LEADERSHIP QUALITY AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE IN UGANDAN UNIVERSITIES: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF GULU UNIVERSITY AND UGANDA MARTYRS UNIVERSITY NKOZI

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JANUARY 2013

DECLARATION

I, Oboke Paul, declare that this is my original work and that it has never been presented to any University or Institution of higher learning for the award of any academic qualification. Any material or reproduction that is not part of my original work is clearly and duly acknowledged.

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APPROVAL

This dissertation is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of a Master of Arts Degree in Public Administration and Management (MAPAM) of Gulu University with our approval.

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DEDICATION

This research report is dedicated to my dear wife Aber Kevin, our daughters Rwotomia Esther and Akello Rachael, my mother Akello Judith, brother Nyeko Alex and sisters Oyella Santa Obace and Alum Florence and brother in law Obace Alfred.

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ABSTRACT

The study set out to comparatively analyse how leadership quality influence performance in Ugandan Universities. Two universities were chosen one was a public University and another was private University.

Specifically the study sought to: examine the quality and nature of leadership in Gulu University and Uganda Martyrs University; explore the effect of employee commitment in the performance of Gulu and Uganda Martyrs Universities; and analyse the organisational culture in Gulu and Uganda Martyrs Universities and how they affect performance in these Universities.

The design was majorly quantitative in nature, supported by cross sectional design. Correlation survey design was used to help capture the extent of relations and explanatory to the model. Findings indicate that transactional leadership and transformational leadership were all practiced in the two Universities. Gulu University had the highest performance in transactional leadership as compared to those of Uganda Martyrs University. Employees were committed to their institutions employees approved the provisions in organisational culture and the two institutions were relatively performing well on certain indicators

We recommend that institutions should listen to all its beneficiaries and they should be less bureaucratic, appreciate their employee's career advancements, supervisors should build trust with their subordinates, supervisors should make personal sacrifices to their supervisors for the benefit of the institutions and supervisors should find out what their employee's want and try to get for them

If institutions are to improve on their performance, they should encourage the employees to be part of their department's success and failures, make employees be emotionally attached to their organisations and make the employees like the organisations such that it becomes difficult for them to leave their organisations.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

This study was about leadership quality and organisational performance in Ugandan universities. It specifically looked at comparative study of Gulu University and Uganda Martyrs University Nkozi. This chapter presents background of the study, problem statement, purpose of the study, study objectives, research questions, scope of the study and significance of the study.

1.1 Background to the study

The study of Leadership is a critical factor in the success or failure of an organisation. Excellent organisations begin with excellent leadership, and successful organisations therefore reflect their leadership (Maritz, 1995 and Bass 1997). Leaders are effective when the influence they exert over their subordinates work towards achieving organisational performance (Jones & George, 2000). Leadership is often regarded as the single most critical success factor in the success or failure of an institution (Bass, 1990). Dimma (1989) believes that leadership is undoubtedly the critical determinant of the success of an organisation, and thus determines organisational performance in the competitive global market. Demand for great leaders is growing in modern times, as society and technology is becoming increasingly advanced. The ever changing business environment has created a need for leaders who can meet the demands and challenges of organizations functioning in complex competitive environments, with the world open for trade.

Leadership affects all of us in some fashion at some point in our lives: when receiving direction from our parents; the peer pressure and social status concerns we have as youth; instructions from teachers, coaches, and adults; interactions with community members and

authority figures (police, judges, social workers); experiences with partners; and perhaps the most influential leaders for the largest duration of our time, bosses. It has been found that leaders in an organization can make the difference between success and failure (Lussier *et al* 2004

The importance of leadership as an integral part of quality management is well documented. (Saraph, Benson and Schroeder, 1989, Anderson, Rungtusanatham, and Schroeder, 1994, Black and Porter, 1996, Ahire, Golhar and Waller, 1996) "Leadership, which includes management commitment, is contained in virtually every definition of total quality and every prescriptive model on how to achieve it" (Grandzol and Gershon, 1997, p46). Indeed "any individual or organization that wishes to take their initial steps on their journey toward quality must begin with a near sighted examination of its organization leadership capability and culture." (Mauro and Mauro, 1999, p37) Feigenbaum stated that "quality today has become the foundation for constant management innovation and leadership" (Feigenbaum, 2007, p38). Juran stated that "attaining quality leadership requires that upper managers personally take charge of the quality initiative." (Juran *et al*, 1995, p128) Quality and leadership are closely aligned and therefore in defining Quality Leadership, leadership is first defined by the traits, qualities and behaviors of a leader.

Quality leadership is where quality principles become "a basis for guiding, empowering and supporting the constant pursuit of excellence by the employees throughout the organization" (Feigenbaum, 2007, p38). In this regard the emphasis is on "creating the power of an environment of trust, openness and honest communication to encourage the development of individual quality improvement entrepreneurs" (Feigenbaum, 2007, p39). The leader specifically "has the responsibility to improve the system, i.e. to make it possible, on a continuing basis, for everyone to do a better job with greater satisfaction" (Deming, 1986,

p248). This leader "instead of being a judge, will be a colleague, counseling and leading his people on a day to day basis, learning from them and with them" (Deming, 1986, p117). While these are the principles upon which quality leadership is built, how it is applied means that it is "necessary to apply the entire array of quality know how (the quality disciplines) throughout the entire company to all functions and all levels and to do so in a coordinated way" (Juran *et al*, 1995, p128).

