

Frustration at Work, Developmental Experience, Perceived Team Support and Employee Performance: Evidence from Emerging Economies

Alex Ntsiful

**Ghana Christian University College-Ghana
alex.ntsiful@yahoo.com**

**Laurenda Ahiafor and John Ofori Damoah
Central University-Ghana**

**George Sundagar Moses Wee
Perez University College-Ghana**

Abstract: *The study seeks to examine the effect of workplace frustrations on employee performance. It assesses the moderating effects of developmental experience and team support on the workplace frustrations and employee performance relationship. The study sampled 232 employees in various companies in Ghana. Moderated hierarchical regression analysis was utilized as the main statistical procedure. The results show that workplace frustrations negatively relate to employee performance. Developmental experience moderates the negative relationship between workplace frustrations and employee performance such that employee performance increases with developmental experience. Similarly, team support moderates the negative relationship between workplace frustrations and employee performance such that employee's performance increases with team support. Future studies should explore how an organization could minimize workplace frustrations by examining the influence of job design and workplace planning. The study suggests that managers should develop teamwork among employees and also place emphasis on proper job designs that will expose employees to multiple knowledge, skills, and abilities over the course of their work life which will aid them to acquire developmental experience. To the best of the authors' knowledge, this study provides new evidence from Sub-Saharan Africa to support the workplace frustrations and employee performance relationship with developmental experience and team support as moderators.*

Keywords: Employee performance, workplace frustration, team support, developmental experience

Introduction

As a highly relevant outcome variable, frustration at work is a very important issue in an organization. Weiss et al. (1999) define workplace frustration as a generalized negative emotion that results from undesired outcomes such as perceived maltreatment and interference from goal achievement. Expanding this definition, Clore and Centerbar (2004)

add that these generalized negative emotions may or may not be directed toward any particular object or person. Similarly, Lazar et al. (2005) note that frustration can occur when one is inhibited from realizing a goal. Because individuals have goals for their actions, frustration sets in when these goals are impeded by some events, which individuals may or may not have control over. Ideally, employees desire to have their goals attained without any interference, however, that seems a mirage in contemporary organizations. Today, organizations operate in a more volatile and aggressive business environment leading to variations or situations that may interfere with employees' work. For instance, a supervisor sets targets for a subordinate today, but tomorrow, the supervisor asks that the targets be reviewed or be abandoned because of a business exigency. This situation often results in irritation and frustration in individual employees. This problem, therefore, calls for in-depth studies on frustration at work and its effects on employee work outcome. However, there are few studies on workplace frustration (Spector, 1997) and even these few ones have used the concept differently (Penney and Spector, 2005). Secondly, to the best of our knowledge, these few studies also have failed to examine the relationship between workplace frustration and its effect on employee's work outcomes. Therefore, the current study seeks to specifically (a) test the relationship between workplace frustration and employee performance (b) assess the moderating influence of developmental experience and team support in the workplace frustration and employee performance relationship. By meeting these objectives, the study adds to existing body of knowledge in the following ways (a) to the best of the knowledge of the authors, this study is the first of its kind to examine the workplace frustration and employee performance relationship from a sub-Saharan African context (b) the study further tests the moderating effects of developmental experience and team support in the relationship between workplace frustration and employee performance (c) theoretically, the study also strengthens the reliability of the JD-R model by testing its relevance given the unique characteristics of Sub-saharan Africa context. The study contends that in a situation where an employee has gained considerable developmental experience on the job, the employee is able to overcome the consequence of frustration such that the employee can achieve work objectives. The study also argues that an employee who finds himself/herself in a supporting team can overcome the effects of workplace frustration because of the synergy that the team provides to its members. The study further believes that because job resources such as performance feedback, supervisor support, task identity, as offered by the JD-R model, have not been institutionalized in Sub-Saharan Africa, specifically Ghana, proper functioning of the model may be limited. The rest of the study has been organized as follows: First, it presents the theoretical background and hypotheses. Second, a relevant literature of the study is discussed. Third, research methods are presented. Four, the results of the study are presented whereas the next session is on discussion and conclusions. Lastly, the study highlights the limitations and direction for future research.

Theory and Hypotheses

This study uses the job demands-resources model (JD-R model) as a theoretical construct to examine the relationship between frustration at work and employee performance as moderated by developmental experience and team support. The JD-R model assumes that work characteristics are divided into job demands and job resources (Bakker and Demerouti, 2014; Bakker and Demerouti, 2011; Demerouti et al., 2003; Demerouti et al., 2000, 2001, Prieto et al., 2008; Maunoet al., 2006). Job demands refer to the physical, psychological, social or organizational dimensions of a job that involves sustained physical and/or

psychological effort and therefore bring about physiological and/or psychological strain (Damoah and Ntsiful, 2016; Bakker et al., 2004). Examples of these job demands include emotional demands, role overload, role ambiguity, time constraints, excessive work pressure (Bakker and Demerouti, 2014; Bakker and Demerouti, 2011; Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Job resources are the social, psychological, physical and organizational dimension of work which minimizes the negative impacts of job demands and facilitate the achievement of work goals and promote personal growth and development (Bakker and Demerouti, 2007). Bakker et al. (2004) classify these resources into (a) organizational level (e.g career opportunities, salary, job security), (b) interpersonal and social relations level (e.g team support, supervisor support), (c) task level (e.g. skill variety, task significance, task identity, autonomy, performance feedback) and organization of work (role clarity, participation in decision making). We contend that the JD-R model fits the current study because several related studies have used this model to examine similar relationships (Bakker,2015; Demerouti et al., 2001; Bakker et al., 2004). For instance, Baker et al. (2004) used this model to examine the effect of burnout on performance. In their study, Bakker et al. (2004) conceptualized emotional demands (frustration) and exhaustion as job demands. Further, they also conceptualized possibilities development (developmental experience) and social support (team support) as job resources.

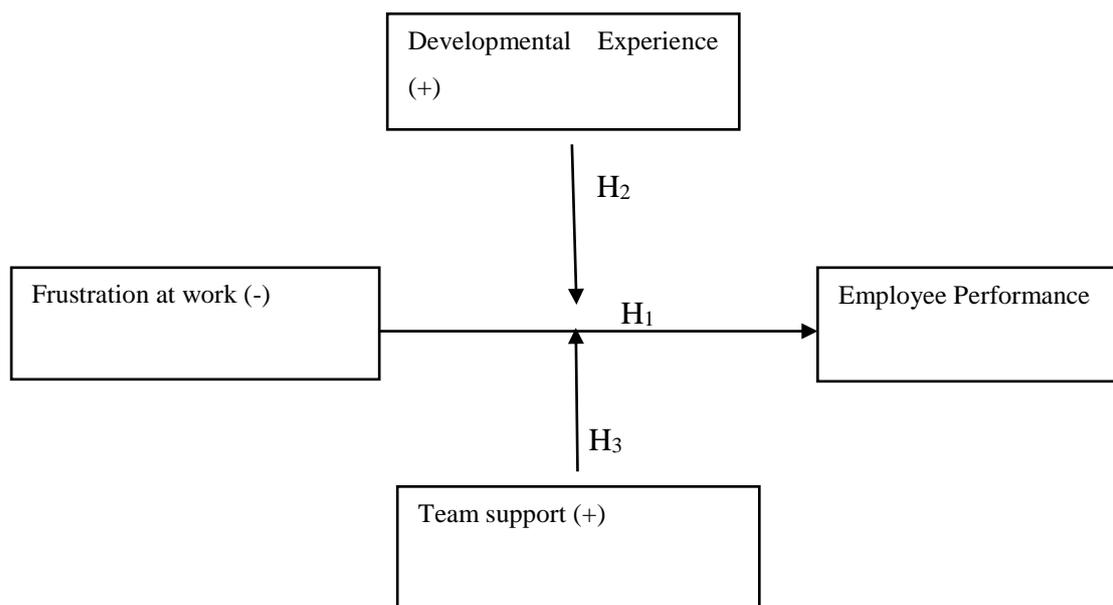


Fig.1. Conceptual model

The present study, therefore, argues that when employees experience workplace frustration which is job demand, it will impact on their performance negatively. However, when these employees have considerable developmental experience and they find themselves in a supporting team which is job resources, they will overcome the negative effects of the frustration on their performance.

Employees' Frustration at Work and Employee Performance

Employee frustration has been defined in different ways. Spector (1997) says it is the interference with the attainment or maintenance of a goal that results from organizational factors. Similarly, Weiss et al. (1999) also define workplace frustration as a generalized negative emotion that results from undesired outcomes such as perceived maltreatment and interference from goal achievement. Similarly, Akuffo (2015) define frustration as an

abstraction or stoppage of a goal which causes a person to react negatively which may cause harm. Further, frustration simply occurs when one is inhibited from realizing a goal (Lazar et al., 2005). Because every individual has a goal for his or her action, frustration sets in when these goals are impeded by some events, which the individual may or may not have control over. This study defines workplace frustration as the feeling of negative emotions resulting from the blockage of goal attainments due to organizational and personal factors. The organizational factors may include the rules, procedures, structure, climate, employees, and clients of the organization (Lazar et al., 2005), whereas personal factors, include years of experience, gender, race, and educational attainment (Ducharme et al., 2008; McNulty et al., 2007). It is also worth noting that once there is frustration, there is a reaction. In support of this notion, Spector (1997) suggests four reactions to employee frustration which include (a) an emotional response of anger and increased physiological arousal, (b) aggression, (c) withdrawal and (d) trying alternative courses of action. Lazar et al (2005) explain that the first three are maladaptive leading to counterproductive behaviors such as the abandonment of a goal, absenteeism, turnover, sabotage, interpersonal aggression, and withholding of output leading to decrease in job performance of the employee.

Employee performance, according to Damoah and Ntsiful (2016), is defined as work-related activities that an employee carries out and measured against some defined standards. A number of studies have examined the relationship between workplace frustration and performance with mixed findings (Lazar et al., 2005). For instance, it has been found that job frustration results in reduced job performance, and lowers productivity (Akuffo, 2015; Baillien et al, 2014; Cropanzano et al., 2003; Mor-Barak et al., 2001; Smith, 2005; Taris, 2006) as well as high absenteeism and turnover (Gallon et al, 2003; McLellan, et al., 2003).

Therefore, this study contends that because frustration is a negative emotional response that leads to counterproductive behavior, employees who experience frustrations at work will have reduced performance. Hence hypothesis 1:

H₁: Employees' frustration at work will be negatively related to their performance

The moderating influence of employees' developmental experience

In this study, the developmental experience is defined as the aggregate of knowledge, skills, and abilities that an employee acquires over a period as a result of the opportunities to have multiple job exposures in which new responsibilities, unfamiliar tasks, pressures, and obstacles are handled. In an organization, these experiences are acquired from different sources such as formal and informal duties from supervisors, advice from peers and technical experts, challenging duties, coaching, promotions, and opportunity to work on assignment independently (Ibrahim et al, 2016; Chow et al., 2006; McCall et al., 1988). Developmental experience has been found to be positively related to employee's performance (Roberts et al., 2008; Donnellan, 1996; Harris and Bonn, 2000, Chow et al., 2006). Bakker et al. (2004) in using the job demands-resources model to predict burnout and performance, conceptualized developmental experience as a job resource. By terming it as possibilities development, Bakker et al. (2004) argue that developmental experience is a job resource located at the organizational level that decreases job demands (e.g. frustration at work) and its related physiological and psychological costs. Accordingly, it can be argued and asserted that developmental experience can improve employees' performance even when they are frustrated at work in a sense that a frustrated employee who has considerable developmental

experience will look for an alternative course of action as found by Spector to overcome an impediment towards an achievement (Zaccaro et al, 2015; Spector, 1997). Other studies also have supported that employees with more developmental experience suffer less from frustration at work (Farber, 2000; Farmer et al., 2002; Garland, 2004). In view of the above, the study contends that developmental experience will have a positive effect on the frustration-performance relationship. Hence hypothesis 2:

H₂: The level of employees' developmental experience will moderate the relationship between frustration at work and employee performance. Employee performance will increase with developmental experience but at a faster rate for those with higher developmental experience.

The moderating influence of perceived team support

Team support has been defined as the mutually dependent performance components needed to execute a task effectively in a group of individuals (Salas et al., 2008). Similarly, Damoah and Ntsiful (2016) see it as performance-related support an individual gets from a group of individuals who are interdependent with each other in carrying out a task. When employees are in a team, they rely on each other's strength such as knowledge, skills, and experience in executing a task to the extent that weaknesses and challenges such as frustrations in a team member's work may be overshadowed. The influence of team support in overcoming these work-related challenges have received theoretical and empirical support. For instance, Bakker et al. (2004) in their study of "Using the job demands-resources model to predict burnout and performance," they conceptualized social support (e.g. team support) as job resource and work frustration as job demands and found that job demands and resources have inverse relationship, meaning that when an employee is frustrated at work but in a supportive team, the employee will leverage on the support of this team and will overcome this work frustration and meet performance standard. Other studies have supported the moderating influence of team support in this regard (Demerouti et al., 2000, 2001; Bakker et al., 2003; Froebel and Marchington, 2005). In view of the above, the study contends that team support will have a positive effect on the frustration and employee performance relationship. Hence hypothesis 3:

H₃: Employees' perception of team support will moderate the relationship between frustration at work and employee performance. Employee performance will increase with perceived team support but at a faster rate for those with a higher perception of team support.

Method

Sample and Data

Data for this study was obtained from 232 employees working in 30 companies in Ghana, West Africa. These companies were randomly selected from a pool of listed and non-listed companies, comprising large, small and medium enterprises. A total of 13 listed and 17 non-listed companies willingly participated in the study. Having received approvals from the companies, only employees who volunteered from these companies were allowed to answer the questionnaires. Some of the respondents completed the questionnaires momentarily and they gave them over to the researchers whereas others completed and left them at their front

desks, which were picked three days later by the researchers. In all, the study administered 250 questionnaires to the employees from the 30 companies, out of which 232 were received and used for the analysis, indicating a response rate of 93 percent. The data collection lasted for 3 months (February -April 2017).

Measure of Constructs

The current study relied on previous studies for items to measure key constructs examined. The internal reliability values for all scales are above 0.70 thresholds recommended by Nunnally and Bernstein (1994).

Frustration at work: A three-item scale developed and used by Peters et al. (1980) was used to assess the extent to which employees found their work frustrating. Measured on a five-point Likert scale, where 1= Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral (uncertain), 4=Agree and 5=Strongly agree, the respondents were asked questions such as “Trying to get this job done was a very frustrating experience.” Whereas high mark indicates a higher level of workplace frustration on the employee, low mark shows a lower level of workplace frustration on the employee.

Developmental Experience: By using a four-item scale developed and used by Wayne et al. (1997), the researchers assessed employees developmental experience on a five-point Likert scale, where 1= Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral (uncertain), 4=Agree and 5=Strongly agree. An example of the items is “In the positions that I have held at my company, I have often been given additional challenging assignments” A high score shows a higher level of employee developmental experience whereas a low score indicates a lower level of employee developmental experience.

Team Support. A 7-item scale developed and used by Rodwell et al. (1998) was used to measure team support. For example, the respondents were asked to describe their view about the support they had received from their team members at the workplace using a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree.

Employee Performance. Employee performance was measured using 8 items. The items were taken from Rodwell et al., (1998). Responses were obtained using a 5-point Likert-type scale anchored at the extremes by 1=strongly disagree 5 = strongly agree with a higher score indicating good performance and low score depicting poor performance.

Control Variables

We included seven control variables because previous studies indicated that these variables had the potential to influence employee performance (e.g., Rodwell et al., 1998). The controlled variables were adopted to account for factors other than the theoretical constructs of interest that could explain variance in the dependent variable (Krishnan and Teo, 2012). The control variables adopted in this study include firm size, sex, employees’ level of education, marital status, employees’ tenure, gender and employees’ age. Firm size was measured by using the log-transformed of a number of employees. Employees' tenure was measured by using the number of years the employee had been with the present organization.

Table 1. Summary of Predictor Measures

Domain and Predictor	Number of Items	Scale format	Cronbach's Alpha	AVE	CR
Developmental experience	4	1 to 5 Likert-scale	.97	.82	.86
Frustration at work	3	1 to 5 Likert-scale	.94	.79	.93
Team support	7	1 to 5 Likert-scale	.89	.78	.92
Employee performance	8	1 to 5 Likert-scale	.92	.79	.91

Note: Composite reliability (CR) is calculated as the sum of the square roots of the item-squared multiple correlations squared and divided by the same quantity plus the sum of the error variance (Werts, Lim and Joreskog, 1974). Average Variance Extracted (AVE) = $\frac{\sum[\lambda_i^2]\text{Var}(X)}{\sum[\lambda_i^2]\text{Var}(X) + \sum[\text{Var}(\epsilon_i)]}$ where λ_i is the loading of x_i on X, Var denotes variance, ϵ_i is the measurement error of x_i , and Σ denotes a sum (Fornell and Larcker, 1981).

Validity and Reliability Assessment

Following Podsakoff and Organ (1986), we conducted Harman's one-factor test to check the existence of common method variance by subjecting all the key construct of interest into a factor analysis. We then determined the number of factors that accounted for the variance in the various measures. We observed that none of the factors accounted for a majority of the variance. Also, a test of response bias was performed to see whether non-response could be a major issue in interpreting the regression results. On the basis that late respondents are similar to non-respondents (Oppenheim, 1966), we compared the responses from the early respondents to the late respondents on a number of key variables by using Wilcoxon-Mann-Whitney test to see if any significant difference exists between these (two groups) of respondents. The test revealed no significant difference between the responses from early and late respondents. Thus, in interpreting the outcome of this survey, non-response was not a major concern. We analyzed the internal consistency reliability of our main constructs using Cronbach's alpha, which ranged from .89 to .99. The composite reliability (CR) of our main constructs ranged from .86 to .93, and the average variance extracted (AVE) ranged from .78 to .82. A full list of all constructs and corresponding Cronbach's alpha, CR and AVE are provided in Table 1. Using LISREL 8.5 and the maximum likelihood estimation procedure, we examined all scales in confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). Each item was allowed to only load on one construct for which it was an indicator. Item loadings were as hypothesized and were significant at $p < 0.001$. The results indicated that a four-factor model fitted the data moderately well ($\chi^2 = 311.59$, $df = 186$, $p < 0.001$, $GFI = .96$, $CFI = .97$, $NNFI = .95$, $SRMSR = .05$, $RMSEA = .04$). Thus, we obtained fit indices that ranged from very good to excellent.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics and correlations

	Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1.	Firm size	31.80	11.13									
2.	Sex	0.19	.40	.17**								
3.	Marital status	.53	.47	.02	-.01							
4.	Education	2.97	1.19	-.14**	-.11*	-.16**						
5.	Employees' tenure	5.32	0.79	.05	.13**	.00	.04					
6.	Employees' age	35.16	1.15	.19**	.36**	.04	.15**	.03				
7.	Developmental experience	3.93	1.09	.14**	.15**	.09*	.17**	.13**	.02			
8.	Team support	4.09	1.03	.16**	.09*	.03	.09*	.02	-.01	.19**		
9.	Frustration at work	4.24	1.14	.09*	.03	.08	.05	.03	-.19**	-.27**	.19**	
10.	Employee performance	4.78	0.74	.08*	.05	-.01	.10*	.12*	.11*	.21**	.16**	-.23**

For gender, male =0; female=1; All variables unstandardized. SD=standard deviation

*p< .05, **p<.01

Results

Table 2 provides means, standard deviations and bivariate correlations for study variables. Moderated hierarchical regression analysis was utilized as the main statistical procedure for examining the relationship between frustration at work and employee performance as well as the proposed moderating effects of developmental experience and team support. To test our hypotheses, a number of multiplicative interactions were created. Due to the inclusion of the interaction term in the regression estimate, multicollinearity becomes obvious. Therefore, all the variables involved in the creation of the interaction terms were residually centered (Little et al., 2006). After the residual centering approach, we calculated the variance inflation factors (VIF) for all regressions in our model to test for multicollinearity. All VIF values were below 3.5. Thus, lower than the threshold of 10, indicating no concerns regarding multicollinearity (Aiken and West, 1991). Four main models were estimated. In Model 1, we estimated the effects of the control variables on firm performance. In Model 2, the control variables and the main effects variables were estimated. In Model 3, all variables (including the interaction variables) were estimated. Following procedures advanced by Cohen et al. (2003), each interaction was graphed.

Table 3. Results of Hierarchical Regression Models

Variables	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4
<i>Control variables</i>				
Firm size	.12**	.13**	.24***	.22***
Gender	.08	.03	.03	.05
Marital status	-.01	-.10*	-.09*	-.11*
Education	.11**	.36***	.33***	.23***
Employees' tenure	.09*	.22***	.20***	.22***
Employees' age	.11**	.01	.03	.15***
<i>Main effects</i>				
Developmental experience (DE)		.22***	.23***	.27***
Team support (TS)		.20***	.21***	.22***
H ₁ : Frustration at work (FW)		-.19***	-.25***	-.28***
<i>Interaction effects</i>				
H ₂ : FW x DE			.29***	.32***
H ₃ : FW x TS			.33***	.35***

Three-way interaction				
FW x DE x TS				.54***
Model fit				
F	1.59	3.19***	3.90***	5.78***
R ²	.70	.81	.84	.94
Adj. R ²	.04	.07	.16	.17
Mean VIF	1.3	1.77	2.01	1.73

Standardised coefficients are reported *** $p < 0.01$, ** $p < 0.05$, * $p < 0.10$.

Table 3 presents the results of the hierarchical regression models. The interactions are graphed in figures 1 to 3. We describe results in relation to the individual hypotheses. Hypothesis 1 proposed employees' frustration at work propensity is negatively related to employee performance. As shown in Model 2 of Table 3, the relationship between frustration at work and employee performance ($\beta = -.19$, $p < .01$) is significant and negative. Therefore, the findings offer support for hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 2 suggested that developmental experience moderates the relationship between the level of employees' frustration at work and employee performance, such that the relationship will be positive for those with high as opposed to low, developmental experience. As shown in Model 3 of Table 3, the interaction of employees' developmental experience with frustration at work is significant and positive ($\beta = .29$, $p < .01$). The graph of this interaction (Figure 2) indicates that the relationship between frustration at work and employee performance is positive for those with high, as opposed to low, developmental experience. Therefore, the results support hypothesis 2.

Hypothesis 3 stated that team support moderates the relationship between the level of employees' frustration at work and employee performance, with the relationship being positive for those with high as opposed to low, team support. As shown in model 3 of Table 3, the interaction of team support with frustration at work is significant and positive ($\beta = .33$, $p < .01$). The graph of this interaction (Figure 3) indicates that the relationship between employees' frustration at work and employee performance is positive for those with high, as opposed to low, team support. Therefore, the results support hypothesis 3.

Finally, we tested a three-way interaction of our study. Model 4 enters the three-way interaction variable of frustration at work, team support and developmental experience into the research model. The three-way interaction coefficient is significant ($\beta = .54$, $p < .01$), and the change in R² indicates a significant improvement in model fit between Model 3 and Model 4. Because of the difficulty in interpreting a three-way interaction solely from the coefficient value, Figure 4 plots the three-way interaction, again following the procedure outlined by Cohen et al. (2003).

