisations was 5.68 and the mean score of 89 employees from Multinational organisations was 5.40. The higher mean score of Public organisations indicates that employees in Public organisations have higher performance levels than those of employees in Multinational organisations.

4.7.5.3 Innovative Culture:

The independent samples t test statistics indicate a significant difference between the prevalence of Innovative Culture in Public organisations and its prevalence in Multinational organisations. The obtained statistics is t (153.18) = - 2.98, p < .01, (two-tailed), d =0.46. Since the mean score of 3.26 from the 89 employees of the Multinational sector is larger than the mean score of 2.98 from the 82 employees from the Public sector, it is concluded that Innovative Culture is more prevalent in Multinational organisations than in Public organisations.

4.7.5.4 Organisational Culture:

The independent samples t test statistics indicate a significance difference between the influence of Organisational Culture in Public organisations and its influence in Multinational organisations. The obtained statistics is t (169) = - 2.42 p < .05, (two-tailed), d = 0.37. Since the mean score of 3.25 from the 89 employees of the Multinational organisations is larger than the mean score of 3.07 by the 82 employees from Public organisations, it is concluded that Organisational Culture is more influential in Multinational organisations than in Public organisations. Since Multinational organisations have numerous branches across many countries, for the purposes of identity cohesion, and stability across the branches, they need to ensure that there is a strong and clearly defined Organisational Culture to hold these branches together.

Table 4.32: Group Statistics – Public and Multinational organisations

Dependent Variable	Sector of organisation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Effect Size *d*
Length of Service with Organisation	Public	82	6.62	14.826	1.637	0.3478
	Multinational	89	2.96	1.251	.133	
Employee Performance (EP)	Public	82	5.6829	.76605	.08460	0.3587
	Multinational	89	5.4045	.78572	.08329	
Innovative Culture	Public	82	2.9829	.66366	.07329	0.4588
	Multinational	89	3.2562	.51873	.05499	
Organisational Culture	Public	82	3.0668	.53706	.05931	0.3694
	Multinational	89	3.2543	.47602	.05046	

Table 4.33 Independent Samples *t* Test (Public and Multinational)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		*t* test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Length of Service with Organisation	Equal variances assumed	5.832	.017	2.325	169	.021	3.667	1.577	.553	6.781
	Equal variances not assumed			2.232	82.064	.028	3.667	1.643	.399	6.935
Employee Performance (EP)	Equal variances assumed	.156	.693	2.343	169	.020	.27843	.11884	.04383	.51303
	Equal variances not assumed			2.345	168.451	.020	.27843	.11871	.04407	.51279
Innovative Culture	Equal variances assumed	4.817	.030	-3.012	169	.003	-.27325	.09072	-.45233	-.09417

	Equal variances not assumed			-2.982	153.178	.003	-.27325	.09162	-.45426	-.09225
Organisational Culture	Equal variances assumed	2.918	.089	-2.420	169	.017	-.18754	.07748	-.34050	-.03457
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.408	162.386	.017	-.18754	.07787	-.34130	-.03377

The key differences between the Public and Multinational Organisations have been summarised in Table 4.34 below.

Table 4.34: Summary of significant differences between Public and Multinational organisations *= more than

	Public	Multinational
Length of Service with Organisation	*	
Employee Performance	*	
Innovative Culture		*
Organisational Culture		*

4.7.6 Private and Multinational Organisations:

With the exception of Organisational Commitment and Organisational Climate, Private organisations did not differ significantly from the Multinational organisations on the research and biographical variables (Table 4.35 and Table 4.36). The details of these two significant differences among these two sectors are given below.

4.7.6.1 Organisational Commitment:

With respect to the level of commitment employees have towards their organisation, the independent samples *t* test statistics of $t\,(225) = 3.65$, $p < .01$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.49$ demonstrates that there is a significant difference between Multinational organisations and Private organisations. The mean score of 138 employees from the Private sector was 5.39 and the mean score of 89 employees from the Multinational sector was 4.88. Given the significant difference between the two categories, the higher mean score from the Private sector suggests higher levels of Organisational Commitment among organisations in the Private sector than the levels of Organisational Commitment that prevail in organisations in the Multinational sector.

4.7.6.2 Organisational Climate:

Multinational and Private organisations differed significantly on the impact of their organisational climates on their employees. The independent samples *t* test generated the following: $t(225) = 2.46$, $p < .05$, (two-tailed), $d = 0.34$. The mean score of the 138 employees from the Private sector was 5.52 and the mean score of the 89 employees from the Multinational organisations was 5.20. Given the significant difference between the two sectors, and also the fact that the mean score of the private sector was larger than the mean score from the Multinational sector, it could be safely concluded that employees in the Private sector are more impacted by their Organisational Climate than employees from the Multinational sector.

Table 4.35: Group Statistics – Private and Multinational organisations

Dependent Variable	Sector of organisation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Effect Size *d*
Organisational Commitment	Private	138	5.3853	.95069	.08093	0.4881
	Multinational	89	4.8801	1.11265	.11794	
Organisational Climate	Private	138	5.5246	1.00661	.08569	0.3367
	Multinational	89	5.1955	.94675	.10036	

Table 4.36 Independent Samples *t* Test (Private and Multinational)

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		*t* test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Organisational Commitment	Equal variances assumed	3.147	.077	3.653	225	.000	.50512	.13828	.23263	.77760
	Equal variances not assumed			3.531	166.646	.001	.50512	.14304	.22272	.78751
Organisational Climate	Equal variances assumed	.538	.464	2.461	225	.015	.32913	.13372	.06562	.59264
	Equal variances not assumed			2.494	196.126	.013	.32913	.13196	.06889	.58938

A summary of the significant differences between Private and Multinational Organisations is provided in Table 4.37 below:

Table 4.37: Summary of significant differences between Private and Multinational organisations * = more than.

	Private	Multinational
Organisational Commitment	*	
Organisational Climate	*	

4.7.7 Grand Summary of Significant Differences amongst Organisations in the various Sectors

The overall summary of significant the differences between organisations of the various sectors on the organisational variables of study are provided in Table 4.38 below.

Table 4.38: Grand Summary of the significant differences between organisations from the various sectors

Variable	**Significant differences between organisations of the various sectors**
Age	State > Multinational
Tenure	State > Multinational
Length of Service with Organisation	State > Multinational Public > Multinational
Professional Qualification	State < Private
Employee Performance	State < Public > Multinational State < Private
Supportive Leadership	State < Private State < Multinational
Stimulating Leadership	State < Private > Public State < Multinational
Transformational Leadership	State < Private State < Multinational
Organisational Commitment	State < Private Multinational < Private
Organisational Climate	State < Private Public < Private Multinational < Private
Tranquil Culture	State < Public < Private State < Multinational
Innovative Culture	State < Private State < Multinational Public < Private Public < Multinational.
Organisational Culture	State < Private State < Multinational Public < Private Public < Multinational

Overall, Private organisations appear to be significantly higher on most organisational variables than either the Public or Multinational organisations. Conversely, State organisations appear to be significantly the least on most organisational variables. These relationships and their implications are further discussed in the next chapter.

4.8 Structural Equation Modelling:

This section of the data analysis involved the use of Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) to test the empirical research model. The Structural Equation Modelling procedure (SEM) is a multivariate statistical tool, which has the ability to estimate multiple dependence relationships simultaneously and also incorporates multiple measures for each concept (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2010). Hair Jr et al. recommend SEM as "…the best multivariate procedure for testing both the construct validity and theoretical relationships among a set of concepts represented by multiple measured variables" (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2010, p.627). Consequently, the IBM SPSS.AMOS 21 software was used in the structural equation modelling procedure in this thesis.

4.8.1 Benefits/Justification of using SEM:

Compared to the older generation of multivariate procedures, the choice of SEM for the analysis in this section is based on the following strengths outlined by (Byrne, 2010). First, SEM adopts a confirmatory rather than an exploratory approach to data analysis, in addition to its ability to address aspects of the latter. Since SEM specifies the pattern of inter-variable relationships *a priori*, it lends itself well to data analysis for inferential purposes. Therefore SEM is a feasible instrument for hypothesis testing. Secondly, in contrast to the traditional multivariate procedures which are either incapable of assessing or correcting measurement error, SEM provides explicit estimates of these error variance parameters. Thirdly, whereas data analyses of the former methods are based solely on observed measurements, analysis in SEM procedures can incorporate both the observed variables and the unobserved variables (i.e. latent variables). The last - but not the least - reason is that widely and easily applied alternative methods for modelling multivariate relations, or for estimating point and/or interval indirect effects do not exist; these important features are exclusively available with SEM methodology (Byrne, 2010).

By exploring multiple relationships between several organisational variables, which were specified *a priori* through the empirical research model, the present study lent itself well to the use of the SEM methodology. This falls in line with the confirmatory approach of SEM. Additionally, the research model involved both measured variables and latent variables, which warrant the use of SEM.

4.8.2 Application of SEM to empirical research model

As demonstrated in the methodology chapter, the conceptual framework of this thesis was expressed in the empirical model (Figure 3.2) which is reproduced here as Figure 4.6 for easy reference and convenience.

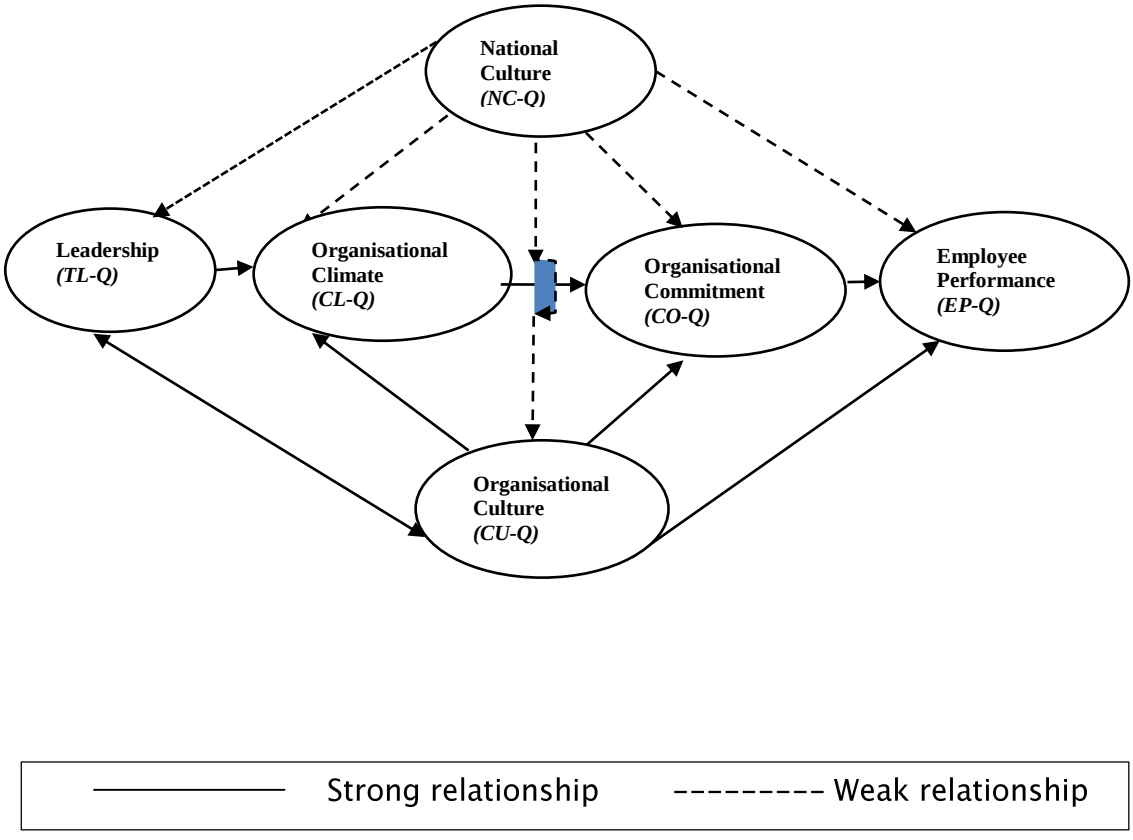

Figure 4.6 Empirical Research Model

At the onset of this thesis, National Culture was thought to be a variable. However after the initial analysis, National Culture was dropped because this was found not to be the case. National Culture did not manifest any significant relationships with the other independent variables (Transformational Leadership, Organisational Culture, Organisational Climate, and Organisational Commitment) nor with the dependent variable (employee performance). In essence, National Culture manifested itself as a constant rather than a variable in this study. Its continued use in the analytical exploration would have therefore served no meaningful purpose. This situation is not surprising since the organisations under study were all located within the same national culture (Ghana), and more especially all these organisations were located within the southern part of Ghana, eliminating or reducing the effects of subcultures to the barest minimum. Additionally, National Culture was invalid in this study because it is not a comparative study where two or more national cultures were involved to bring out the national cultural effects. With National Culture removed, the revised empirical and working model for the SEM analysis is shown in Figure 4.7.

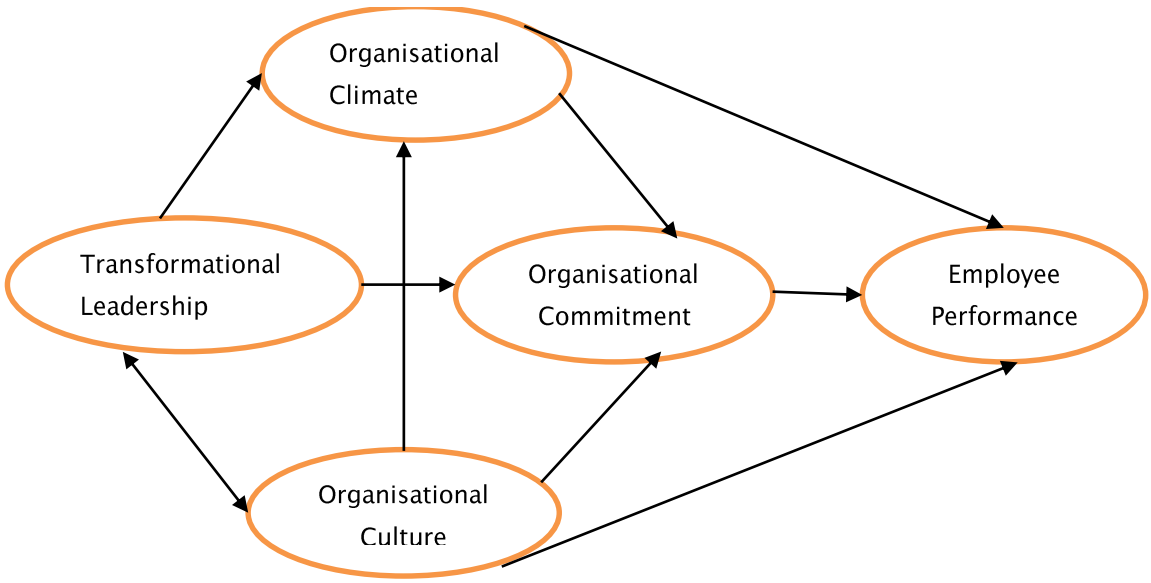

Figure 4.7: Revised Empirical Research Model

Although this model was identified by the SEM procedure, the statistical values (indices) revealed inadequate model fit. This model was more restricted because it incorporated only the principal components, and ignored the factor components. To obtain improved outcomes, a more saturated model which incorporated the factor components of the principal research variables was analysed. Below is the model analysed. The analysis was in two parts. First, the model was analysed using the leadership components as the exogenous variables (Figure 4.8). The second part of the analysis involved the use of the components of organisational culture as the exogenous variables of the model (Figure 4.9). These analyses were carried out across the entire sample, and also across several organisational groupings within the sample. These groupings within the entire sample are:

1. State, and Multinational organisations
2. Public, Private, and State organisations (indigenous Ghanaian organisations)
3. Public Private, and Multinational (enterprising organisations)
4. Private, State, and Multinational, and
5. Public, State, and Multinational (large organisations).

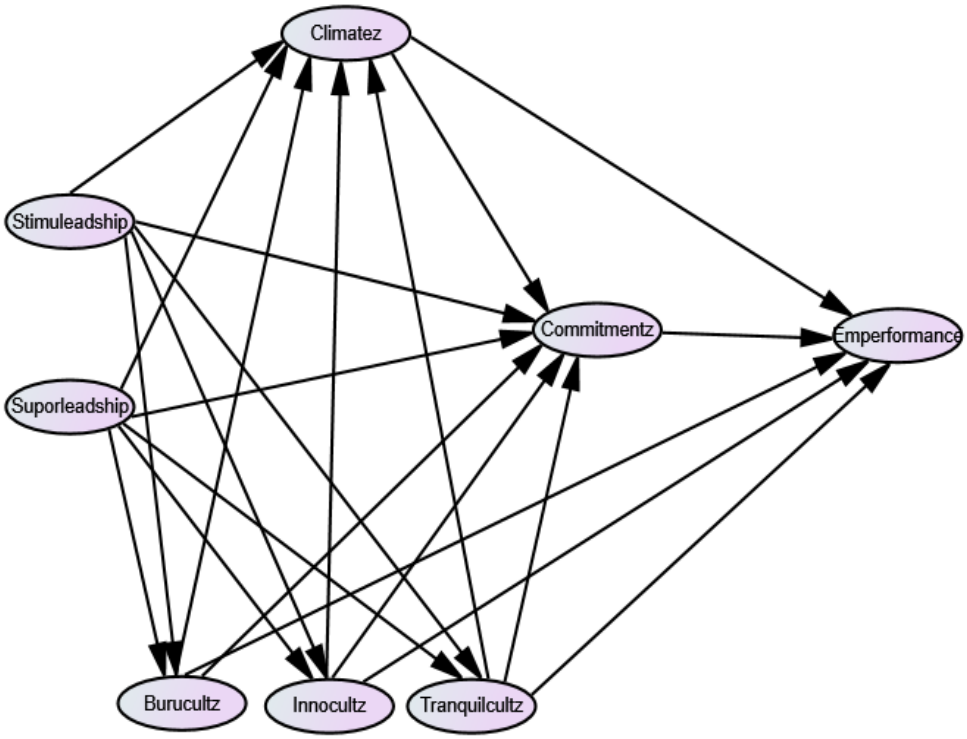

Figure 4.8: Empirical Research Model using Leadership components as the exogenous variables

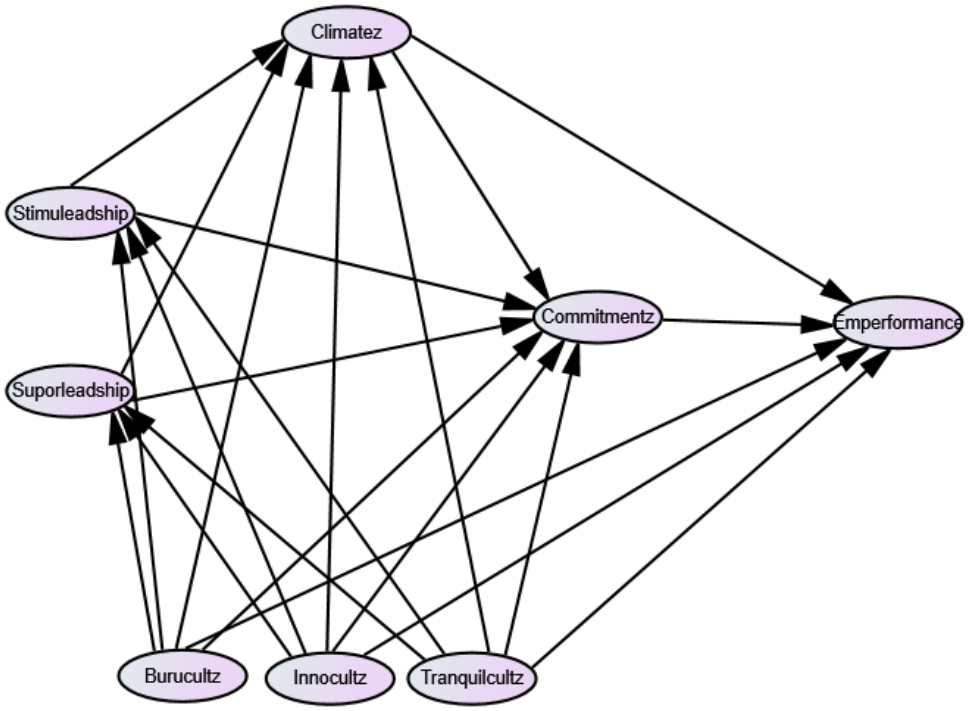

Figure 4.9: Empirical Research Model using the components of Organisational Culture as exogenous variables.

4.8.3 Overview of presentation:

Generally, the findings are presented in three main stages. First the model fit the indices for the identified models. This includes indices derived from using the model for the entire sample, and then across the various sectors of organisations. These are given in Table 4.39. These indices remained the same whether the model had leadership components as the exogenous factors or the components of culture as the exogenous factors. However, some of the parameter estimates (regression weights) changed according to change in the exogenous factors (i.e. varied with leadership components, and components of culture as the exogenous factors). These parameter estimates or regression weights are presented after the presentation of the skeletal path models of the various samples.

The statistical indices for all the various samples are first presented. These model-fit indices for the identified models (as indicated earlier) are presented in Table 4.39. Then for each sample, the path models are presented, followed by the regression weights. The first of the pairs of the path models presented for each sample in this section provides parameter estimates of the model using leadership components as the exogenous factors, and the second of the pairs for each sample provide the estimates derived from using the components of organisational culture as the exogenous factors. Similarly, for each sample in this section, the first set of regression weights represents values derived from the model which had the components of leadership as the exogenous factors, and the second set of regression weights represents values derived from the model that had the components of organisational culture as the exogenous factors.

4.8.4 Statistical Indices:

The measure of fitness between the research model and the sample is statistically defined by several sets of indices. Generally the accepted values for the hypothesised model (Default Model or research model), falls in between the two extremes of the Saturated Model (which is least restricted) and Independence Model (the most restricted) in the AMOS output. However, there are specific criteria for the determination of model fit for the various indices. Whereas one is not obliged to use all these sets of indices in determining the fit of a particular model, a careful selection of relevant sets of indices is helpful in arriving at a good sense of one's model fit to the data (Byrne, 2010). The selected indices for this research are shown in Table 4.39 below.