The leadership style that most relates to quality leadership, is transformational leadership which "searches for ways to help motivate followers by satisfying high order needs and more fully engaging them in the process of the work" (Horner, 1997, p275). This is directly "related to quality because transformational leaders are able to communicate and reinforce values and express an inspirational vision focusing on quality. They also encourage quality improvement by building trust and reducing fear, creating awareness for change, developing a culture to support that change and initiating new problem solving strategies" (Luria, 2008, p31). It is interesting to note that Deming in his book, Out of the Crisis, in chapter 2, which is titled 'Principles for Transformation,' stated that "the job of management is not supervision, but leadership. The required transformation of the western style of management requires that managers be leaders" (Deming, 1986, p54).

For more than a decade, organisational environments have experienced radical changes. As a result of greater competition in the global marketplace the majority of organisations have greatly streamlined their operations (Collis & Montgomery, 1995). Every moment presents a diverse set of challenges and obstacles: laws and regulations are evolving, the economy is altering, and, most importantly, no one is aware of what problems or obstacles will arise. Furthermore, organisations can also perform well or poorly due to external forces, such as interest rates and taxation. To remain competitive in such an environment, an organisation needs to get the most out of its assets, especially the human assets.

The Oxford Dictionary provides the simplest definition of a leader "the person followed by others" thus leadership implies the ability to influence others. Leaders can aptly be described as "the brokers of time and relationships" (Krahenbuhl, 2004). Leadership in higher education involves a relationship or, in the words of Morrill (2007) a "followership". Astin and Astin (2000) concur by defining leadership as a "collaborative endeavour among group members". Bennis and Nannus (1985) consider that leaders must establish a deep relationship with the group, to identify and represent the group's interests "It is collective, there is a symbiotic relationship between leaders and followers, and what makes it collective is the subtle interplay between the followers' needs and wants and the leader's capacity to understand, one way or another, this collective aspirations. Leadership can move followers to higher degrees of consciousness, such as liberty, freedom, justice and self actualization". The authors made a clear difference between leadership and management, for them management means to be in charge of something, to have the responsibility, while leadership is the ability to influence others, to guide them in a defined course, direction, or action. Other authors present different perspectives that challenge the traditional mental models of leadership. Greenleaf (1996) for example, introduced the concept of leader as a servant "The servant leader is servant first; it begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first.

Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. That person is sharply different from one who is leader first". Furthermore, Block (1993, 1996) introduces an interesting and alternative concept: Stewardship, where he challenges traditional lines of command and control, organizational structures and the distribution of power. He proposes a new order fostering democracy, service, responsibility and partnership. "Stewardship holds the possibility of shifting our expectations of people in power. Part of the meaning of Stewardship is to hold in trust the well being of some larger entity –our organization, our

community, the earth itself". Through out this study, I will be using the term leader to mean individuals in organisations who assume a formal leadership role example supervisors and managers. Although leadership theorists typically have focused on leadership as a process rather than leadership as a role (Yukl, 1998), my focus is on individuals who by virtue of their organizational position have legitimate reward and coercive power (French & Raven, 1959).

Higher education includes 'all types of studies, training or training for research at the post-secondary level, provided by universities or other educational establishments that are approved as institutions of higher education by the competent State authorities' Uganda currently has two categories of higher education institutions, Public and private higher institutions. All public and private higher educational institutions are currently managed under the Universities and Other Tertiary Institutions Act, 2001. This Act created the National Council for Higher education whose mandate is to: Regulate and guide the establishment and management of institutions of higher learning; Regulate the quality of higher education, equate qualifications; and advise government on higher education issues.

Within each institution, the law provides for; the Chancellor who is the titular and ceremonial head; The University Council which is the policy making body; The Vice Chancellor who is the chief executive of the institution, and the head of the administrative and implementation organ of the institution. The senate which is the academic decision making body in the institutions designing and regulating academic policy including research, transmission of knowledge, admission, examinations, the conferment of degrees and certificates, rules pertaining to academic standards and other sub bodies committees of the above bodies. The roles and functions of leadership are today integrated in higher education where academic leaders need to lead, motivate or direct their units to accommodate transformation collaboratively. Higher education leadership today is confronted not only by

transformation but also with the task of simultaneously moving universities forward. Increasingly, measurement of educational outcomes is a core ingredient of assessing the value offered in any higher educational system. The management of higher institutions leaves a lot to be desired in terms of rampant violence, strikes and hooliganism which interrupt the institutions programmes and that is why the researcher wants to examine the relationship between leadership and organisational performance especially in higher institutions of learning.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Recent studies not only highlight the diversity of universities, departments and leaders but also the constant change, adjustments and turbulent environment of higher education during the past few years (Hanna, 2003). The context of the higher education leadership mantle is dynamic, complex and multidimensional (Filan & Seagren, 2003, p. 21). The elusiveness of the leadership notion has enticed researchers to interpret, capture and analyse the essence of leadership in higher education from different perspectives. As Burns (1978) noted, "Leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth". Although these studies identified leadership as a concrete and observable phenomenon, no consensus has as yet been reached on the exact characteristics of a successful leader in higher education (Buller, 2006). The issue of leadership in higher education presents numerous opportunities to investigate leadership quality and practices.

Leadership in higher education encompasses a much more complex meaning that reaches beyond a single authority figure and revolves around the needs, aspirations and expectations of both the leader who aspires to lead and those who choose to follow (Keith & Levin, 2002). Effective academic leadership can be viewed as being the biggest advantage a university can have in a resource-hungry, competitive higher education environment (Ramsden, 1998).