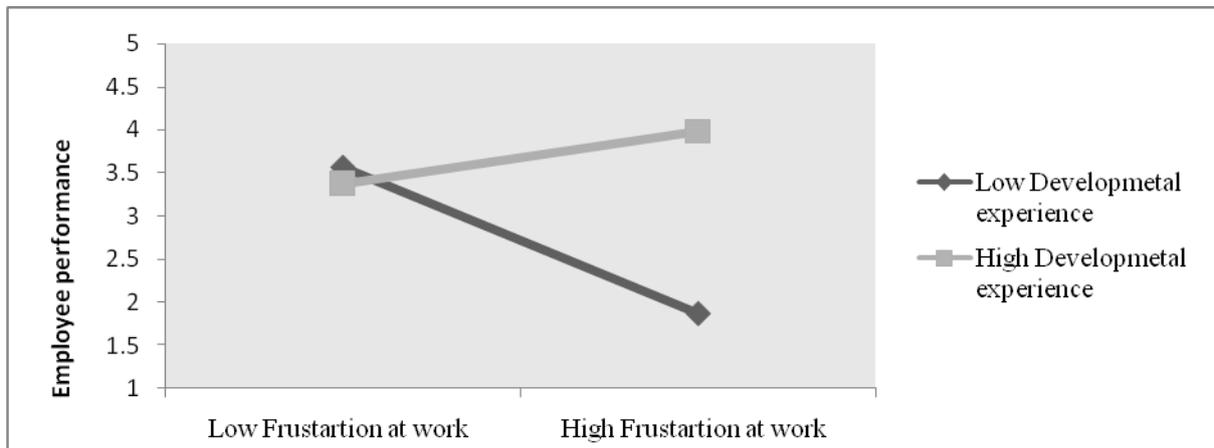


Figure 2: Interaction effect of Frustration at work with developmental experience on employee performance

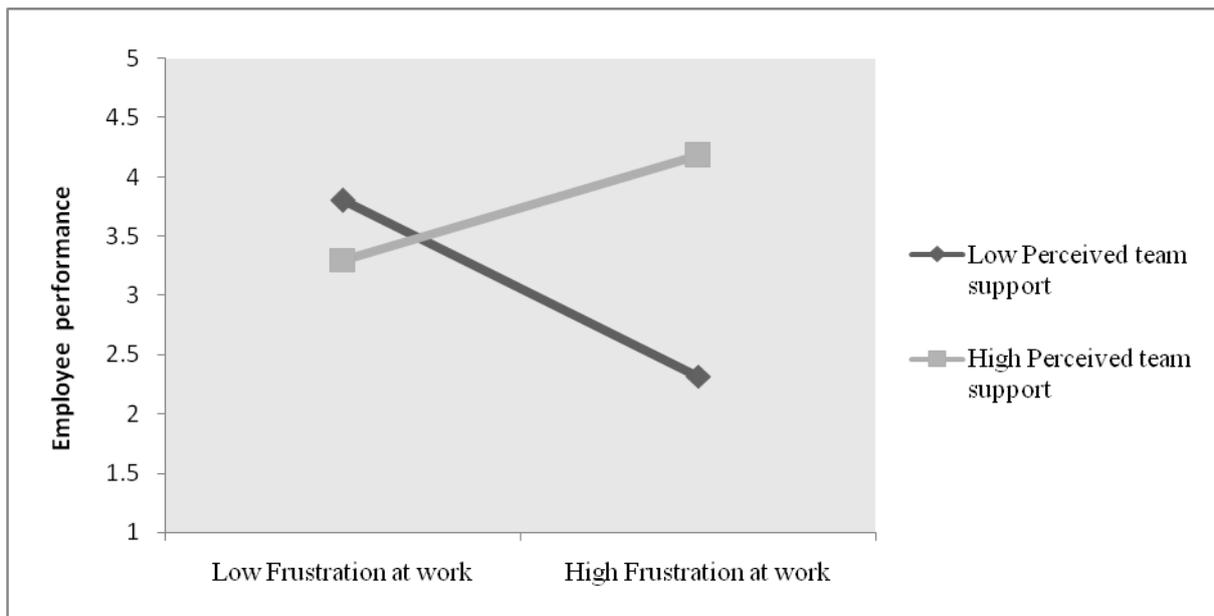


Figure 3: Interaction effect of Frustration at work with the perceived team on employee performance

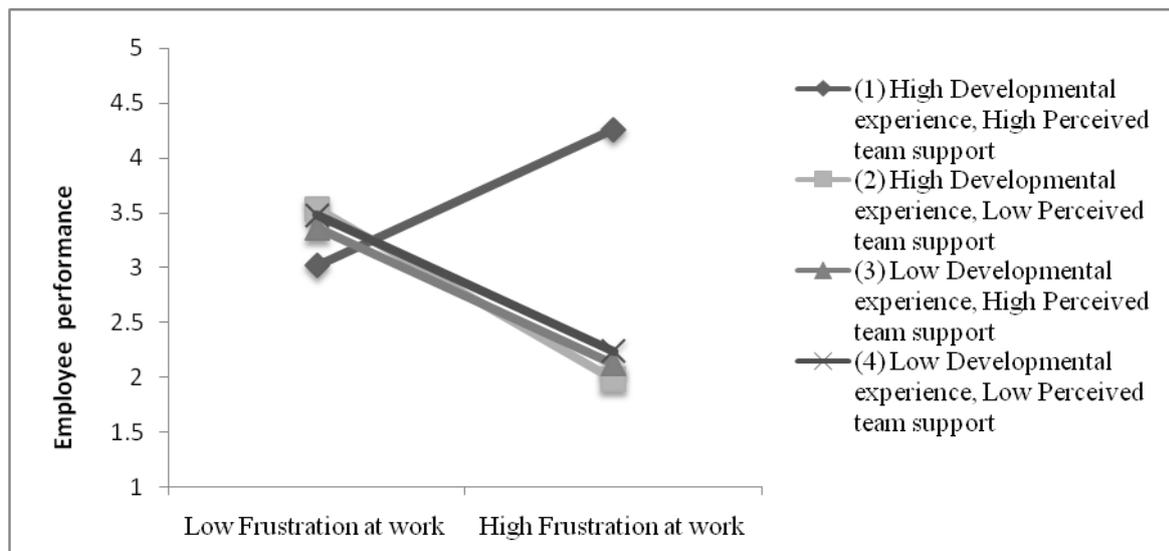


Figure 4: Interaction effect of frustration at work with developmental experience and perceived team support on employee performance

Discussion and Implications

The research examined frustration at work and employee performance as moderated by the developmental experience of employees and team support. The findings were that frustration at work negatively affected the performance of employees, however developmental experience of employees positively moderated the negative relationship between workplace frustration and employee performance. Similarly, the negative relationship between workplace frustration and employee performance was also moderated by team support such that the relationship was positive. The results on the workplace frustration and employee performance relationship indicated that high levels of frustrations at the workplace would result in a lower performance of employees. This finding supports prior studies that workplace frustration results in reduced job performance, and lower productivity (Mor-Barak et al., 2001; Cropanzano et al., 2003; Smith, 2005; Taris, 2006). This means in trying to accomplish a task in an organization, employees may encounter frustrations when their efforts are impeded by certain events which they may or may not have control over. The frustration encountered will cause the employee to react or engage in counterproductive behavior such as desertion of the task, sabotage, interpersonal aggression, and withholding of output leading to the decreased job performance of the employee. The finding on the moderating role of developmental experience of employees in the workplace frustration and performance relationship also suggests that employee performance will increase with developmental experience but at a faster rate for those with higher developmental experience. This result is in tandem with prior studies (Donnellan, 1996; Harris and Bonn, 2000, Bakker et al., 2004; Chow et al., 2006). Developmental experience as defined by this study as the aggregate of knowledge, skills and abilities that an employee acquires over a period as a result of the opportunities to have multiple job exposures, in which new responsibilities, unfamiliar tasks, pressures, and obstacles are handled, will aid frustrated employees to look for an alternative course of action to achieve the goal rather than engaging in

counterproductive behavior, which ordinarily will have affected their performance negatively.

Further, it was found that team support also moderated the negative relationship between workplace frustration and work performance in such a way that the relationship was positive. This finding lends credence to extant literature (Bakker et al., 2003; Demerouti et al., 2000, 2001, Froebel and Marchington, 2005). This finding suggests that although the frustrated employees may have a problem completing a task, where there is a high level of team support, the performance of the frustrated employees will not be affected negatively because when these employees are in a team, they rely on each other's strength such as knowledge, skills, and experience in executing a task to the extent that weaknesses and challenges such as frustrations in a team member's work may be overshadowed.

The study has contributed to the JD-R model in its application to the organizational behavior studies in that the study has offered empirical evidence from a sub-Saharan African perspective to support the model's reliability. The study has offered that in view of the fact that workplace frustrations are inevitable, there is a need to use organizational resources such as employee developmental experience and team support when frustrations set in. The study has provided several implications for managers for practice. One, organizations should know and should accept the fact that workplace frustrations are inevitable and that these frustrations affect employee performance. Two, in an organizational setting, managers should place more emphasis on proper job designs that will expose employees to multiple knowledge, skills, and abilities over the course of their work-life which will aid them to acquire developmental experience. Three, the findings also imply that to ensure effective performance of employees, managers should first recruit and select employees who have good team spirit into the organization and also ensure that employees that are assembled for team assignment are cohesive, that is, they should be employees who share similar values and characteristics as supported by prior studies (Beal *et al.*, 2003; Rosh *et al.*, 2012; Damoah and Ntsiful, 2016)

In conclusion, the present study examined the moderating effect of developmental experience and team support in the workplace frustration and employee performance relationship. The results of the study confirm the assumption that workplace frustrations negatively affect employee performance. The main finding of the study is that the developmental experience of employee and team support moderate the negative effect of workplace frustrations on employee performance. The study has added Sub-saharan African evidence to the JD-R Model, thereby strengthening its reliability. By the study's findings, managers can turn the negative effect of workplace frustrations on employee performance by enhancing the developmental experience of employees and encouraging teamwork in an organization.

Limitations and Direction for Future Research

The study has offered several contributions. However, there are a few limitations that need to be highlighted. Firstly, because the study was cross-sectional, casual inferences among variables were prevented. Secondly, the study also used self-reported data making feedback from the respondents mirrored their individual perceptions. Thirdly, because the study adopted a survey method, it was also limited with the usual non-response bias. Finally,

further studies should explore how an organization could minimize workplace frustrations by exploring the influence of job design and workplace planning.

References

- Aiken, L., West, S. (1991). *Multiple Regression Testing and Interpreting Interactions*, Newbury Park, CA: Sage
- Akuffo, I. N. (2015). The Influence of Supervisors' Conflict Management Style on Employees Counterproductive Work Behaviours. *European Journal of Business and Management*, 7(9), 28-33.
- Andalib, T. W., Darun, M. R., &Azizan, A. (2013). The frustration of Employees: Reasons, Dimensions and Resolving Techniques. *WCIK E-Journal of Integration Knowledge*, 1-11.
- Baillien, E., Bollen, K., Euwema, M., & De Witte, H. (2014). Conflicts and conflict management styles as precursors of workplace bullying: A two-wave longitudinal study. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 23(4), 511-524.
- Bakker, A. B. (2015). A job demands-resources approach to public service motivation. *Public Administration Review*, 75(5), 723-732.
- Bakker, A. B., &Demerouti, E. (2014). Job demands–resources theory. *Wellbeing: A complete reference guide*, 1-28.
- Bakker, A. B., Demerouti, E., &Verbeke, W. (2004). Using the job demands-resources model to predict burnout and performance. *Human Resource Management*, 43(1), 83-104.
- Chow, I. H. S., Lo, T. W. C., Sha, Z., & Hong, J. (2006). The impact of developmental experience, empowerment, and organizational support on catering service staff performance. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 25(3), 478-495.
- Clore, G.L., Centerbar, D.B.(2004). Analyzing anger: How to make people mad. *Emotion* 4(2), 139–144.
- Cohen, J., Cohen, P., West, S.G. & Aiken, L.S. (2003). *Applied Multiple Regression/Correlation Analysis for the Behavioral Sciences*, (3rd ed), New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Cropanzano, R., Rupp, D., & Byrne, Z. (2003). The relationship of emotional exhaustion to work attitudes, job performance, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88, 160-169.
- Damoah, J. O., &Ntsiful, A. (2016). Childcare demands and employee performance: The moderating influence of team support. *Team Performance Management*, 22(1/2), 36-50.
- Demerouti, E., & Bakker, A. B. (2011). The job demands-resources model: Challenges for future research. *SA Journal of Industrial Psychology*, 37(2), 01-09.
- Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., Nachreiner, F. &Schaufeli, W. B. (2000). A model of burnout and life satisfaction among nurses. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 32, 454–464.
- Demerouti, E., Bakker, A. B., Nachreiner, F., &Schaufeli, W. B. (2001). The job demands-resources model of burnout. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 499–512.
- Demerouti, E., Bakker, A.B., Vardakou, I., &Kantas, A. (2003). The convergent validity of two burnout instruments: A multitrait-multimethod analysis. *European Journal of Psychological Assessment*, 19, 12–23.
- Donnellan, L. (1996). Lessons in staff development. *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration, Quarterly*, 37 (6), 42–45.

- Ducharme, L. J., Knudsen, H. K., & Roman, P. M. (2008). Emotional exhaustion and turnover intention in human service occupations: The protective role of coworker support. *Sociological Spectrum*, 28, 81-104.
- Farber, B. A. (2000). Treatment strategies for different types of teacher burnout. *Journal of Clinical Psychology*, 56, 675-689.
- Farmer, R., Clancy, C., Oyefeso, A., & Rassool, G. H. (2002). Stress and work with substance misusers: The development and cross-validation of a new instrument to measure staff stress. *Drugs: education, prevention, and policy*, 9(4), 377-388.
- Fornell, C. & Larcker, D.F. (1981). Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 18 (1): 39-50.
- Fröbel, P., & Marchington, M. (2005). Teamworking structures and worker perceptions: a cross-national study in pharmaceuticals. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 16(2), 256-276.
- Gallon, S., Gabriel, R., & Knudsen, J. (2003). The toughest job you'll ever love: A pacific northwest treatment workforce survey. *Journal of Substance Abuse Treatment*, 24, 183-196.
- Garland, B. (2004). The impact of administrative support on prison treatment staff burnout: An exploratory study. *The Prison Journal*, 84, 452-471.
- Harris, K., Bonn, M., (2000). Training techniques and tools: evidence from the foodservice industry. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research* 24, 320-335.
- Ibrahim, H. I., Isa, A., & Shahbudin, A. S. M. (2016). Organizational support and creativity: The role of developmental experiences as a moderator. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 35, 509-514.
- Krishnan, S., & Teo, T. S. H. (2012). Moderating effects of governance on information infrastructure and e-government development, *Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology*, 63(10), 1929 - 1946.
- Lazar, J., Jones, A., Bessiere, K., Ceaparu, I., & Shneiderman, B. (2005). User Frustration with Technology in the Workplace, *Institute of Systems Research*.
- Little, T. D., Bovaird, J. A., & Widaman, K. F. (2006). On the merits of orthogonalizing powered and product terms: Implications for modeling interactions among latent variables, *Structural Equation Modeling*, 13(4), 497-519.
- Mauno, S., Kinnunen, U. & Ruokolainen, M. (2006). Exploring work and organization based resources as moderators between work-family conflict, well-being and job attitudes, *Work and Stress*, 20(3), 210-233.
- McCall, M. W., Lombardo, M. M. & Morrison, A.M., (1988). *The lessons of experience: How successful executives develop on the Job*, New York: Lexington Books
- McLellan, A. T., Carise, D., & Kleber, H. D. (2003). Can the national addiction treatment infrastructure support the public's demand for quality care? *Journal of Substance Abuse Treatment*, 25, 117-121.
- McNulty, T. L., Oser, C. B., Johnson, J. A., Knudsen, H. K., & Roman, P. M. (2007). Counselor turnover in substance abuse treatment centers: An organizational-level analysis. *Sociological Inquiry*, 77, 166-193.
- Mor-Barak, M. E., Nissly, J., & Levin, A. (2001). Antecedents to retention and turnover among child welfare, social work, and other human service employees: What can we learn from past research? A review and meta-analysis. *Social Service Review*, 75, 625-661.
- Nunnally, J. C., & Bernstein, I. H. (1994). *Psychometric theory* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

- Oppenheim, A. N. (1966). *Questionnaire design and attitude measurement*. London: Heinemann.
- Penney, L. M. & Spector, P. E. (2005). Job stress, incivility, and counterproductive work behavior (CWB): The moderating role of negative affectivity. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26(7), 777-796.
- Peters, L. H., O'Connor, E. J., & Rudolf, C. J. (1980). The behavioral and affective consequences of performance-relevant situational variables. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 25(1), 79-96.
- Podsakoff P, & Organ, D. (1986). Self-reports in organizational research. Problems and prospects. *Journal of Management* 12(12), 531- 544.
- Prieto, L. L., Soria, M. S., Martínez, I. M. & Schaufeli, W. (2008). Extension of the job-demands resources model in the prediction of burnout and engagement among teachers over time. *Psicothema*, 20(3), 354-360.
- Roberts, M., Dowker, C., Fleming, M., King, T., & Stack, B. (2008). The mediating effect of organizational support on the relationship between developmental experiences and turnover intentions.
- Rodwell, J. J., Kienzle, R. & Shadur, M. A. (1998). The relationship among work-related perceptions, employee attitudes, and employee performance: The integral role of communications. *Human Resource Management*, 37(3-4), 277-293.
- Rosh, L., Offermann, L.R. & Van Diest, R. (2012). Too close for comfort? Distinguishing between team intimacy and team cohesion. *Human Resource Management Review*, 22 (2), 116-127.
- Salas, E., Cooke, N. J., & Rosen, M. A. (2008). On teams, teamwork, and team performance: Discoveries and developments. *Journal of the Human Factors and Ergonomics Society*, 50(3), 540-547.
- Smith, B. D. (2005). Job retention in child welfare: Effects of perceived organizational support, supervisor support, and intrinsic job value. *Child and Youth Services Review*, 27, 153-169.
- Spector, P. (1997). The role of frustration in antisocial behavior at work. In R. A. Giacalone & J. Greenberg (Eds.), *Antisocial behavior in organizations*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Taris, T. W. (2006). Is there a relationship between burnout and objective performance? A critical review of 16 studies. *Work and Stress*, 20, 316-334.
- Wayne, S. J., Shore, L. M. & Liden, R. C. (1997). Perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange: A social exchange perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, 40(1), 82-111.
- Weiss, H., Suckow, K. & Cropanzano, R. (1999). Effects of justice decisions on discrete emotions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84(5), 786-794.
- Werts, C. E., Linn, R. L. & Jorreskog, K. (1974). Interclass reliability estimates: testing structural assumptions. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 34, 25-33.
- Zaccaro, S. J., Connelly, S., Repchick, K. M., Daza, A. I., Young, M. C., Kilcullen, R. N., ... & Bartholomew, L. N. (2015). The influence of higher-order cognitive capacities on leader organizational continuance and retention: The mediating role of developmental experiences. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 26(3), 342-358.

Effects of Leadership Styles on Employees' Performance: Evidence from a Commercial Bank in Kenya

*Celestine Anyango,
Human Talent Recruit, Nairobi, Kenya*

*Proches Ngatuni
The Open University of Tanzania
proches.ngatuni@out.ac.tz*

Abstract: *Success of organisations depends on how leaders mobilize and direct resources towards the achievement of organisational goals. Human resource - being the binder of all other resources - needs direction, which should be provided by leadership. However, there is no "one-fits-all" leadership style. This study investigated the effects of different leadership styles on employees' performance. Eighty usable questionnaires were obtained from a cross-sectional survey of 300 employees of a selected commercial bank in Kenya. Extensively used multi-item scales from previous studies were adapted to assess leadership styles and employees' performance. Inferential statistical techniques were used to test the study's hypotheses. Employees' performance was above average while transformational leadership was the most exhibited style. Respectively, transformational and transactional leadership styles positively and negatively affected employees' performance. Authoritative and laissez-faire leadership styles respectively had insignificant negative and positive effect. More variation in employees' performance was explained by transformational than by transactional leadership style. In the disaggregated results of transformational leadership, the idealized influence dimension had a significant positive effect on employees' performance while the other dimensions had insignificant effects. It is recommended that supervisors should embrace transformational leadership style, especially the idealized influence, to enhance the performance of their followers.*

Keywords: Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, self-rated performance, banking

Introduction

In a modern-day society, the success of organisations depends on how leaders mobilize and direct resources towards the achievement of their goals. The main drivers of organisations are humans as they give life to those organisations and provide goals (Shaffie et al., 2013, p.21). Human resource, being the binder of all other resources – physical and financial, needs direction. This direction should be provided by leadership. Leaders are expected (i) to promote unity, harmony, strength, prosperity, and happiness in the organisation; and (ii) to influence other employees to perform towards the attainment of organisational goals. Stiff competition and high uncertainties on the markets today leave many organisations on their

toes fighting for their survival. Thus, it is argued in the literature that leadership is a key factor for improving performance and that success or failure of an organisation depends on the effectiveness of leadership at all levels. Consistent with this position, Paracha et al. (2012) argue that “Leaders play an essential role in the accomplishment of goals and boost employee’s performance by satisfying them with their jobs” (p. 55). Extant literature shows that there is no “one-fits-all” leadership style. There is, therefore, a need to identify the leadership styles that have more impact on organisational outcomes such as employees’ performance.

The investigation into the link between leadership style and employees’ performance has attracted the interest of researchers for decades. Fiedler and House (1988) attributed this attraction to the belief that leadership is: (i) a vital issue in every organisation primarily because the decisions made by leaders could lead to business success or failure; (ii) accepted as the push behind effective organisational and employee’s performance, both of which may suffer in direct proportion to its neglect; and (iii) the drive behind attainment of the followers’ desires, which then results into effective performance.

Many of the previous studies, however, were from Western Economies where individualistic culture dominates. More details, for example, can be found in the meta-analytic works of Lowe et al. (1996) and De Groot et al. (2000). In recent years, research interest on the link has emerged from the Middle East and Asia regions. A sample of such studies are Rasool et al. (2015) in Pakistan health sector; Pradeep and Prabhu (2011) and Raja and Palanichamy (2015) both in India’s public and private sector enterprises; Aboshaiqah et al. (2014) in Saud Arabia – medical field, and Shaffie et al. (2013) in Iran – real estate. Others include Asrar-ul-Hag and Kuchinke (2016), Kalsoom et al. (2018), Basri et al. (2017), Sharma and Nair (2018) and Xhu and Wang (2018). Several studies are available from Africa. Examples include Ejere and Abasilim (2013) and Kehinde and Banjo (2014) both in Nigeria, Tsigu and Rao (2012) in Ethiopia (banking) and Hayward et al. (2003) in South Africa (pharmaceutical company). Others include Mohamed (2016) and Ugwu (2018). There is a dearth of evidence on the link from the East Africa region, except two studies from Uganda – Gimuguni et al. (2012) and Nuhu (2010), both in the local governments.

It is this dearth of empirical evidence from East Africa, especially from Kenya and from the banking industry that motivated this study. Hargis et al. (2011), suggested that the impact of leadership style may differ depending on the context and task performance. Thus, the objective of this study was to investigate the effects of different leadership styles on employees’ performance, focusing on determining (i) the most exhibited leadership style; (ii) the effect of each leadership style on employees’ performance; (iii) the leadership style having the highest impact; and (iv) the dimensions of transformational leadership style having impact on employees’ performance. Understanding the relationships between these different leadership styles and employees’ performance provides organisations with useful insights on the style that enhances performance more than the others. This will provide managers with information about the kind of styles they should embrace in their managerial cores which will enhance employees’ contribution to the attainment of the organisations’ goals. Furthermore, it will influence the content and direction of the organisations’ training programmes. In addition, trainers and career developers will also be informed of the leadership qualities they should develop for their bank clients consistent with the institutional objective. Moreover, the study contributes evidence on the relationship from a frontier market – Kenya; to reduce the paucity of such evidence from developing Africa.