4.8.4.1 CMIN (minimum discrepancy)

The first set of indices falls under the CMIN (minimum discrepancy), which is essentially the Likelihood Ratio Test statistic, normally expressed as a Chi Square (X^2).The value for the hypothesised model under the CMIN (minimum discrepancy) for the entire sample is 1290.39. For the other subgroups of the sample, the values of the CMIN range between 1252.33 (Public, Private, and State organisations) and 1107.46 (State and Multinational organisations). The entire sample and its subgroups all have DF (degrees of freedom) of 639. Similarly, the P (probability value) for the entire sample and its subgroups were all .000. The values under CMIN/DF for the sample and its subgroups range from 2.02 to 1.73. From the SEM output, the values of all these sets of indices of the default model (research model) fall in between the correspondent values for the independent model and the saturated model, which is generally acceptable. However, since the CMIN (or chi-square statistic), is a measure of the discrepancy between the unrestricted sample covariance matrix S and the restricted covariance matrix $\Sigma(\theta)$, the smaller this value the better the fit between the hypothesised model and the sample.

Unfortunately, the X^2 tends to increase with increased sample size and also with increased number of parameters of a model. Ironically, increase in sample size and increase in the number parameters of a model (which capture more complex situations that reflect real world phenomena) are prerequisites for improved data credibility (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2010).The problem here is that the X^2 being an absolute statistic often suggests a rejection of a model even when for practical purposes it ought not to be rejected (Hair Jr *et al.*, 2010). This is because the X^2 tends to increase with increase in sample size and increase in the number of parameters in a model, thereby inflating the disparity between the unrestricted sample covariance matrix S and the restricted covariance matrix $\Sigma(\theta)$. To circumvent this shortcoming of the X^2, scholars have developed less objective but more pragmatic methods of determining model fit. The advantage of these alternative "goodness of fit" measures is that one does not discard a model only on the basis of failing to meet a definite statistic (MacCallum *et al.*, 1996). These scholars argue that no matter how good a postulated model is, it can only fit a real-world datum *approximately* but *never exactly* (MacCallum *et al.*, 1996; Byrne, 2010). Consequently, these scholars proposed changes in the traditional approach to hypothesis-testing in covariance structure modelling (MacCallum *et al.*, 1996). Therefore in SEM, several other sets of goodness-of-fit indices normally

compliment the X^2. Some of these "goodness-of-fit" indices that have been selected are discussed below:

Table 4.39: Model fit-indices for the entire sample and various sector groups

SAMPLE:-	ENTIRE SAMPLE	STATE and MULTINA	PUBLIC, PRIVATE, and STATE (INDIGENOUS)	PUBLIC, PRIVATE, and MULTINA (ENTERPRISING)	PRIVATE, STATE, and MULTINA	PUBLIC, STATE, and MULTINA
N	518	298	429	309	436	380
CMIN	1290.387	1107.455	1252.330	1152.145	1222.439	1167.221
DF	639	639	639	639	639	639
P	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
CMIN/DF	2.019	1.733	1.960	1.803	1.913	1.827
RMR	.065 (.047)*	.082 (.056)*	.071 (.051)*	.069 (.050)*	.070 (.055)*	.073 (.051)*
GFI	.883	.834	.867	.841	.867	.861
AGFI	.864	.807	.845	.816	.846	.838
PGFI	.761	.719	.747	.725	.748	.742
CFI	.907	.881	.894	.888	.902	.895
PRATIO	.909	.909	.909	.909	.909	.909
PCFI	.825	.800	.813	.807	.820	.813
RMSEA	.044	.050	.047	.051	.046	.047
LO	.041	.045	.043	.046	.042	.042
HI	.048	.055	.051	.056	.050	.051
PCLOSE	.996	.536	.868	.351	.963	.900
HOELTER .05	281	188	239	187	249	227
HOELTER .01	291	195	248	194	259	236

* Standardised RMR values.

4.8.4.2 RMR, GFI

The next set of indices under the section RMR, GFI, is based on the root mean square residual (RMR). The RMR is the average residual value derived from the fitting of the variance-covariance matrix for the hypothesised model to the covariance matrix of the sample data. Consequently, the standardised RMR represents the average value across all standardised residuals and ranges from zero to 1.00. Smaller values (e.g. .05 or less) indicate a well-fitting model. Unfortunately, AMOS model-fit output does not include standardised values in

the model-fit summary and therefore the values of .065, .082, .071, .069, .070, .073 of the sample and its subgroups under RMR for the default or research model which are unstandardised cannot be easily compared to the standardised criterion of .05 or less. However the standardised values are obtained by using the plugin function of the AMOS menu, selecting the Standardised RMR option, and rerunning the estimation process. The generated standardised values are indicated in brackets in Table 4.39. The standardised value of .047 for the entire sample suggests a good fit between the model and the entire sample. Similarly the standardised values of the subgroups within the sample, ranging from.050 to .056, seem to suggest good fit between the model and these subgroups.

The Goodness-of-Fit Index (GFI) is a measure of the relative amount of variance and covariance in a sample that is jointly explained by the model. The Adjusted Goodness-of-Fit Index (AGFI), addressing the issue of parsimony, imposes a penalty for the inclusion of additional parameters by adjusting for the degrees of freedom in the specified model. Both the GFI and AGFI basically compare the hypothesised model with no model at all (Hu and Bentler, 1995) and therefore may be classified as absolute indices of fit. Both indices range from zero to 1.00, with values close to 1.00 being indicative of good fit. From the GFI and AGFI values of .883 and .864 respectively, of the default model (hypothesised model) for the entire sample, it can be concluded that the hypothesised model fits the sample data fairly well. Similarly, the GFI values for the subsamples which range from 834 to 867 and the AGFI values which range from 807 to 846. indicate that the model also fairly fits the subgroups within the sample The last index in this category, the Parsimony Goodness of Fit Index (PGFI), takes into account the complexity of the hypothesised model (in terms of the number of estimated parameters) in assessing the overall model fit. The PGFI combines two separate information, (goodness-of-fit of the model as measured by the GFI and parsimony of the model) to give a more realistic evaluation of the hypothesised model. Since parsimony indices generally have lower thresholds than normed indices of fit, Mulaik *et al.* (1989) suggest that parsimony indices such as the PGFI with values in the 50s are acceptable. The PGFI values ranging from .719 to 761 for the sample, and its subgroups of the default model, therefore seem to confirm the model fit to the data as also indicated by the previous indices.

4.8.4.3 CFI (Baseline comparisons)

The next set of goodness-of-fit statistics – baseline comparisons – has been classified as incremental or comparative indices of fit (Marsh *et al.*, 1988; Hu and Bentler, 1995). Just like the GFI and AGFI, incremental indices of fit are based on a comparison of the hypothesised model against some standard. However, unlike the GFI and AGFI where this standard represents no model at all, the baseline model relates to the independence or null model for incremental indices. Therefore, the baseline comparisons provide a measure of complete covariance in the data. Bentler (1990) proposed the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) which takes sample size into account. Values close to 1.00 for these indices and particularly values above .90 are considered representative of a well-fitting model (Bentler, 1992). Therefore the CFI values of .881 to .907 for the sample and its subgroups indicate a good fit between the model and the sample and its subgroups.

4.8.4.4 PRATIO, PCFI, RMSEA, HOELTER (Parsimony-Adjusted Measures)

The remainder of the sets of indices all fall under the Parsimony-Adjusted Measures. These are PRATIO, PCFI, RMSEA, and HOELTER. The PRATIO and the PCFI values of .909 and .825 respectively for the entire sample suggest a good model fit between the model and the entire sample. Similarly, the PRATIO value of 909 and PCFI values ranging from .800 to .820 of the subgroups within the sample indicate good fit between the model and these subgroups. The Hoelter values for the sample (281 and 291) and the subgroups within the sample (ranging from 188 to 259) were within acceptable levels for sample adequacy. Hoelter (1983) proposed values in excess of 200 as indicative of a model's adequate representation of the sample data.

Of all these parsimony-adjusted measures, however, the one which is highly recommended is the RMSEA – *root mean square error of approximation* (MacCallum and Austin, 2000). This recommendation is due to the fact that the RMSEA appears to be adequately sensitive to model misspecification (Hu and Bentler, 1998) and also due to the fact that commonly used interpretive guidelines would appear to yield appropriate conclusions with respect to model quality (Hu and Bentler, 1998; 1999). Finally the RMSEA is highly recommended because it is possible to build confidence intervals around its values (Byrne, 2010).

The RMSEA has also been considered as one of the most informative criteria in covariance structure modelling (Byrne, 2010) since it takes into account the error of approximation in the population and also addresses the issue of how well a model with unknown but optimally chosen parameters will fit the population matrix were it to be available (Browne and Cudeck, 1993). RMSEA measures this discrepancy in terms of degrees of freedom, which makes it sensitive to the number of estimated parameters in the model. Thus, the RMSEA is sensitive to model complexity. Values less than .05 indicate good fit and values as high as .08 represent reasonable errors of approximation in the population (Browne and Cudeck, 1993). Elaborating further, MacCallum *et al.* (1996) suggest that values from .08 to .10 indicate mediocre fit and values greater than .10 indicate poor fit. Hu and Bentler (1999), however, suggest a value of .06 to be indicative of a good fit between the hypothesised model and the observed data. Based on all these criteria, the RMSEA value of .044 for the Default model (hypothesised model) for the entire sample with a Pclose value (p value) of .996 suggests a good fit between the observed data and the research model. Jöreskog and Sörbom (1996)a recommend a *p* value cut-off of >.50 (for Pclose) as indicative of good fit. Similarly the RMSEA values of the subgroups within the sample ranging from .051 to .046 indicate good fit of the model to the subgroups. With the exception of the enterprising subgroup (Public, Private, and Multinational: p =.351) all the other subgroups of the sample had acceptable *p* values (ranging from .536 to .963.). Clearly, all these indices indicate a good fit between the model and the sample as well as a good fit between the model and the subgroups within the sample.

As evidenced above, all the various sets of statistical indices in Table 4.39 for the sample as well as for the subgroups within the sample indicate good fit of the model with the sample and the subgroups respectively; however the entire sample indicates the best fit to the model. Therefore it appears safe to conclude that within organisations in Ghana, employee performance is adequately explained by stimulating leadership, supportive leadership, organisational climate, organisational commitment, bureaucratic culture, innovative culture and tranquil culture. This assessment is valid for the entire sample as well as for the identified groupings within the sample (Table 4.39).

4.8.5 Path models and Regression weights:

The pairs of the path models and regression weights are now presented under the various samples below.

4.8.5.1 Entire Sample:

Path model:

The diagram below (Figure 4.10) indicates the path model for the entire sample, with leadership as the exogenous factor. Stimulating leadership has negative direct impact on organisational commitment; however Supportive leadership has a positive direct impact on organisational commitment. Supportive leadership also has a positive indirect impact on employee performance through the mediation of organisational commitment. Both Stimulating and Supportive leadership have positive indirect impact on employee performance through the mediation of Bureaucratic culture and Innovative culture. Both Stimulating and Supportive leadership have positive impact on organisational climate, with the latter having a stronger impact than the former. Bureaucratic and Innovative cultures have a positive direct impact on employee performance and positive indirect impact through the mediation of organisational commitment. Tranquil culture, however, has negative direct impact on employee performance. Further details of the path-models can be found in Appendix 2, Section 2B.

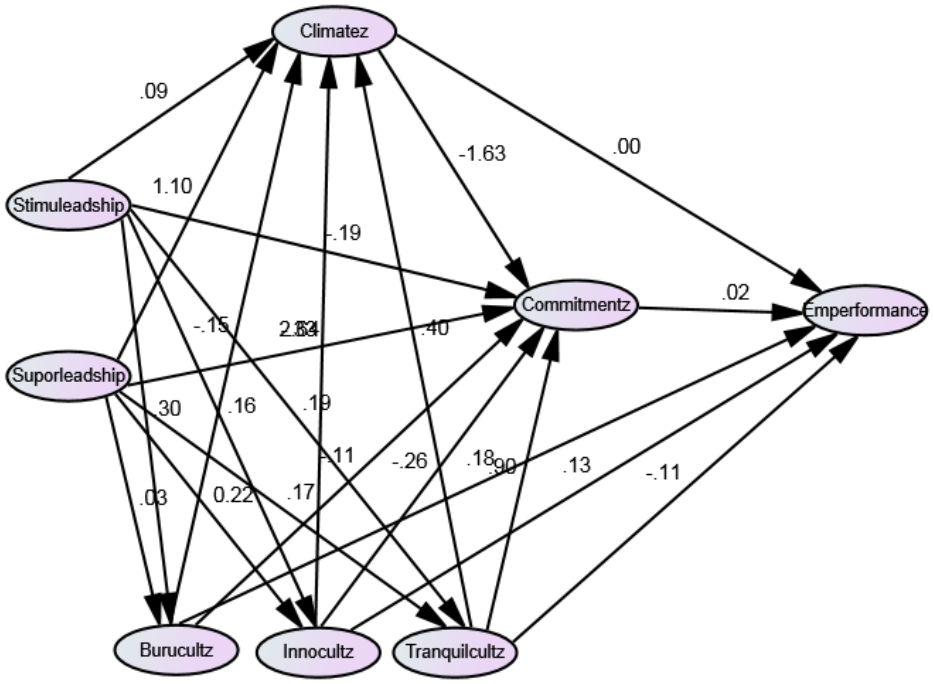

Figure 4.10: Path model – Entire sample: using leadership components as exogenous variables

Regression weights:

The regression weights confirm the relationships exhibited by the path model. The extracted significant regressions are shown in Table 4.40. Stimulating leadership causes bureaucratic culture and Supportive leadership causes innovative culture. Supportive leadership also promotes organisational climate. Tranquil culture also promotes organisational climate.

Table 4.40: Entire Sample – Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Regression Weights: (Group number 1 – Default model) – With Leadership as the Exogenous Variable

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Burucultz	<---	Stimuleadship	.303	.105	2.884	.004	par_53
Innocultz	<---	Suporleadship	.221	.079	2.795	.005	par_55
Climatez	<---	Suporleadship	1.095	.168	6.509	***	par_2
Climatez	<---	Tranquilcultz	.404	.178	2.268	.023	par_49

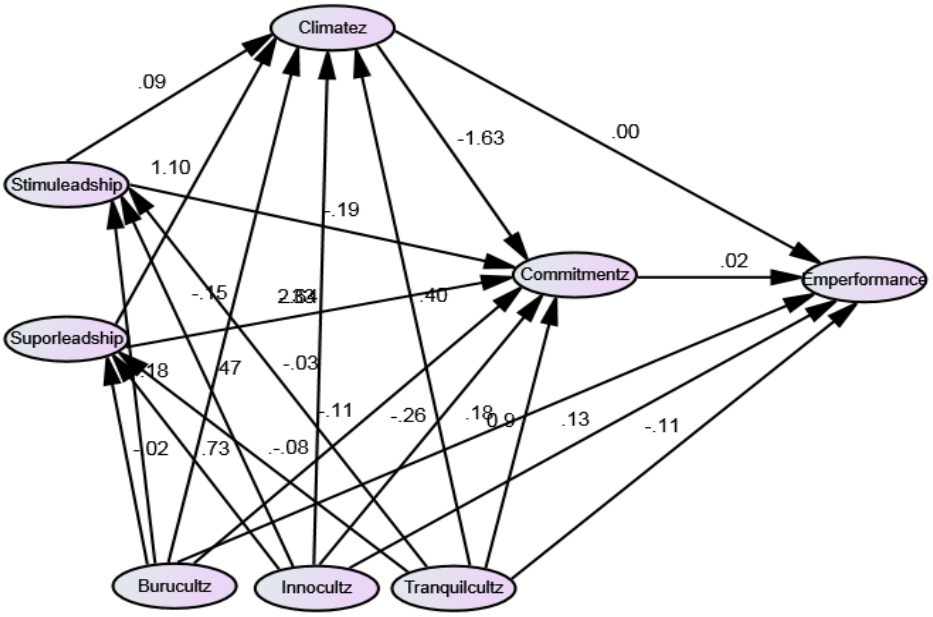

Figure 4.11: Path model – Entire sample: using components of Organisational Culture as exogenous variables

Table 4.41: Entire Sample – Maximum Likelihood Estimates

Regression Weights: (Group number 1 – Default model) – With Organisational Culture as the Exogenous Variable

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Suporleadship	<---	Innocultz	.731	.225	3.250	.001	par_53
Stimuleadship	<---	Innocultz	.473	.214	2.214	.027	par_56
Climatez	<---	Suporleadship	1.095	.168	6.509	***	par_2
Climatez	<---	Tranquilcultz	.404	.178	2.268	.023	par_49

Similarly, the path models and regression weights of the various samples are self-evident and self-explanatory; however, an overview of these subgroups is given below to aid clarity.

4.8.5.2 State and Multinational Organisations:

As evident from both the path models and regression weights , in these state and Multinational organisations, Supportive Leadership, Innovative Culture and Tranquil Culture significantly impact on organisational climate in both the leadership-exogenous model (Figure 4.12 and Table 4.42) and culture-exogenous model (Figure 4.13 and Table 4.43). Additionally, in the leadership-exogenous model, Stimulating Leadership impacts significantly on Tranquil Culture, Innovative Culture, and Bureaucratic Culture. The impact of Stimulating leadership on all the three components of organisational culture is very revealing: State organisations and Multinational organisations are usually large organisations and therefore stimulating organisational culture is crucial to organisational cohersion, identity, and stability.

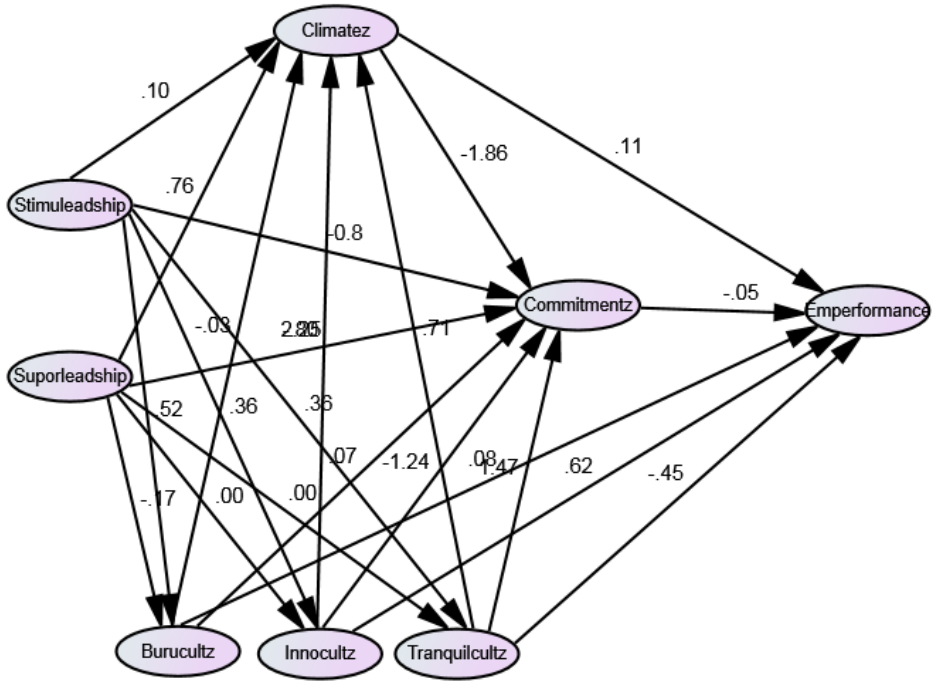

Figure 4.12 : Path model – State and Multinational organisations (using leadership components as exogenous variables)

Table 4.42: State and Multinational organisations – Maximum Likelihood Estimates Regression Weights: (Group number 1 – Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Tranquilcultz	<---	Stimuleadship	.356	.144	2.464	.014	par_51
Innocultz	<---	Stimuleadship	.359	.115	3.118	.002	par_52
Burucultz	<---	Stimuleadship	.519	.155	3.354	***	par_53
Climatez	<---	Suporleadship	.761	.174	4.364	***	par_2
Climatez	<---	Innocultz	-.799	.372	-2.145	.032	par_48
Climatez	<---	Tranquilcultz	.707	.293	2.414	.016	par_49

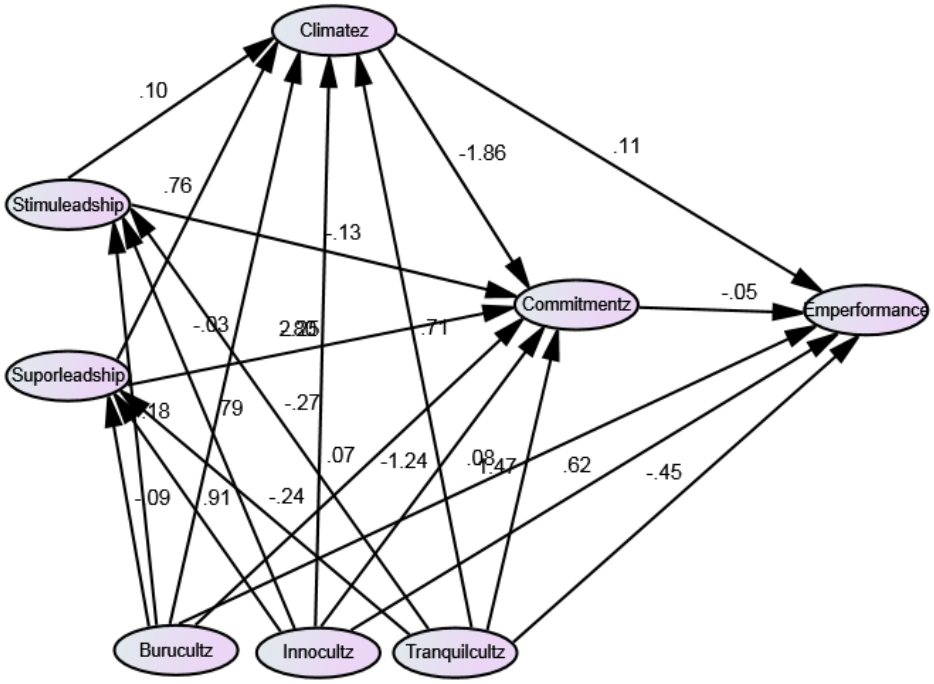

Figure 4.13: Path model – State and Multinational organisations (using components of Organisational Culture as exogenous variables

Table 4.43: State and Multinational organisations – Maximum Likelihood Estimates Regression Weights: (Group number 1 – Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Climatez	<---	Suporleadship	.761	.174	4.364	***	par_2
Climatez	<---	Innocultz	-.799	.372	-2.145	.032	par_48
Climatez	<---	Tranquilcultz	.707	.293	2.414	.016	par_49

4.8.5.3 Private, Public, and State (Indigenous) organisations

In the leadership-exogenous model (Figure 4.14 and Table 4.44) in this group, whereas Stimulating Leadership significantly impacts on Bureaucratic Culture, Supportive Leadership impacts on Tranquil Culture, Innovative Culture and Organisational Climate. In the culture-exogenous model (Figure 4.15 and Table 4.45), Innovative culture impacts significantly on Supportive Leadership and Supportive Leadership significantly impacts on Organisational Climate (just like in the leadership-exogenous model). Essentially, this is an indigenous group and as such it is not surprising that Supportive Leadership significantly impacts on Tranquil Culture , Innovative Culture and Organisational Climate. This may be consistent with the African Culture of collectivism which is supportive and confrontation-averse .