Clearly not all leaders are the same, so what constitutes a leader? Is it their unique personality traits; specific skills that are learned; or a combination of both of these factors? Does it depend upon the situation a leader encounters? Why do some leaders embody positive moral, ethical and empowering behaviour while others do not? What constitutes functional leadership and high quality leader-member (or follower) relationships? What is the role of the leader, the follower and the organization to ensure effective and successful leadership? What makes the difference to poor, good or great leadership?

Leadership makes a difference to organizational effectiveness and that is the number one reason people leave their jobs because they feel they are being treated poorly by their bosses (Lussier *et al*. 2004). For those employees who stay with supervisors they perceive as abusive, there is a higher association of lower commitment, higher conflict between work and family, and psychological distress (Lussier *et al*. 2004) , stress related claims, absenteeism, turnover, and the loss of creativity and productivity (Lussier *et al*. 2004).

Isoke (1997) reveals that at Makerere University, programmes were interrupted by strikes over issues such as delays in payment of allowances. Since then, unrests have continued at Makerere and other public universities. James Odiya, Communication (September 17th 2008) said that Gulu University has witnessed a series of strikes and demonstrations by both staff and students over delayed or non payments of allowances. On 21st May 2010, *The Daily Monitor* reported that Lugazi University was facing closure and the reasons that the Director for National Council of Higher Education gave to *The Daily Monitor* was that of inappropriate qualified staff in the library, failure to pay salaries to lecturers, financial problems.

Mafabi, cited in Isoke, 1997 observed that the failure or success of any institution of higher learning worldwide highly depends on the management/leadership style employed in that institution.

1.3 General objective of the study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between leadership quality and organizational performance in higher institutions of learning in Uganda.

1.4 Specific Objectives

i. To examine the quality and nature of leadership in Gulu University and Uganda Martyrs University.

ii. To explore the effect of employee commitment in the performance of Gulu and Uganda Martyrs Universities.

iii. To analyse the organisational culture in Gulu and Uganda Martyrs Universities and how they affect performance in these Universities

1.5 Research Questions

i. What are the leadership qualities in Gulu and Uganda Martyrs Universities?

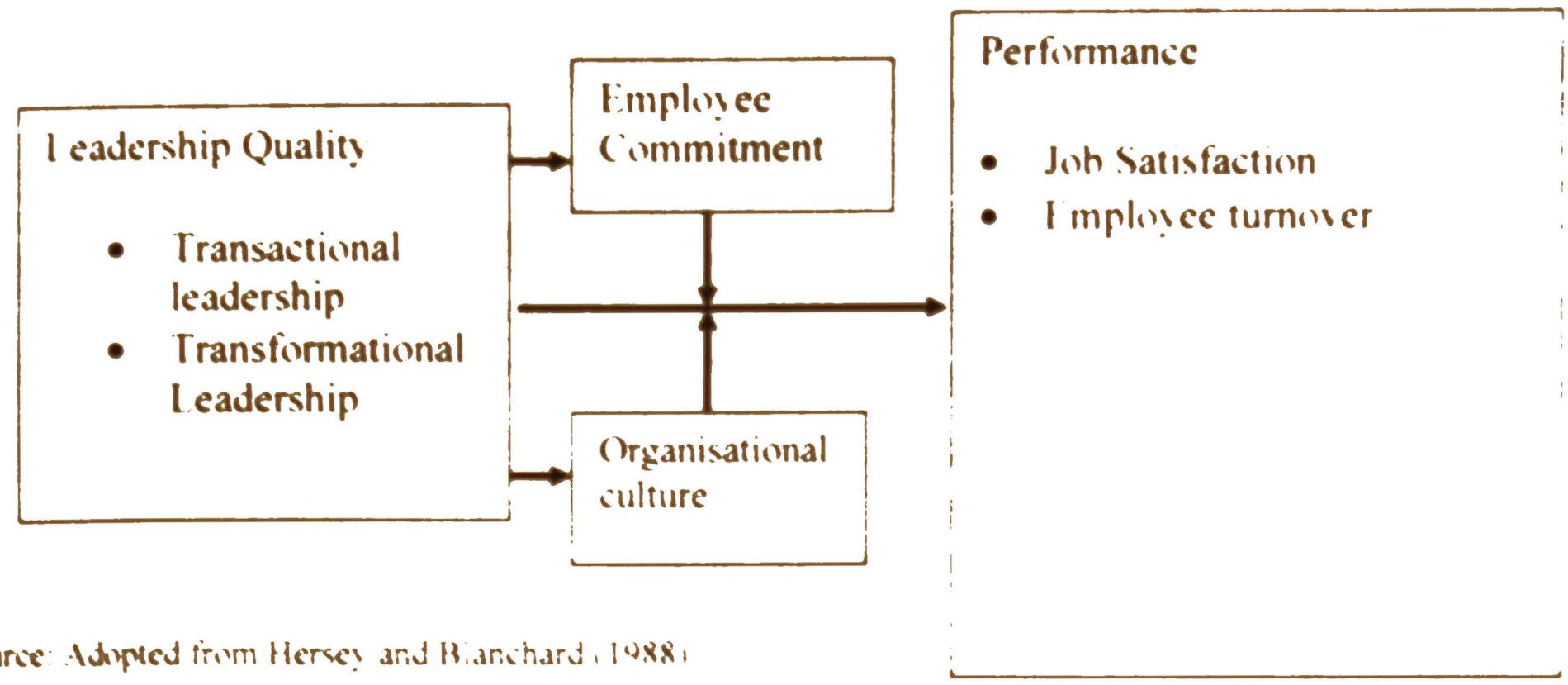
ii. What is the effect of employee commitment in the performance of Gulu and Uganda Martyrs Universities?

iii. What is the effect of organisational culture in the performance of Gulu and Uganda Martyrs Universities?