The context

The study involved one commercial bank in Kenya. The bank started its operations in 2004 with only two branches, one in Nairobi and the other in Mombasa. First, as purely a corporate bank but later, following the many changes in the Kenyan economic spectrum, it had to change its strategy in 2012 to incorporate retail banking. By 2015 the bank had grown its branch network in Kenya to 36 branches, competing with the country's retail giants. Its portfolio changed to 80% retail business, 10% cooperate business and 10% concentration in SME banking. The bank's management changed too, but the staff's productivity dropped in 2013 and 2014 making performance management a concern for the bank's human resource department and management. Thus, leadership was put under scrutiny resulting in a leadership development project (YLP) aimed at giving selected managers, and their followers, the required leadership skills to ensure business continuity and survival. The programme started way back in 2013. Since then, little evidence is there to judge how much has been achieved in terms of performance response. This study, therefore, was designed to investigate the effects of leadership styles on employees' performance at the bank, drawing its sample of employees from its branches in the Nairobi, Western, Coast and Mount Kenya operating regions.

Literature Review

Employee performance

Employees' performance is a multidimensional construct and an extremely vital criterion that determines organisational successes or failures. For example, while El-Saghier (2002) defines it as the effort of an employee to achieve some specific goals, others like Pattanayak (2005) defines the employees' performance as his/her resultant behaviour on a task which can be observed and evaluated, or the contribution made by an individual in the accomplishment of organisational goals. Moreover, Prasetya and Kato (2011) define employees' performance as the attained outcome of actions. From the foregoing examples of definitions, employee performance is simply the result of patterns of action carried out to satisfy an objective according to some standards; it is a behaviour which consists of directly observable actions by an employee, and also the mental actions or products such as answers or decisions, which result in organisational outcomes in the form of goal attainment. In a bibliometric review of 175 articles on job performance published in many management and psychology journals (2006-15) by Fogaça et al. (2018), it is found that an individual employee's performance should be defined in terms of behaviour (what the individual does in the work situation) rather than results (the consequence or results of individual behaviour), and it should include only those behaviours that are relevant to organisational goals. Hence this study adopted the definition that refers to how well one performs his or her work in terms of quality and productivity, close to Campbell's (1990) definition of the effectiveness or employee's efforts in achieving organisational goals.

Leadership and Leadership Style

"There are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept" (Stogdill, 1974). That notwithstanding, a few are worth citing here. According to Levine and Crom (1994), leadership "is about listening to people, supporting, encouraging, and involving them in the decision-making and problem-solving processes. Leadership is "a process whereby an individual influences a group of other individuals to achieve a common aim" (Akbar, 2013), in a way that makes it more cohesive and coherent" (Sharma and Jain, 2013, p. 310). It is a process of facilitating individual, group, and organisational efforts to learn, and accomplish shared goals in organisations (Anshu and

Arpana, 2012) and in so doing, it calls for authority, responsibility and delegation of power (Islam et al., 2013). Other scholars like Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy (2014) see leadership as a social influence process in which the leader seeks the voluntary participation of subordinates. Furthermore, Memon (2014) sees it as the process by which an individual influences the thoughts, attitudes and behaviours of followers by taking responsibility for setting the direction for the firm, where the followers see and visualize what lies ahead of them and figure out how to achieve it. It is about building teams and developing their ability to make skilful decisions". It is argued in the literature that every leader exhibits a different behaviour – leadership style - in leading his followers. Leadership style is, therefore, "a consistent set of behaviours /patterns" a leader exhibits in providing direction, motivating people and implementing plans (Molero et al., 2007; Memon, 2014). The literature also suggests that leaders should search for the most effective combination of leadership styles to exhibit because no one leadership style is best in all situations (Darling and Leffel, 2010).

Several theories inform leadership behaviour, examples of which are behavioural theories and contingency theories. Behavioural theories of leadership state that it is the behaviour of leaders that distinguishes them from their followers. The theories focus on the actions of leaders, rather than on their mental qualities or internal states, with the belief that great leaders are made, not born. Accordingly, people can learn to become leaders through training and observation. Behaviour theories examine whether the leader is task oriented, people oriented, or both. Contingency theory, on the other hand, is an approach to leadership in which leadership effectiveness is determined by the interaction between the leader's personal characteristics and aspects of the situation. It assumes that the relationship between leadership style and organisational outcomes is moderated by situational factors related to the environment, and therefore the outcomes cannot be predicted by leadership style, unless the situational variables are known (Cheng and Chan, 2000). The literature presents different leadership styles (summarized in the next subsections), but it points out that there is no single leadership style which is best in all situations. The success of a given style, depends upon several variables, e.g. the leaders' preferred style, the capabilities and behaviours of the followers, and aspects of the situation.

Transformational leadership style

Transformational leadership style is defined as leadership that transforms the value, needs, aspirations, followers' priorities, and motivates the followers to exceed expectations (Bass and Avolio, 1994). It creates a conducive climate for the development of innovation and creativity. The leader urges the subordinates to create new ideas and solutions for the problems they have. Thus, subordinates become highly involved and efficient in problem-solving processes. It is this individual attention by a transformational leader which enables him to build trust and respect, and to motivate subordinates to exceed expectations (Thumrin, 2012, p.567).

According to Bass (1985), a transformational leader can raise subordinates' performance by (1) raising their awareness on how important the expected results are; (2) asking individuals to prioritize others over oneself; and (3) transforming and widening subordinates' level of needs. Bass further suggests that transformational leadership style goes beyond exchanging inducements for desired performance by developing, stimulating, and inspiring followers to transcend their own self-interest for the higher collective purpose, mission or vision. House and Shamir (1993) suggest that transformational and charismatic (or outstanding) leaders influence followers by enhancing their self-efficacy and self-worth. Transformational leadership behaviour is therefore characterized by, among others, role modelling, verbal

persuasion and physiological arousal (Podsakoff et al., 1990). Bass, therefore, identified four dimensions of transformational leadership, namely: (i) Idealized Influence, (ii) Inspirational Motivation (iii) Intellectual Stimulation, and (iv). Individualized Consideration.

Idealized influence (Charisma) is responsible for inducing self-confidence and self-belief to others, motivating respect, admiration and loyalty in them, and emphasizing on a strong commitment to meeting the mission and vision of the organisation. Inspirational motivation is responsible for inspiring, motivating, and developing in followers, high-level standards, clarity of ideas and vision, and task performance above norms. Intellectual stimulation is responsible for encouraging followers to be innovative and creative by doubting assumptions, reforming problems, and shifting from old situations to new methods, results of which may include invention and replacements of old processes. Individualized consideration is responsible for requiring followers to grow, and for providing a coaching style to meet requirements, and for preparing them for higher levels. It may include providing followers with new learning opportunities along with a supportive climate. It manifests through leaders' efforts to consider the needs of their followers. It involves coaching, advising and attending to the needs of others (Soumia et al., 2013). Butler et al. (1999) summarizes the transformational leadership as one that: (i) encourages subordinates to have the vision, mission and organisation goals; (ii) motivates them to show maximum performance; (iii) stimulates subordinates to act critically and to solve problems in new ways; and (iv) treat employees individually. It follows therefore that leaders who practice transformational leadership style are likely to induce higher performance among their followers, leading to a positive relationship between the style and employee's performance.

Transactional leadership

Transactional leadership is a behaviour in which leader-follower relationships are based on a series of exchanges and/or bargains between them. Bass (1985) theorized that transactional leaders appeal to their followers' self-interest, by attempting to meet their current needs through bargaining and exchanging, for both parties to achieve the negotiated performance targets. Bass identified two components of transactional leadership, differentiated by the activity level of leaders and the nature of the interaction between leaders and followers. These are contingent rewards and management by exception leadership behaviours. The former represents an active and positive exchange between leaders and followers in which followers are rewarded (bonuses, merit increases, etc.) or recognized for accomplishing a set of agreed-upon goals. The latter represents actions where leaders focus on mistakes, delay decisions or avoid intervening until something goes wrong. The transactional leadership style can also be active or passive (Hater and Bass, 1988) distinguished by the timing of the leaders' intervention (Howell and Avolio, 1993). In an active transactional leadership style, the leader constantly monitors followers' performance to anticipate mistake (or deviations from expectation and standards clearly predefined on the outset) before they become problems and takes corrective actions immediately when required. In a passive transactional leadership style, the leader intervenes with criticism and reports only either after mistakes have occurred or after deviations from standards/norms/expectations have occurred. Yulk (2007) added that a transactional leader can affect performance positively or negatively depending on employees' assessment. If employees assess transactional leader positively, positive outcomes will accrue, negative outcomes otherwise. An example is when they perceive their transactional leader as one that cannot be trusted because of his or her failure to keep promises or to maintain honesty and transparency

Authoritative Leadership

An authoritative (directive, coercive, or “do as I say”) leadership style is a behaviour which (i) places followers as compliant subordinates by relying on command and direction, assigned goals, and punishments (Liu et al., 2003, p.152); (ii) allows followers a little discretion over the job and a rare opportunity to participate in decision-making; (iii) inhibits an organisation’s flexibility and dampens employees’ motivation (Goleman, 2000, p.18). It sets the agenda, assigns tasks to members and makes unilateral decisions without inputs from subordinates (Evans, 2001). This concentration of power may harm employees performance because it forces employees to execute strategies and provide services in a narrow way, based upon a subjective idea of what success looks like to the leader. It also does so because commitment, creativity and innovations are eliminated. These shortcomings notwithstanding, Mandiya et al. (2014) point out that authoritative leadership is useful in some leadership scenarios that demand the use of authority. Furthermore, Iqbal et al. (2015) identify conducive environments for practicing authoritative style to include (i) when new employees are unfamiliar and don’t have sufficient knowledge about their jobs; (ii) when employees constantly misuse their authority; (iii) when company rules are violated by employees; and (iv) when a sole person is responsible for making and implementing a decision.

Laissez-faire leadership

Laissez-faire (“hands-off”) leadership style is a behaviour in which the leader provides the followers not only with little or no direction but also with as much freedom as possible. The leader practices a “no interference policy” by refusing to make decisions/take actions. It allows followers a complete freedom to determine goals, make decisions, and resolve challenges on their own, and the leader takes no responsibility for his or her lack of leadership ability. Bodla and Nawaz (2010) view this leadership style as passive and ineffective. It favours a relaxed working atmosphere which in most instances brings down morale and reduces the efficiency of followers (Raus and Haita, 2011). Consequently, the leader evaluates and criticizes very little (less threatening), avoids making decisions, and delays responding to urgent issues (Avolio and Bass, 2004).

Empirical Studies Analysis

Studies on the link between transformational leadership style and employee performance can be grouped into three major groups: (i) those that investigated the effect of the transformational leadership style and its four dimensions on employees’ performance; (ii) those that evaluated the relative importance of transformational and transactional leadership styles in affecting employees’ performance; and (iii) those that compared performance of employees who had been exposed to training on transformational leadership style against those who had not. In the first group, Kheirandish (2014) investigated the relationship between transformational leadership style as well as its four dimensions, and performance improvements of 148 educators from boys’ secondary schools in Iran. Using the standard 24-item scale of transformational leadership style and performance charts to measure transformational leadership style and performance improvements respectively, bivariate correlations revealed a significant positive correlation between both the overall transformational leadership style, and each of its dimensions, and performance improvements. Thamrin (2012) reported transformational leadership style having a significant positive influence on the performance of a sample of 105 permanent employees of a shipping company in Jakarta, Indonesia. Furthermore, a significant positive linear relationship is reported between transformational leadership style and employees’ performance by Raja and Palamichamy (2015) on a sample of 199 employees of both public

and the private sector in India. A more recent study on librarians from universities in Nigeria by Ugwu (2018) found that transformational leadership significantly positively affected their job performance and so were the components of idealized influence, inspirational motivation, and idealized consideration. The effect of intellectual stimulation was positive but insignificant. See also Basri et al. (2017).

Studies reporting relative importance of transformational leadership and transactional leadership styles in explaining the variance in employees' performance include Bass (1985), Hater and Bass (1985), Howell and Avolio (1993), Meyer and Botha (2000), Rasool et al. (2015), Hayward et al. (2003), Tsigu and Rao (2015), Kalsoom et al. (2018), and Sharma and Nair (2018). Hayward et al. (2003) using a sample of employees of a South African pharmaceutical company reports a significant positive linear relationship between transformational leadership style and employee performance, and a negative but insignificant relationship between transactional leadership style and employee performance, where transformational leadership style was more effective than the transactional leadership style. Meyer and Botha (2000) found that transformational leadership style was relatively more strongly related to higher employee satisfaction and individual performance than the transactional leadership style. Rasool et al. (2015) found that the impact of transformational leadership style on the performance of health sector employees in Pakistan was higher than that of transactional leadership style. Tsigu and Rao (2015) found that transformational leadership style explained more of the variation in the performance of employees in the Ethiopian banking industry than did the transactional leadership style. From a sample of FMCG employees in Pakistan, Kalsoom et al. (2018) reported a positive and significant relationship between both transformational and transactional leadership styles with employee performance but transactional leadership style was stronger. Furthermore, Sharma and Nair (2018) reported transactional leadership, rather than transformational leadership style, having a positive and significant relationship with workforce performance. Comparing the performance of employees based on training in transformational leadership, Barling et al. (1996) found evidence showing that managers who attended the training recorded higher unit performance than those who did not.

While there seems to be a consensus in the evidence on the effects of transformational leadership style, mixed evidence exists on the link between transactional leadership style and employee performance. A study by Podsakoff et al. (1984), showed a significant positive relationship between contingent reward behaviour and all five facets of employee satisfaction. Furthermore, Podsakoff et al. (2006) and Pradeep and Prabhu (2011) reported evidence showing a significant positive relationship between contingent rewards and employees' performance. Subsequent studies, for example, Aboshaiqah et al. (2014), reported a significant positive correlation between transactional leadership style and outcomes of effectiveness, extra efforts and satisfaction, while Rasool et al. (2015) show evidence of a significant positive linear relationship between the transactional leadership style and employee performance. See also Basri (2017). Conversely, evidence of an insignificant relationship between transactional leadership and employees' performance was reported in Hayward et al. (2003) from a South African pharmaceutical company and in Shahhosseini et al. (2013) from a sample of public and private bank employees in Iran. See also Asrar-ul-Hag and Kuchenke (2016). Quintana et al. (2015) reported separate results for the components of transactional leadership style. While contingent reward was positive and significantly related to employee performance (satisfaction, extra effort and effectiveness), management by exception was negative and significantly related to satisfaction but insignificant for extra efforts and effectiveness.

The relationship between authoritative leadership style and employees' performance has also been investigated. For example, Nuhu (2010) and Gimuguni et al., 2014 both from Uganda, indicate that the authoritative leadership style is significantly positively related to the performance of the employees of Kampala City and Mbale District Councils, respectively.

Contradictory evidence is also reported on the relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and employee performance. Aboshaiqah et al. (2014) reported a significant negative relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and outcome factors of effectiveness, extra efforts and satisfaction for a sample of staff nurses. Similar results are found in Asrar-ul-Hag et al. (2016) showing a negative and significant relationship with satisfaction and effectiveness. A negative but insignificant relationship is also reported in Quintana et al. (2015) for satisfaction, extra effort and effectiveness. Conversely, Nuhu (2010) and Gimuguni et al. (2014) found a positive relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and performance of employees of Kampala City and Mbale District Councils in Uganda.

A new body of literature is emerging now linking leadership styles to employees' performance. In this literature, performance is measured in terms of employees' creativity (Mohamed, 2016) and innovation (Zhu and Wang, 2018). Evidence so far shows that transactional leadership style is positive and significantly related to employees' creativity (Mohamed, 2016) and to employees' innovation (Mohamed, 2016; Zhu and Wang, 2018).

Conceptual framework and hypotheses

From the literature review, transformational leadership consistently has a positive effect. However, evidence on the other three leadership styles is far from being consistent. Thus, the proposed conceptual framework with the hypothesis of the study is shown in Figure 1.

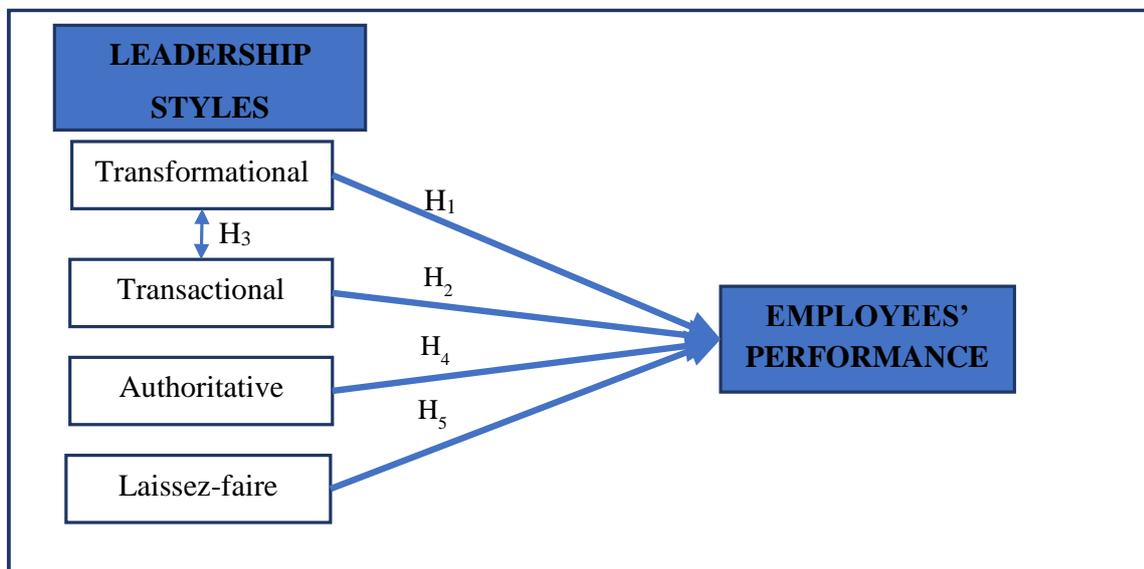


Figure 1 Conceptual framework

- H1. The transformational leadership style positively affects employees' performance
- H2. The transactional leadership style positively affects employees' performance
- H3. The effect of transformational leadership style on employees' performance is relatively higher than that of transactional leadership style
- H4. The Authoritative leadership style positively affects employees' performance

H₅. The laissez-faire leadership style does not affect employee performance.

Methodology

Study designs

This was a quantitative descriptive cross-sectional survey based on a survey population of 600 employees in the bank's operating regions of Nairobi 1, Nairobi 2, Western, Mt. Kenya and Coast. These regions were chosen due to their proximity to the researchers and also because a larger focus had been laid by the bank on these regions in terms of branches, employees and client base. Three hundred (300) permanent employees were randomly selected from employees in the study regions, who had worked for the bank for at least two years, to form the study's sample. Included in the sample were 25 branch managers and 275 employees who were tellers, banking officers, retail officers, back office staff, credit officer, relationship officers, team leaders, and supervisors. Their names and telephone extension numbers were obtained from the Human Resource Management Department. These were then targeted with questionnaires, 80 of which were returned and found to be usable, a response rate of 26.7 percent. Although Cummings et al. (2001) suggest the absence of a gold standard for an acceptable response rate, Carley-Baxter et al. (2013) cited in Mellahi and Harris (2015) suggests 16 – 91 as some practical rates by many editors in deciding on whether to publish a manuscript. Mellahi and Harris (2015, p.9) suggest 35-55 percent for marketing and general management researches. The present study's response rate is within the suggested ranges.

Table 1. Sample description

	Freq.	%age	Mean	S.D.
<i>Respondents' Age</i>				
Less than 25 years	9	11.25		
25-30	40	50.00		
31-35	15	18.75		
35-40	10	12.50		
41+ years	6	7.50		
<i>Gender</i>				
Male	46	57.50		
Female	34	42.50		
<i>Education level</i>				
Certificate/diplomas	7	8.75		
Higher diploma	11	13.75		
Bachelor	51	63.75		
Master	11	13.75		
<i>Working experience</i>				
Experience – current position			2.62	2.043
Experience - the bank			4.03	4.471
Experience - banking industry			5.46	5.144

Half of the respondents were in the age 25 to 30 years. Youth (≤ 35 years) constituted 79.2 percent of the sample. There were slightly more male (57.3 percent) than female (42.5 percent) respondents. Employees with bachelor's degree or higher constituted more than three-quarters of the sample (77.6 percent). The average experience was 2.62 years on the current position, 4.03 years at the bank, and 5.46 years in the banking industry (Table 1).

Measurement instrument

Leadership styles were assessed by the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Avolio and Bass, 1995), adapted through contextual modification. Its 30 items were grouped into four leadership styles; namely, transformational leadership style (12 items, $\alpha = .92$); transactional leadership style (6 items, $\alpha = .80$); authoritative leadership style (6 items, $\alpha = .83$); and laissez-faire leadership style (6 items, $\alpha = .88$). The 12-items in the transformational leadership style scale were subdivided into four dimensions of idealized influence (II), e.g. *"I am proud to be associated with my supervisor"* ($\alpha = .91$); inspirational motivation (IM), e.g. *"My supervisor expresses in a few simple words what we could and should do"* ($\alpha = .81$); intellectual stimulation (IS); *"My supervisor enables others to think about old problems in new ways."* ($\alpha = .76$); and individual consideration (IC), *"My supervisor gives personal attention to others who seem rejected."* ($\alpha = .82$); each with three items.

The six items of the transactional leadership scale were grouped into two subscales - Contingent rewards (CR), e.g. *"My supervisor provides recognition/rewards when others reach their goals."* ($\alpha = .79$); and management by exception (MBE), e.g. *"As long as things are working, my supervisor does not try to change anything."* ($\alpha = .79$). Sample items for the authoritative and laissez-faire leadership styles were respectively, *"My supervisor is the chief judge of the achievements of employees"* and *"In complex situations my supervisor allows me to work my problems out on my own way"*. Respondents rated themselves on a five-point scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree to indicate their level of agreement with the items of the scales, each of which captured their perception of the leadership style practised by their immediate supervisors.

Two-items were borrowed from Yousef (2000) to assess employees' performance ($\alpha = .80$). The items were *"how do you rate the quality of your performance?"* and *"how do you rate your productivity on the job"*. Respondents rated themselves on a five-point scale ranging from 1 =very low to 5 = very high to indicate their performance in terms of quality and productivity. The Cronbach's alphas (α) from the scale tests for reliability analysis were higher than the conventional cut-off point ($\alpha = .7$), for all scales and subscales (Table 3), indicating acceptable range of internal consistency, and suggesting that each scale or subscale reliably measured what they were designed to measure (Field, 2013; Pallant, 2013).

Analysis

The scores on the items under each scale and subscale were averaged into mean scores for each respondent. Descriptive and inferential statistical techniques were used for data analysis. In inferential statistics, Pearson's correlation and multiple regression analysis techniques were used to assess both the relationships and effects. The model tested was:

$$EP = \beta_0 + \beta_1 TFS + \beta_2 TSS + \beta_3 AS + \beta_4 LFS + \varepsilon$$

Where EP =employees' performance, TFS = transformational leadership style, TSS = transactional leadership style, AS = authoritative leadership style and LFS = laissez-faire leadership style. β_0 was the regression intercept (constant) and $\beta_1 - \beta_4$ were the regression coefficients.