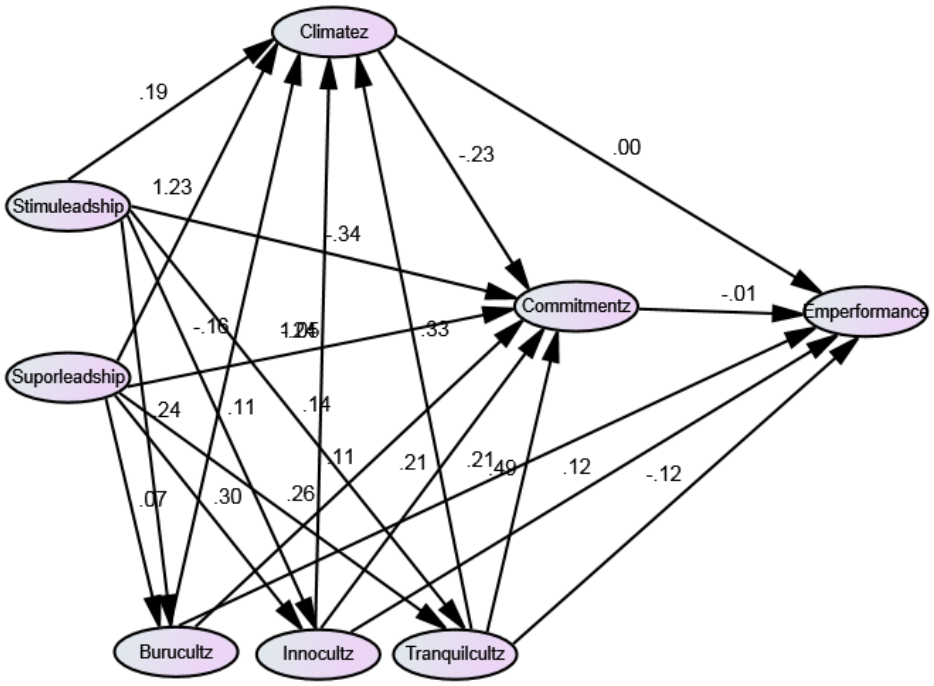

Figure 4.14: Path model – Private, Public, and State organisations (indigenous organisations) – using leadership components as exogenous variables

Table 4.44: Private, Public, and State (indigenous) organisations – Maximum Likelihood Estimates (components of leadership as exogenous factors). Regression Weights: (Group number 1 – Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Burucultz	<---	Stimuleadship	.243	.118	2.066	.039	par_53
Tranquilcultz	<---	Suporleadship	.262	.111	2.359	.018	par_54
Innocultz	<---	Suporleadship	.296	.094	3.164	.002	par_55
Climatez	<---	Suporleadship	1.233	.199	6.194	***	par_2

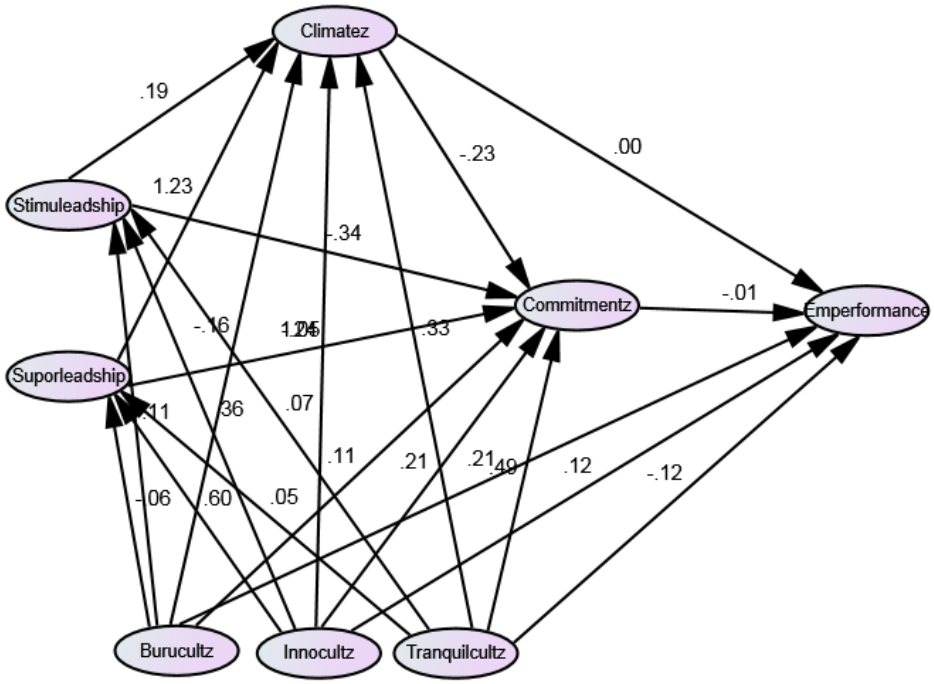

Figure 4.15: Path model – Private, Public, and State (indigenous) organisations – using components of Organisational Culture as exogenous variables

Table 4.45: Private, Public, and State (indigenous) organisations – Maximum Likelihood Estimates Regression Weights: (Group number 1 – Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Suporleadship	<---	Innocultz	.604	.220	2.739	.006	par_53
Climatez	<---	Suporleadship	1.233	.199	6.194	***	par_2

4.8.5.4 Public, Private, and Multinational (Enterprising) Organisations:

In the leadership-exogenous model for this group (Figure 4.16 and Table 4.46), Supportive Leadership impacts significantly on Tranquil Culture, Innovative Culture and Organisational Climate. Organisational Commitment impacts significantly on Employee Performance. In the culture-exogenous model (Figure 4.17 and Table 4.47), Innovative Culture impacts on Supportive Leadership, and Supportive Leadership impacts on Organisational Climate. Organisational

Commitment impacts on Employee Performance as it does in the leadership-exogenous model. The significant impact of Organisational Commitment on Employee Performance in both models is insightful. Essentially, since the organisations in this group are profit-oriented, it is therefore not surprising that such organisations need to ensure the commitment of their employees towards their objective of increased performance as a means to increased profits.

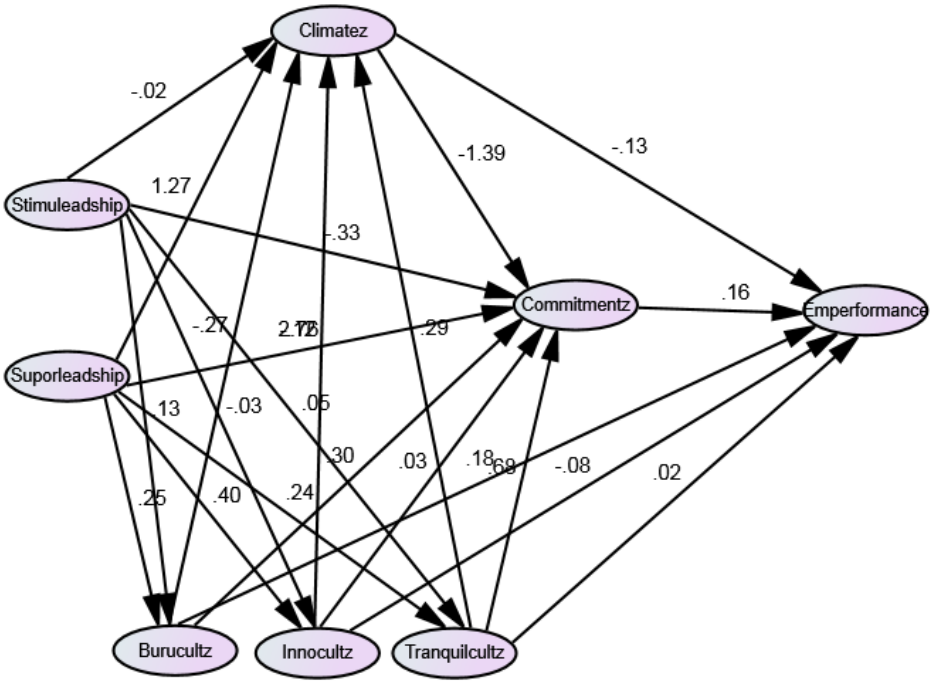

Figure 4.16: Path model – Public, Private, and Multinational (enterprising) organisations –using leadership components as exogenous variables

Table 4.46: Public, Private, and Multinational (enterprising) organisations – Maximum Likelihood Estimates Regression Weights: (Group number 1 – Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Tranquilcultz	<---	Suporleadship	.237	.118	2.001	.045	par_54
Innocultz	<---	Suporleadship	.403	.118	3.425	***	par_55
Climatez	<---	Suporleadship	1.271	.267	4.758	***	par_2
Emperformance	<---	Commitmentz	.159	.059	2.687	.007	par_5

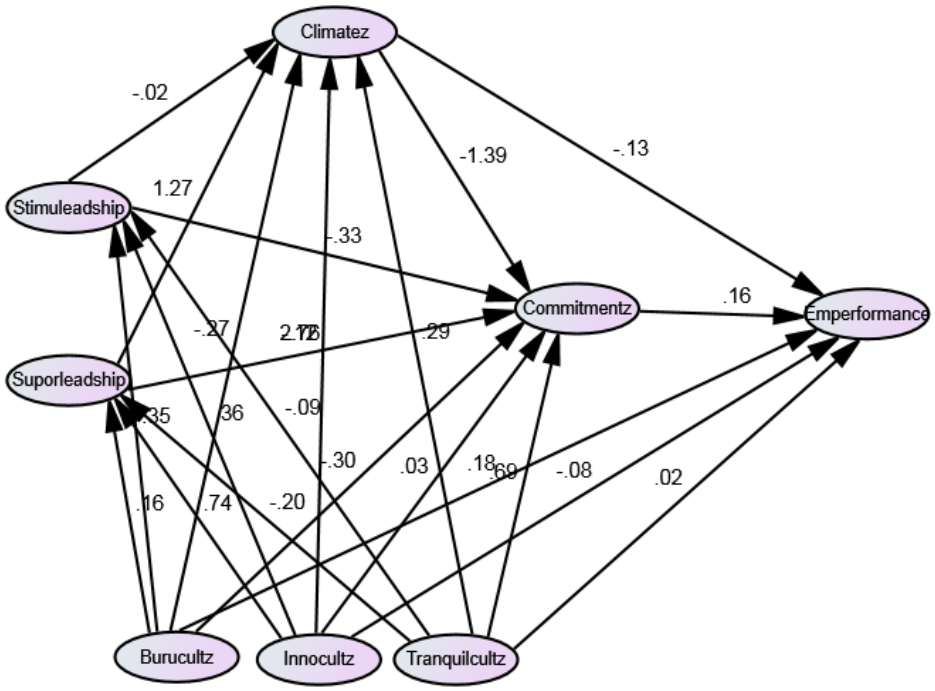

Figure 4.17: Path model – Public, Private, and Multinational (enterprising) organisations – using components of Organisational Culture as exogenous variables

Table 4.47: Public, Private, and Multinational (enterprising) organisations – Maximum Likelihood Estimates Regression Weights: (Group number 1 – Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Suporleadship	<---	Innocultz	.736	.226	3.251	.001	par_53
Climatez	<---	Suporleadship	1.271	.267	4.758	***	par_2
Emperformance	<---	Commitmentz	.159	.059	2.687	.007	par_5

4.8.5.5 Private, State, and Multinational Organisations:

Stimulating Leadership impacts significantly on Tranquil Culture, Innovative Culture and Bureaucratic Culture, whiles Supportive Leadership impacts

significantly on Organisational Climate (Figure 4.18 and Table 4.48). Tranquil Culture also impacts on Organisational Climate. In the culture-exogenous model (Figure 4.19 and Table 4.49), Innovative Culture impacts significantly on both Stimualting Leadership and Supportive Leadership. As in the case of the leadership-exogenous model, Supportive Leadership and Tranquil Culture impact on Organisational Climate. Apart from the Private organisations, State organisations and multinational organisations are usually large and therefore stimulating organisational culture is crucial to such organisations in terms of organisational cohesion, identity, and stability. Even though most private organisations may not necessarily be large, the issues of organisational cohesion, identity and stability may still be crucial for their survival.

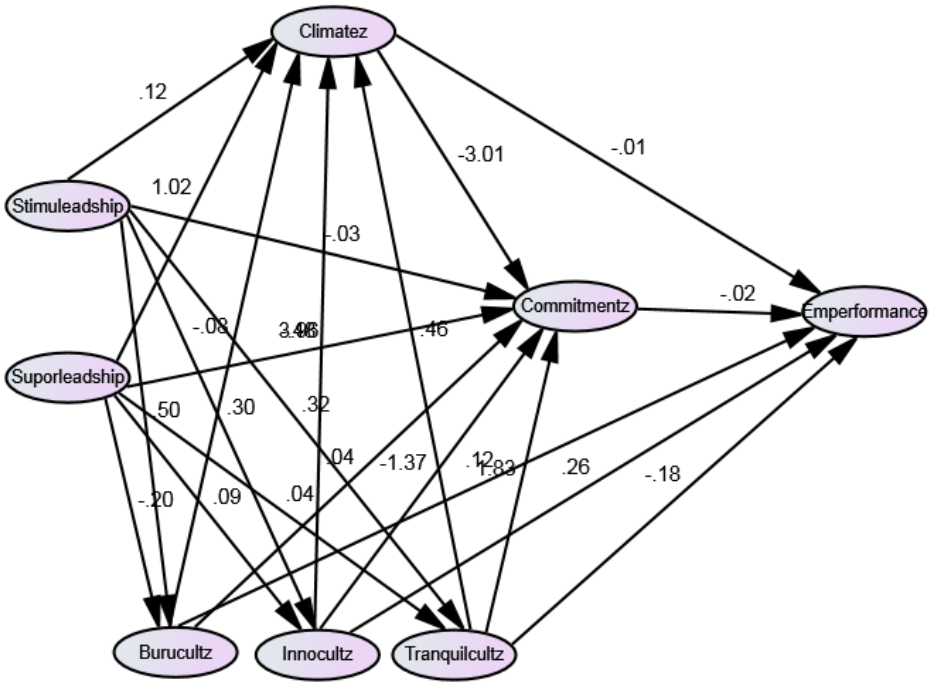

Figure 4.18: Path model - Private, State, and Multinational organisations - using leadership components as exogenous variables

Table 4.48: Private, State, and Multinational organisations – Maximum Likelihood Estimates. Regression Weights: (Group number 1 – Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Tranquilcultz	<---	Stimuleadship	.323	.132	2.440	.015	par_51
Innocultz	<---	Stimuleadship	.303	.105	2.892	.004	par_52
Burucultz	<---	Stimuleadship	.503	.143	3.515	***	par_53
Climatez	<---	Suporleadship	1.023	.192	5.324	***	par_2
Climatez	<---	Tranquilcultz	.463	.219	2.117	.034	par_49

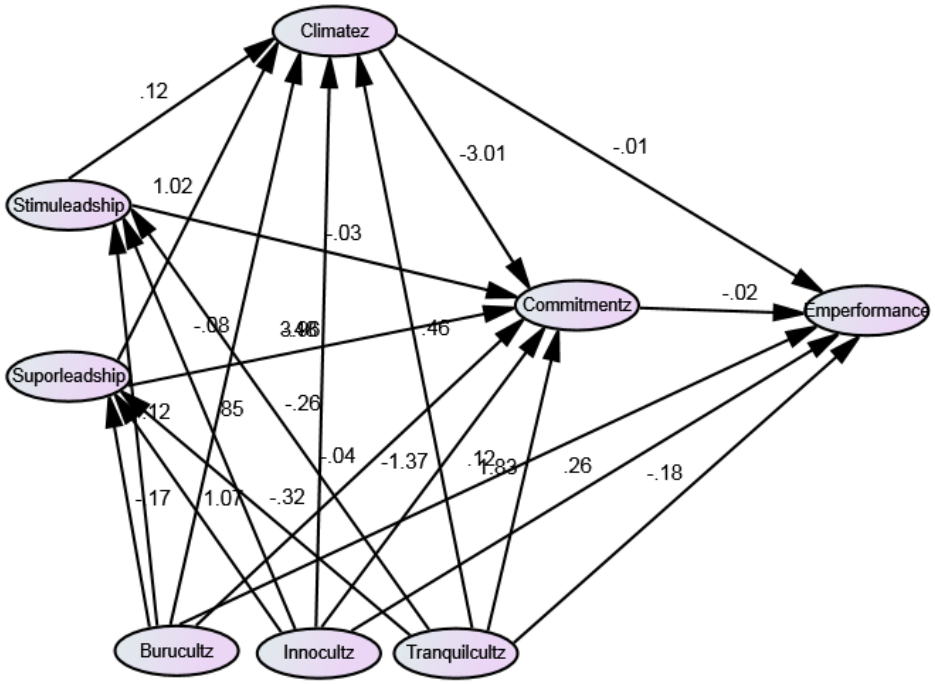

Figure 4.19: Path model – Private, State, and Multinational organisations – using components of Organisational Culture as exogenous variables

Table 4.49: Private, State, and Multinational organisations – Maximum Likelihood Estimates. Regression Weights (Group number 1 – Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Suporleadship	<---	Innocultz	1.070	.320	3.343	***	par_53
Stimuleadship	<---	Innocultz	.848	.303	2.803	.005	par_56
Climatez	<---	Suporleadship	1.023	.192	5.324	***	par_2
Climatez	<---	Tranquilcultz	.463	.219	2.117	.034	par_49

4.8.5.6 Public, State, and Multinational Organisations:

In the leadership-exogenous model for this group (Figure 4.20 and Table 4.50), Stimulating Leadership significantly impact on Innovative Culture and Bureaucratic Culture. Conversely, Supportive Leadership impacts significantly on Innovative Culture and Organisational Climate. Additionally, Innovative Culture and Tranquil Culture impact significantly on Organisational Climate. In the culture-exogenous model (Figure 4.21 and Table 4.51), Supportive Leadership, Innovative Culture, and Tranquil Culture impact significantly on Organisational Climate. Bureaucratic Culture impacts significantly on Stimulating Leadership. Since all organisations in this group are usually large, once again the use of Stimulating Leadership to influence Bureaucratic Culture may be a good strategy to ensure group stability, group cohesion and group identity.