1.6 Conceptual framework

The ideal conceptualization of leadership quality and performance in Uganda Universities is built on the idea that leadership quality is power and influence that directs people to effectively perform as in the figure below:

Figure 1: Conceptual framework showing leadership quality and organisational performance



Source: Adopted from Hersey and Blanchard (1988)

1.6.1 Interpretation of conceptual framework

Performance is taken as dependent variable and Leadership quality is taken as independent variable. Employee commitment and organization culture are taken as moderating variable Leadership quality is constituted by transactional leadership and transformational leadership

1.7 Scope of the study

Content scope The study addressed the relationship between leadership quality and organizational performance. It used a cross sectional survey research design and had two universities for comparison. Data was collected using self made questionnaire.

Temporal scope The data used covers the period 2003-2010. However, the study took one year for completion.

Spatial scope the study drew respondents from Gulu University and Uganda Martyrs University Nkozi.

1.8 Significance of the study

It was hoped that the findings of the study would be of benefit in number of situations including but not limited to the following ways outlined below.

The findings of the study would be useful to the policy makers and implementers in the various Universities. The study would shed light on the relationship between leadership styles of supervisors and the university's performance. It would help the university administration to know leadership problems in Uganda Ugandan Universities and come up with the best leadership style to use. In turn this would help universities identify the need for appropriate leadership style to use in their institutions.

The findings would be used by those involved in supervision and monitoring of universities. where special emphasis would be placed on the factors which influence the university's performance in Ugandan Universities. The political leaders in the Ministry of Education and Sports might benefit from the study, because the findings might guide them in prioritizing the allocation of resources. By focusing on the specific leadership factors which influence university's performance, the study might motivate future researchers to identify others factors with a view to establishing the role each factor plays in the overall University performance. In terms of the system of performance appraisal of the institutions, the findings of the study would indicate the strength of leadership styles, and their contribution to the welfare and performance of the schools.

The study would shed light on the view of leadership as involving more than the leader's personality and focusing on leaders as dominated by headship.

Above all, this study would help the researcher to compile a dissertation which was a requirement for the award of the Master of Arts in Public Administration of Gulu University.

Above all, this study will also help the researcher to compile a dissertation which is a requirement for the award of the Master of Arts in Public Administration of Gulu University.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Introduction

This chapter consists of a critical review of relevant literature. The review encompasses nature and quality of leadership, employee commitment, organisational culture and organisational performance.

2.1 Leadership Quality

Concept and History of leadership

Curiosity about the topic of leadership has existed throughout history; however the topic of leadership as a subject of scientific study did not begin until the 1930's and 1940's (Bass 1990). According to Yukl (2010) the understanding of leadership behavior since the 1950's "has followed the pattern set by the pioneering research programs at Ohio State University and the University of Michigan" (p. 45). During this time leadership theorists were interested in effective leadership behavior, and measured how often leaders used these behaviors. Such research indicated that two broad categories of leader behavior existed: behaviors focused on task accomplishment and those focused on developing relationships with followers.

In the 1960's and 1970's leadership theorists began to focus on how leaders make decisions, particularly on issues such as participation of and delegation to followers (Bass 1990). The relationship between the leader and the follower were also explored, such as whether the leader changed their behavior for different followers. Theories and ideas introduced during this development period include the Leader-Member Exchange theory, implicit leadership theories, impression management concepts and self-management concepts.

Again, the interest shifted towards power as theorists wanted to learn more about how leaders influenced people to carry out requests. What resulted was the acknowledgement of different types of power: reward power, coercive power, legitimate power, expert power, and referent power. Different influence tactics were also found: rational persuasion, apprising, inspirational appeals, consultation, exchange, collaboration, personal appeals, ingratiation, legitimating tactics, pressure and coalition tactics (Bass 1990).

In the 1960's and 1970's leadership theorists were also interested in "aspects of the situation that enhance or nullify the effects of a leader's traits or behavior" (Yukl, 2010, p. 224) The first of these theories includes Fiedler's Least Preferred Co-worker (LPC) Contingency Model, followed by the Path-Goal Theory of leadership, Situational Leadership Theory, Leadership Substitutes Theory, Multiple-Linkage Model, and Cognitive Resource Theory (in the1980's).

Moreover in the 1980's, researchers became interested in the "emotional and symbolic aspects of leadership" (Yukl, 2010, p. 260) The theories of charismatic and transformational leadership were developed. Debates about the distinction between leadership and management also occurred This issue tended to recur because some researchers could not delineate the difference between leadership and management. Examples of ideas that were researched during this phase included research on cross-functional teams, self-managed teams, virtual teams, member skill and role clarity.

In the 1990's and 2000's as organizational failures attributed to unethical decision making increased, interest in ethical leadership and influence on leader values and integrity grew. What resulted from this focus on ethics were: Ethical Leadership, Transforming Leadership, Servant Leadership, Spiritual Leadership, and Authentic Leadership. There was also an

increased interest in studying leadership in non-Western cultures, and leadership differences among women and men.