Table 2. Correlation matrix for leadership style and employee performance

Leadership style	1	1(a)	1(b)	1(c)	1(d)	2	2(a)	2(b)	3	4	5
1 Transformational Leadership	1										
1(a) Idealized Influence	.820**	1									
1(b) Inspirational Motivation	.885**	.655**	1								
1(c) Intellectual Stimulation	.870**	.618**	.739**	1							
1(d) Individualized Consideration	.753**	.414**	.561**	.553**	1						
2 Transactional Leadership	.594**	.460**	.425**	.478**	.616**	1					
2(a) Contingent Reward	.500**	.367**	.347**	.394**	.558**	.844**	1				
2(b) Management by Exception	.496**	.402**	.364**	.405**	.475**	.841**	.415**	1			
3 Authoritative Leadership	-.214	-.324**	-.172	-.199	.002	-.235*	-.142	-.251*	1		
4 Laissez-faire Leadership	-.112	-.107	-.114	-.038	-.108	-.268*	-.263*	-.179	.307**	1	
5 Employee Performance	.427**	.501**	.373**	.261*	.266*	.031	-.061	.102	-.117	.046	1

** . p < 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . p < 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Regression assumptions

Correlation matrix (Table 2) indicated no bivariate correlation coefficients in the pairs of the predictors higher than .8. Hence the assumption of no multicollinearity in the independent variables was not violated. These results were confirmed by the variance inflation factor (VIF) statistics all of which were below 10 (Tables 4 and 5). Bivariate correlations were significant for some pairs of the dependent and independent variables, indicating support for the linearity assumption. Inspection of the normal probability plot (P-P) of the multiple regression's standardized residuals and the scatter plot, requested as part of the multiple regression analysis, showed that the points plotted reasonably on the straight diagonal line from bottom left to top right, suggesting no major deviations from the normality assumption. The standardized residuals on the scatter plot were roughly rectangularly distributed, with most of the scores concentrated in the centre (around point 0). Cook's distance statistics was below 1.0. (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013, p.75). The same revealed all cases having standardized residuals within |3|standard deviations, implying the absence of outliers (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013, p.125). Breusch-Pagan (BP) and Koenker test statistics were respectively $\chi^2 = 7.328$ ($p = .120$) and $\chi^2 = 9.156$ ($p = .057$), indicating support for the assumption that the standardized regression residuals were homoscedastic (Hayes and Cai, 2007).

Results

Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics for the four main types of leadership style and employee performance (Table 3) show that transformational leadership style had the highest mean followed by the transactional leadership style. Authoritarian leadership style had the lowest mean score. Idealized influence had a higher mean score compared to the rest of the components of transformational leadership. The mean score for management by exception was higher than that of contingent reward. Employees' performance had a mean score of 4.33.

Table 3. Descriptive and reliability statistics

Scale	N(items)	Mean	S.D.	α
Transformational Leadership	12	3.92	0.71	0.92
<i>Idealized Influence</i>	3	4.11	0.94	0.91
<i>Inspirational Motivation</i>	3	3.97	0.83	0.81
<i>Intellectual Stimulation</i>	3	3.85	0.83	0.76
<i>Individualized Consideration</i>	3	3.75	0.84	0.82
Transactional Leadership	6	3.74	0.75	0.80
<i>Contingent Reward</i>	3	3.63	0.90	0.79
<i>Management by Exception</i>	3	3.84	0.89	0.79
Authoritative Leadership	6	2.95	0.91	0.83
Laissez-faire Leadership	6	3.66	0.94	0.88
Employees' Performance	2	4.33	0.61	0.80

These results show that transformational leadership style was the style that was practised most by leaders at the studied bank and that authoritative leadership style was less exhibited. The results also show that the idealized influence dimension of the transformational leadership style was the most exhibited style.

Multiple regression results

Results in Table 4 indicate that the four leadership styles jointly accounted for 26.5 percent of the variations in the scores of employees’ performance. The model with the four leadership styles as independent variables was significant, i.e. it had power to predict the dependent variable (employees’ performance), $F(4, 74) = 6.659, p < .001$.

Table 4: Regression results

	b	S.E. (b)	β	t	ρ	VIF
Constant	3.34	0.53	–	6.36	< .001	–
Transformational Leadership	0.53	0.11	0.62	4.95	< .001	1.57
Transactional Leadership	-0.28	0.10	-0.34	-2.67	.009	1.66
Authoritative leadership	-0.05	0.07	-0.08	-0.75	.457	1.15
Laissez-faire Leadership	0.03	0.07	0.05	0.45	.656	1.17

$R^2 = 26.5\%, F(4,74) = 6.659 (p < .001), \text{Max. Cook's Distance} = 0.129$

Transformational leadership style significantly affected employees’ performance positively while the reverse was the case for transactional leadership style. Between the two, Transformational leadership had a higher impact ($\beta = .495$) on employees’ performance than transactional leadership style ($\beta = -.267$). Authoritative and laissez-faire leadership styles had insignificantly negative and positive effect respectively on employees’ performance. Disaggregated results of the transformational leadership style (Table 5) indicate that the idealized influence was the only dimension with a significant effect on employees’ performance ($b = .32, t = 3.63, \rho = .001$). Inspirational motivation and individualized consideration had an insignificant positive effect while intellectual stimulation had an insignificant negative effect on employees’ performance.

Table 5: Transformational leadership

	b	S.E. (b)	β	t	ρ	VIF
Constant	2.92	.34	–	8.73	<.001	–
Idealized Influence	.32	.09	.49	3.63	.001	1.88
Inspirational Motivation	.11	.12	.15	.93	.357	2.73
Intellectual Stimulation	-.15	.11	-.21	-1.31	.193	2.51
Individualized consideration	.07	.09	.09	.75	.454	1.56

$R^2 = 27.3\%, F(4,75) = 7.031 (p < .001), \text{Max. Cook's Distance} = 0.298$

Discussion

The objective of the present study was to assess the effect of different leadership styles on employees’ performance. Specifically, it focused on identifying the style most exhibited by supervisors at the bank, and the effects of transformational, transactional, authoritative, and laissez-faire leadership styles on employees’ performance. It also aimed at assessing the relative contribution of transformational and transactional leadership styles in explaining the variation in employees’ performance. The results indicate that transformational leadership style, specifically the idealized influence, was the most exhibited style at the bank. This is a healthy situation given its relative ability to direct followers’ efforts towards the attainment of

the organisational goals, relative to the other leadership styles. Consistent with previous findings, e.g. Thamrin (2002) and Kheirandish (2014), transformational leadership had a positive and significant effect on employee's performance. Unlike Kheirandish (2014) and Ugwu (2018), only the idealized influence dimension had a significant positive effect on employees' performance. The present results in which transformational leadership contributed significantly more than the transactional leadership style in explaining the variation in employees' performance, are consistent with those reported previously in Bass (1985), Hater and Bass (1985), Howell and Avolio (1993), Meyer and Botha (2000), Hayward et al. (2003), and Rasool et al. (2015). These two sets of results offer support to hypotheses one and three of this study. If supervisors exhibit more transformational leadership, the employees will have higher employee performance. The present study found that transactional leadership style significantly negatively affected employees' performance. The results are inconsistent with those that were reported in Rasool et al. (2015). The third hypothesis of a significant positive effect of transactional leadership style on employees' performance was not supported.

Authoritative leadership was found to have a negative but insignificant effect on employees' performance. This suggests that the study's fourth hypothesis that "the authoritative leadership style positively affects employee performance" could not be supported. Furthermore, the study findings are inconsistent with those reported earlier in studies by Gimuguni, et al. (2014) and in Nuhu (2010) both of which reported a positive relationship between authoritative leadership styles and employees' performance. Thus, the results imply that followers would be willing to do more if they are involved in setting targets and in agreeing to the ways to achieve them as opposed to being taken as recipients of one-sided decisions and commands as if they were machines. Lastly, the study found that laissez-faire leadership styles had an insignificantly positive effect on employees' performance. These results lend support to the study's fifth hypothesis which stated that "the laissez-faire leadership style does not affect employees' performance. The results contradict previous results by, for example, Gimuguni et al. (2014), in which a positive relationship between laissez-faire leadership style and employee performance was reported.

The study findings contribute to the expansion of knowledge in the organisational psychology field on how leadership styles can be used to achieve employees' performance. They added to the efforts to reduce the dearth of empirical evidence in the region (a frontier market) and in the banking sector. They also contributed answers to the question posed in Yousef (2000) which queried whether Western business practices and management theories are appropriate for non-Western settings. Indeed, the evidence presented in this study shows that they do. This may also be because of the interconnectedness of the world in terms of culture and education, and also the market linkages, which equalize the basic approaches to managing organisations irrespective of their contextual differences.

Conclusion

From the study findings, it can be concluded that supervisors who are driven by the desire to achieve better performance from their subordinates should try and exhibit more of transformation leadership style and less of the rest. The results suggest that subordinates would value the push for self-confidence and recognition of their self-worth offered by the transformational leadership and put up a good performance in exchange. Thus, it can further be judged that the results of this study also lend support to the social exchange theory of Homans (1958). Information from this study could be used to help managers/supervisors

develop strategies to meet organisational needs through leadership behaviour development. Transformational leadership behaviour would lead to higher employees' performance. The supervisors should have subordinates' own visions and development plans for followers, working in groups and champion teamwork spirit. The supervisors should have a sense of innovation and encourage followers to seek more opportunities and possibilities, not just to achieve performance within expectations. Supervisors should understand the values of the followers and try to build their departmental/unit's business strategies, plans, processes and practices that will likely improve the wellbeing of staff. Respect for individual character and ideas is also very key in building a positive relationship between leaders and employees. Leaders should carefully consider the use of reward in exchange for performance and avoid leaving threatening situations until something goes wrong, as these behaviours have been shown to lower employees' performance at this bank.

The study sample was limited to employees of one commercial bank out of the many such banks operating in Kenya. This threatens the generalizability of the findings not only to the banking sector but also to other companies in the financial industry. Employees' personalities and preferences on supervisor's leadership could affect people's perceptions of leadership styles and their relationships with supervisors. Thus, in future research, a sample more representative of the commercial bank sector is warranted as well as the need to control for people's personalities and preferences for a leadership style. Other key variables could also be brought in to the analysis. For example (i) how diverse organisational cultures influence the relationships between leadership styles and employees' performance; and (ii) how the perceptions of leadership would affect employees' level of commitment to the organisation. Moreover, it is important to note that the recent trends in the literature in which employee performance is measured in different dimensions such as satisfaction, extra effort, effectiveness, creativity and innovation is yet to be explored in Kenya and East Africa. These new measures are useful in assessing employee's performance in the region given the extreme needs for effectiveness, creativity and innovation in business processes.

Acknowledgements

The researchers thank the bank's management and its employees for accepting to participate in the study by filling in the questionnaires and returning them in a timely manner. Further thanks go to Prof. Jan-Erik Jaensson and the two anonymous reviewers for their constructive comments and suggestions, which have helped improve the manuscript.

References

- Aboshaiqah, A. E., Hamdan-Mansour, A. M., Sherrod, D. R. Alkhaibary, A. and Alkhaibary, S. (2014). Nurses' perception of managers' leadership styles and its associated outcomes." *American Journal of Nursing Research*, 2 (4): 57-62.
- Akbar, A. (2013). Concept of leadership in organizations: Prevailing views. *Research Journal of Recent Sciences*, 2(4): 80-83.
- Anshu, Y., and Arpana, K., (2012). Corporate transformation through leadership: Understanding macro cultural implications for Indian organizations. *Research Journal of Recent Sciences*, 1: 253-258.
- Asrar-ul-Haq, M., and Kuchinke, K. P. (2016). Impact of leadership styles on employees' attitude towards their leader and performance: Empirical evidence from Pakistani banks. *Future Business Journal*, 2(1): 54–64. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fbj.2016.05.002>
- Avolio, B.J., and Bass, B.M. (2004). *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*. (3rd edition). Manual and sampler set. Redwood City, CA: Mind Garden.
- Barling, J., Weber, T., and Kelloway, E. K. (1996). Effects of transformational leadership training on attitudinal and financial outcomes: A field experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81: 827–832.
- Basri, H. H., Rashid, I. M. A., Abashah, A. B., and Samah, I. H. A. (2017). The impact of Malay transactional leadership style on employee performance: The Malaysia' pharmacy industry perspective. *International Journal of Information, Business and Management*, 9(2): 45.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: Free Press
- Bass, B. M., and Avolio B. J. (1994). *Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Bass, B. M., and Avolio, B.J. (1995). *The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire for Research*. Palo Alto, CA: Mind Garden.
- Bodla, M. A., and Nawaz, M. M. (2010). Comparative study of full range leadership model among faculty members in public and private sector higher education, institutes and universities. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5(4): 208-214.
- Butler Jr, J. K., Cantrell, R. S., and Flick, R. J. (1999). Transformation leadership behaviors, upward trust, and satisfaction in self-managed work teams. *Organization Development Journal*, 17(1): 13.
- Campbell, J.P. (1990). Modeling the performance prediction problem in industrial and organizational psychology. In M.D. Dunnette and L.M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology*, 1 (pp. 687 – 732). Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.
- Cheng, Y. C., and Chan, M. T. (2000). Implementation of school-based management: A multi-perspective analysis of the case of Hong Kong. *International Review of Education*, 46(3-4): 205-232.
- Cummings, S. M., Savitz, L. A., and Konrad, T. R. (2001). Reported response rates to mailed physician questionnaires. *Health services research*, 35(6): 1347.
- Darling, J., and Leffel, A. (2010). Developing the leadership team in an entrepreneurial venture: A case focusing on the importance of styles. *Journal of Small Business and Entrepreneurship*, 23(3): 355-371.

- DeGroot, T., Kiker, D. S., and Cross, T. C. (2000). A meta-analysis to review organizational outcomes related to charismatic leadership. *Canadian Journal of Administrative Sciences*, 17(4): 356-372
- Dvir, T., Eden, D., Avolio, B. J., and Shamir, B. (2002). Impact of transformational leadership on follower development and performance: A field experiment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45(4): 735-744.
- Ejere, E. I., and Abasilim, U. D. (2013). Impact of transactional and transformational leadership styles on organisational performance: Empirical evidence from Nigeria. *The Journal of Commerce*, 5(1): 30-41.
- El-Saghier, F. O. (2002). The organizational climate and its impact on the performance of the personal in the security agencies. M.Sc. Thesis, Naief Arabian University of Security Sciences, Faculty of High Studies, Department of Administrative Sciences, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.
- Evans, C. L. (2001). *Leadership in committee: A comparative analysis of leadership behavior in the US Senate*. University of Michigan Press.
- Fiedler, F. E., and House, R. J. (1988). Leadership theory and research: A report of progress. *International Review of Industrial and Organisational Psychology*, 19(88): 73- 91.
- Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS Statistics: And sex and drugs and rock 'n' roll*. (4th edition). London: Sage.
- Fogaça, N., Rego, M. C. B., Melo, M. C. C., Armond, L. P., and Coelho, F. A. (2018). Job performance analysis: Scientific studies in the main journals of management and psychology from 2006 to 2015. *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, 30(4): 231-247.
- Gimuguni, L., Nandutu, J., and Magolo, A. (2014). *Effect of leadership styles on performance of Local Governments in Uganda. A case of Mbale District*.
- Goleman, D. (2000). Leadership that gets results. *Harvard Business Review*.
- Hargis, M. B., Watt, J. D., and Piotrowski, C. (2011). Developing leaders: Examining the role of transactional and transformational leadership across business contexts. *Organization Development Journal*, 29(3): 51.
- Hater, J. J., and Bass, B. M. (1988). Superiors' evaluations and subordinates' perceptions of transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied psychology*, 73(4): 695-702.
- Hayes, A. F., and Cai, I. (2007). Using heteroscedasticity-consistent standard error estimators in OLS regressions: An introduction and software implementation. *Behavioural Research Methods*, 39, 709 – 722. Available from afhayes.com/spss-sas-and-mplus-macros-and-code.html. Accessed 20th February 2018.
- Hayward, B. A., Davidson, A. J., Pascoe, J. B., Tasker, M. L., Amos, T. L., and Pearse, N. J. (2003, June). The relationship between leadership and employee performance in a South African pharmaceutical company. In *Society for Industrial and Organisational Psychology 6th Annual Conference* (pp. 25-27).
- Homans, G.C. (1958). Social behavior as change. *American Journal of Sociology*, 63(6): 597-606.
- House, R.J., and Shamir, B. (1993). Toward the integration of transformational, charismatic, and visionary theories". In Chemers, M.M. and Ayman, R. (Eds), *Leadership Theory and Research: Perspectives and Directions*, San Diego, CA: Academic Press Inc.

- Howell, J. M., and Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, locus of control, and support for innovation: Key predictors of consolidated-business-unit performance. *Journal of applied psychology*, 78(6): 891.
- Iqbal, N., Anwar, S., and Haider, N. (2015). Effect of leadership style on employee performance. *Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review*, 5(5): 1-6.
- Islam, T., Rehman, S., and Ahmed, I. (2013). Investigating the mediating role of organizational politics between leadership style and followers' behavioral outcomes. *Business Strategy Series*, 14(2/3): 80-96.
- Kalsoom, Z., Khan, M.A., and Zubair, S.S. (2018). Impact of transactional leadership and transformational leadership on employee performance: A Case of FMCG Industry of Pakistan. *Industrial Engineering Letters*, 8(3): 23-30.
- Kehinde, O. A., and Banjo, H.A. (2014). A test of the impact of leadership styles on employee performance: A study of department of petroleum resources. *International Journal of Management Sciences*, 2(3): 149-160.
- Kheirandish, M. (2013). The relationship between transformational leadership style and performance improvement among teachers: A case study. *Research Journal of Recent Sciences* ..., 3(1), 103–107. Retrieved from <http://www.isca.in/rjrs/archive/v3/i1/16.ISCA-RJRS-2013-304.pdf>. Accessed 20th February 2018.
- Kumar, R. (2005). *Research methodology: A step-by-step guide for beginners*. New Delhi: Sage Publications Limited
- Levine, S. R., and Crom, M.A. (1993). *The leadership in you*. New York: Pocket books.
- Liu, W., Lepak, D.P., Takeuchi, R., and Sims, H.P. (2003). Matching leadership styles with employment modes: Strategic human resource management perspective. *Human Resource Management Review*, 13: 127-152.
- Lowe, K. B., Kroeck, K. G., and Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996). Effectiveness correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 7(3): 385-425.
- Mandiya, W., Machera, R., and Karodia, A. M. (2014). An assessment of the different leadership styles on business performance: A case study of TM Hypermarket in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe. *Singaporean Journal of Business Economics, and Management Studies*, 3(2). <https://doi.org/10.12816/0007339>. Accessed 20th February 2018.
- Mellahi, K., & Harris, L. C. (2016). Response rates in business and management research: An overview of current practice and suggestions for future direction. *British Journal of Management*, 27(2): 426-437.
- Memon, K. R. (2014). Effects of leadership styles on employee performance: Integrating the mediating role of culture, gender and moderating role of communication. *International Journal of Management Sciences and Business Research*, 3(7): 63-80
- Meyer M and Botha E. (2000). *Organisation development and transformation in South Africa*. Durban: Butterworths.
- Mohamed, L. M. (2016). Assessing the effects of transformational leadership: A study on Egyptian hotel employees. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 27: 49–59. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jhtm.2016.04.001>
- Molero, F., Cuadrado, I., Navas, M., and Morales, J. F. (2007). Relations and effects of transformational leadership: A comparative analysis with traditional leadership styles. *The Spanish Journal of Psychology*, 10: 358- 368.

- Nanjundeswaraswamy, T. S., and Swamy, D. R. (2014). Leadership styles. *Advances in Management*, 7(2): 57-62
- Nuhu, K. (2010). *Effect of leadership styles on employee performance in Kampala District Council*. Doctoral dissertation, Makerere University.
- Pallant, J. (2013). *SPSS survival manual: A step by step guide to data analysis using IBM SPSS*. (5th edition). Berkshire: Open University Press -McGraw-Hill Education.
- Paracha, M. U., Qamar, A., Mirza, A., Hassan, I., and Waqas, H. (2012). Impact of leadership style (transformational and transactional leadership) on employee performance and mediating role of job satisfaction. Study of private school (educator) in Pakistan. *Global Journal of Management and Business Research*, 12(4): 54-65.
- Pattanayak, B. (2005). *Human resource management*. (3rd edition). New Delhi: PHI Learning Private Limited, p.97
- Podsakoff, P. M., Bommer, W. H., Podsakoff, N. P., and MacKenzie, S. B. (2006). Relationships between leader reward and punishment behavior and subordinate attitudes, perceptions, and behaviors: A meta-analytic review of existing and new research. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 99(2): 113-142.
- Podsakoff, P. M., Todor, W. D., Grover, R. A., and Huber, V. L. (1984). Situational moderators of leader reward and punishment behaviors: Fact or fiction? *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 34(1): 21-63.
- Podsakoff, P.M., MacKenzie, S.B., Moorman, S.B., and Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 1 (2): 107-42.
- Pradeep, D. D., and Prabhu, N. R. V. (2011). The relationship between effective leadership and employee performance. *Journal of Advancements in Information Technology*, 20: 198-207.
- Prasetya, A., and Kato, M. (2011, July). The effect of financial and non-financial compensation to the employee performance. In *The 2nd International Research Symposium in Service Management*. Yogyakarta, Indonesia.
- Quintana, T. A., Park, S., and Cabrera, Y. A. (2015). Assessing the effects of leadership styles on employees' outcomes in international luxury hotels. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 129(2): 469-489.
- Raja, A., and Palanichamy, P. (2012). Leadership styles and its impact on organisational commitment. *The Journal of commerce*, 3(4): 15-23.
- Rasool, H. F., Arfeen, I. U., Mothi, W., and Aslam, U. (2015). Leadership style and its impact on employee's performance in health sector of Pakistan. *University Research Journal*, 5(1): Article 08
- Raus, A. and Haita, M. (2011). Leadership Style, Organizational Culture and Work Motivation. *Managerial Challenges of the Contemporary Society*, 2: 256-260.
- Shafie, B., Baghersalimi, S., and Barghi, V. (2013) The relationship between leadership style and employee performance. *Singaporean Journal of Business Economics and Management Studies*, 2: 21-29.
- Shahhosseini, M., Silong, A.D., and Ismail, I. A. (2013). Relationship between transactional, transformational leaderships styles, emotional intelligence and job performance. *Journal of Arts, Science and Commerce*, 4(1): 15-22
- Sharma, M. K., and Jain, S. (2013). Leadership management: Principles, models and theories. *Global Journal of Management and Business Studies*, 3(3): 309-318.

- Sharma, S., & Nair, M. (2018). Analyzing the efficacy of transformational and transactional leadership styles on employee performance (with special reference of small and medium enterprise of JAIPUR city). *NOLEGEIN-Journal of Management Information Systems*, 12-22.
- Soumia, A., Rabah, I., Abdelaziz, K., and Mohamed, M.A. (2013). Components oriented method for evaluation of e-Government information systems agility. *Research Journal of Recent Sciences*, 2(7): 57-65.
- Stogdill, R. M. (1974). *Handbook of leadership*. New York: Free Press
- Tabachnick B. G., and Fidell, L. S. (2013). *Using multivariate statistics* (6th edition). Boston: Pearson Education Limited
- Thamrin, H. M. (2012). The influence of transformational leadership and organizational commitment on job satisfaction and employee performance. *International Journal of Innovation, Management and Technology*, 3(5). <https://doi.org/10.7763/IJIMT.299>. Accessed 30th November 2017.
- Tsigu, G. T., and Rao, D. P. (2015). Leadership styles: Their impact on job outcomes in Ethiopian banking industry. *ZENITH International Journal of Business Economics and Management Research*, 5(2): 41-52.
- Ugwu, C. I. (2018). Mediation effect of knowledge management on the relationship between transformational leadership and job performance of librarians in university libraries in Nigeria. *Journal of Librarianship and Information Science*, (2014). <https://doi.org/10.1177/0961000618763715>
- Yousef, D.A. (2000). Organizational commitment: A mediator of the relationships of leadership behavior with job satisfaction and performance in a non-Western Country. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 15(1): 6-24.
- Yukl, G. (2006). *Leadership in organizations* (6th edition). New Jersey: Pearson- Prentice Hall
- Zhu, Q., & Wang, P. (2018, August). The Influence of Leadership Style on Employees' Innovative Behavior—The Adjustment of Bicultural Self. In J. Xu et al. (eds.), *Proceedings of the Twelfth International Conference on Management Science and Engineering Management* (pp. 1109-1121). Springer, Cham.