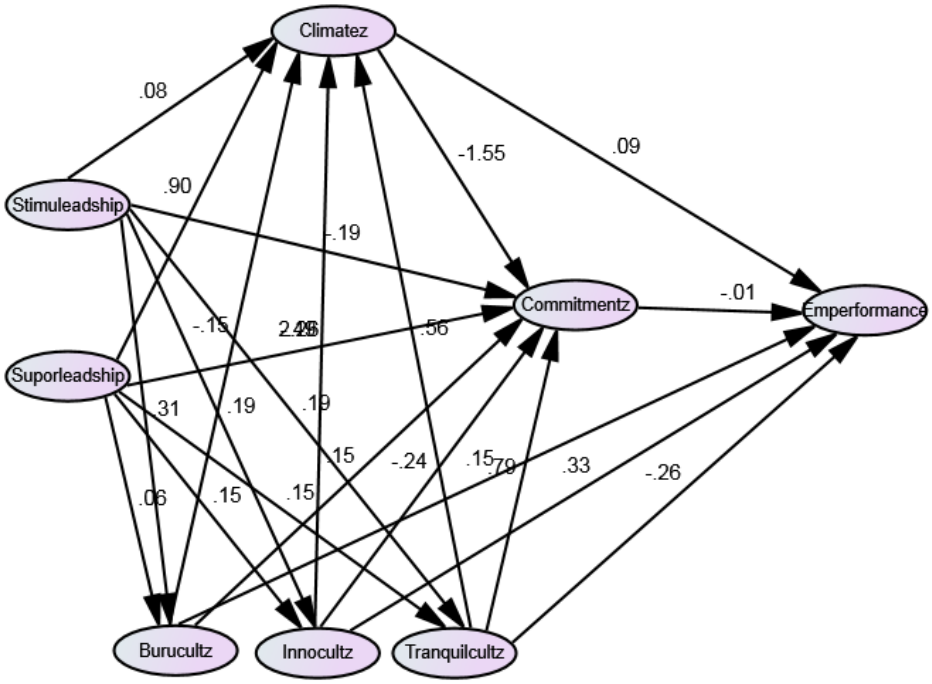

Figure 4.20: Path model – Public, State, and Multinational organisations – using leadership components as exogenous variables

Table 4.50: Public, State, and Multinational organisations – Maximum Likelihood Estimates. Regression Weights: (Group number 1 – Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Innocultz	<---	Stimuleadship	.189	.085	2.224	.026	par_52
Burucultz	<---	Stimuleadship	.313	.112	2.801	.005	par_53
Innocultz	<---	Suporleadship	.149	.072	2.075	.038	par_55
Climatez	<---	Suporleadship	.900	.158	5.689	***	par_2
Climatez	<---	Innocultz	-.493	.227	-2.174	.030	par_48
Climatez	<---	Tranquilcultz	.562	.207	2.716	.007	par_49

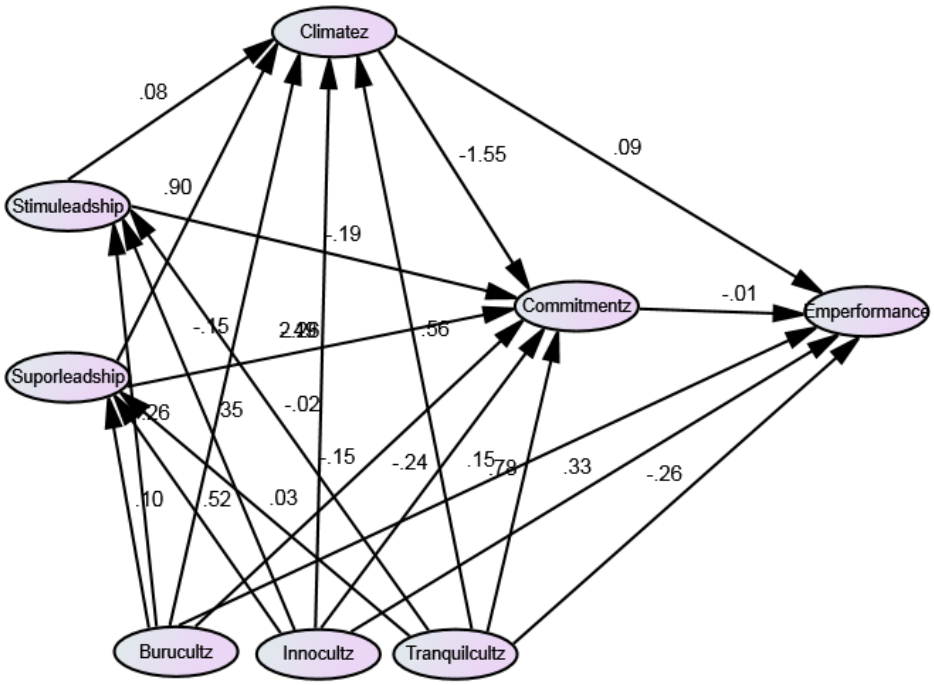

Figure 4.21: Path model – Public, State, and Multinational organisations – using components of Organisational Culture as exogenous variables

Table 4.51: Public, State, and Multinational organisations – Maximum Likelihood Estimates. Regression Weights: (Group number 1 – Default model)

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Label
Stimuleadship	<---	Burucultz	.260	.129	2.017	.044	par_54
Climatez	<---	Suporleadship	.900	.158	5.689	***	par_2
Climatez	<---	Innocultz	-.493	.227	-2.174	.030	par_48
Climatez	<---	Tranquilcultz	.562	.207	2.716	.007	par_49

4.9 Summary

The data for this thesis were collected through a cross-sectional survey from 14 organisations in Ghana. All items that needed to be reversed scored were accordingly dealt with. Missing data (unanswered items) were replaced by the mean scores of the items in question. However, unanswered items in the biographical section were replaced by "99". To ensure the normality of the data, items with high or extreme skewness and kurtosis (X > +/- 1.5) were excluded from the analysis. The internal consistency of reliability of all the measurement instruments had acceptable levels of reliability. The data were not flawed by common methods variance or multi-collinearity.

To assess the relationships between the research variables, bivariate correlations were employed. The correlations among the research variables were assessed at two levels by the Pearson product-moment correlation or the Pearson *r*. First the correlations were assessed amongst the core (principal components) research variables and the biographical variables. At the second level, correlations were assessed amongst component factors of the research variables and the biographical variables. Significant correlations were found among the independent variables as well as between the independent variables and the dependent variable. These significant relationships were found at both the principal component level and at the component factors level. Significant differences across the research variables were found among organisations from the various sectors of the economy through the independent samples *t* test. There was a good fit between the research model and both the entire sample and the subgroups within the sample.

The correlations revealed significant relationships between the research variables. Significant positive relationships were found between the independent variables (leadership and its components, organisational climate, organisational commitment, and organisational culture and its components).For example, a significant positive correlation was found between Transformational Leadership and Organisational Commitment; significant positive correlation between Transformational Leadership and Organisational Climate; and also, a significant positive correlation between Transformational Leadership and Organisational Culture. Some significant relationships were found between the independent variables and the dependent variable – employee performance. For example a significant positive correlation was found between Organisational Commitment and Employee Performance. Some significant relationships were also found

between the independent variables, the dependent variable and the biographical variables. For example, a significant negative correlation exists between Transformational Leadership and Age, and also a significant negative correlation between Transformational Leadership and Tenure of Office.

The independent samples *t* test revealed that the various organisational sectors differed significantly on most of the research variables. The least differences were found between State and Public organisations, and also between the Private and Multinational organisations. Conversely, State and Private Organisations recorded the highest level of differences, followed by State and Multinational organisations.

The research model indicated a good fit between the data for the entire sample as well as across the various organisational groups within the sample. The best fit however was between the entire sample and the model. The path models and regression weights reveal some strong causal relations between many of the research variables. Notwithstanding the variations across the sample and the subgroups of the sample, some consistencies were found. For example, across the sample and its subgroups, Supportive Leadership impacted significantly on Organisational Climate while Stimulating Leadership impacted significantly on Bureaucratic Culture. Additionally, for many of the subgroups, Supportive Leadership impacted significantly on Tranquil Culture and Innovative Culture. However, for State, Private, and Multinational group of organisations, Tranquil Culture and Innovative Culture were significantly impacted by Stimulating Leadership. The enterprising group (Private, Public, and Multinational organisations) recorded the strongest impact of Organisational Commitment on Employee Performance. The next chapter involves hypothesis-testing and discussions of the key research findings.

Chapter 5: Discussions

5.1 Introduction

In this penultimate chapter, the various strands of the research are brought together to ascertain the overall impact of the research. These strands are summarised below:

Section 5.2 provides the organisational context of the research both from the perspective of literature summary on key research variables, and the research questions and hypotheses. Section 5.3 provides the summary of key research findings in response to the research questions and hypotheses.

5.2 Organisational Context of Research

5.2.1 Literature Summary of Key Research Variables

The present globalised economy places a lot of pressure on organisations to strive to attain the highest level of productivity. The need to ensure high productivity is as a result of the ever-increasing sophisticated demands of consumers, while at the same time there is the need to ensure cost-effectiveness as a means of staying competitive on the global market. Notwithstanding the various strategies adopted to address these challenges (e.g. cost reduction or cost-cutting, downsizing, capital-intensive production, etc.), the role of the employee still remains an important component of the productivity equation (Pfeffer, 1995; Boxall and Steeneveld, 1999; Pfeffer *et al.*, 2005). There is therefore the need to examine factors that affect employee performance. As discussed in the literature review (Chapter 2), evidence exists that indicates that transformational leadership, organisational commitment, organisational climate and organisational culture are variables that have an influence on employee performance (Pritchard and Karasick, 1973; Schneider, 1975; Mowday *et al.*, 1982; Gregson, 1992; James *et al.*, 1992; Hofstede, 2001; Higgs, 2003; Rashid *et al.*, 2003; Smith-Crowe *et al.*, 2003; House *et al.*, 2004; Powell and Meyer, 2004; Elele and Fields, 2010; Huang *et al.*, 2010; Liu *et al.*, 2010; O'Reilly *et al.*, 2010). This evidence is largely western-oriented and the purpose of this thesis was to

investigate whether these western concepts can be replicated in an African context – Ghana (Denison, 1990; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Asree *et al.*, 2010).

5.2.2 Research Questions/Hypotheses

With the high global expectations from organisations, vis-à-vis the low levels of performance of most African organisations, this thesis set out to explore the factors that influence employee performance in organisations in Ghana. As indicated previously (in Chapter 2), the research questions for this thesis were:-

1. "What organisational factors influence employee performance of organisations in Ghana?"
2. "Will the organisational factors that have been identified to influence employee performance in the western world similarly influence employee performance of organisations in Ghana?"

Based on these two research questions several hypotheses were generated. These hypotheses are reproduced here for easy reference:

1. Transformational leadership will have a positive indirect relationship with employee performance (Avolio, 1999; Sosik and Godshalk, 2000; Griffith, 2004; Xenikou and Simosi, 2006).
2. Transformational leadership will have a positive direct relationship with organisational commitment (Limsila and Ogunlana, 2008; Yiing and Ahmad, 2009; McMurray *et al.*, 2010).
3. Transformational leadership will have a positive direct relationship with organisational climate (Denison, 1990; Parry, 2002; McMurray *et al.*, 2010).
4. Transformational leadership will have a positive direct relationship with organisational culture (Trice and Beyer, 1993; Ogbonna and Harris, 2000; Xenikou and Simosi, 2006).
5. Organisational culture will have both direct and indirect positive relationships with employee performance (Lee and Yu, 2004; Silverthorne, 2004; Yiing and Ahmad, 2009).
6. Organisational culture will have a positive direct relationship with organisational commitment (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Peters and Waterman, 1982; Lok and Crawford, 1999; Lok and Crawford, 2001).
7. Organisational culture will have a positive direct relationship with organisational climate (Glisson and James, 2002).

8. Organisational commitment will have a positive direct relationship with employee performance (Rashid *et al.*, 2003).
9. Organisational climate will have a positive direct relationship with organisational commitment (Fink, 1992; Iverson, 1996; McMurray *et al.*, 2004).
10. Organisations from the various organisational sectors will significantly differ on most of the research variables (Gordon, 1985; Chatman and Jehn, 1994).
11. Transformational leadership, Organisational Culture, Organisational Commitment, and Organisational Climate will adequately explain the variance in Employee Performance.

The next section now examines the extent to which these hypotheses are supported by evidence from the research.

5.3 Summary of Findings

Several significant findings were obtained in this thesis. These are discussed with reference to the research hypotheses. Other interesting findings not envisaged (through the hypotheses) are also discussed.

Broadly, the findings are discussed in three parts in connection with the appropriate hypotheses. The first part involves discussions of the relationships between the research variables at the principal component level as well as at the component factor level. The second part of the discussions involves the similarities and differences between the organisations from the various sectors. Finally the discussions focus on the extent to which the research model fits the data, and its implications for applications to the cultural context, as well as further research.

5.3.1 Relationships between Research Variables

Several relationships were predicted by the research hypotheses. The findings of this thesis are now examined, mainly in the light of these hypotheses.

5.3.1.1 Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 states that "Transformational leadership will have a positive indirect relationship with employee performance."

The evidence from the findings supports this hypothesis. First, positive correlations were established between transformational leadership and both organisational commitment and organisational culture. Organisational commitment and organisational culture in turn had positive correlations with employee performance. Therefore transformational leadership indeed had a positive indirect relationship with employee performance (through the mediation of organisational commitment and organisational culture). Although Schein (2004) argues that the most important function of top-level leadership is the creation and management of organisational culture, generally, there are limited empirical studies that have examined the relationship between leadership and culture and their joint impact on organisational outcomes such as performance (Schein, 1985; Trice and Beyer, 1993; Tichey and Cohen, 1997). According to Xenikou and Simosi (2006), the only study that had researched the joint impact of transformational leadership and organisational culture was that by Ogbonna and Harris (2000). The paucity of studies in this area makes the findings in this study very significant. Some limited empirical research exists that suggests the intermediary role of organisational culture in respect of transformational leadership's impact on employee performance (Kotter and Heskett, 1992; Quick, 1992; Yiing and Ahmad, 2009). Therefore this finding is a significant contribution to the body of knowledge in terms of the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational culture and the resultant influence on employee performance.

With respect to the mediatory role of commitment between transformational leadership and performance, this finding also confirms Koh *et al.* (1995) findings. These authors found an indirect relationship between transformational leadership and performance; they found that school principals' transformational leadership influenced teachers' and students' commitment which in turn positively improved students' academic performance. Xenikou and Simosi (2006) also found an indirect relationship between transformational leadership and performance. In their study, transformational leadership had an indirect positive impact on performance through the mediation of achievement orientation. Similarly, Griffith

(2004) failed to find a direct association between transformational leadership and either school staff turnover or school-aggregated student achievement progress. Rather, they found that the principal's transformational leadership had an indirect effect, through staff job satisfaction, on school staff turnover (negative) and on school-aggregated student achievement progress (positive). Therefore the study of Griffith (2004) also confirms the indirect relationship between transformational leadership and employee performance as found in this study.

The hypothesis and the consequent findings of an indirect relationship between transformational leadership and employee performance validates Avolio's position that, "if a leader has direct impact on performance, she or he is probably too directly involved in what the other person or group is doing" (Avolio, 1999, p.167). The hypothesis that transformational leadership will have a positive indirect relationship with employee performance was therefore supported. Apart from this finding adding to the body of knowledge of the relationship between transformational leadership and employee performance, via organisational culture and organisational commitment, there are some implications for practice. Since leadership does not influence employee performance directly (Avolio, 1999) but through organisational culture and organisational commitment, leaders in organisations in Ghana would have to develop and sustain organisational cultures that enhance employee performance as well as exploring all possibilities of increasing employees' organisational commitment, which also in turn may positively impact on employee performance.

5.3.1.2 Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 states that "Transformational leadership will have a positive direct relationship with organisational commitment."

This hypothesis was supported by the findings. Transformational leadership correlated positively with organisational commitment. Several studies have confirmed such an association (Alley and Gould, 1975; Wilson, 1995; Limsila and Ogunlana, 2008; Yiing and Ahmad, 2009; McMurray *et al*., 2010). In contrast, Hunt and Liebscher (1973) found a negative relationship between commitment and leadership behaviour. Conversely Hampton *et al.* (1986), O'Reilly and Roberts (1978) and Savery (1994) found no link between leadership behaviour and commitment. In essence existing studies have provided mixed findings. However, the finding of a positive relationship between transformational leadership and organisational commitment in this study seems logical, since supportive and

stimulating leadership (components of transformational leadership) may have positive impressions on employees (Folkman and Moskowitz, 2000; Dasborough and Ashkanasy, 2002) and enhance their commitment. Since studies of the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational commitment have so far generated mixed findings, the present study is a significant contribution to the body of knowledge by providing an empirical evidence of a positive relationship between the two constructs. This finding may help shape theory of the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational commitment. As discussed above in section 5.3.1.1, the practical implication of a positive relationship between leadership and organisational commitment is that increased organisational commitment may ultimately reflect on employee performance. Therefore, organisations in Ghana will enjoy improved or increased employee performance if leaders in these organisations can put in place structures, procedures and practices that enhance organisational commitment. Although this study adds to the body of research that has found a positive relationship between organisational commitment and leadership behaviour, given the mixed findings of other previous studies, further research may be required to clearly define the relationship between these two variables.

5.3.1.3 Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 states that "Transformational leadership will have a positive direct relationship with organisational climate."

The findings support this hypothesis. Transformational leadership correlated positively with organisational climate. This finding is consistent with the argument of several scholars who found that transformational leadership has close links with organisational climate (Schein, 1985; Denison, 1990; Trice and Beyer, 1993; Gil *et al.*, 2005), and that transformational leaders have substantial control and influence over organisational climate (Mumford *et al.*, 2002). Parry (2002) also concluded that transformational leaders have the capacity to inspire and help create adaptive climates. In a study involving a large religious/church-based non-profit organisation, McMurray *et al.* (2010) similarly found a positive strong relationship between employees' ratings of their immediate supervisor's transformational leadership and their ratings of organisational climate. Therefore the evidence of a strong positive link between transformational leadership and organisational climate in this study is encouraging and indicates that leaders of

organisations in Ghana who practice transformational leadership have the potential to positively influence their organisational climate. This statement however is not implying causality at this stage but the positive relationship between these two constructs is very promising. This is because correlations which spell out the relationships between a set of variables serve as a prerequisite for causal relationship(s). Without a correlational relationship, there cannot be a causal relationship. Whereas correlations do not necessarily indicate or ensure causal relationship, they are usually an indication of a possible causal relationship. The empirical finding of this study therefore adds to the body of knowledge of the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational climate and strengthens the theory between these two constructs.

5.3.1.4 Hypothesis 4

Hypothesis 4 states that "Transformational leadership will have a positive direct relationship with organisational culture."

The findings indicate a positive correlation between transformational leadership and organisational culture. Therefore Hypothesis 4 was also supported by the findings. Although theoretically extant literature implicitly agrees on the direct and positive relationship between leadership and organisational culture, not much empirical research had been conducted to validate this implicit relationship (Trice and Beyer, 1993; Ogbonna and Harris, 2000; Xenikou and Simosi, 2006). Therefore the finding of a positive direct relationship between transformational leadership and organisational culture in this study is a significant contribution to this less researched phenomenon.

A similar positive relationship was found in a study by Block (2003) in which employees who rated their immediate supervisors high on transformational leadership also rated their organisational culture high (i.e. perceived as adaptive, involving, consistent, integrating, and mission-focused). Ogbonna and Harris (2000) and Xenikou and Simosi (2006) also in their studies found that transformational leadership and organisational culture had a direct relationship, and that organisational culture mediated the impact of transformational leadership on employee performance. Consequently, leaders of organisations in Ghana may be able to positively influence their employees' performance through their organisational cultures. Leaders in organisations in Ghana may therefore

need to promote strong and clearly defined organisational cultures, which are attuned to increased performance, through transformational leadership.

5.3.1.5 Hypothesis 5

Hypothesis 5 states that "Organisational culture will have both direct and indirect positive relationships with employee performance."

Organisational culture had a positive direct relationship with employee performance and this finding confirms the study by Lee and Yu (2004). In addition to the direct relationship between organisational culture and employee performance, there was also a positive indirect relationship with employee performance through the mediation of organisational commitment. Thus, organisational culture had a positive correlation with organisational commitment, and organisational commitment in turn had a positive correlation with employee performance. This finding is consistent with Rashid *et al.* (2003) findings. In a study of public listed Malaysian companies involving 202 managers, they found a significant positive correlation between organisational culture and organisational commitment. Additionally, they also found that both organisational culture type and organisational commitment influenced the financial performance of the companies. Yiing and Ahmad (2009) report that although all three types of organisational culture did not moderate the relationship between organisational commitment and employee performance, their findings were somewhat in agreement with previous western studies, where supportive cultures were predominantly associated with higher levels of job satisfaction and performance, while bureaucratic cultures produced the opposite effect (Krausz *et al.*, 1995; Silverthorne, 2004). This study is significant in that it is among the few studies that have not only examined the composite effect of organisational culture's impact on other variables like performance, but have also further examined the varied impact of their components on such variables. Although, generally, organisational culture had a positive impact on employee performance, the components of organisational culture had varied impacts: whereas bureaucratic culture had a stronger positive correlation with employee performance than did innovative culture, tranquil culture did not have any significant relationship with employee performance. This finding has huge implications for both practice and training. Thus, leaders in organisations should be aware of the varied impacts of the various culture types so that they can ascertain how best they can use the appropriate culture type(s) to influence increased employee performance.

Therefore leaders would have to be trained, first to be aware of the varied effects of these organisational culture types, and second in how to diagnose and determine how best to utilise the most appropriate culture type to increase employee performance.

5.3.1.6 Hypothesis 6

Hypothesis 6 states that "Organisational culture will have a positive direct relationship with organisational commitment."

The findings indicate a positive correlation between organisational culture and organisational commitment. This confirms the study by Lok and Crawford (1999). Similarly, the components of organisational culture (or subcultures) largely confirm the findings of Lok and Crawford (1999). They found positive associations between innovative culture and organisational commitment, and also between supportive culture and organisational commitment. Similarly, the current study found positive association between innovative culture and organisational commitment, and also between tranquil culture and organisational commitment. However, unlike the study of Lok and Crawford (1999) which found a negative relationship between bureaucratic culture and organisational commitment, the current study found a positive relationship between bureaucratic culture and organisational commitment. However, the strength of this relationship was substantially weaker than that between either innovative culture or tranquil culture and organisational commitment. The finding of a positive but weak relationship between bureaucratic culture and organisational commitment may originate from the bureaucratic rites and ceremonies embedded in the Ghanaian traditional and cultural practices. Therefore leaders in organisations in Ghana with the appropriate skills and tact could influence all the three cultural types (the components of organisational culture) to positively affect employees' commitment which in turn may positively impact on employees' performance.

5.3.1.7 Hypothesis 7

Hypothesis 7 states that "Organisational culture will have a positive direct relationship with organisational climate."

Evidence from the findings indicates that organisational culture correlated positively with organisational climate. Therefore the hypothesis that organisational culture will have a positive correlation with organisational climate was supported. To date, very few empirical studies have examined culture and climate simultaneously and far fewer have examined the relationship between them (Glisson and James, 2002). This is not surprising as, historically, scholars had failed to appreciate the difference between the two constructs (Schneider, 2000). Often, this resulted in culture and climate being used interchangeably; a classic case of the "Jingle Fallacy" (Higgs and Litchenstein, 2010). As far as the author of this thesis is aware, the study of Glisson and James (2002) provided the first empirical evidence of the relationship between climate and culture. However, these two concepts were not examined in relation to other organisational variables such as transformational leadership and organisational commitment, and their resultant impact on employee performance. The current study progresses the work of Glisson and James (2002) by using different measures of organisational culture and organisational climate to examine not only the relationships between the two variables but also to examine how each of these two concepts relates to other organisational variables as mentioned above. The finding of a positive relationship between organisational culture and organisational climate in this research constitutes a significant finding and also a significant contribution to the body of knowledge of these two concepts. Due to the paucity of empirical research on the relationship between organisational climate and organisational culture, more research may be required to refine theory.

5.3.1.8 Hypothesis 8

Hypothesis 8 states that "Organisational commitment will have a positive direct relationship with employee performance."