Leadership Defined

Although there has been much investigation in the study and practice of leadership, there still isn't a generally accepted definition of leadership. In a popular textbook on leadership, Yukl (2010) defined leadership as "the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives" (p. 8). Yukl's definition states that leadership includes efforts to influence and facilitate the current work of the group, and it also ensures that the group is ready to meet future challenges.

Although Yukl's definition is comprehensive, there are many researchers whose definitions of leadership focus more narrowly. For example, Hemphill & Coons (1957) believe leadership is, "the behavior of an individual directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal" (p. 7). Katz and Kahn (1978) believe leadership is "the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with routine directives of the organization" (p. 528). The reason for the varying definitions is because researchers define leadership according to their own perspective, the areas of leadership that most interest them, and the specific aspects of leadership they attempt to explore. A consequence of this is that when conducting leadership studies, different leadership researchers select different definitions of leadership so as to eliminate any confusion in the interpretation of their research results. This can lead to difficulty in interpreting results across studies to understand the broader topic of leadership. Because of the conceptual ambiguity, leadership may never be defined in a way that all researchers agree on.

The choice of a definition of leadership is of critical importance to leadership development. After all, one has to know specifically what is being developed. For the purposes of this paper, the definition of leadership I will use is Yukl's definition of leadership, because it focuses on leadership as a process, and addresses activities I believe are critical to a leader successfully fulfilling their responsibilities, namely involving others to understand and agree upon a common goal and plan, and working to accomplish collective and individual objectives.

Quality and Leadership

The importance of leadership as an integral part of quality management is well documented (Saraph, Benson and Schroeder, 1989, Anderson, Rungtusanatham, and Schroeder, 1994, Black and Porter, 1996, Ahire, Golhar and Waller, 1996). "Leadership, which includes management commitment, is contained in virtually every definition of total quality and every prescriptive model on how to achieve it" (Grandzol and Gershon, 1997, p46). Indeed "any individual or organization that wishes to take their initial steps on their journey toward quality must begin with a near sighted examination of its organization leadership capability and culture" (Mauro and Mauro, 1999, p37). Feigenbaum stated that "quality today has become the foundation for constant management innovation and leadership" (Feigenbaum, 2007, p38). Deming stated about his book, Out of the Crisis, that "actually, most of this book is involved with leadership. Juran stated that "attaining quality leadership requires that upper managers personally take charge of the quality initiative." (Juran *et al*, 1995, p128)

While quality and leadership are closely aligned, it is better first to define leadership by the traits, qualities and behaviors of a leader. What traits reflect quality leadership and which leadership theories are most closely aligned to it. "Both leadership theories and TQM have had as primary objectives the enhanced performance of organizations and increased job satisfaction for employees" (Puffer and McCarthy, 1996, p109). The key differences in

leadership between TQM and traditional organizations are as follows: Strategic leadership is more important in TQM organizations because TQM is more likely to emphasize that internal systems be aligned with external environments; Visionary leadership because the success of TQM depends on employees sharing a common vision or goal; Designing reward systems for all stakeholders to foster creativity and innovation; Empowerment and teamwork, timely responses to customer concerns by having all employees take a leadership role as well as share information and expertise" (Puffer and McCarthy, 1996, p125).

Perhaps the leadership style that most relates to quality leadership, is transformational leadership which "searches for ways to help motivate followers by satisfying high order needs and more fully engaging them in the process of the work" (Horner, 1997, p275) This is directly "related to quality because transformational leaders are able to communicate and reinforce values and express an inspirational vision focusing on quality. They also encourage quality improvement by building trust and reducing fear, creating awareness for change, developing a culture to support that change and initiating new problem solving strategies" (Luria, 2008, p31). It is interesting to note that Deming in his book, Out of the Crisis, in chapter 2, which is titled 'Principles for Transformation,' stated that "the job of management is not supervision, but leadership. The required transformation of the western style of management requires that managers be leaders" (Deming, 1986, p54).

Quality leadership is where quality principles become "a basis for guiding, empowering and supporting the constant pursuit of excellence by the employees throughout the organization" (Feigenbaum, 2007, p38). In this regard the emphasis is on "creating the power of an environment of trust, openness and honest communication to encourage the development of individual quality improvement entrepreneurs" (Feigenbaum, 2007, p39). The leader specifically "has the responsibility to improve the system, i.e. to make it possible, on a

continuing basis, for everyone to do a better job with greater satisfaction" (Deming, 1986, p248). This leader "instead of being a judge, will be a colleague, counseling and leading his people on a day to day basis, learning from them and with them" (Deming, 1986, p117). While these are the principles upon which quality leadership is built, how it is applied means that it is "necessary to apply the entire array of quality know how (the quality disciplines) throughout the entire company to all functions and all levels and to do so in a coordinated way" (Juran *et al*, 1995, p128).

Power and influence theories

There are two types of power and influence theories namely: 1) theories that consider leadership in terms of the influence or effects that leaders may have on their followers (social power theory and transformational leadership theory) and 2) theories that consider leadership in terms of mutual influence and reciprocal relationships between leaders and followers (social exchange theory and transactional leadership theory).

2.1.1 Transactional Leadership

Bass and Avolio (1997) describe the transactional leadership style as being based on traditional bureaucratic authority and legitimacy. Transactional leaders are able to entice subordinates to perform and thereby achieve desired outcomes by promising them rewards and benefits for the accomplishment of tasks (Bass, 1990). Bass (1990) describes the transactional leader's relationship with the subordinates as having three phases. Firstly, he recognises what subordinates want to get from their work and ensures that they get what they want given that their performance is satisfactory. Secondly, rewards and promises of rewards are exchanged for employee's effort. Lastly, the leader responds to his employee's immediate self interests if they can be met through completing the work.