Board vs. CEO – A Review on Conflicts and Dilemmas in Initiating Strategic Change

Ernest Mwasalwiba
Mzumbe University
ernestmwasalwiba@mzumbe.ac.tz

Abstract: *The paper brings into focus the power struggle existing between the board of directors and chief executives during a time of strategic change. Based on a thematic review of the literature, dilemmas surrounding the ability of boards to direct change are discussed. The discussion is brought-forth amid current calls for boards, in both private and public corporations, to be more involved shaping strategy and taking accountability for the same.*

It is argued here that board's ability to direct strategic change, works against potential inhibiting CEOs [and senior management teams], characterized with an inherent preference for status quo and external sources of powers beyond the board. No single panacea to board effectiveness is given. However, results from this review indicate that board capital, board process, ethical tone and level of board accountability are among the antecedents observed in powerful boards across the globe.

Keywords: *Governance, change, board, management*

Introduction

Governance and management are interrelated concepts and often discussed under the same umbrella (Ofiso, 2015). This overlap is due to the fact that both of them are associated with getting things done, hence causing a very narrow line of differences between the two. However, it is generally agreed that governance is more about policy and decision-making and management is on the implementation part of it (Ofiso, 2015; Tihanyi et al, 2014; Bader, 2008).

This paper attempts to discuss the two, but with a more focus on how they come into conflict during the time of change. The discussion is narrowed to the corporate level, where the roles of the board (as charged with governance) come into conflict or harmony with those of the CEO/management of the firm when initiating, influencing and directing a strategic change at the firm level.

In the remaining parts of the paper, the methods used in writing the paper are described. Later the concept of change is narrated. This is followed by an in-depth discussion on the link and

possible overlaps between governance and management, and factors that determine board ability to influence change. The possible conflict between the board and CEO are brought into attention. The paper ends with a number of policy and practical recommendation.

Methods

A review of scholarly and policy literature was conducted. The review was centered in areas of [corporate] governance, organizational change, and strategic management. Most of the reviewed literature was obtained from a digital library of academic journals, books, and primary sources namely: JSTOR (i.e. Journal Storage at www.jstor.org).

Unlike a systematic literature review, this review did not pay strict attention in controlling possible issues of the author's biases (cf. Mwasalwiba, 2010; Fung, V et al, 2010). Literature were selected for inclusion in the review mainly based on their relevance to the theme (or sub-theme) under review. The structure of argument, discussions and resulting conclusions were also arranged to follow the key themes that guided the literature search.

Change and the Changing Corporate Environment

The shift in organizational change debate

Trending scholarly debates on organizational change have themselves changed. They tend to be less on speed of change and more towards the different coping strategies that firms employ to stay viable and or maintain their competitive advantages.

Specifically, questions are now being asked on the ability of existing governance structures and management strategies in navigating their firms in what seems to be more turbulent waters of regulatory complications, ethical dilemmas, technological changes, and increasing local and global competition, just to mention a few. Of special interest, at least in this article, are the roles and conflicting interactions of governing boards and firm's management in initiating and implementing strategic changes. The concept of change is here used to mean how firms modify their business domain, strategies, structures and/ or internal processes as a result of changes of some internal or external forces (Weitzner and Peridis, 2012; Goodstein and Boeker, 1991; Gioia and Cittipedi, 1991).

Sources of change

It has long been argued that change is inevitable, and the firms' ability to adapt to changes may as well determine not only the firm's performance but also its survival. In recent decades, businesses have seen increasing emphasis on adoption to changes as a critical driver of organizational success. Millstein (1997) observed that organizations, both private and state-owned, have become chameleon-type legal beings. They frequently change so as to adapt to the environments in which they are embedded (Millstein, 1997). The ability to change strategies is not only for fashion but also for a survival necessity.

Change is linked to development (Roche, 1994). Whether episodic or continuous, it is about moving to a future state. According to Schmitt's (1978) changes [or and states of affairs] are entities which occur to [or belong to] other entities on which they depend for their existence. In this case, a change of the said entities causes a change in the state of affairs in which organizations are embedded, both at the micro and macro level. It is indeed argued that organizations change due to changes in the trading environment, poor performance conditions, and in times of crisis.

Moreover, a shift in the political/ or regulatory environment, changes in technology, or even concerns on the firm's performance are some examples of what may motivate, if not to force, firms to initiate strategic changes (Weitzner and Peridis, 2012; Goodstein and Boeker, 1991). Successful firms are those which have taken advantage of important opportunities and managed to cope with consequential environmental threats. To remain competitive, members in the organisation governance have, from time to time, to alter their way of thinking and to either influence or support continuous and transformational changes to internal values and meanings, service or product domain, strategies, structures and internal processes (Cohen, 1999; Gioia and Cittipedi, 1991; Goodstein and Boeker, 1991).

Governance vs. Management

Defining governance

The OECD (2015) has defined [corporate] governance as a set of relationships between an organization's management; its board, its shareholders and other stakeholders. It also provides the structure through which the objectives of the organizations are defined, the means to reach those objectives and how performance is determined. In its simplest form, corporate governance is the system by which companies are directed and controlled. And boards of directors are responsible for the governance of their companies (Tihanyi et al, 2014). In a wider concept, governance is sometimes thematically separated in terms of "government governance" and "corporate governance" (Ofiso, 2015; Spanhove and Verhoest, 2007). Despite this separation, the essence of governance is that it is designed to work for the benefit of all the stakeholders.

Board and management relationship

The most interesting part in the OECD (2015) definition of corporate governance is "a set of relationships", especially the relationship between the board and management. This signifies a structure that time provides a separation of roles and responsibilities between the two. As Bader (2008) indicates, a thin line exists between governance and management. The board makes policy and strategy and management carries it out. From Bader's description, the board is more involved with the "what" than the "how" aspects of running the firm. This is also denoted as "doing the right things" as being the role of the governing body, vs. "doing things rights" as management's role.

The Board provides leadership and strategy and with more focus on the 'big picture' by planning the framework for work and ensuring it is done. The management, on the other hand, is responsible for organizing the work and operations. In some literature, however, the board is altogether considered to have a governing role (Tihanyi, et al, 2014), where corporate

governance is equal to what the board does to set the values of the company. This is distinct from the operational management of the company by fulltime executives.

Governance and management possible overlaps

In practice, however, especially in African public sector, there is almost blurred line between governance and management. In most cases, conflicts emerge on what the board does vs. management (Ofiso, 2015, Bader, 2008). Boards tend to stray from policy and oversight roles towards more operational issues. There are a number of factors that lead boards to stray into operational issues, including limited knowledge among board members and therefore they tend to pursue what is most familiar to them, or when the board loses faith in the CEO (Mitchell, 2010). Also, there could be a lack of clarity on roles and responsibilities of board vs. management. However, especially in the public sector, the board may step to intervene in operations due to what Ofiso (2015) terms as the inherent inseparable bonds that exist between elected and appointed officials, and civil servants. He, Ofiso, argues that they all network, collaborate, and brainstorm in doing the public business.

The close link between governance and management (or board – CEO/management relationships) have the potential to cause lack of balance within the firm, especially in times of crisis or when responding to major changes in operating environments.

Strategic Change and Role of the Board

As previously discussed, the board is responsible for governance (Millstein, 1997), hence the name governing board. Boards are primarily responsible for providing oversight, advice, and counsel to CEOs/ management, and monitoring and if necessary disciplining CEOs/ management. However, of recent, stakeholders have shown concerns on the ability or inability of boards to influence strategic changes.

Increased calls for boards to influence strategy

Increasing demand from all stakeholders for greater accountability in corporate decision making has forced boards to seek closer involvement in the strategic decision-making process. Scholars and policy-makers alike are now searching beyond the "usual suspects" on boards' inability to influence strategy (Finkelstein and Mooney, 2003; Golden and Zajac, 2001). In a study by Finkelstein and Mooney (2003), it was found out that factors like board size, the ratio of between outside vs. insider directors, and CEO dual roles did not have any effect on the board effectiveness or performance of the firm. These factors were once thought to be key for assuring boards' independence and effectiveness but trends increasingly indicate that they are not a panacea. In actual fact, it is established that even collapsed firms like WorldCom and Enron had given appropriate attention to these requirements.

Ineffectiveness of boards has led boards to be accused of “rubber stamping” or working as “tools of CEO and top management” to justify their decisions. (cf. Golden and Zajac, 2001). In the wake of massive corporate accidents in the late 1990s and the recent financial crisis, stakeholders are now pressuring boards to challenge CEO/ managements’ strategic leadership (Judge and Zeithaml, 1992).

Factors for board ability to influence strategy

Finkelstein and Mooney (2003) argues that what makes boards work better rests in areas that are largely ignored by both researchers and corporate regulators: *board capital, board process and accountability* (cf. Weitzner and Peridis, 2012; Haynes and Hillman, 2010; Golden and Zajac, 2001; Goodstein et al, 1994).

Board capital

The term board capital is well discussed in Haynes and Hillman (2010). Board capital combines two items namely: human and social capital. Human capital is associated with the directors' knowledge and expertise or skills that will be used as a contribution to the firm. Social capital is paying regard to how the director is connected to the industry, including his peers and his/her networks within the environment in which the firm operates. According to this school of thought, the effectiveness of the boards to influence strategy is significantly determined by the depth and breadth of its human and social capital. This is considered for individual directors and the board as a whole. Issues of board diversity are also considered here (Haynes and Hillman, 2010; Erakovic and Goel, 2008; Goodstein et al, 1994).

In this line of argument, appointing authorities are challenged to look beyond the "usual" requirements. It is increasingly proven that the overall quality and effectiveness of the board is not determined by how balanced are factors that assure the board's independence and representativeness (Goodstein et al, 1994). As a matter of fact, balancing these factors has proven even harder, especially for State-owned Enterprises (SOEs). In some places, directors might be given a place at the SOE board by virtue of their political connections, and technical know-who rather than for their professional skills and industry expertise (Armstrong, 2015; Carrigan, 2014).

Board process

Board process looks at what and how the board does to exert influence and govern. According to Golden and Zajac (2001), the degree of board involvement in monitoring and evaluating the CEO is positively associated with the board's ability to influence strategic change.

Boards can either be passive/ dormant or active in their involvement with the firm (Weitzner and Peridis, 2012; Adams et al, 2010; Erakovic and Goel, 2008; Finkelstein and Mooney, 2003).

Passive board

Passive board's primary task is limited to monitoring the activities of senior management and advising management when their counsel is sought. This is, unfortunately, the dominant feature of most boards. This is because, traditionally, it has been perceived that to be asked to become a board member is more an honor than a responsibility. In turn, such members of the board become less active during board meetings. Moreover, many outside directors usually believe that it is not their role to challenge management beyond asking a few questions at board meetings. This has also continued to make external board members to be passive participants.

On the CEO/ management side, Firstenberg (2008) observes that boards may become passive or ineffective due to the fact that managements may not be doing an adequate job of delivering vital information on changes to their internal financial controls. And apparently, board members are not demanding the type of information needed to help boards avoid disaster. External members may have not learned the business of the organization and thus continue to be generally passive

recipients of often bland reports by management, uncritically accepting the organization's financial status, rarely striking at the heart of a presentation or asking probing questions or insisting a new direction be examined. There is little realistic evaluation of the organization's strengths and weaknesses or challenge to the status quo. Too frequently, routine prevails and board meetings are conducted in a state of non-contentious fellowship and board taking a 'business as usual' stance."

A report on the collapse of WorldCom by Beresford et al (2003) associates the passiveness of its board as a major factor. It was reported that the company's board did little to monitor or influence what was going on at the company. The board and its committees did not function in a way that made it likely that they would notice red flags. The outside directors had little or no involvement in the company's business other than through attendance at board meetings.

A passive board is usually treated by the CEO/ and top management merely as a source of legitimacy (similar to auditors and monitors). The only time that the board may seek to influence profound organizational change is when organizational performance is put in question or when a crisis has occurred (Alexander, et al. 2006), or strong external pressure is pushing the board to do something (Judge and Zeithaml, 1992).

The working approach for dormant boards is ex-post, or re-active and after event. The board is usually unable to reach an informed and independent decision because their main basis of board's decision is information and reports prepared by the top management. Such information, especially in times of crisis, is likely to be skewed towards the CEO's or top management strategic preferences.

Proactive board

Proactive boards, on the other hand, have more "strategic control" of the firm. Their approach is characterized by the directors' active role in accumulating, investigating and exchanging information from internal and external sources relating to both the industry and the firm. A proactive board is informed and want to be engaged, both to fulfill their legal obligations and to leverage their time and talent to advice the CEO and top management (Erakovic and Goel, 2008; Bader, 2008).

However, the active boards are largely dependent on board power and depth and quality of information they possess. This is however affected by the power of the CEO/ top management. Board power, according to Finkelstein (1992), means the capacity of an individual board member (or whole board) to exert their will.

From this argument, it is obvious that unless the board is well informed and powerful in itself, it will not be able to influence strategy. This is more challenging, especially when the board is working with a powerful or dominant CEO/ top management. Powerful CEOs, as it will be discussed later, have tendencies to discourage any attempts by the board to change the status quo (Finkelstein and Mooney, 2003; Golden and Zajac, 2001).

Board's ethical considerations

In the wake of corporate accidents in the late 90's and the recent financial crisis, active boards have focused their attention on ethical considerations of CEO/ top management strategic decisions for change or adoption of new innovations.

The consideration of ethical issues comes due to the fact that when strategic changes are proposed, especially by the CEO/ firm's management, the focus becomes more on the potential returns than the associated risks and the potential ethical dilemmas. Weitzner and Peridis (2011) observe that, when managers seek to implement innovations, they are unlikely to take into account the full array of social and ethical risks in their strategic calculations. It is here where major risks are usually taken, including putting the firm in situations that compromise ethical and regulatory requirements (Millstein, 1998). A failure in oversight at board level, especially on the board's limited assessment of ethical issues, usually leads to a major corporate crisis affecting the firm management, stakeholders, and the individual board members.

Board accountability

Accountability is another crucial aspect of well-performing boards. Frances et al (2013) consider accountability of board in terms of reporting of their activities and performance. This also goes as far as being penalized for the failure of governance and, for directing strategic decisions and changes that have proved detrimental.

Unfortunately, accountability at board level has not gained much attention, even when the organisations go off the rails due to poor governance. Trower and Eckel (2016) point out that board needs to behave in ways that make sure that they are doing their collective best to move the firm or state system forward. According to Trower and Eckel (2016), boards are legally bound by the duties of care (exercising diligent oversight, being prepared for meetings), loyalty (placing organizational interest over self-interest, ensuring no conflicts of interest) and obedience (staying true to the firm's mission).

CEO Power Over the Board and Preference of Status Quo

Active boards are what most stakeholders would prefer. However, there are some two lines of debate shadowing active boards: *First*, the extent on which the board can get involved into the firm's affair without crossing the thin line between oversight and management; and *second* how the board deals with powerful CEO and top management who have their belief on the status quo?

Concerns on the extent of board involvement

In normal circumstances, where goal congruence exists, the board, CEO and management work in harmony within their lines of responsibilities. The CEO and top management act as architects, assimilators, and facilitators of strategic change. The board, when fully informed, discusses and endorses the changes. The initiation of the change process involves a set of top management activities that are geared towards the adoption and implementation of the overall change process (Gioia and Cittipediti, 1991). The board will from time to time be informed and provide guidance.

However, the path is not so smooth where differences between the board and CEO exist. The quest for more board involvement in engaging the CEO/ top management exposed the board to possible conflicts and resistances from firm's CEO/ or top management. Weitzner and Peridis (2012) argued that usually, managers tend to resist inferences from the board in their value-

creating activities until the firm reaches the point of crisis. The adoption of the proposed strategic changes (or maintenance of status quo) hinges on which side is more powerful than the other.

Effect of powerful CEOs and top management preferences

CEO/ top management preferences have limiting effects on the board's influence on change (Haynes and Hillman, 2010). This is especially true when the firm's CEO is more powerful than the board chairperson [or whole board].

CEO power may come from multiple sources, including structural power and hierarchy, ownership or share in the company, expertise, and experience, role duality, and the ratio of members appointed – internal vs. external. In extreme cases, CEOs may become powerful due to individual financial wealth and political connection within the government.

A powerful CEO commitment to status quo, and beliefs on the correctness of current strategy have always been challenging for the board to influence and direct the needed change (Haynes and Hillman, 2010; Golden and Zajac, 2001). Powerful CEOs, through a variety of behaviors, will ensure that the board has essentially no effect on the firm's strategy or changes in that strategy. In meetings, the agenda items will be largely controlled by the CEO (Erakovic and Sanjay, 2008).

The dominant CEO will discourage constructive conflicts that are likely to push the board's agenda for strategic change (Finkestein and Mooney, 2003; Golden and Zajac, 2001). The CEO/ top management position will only soften when the status quo is potentially putting them in visible crisis, hence the need for board support and legitimacy (Weitzner and Peridis, 2012).

In SOE the case of board involvement in strategy is even more complicated by a set of relationship, especially between: the chair and the board; the chair and the CEO; the CEO and the board; the minister and the board; the triangle relationship between minister, CEO and chair; and government representatives on boards where their roles could conflict (Edwards and Clough, 2005).

Conclusion, Limitations and Recommendations

Dynamics in the trading environment necessitates firms to change their strategic direction. This is especially true when a firm is facing a radical shift in any of the factors in the environment in which it is embedded. It has been however discussed that management and boards of directors have an opportunity to bring about positive strategic changes when engaged in constructive conflicts. Of significance is boards' ability to influence changes that the CEO/ top management will ultimately implement. Boards' ability is highly determined by the board's power to exert their will and [depth and breadth] of human and social capital of the board. However, on the other side of the conflict, boards have to face the powerful CEOs and his/ her top management team who have the tendency to defend the status quo and resist boards' proposals for a strategic direction that differ from their preferences.

The paper has limitations that are inherent to literature review-based works (e.g. including possible bias in searching and selecting papers for inclusion and combining both theoretical and empirical studies in the review). However, the discussions in this paper have brought about a number of implications both for policy and practice.

At the policy level, for example, governance should be preceded by a set of expectations by the government or owners as the case may be. Such expectations on the direction and performance of the firm should trickle down to the board and management. It is also obvious that an effective board should be composed of members that have both the skills and knowledge of the industry – board capital and power. Also although maintaining board independence and representation of key stakeholders remain important factors, it is, however, true these features were also maintained even in the collapsed firms. It is therefore evident that appointing authorities must look beyond the normal attributes; consideration should be made on having in place proper mechanisms that will seek the balance between board capital and power of the CEO. In State-Owned Enterprises (SOEs), and in order to facilitate the appointment of board members with both human and social capital, appointing authorities should create a transparent process for nominating and electing board members pursuant to criteria which identify the skills and experience that should ideally make up the composition of the board.

Regular evaluation of boards' effectiveness should be done. This is necessary to maintain board accountability for the performance of both the firm and the board. Evaluations may be into scenario i.e. evaluation by appointing authority and board self-evaluation. Whatever the approach a formal policy should set, especially in SOE, where board's will be evaluated and held accountable based on a number of performance related factors include firm performance and level of strategic influence / decision the board has made. Some form of independent evaluations should also be considered where the board would be evaluated using external firms or bodies.

At board level: During their tenure, boards should clearly seek to be proactive in engaging in constructive conflicts with CEOs and top management. However, as it has been given earlier, this is only possible if directors constantly search and accumulate information on the firm and industry beyond that which is provided by the firm's management. Boards should take more control of the strategic directions of their firms and consider possible ethical dilemmas, and be ready to make known their stand on different issues. A board member could improve their director's activist by having an owner's mindset. Only when they think like they own the firm is when they will get deeply involved in developing strategy and monitoring risk. Activist directors are always willing to say what is uncomfortable. However, the owner's mindset will also require outside directors to possess a strong understanding of the industry, so that they can challenge management effectively.

In the end, boards should have a formal method of evaluating the performance of the CEO/ top management. It is also important to include questions about the sufficiency of the information the CEO/ top management provided to the board and how well the CEO got along with the other directors. The purpose is to give the board power over the CEO and to signal to the CEO that these issues are important to the board and to address any problems at an early stage.

Although most of the above recommendations are mostly for making boards more active, they are however not bulletproof. Boards ability to influence and direct change will always be a demanding challenge that board still depend on the collegial working relationship with the CEO/

management who at the end be responsible for implementation. At stake is the balance between oversight and management – a line, though thin, should always be maintained.

References

- ACGN (2016) *State of Corporate Governance in Africa: An Overview of 13 Countries*. [Online]
- Alexander, J et al (2006) The effect of governing board configuration on profound organizational change in hospitals, *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, Vol. 47, No. 3, pp. 291 – 308
- Armstrong, P (2015) Corporate Governance and State-owned Enterprises, *Ethical Boardroom*; [online]
http://www.ifc.org/wps/wcm/connect/1299668047f4ee8bae58ff299ede9589/EB_IFC_Phil_Armstrong.pdf?MOD=AJPERES
- Bader, B (2008) Distinguishing Governance from Management, *Great Boards*, Vol. VIII, No. 3 [Online] <http://www.greatboards.org/newsletter/reprints/Great-Boards-fall-2008-reprint-distinguishing-governance-and-management.pdf>
- Erakovic, L and Sanjay, G (2008) Board-management relationships: resources and internal dynamics, *Management Review*, Vol. 19, No. 1/ 2, pp. 53 – 69
- Firstenberg, P (2008) *Transforming the dynamics of nonprofit boards: from passive to active agencies*; Baruch College, City University of New York
- Fung, V et al (2010) Meaningful Variation in Performance: A Systematic Literature Review, *Medical Care*, Vol. 48, No. 2, pp. 140-148
- Gilley, A et al (2009) Organizational Change: Motivation, Communication, and Leadership Effectiveness.
- Gioia, D and Chittipeddi, K (1991) Sense making and Sense giving in Strategic Change Initiation, *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 12, No. 6 pp. 433-448
- Golden, B and Zajac, E (2001) When will boards influence strategy? Inclination x power = strategic change, *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 22, pp. 1087 – 1111
- Goodstein, J and Boeker, W (1991) A New Perspective on Governance Structure Changes and Strategic Change, *The Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 34, No. 2, pp. 306-330
- Goodstein, J., Gautam, K. and Boeker, W (1994) the Effects of Board Size and Diversity on Strategic Change, *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 15, No. 3, pp. 241-250
- Haynes , K and Hillman, A (2010) The effect of Board Capital and CEO Power on Strategic Change, *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 31, No. 11, pp. 1145 – 1163
- Judge, W and Zeithaml, C (1992) Institutional and strategic choice perspectives on board involvement in the strategic decision making process, *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 35, No. 4, pp. 766 – 794
- Millstein, I (1997) the Responsible Board, *the Business Lawyer*, Vol. 52, No. 2, pp. 407 – 418
- Ngowi, H (2009) Economic development and change in Tanzania since independence: The political leadership factor. *African Journal of Political Science and International Relations*, Vol. 3, No.4, pp. 259-267
- OECD (2015), *G20/OECD Principles of Corporate Governance*, OECD Publishing, Paris [Online] <http://dx.doi.org/10.1787/9789264236882-en>
- Ofiso, C (2015) Evaluating Governance and Management in Africa: A utilitarian Perspective. *Proceedings of the University of VAASA, Working Papers 8, Public Management 5 Performance Improvement Quarterly*, Vol. 21, No. 4, pp. 75 – 94

- Roche, C (1994) Operationality in Turbulence: The Need for Change, *Development in Practice*, Vol. 4, No. 3, pp. 160-172
- Schmitt, F (1978), Change, *Philosophical Studies: An International Journal for Philosophy in the Analytic Tradition*, Vol. 34, No. 4, pp. 401-416
- Spanhove, J and Verhoest, K (2007) corporate governance vs. government governance: translation or adaptation? Paper presented at the EIASM 4th Workshop on Corporate Governance, BRUSSELS (November, 15-16 2007)
- Tihanyi, L et al (2014) From the Editors: Rethinking Governance in Management Research. *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 57, No. 6, 1535–1543.
- Wangwe, S et al (2016). *Learning to compete: the Performance of the Manufacturing Sector in Tanzania: Challenges and the Way Forward*. Working Paper No. 22, Brookings Institution [online] https://www.brookings.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/07/L2C_WP22_Wangwe-et-al-1.pdf
- Washoma, C (2016) Tanzania: Decoding ‘the Magufuli way’ and forging a path for constructive private sector engagement, *Africa Practice*, August, 2016 [online] <http://www.africappractice.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/08/Africa-InDepth-Tanzania-Decoding-the-Magufuli-Way-2016.pdf>
- Weitzner, D and Peridis, T (2011) Corporate Governance as Part of the Strategic Process: Rethinking the Role of the Board, *Journal of Business Ethics*, Vol. 102, pp. 33-42
- World Bank Group (2016) Doing Business Report for 2016 [online] <http://www.doingbusiness.org/reports/global-reports/doing-business-2016>

Employee Performance Measurement: A Reform Tool for Public Sector Governance in Tanzania

Francis K. Michael
University of Dar es Salaam Business School
fmichaelx@gmail.com

Abstract: *Tanzanian, HRM reforms were initiated to address non-transparent and patronizing HR practices in improving Public Sector Governance. Again, Public Service Reform Programme (PSRP) was initiated in Tanzania to enhance performance and accountability of employees within the public sector. However, Tanzanian National Audit Reports depicted continued inadequacies in HRM practices including employees' under performance and poor governance. This trend created the need to conduct this study by analysing the influence of employees' performance measurement on Public Sector Governance. Through a Survey, data, was collected from 276 public sector employees from four different regions of Tanzania. SEM (Structural Equation Modelling) was applied in data analysis. Study findings revealed that employee performance measurement has a significant positive relationship with the accountability part of Public Sector Governance, while OPRAS (Open Performance Review and Appraisal System) was positively related to both transparency and accountability. Moreover, findings revealed that political support, technology and culture, moderate partially the relationship between employees' performance measurement and Public Sector Governance. The study finally suggests that, in order to improve Public Sector governance, the Tanzanian government has to improve the system of employees' performance management, control political interference into HRM decisions, digitalise government HR processes, and transform employees' behaviour.*

Keywords: Performance Measurement, Human Resource Management Reforms, Public Sector Governance

Introduction

In many developing countries including Tanzania, public sector institutions face problems of poor performance and weak governance (World Bank, 1997; 2002). Therefore, in order to improve the state of governance in the public sector, public sector management reforms were introduced (Ashour, 2004; Chalu, 2014; Haque and Aziz, 1998; Sulle, 2011; Therkildsen, 2001; World Bank, 2000). It is worth noting here that, public sector reforms in Tanzania, occurred in two distinct waves of reforms; the first generation reforms included the Structural Adjustment Programme of the 1980s which was followed by the second generation of governance reforms that started in the mid-1990s (Grindle, 2002).