Organisational commitment correlated positively with employee performance. This finding is consistent with Rashid *et al.* (2003) research, where they found a positive correlation between organisational commitment and financial performance (profitability) in Malaysian public listed companies. Yiing and Ahmad (2009) though did not find any significant association between organisational commitment and performance. However, as mentioned earlier, this study found a positive relationship between organisational commitment and employee

performance. The implication is that leaders in organisations in Ghana could influence the commitment of their employees in order to increase their performance. More research may be required to investigate further the relationship between organisational commitment and employee performance.

5.3.1.9 Hypothesis 9

Hypothesis 9 states that "Organisational climate will have a positive direct relationship with organisational commitment."

Organisational climate correlated positively with organisational commitment. Although some scholars have suggested a link between organisational commitment and organisational climate (Fink, 1992; Iverson *et al.*, 1996), a review of the literature revealed that little had been done in terms of any empirical study. Until the study of McMurray *et al.* (2004), no study had been specifically set out to test the relationship between organisational climate and organisational commitment to determine whether the two constructs were statistically related, or to determine the structure of such a relationship (McMurray *et al.*, 2004). In pioneering empirical research in an Australian manufacturing environment, McMurray *et al.* (2004) demonstrated that the two constructs were significantly and positively related. The finding of the current study of a positive significant correlation between organisational commitment and organisational climate therefore confirms the findings of McMurray *et al.* (2004) and also constitutes a significant contribution to the body of knowledge of this less researched phenomenon. Although similar findings were obtained for both this study and McMurray *et al.* (2004), given that these two studies come from diverse economies (this study from a developing country and the latter from a developed country), there may be the need for further cross-cultural studies in relation to organisational climate and organisational commitment. The present study constitutes the first empirical research to investigate the relationship between organisational climate and organisational commitment in a developing country.

5.3.2 Differences among Organisational Sectors

5.3.2.1 Hypothesis 10

Hypothesis 10 states that "Organisations from the various organisational sectors will significantly differ on most of the research variables."

Obviously this is a non-directional and non-specific hypothesis. This is due to the multiplicity of variables involved and also the lack of any clear and strong theoretical framework for the organisational sectors. The main premise of this hypothesis has been the possibility that the organisations from the various sectors will vary on the organisational variables due to the fact that they have different sources of funding and different objectives, and have to meet different expectations from stakeholders. As results of these differences, organisations from the different sectors are bound to operate differently from each other which invariably will be expected to affect how they relate to the organisational variables examined in this thesis. Consistent with this view, Chatman and Jehn (1994) and Gordon (1985) found out that firms in different industries (different organisational sectors) developed different cultural patterns to suit their business demands. Not only do the findings in the current study confirm Chatman and Jehn (1994), and Gordon (1985) findings, but overwhelmingly have provided evidence to support this view in numerous organisational variables. The evidence of significant differences across organisations from the different sectors on the research variables therefore lends support to this hypothesis (*organisations from the different sectors will significantly differ on most of the research variables*). These variables are now discussed in turn to demonstrate how the various organisational sectors significantly differ in terms of how they employ these organisational variables in the course of their daily operations.

As predicted there were several significant differences among the organisations from the various sectors of the economy.

5.3.2.2 Biographical Variables

The biographical variables in which organisations from the various sectors differed significantly were age, tenure of office, length of service with the organisation, and professional qualification.

Age

Employees in *state* organisations were significantly older than employees in *multinational* organisations. This situation may be as a result of *state* organisations being less aggressive and less competitive compared to *multinational* organisations that have branches across many international boundaries and therefore may give priority to young personnel who, on average, are likely to be more vibrant than older personnel. Additionally, for long-term planning and more benefits to be derived from investments made in personnel, these multinational organisations may focus on young personnel.

Tenure

On tenure of office, the results showed that employees working in *state* organisations had worked longer at their respective posts than those of the *multinational* organisations. Compared to *state* organisations, *multinational* organisations are more prone to organisational changes such as mergers, downsizing, and acquisitions which invariably alter the organisational structure of *multinational* organisations more frequently than that of *state* organisations. Such changes in organisational structure correspondently affect occupiers of positions or offices in the *multinational* organisation. As results of these more frequent organisational changes, occupiers of positions in *multinational* organisations are less likely to have long tenure of office than occupiers of positions or offices in the *state* organisations. Although the pay generally in state organisations is low and few people may leave for other reasons (including creating their own businesses or travelling abroad), majority remain due to the job security it offers them. As in all economies, job security is a paramount concern for employees.

Length of Service with Organisation

Employees from both the *state* sector and the *public* sector scored higher than employees from the *multinational* sector. So, on average, employees working in organisations from the *state* and *public* sectors had served longer with their organisations than employees from the *multinational* sector.

Professional Qualification

Employees from the *private* sector scored significantly higher on professional qualifications than employees from the *state* sector. This means that employees from the *private* sector were better qualified professionally than employees from the *state* sector. This was not a surprising finding, since organisations in the *private* sector are profit-oriented and therefore may give priority to professional qualifications over academic qualifications. Most of the *private* sector organisations were involved in manufacturing which required professional competence rather than academic qualifications. However *state* organisations were mainly service providers which did not necessarily require high professional competence but rather required general academic knowledge.

5.3.2.3 Research Variables

Employee Performance

Employees from both *public* and *private* organisations performed better than did employees of *state* organisations. This is not a surprising finding because both *public* and *private* organisations are profit-oriented organisations and therefore, compared to the *state* organisations, the stakes to increased performance are higher.

A surprising finding, however, was that the employees from *public* organisations performed better than the employees from the *multinational* organisations. Since both *public* and *multinational* organisations are profit-oriented, the finding that *public* organisations performed significantly better than *multinational* organisations is an interesting one. This interesting finding may be accounted for by the proximity advantage of *public* organisations. Since employees from the *public* organisations have direct access to their employers and other stakeholders, it is more likely that their concerns will be heard and addressed in a more expeditious manner than is the case with *multinational* organisations. Consequently, bottlenecks to productivity in *public* organisations may be removed more expeditiously than those in *multinational* organisations and this may impact more positively on performance in *public* organisations than in *multinational* organisations.

Transformational Leadership

Leaders in *private* and *multinational* organisations deployed more transformational leadership than did leaders in *state* organisations. This was to be expected since *private* and *multinational* organisations are profit-focused, and obviously transformational leadership is required for employees to attain their optimum levels of performance which in turn increases profitability. Similar findings were obtained for the components of transformational leadership (i.e. supportive leadership and stimulating leadership) with some modifications in the case of the stimulating leadership. Some authors have disregarded the components of transformational leadership and only focused on the higher-order construct of transformational leadership (Carless, 1998; Pillai *et al.*, 1999). However, the evidence from this research indicates that a study of the components of transformational leadership could be beneficial to organisations. For example, such studies could be more informative and indicate which components are more relevant to organisations in certain economies or cultures. Just like the overarching concept of transformational leadership, the relevant components for this study (stimulating leadership and supportive leadership) are also examined below.

Supportive Leadership

As well as the principal component (transformational leadership), both *private* and *multinational* organisations scored significantly higher on supportive leadership than did state organisations. This implies that leaders in *private* and *multinational* organisations gave more supportive leadership to their subordinates than did leaders in *state* organisations. Again this can be expected since *private* and *multinational* organisations are profit-focused, and obviously supportive leadership is required for employees to attain their optimum levels of performance which in turn increases profitability.

Stimulating Leadership

Similar to transformational leadership and supportive leadership, leaders in *private* and *multinational* organisations deployed more stimulating leadership than did leaders of *state* organisations. However in addition, leaders of *private* organisations deployed more stimulating leadership than did leaders of *public* organisations. Therefore whereas leaders in *multinational* organisations

deployed more stimulating leadership than leaders in *state* organisations only, while leaders in *private* organisations deployed more stimulating leadership than leaders in both *state* and *public* organisations. These findings are unique and unparalleled, as to date no studies have investigated the components of transformational leadership across the various organisational sectors. Thus these results present an important contribution to the current leadership literature.

Organisational Commitment

Employees of *private* organisations were more committed to their organisations than employees from both *state* and *multinational* organisations. Given the background of *state* organisations, it is not surprising that employees of *private* organisations are more committed to their organisations than employees of *state* organisations. However, it is surprising that employees of *private* organisations are more committed to their organisations than employees of *multinational* organisations, given that both sectors of organisations are profit-oriented. Once again the proximity advantage of *private* organisations may account for the superior commitment of employees of *private* organisations compared to employees of *multinational* organisations. Not only will the concerns of employees of *private* organisations be addressed more expeditiously, by virtue of being in close contact with stakeholders (e.g. employers), but also these employees will be under the direct positive influence of stakeholders which may result in the higher commitment that employees of *private* organisations have for their organisations.

Organisational Climate

Private organisations differed significantly from organisations in all the other sectors (*state, public*, and *multinational*) on organisational climate. Employees of *private* organisations experienced more congenial work environments than employees of *state, public* and *multinational* organisations. Since private organisations are basically profit-driven, it is conceivable that they will do everything possible to ensure that their employees are comfortable at their work places so as to facilitate their maximum output. Increased output may invariably be reflected in the profitability of such organisations and thereby justify their reason for existence.

Organisational Culture

Private and *multinational* organisations differed significantly from *state* and *public* organisations on organisational culture. Evidence from the data indicates that *private* and *multinational* organisations have more influential organisational cultures than *state* and *public* organisations. As expected, these profit-making organisations (*private* and *multinational*) need clearly defined and strong cultures to articulate their strategies towards their profit-making agendas. Similar results were obtained for the components of organisational culture. With the exception of bureaucratic culture, organisations from the various sectors significantly differed on the components of organisational culture. These significant differences among the various sectors on tranquil culture and innovative culture are discussed below. As evidenced from the EFA of organisational culture, the data from Ghana did not generate *supportive culture* but rather *tranquil culture.* This is a significant finding and contributes to theory about the applicability of the components of organisational culture cross-culturally.

Tranquil Culture

Private organisations deployed more tranquil culture than *public* organisations, and *public* organisations in turn deployed more tranquil culture than *state* organisations. *Multinational* organisations also deployed more tranquil culture than *state* organisations. Therefore whiles *public* and *multinational* organisations experienced more tranquil culture than *state* organisations; *private* organisations also experienced more tranquil culture than *public* organisations.

Innovative Culture

Private and *multinational* organisations deployed more innovative culture than *state* and *public* organisations. Thus, employees of *private* and *multinational* organisations enjoyed more innovative culture than the employees of *state* and *public* organisations. Innovative culture involves adaptability and creativity which are necessary ingredients for efficiency and increased productivity. Since *private* and *multinational* organisations are basically profit-oriented, this explains why they deploy more innovative culture than *public* and *state* organisations – the need to be more productive with consequent increase in profitability. Although it is true that most *public* organisations also operate for profit, it does seem that

the intensity of the profit-making objective is higher in *private* and *multinational* organisations than *public* organisations.

5.3.3 Model Fit

5.3.3.1 Hypothesis 11

Hypothesis 11 states that "Transformational leadership, Organisational Culture, Organisational Commitment, and Organisational Climate will adequately explain the variance in Employee Performance."

As evidenced from the findings, all the relevant indices demonstrated a good fit of the model to both the entire data sample as well as to the subgroups within the sample. This obviously indicates that stimulating leadership, supportive leadership, organisational climate, organisational commitment, bureaucratic culture, tranquil culture and innovative culture adequately explain employee performance in organisations in Ghana. Although the entire sample and its subsamples all fit the model, the best fit is between the entire sample and the model.

Across the entire sample and the subgroups within the sample, stimulating leadership engendered bureaucratic culture while supportive leadership engendered innovative culture and organisational climate. By the nature of stimulating leadership (requiring aspiration to certain standards), it is not surprising that it engenders bureaucratic culture which also requires conformity to laid-down regulations and procedures. Conversely, the supportive leadership which is non-restrictive but motivational, accordingly, promotes innovative culture and organisational climate. A good blend of stimulating leadership and supportive leadership is therefore required in organisations in Ghana.

Similarly, across the entire sample and the subgroups, tranquil culture engendered organisational climate, except for the enterprising subgroup (*public*, *private*, and *multinational* organisations) and the indigenous subgroup (*private*, *public,* and *state* organisations). For these two subgroups (enterprising and indigenous), however, supportive leadership rather engendered tranquil culture. Considering the Ghanaian national culture which places emphasis on group unity

and collectivism, it is not surprising that tranquil culture (a component of organisational culture) impacts positively on employees' perception of organisational climate. Similarly, it seems logical that supportive leadership, which involves providing assistance and guidance to employees, should impact positively on tranquil culture.

In the *state* and *multinational* organisations, stimulating leadership (aside from engendering bureaucratic culture, as indicated above) also engendered innovative culture and tranquil culture. In essence stimulating leadership influences all the components of organisational culture (tranquil culture, innovative culture, and bureaucratic culture) in the *state* and *multinational* organisations. *State* and *multinational* organisations are usually large organisations. For such large organisations, the potential danger they face is disintegration and dilution of organisational identity across numerous branches. It is therefore not surprising that in these organisations (*state* and *multinational*), deliberate efforts are made by employing all the components of organisational culture to ensure their organisational cohesion and group identity across their numerous branches.

In the *state*, *public*, and *multinational* organisations, innovative culture engendered organisational climate. In the enterprising subgroup (*public*, *private*, and *multinational* organisations), however, stimulating leadership did not engender bureaucratic culture. Rather, supportive leadership engendered tranquil culture, and innovative culture.

Organisational commitment engendered employee performance in the enterprising subgroup (*public*, *private*, and *multinational*). This is the group where organisational commitment had the strongest impact on employee performance. This is not surprising because this is a group which is committed to making as much profit as possible and obviously will shape their employee commitment to impact positively on performance which is a precursor to profit-making.

5.3.4 Summary

As evidenced from the foregone sections, all the hypotheses of this study have been supported by the findings. Significant relationships were found among the research variables. The significant differences found between organisations from the different sectors indicate that the organisational variables studied affect

different organisations to varying degrees. Overall, the research variables adequately account for the variance in employee performance. The next and final chapter provides the summary and conclusions drawn from this research.

Chapter 6: Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

6.1 Introduction

The purpose of this thesis was to explore what factors affect employee performance in organisations in Ghana. Moving from the known to the unknown, the thesis questioned whether factors that have been found to positively influence performance in the western world would similarly influence performance in an African context – Ghana. Reviewing the literature revealed transformational leadership, organisational commitment, organisational climate, organisational culture and national culture as key variables that affect performance in the western world. Consequently, a research model based on these identified organisational variables was applied to data from organisations in Ghana through a cross-sectional survey. The key findings from this research are summarised in the next section.

6.2 Key Findings and Conclusions

The collected data were subjected to rigorous scrutiny to ensure data quality and subsequent valid conclusions drawn from them.

From the findings of this thesis, it is evident that transformational leadership, organisational culture, organisational climate and organisational commitment, which are organisational factors that influence performance in the west, also influence employee performance of organisations in Ghana.

However, the composition of transformational leadership and its influence is radically different from the western concept of transformational leadership. In the western concept of transformational leadership, there are five components. These components are *articulation of vision, inspirational communication, supportive leadership, intellectual stimulation* and *personal recognition.* Of these five components, however, only two were found to be applicable in organisations in Ghana. These were *stimulating leadership* and *supportive leadership,* with the latter being more influential than the former. This is a unique finding and it provides empirical evidence to challenge the universality of transformational

leadership, at least as it is constituted now. At best, the overarching concept of transformational leadership may have a global application but what constitutes transformational leadership may be environmentally determined; that is, what constitutes transformational leadership in a developed economy may not necessarily apply in a developing economy.

Similarly, organisational culture as it manifests in the western culture does not exactly apply in organisations in Ghana. Although, like in the western culture, three components were derived from the factor analysis for organisational culture, they differed slightly from the components that have been found in the western economies. Instead of *bureaucratic culture*, *innovative culture*, and *supportive culture* as found in the west, *bureaucratic culture*, *innovative culture*, and *tranquil culture* were found in organisations in Ghana. It is clear that bureaucratic and innovative cultures are relevant to both the western culture and the Ghanaian context; however, whereas *supportive culture* (which emphasises collaboration, sociability, encouraging and supportive behaviour) was relevant to the western economies, *tranquil culture* (which emphasises fairness, cautiousness, trust in relationships, and non-confrontational behaviours) was relevant to Ghana – a developing economy. Although the concept of organisational culture and its influence on employee performance is still relevant in the Ghanaian context as in the western context, what constitutes organisational culture in the western context is slightly different from what constitutes an organisational culture in the Ghanaian context. This further implies that not all concepts may have global applications without modifications. In most instances, the local environment may warrant some modification of an otherwise global concept. So even though organisational culture similarly impacts on employee performance in Ghana, its composition is different from that in the west.

The finding that transformational leadership, organisational commitment, organisational climate and organisational culture influence employee performance is significant both theoretically and practically. Theoretically this progresses the work of Rashid, Sambasivan and Johari (2003). Unlike other studies that examined bilateral relationships between organisational variables, Rashid and colleagues examined corporate culture, organisational commitment and performance in an integrated way. In their study, two organisational variables (corporate culture and organisational commitment) were examined in relation to performance. However, in the current study, four organisational variables

(transformational leadership, organisational commitment, organisational climate and organisational culture) were examined in relation to employee performance. This study therefore provides more information about the interrelationships between more organisational variables and contributes to the body of knowledge on these organisational variables.

Practically, evidence of several organisational variables having influence on employee performance is significant since it comes closer to the real world than finding evidence of a relationship between individual organisational variables and employee performance. For example, finding evidence of transformational leadership's influence on employee performance separately, or finding evidence of organisational commitment's influence on employee performance separately, is neither informative nor practical enough. On the other hand, evidence of the influence of transformational leadership, organisational commitment, organisational culture, and organisational climate on employee performance in an interactive way *is* more informative and practical. The more organisational variables that are studied in an interactive and integrated way, the closer the finding is to the real-world situation and what is to be expected in the workplace.

Finally, the significant differences among organisations from the different sectors across the research variables indicate that the mix of transformational leadership, organisational commitment, organisational culture and organisational climate required to impact on employee performance may also vary from one organisational type to the other. The right mix is an art form that each organisation has to construct. Overall, the findings of this research provide empirical evidence that transformational leadership, organisational commitment, organisational climate, and organisational culture which influence employee performance in the western world also influence employee performance in the African context, and specifically in Ghana.

6.3 Limitations of the Research

As would be expected, research of this nature is bound to have some limitations. The main limitation of this research is that associated with cross-sectional surveys; namely, that the data may be unduly susceptible to time-of-measurement effects. The potential for damage to the research was controlled through Herman's Common Methods Variance (CMV) diagnosis, which indicated

that the present study was not adversely affected by CMV. Again, being a cross-sectional survey, this study could not provide in-depth knowledge about the various organisations. Ethnographic approaches, using the qualitative methodology is better suited for providing rich contextual data. This study, being a survey therefore, could not account for the context specific details of the various organisations used in the study. Additionally, the present study could not authoritatively explain the "whys?" of the findings. Another limitation of this study is the use of western concepts such as Transformational Leadership in a non-western environment. Using western concepts in a non-western context faces challenges of language interpretation and cultural meanings (Jepson, 2009). Sense-making is a function of language and culture, and therefore the same meanings may not be generated in a non-western context as they may be within a western one. Fortunately, Ghana's official language is English, as it pertains to the western world, but that may not be able to totally absorb unintended influences of language, and culture.

6.4 Contributions of the Study

The contributions of this study are now presented under contributions to methodology, knowledge, and practice:

6.4.1 Contributions to methodology

From the literature, this study appears to be the first (not only in Africa but globally) to explore several organisational variables simultaneously. Most studies have examined the relationships between two or three variables simultaneously; however this study examined five organisational variables simultaneously, which is closer to reality in the organisational world. This approach is a significant contribution to methodology. Such an approach gives deeper insight into the interrelationships between organisational variables and consequently offers more practical benefits to organisations.

Additionally, the conceptual research model (Figure 2.2), and the empirical research model (Figure 4.7) offer significant contributions to theory, methodology and research. Whereas the conceptual research model (Figure 2.2) which incorporates National Culture is relevant for comparative studies across diverse

nations, the empirical research model (Figure 4.7) is relevant for studies within one economy or one national culture.

6.4.2 Contributions to knowledge

The finding of two components of Transformational Leadership in Ghana (a developing economy) instead of five components of transformational leadership as is the case in developed economies is a significant contribution both theoretically and practically. As mentioned above, in the developed economies, transformational leadership comprised five components (*Articulation of Vision, Inspirational Communication, Supportive Leadership, Intellectual Stimulation, and Personal Recognition*). However, in the present study (in a developing economy), only two components were found for transformational leadership. These two components were *Stimulating Leadership* and *Supportive Leadership.* Theoretically, this finding contributes to the literature with respect to the assumed or argued universality of transformational leadership. The findings in this study provide empirical evidence to challenge the universality of transformational leadership as it is presently constituted. Thus this study is significant since it contributes to the ongoing debate on the universality or otherwise of transformational leadership. Even though the overarching concept of transformational leadership may have a global application, the components of transformational leadership as they are presently constituted may not be appropriate for non-westernised societies.

Similarly the finding of *Tranquil Culture* as a component of organisational culture in Ghana, instead of *Supportive Culture* found in the western world contributes to literature in the sense that it has high-lighted the need to examine the cross-cultural implications of organisational culture. It also makes a contribution within its applicability of organisational culture in different economies. In particular this thesis has revealed that all the components of organisational culture may not apply equally and follow the same structure across different economies.

This study found a positive relationship between Transformational Leadership and Organisational Culture. Given the fact that limited empirical research exists about the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational culture (Trice and Beyer, 1993; Ogbonna and Harris, 2000; Xenikou and Simosi, 2006), the findings of this study represent a significant contribution to this less researched phenomenon.

In this study, a positive relationship was found between Organisational Culture and Employee Performance. This revelation makes a significant contribution to the body of knowledge about the link between organisational culture and its components and employee performance.

The finding of a positive relationship between transformational leadership and organisational commitment adds to the body of knowledge that has established a positive relationship between the two variables (Alley and Gould, 1975; Wilson, 1995; Limsila and Ogunlana, 2008; Yiing and Ahmad, 2009; McMurray *et al.*, 2010).