Transactional leaders are those leaders who implement structure and are understanding towards their employees (Senior, 1997). Bass (1985:27) indicates that transactional leaders "generally reflect on how to marginally improve and maintain the performance, how to replace one goal for another, how to decrease resistance to particular actions, and how to execute decisions". This form of leadership emphasizes the clarification of goals, work principles and standards, assignments and equipment (Bass, 1985). Transactional leaders focus their energies on task completion and compliance and rely on organisational rewards and punishments to influence employee performance, with reward being contingent on the followers carrying out the roles and assignments as defined by the leader (Bass and Avolio, 2000; Mester, *et al.*, 2003). In other words, the leader rewards or disciplines the followers depending on the adequacy of the follower's performance (Senior, 1997).

The transactional leader is known to change promises for votes and works within the framework of the self-interest of his or her constituency (Bass, 1990). The transactional leader pursues a cost-benefit, economic exchange to meet subordinates' current material and physical needs, in exchange for 'contracted' services rendered by the subordinates (Bass, 1985). Therefore, transactional leaders are thought to have an exchange-based relationship with their followers (Burns, 1978; Senior, 1997). Bass (1985) suggests that transactional leadership uses satisfaction of lower order needs as the principal basis for motivation. The focal point of transactional leadership is on role elucidation. The leader assists the follower in understanding precisely what needs to be achieved in order to meet the organization's objectives (Bass, 1985). Leaders who display a transactional leadership style define and communicate the work that must be done by their followers, how it will be done, and the rewards their followers will receive for completing the stated objectives (Burns, 1978, in Bass and Avolio, 1990a; Avolio, Waldman and Yammarino, 1991; Meyer and Botha, 2000).

Transactional leadership occurs when leaders approach followers either to correct a problem or to establish an agreement that will lead to better results. Additionally, transactional leadership concerns the style of leadership where the leader makes work behaviour more instrumental for followers to reach their own existing goals while concurrently contributing to the goals of the organisations (Brand, *et al.*, 2000). Transactional leaders are suited to a more stable business environment with little competition, as characterized by the business arena prior to the 1980s (Tichy and Devanna, 1986). In a stable environment, transactional leaders manage what they find and leave things much as they found them when they move on (Howell and Avolio, 1993). However, the current competitive business environment requires a new style of leadership in order to ensure the organisation's survival and performance, namely transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Brand, *et al.*, 2000).

2.2.2 Transformational Leadership

The difference between transformational and transactional leadership lies in the way of motivating others. A transformational leader's behaviour originates in the personal values and beliefs of the leader and motivates subordinates to do more than expected (Bass, 1985). Burns (1978) identified transformational leadership as a process where, "one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality".

For transformational leadership style, the follower feels trust, admiration, loyalty and respect towards the leader, and is motivated to do more than what was originally expected to do (Bass, 1985; Katz, & Kahn, 1978). The transformational leader motivates by making follower more aware of the importance of task outcomes, inducing them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the organization or team and activating their higher-order needs. He encourages followers to think critically and seek new ways to approach their jobs, resulting in intellectual stimulation (Bass *et al.*, 1994). As a result, there is an increase in their level of performance, satisfaction, and commitment to the goals of their organization (Podsakoff *et al.*

1996).

Bass (1990), proposed four behaviours or components of transformational leadership to include charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration.

Charisma, or idealized influence or attributes, is characterized by vision and a sense of mission, instilling pride in and among the group, and gaining respect and trust (Humphreys & Einstein, 2003). Charismatic behaviour also induces followers to go beyond self-interest for the good of the group, providing reassurance that obstacles will be overcome, and promoting confidence in the achievement and execution influence (Conger and Kanungo, 1998; Howell and Frost, 1989) and followers place an inordinate amount of confidence and trust in charismatic leaders (Howell and Avolio, 1992).

Inspirational motivation is usually a companion of charisma and is concerned with a leader setting higher standards, thus becoming a sign of reference. Bass (1985), points out followers look up to their inspirational leader as one providing emotional appeal to increase awareness and understanding of mutually desirable goals. This is characterized by the communication of high expectations, using symbols to focus efforts, and expressing important purpose in simple ways. The leader always behaves talking optimistically about the future, articulating a compelling vision for the future and providing an exciting image of organizational change (Bass and Avolio, 1994). The motivation occurs by providing meaning and challenge to the followers" work; individual and team spirit are aroused and, enthusiasm and optimism are displayed. The leader encourages followers to envision attractive future states, for the organization and themselves (Bass *et al*, 1997).

Intellectual stimulation provides followers with challenging new ideas and encourages them

to break away from the old ways of thinking (Bass, 1985). The leader is characterized as one promoting intelligence, rationality, logical thinking, and careful problem solving. The attributes include seeking differing perspectives when solving problems, suggesting new ways of examining how to complete assignments and encouraging re-thinking of ideas that have not been questioned in the past (Bass and Avolio, 1994). The leader encourages the followers to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways.

Finally, the fourth dimension of transformational leadership is "individual consideration" which is concerned with developing followers by coaching and mentoring (Bass, 1985; Bass & Avolio, 1990). The leader pays close attention to the inter-individual differences among the followers and act as mentor to the follower. He teaches and helps others develop their strengths, and listens attentively to others" concerns (Bass and Avolio, 1994). Followers are treated individually in order to raise their levels of maturity and to enhance effective ways of addressing their goals and challenges (Bass, 1985).