The first generation reforms focused on redefining the roles of the public sector, reducing its size and controlling the activities of public sector employees through Human Resource Management (HRM) practices such as retrenchments, pay reforms and payroll control (Grindle, 2002). The second generation reforms; started around the mid-1990s in a more broader scope, that sought to improve the Government's state and these reforms were inspired by the New Public Management (NPM) and good governance agenda which supported each other equally in the reduction of bureaucracies and red-tape. The NPM agenda was characterized by the adoption of private sector management concepts and styles, while the good governance agenda promotes transparent and accountable public sector, (Gray, 2007). However, it is argued that one of the key targets of NPM was the capacity to reform the public HRM as well. This was rendered necessary basing on the fact that Human Resource (HR) is the most vital asset and critical resource in both the private and public services (Battaglio and Condrey, 2006; Battaglio, 2009; Burns, 2007; Common, 2010; Kellough, Nigro, and Brewer, 2010; Kim, 2000). However with the fact that HR is regarded as the most vital asset in work organisations (Batton and Gold 2012), but still many developing countries including Tanzania have not yet put in place a regulatory mechanism that should be vested with the prerogative of overseeing and controlling the HRM practices in both Public and Private work organisations.

Moreover, these public sector reforms which are based on NPM, in most cases, underemphasize the importance of HRM, because of the strong emphasis on the requirement to downsize the establishment in the government and the combat against unnecessary government red-tape practices (Nogueira and Paranaguá de Santana, 2015). Since the publication of the NPM paradigm by Hood (1991), there is still a debate on the validity of its generalization in different contexts. It has been argued that NPM should have geographical model varieties between the implementing countries (Borins, 2002; Osborne, 2010). Therefore, an understanding of the institutional and cultural contexts is required before attempting to articulate HRM-type reforms (Common, 2010). Moreover, the organizations involved in NPM based reforms exist in a technological, political and cultural environment which differ from one country to another and from one organization to another (Chalu, 2014). Nevertheless, so little has been written about moves toward reform implementation and their influence on HRM reforms plus discussions on the recommendable contexts in which reforms are implemented are scanty as well (Carmeli, 2004; Salm and Schwab, 2016; Tidemand and Msami, 2010; OECD, 2015).

The Tanzanian government started to implement public service reform programmes since the independence era. However, in order to periodically implement these changes; The Public Service Reform Programme phase one (PSRPI) was implemented from 2000 to June 2007. The PSRPI was developed in pursuit of the reform demands with a thrust of "Instituting preferable Performance Management Systems." However, weak accountability emerged as a challenge for its implementation (URT, 2008; WB, 2008). Nevertheless, in order to curb the challenges encountered from PSRP I, PSRP II was launched and implemented from 2008 to 2012 with a focus on enhancing performance and accountability in the public sector. In the process, the Government installed a number of key management systems and processes in order to attain the predetermined focus. These systems and processes included the introduction of Performance Management System and Processes for HRM like the

Performance Appraisal tool, called the Open Performance Review and Appraisal System (OPRAS).

Although PSRP was implemented by the Government of Tanzania in order to improve governance in the public sector, the National Audit of Tanzania continued to report inadequacies in HRM practices and governance (CAG, 2016). These inadequacies, therefore, necessitated the need to study these reforms basing on HRM processes as part of public sector reforms in Tanzania with a focus on employees' performance measurement and the extent which these NPM based reforms influence the governance in the public sector. Furthermore, recent studies in Tanzania attest that there is not much in the literature on how employees are managed in the public sector in order to achieve commendable governance (Mutahaba, 2015; Therkildsen et al, 2007; Tidemand and Msami, 2010). Otherwise, Clarke and Wood (2001) argue that the culture and characteristics of the public service in Tanzania differ in terms of the implementation of NPM based reforms from that of the developed countries. Basing on the highlighted assertions, therefore, this study attempted to examine whether the prominent NPM based reform efforts in the HRM processes have an influence on the Public Sector Governance in the Tanzanian context. Hence, this argument created a need to conduct this study so as to bridge the observed gap and contribute to the knowledge of HRM reforms by specifically examining the influence of employees' performance measurement on the Public Sector Governance and to assess the moderating effect of the associated contingent factors i.e. technology used, support from political leaders and culture on the relationship between HRM reforms and public sector governance.

Theoretical Background

It has been argued that reforms in the public sector are based on NPM and Governance theory (Ostrom 2014; Van Assche et al 2014). The theoretical origins of NPM can be traced from within a variety of theoretical perspectives including the Principal-Agent theory (Gruening, 2001; Osborne and Gaebler, 1993). Since this study assesses the HRM processes as a part of the reforms, the Principal - Agency Theory was applied to guide our predictions so long as it views organizations as bundles of contracts binding workers and employers together (Eisenhardt, 1989). The Principal-Agent theory suggests a difference in the interests of the Principals (employers) and Agents (workers). Since HRM reforms were established to reinvent the way employees are managed in the public sector so as to improve governance in the sector, the Principal - Agency Theory was deemed suitable to guide the study basing on its dual focus of interests for both employers and employees.

It has been argued that NPM is geographically varied between the implementing countries (Borins, 2002). Since NPM based reform is not 'one size fits all aspect' as it varies between the implementing countries, in order to generalize it, contingent factors are to be emphasized as to when and how NPM can be successfully adopted (Hood, 1991; Polidano, 1999; WB, 2009). This assertion was clearly stated, that NPM based reform outcomes vary according to the specificity of the context they are applied, as argued by Borins (2002), Hood (1991), and Gaspar and Mkasiwa (2014). Therefore, as we eschew from HRM reforms studies that adopted the Contingency perspectives as their guiding theory in process of theory testing within those studies, this study takes to be guided by the Agency Theory, anchored with the

evolutionary Governance Theory in testing the developed model that predict the relationship effects of HRM reforms on Tanzanian Public Sector Governance.

Employees' Performance Measurement and Public Sector Governance

According to UN (2000), a key goal of the Human resource reform effort is to create a fair, equitable, transparent and measurable system of performance management. These efforts are attested to be able to introduce a performance-based management culture that recognizes and rewards excellent performance and adequately addresses under-performance anomalies. Nevertheless, the performance measurement tool is a key element of the organization's accountability system as well (Kelman and Friedman, 2009; Radnor and McGuire, 2004). A performance measurement tool is an instrument that should never be left out because it is the tool which enables employees at all levels to be held accountable for their performance.

Likewise, Public Sector Governance is concerned with the public sector's achievement of expected outcomes through public policy that is accountable and transparent to society (ANAO, 2014; Costantinos, 2011). Public Sector Governance has very broad coverage, including how an organization is managed, its culture, and the way it deals with its various stakeholders (Edwards et al, 2012). To deliver good governance in the public sector, individuals working for public sector entities must act in the public interest at all times and should avoid prioritizing self-interest, and in achieving this goal, employee performance measurement tool should never be left out (Ace, 2014).

Performance Management and Performance Measurement have often been used synonymously in different literature because they are closely related concepts (de Bruijn, 2007; Kelman and Friedman, 2009; Sanderson, 1998). But it is important to distinguish between the two processes. Basically, Performance Management is viewed more broadly as a management tool that seeks to improve the performance of an organization, as opposed to Performance Measurement which focuses more narrowly on the metrics used to determine how an organization is performing. Performance measurement is, therefore, seen as an essential and important tool of performance management. In this study, the term performance measurement is applied predominantly to focus on the metrics used to determine how individuals or an organization is performing. Performance measurement has become the focus of public organizations to address the issues of accountability and transparency. However, the debate on whether this management tool is fulfilling its role of performance improvement in public sector organizations remains uncertain (Kelman and Friedman, 2009; Radnor and McGuire, 2004).

Performance measurement is an ambiguous exercise in the public sector because of several factors, such as multiple-valued products to be measured and the dynamic environment which the measurements have to be taken (de Bruijn, 2007). Performance measurement systems are generally intended to be sources of legitimacy rather than as a means of adjusting organizational response in the context of the views expressed by clients (Sanderson, 1998). Literature in the public sector focused on performance measurement as a tool to assess performance and to demonstrate accountability through performance reporting of program

activities, which is basically not the essence of its existence. Although it can be argued that the utilization of performance measurement has many interpretations.

It is worth noting that, Performance measurement plays an important role in all countries which are undertaking HRM reforms, so as to provide public services in an accountable and transparent manner (Kim, 2000; Khan, 2014). Furthermore, Knill and Balint (2008) state that under NPM based reforms, performance measurement is obligatory to every employee, and it was based on this assertion that the Tanzania Public Service introduced the Open Performance Review and Appraisal System (OPRAS) for performance measurement purpose. However, it is argued that well-designed system of performance measurement which constitutes accountability is not as common in the public sector as in the private sector (Ashour, 2004).

The public service in Tanzania, introduced OPRAS as a tool to facilitate employee performance measurement by engaging employees to participate in the whole exercise of evaluating their performance (Bana, 2009; Lufunyo, 2013; Tidemand and Msami, 2010). This exercise includes the process of employees to be availed with feedback on their performance and also giving them the platform to discuss the measurements assigned to their performance. Nevertheless, various studies conducted in Tanzania argue that the implementation of this tool in relation to Public Sector Governance achievement is still debatable and understudied (Bana, 2009; Lufunyo, 2013; Shangali 2009; Tidemand and Msami, 2010). Likewise, these studies did not focus on the contingent factors which this study aimed to focus upon as well.

Many researchers have raised concerns on the notion of the involvement of participants as stakeholders who take part in the process of performance measurement (Goh, 2012). A study by Yang (2008) revealed that stakeholder participation in the development of employees' performance measurement is directly and positively related to honest performance reporting that enhance transparency and organizational effectiveness. Radnor and McGuire (2004) also concluded that when performance measurement was implemented solely as an administrative operational activity, managers became just administrators of the process, and minimized the essence of the exercise to a merely employee evaluation form filling activity. It is opined however that the adoption of best performance management practices will enhance morale and build a culture of accountability (Cobb, 2014; Mwombela, 2012). Therefore, inclining on all these arguments, this study hypothesized that:

H1: Employees' performance measurement has a significant positive relationship with Public Sector Governance

H1a: Performance measurement has a significant positive relationship with accountability

H1b: Performance measurement has a significant positive relationship with transparency

H1c: Open Performance Review and Appraisal System has a significant positive relationship with accountability

H1d: Open Performance Review and Appraisal System has a significant positive relationship with transparency

Evidence revealed that extensive investigations of performance measurement in developed countries have been carried out, though less has been done in the context of the developing countries (Mimba et al., 2007; Sabri and Jaber, 2007; Sunil and Rachita, 2009). Therefore,

this study, through a deductive approach was geared toward coming up with a theoretical contribution to Performance management as a tool for accountability. This theoretical contribution would add to the current understanding of performance measurement in developing countries, specifically Tanzania, where there occurs to have not many theoretical explanations on Performance management issues within public HRM studies.

Contingent Factors, HRM Reforms and Public Sector Governance

It is argued that HRM Reforms in the Public Sector Governance Model assumes that the reforms and their outcomes rely entirely on external factors. This assertion experienced a number of critics, simply because the NPM based HRM reforms exist in different technological, political and cultural environments, which have to be taken into consideration for the success of such reforms (Hood, 1991; Polidano, 1999). However, other studies on HRM reforms that focused on NPM did not consider the effects of these contingent factors which are not covered in most NPM based theories (Carmeli, 2004; Gaspar and Mkasiwa, 2015; Salm and Schwab, 2016; Tidemand and Msami, 2010; OECD, 2015).

It is argued that when reforming an organization, the existing organizational culture must be taken into account and a climate of trust should be established that supports the planned changes. (O'Donnell and Boyle 2008) However, organizational changes are often specifically introduced in order to improve the organizational culture and/or the organizational climate (Condrey, 1998). Likewise, it is opined that technological change is the leading agenda of NPM based reforms in the public sector as it is one of the significant ways by which people interact with the public servants at times (Dunleavy et al, 2006; Pollitt, 2012; Dunleavy and Carrera, 2013).

According to Verhoest, et al., (2004), the notion of public service autonomy depends on the degree of interference in HR decisions from the government. The study further attested that, if there are more interventions from the government through Ministers, Civil Service Commission, as the central personnel agency plus other top government officials, the HR decisions will have deemed to have less autonomy and will bear great potential for politicization (Ibid). In theory, if the head of the Public Service Commission is directly accountable to the government, the civil service will have little potential to prevent political patronage (Stanova, 2014). On the contrary, Stanova (Ibid) argues that if the Public Service Commission head is appointed by a council of ministers emanating from the coalition of political parties, or otherwise, the name of the potential head is passed through the parliament for approval, then the person would not solely be accountable to the government, but he or she would have confidence in him or herself in making decisions that would be even unpopular to the government and consequently the government will have less potential to pressurize the civil service for political patronage. Therefore, for successful implementation of HRM reforms in Tanzanian the public sector organizations, has to take into consideration the contingent factors in the environment. This led us to hypothesize that:

H2: There is a significant moderating effect of contingent factors on the relationship between employees' performance measurement and Public Sector Governance

H2a: Contingent factors have a significant moderating effect on the way performance measurement promote accountability

H2b: Contingent factors have a significant moderating effect on the way performance measurement promote transparency

H2c: Contingent factors have a significant moderating effect on the way Open Performance Review and Appraisal System promote accountability

H2d: Contingent factors have a significant moderating effect on the way Open Performance Review and Appraisal System promote transparency

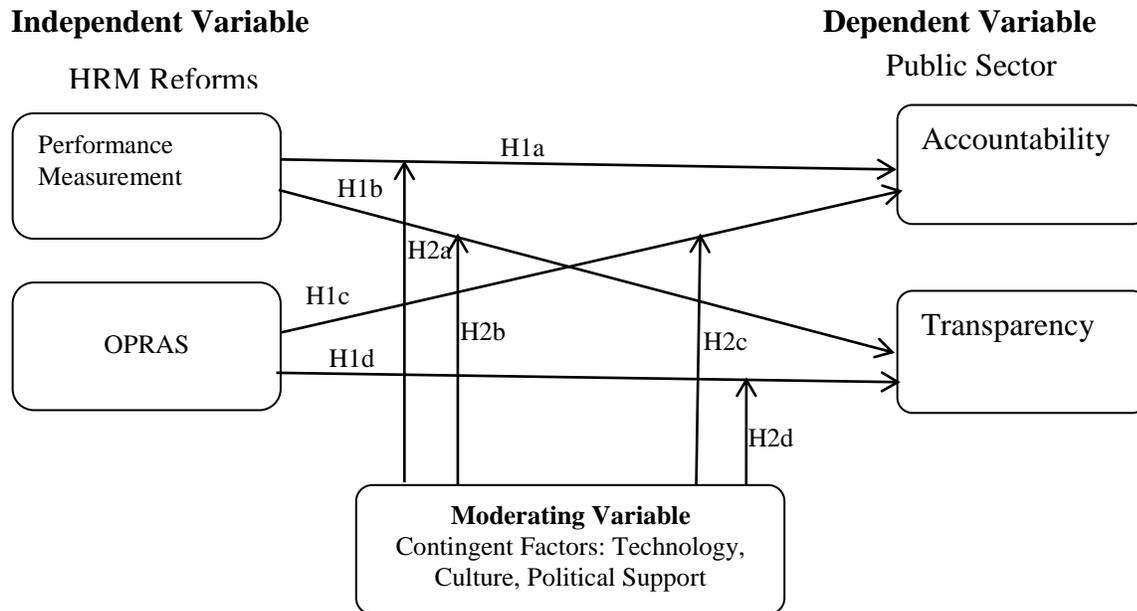


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework of the Study. Source: Synthesized from literature, (2018)

Research methodology

This study adopted the explanatory research design which applied a survey strategy. The study was conducted in Tanzanian Public Institutions which are located in three regions of Tanzania, namely Dar es Salaam, Dodoma, and Kigoma. The reasons backing the choice of these Regions were the facts deduced from a report by National Audit Office (2014), which outlined that, Dar es Salaam region was a good performer in HRM and governance, while Dodoma was leveled as an average performer and Kigoma was pointed out as a poor performer for three consecutive years. The population selected for the study covered public sector employees in the respective selected Tanzanian Regions.

The study applied the probability sampling technique, and the sample size was sought by applying the Taro (1967) formula which states that Sample size (S) is $S = n / (1 + n(e)^2)$, and from this formulae, the sample size of the study was determined. The sample size was calculated at 2% margin of error and a 98% confidence interval in order to arrive at a maximum sample size. Therefore 239 respondents were selected from public sector institutions in the selected regions of Tanzania.

A 5 point Likert scale structured questionnaires adopted from the COCOPS survey instrument (Hammerschmid et al, 2013) were used to collect primary data. The COCOPS project was an Executive Survey on Public Sector Reform in Europe, a survey of public sector senior executives which covered twenty European countries and it was conducted in 2011. The application of a questionnaire that was tailored and customized from the COCOPS instrument, made the questionnaire suitable for the selected data analysis tool. Public documents showing trends of these HRM reforms were reviewed as well in the deduction process of secondary data for the study. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was applied for data analysis as it tends to explain the optimal behavior of variables and to predict their future trends (Davicik, 2014). The researcher employed SEM as it allows making use of several indicator variables per construct simultaneously, which leads to more valid conclusions at the construct level (Kline, 2011). It also takes measurement error into account by explicitly including measurement error variables that correspond to the measurement error portions of observed variables (Hair et al. 2010).

Research results

Demographic Profile of the Respondents

Majority of the respondents were male (68%) while the female was only 32%. Majority of the respondents were in the age groups of 26-35 (40%) and 36-45 (35%) while those aged 56-65 were 11%. It was revealed that majority of the respondents (46%) had a master degree, followed by those with a bachelor degree (40%). Those with doctorate degree were 6% and those with diploma level of education were 7%. Out of 239 respondents in Tanzanian public institutions studied in this survey, 45% of the respondents were from MDAs, 29% of the respondents were from LGAs and 27% of the respondents were from other public institutions. Furthermore, a majority of respondents 67% were from Dar es Salaam region. The remaining respondents 24% were from Kigoma region and 8% were from Dodoma region.

Reliability and Validity

Confirmatory Factor Analysis was used to determine the measurement of reliability and validity of the variables in the study. As depicted in Figure 1 and the corresponding Table 1 below. The Measurement of goodness of fit indices for the study model was as follows: Cmin/Df = 2.050; CFI = 0.945; GFI = 0.867; AGFI = 0.830 and RMSEA = 0.64. Although GFI and AGFI was less than 0.90 and RMSEA was larger than 0.05, but the most important indices for testing goodness of fit, according to Hair et al., (2006), are Cmin/df which was less than 3.00 and CFI which was larger than 0.90, indicating the goodness of fit of the study model. Therefore, the measurement model could be concluded that it qualified for model goodness of fit.

Table 1: CFA of Dimensions and Items

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Standardized Regression Weights
OPRAS7	<---	OPRAS	1.000				.806
OPRAS6	<---	OPRAS	1.138	.082	13.854	***	.872
OPRAS5	<---	OPRAS	.795	.070	11.394	***	.701
PM2	<---	PM	1.000				.921
PM1	<---	PM	.956	.057	16.693	***	.903
ACC1	<---	ACC	1.000				.772
ACC4	<---	ACC	1.054	.077	13.698	***	.827
ACC6	<---	ACC	1.086	.080	13.583	***	.820
ACC7	<---	ACC	.919	.072	12.843	***	.781
TRAN2	<---	TRAN	1.000				.823
TRAN5	<---	TRAN	.795	.057	14.064	***	.783
TRAN6	<---	TRAN	.986	.063	15.717	***	.848
TRAN11	<---	TRAN	.906	.065	13.949	***	.778
TECH6	<---	TECH	.838	.051	16.313	***	.768
TECH4	<---	TECH	1.025	.042	24.126	***	.916
TECH3	<---	TECH	1.000				.923
TECH2	<---	TECH	.907	.042	21.403	***	.872
CULT13	<---	CULT	.932	.050	18.786	***	.851
CULT12	<---	CULT	1.005	.052	19.474	***	.867
CULT11	<---	CULT	1.000				.900
CULT8	<---	CULT	.859	.057	14.952	***	.751
POL9	<---	POL	1.000				.907
POL8	<---	POL	1.171	.043	26.931	***	.973

Figure 1: CFA Measurement Model

The convergent validity of the measurement model was assessed through the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) and Composite Reliability (CR). The CR value ranged between zero and one (0 – 1). The ideal level of standardized loadings for reflective indicators was 0.70 however, 0.60 was considered to be an acceptable level (Barclay et al., 1995). CR measures the overall reliability of a set of items loaded on a latent construct. The value ranged between zero and one, values greater than 0.70 reflect good reliability but also values which range between 0.60 – 0.70 are also considered to be acceptable if other indicators of the construct’s validity are good (Hair et al., 2006). Likewise, Discriminant validity check was done by comparing the AVE’s with the Squared Correlation for each of the constructs. The AVE of a latent variable should be higher than the squared correlations between the latent variable and all other latent variables. The rule of thumb for assessing discriminant validity requires that the squared tool of AVE be larger than the squared correlations between constructs (Cooper & Zmud, 1990, Hair et al., 1998).