The empirical finding of a positive relationship between transformational leadership and organisational climate is a significant contribution to theory. Thus, this study adds to the body of knowledge of the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational climate, and strengthens the theory between these two constructs.

Due to the paucity of empirical research of the relationship between organisational climate and organisational culture (Glisson and James, 2002), the finding of a positive relationship between organisational culture and organisational climate in the present study sheds more light on these two concepts.

The finding of a positive relationship between organisational climate and organisational commitment is a significant contribution to the body of knowledge of this less researched phenomenon (McMurray *et al.*, 2004). As indicated in Chapter 5, McMurray *et al.'s* study is the first ever, to empirically examine the relationship between organisational climate and organisational commitment (in a developed economy). Consequently, the present study constitutes the first empirical research to investigate the relationship between organisational climate and organisational commitment in a developing country.

Generally, the finding of interrelationships between the research variables (*transformational leadership, organisational culture, organisational climate, organisational commitment, and employee performance*), as well as between the research variables and the biographical variables across various organisational sectors provides rich data about organisational behaviour. To the best of the author's knowledge, this study is the first to comprehensively examine these organisational variables and the biographical variables across the various organisational sectors.

Essentially this study presents evidence from an often-neglected part of the world in the context of management research, and also provides new data (from a developing country) to test western theories and assumptions found in Organisational Behaviour.

6.4.3 Contributions to practice

Practically, the finding of *Stimulating Leadership* and *Supportive Leadership* as the components of Transformational Leadership in this study will direct leaders in Ghana as to the components of transformational leadership needed to move their organisations forward.

This finding also has implications for leadership training and development. Contrary to the argument of some authors that research should focus on the overarching concept of transformational leadership to the neglect of the constituent components (Carless, 1998; Pillai *et al*., 1999), this study has provided empirical evidence to support the argument that it is equally important to study the components of transformational leadership and not just the overarching concept. As evidenced in this study, the components of transformational leadership revealed the relevant components for a specific sample. In the case of Ghana, a developing country, the relevant components as indicated above are *Stimulating Leadership* and *Supportive Leadership*. Knowledge of the relevant components of transformational leadership for any sample is also beneficial for training and leadership development. Additionally, such knowledge will enable leaders to employ effective leadership styles that will positively influence employees' performance (Jung and Avolio, 2000; Sosik and Godshalk, 2000; Lyons and Schneider, 2009; Huang *et al*., 2010; Neufeld *et al*., 2010).

This study also informs leaders of organisations in Ghana about the components of organisational culture that are necessary for influencing employee performance. From the findings of this study, the relevant components of organisational culture were *tranquil culture, innovative culture,* and *bureaucratic culture*, as opposed to *supportive culture, innovative culture* and *bureaucratic culture* found in the western economies. Additionally, this study has revealed that the components of organisational culture had varied impacts on employee performance. Consequently, this finding helps to identify which components of organisational culture are more effective in enhancing employee performance. Since leadership is argued to have influence on organisational culture (Mumford

et al., 2002; Parry, 2002), coupled with the empirical evidence of a positive direct relationship between transformational leadership and organisational culture in this study, leaders of organisations in Ghana could positively influence employees' performance through the right mix of tranquil culture, innovative culture and bureaucratic culture. The findings of the relationships between transformational leadership, organisational culture and its components could serve as a basis for training and leadership development.

The finding of a positive relationship between organisational commitment and employee performance may have practical implications for organisations in Ghana. Thus increased organisational commitment may ultimately reflect on employee performance (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Rashid *et al.*, 2003; Powell and Meyer, 2004). Therefore, organisations in Ghana will enjoy improved employee performance if leaders in these organisations can put into place structures, procedures and practices that enhance organisational commitment.

This study also revealed a positive relationship between organisational climate and employee performance. Therefore, leaders of organisations could create congenial organisational climates for employees of their organisations to enhance their performance.

The finding of positive, albeit varied strengths between the components of organisational culture and organisational commitment is a significant contribution to theory and practice. Consequently, leaders in organisations in Ghana with the appropriate skills and tact could influence all the three cultural types (the components of organisational culture) to positively affect employees' commitment, which in turn may positively impact on employees' performance (Rashid *et al.*, 2003).

Other practical contributions of this study include the following:

This study may draw the attention of the Government of Ghana to assist SMEs in the practice of quality organisational practices.

Findings from this study may also offer policy direction for international organisations and NGOs that operate in Ghana (e.g. Africa Project Development Foundation – APDF).

The findings from this research may further contribute to leadership development in Ghana, and the findings may also serve as a blueprint for

business managers and policy-makers on how to improve employee performance.

Finally it is anticipated that this research may have the potential to open up avenues for business growth since the knowledge in the implementation of leadership development and quality organisational practices will help businesses to retain their competitive edge in the market.

6.5 Future Research

Although leadership and organisational culture are key organisational variables that affect performance, there is paucity of empirical research to substantiate theory of the relationship between these two variables (Trice and Beyer, 1993; Ogbonna and Harris, 2000; Xenikou and Simosi, 2006). Therefore there is the need for more research to be conducted to clearly define the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational culture and the resultant impact on performance. Further studies could also examine the cross-cultural implications of the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational culture, for employee performance.

Since this study is one of the few that have examined the relationship between organisational climate and organisational culture (Glisson and James, 2002), more studies are needed to clarify and strengthen theory about the relationship between these two organisational variables.

Although the findings of this thesis has established a positive relationship between transformational leadership and organisational commitment, extant research has provided mixed findings (Hunt and Liebscher, 1973; Alley and Gould, 1975; O'Reilly and Roberts, 1978; Hampton *et al.*, 1986; Savery, 1994; Wilson, 1995; Limsila and Ogunlana, 2008; Yiing and Ahmad, 2009; McMurray *et al.*, 2010). Consequently more research is required to clarify the relationship between these two variables.

In this study, organisational commitment correlated positively with employee performance. However, given the paucity of empirical research, coupled with mixed findings from the limited research (Rashid *et al.*, 2003; Yiing and Ahmad, 2009), more research is required to shed more light on the relationship between organisational commitment and employee performance.

To the best of the author's knowledge, this study is the second after McMurray *et al.*'s (2004) to empirically examine the relationship between organisational climate and organisational commitment. This therefore indicates the paucity of empirical studies on the relationship between these two variables. Consequently more empirical research may be needed to shed more light on the relationship between organisational commitment and organisational climate.

The present study has provided evidence that transformational leadership, organisational culture, organisational commitment, and organisational climate are factors that account for employee performance in Ghana. This study has also provided evidence of the varied impact of these organisational variables on employee performance across the various organisational sectors. However, the *why* behind these findings are not yet known. A follow-up to this study will employ the idiographic methodology, such as in-depth interviews, to explain the meanings behind the findings. Future studies involving different samples from that used in the present study could employ mixed methodology which could compliment findings from surveys by identifying the meanings behind the findings (through interviews).

Due to the dearth of knowledge and empirical studies of organisational factors that affect performance in the developing economies, there is obvious need for more studies to be conducted in the African context. Replication of the present study, particularly in African countries, using the empirical research model used in this thesis, should present interesting findings. Similarly, cross-cultural studies, using the proposed conceptual research model in the present study, of how these organisational variables affect employee performance in both the developed and the developing nations of the world should present interesting findings.

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Survey Instrument and Ethical Approval

Section 1A: Survey Instrument:

The questionnaire is in four parts and should take no longer than fifteen minutes of your time. I am very grateful for your contribution. Thank you.

Part 1

For each of the following statements, please indicate the extent to which you agree, by circling the appropriate figure that represents your response. Please use the scale below to guide your response.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Partially Disagree**	**Neither Disagree nor Agree**	**Partially Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

S/N		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	My immediate supervisor has a clear understanding of where our group (work unit/department) is going	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	My immediate supervisor says positive things about our work unit/department	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my life working in this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	My immediate supervisor behaves in a manner which is thoughtful of my personal needs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	I determine my own work procedure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	My immediate supervisor acknowledges improvement in the quality of my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	My immediate supervisor has ideas that have forced me to rethink some things that I have never questioned before	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	I enjoy discussing my organisation with people outside of it	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

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S/N		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Our firm emphasises cooperation and collectivism	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	My immediate supervisor has no idea of the strategic direction of the organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	My immediate supervisor personally compliments me when I do outstanding work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Too many employees of my organisation, at my level, get worn out by the demands of their jobs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	My immediate supervisor challenges me to think about old problems in new ways	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	The hierarchical line is very distinct in our firm and it is not allowed to be bypassed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	My immediate supervisor is behind me 100%	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	There is a lot of “team-spirit” among people in my organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	My immediate supervisor has challenged me to rethink some of my basic assumptions about my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Top managers encourage the development of innovative strategies, knowing well that some will fail	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	I really feel as if this organisation’s problems are my own	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	My immediate supervisor has a clear sense of where he/she wants our work unit/ department to be in 5 years	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	I think I could become as easily attached to another organisation as I am to this one	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	My immediate supervisor sees that the interests of employees are given due consideration	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	Our firm encourages joint responsibility for	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

S/N		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	successes and failures							
24	My immediate supervisor is the kind of person I can level with	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	I do not feel “emotionally attached” to this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	My immediate supervisor encourages people to see changing environments as situations full of opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	Juniors are not allowed to go against a superior and they must follow the will of the superior	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	My immediate supervisor encourages me to develop my ideas	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	I do not feel like “part of the family” at my organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	My immediate supervisor says things that make employees proud to be a part of this organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	We believe that a change in market creates a positive opportunity for us	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33	Close cooperation is preferred over working independently	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34	The superior has the last word, and the juniors cannot discuss with them freely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	My immediate supervisor considers my personal feelings before acting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36	I can count on my immediate supervisor to give me a fair chance for my career development	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
37	We have a strong preference for high-risk projects, with chances for high returns	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix 1

S/N		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
38	My immediate supervisor commends me when I work beyond what is required of me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
39	This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
40	My immediate supervisor is quick to recognise good performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part 2

To what extent does each of the following words below reflect your organisation? Please circle a score, for each word, from the scale below which most closely corresponds with how you see your organisation. Please use the scale below to guide your response.

1 2 3 4

1	2	3	4
Does not describe my organisation	**Describes my organisation a little**	**Describes my organisation a fair amount**	**Describes my organisation most of the time**

(a) Risk taking	1	2	3	4
(b) Collaborative	1	2	3	4
(c) Hierarchical	1	2	3	4
(d) Procedural	1	2	3	4
(e) Relationships-oriented	1	2	3	4
(f) Results-oriented	1	2	3	4
(g) Creative	1	2	3	4

(h) Encouraging	1	2	3	4
(i) Sociable	1	2	3	4
(j) Structured	1	2	3	4
(k) Pressurised	1	2	3	4
(l) Ordered	1	2	3	4
(m) Stimulating	1	2	3	4
(n) Regulated	1	2	3	4
(o) Personal freedom	1	2	3	4
(p) Equitable	1	2	3	4
(q) Safe	1	2	3	4
(r) Challenging	1	2	3	4
(s) Enterprising	1	2	3	4
(t) Established, solid	1	2	3	4
(u) Cautious	1	2	3	4
(v) Trusting	1	2	3	4
(w) Driving	1	2	3	4
(x) Power-oriented	1	2	3	4

Appendix 1

Part 3

From the following items, please choose the option that applies to you. Please choose your immediate response.

Generally, how do you rate your performance on your job?

(a) ***Very much exceeds*** standards for job performance
(b) ***Partially exceeds*** standards for job performance
(c) ***Very much meets*** standards for job performance
(d) ***Meets*** standards for job performance
(e) ***Partially meets*** standards for job performance
(f) ***Does not quite meet*** standards for job performance
(g) ***Does not meet*** standards for job performance

Generally, how do you compare your performance to the performance of colleagues of your rank?

(a) At a very high level compared to the performance of colleagues of my rank
(b) At a high level compared with the performance of colleagues of my rank
(c) At a little level above average of the performance of colleagues of my rank
(d) Just at average level of the performance of colleagues of my rank
(e) Barely within average level of the performance of my colleagues
(f) Quite below the level of performance of colleagues of my rank
(g) Much below the level of performance of colleagues of my rank

Generally, how do you rate your contributions to the effectiveness of your work unit/department?

(a) I contribute much more than most members of my work unit/department
(b) I contribute more than most members of my work unit/department
(c) I contribute a bit more than most members of my work unit/department
(d) I contribute just about the same as most members of my work unit/department
(e) I contribute a bit less than most members of my work unit/department
(f) I contribute less than most members of my work unit/department
(g) I contribute much less than most members of my work unit/department

Part 4

Kindly choose the options as they apply to you (please make a circle around your response)

Gender: Male/Female

Age category:

(a) Below 20 years
(b) (20 – 29) years
(c) (30 – 39) years
(d) (40 – 49) years
(e) (50 – 59) years
(f) (60 – 69) years
(g) (70 and above) years

Into what category do you place your present level of seniority in your organisation?

(a) Top management
(b) Middle management
(c) First-line management
(d) Staff

How long have you been at this level in your current organisation (reference to the above question)?

(a) Below 1 year
(b) (1 – 2) years
(c) (3 – 5) years
(d) (6 – 10) years
(e) (11 -20) years
(f) (21 – 30) years
(g) (31 – 40) years
(h) 41 or more years

How long have you worked with your current organisation?

(a) (Below 1) year
(b) (1 – 2) years
(c) (3 – 5) years
(d) (6 – 10) years

(e) (11 -20) years
(f) (21 – 30) years
(g) (31 – 40) years
(h) (41 – 50) years
(i) (61 – 70) years

What is your highest academic qualification?

(a) Post-graduate
(b) Graduate
(c) Diploma
(d) Advanced level certificate of education
(e) Ordinary level certificate of education
(f) Other (please specify)……..

What is your highest professional qualification?

(a) Final (chartered etc.)
(b) Intermediate
(c) Foundation
(d) Certificate
(e) Other (please specify)……..

Please state your nationality…….

THANK YOU

Section 1B: Ethical Approval: (Consent Form for Research Participants)

UNIVERSITY OF Southampton

Consent Form for Research Participants (Data collected in person)

I am *Bernard F. Bempong,* a *Doctoral Research Student of the School of Management of the University of Southampton*. I am requesting your participation in a study regarding *your attitude towards your organisation and work.* The study should last approximately 10 minutes. You will be asked to fill out a short questionnaire. Personal information will not be released or viewed by anyone other than researchers involved in this project. Results of this study will not include your name or any other information to identify you as you. Your participation is voluntary and you may withdraw your participation at any time. A debriefing statement will be narrated upon completion of the study.

If you have any questions please ask them now, or contact me (B. F. Bempong) at bfb1y08@soton.ca.uk

Sincerely,

Bernard F. Bempong

Statement of Consent

I _____ have read the above informed consent form.

[participants name]

I understand that I may withdraw my consent and discontinue participation at any time without penalty or loss of benefit to myself. I understand that data collected as part of this research project will be treated confidentially, and that published results of this research project will maintain my confidentially. In signing this consent letter, I am not waiving my legal claims, rights, or remedies. A copy of this consent letter will be offered to me.

(Circle Yes or No)

I give consent to participate in the above study.

Yes No

Signature Date

Name

I understand that if I have questions about my rights as a participant in this research, or if I feel that I have been placed at risk, I can contact the principal investigator, *B. F. Bempong at* bfb1y08@soton.ac.uk; Phone: +233 20 4239 447).

Section 1C: Debriefing Form

UNIVERSITY OF Southampton

Debriefing Statement

Thank you so much for participating in this study. Your participation was very valuable to us.

We know you are very busy and very much appreciate the time you devoted to participating in this study.

There was some information about the study that we were not able to discuss with you prior to the study, because doing so probably would have impacted your actions and thus skewed the study results. I would like to explain these things to you now.

In this study, we were interested in understanding how leadership influences employees' performance. Based on prior research, we expect to find that Transformational leadership will impact positively on employees' work out put (performance). Transformational leaders are those who inspire and empower followers to perform beyond levels normally required of them, and such followers end up being transformed as leaders (Bass, 1985; Xenikou and Simosi, 2006). In particular, within the context of organisational culture, organisational climate and organisational commitment, we expect transformational leadership to positively correlate with employee performance. This expectation is due to the fact that over 35 studies have reported positive relationships between transformational leadership and follower performance (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1996) It is further believed that the values and beliefs held (culture), feelings and perceptions of employees (climate), as well as the extent of their identification with their organisation (commitment) will mediate the influence of transformational leadership's relationship with employee performance (Lok and Crawford, 1999; Yiing and Ahmad, 2009; Xenikou and Simosi, 2006).

We hope this clarifies the purpose of the research, and the reason why we could not tell you all of the details about the study prior to your participation. If you would like more information about how leadership, culture, climate and commitment influence and performance, then you may be interested in the following references;

Bass, B. 1985. *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*, Free Press New York.
Kirkpatrick, S.A. and Locke, E.A (1996), "Direct and indirect effects of three core charismatic leadership components on performance and attitudes", *Journal of Applied Psychology,* Vol. 81, pp. 36 – 51.
Lok, P. and Crawford, J. (1999),"The relationship between commitment and organizational culture, subculture, leadership style and job satisfaction in organizational change and development", *Leadership and Organization Development Journal, Vol. 20 No. 7, pp. 365 – 373.*
Xenikou, A. And Simosi, M. (2006), "Organisational culture and transformational leadership as predictors of business unit performance", *Journal of Managerial Psychology,* Vol. 21 No. 6, pp. 566 – 79.
Yiing, L. H and Ahmad, K.Z.B, (2009), "The moderating effects of organisational culture on the relationships between leadership behaviour and organizational commitment and between organizational commitment and job satisfaction and performance" *Leadership and Organization Development JournalVol.30 No. 1, pp. 53 – 86*

It is very important that you do not discuss this study with anyone else until the study is complete. Our efforts will be greatly compromised if participants come into this study knowing what is about and how the ideas are being tested. If you have any questions or concerns, you may contact me, B. F Bempong at bfb1y08@soton.ac.uk. Thank you again for your participation!

Section 1D: Letter of Introduction

UNIVERSITY OF Southampton

12 July 2011

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Bernard F. Bempong (the bearer of this letter) is one of the Doctoral students that I am supervising at the School of Management of the University of Southampton.

Bernard's thesis which is a comparative study of Ghanaian and British organisations, explores the impact of leadership, commitment, national culture, organisational culture, and organisational climate on employee performance.

Your full cooperation and participation in his research may not only help in contributing to academic knowledge, but may also have positive implications for organisational practices. It will therefore be highly appreciated if you could kindly give him all the assistance he needs from you in connection with his thesis.

Thanking you in anticipation.

Malcolm Higgs
Professor of HR Management and Organisation Behaviour
Direct Line: 023 8059 7788
e-mail: malcolm.higgs@soton.ac.uk

Management, University of Southampton, Highfield Campus, Southampton SO17 1BJ United Kingdom

Appendix 1

Appendix 2: Statistical Analyses

Section 2A Correlations:

		Code of organisation	Sector of organisation	gender	age	present level of seniority	tenure of office	length of service with	academic qualification	professional qualification	Employee performance	Supportive leadership	Stimulating leadership	Transformational Leadership	Organisational Commitment	Organisational Climate	Inovative Culture	Tranquil Culture	Bureaucratic Culture	Organisational Culture
Code of organisation	Pearson Correlation	1																		
	Sig. (2-tailed)																			
	N	518																		
Sector of organisation	Pearson Correlation	-.025	1																	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.573																		
	N	518	518																	
Gender	Pearson Correlation	.048	-.041	1																
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.278	.351																	
	N	518	518	518																
Age	Pearson Correlation	-.010	-.074	.223**	1															
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.825	.094	.000																
	N	518	518	518	518															
present level of seniority	Pearson Correlation	-.001	.022	.166**	.753**	1														
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.980	.613	.000	.000															
	N	518	518	518	518	518														