Some common characteristics of transformational leaders are: they see themselves as change agents; are visionaries who have a high level of trust in their intuition; are risk-takers but not reckless; can articulate core values which guide their own behaviour; have exceptional cognitive skills and deliberate before taking action; believe in people and show sensitivity to their needs; and, show flexibility and an openness to learning from experience (Lussier, R., 2004). Transformational leaders are usually charismatic; have articulate visions; are considerate and attentive to followers' needs and motivations; and have skills and abilities that influence followers to share their vision. There is a lot of research behind this popular leadership theory (Northouse, 1997, p.144).

Some limitations include the tendency for supporters of this theory to see the leader as the focus of all exchanges rather than in an interdependent process with followers. It is a difficult challenge to train leaders to be transformational and visionary. It can also be seen as autocratic in that one person's vision becomes the standard for the organization. There is also a strong attachment to charismatic leadership which highlights trait theory components and focuses on the leader more than the exchanges with followers or the organizational vision. Leadership, according to these various theories, may include influences such as personality traits, situational variables, organizational contexts or a desire to reach specific outcomes using a variety of means.

Transformational leadership concerns the transformation of followers' beliefs, values, needs and capabilities (Brand, *et al.*, 2000). Yukl (1989, in Kent and Chelladurai, 2001) defines transformational leadership as "the process of influencing major changes in attitudes and assumptions of organisational members and building commitment for the organisation's mission and objectives". Transformational leaders therefore teach their followers to become transformational leaders in their own right (Bass, 1994).

Transformational leaders encourage subordinates to adopt the organisational vision as their own, through inspiration (Cacioppe, 1997). In addition, it is widely accepted that transformational leadership occurs when people engage with each other in such a way that leaders and followers raise each other's levels of motivation (Burns, 1978). Furthermore, these leaders attempt to elevate the needs of the follower in line with the leader's own goals and objectives. Transformational leadership communicates a vision that inspires and motivates people to achieve something extraordinary. Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy (1994) believe that transformational leaders also have the ability to align people and the systems so there is integrity throughout the organisation. Moreover, transformational leaders are

responsible for motivating their employees to go beyond ordinary expectations by appealing to their higher order needs and moral values. This leadership has consistently shown advantages on a range of individual and organisational outcomes, such as objectives and performance (Bass, 1998). Through setting more challenging expectations and raising levels of self and collective efficacy, such a leadership style typically achieves significantly higher performance and commitment levels from their employees (Yukl, 1998; Arnold, Barling and Kelloway, 2001; Hater and Bass, 1988 in Mester, *et al.*, 2003). While transformational leadership inspires common goals and aspirations that tend to transcend followers' individual needs and result in the attainment of major transformation in work-place effectiveness, it would be narrow-minded to view transformational leaders as the exclusive participants in the process of leader-follower exchanges. Transformational leadership extends transactional leadership to attain higher levels of subordinate performance, but achieves this addition by utilizing various motivational methods and diverse types of objectives and goals (Bass, Avolio and Goodheim, 1987). Barling, *et al.*, (2000) found that subordinates' organizational commitment was positively correlated with the transformational leadership behaviours of their supervisors. In summary, empirical literature indicates that transformational leadership is positively connected with leaders' effectiveness (Bass, 1998). Research by Pruijn and Boucher (1994) shows evidence that transformational leadership is an extension of transactional leadership; therefore these two leadership styles are not mutually exclusive, as a leader may display a varying degree of transactional or transformational leadership (Bass, 1997; Ristow, 1998).

The transformational leaders are proactive in many different and unique ways. These leaders attempt to optimize development, not just performance. Development encompasses the maturation of ability, motivation, attitudes, and values. Such leaders want to elevate the maturity level of the needs of their associates (from security needs to needs for achievement and self-development). They convince their associates to strive for a higher level of

achievement as well as higher levels of moral and ethical standards. Through the development of their associates, they optimize the development of their organization as well. High performing associates build high performing organizations.

Hooper and Potter (1997) extend the notion of transformational leadership to identify seven key competences of "transcendent leaders": those able to engage the emotional support of their followers and thus effectively transcend change. The competences identified are setting direction, setting an example, communication, bringing out the best in people, being a leader who is a change agent and providing decision in a crisis and ambiguous situations.

The above behaviours of the transformational style of leadership are contrasted to a passive, ineffective laissez-faire leadership style, where no attempt is made by the leader to motivate others or to recognise and satisfy individual needs. Laissez-faire or "hands-off" leadership was identified by Bass and Avolio (1994) in the Full Range Leadership Development Model as a non-transactional factor. Furthermore, laissez-faire leadership style is characterised by leaders who avoid decision-making, the provision of rewards and the provision of positive or negative feedback to their subordinates, with the leader clearly abdicating responsibility to others (Bass and Avolio, 1997; Hartog and van Muijen, 1997, in Mester, *et al.*, 2003).