Table 2 below indicates that all measures were found to be reasonably reliable with CR ranging between 0.837 and 0.927 which conformed to the criteria of internal consistency as attested by Hair *et al*, (2010). Furthermore, the AVE in each dimension was greater than 0.5

which supports the presence of discriminant validity (Malhotra and Dash, 2011; Hair *et al*, 2010).

Table 2: Reliability and Validity Tests Results

	CR	AV	MS	CUL	OPR	PM	ACC	TRA	TEC	PO
		E	V	T	AS			N	H	L
CULT	0.908	0.712	0.576	0.844						
OPRAS	0.837	0.634	0.362	0.362	0.796					
PM	0.908	0.832	0.362	0.312	0.602	0.912				
ACC	0.877	0.641	0.566	0.595	0.527	0.583	0.800			
TRAN	0.883	0.654	0.576	0.759	0.461	0.384	0.752	0.809		
TECH	0.927	0.760	0.254	0.464	0.486	0.391	0.411	0.504	0.872	
POL	0.919	0.741	0.039	0.197	0.027	-0.146	-0.077	0.025	-0.025	0.861

Structural Model - Hypotheses Testing

The SEM was run within the structural model framework by the application of AMOS 18 to test the formulated hypotheses (Figure 2). The full Structural Equation Model was taken into account and the hypotheses tested were related to the patterns of causal structure linking several variables in the study. Overall, most of the fit statistics met the minimum requirement of model goodness of fit acceptability range (Cmin/df = 1.895; GFI = .938; AGFI = .904; CFI = .974; and RMSEA = .059).

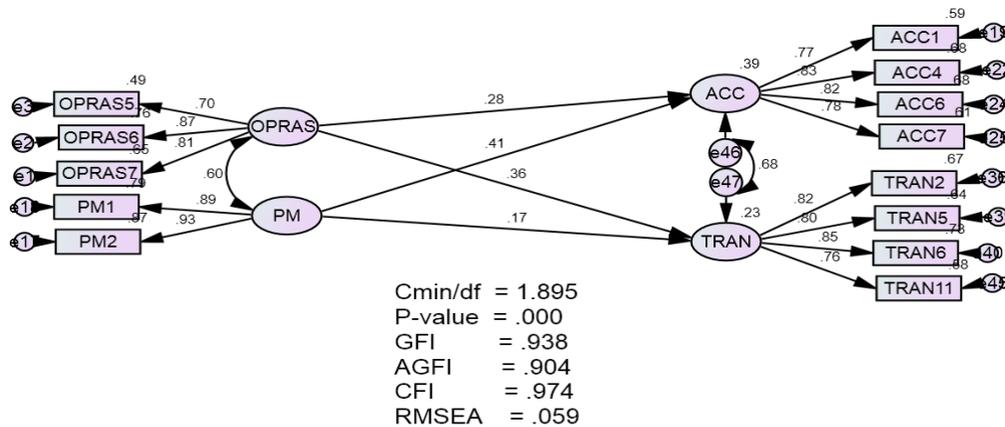


Figure 2: Structural Equation Model

Employees’ Performance Measurement and Public Sector Governance

The study hypothesis stated that “Employees’ performance measurement has a significant positive relationship with Public Sector Governance”. The employees’ performance

measurement was signified by performance measurement and OPRAS (the performance evaluation tool which is applied in the public sector). The Public Sector Governance was signified by accountability and transparency. The results indicated that employees' performance measurement influence significantly the Public Sector Governance. In other words, all the hypothesized paths in the model are supported at p-value <0.05 except for performance measurement influence on the transparency part of public sector governance. The standardized regression weights of the output and result of the hypotheses testing provide support for the hypotheses as presented in Table 3 below. However, it is worth noting that OPRAS has a stronger influence on transparency aspects of PSG (38%) than performance measurement (17%), while performance measurement system revealed to have a stronger influence on accountability (41%) than OPRAS (28%).

Table 3: SEM Estimates

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Standardized Regression Weights
ACC	<---	OPRAS	.228	.067	3.385	***	.277
TRAN	<---	OPRAS	.316	.079	3.991	***	.357
ACC	<---	PM	.345	.068	5.058	***	.415
TRAN	<---	PM	.149	.076	1.968	.049	.167
OPRAS7	<---	OPRAS	1.000				.807
OPRAS6	<---	OPRAS	1.138	.083	13.661	***	.873
OPRAS5	<---	OPRAS	.790	.070	11.309	***	.698
PM2	<---	PM	1.000				.934
PM1	<---	PM	.930	.058	16.154	***	.890
ACC1	<---	ACC	1.000				.770
ACC4	<---	ACC	1.056	.077	13.635	***	.827
ACC6	<---	ACC	1.091	.081	13.545	***	.822
ACC7	<---	ACC	.922	.072	12.793	***	.781
TRAN2	<---	TRAN	1.000				.817
TRAN5	<---	TRAN	.818	.058	14.139	***	.799
TRAN6	<---	TRAN	1.000	.065	15.373	***	.854
TRAN11	<---	TRAN	.894	.067	13.271	***	.761

Contingent Factors, Employees' Performance Measurement and Public Sector Governance

The study model assumed that HRM reforms and the outcome of the reform program i.e. Public Sector Governance rely on external factors. NPM based HRM reforms exist within the political, technological and cultural environment, factors which had to be taken into consideration for the effective success of such reforms (Hood, 1991; Polidano, 1999). Therefore, these arguments paved the way to the hypothesis that states that: *“There is a significant moderating effect of contingent factors on the relationship between employees' performance measurement and Public Sector Governance.”*

After taking into account that the study had a number of hypotheses aimed at testing the moderating effect of some of the variables, the researcher had to exhaust the necessary statistical rules for moderations in AMOS before conducting the final hypotheses testing of

the study. According to Hair *et al* (2010), moderations enable more precise explanation of causal effects relationships by providing an explanation of not only how X affects Y, but also, under what circumstances the effect of changes caused by X depends on the moderating variable of Z. Essentially, the moderation regression equation specifies that the slope of the line relating X to Y changes at different levels of Z, or equivalently, that the slope of the line relating Z to Y changes at different levels of X.

Saunders (1956) asserted that a product term accurately reflects a continuous variable interaction. Similarly, natural polynomial or powered variables (X_2 , X_3 , etc.) can be used to represent higher order nonlinear effects of a variable such as a quadratic or cubic trend of age or time. In determining whether slopes of regression lines for $X \rightarrow Y$ significantly differ at differing values of Z, it gives a way to calculate a P-value for the regression of $XZ \rightarrow Y$ through AMOS. The region of significance defines the specific values of “Z” at which the regression of “Y” on “X” moves from non-significance to significance (Preacher, 2007). But it is worth reckoning that there are lower and upper bounds to the region as well. In many cases, the regression of “Y” on the focal predictor is significant at values of the moderator that are “less” than the lower bound and “greater” than the upper bound, and the regression would be non-significant at values of the moderator falling “within” the region.

The moderation effect in this study was performed through SPSS by creating new variables by standardizing all variables in the model; OPRAS (ZOPRAS), performance measurement (ZPM), political support (ZPOL), technology (ZTECH), culture (ZCULT), accountability (ZACC) and transparency (ZTRANS) and then computing a product variable e.g. performance management system X political support (ZPM_x_ZPOL). Then the model was formed through AMOS, then checked for significance, and later adjusted as per the model goodness of fit requirements. However, when the moderations were significant, the moderations were plotted to make it much easier to interpret the moderation effects.

The Moderating Effect of Political Support on Employees’ Performance Measurement and Public Sector Governance

The hypothesis was set that stated: “*political support has a significant moderating effect on the way employees’ performance measurement promote Public Sector Governance.*” The results after testing the hypothesis indicated that the hypothesis was partially accepted, by indicating that only the effect of political support in the relationship between employees’ performance measurement and accountability variables was significantly different from zero (ZACC<---OPRAS_X_POL and ZACC<---PM_X_POL). However, the moderation of political support between employees’ performance measurement and transparency was not significant. This implies that political support has no moderation effect in a relationship between employees’ performance measurement and transparency side of Public Sector Governance.

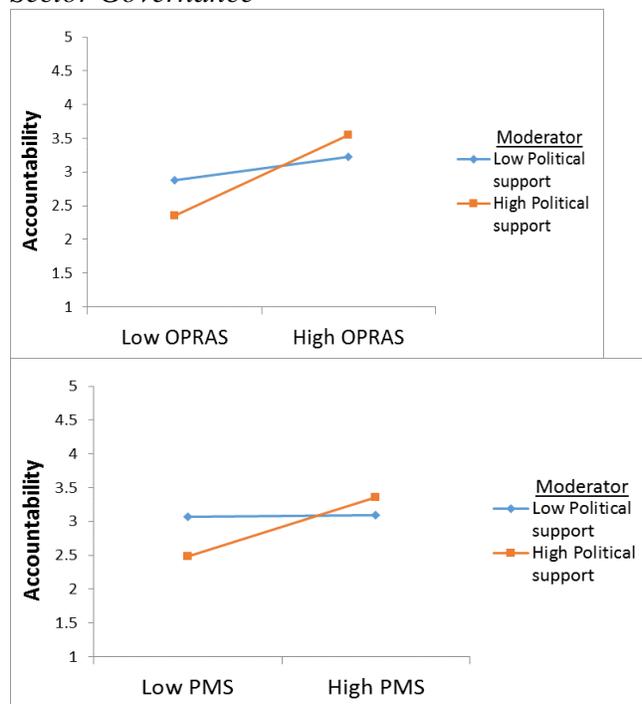
Table 4: Regression Weights of the Moderation Model Between Political Support, PM and PSG

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
ZACC	<---	ZOPRAS	.388	.056	6.928	***
ZACC	<---	OPRAS_X_POL	.212	.049	4.340	***
ZACC	<---	ZPOL	-.051	.054	-.955	.340

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
ZTRANS	<---	ZOPRAS	.138	.052	2.648	.008
ZTRANS	<---	ZACC	.601	.052	11.524	***
ZTRANS	<---	ZPM	.346	.059	5.909	***
ZACC	<---	ZPM	.225	.046	4.863	***
ZACC	<---	PM_X_POL	.217	.037	5.837	***
ZACC	<---	ZPOL	-.080	.041	-1.943	.052
ZACC	<---	ZTRANS	.553	.043	12.941	***

Table 4 results. Indicate that there is a moderation effect of political factors in the relationship between OPRAS and the accountability part of Public Sector governance only, and also there is a moderation effect of political factors in the relationship between performance measurement and the accountability part of Public Sector governance only. These significant moderations were plotted in diagram 1, so as to clearly interpret the moderation effects. Therefore, as shown in diagram 1, political support strengthens the positive relationship between both OPRAS and PMS with accountability.

Diagram 1: Political Support Moderation between Performance Measurement and Public Sector Governance



The Moderating Effect of Technology on Employees' Performance Measurement and Public Sector Governance

The hypothesis was set that stated that "technology has a significant moderating effect on the way employees' performance measurement promote Public Sector Governance." The results after testing the hypothesis indicated that the hypothesis was partially accepted, by indicating that only the effect of technology in the relationship between employee performance

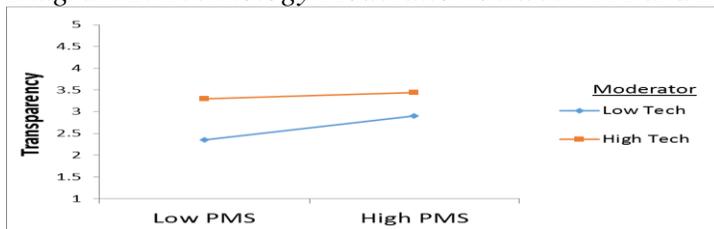
measurement and transparency part of Public Sector Governance variables were significantly different from (ZTRANS<---PM_X_TECH). However, it is worth noting that the moderation of moderating effect of technology in the relationship between performance measurement and accountability was not significant, so it was trimmed off. This implies that technology has no moderation effect in a relationship between performance measurement and accountability side of public sector governance.

Table 5: Regression Weights of the Moderation between Technology, PM and PSG

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
ZACC	<---	ZOPRAS	.356	.060	5.893	***
ZACC	<---	OPRAS_X_TECH	-.063	.041	-1.510	.131
ZACC	<---	ZTECH	.194	.063	3.074	.002
ZTRANS	<---	ZOPRAS	.058	.053	1.090	.276
ZTRANS	<---	OPRAS_X_TECH	.018	.034	.513	.608
ZTRANS	<---	ZTECH	.243	.053	4.601	***
ZTRANS	<---	ZACC	.550	.051	10.686	***
ZTRANS	<---	ZPM	.174	.058	2.995	.003
ZTRANS	<---	PM_X_TECH	-.102	.038	-2.698	.007
ZTRANS	<---	ZTECH	.371	.058	6.388	***
ZACC	<---	ZPM	.328	.046	7.184	***
ZACC	<---	ZTRANS	.551	.046	12.074	***

In reference to Table 5, the results indicate that there is a moderation effect of technology in the relationship between performance measurement and only the transparency part of PSG, and also there is no moderation effect of technology in the relationship between OPRAS and both accountability and transparency. The only significant moderation effect revealed was plotted in diagram 2, so as to clearly interpret the moderation effects. Therefore, as postulated in diagram 2, technology as a variable in the study negatively moderates (dampens) the positive relationship between performance measurement and transparency

Diagram 2: Technology Moderation between PM and Public Sector Governance



The Moderating Effect of Culture on Employees’ Performance Measurement and Public Sector Governance

The set hypothesis stated that “culture has a significant moderating effect on the way employees’ performance measurement promote Public Sector Governance.” The results after testing the hypothesis indicated that the hypothesis was partially accepted. This statement essentially implies that there is a significant moderation effect of culture in the relationship between both OPRAS and performance measurement with the transparency part of PSG only

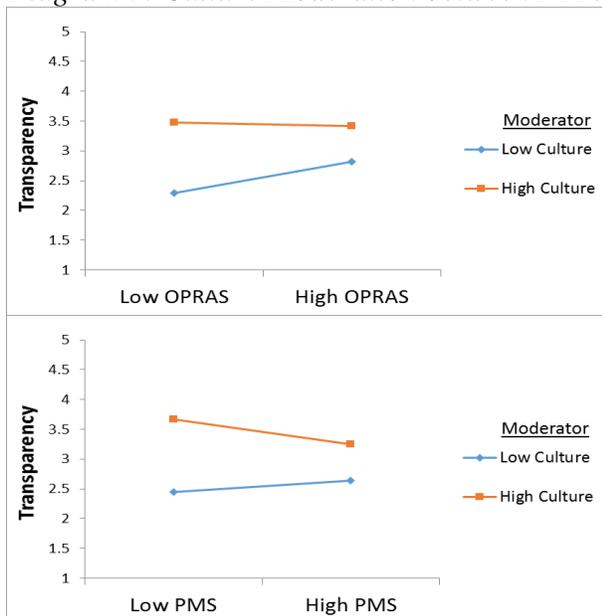
(ZTRANS<---OPRAS_X_CULT and ZTRANS<---PM_X_CULT). However, the moderation effect of culture between employees’ performance measurement and accountability was not significant, so it was trimmed off. This implies that culture has no moderation effect in the relationship between employees’ performance measurement and accountability side of public sector governance.

Table 6: Regression Weights of the Moderation between Culture, PM and PSG

			Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P
ZACC	<---	ZOPRAS	.319	.052	6.120	***
ZACC	<---	ZCULT	.435	.052	8.350	***
ZTRANS	<---	ZOPRAS	.117	.044	2.679	.007
ZTRANS	<---	OPRAS_X_CULT	-.149	.038	-3.935	***
ZTRANS	<---	ZCULT	.443	.046	9.598	***
ZTRANS	<---	ZACC	.359	.049	7.302	***
ZACC	<---	ZPM	.393	.050	7.919	***
ZACC	<---	ZCULT	.420	.049	8.501	***
ZTRANS	<---	ZPM	-.057	.047	-1.216	.224
ZTRANS	<---	PM_X_CULT	-.150	.035	-4.300	***
ZTRANS	<---	ZCULT	.459	.046	9.984	***
ZTRANS	<---	ZACC	.422	.051	8.215	***

In reference to Table 6 above, results indicate that there is a moderation effect of culture in the relationship between both OPRAS and performance measurement with the transparency part of PSG only. These significant moderations are plotted in diagram 3, so as to clearly interpret the moderation effects. Therefore, as postulated in diagram 3, the study asserts that culture negatively moderates (dampens) the positive relationship between OPRAS and transparency, and on the other side culture strengthens the negative relationship between performance measurement and transparency.

Diagram 3: Culture Moderation between PM and Public Sector Governance



Discussion and conclusion

The purpose of this study was to examine the influence of employees' performance measurement on Public Sector Governance. In previous studies, employees' performance measurement was found to be an important dimension of HRM reforms that was asserted to affect Public Sector Governance (Ashour, 2004; Cobb, 2014; Kim, 2000; Mwombela, 2012; UN, 2000). Moreover, these previous studies argue that employee performance measurement is a key element of the organization's accountability system and the adoption of best performance management practices would enhance morale and build a culture of accountability. For instance, Kim (2000) found that the main concerns of HRM reforms are productivity and employee performance in order to develop a civil service that is more accountable to the public. These views from these previous research are consistent with those of NPM theories that took into account that the Principal-Agent theory is concerned with the extraction of accountability and good performance from public servants (agents) and serving the interests of the public (principals) as attested by Bea and Göbel (1999), Gruening (2001), Larbi (2003), and O'Flynn (2007). Otherwise, the Principals in the theory would do not avail much information or details on the performance of the agents, a notion that would even jeopardize HR accountability in the sector.

Findings of this study indicate that employees' performance measurement has a significant positive relationship with the accountability part of the Public Sector Governance and not the transparency part. Moreover, the findings indicate that performance measurement tool applied by the public sector in Tanzania (OPRAS) has a significant relationship with both accountability and transparency parts of public sector governance. These findings are consistent with earlier studies already discussed in this section. However, these earlier studies did not focus their concerns on the influence of employee performance measurement on the transparency part of the public sector governance, a task which was undertaken by this study.

The second objective of this study hypothesized that contingent factors have a significant moderating effect on the relationship between employee performance measurement and public sector governance. HRM reforms have been employed by researchers to explain the achievement of Public Sector Governance in countries like the United States, Korea, China, and other developed countries (Burns, 2007; Common, 2010; Kim, 2000; UN, 2011). However, it has been argued that, under the contingent perspective, the implementation of these reforms may differ from one country to another due to existing differences in political, technological and cultural environments from country to country (Chalu, 2014; Hood, 1991; Polidano, 1999; Politt and Bouckaert, 2011; WB, 2009).

Other studies conducted by Scott (2001) Wood et al., (2008) and WB (2008) attested that HRM reforms cannot be successful or even act as a force for governance without strong political will from the leadership of the implementing countries. The findings of this study support the findings as the study attests that political support strongly influences the relationship between HRM reforms and Public Sector Governance. However, political support does not influence the relationship between employees' performance measurement and transparency part of Public Sector Governance as replicated from the study findings. This was also argued by Colley et al., (2012) who stated that the aspects of political nature of the public

service and centralized HRM are still relevant variables to be considered in the governance of developing countries.

Empirical findings demonstrate that the political nature of the public service and centralized personnel agency are still relevant in the public service of developing countries (Colley *et al.*, 2012). Also if there is more political intervention from the government and the ministers in the HR decisions, the public service commission is deemed to have less autonomy and be exposed at a greater risk of political patronage (Verhoest, Peters, Bouckaert, & Verschuere, 2004). Even though employees in the public service have no allegiance to any political party and they should also be appointed on merit, and they are required to serve any member of any political party in the government (Gomery, 2005; Jaensch, 1997; Keating, 1999; Mulgan, 1998). Likewise, it is opined that the success of HRM reforms depends on strong political will among the country's leadership (Wood *et al.*, 2008; World Bank, 2008). Moreover, the separation of the public sector HRM from politics helps to make merit-based HR decisions in place of politically inclined decisions (Burns, 2001). However, this assertion is subject to further critics because even with HRM experts and practitioners being available in both the Public and Private sector in Tanzania, still there is no regulatory body or rather a professional body to regulate the HRM competencies in the country.

Studies have argued that the digital era governance brought about a technological change which has significant effects on the way citizens interact with their public employees (Dunleavy and Carrera, 2013; Cukier, 2013; Dunleavy *et al.*, 2006; Pollitt, 2012). This technological change will enable increased accountability and transparency in the public sector as well. However, this change also has arguably brought in unintended consequences plus both unhappiness and happiness to most people as surprises (Margetts *et al.*, 2010; Pollitt, 2012). These arguments, however, are consistent with this study finding which revealed that technology has no significant moderating effect on the relationship between performance measurement and accountability. Moreover, technology has no significant moderating effect on the relationship between OPRAS and both accountability and transparency parts of Public Sector Governance. Furthermore, the study also postulates that technology minimizes the positive relationship between performance measurement and the transparency part of public sector governance.

Empirical findings considered that lack of corporate culture in African countries can be a barrier to successful implementation of public sector reforms (Hyden, 2005). Moreover, it is argued that, in most cases, developmental projects like public sector reforms which do not take into account the cultural dimension have failed (Gardner *et al.*, 2015). At the same time, HRM practices are in most cases influenced by culture differences (Hofstede, 1980; Trompenaars, Hampden-Turner, 2004). It is also argued that HRM reforms in developing countries aim at transforming employees' behaviors towards accountability. The findings of this study support the school of thought that argues that culture strengthen the negative relationship between performance measurement and transparency and also culture diminishes the positive relationship between OPRAS and transparency. Moreover, culture has no moderation effect in the relationship between employee's performance measurement and the accountability part of public sector governance.

Therefore, the study findings conclude that employees' performance measurement was found to be an important dimension of HRM reforms that have an effect on the accountability part of Public Sector Governance in Tanzania, as it is argued in other studies by Ashour (2004), Cobb (2014), Kim (2000), Mwombela (2012) and UN (2000). In addition, the findings suggest that in order to implement best performance management practices so as to achieve good Public Sector governance in Tanzania, the performance measurement tool used (OPRAS) has to be implemented effectively as it has an influence in achieving good performance in the sector. Moreover, to enhance effective governance in the public sector, a 360-degree method of assessing performance has to be considered as suggested by Kim (2000).

Generally, the conclusion drawn from this study states that good Public Sector Governance can be achieved from the implementation of HRM reforms with the consideration of technological improvement in digitalising government institutions; the government has to control political interference and increase support to these HRM reforms. It is also advised that employees' behaviours be transformed to suite the contemporary competitive business model in employee performance and accountability. The establishment of an HRM regulatory mechanism is also another essential consideration for effective HRM practice in general.