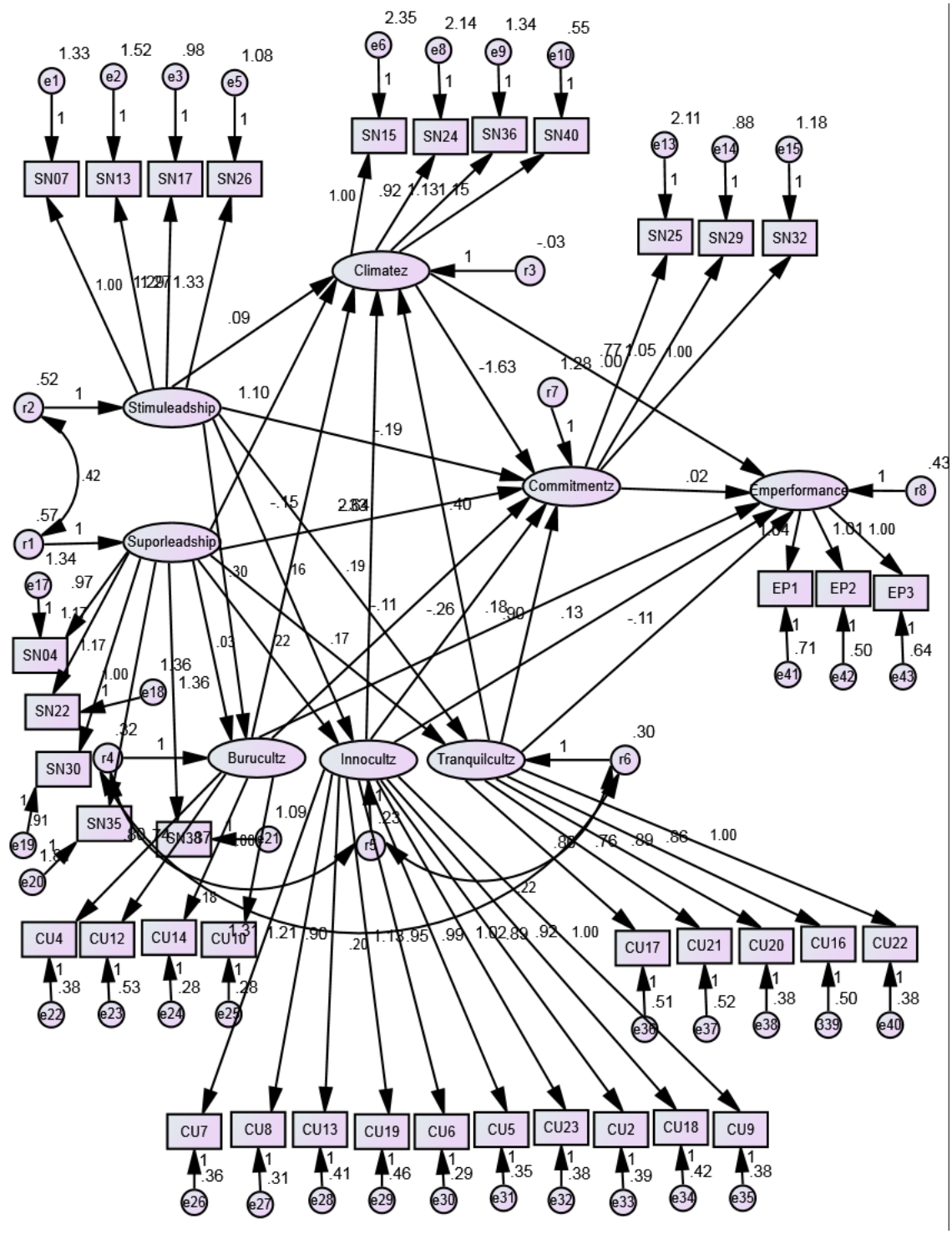
		Code of organisation	Sector of organisation	gender	age	present level of seniority	tenure of office	length of service with	academic qualification	professional qualification	Employee performance	Supportive leadership	Stimulating leadership	Transformational Leadership	Organisational Commitment	Organisational Climate	Inovative Culture	Tranquil Culture	Bureaucratic Culture	Organisational Culture
tenure of office	Pearson Correlation	.015	-.074	.252**	.944**	.792**	1													
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.729	.092	.000	.000	.000														
	N	518	518	518	518	518	518													
length of service with org	Pearson Correlation	.032	-.078	.228**	.718**	.597**	.759**	1												
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.468	.075	.000	.000	.000	.000													
	N	518	518	518	518	518	518	518												
academic qualification	Pearson Correlation	-.024	-.015	.193**	.660**	.555**	.696**	.833**	1											
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.588	.730	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000												
	N	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518											
professional qualification	Pearson Correlation	.068	.084	.088*	.159**	.132**	.173**	.213**	.217**	1										
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.121	.055	.046	.000	.003	.000	.000	.000											
	N	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518										
Employee performance (EP)	Pearson Correlation	.085	.035	-.047	.034	.004	.048	.073	.031	.084	1									
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.053	.425	.283	.446	.924	.280	.099	.487	.056										
	N	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518									
Supportive leadership	Pearson Correlation	.025	.131**	.039	-.071	-.026	-.069	-.003	-.006	.045	.087*	1								
	Sig. (2-	.572	.003	.376	.105	.551	.116	.954	.887	.307	.047									

		Code of organisation	Sector of organisation	gender	age	present level of seniority	tenure of office	length of service with	academic qualification	professional qualification	Employee performance	Supportive leadership	Stimulating leadership	Transformational Leadership	Organisational Commitment	Organisational Climate	Inovative Culture	Tranquil Culture	Bureaucratic Culture	Organisational Culture
	tailed)																			
	N	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518								
Stimulating leadership	Pearson Correlation	.063	.171**	.043	-.094*	-.056	-.093*	-.043	-.021	-.004	.041	.596**	1							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.154	.000	.323	.032	.201	.035	.330	.627	.920	.357	.000								
	N	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518							
Transformational Leadership	Pearson Correlation	.049	.169**	.046	-.093*	-.046	-.091*	-.026	-.016	.022	.071	.890**	.897**	1						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.262	.000	.294	.034	.291	.039	.558	.723	.613	.106	.000	.000							
	N	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518						
Organisational Commitment	Pearson Correlation	.072	.019	.006	-.067	-.045	-.066	-.019	-.018	.003	.151**	.435**	.351**	.439**	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.103	.659	.891	.128	.309	.136	.673	.678	.943	.001	.000	.000	.000						
	N	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518					
Organisational Climate	Pearson Correlation	.040	.104*	.006	-.042	-.014	-.032	.007	.000	.005	.052	.707**	.599**	.730**	.486**	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.362	.018	.887	.340	.757	.463	.870	.996	.907	.239	.000	.000	.000	.000					
	N	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518				
Inovative Culture	Pearson Correlation	.015	.321**	-.019	-.061	-.012	-.050	-.044	-.052	.069	.120**	.357**	.402**	.425**	.440**	.415**	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.741	.000	.670	.163	.779	.254	.321	.239	.117	.006	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000				
	N	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518			

		Code of organisation	Sector of organisation	gender	age	present level of seniority	tenure of office	length of service with	academic qualification	professional qualification	Employee performance	Supportive leadership	Stimulating leadership	Transformational Leadership	Organisational Commitment	Organisational Climate	Inovative Culture	Tranquil Culture	Bureaucratic Culture	Organisational Culture
Tranquil Culture	Pearson Correlation	.020	.269**	-.011	-.065	-.021	-.057	-.047	-.048	.043	.083	.274**	.332**	.340**	.367**	.328**	.708**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.652	.000	.797	.138	.634	.193	.283	.275	.328	.059	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000			
	N	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518		
Bureaucratic Culture	Pearson Correlation	.152**	.079	.081	-.096*	-.063	-.079	-.060	-.077	-.028	.125**	.201**	.317**	.291**	.280**	.218**	.567**	.504**	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.072	.067	.030	.154	.074	.173	.080	.526	.004	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		
	N	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	
Organisational Culture	Pearson Correlation	.051	.292**	.005	-.080	-.029	-.066	-.055	-.064	.047	.127**	.344**	.417**	.427**	.442**	.400**	.949**	.847**	.733**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.242	.000	.911	.070	.511	.131	.212	.145	.282	.004	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518	518
****. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).**																				
***. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).**																				

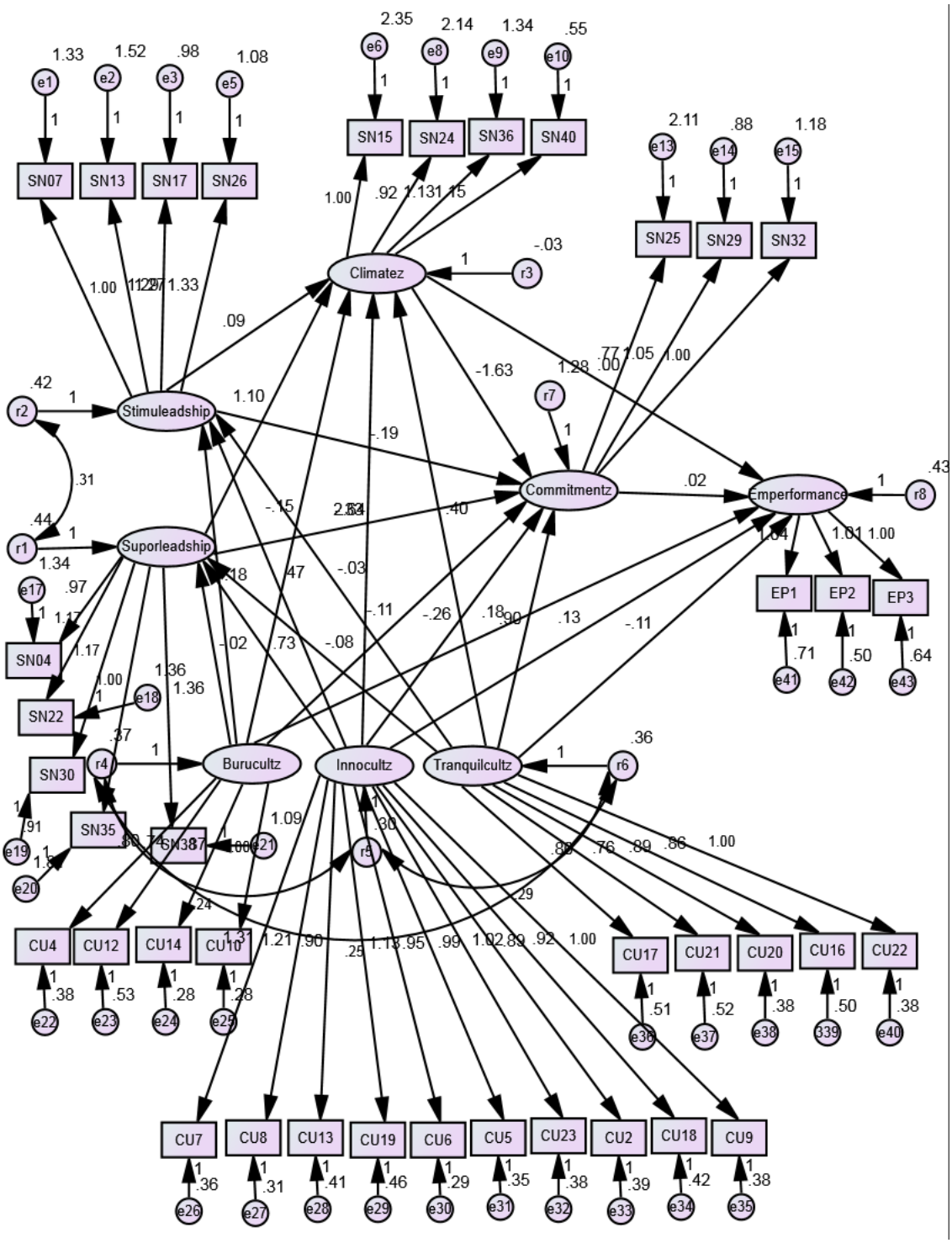
Section 2B: Path Models from Structural Equation Modelling

Entire Sample with Leadership as exogenous factors

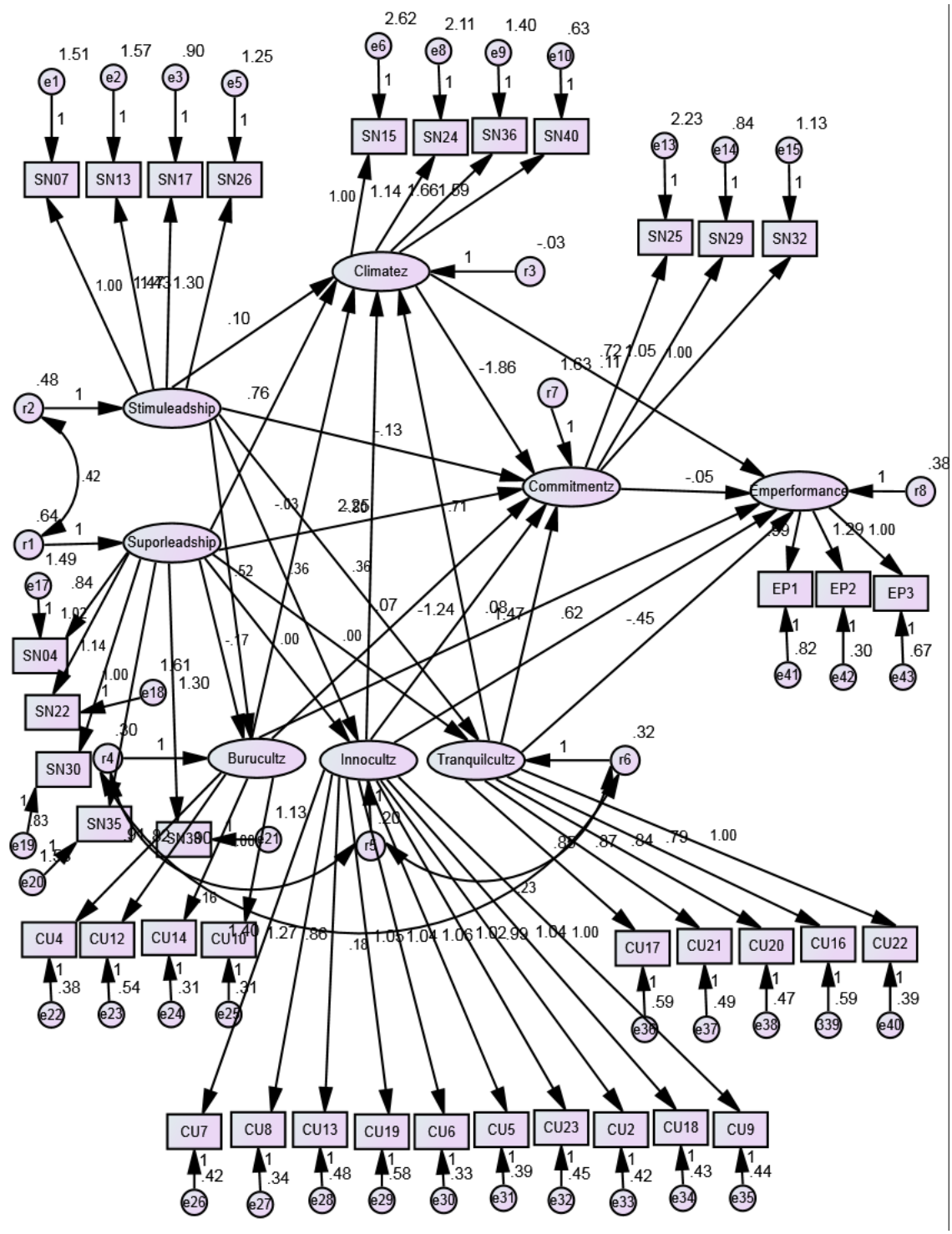


Appendix 2

Entire Sample with Culture as exogenous factors

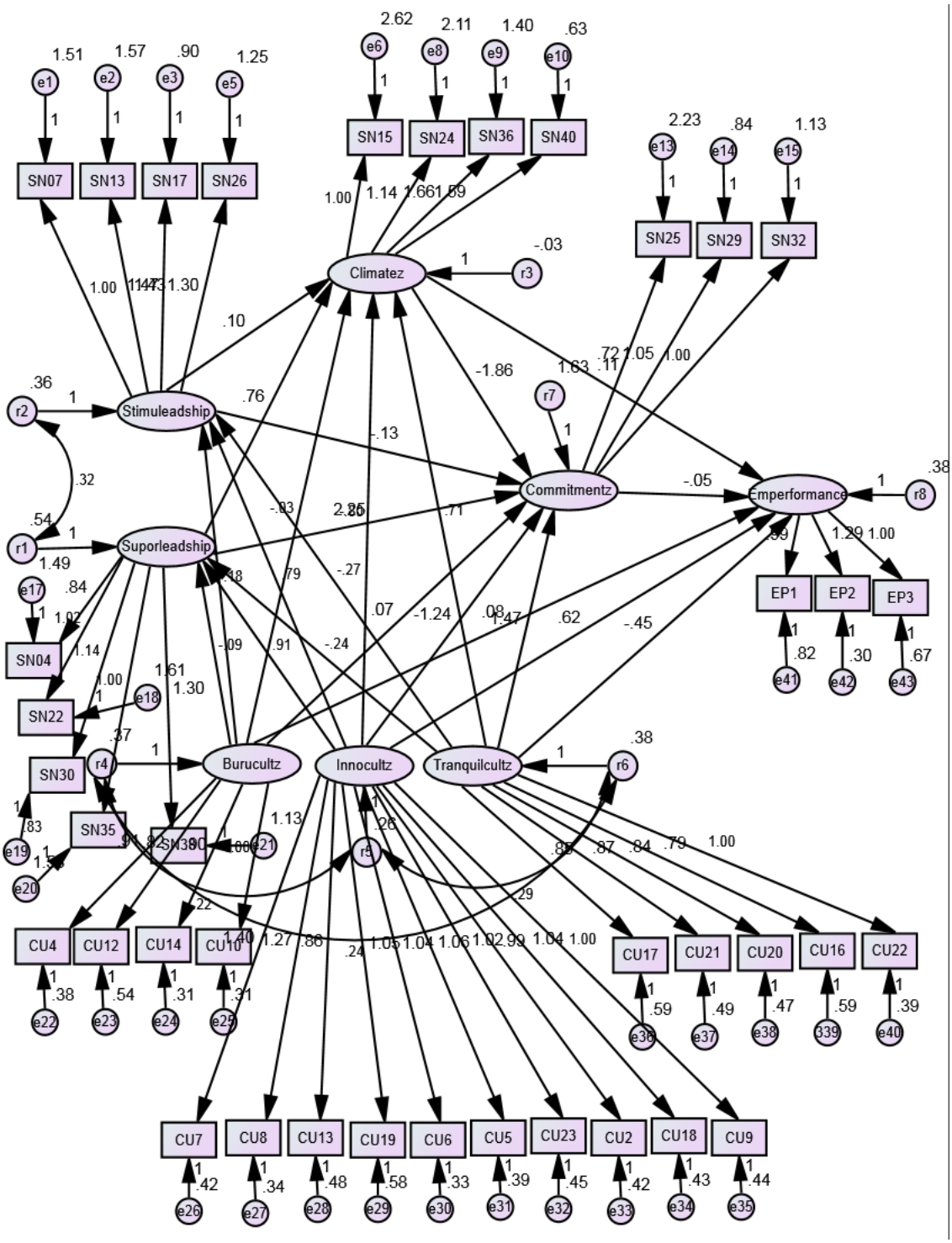


State and Multinational organisations (Leadership exogenous)

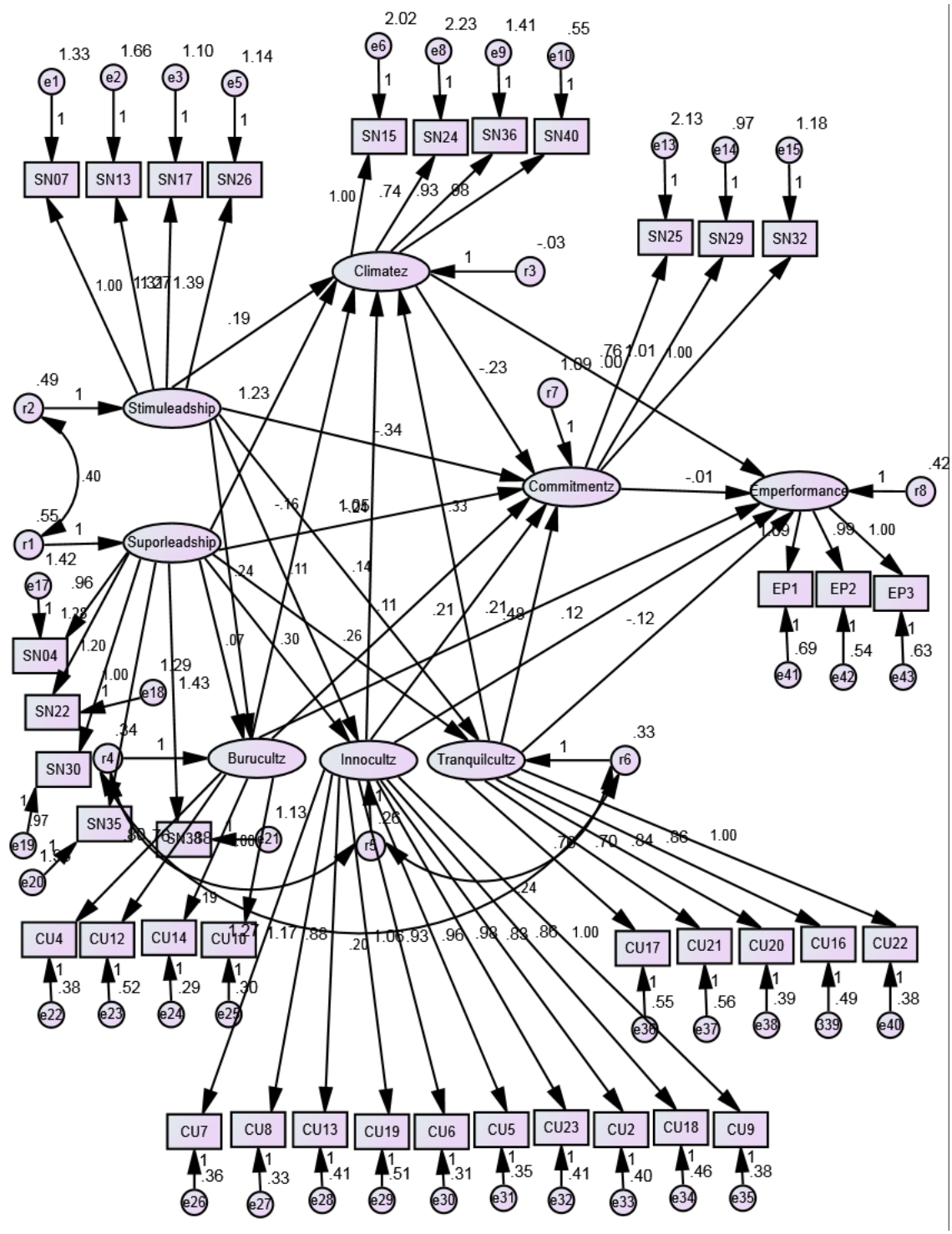


Appendix 2

State and Multinational organisations (Culture exogenous)