References

- Ace, K. (2014) Debate: New guidance to improve Public Sector Governance. *Public Money & Management*, 34(6), 405-406.
- ANAO (2014) Public Sector Governance: Strengthening Performance through Good Governance, *Commonwealth of Australia*
- Andrew Gray, Bill Jenkins, (1993) "Codes of Accountability in the New Public Sector", *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal*, 6 (3)439-441
- Antonakas, N., Konstantopoulos, N. & Seimenis, I. (2014) Human Resource Management's Role in the Public Sector and the Level of Corruption: The Case of Greek Tax Administration. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 455-462.
- Ashour A.S. (2004) Integrity, Transparency and Accountability in Public Sector Human Resources Management, *UN DESA DPADM*
- AUCOIN, P. (1990), Administrative Reform in Public Management: Paradigms, Principles, Paradoxes and Pendulums. *Governance*, 3(2)115-137.
- Guy Peters B. (2001) *Comparative Government Public Administration Bureaucracy, 5th Edition*: Routledge, London
- Bana, B, and Shitindi, E. (2009) "Performance Management in the Tanzanian Public Service. Conference on Governance Excellence: Managing Human Potential," held at Arusha International Conference Centre, United Republic of Tanzania, from 2nd to 4th March.
- Bana, B. (2009). "Performance Management in the Tanzania Public Service" A Paper Presented at the Conference on Governance Excellence: Managing Human Potential" held at Arusha International Conference Centre, United Republic of Tanzania.
- Bratton, J. Gold, J (2012) *Human Resource Management: Theory and Practice, 5th Edition* Macmillan International Higher Education. London.

- Broadbent, J. Dietrich, M, & Laughlin, R. (1996) The Development of Principal–Agent, Contracting And Accountability Relationships In The Public Sector: Conceptual And Cultural Problems. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, 7(3), 259-284.
- Burns, J. (2007) Civil Service Reforms in China *OECD Journal on Budgeting*, 7(1), 1-25.
- Cerny, B.A. and Kaiser, H.F. (1977), "A Study of a Measure of Sampling Adequacy for Factor-Analytic Correlation Matrices," *Multivariate Behavioural Research*, 12, (1) 43-47
- Chalu, H. (2014). A Model of Accounting Information Systems in Contemporary Public Sector Organisations *a paper prepared for 8th International EIASM public sector conference Edinburgh, U.K.*
- Chang H. (2006) Development of performance measurement systems in quality management organisations *The Service Industries Journal* 26 (7)765-786
- Christensen, T. and Lægreid, P. (2001) 'A Transformative Perspective on Administrative Reforms', in T. Christensen and P. Lægreid (Eds) *New Public Management: The Transformation of Ideas and Practice*, pp. 13—42 Aldershot Ashgate
- Christopher Pollitt and Geert Bouckaert (2011) *Public Management Reform: A Comparative Analysis - New Public Management, Governance, and the Neo-Weberian State* *International Review of Administrative Sciences* 78(1):180-182.
- Cobb, A. (2014). "How Performance Management Can Drive Transparency and Accountability in Public Administration" ASPA
- Cogburn, J. D. (2005), the Benefits of Human Resource Centralization: Insights from a Survey of Human Resource Directors in a Decentralized State. *Public Administration Review*, 65(4)424-435
- Common, R. (2010) International trends in HRM in the public sector: Reform attempts in the Republic of Georgia. *International Journal of Public Sector Management*, 24(5), 421-434.
- Condrey, S.E (1998). *Handbook of Human Resource Management in Governments* San Francisco Jossey Bass
- Cooper, D., & Schindler, P. (2014) *Business research methods* 12th ed. Ed New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Costantinos, B. C. (2011), *Theories of Governance and New Public Management: Links to Understanding Welfare Policy Implementation*, *School of Graduate Studies Department of Public Management and Policy College of Business & Economics*, Addis Ababa University.
- Cramer, D (1998) *Fundamental statistics for social research: Step-by-step calculations and computer techniques using SPSS for Windows*, Routledge, London.
- Cramer, D. & Howitt, D. L. (2004) *The Sage dictionary of statistics: a practical resource for students in the social sciences*. Sage
- Creswell, J. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (4th Ed.). Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Pearson/Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Cutt, J., Trotter, L. & Lee, C., (1993) "Performance Measurement and Accountability in Canadian Universities," *Financial Accountability & Management*, 9(4) 255–266.
- De Bruijn, H. (2007). *Managing Performance in the Public Sector*. London, Routledge.
- Deleon, L. (1998), Accountability in a 'Reinvented' Government. *Public Administration*, 76(3)539–558.

- Doane, D. P.; Seward, L. E. (2011) Measuring Skewness: A Forgotten Statistic? *Journal of Statistics Education* 19, (2), 1-18
- Dunleavy P, Margetts H. (2010). the Second Wave of Digital Era Governance American Political Science Association Conf, Washington, DC
- Dunleavy, P., H. Margetts, S. Bastow, and J. Tinkler (2006) "New Public Management Is Dead—Long Live Digital-Era Governance." *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 16, (3) 467-494.
- Dunleavy, P.J., and Hood, C. (1994) "From Old Public Administration to New Public Management" *Public Money and Management* 14(3).9-16
- ECA (2015) Public Sector Management Reforms in Africa, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, <http://www.uneca.org>
- Edwards, M., Halligan, J., Horrigan, B., & Nicoll, G. (2012) Public Sector Governance in Australia *ANU E Press.*, Australia
- Gruening, G. (2001). Origin and theoretical basis of new public management *International Public Management Journal*, 4(1), 1-25
- Goh, S. C. (2012) "Making performance measurement systems more effective in public sector organizations", *Measuring Business Excellence*, 16(1)31-42,
- Hair, J., Black, W., Babin, B. & Anderson, R. (2010) *Multivariate data analysis* (Seventh edition, Pearson new international Ed. Prentice Hall
- Hammerschmid G. Oprisor A. & Štimac (2013) COCOPS Executive Survey on Public Sector Reform in Europe *Research Report*, ISSN 2211-2006
- Haque, N. U., & Aziz, J. (1998) Quality of Governance "Second-Generation" Civil Service Reform in Africa *IMF Working Paper*, 98/164
- Hays S. W. (2004) Trends and best practices in state and local human resource management: Lessons to be learned? *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 24(3)256-275.
- Hope, K. (2001). The new public management: Context and practice in Africa. *International Public Management Journal*, 4(2)119-134.
- Hopper, Trevor, Mathew Tsamenyi, Shahzad Uddin, and Danture Wickramasinghe (2009) Management accounting in less developed countries: what is known and what needs knowing. *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal* 22(3)469-514
- Hou, Y. Ingraham, P., Bretschneider, S., & Selden, S. C. (2000) Decentralization of Human Resource Management: Driving Forces and Implications *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 20(4) 9-22.
- Ian Gregory (2003) Ethics in Research *Continuum Research Methods*, A&C Black, ISBN
- Jones, S., Irani, Z., Sharif, A., and Themistocleous, M. (2004) "E-Government Evaluation: Reflections on two Organisational Studies," Proceedings of the 39th Hawaii International Conference on System Sciences, Hawaii.
- Kelman, S. and Friedman, J.N. (2009) 'Performance improvement and performance dysfunction: An empirical examination of distortionary impacts of the emergency room wait-time target in the English National Health Service', *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 19(4) 917-946.
- Kerry Ace, (2014) Debate: New guidance to improve Public Sector Governance, *Public Money & Management*. 34 (6)405-406
- Khan, H. (2014) "Public Personnel Management and Good Governance: An Analysis of President George W. Bush Administration". . *Journal of Social Science*, 3(1)7-22.

- Kim, P. (2000). Human Resource Management Reform in the Korean Civil Service, *Administrative Theory, & Praxis* 22(2), 326-334.
- Kline, R. (2011). *Principles and Practices of Structural Equation Modeling* 3rd Ed New York: The Guilford Press.
- Knill, C. & Balint, T. (2008) "Explaining Variation in Organizational Change: The Reform of Human Resource Management in the European Commission and the OECD". *Journal of European Public Policy*, 15(5) 669-690.
- Kolehmainen-Aiken, R-L (1997). Decentralization and human resources: implications and impact. *Human Resources for Health Development Journal*, 2(1), 1-14.
- Kumar, S., Gulati, R. (2009) "Measuring efficiency, effectiveness and performance of Indian public sector banks", *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 59(1)51-74
- Larbi, G.A. (2003), Overview of Public Sector Management Reform. *United Nations Research Institute for Social development*, Discussion paper 112.
- Li, F., Harmer, P., Duncan, T. E., Duncan, S. C., Acock, A., & Boles, S. (1998). Approaches to testing interaction effects using structural equation modeling methodology *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 33(1), 1-39
- Lufunyo, H. (2013). Impact of public sector reforms on service delivery in Tanzania *Journal of Public Administration and Policy Research J. Public Adm. Policy Res.*, 2(2), 26-49
- Malhotra N. K., Dash S. (2011). *Marketing Research an Applied Orientation* London: Pearson Publishing.
- Mayer-Schönberger and V, Cukier K. (2013) *Big Data: A Revolution That Will Transform How We Live, Work, and Think* Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Harcourt.
- Mkasiwa T.A, Gasper A.F. (2014) Complexities in Performance Measurement and the Reaction of Actors: The Case of Tanzania *Journal of Finance and Accounting* 2(3)41-50.
- Martinez, J., & Martineau, T. (1998) Rethinking Human Resources: An Agenda for the Millennium *Health Policy and Planning*, 13(4)345-358
- Massoi L. and Norman A. S (2009) Decentralisation by devolution in Tanzania: Reflections on community involvement in the planning process in Kizota Ward in Dodoma. *Journal of Public Administration and Policy Research*, 1(7)133-140.
- Mimba, N.P.S.H., van Helden, G.J. and Tillema, S. (2007). "Public Sector Performance Measurement in Developing Countries: A Literature Review and Research Agenda." *Journal of Accounting & Organizational Change* 3(3)192-208.
- Mulgan, R. (2000), 'Accountability': An Ever-Expanding Concept? *Public Administration*, 78: 555-573.
- Mutahaba, G. (2015). Human Resource Management: A Neglected Element in African Public Service Reforms, A Tool for Developing Capacities for Managing the Human Resource in Africa's Public Sector Institutions. *APS-HRMnet*, 73-87
- Mwombela, S. (2012) "Using Annual Performance Reports to Manage Public Resources in Tanzania" REPOA Brief.
- National Audit Office (2014) Annual General Report of the Controller and Auditor General *NAO United Republic of Tanzania*.
- National Audit Office (2016) Annual General Report of the Controller and Auditor General *NAO United Republic of Tanzania*.

- Nogueira and Paranaguá de Santana (2015), Human Resource Management and Public Sector Reforms: Trends and Origins of a New Approach, Discussion paper / Institute for Applied Economic Research. - Brasília: Rio de Janeiro: Ipea, ISSN 1415-4765.
- OECD (2004); the Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development (OECD) Annual Report
- OECD, (2005); Organisation for Economic Co-Operation and Development (OECD) Annual Report
- O'flynn, J. (2007). From New Public Management to Public Value: Paradigmatic Change and Managerial Implications. *Australian Journal of Public Administration*, 66(3)353-366.
- Osborne, D., & Gaebler, T. (1993) *Reinventing government: How the entrepreneurial spirit is transforming the public sector*. Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Pub.
- Ostrom, E (2014) Do institutions for collective action evolve? *Journal of Bioeconomics*, 16(1)3-30
- Pereira L. C. B and Cunnil, N. G. (1999) *O Público Não-Estatal Reforma does Estado*, Fundação Getúlio Vargas. Rio de Janeiro.
- Polidano, C. (1999). "Public Sector Reform in Developing Countries: The State Of Practice. Introduction: New Public Management, Old Hat"? *Journal of International Development J. Int. Dev.*, pp.373-375
- Pollitt, C., & Bouckaert, G. (2004) *Public management reform: A comparative analysis*. Oxford University Press, USA.
- Preacher, K. J., Rucker, D. D., & Hayes, A. F. (2007) Addressing moderated mediation hypotheses: Theory, methods, and prescriptions. *Multivariate behavioural research*, 42(1)185-227
- Pricewaterhouse Coopers. (2005). Human Resources management strategies to support organizational changes *PWC Survey for the 44th meeting of the Directors general responsible for Public Administration of the EU member states* Luxembourg
- Pricewaterhouse Coopers. (2013). Annual Report, www.pwc.co.uk/annualreport
- R. Murray Thomas (2003) *Blending Qualitative and Quantitative Research Methods in Theses and Dissertations*, Corwin Press,
- Radnor, Z., McGuire, M. (2004) "Performance management in the public sector: fact or fiction?", *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 53(3)245-260,
- Razali, N. M., & Wah, Y. B. (2011) Power comparisons of shapiro-wilk, kolmogorov-smirnov, lilliefors and anderson-darling tests *Journal of statistical modeling and analytics*, 2(1)21-33
- Rugumyambeto, J. (1998). Public Service Management: A Case for Reform. *Economic Management in Tanzania*, Tema Publishers
- Sabri, N. R., R. Jaber (2007). "Managerial Performance of Palestinian Local Government Transforming Government" *People, Process and Policy Journal* 1(4)350-363
- Sanderson, S. M. (1998) "New approaches to strategy: new ways of thinking for the millennium", *Management Decision*, 36(1)9-13
- Shapiro, S. S., Wilk M. B. (1965). An analysis of variance test for normality (complete samples) *Biometrika* 52 (3-4)591-611
- Schumacker, R. E., & Marcoulides, G. A. (1998) *Interaction and nonlinear effects in structural equation modeling* Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers

- Selden, S. C., Ingraham, P. W. and Jacobson, W. (2001), Human Resource Practices in State Government: Findings from a National Survey. *Public Administration Review*, 61(5)598–607.
- Shangali, T. (2009) “Recruitment and Selection in the Public Service: The Case of Tanzania”. CAPAM Featured Report: Perspectives in Human Resource Governance.
- Shim, D. (2001) ‘Recent Human Resources Developments in OECD Member Countries’ *Public Personnel Management*, 30(3)323 – 47
- Sinclair, Amanda, (1995). The chameleon of accountability: Forms and discourses, *Accounting, Organizations and Society Journal*, 20(2)219 – 237
- Staňová, L. (2014) Central civil service management structures as brokers of de-politicization and evidence based civil service management: *A typology. Human affairs*, 24(3)307-324
- Sulle, A. (2011). Result-Based Management in the Public Sector: A Decade of Experience for the Tanzanian Executive Agencies. *Journal of Service Science and Management*, 4(4) 499-506.
- Sunil Kumar and Rachita Gulati, (2009) "Measuring Efficiency, Effectiveness and Performance of Indian Public Sector Banks," *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management*, 59, (1).51-74.
- Susan Whittaker, Mick Marchington, (2003) "Devolving HR responsibility to the line: Threat, opportunity or partnership?" *Employee Relations*, 25, (3).245-261,
- Therkildsen, O. (2006). Elusive public sector reform in East and Southern Africa Public sector reform in developing countries: capacity challenges to improve services. Y. Bangura and G. Larbi. Basingstroke, Palgrave.
- Therkildsen, Ole. (2001). Efficiency, Accountability, and Implementation: Public Sector Reform in East and Southern Africa. Draft of Paper No. 3, Programme on Democracy, Governance and Human Rights, UNRISD, Geneva
- Todd Jordan, R. Paul Battaglio, Jr (2013) Are We There Yet? The State of Public Human Resource Management *Research Public Personnel Management* 43(1) 25 - 57
- UK Presidency of the EU, 1 July to 31 December 2005 - Overview and policy priorities
- United Nations (2005), UN Poverty Report, New York
- United Nations (2011) *Human Resources Management Reform* United Nations, Department of Management.
- United Republic of Tanzania (2008) Local Government Reform Program- Embedding Decentralisation by Devolution across the Government, Main Assessment Report, Prime Minister’s Office Regional Administration and Local Government, Dodoma
- United Republic of Tanzania (2009) Tanzania Enhanced Structural Adjustment Facility Policy Framework Paper, World Bank, Washington D.C.
- Van Assche, Kristof, Beunen, Raoul, Duineveld, Martijn (2014), *Evolutionary Governance Theory: an Introduction Springer*, Heidelberg.
- Verhoest, K., B. G. Peters, G. Bouckaert and B. Verschuere (2004) “The Study of Organizational Autonomy: A Conceptual Review”, *Public Administration and Development* 24, (2), 101-18.
- Verbeeten, F.H.M. (2008). “Performance Management Practices in Public Sector Organizations Impact on Performance”, *Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal*, 21 (3)427-454

- Vigoda, E. (2007). New Public Management *Encyclopedia of Public Administration and Public Policy, Second Edition (Print Version)*, 1321-1325.
- Wichowsky, A., Moynihan, D. P. (2008). Measuring how administration shapes citizenship: A policy feedback perspective on performance management. *Public Administration Review* 68(5)908-920.
- World Bank (2000) World Development Report 2000/2001: Attacking Poverty - overview. *World Development Report* Washington, DC: World Bank Group.
- World Bank (2008) Public Sector Reform: What Works and Why? *An IEG Evaluation of World Bank Support*, <http://www.worldbank.org/ieg>
- Yamane, Taro (1967). *Statistics: an introductory analysis*, 2nd Ed, New york
- Yang, S. A. (2008) “The Promotion of E-Government through the e-democracy practices in Korea” *Korea Journal of Local Information*, 11(3)31-54

NOTE TO AUTHORS

The Pan-African Journal of Business and Management (PAJBM) is an international Journal that publishes original research papers of academic interest. It contains peer reviewed solicited and unsolicited academic articles presenting research done in the business field in countries in Africa. The Journal accepts both conceptual, theoretical and research based articles. It also accepts cases, book reviews and summaries of dissertations.

The Editorial Board of PAJBM welcomes submission of manuscripts to be considered for publication. The manuscripts must be submitted with a cover letter stating that all authors agree with the content and the submission to PAJBM. Complete contact information of the author to whom all correspondence regarding the manuscript should be addressed must be included.

All submissions will be peer reviewed by at least two anonymous reviewers who will be looking for the scientific quality of the submitted papers. The Editorial Board reserves the right to accept or reject any manuscript and also the right to edit the manuscripts as it sees fit. A decision on every manuscript should be made in a timely manner and communicated to the authors.

Submission guidelines

To facilitate the double-blind peer-review process, **each submission should be broken into two separate files:** (1) Title Page and (2) Main Document. Identifying information should not appear anywhere within the main document file.

FILE 1: Title Page

- 1) Title
- 2) Author(s) name, title, institution, address, telephone number, and e-mail address.
State to whom (if more than one author) correspondence should take place
- 3) Abstract (max 200 words)
- 4) Keywords (max four)

FILE 2: Main Document

- 1) Title
- 2) Abstract (max 200 words)
- 3) Keywords (max four)
- 4) Main text (max 15 pages)
- 5) References
- 6) Appendixes

The main text should include *introduction, methods, results and discussion, conclusion and recommendations, acknowledgements*. The total number of pages should not exceed 20.

The set-up of the manuscript should be on A4 or 8.5" x 11" paper, single spaced. 1 inch margin: left, right, top and bottom. Font: 12 Times New Roman, written in Word program.

Abbreviations in the body of the paper should be used after having been initially explained. If statistical analysis is applicable, it is important that the procedure is carried out following appropriate methods.

Tables

Tables should be as close as possible to the text explaining the concept. Tables should be numbered in the order in which they are mentioned in the text. A Table caption must be presented in *italic*, in upper case at the top. Explain in footnotes all non-standard standard abbreviations used in each table.

Figures

Figures must be clearly drawn, placed as close as possible to the related text. All Figures must be numbered according to the order in which they appear in the text. A Figure caption should be typed in *italic*, immediately below the Figure.

Pagination

The page numbers should appear at the centre of the bottom edge of the page.

Headings

Remove all pre-defined headings and paragraph spacing! Chapter headings should be Times New Roman, bold, 14p, Sub-heading 1 should be Times New Roman, bold, 12p, Sub-heading 2 should be Times New Roman, bold, *italic*, 12p. If necessary, Sub-heading 3 should be Times New Roman, *italic*, 12p.

References

References to used sources must be clearly identified in the text at appropriate place. When the authors name is in the text cite (Smith, 2014). When there are dual authors to the publication give both names but with more than two use *et al.* When citations are made to several publications, separate with semicolon and arrange them in alphabetic order (Jones 2013; Smith 2014; Taylor and Jaensson 2009). The PAJBM use the OUT reference style in the Prospectus 2015-2016 as follows:

Journal paper in English

Kihwelo, P. F. (2007). Criminal justice in disrepute: An overview of treatment of accused persons and convicts in Tanzania. *Open University Law Journal*. 1(1): 47 - 54.

Mushi, H. M. K. (2010); Critical discourse analysis (CDA) of academic texts: A potential strategy in addressing challenges of cross-border provision of higher education in sub-Saharan Africa. *Huria Journal of the Open University of Tanzania*. 8: 73 - 91.

Journal paper not in English

Nunes, E. (1985). Investigacao recente sobre as principais factores que limitam a producao do milho em Mozambique. (A recent investigation of the main factors limiting sorghum production in Mozambique). *Agricultura Boletim Tecnica*. 8: 4 - 10.

Journal paper accepted for publication but still in press

Majamba, H. I. (In press). Legal training for diverse roles in Zanzibar: *Open University Law Journal*.

Books

Sockett, L. (2000). *Practical Wildlife Care for Veterinary Nurses, Animal Care Students and Rehabilitators*. Blackwell Science Ltd., Oxford. 288pp.

Edited Books

Hulme, D. and Murphree, M. (Eds.) (2001). *African Wildlife and Livelihoods: The promise and performance of community conservation*. James Currey Ltd, Oxford. 336pp.

Individual chapters in multi- authored books

Barrow, E., Gichohi, H. and Infield, M. (2001). The Evolution of Community Conservation Policy and Practice in East Africa. In: *Africa Wildlife and Livelihoods: The promise and Performance of Community Conservation*. (Edited by Hulme, D. and Murphree, M.), James Currey Ltd, Oxford. pp. 59 - 73.

Conference or workshop proceedings referred to as a whole

Boyle. P. J. (Ed.) (1987). *Appropriate Manpower for Agricultural Research*. Proceedings of SADCC Workshop, Gaborone, Botswana, 25 November, 1985. 120pp.

Individual paper in conference or workshop

Gimbi, A. A., Kimambo, A. E., Kanuya, N. L., Mtenga, L. A., Laswai, G. H. and Madsen, J. (2003). Seasonal variations on reproductive performance, mineral and body condition status of smallholder dairy cattle in Rungwe district, Tanzania. In; Proceedings of Tanzania Society of Animal Production Scientific Conference. 28 - 30 October, 2003, Tanga, Tanzania 30: pp. 333 - 341.

Monographs

United States Agency for International Development (2000). *Rice Production in Africa*. Agriserve Ltd., New York, 150pp.

Annual Report

Botswana Ministry of Agriculture (1999). *Livestock Research in Botswana Annual Report*. Government Printer, Gaborone, Botswana. 10pp.

Dissertations

Ndesendo, C. V. (2011). Role of job application using e-recruitment system in the banking industry: The case of banks in Dar es Salaam region. A dissertation for award of MBA degree at Open University of Tanzania, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. 103pp.

Citing from electronic source

Kimbrell, A. (2002). Fatal Harvest; The tragedy of industrial agriculture. [<http://www.fatalharvest.org/press.htm>] site visited on 9/8/2008.

Citing newspaper articles and other reports

Kisembo, P. (2006). Survey shows food price further going down in Dar es Salaam. Daily news, Issue No. 36000. p. 13. Preferably articles cited from ***Annual Report*** Botswana Ministry of Agriculture (1999). *Livestock Research in Botswana Annual Report*. Government Printer, Gaborone, Botswana. 10pp.

Dissertations

Ndesendo, C. V. (2011). Role of job application using e-recruitment system in the banking industry: The case of banks in Dar es Salaam region. A dissertation for award of MBA degree at Open University of Tanzania, Dar es Salaam, Tanzania. 103pp.

There are no submission fees or other charges connected to your submission.
Submissions must be done electronically to the Chief Editor: pajbm@out.ac.tz

Opinion expressed in this Journal are those of the authors and not necessarily those of the publishers – The Open University of Tanzania.

© Open University of Tanzania 2018. All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be used in any way without permission from the publisher.

December 27, 2018