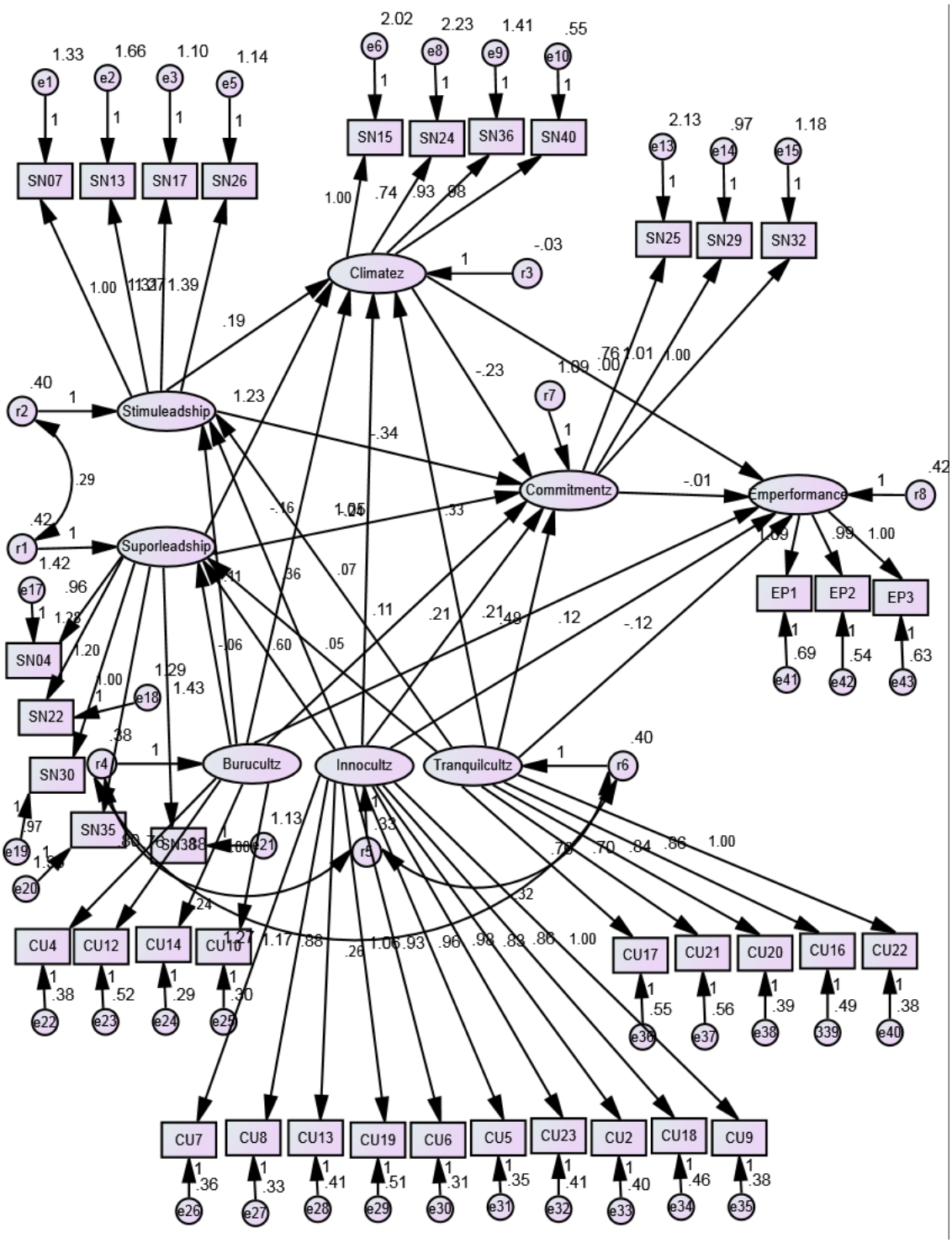


Private, Public and State (Leadership exogenous)

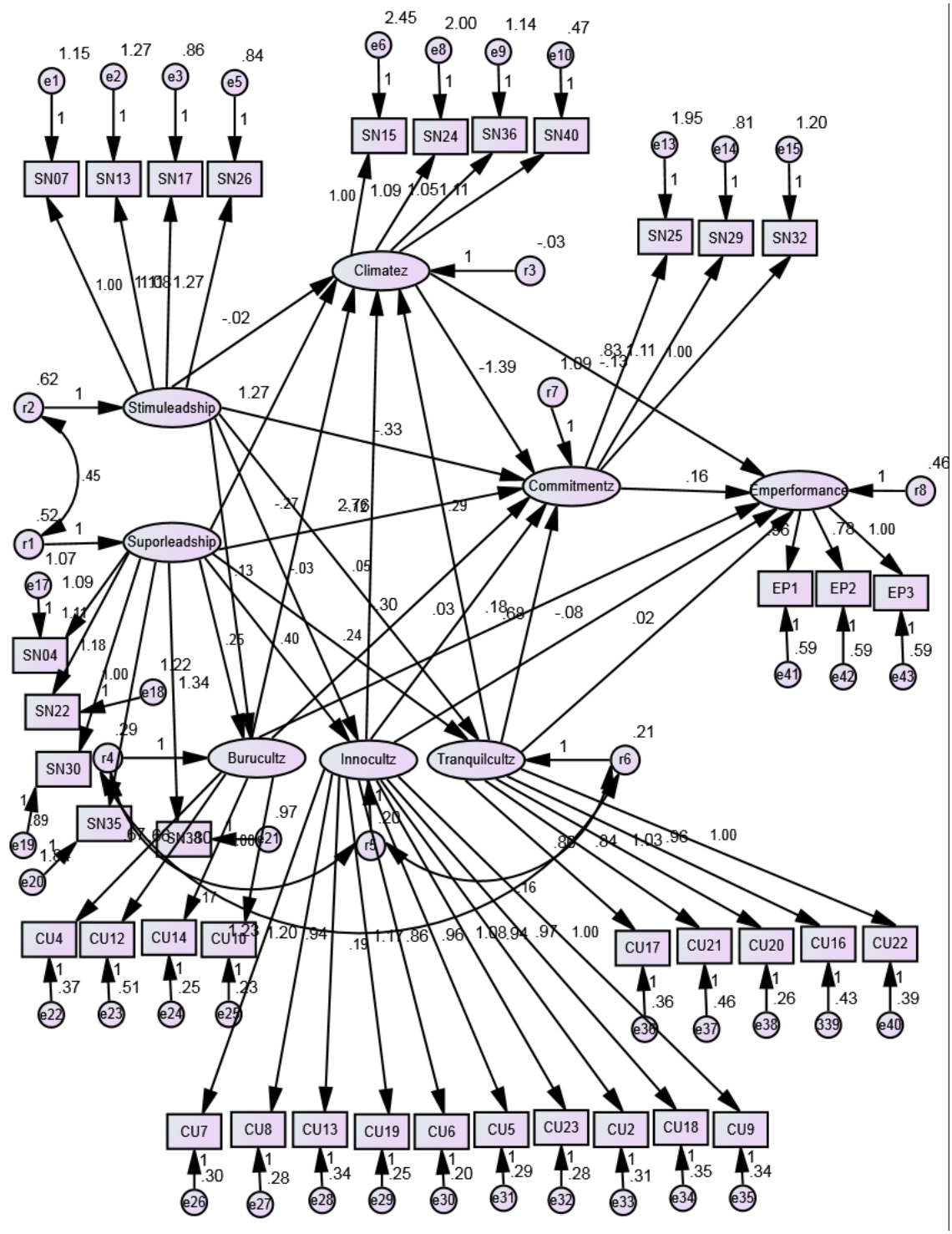


Appendix 2

Private, Public and State organisations (Culture exogenous)

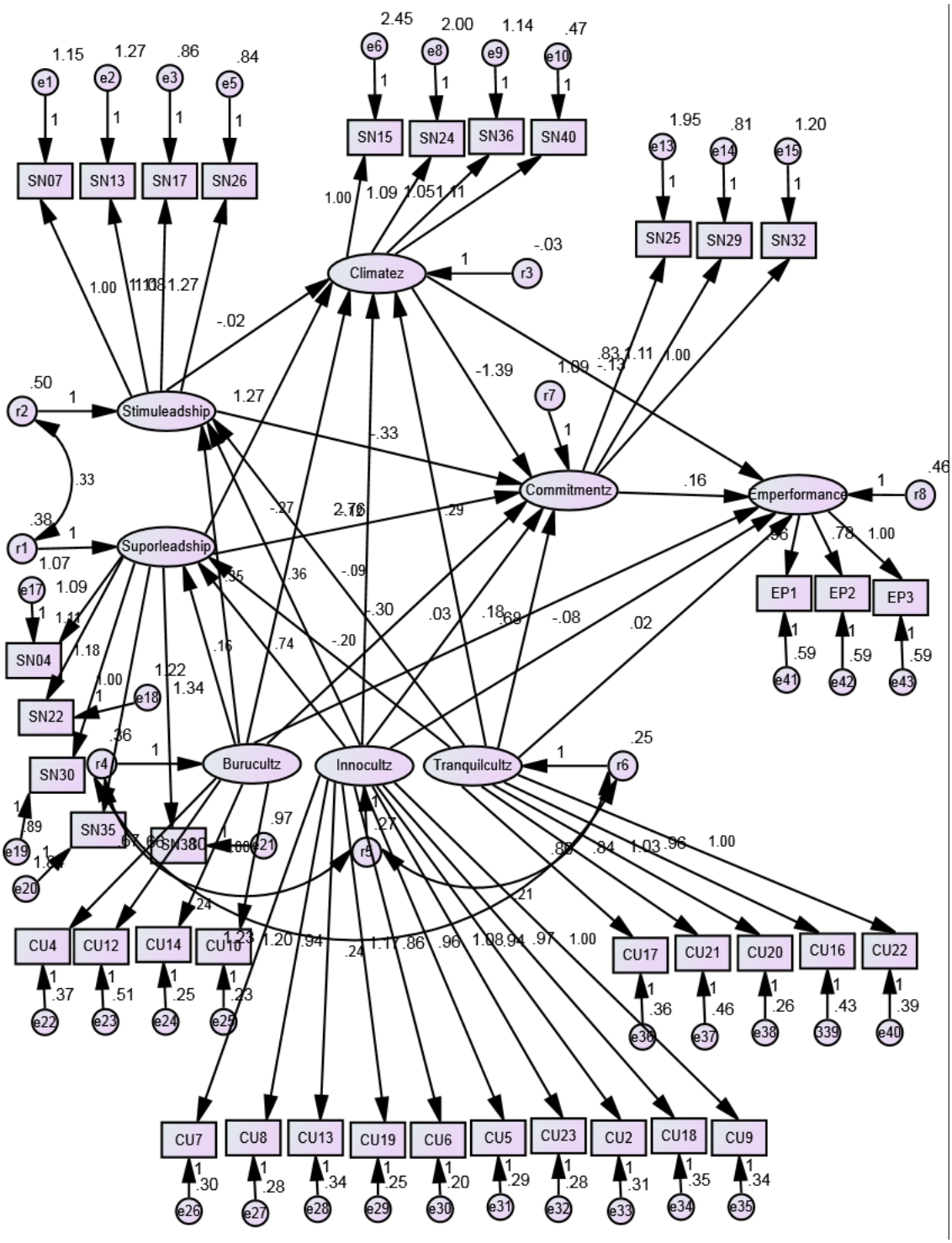


Public, Private, and Multinational (enterprising) organisations (Leadership exogenous)

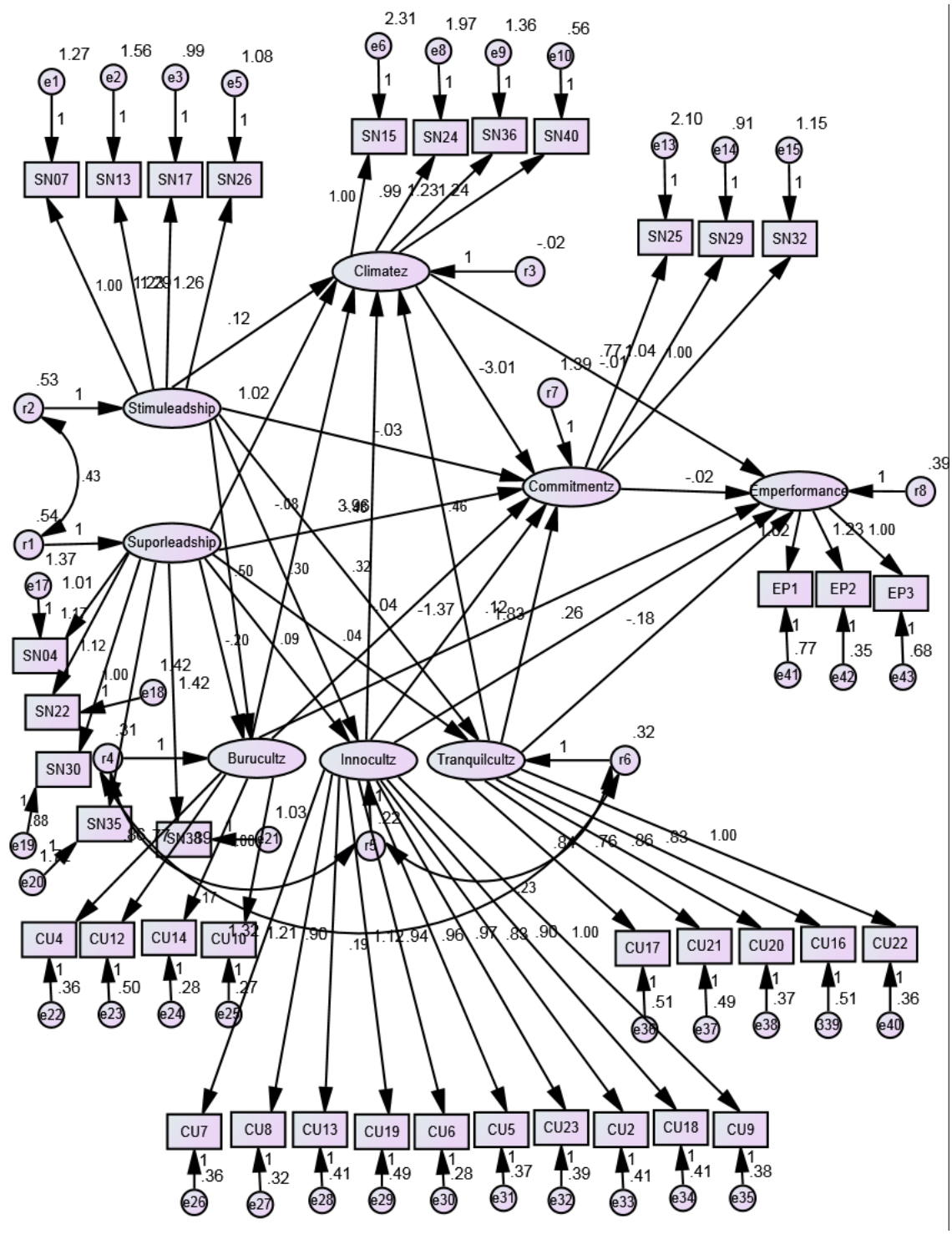


Appendix 2

Public, Private, and Multinational (enterprising) organisations: Culture exogenous

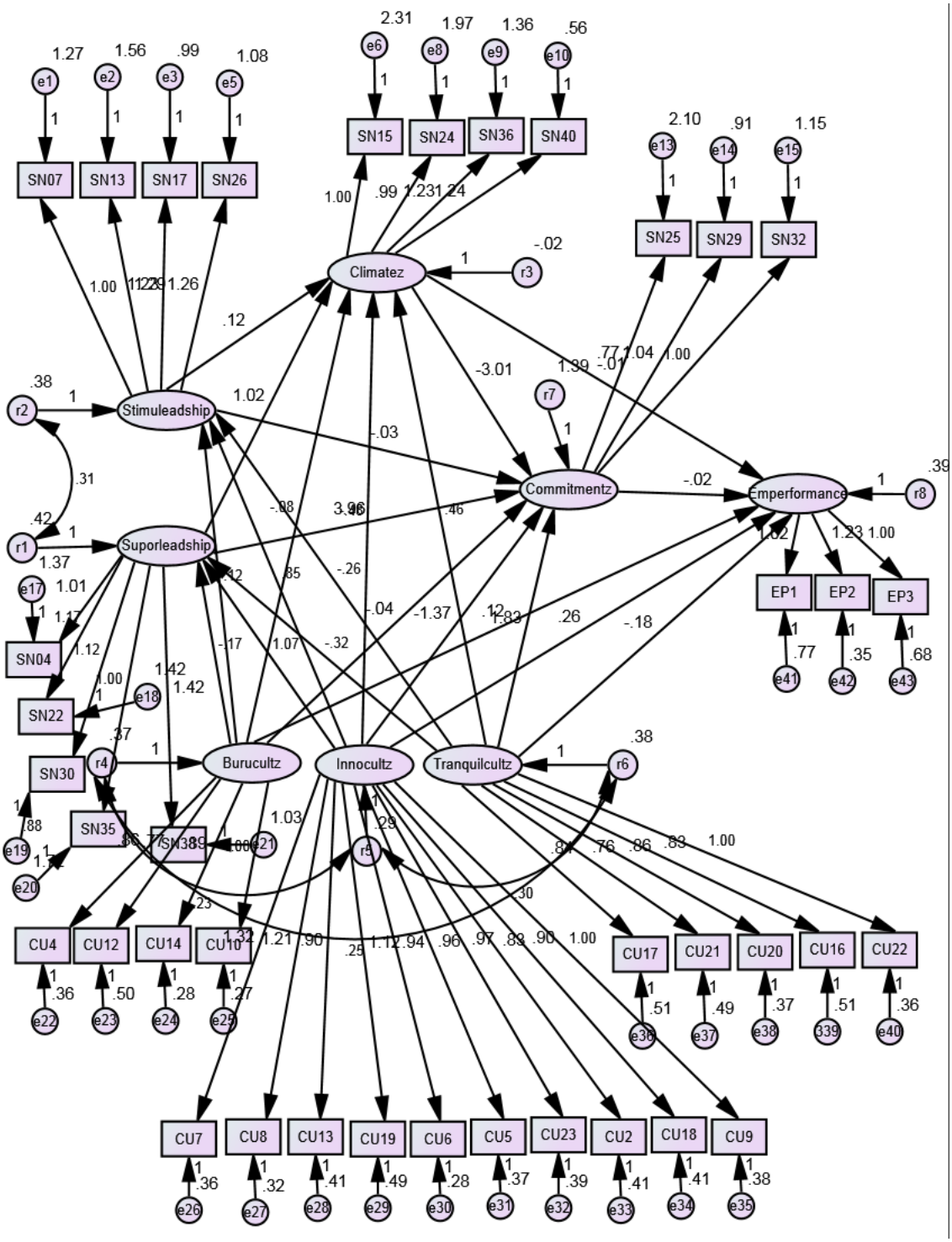


Private, State and Multinational organisations: Leadership exogenous

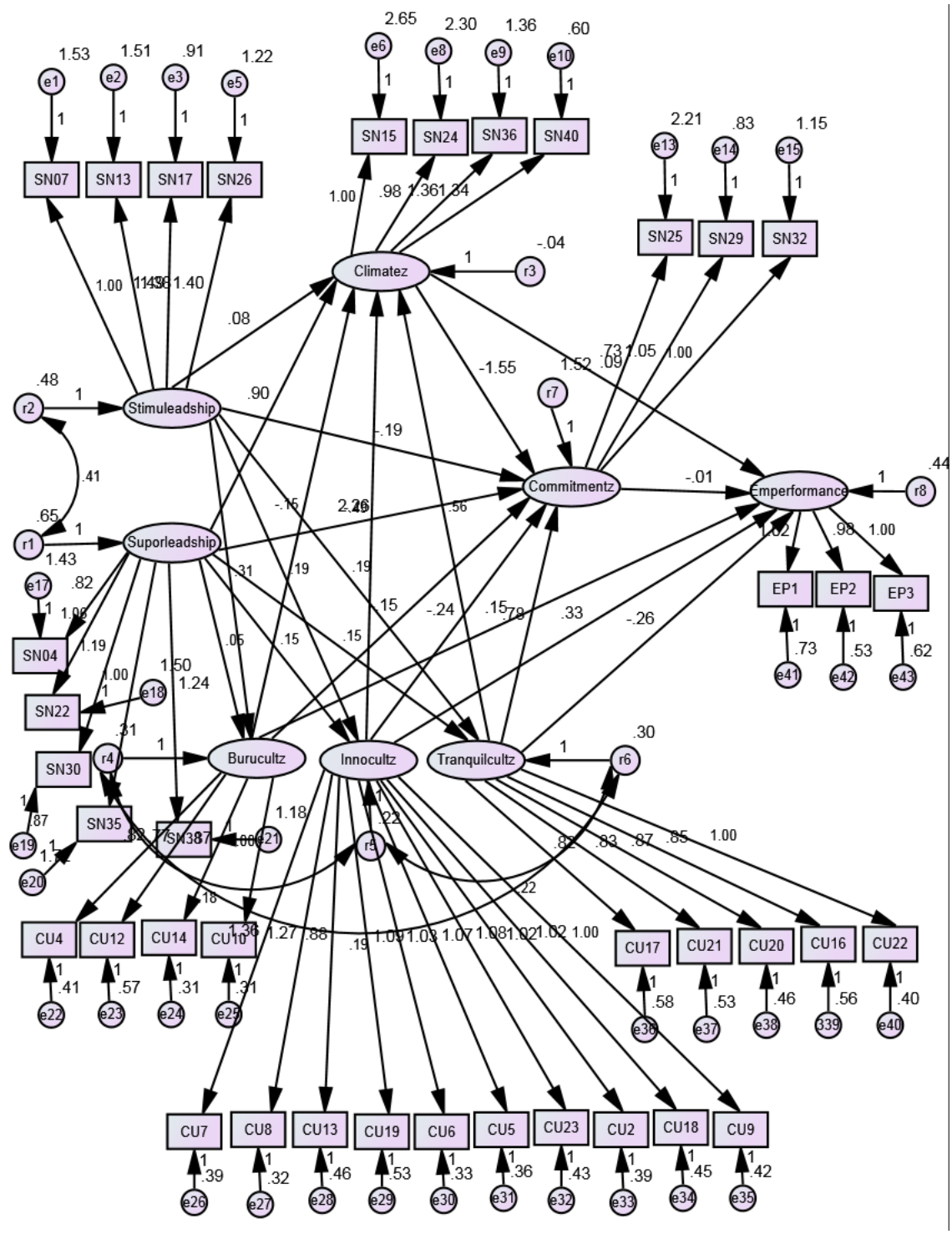


Appendix 2

Private, State and Multinational organisations: Culture exogenous



Public, State and Multinational (large) organisations: Leadership exogenous



Appendix 2

Public, State and Multinational (large) organisations: Culture exogenous