Differences and similarities between transactional and transformational leadership

Transactional leadership has been the traditional model of leadership with its roots from an organisational or business perspective in the 'bottom line'. Stephen Covey writing in 'Principle-Centred Leadership' suggests that transformational leadership "... focuses on the 'top line'" and offers contrast between the two (a selection being):

Transactional Leadership	Transformational Leadership
Builds on man's need to get a job done and make a living	Builds on a man's need for meaning
Is preoccupied with power and position, politics and perks	Is preoccupied with purposes and values, morals, and ethics
Is mired in daily affairs	Transcends daily affairs
Is short-term and hard data orientated	Is orientated toward long-term goals without compromising human values and principles
Focuses on tactical issues	Focuses more on missions and strategies
Relies on human relations to lubricate human interactions	Releases human potential – identifying and developing new talent
Follows and fulfils role expectations by striving to work effectively within current systems	Designs and redesigns jobs to make them meaningful and challenging
Supports structures and systems that reinforce the bottom line, maximise efficiency, and guarantee short-term profits	Aligns internal structures and systems to reinforce overarching values and goals

Comparison of Transactional and Transformational Leadership (Covey, 1992)

2.2 Employee Commitment

A wide variety of definitions and measure of organizational commitment exist. Beckeri, Randal, and Riegel (1995) defined the term in a three dimensions: a strong desire to remain a member of a particular organization, a willingness to exert high levels of efforts on behalf of the organization and a define belief in and acceptability of the values and goals of the organization.

To Northcraft and Neale (1996), commitment is an attitude reflecting an employee's

loyalty to the organization, and an ongoing process through which organization members express their concern for the organization and its continued success and well being.

Organizational commitment is determined by a number of factor, including personal factors (e.g., age, tenure in the organization, disposition, internal or external control attributions); organizational factors (job design and the leadership style of one's supervisor); non-organizational factors (availability of alternatives). All these things affect subsequent commitment (Nortcraft and Neale, 1996).

Mowday, Porter, and Steer (1982) see commitment as attachment and loyalty. These authors describe three components of commitment: an identification with the goals and values of the organization, a desire to belong to the organization; and a willingness to display effort on behalf of the organization.

A similar definition of commitment emphasizes the importance of behaviour in creating it. Salancik (1977) conceives commitment as a state of being in which an individual becomes bound by his actions and it is these actions that sustain his activities and involvement. From this definition, it can be inferred that three features of behaviour are important in binding individuals to act: visibility of acts, the extent to which the outcomes are irrevocable; and the degree to which the person undertakes the action voluntarily. To Salancik therefore, commitment can be increased and harnessed to obtain support for the organizational ends and interests through such things as participation in decision-making.

Based on the multidimensional nature of organizational commitment, there is growing support for a three-component model proposed by Meyer and Allen (1991). All three components have implications for the continuing participation of the individual in the organization. The three components are:

Affective Commitment involves the employees'emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Affective commitment shows the level of employee attachment with the organization including beliefs, willingness and desire regarding organizational goal achievements. Affective commitment of employees toward the organization has three different shapes; one is identification, second is formation and third is maintaining. In affective commitment, emotion for the organization is formed at the beginning stage, followed by identification of emotions with the organizational goals and objectives and finally maintaining these emotions toward the organization. Therefore Jaros *et al.* (1993) says that affective commitment of employee is a psychological attachment with the organization. Affective commitment has close relationship with the personal characteristics as age, gender, tenure, and organizational characteristics.

Continuance Commitment involves commitment based on the costs that the employee associates with leaving the organization. Employees have different stakes benefits attached with their organization which are given to them at the time of retirement. It is called continuous commitment or emotional attachment of the employees. Continuous commitment is based on the Becker's Bet theory (1960) which state that employee made long investment of time in the organization and leaving the organization give loss, therefore employee show intention to stay with the organization. The investment of employee in the organization includes time, work, effort, abilities and relationship with other employees which cannot found in next job. Therefore the turnover of the employees remains low in the organization and overall there is a positive effect on the performance of the organizations. This is also psychological attachment of employee with organization because employee perception of loss. Major variables associated with the continuous commitment are investment and alternative employment.

Normative Commitment involves the employees' feelings of obligation to stay within the organization. Normative commitment is referred to the loyalty to the employee with the organization and employee has obliged feeling toward the organization. Obligations are development in the employee, when an employee knows about the investment of organization on him/ her. In the starting stage of feeling of obligation, employee has known about organization time and money investment on his/ her training. This establish a feeling of remain with organization which is also called moral commitment.

The employee relationship with the organization varies from employee to employee and reflects different degree of attachment with the organization. It is possible one employee has more affective commitment while other do not have, also possible that few employees have affective and normative commitment toward the organization and do not have continuous commitment. Therefore the degree of employee attachment with the organization changes from person to person.

Guest (1991) concludes that high organizational commitment is associated with lower turnover and absence, but there is no clear link to performance. It is probably wise not to expect too much from commitment as a means of making a direct and immediate impact on performance. It is not the same as motivation. Commitment is a broader concept and tends to withstand transitory aspects of an employee's job. It is possible to be dissatisfied with a particular feature of a job while retaining a reasonably high level of commitment to the organization as a whole. When creating a commitment strategy, Armstrong, 1999 asserts that "it is difficult to deny that it is desirable for management to have defined strategic goals and values. And it is equally desirable from management point of view for employees to behave in a way that support those strategies and values." Creating commitment includes communication, education, training programmes, and initiatives to increase involvement and ownership and the development of performance and reward management systems.

Studies on commitment have provided strong evidence that affective and normative commitments are positively related and continuance commitment is negatively connected with organizational outcomes such as performance and citizenship behaviour (Hackett, Bycio, and Handsdoff, 1994; Shore and Wayne, 1993).

Dornstein and Matalon (1998) describe eight variables that are relevant to organizational commitment. These are interesting work, coworker's attitudes towards the organization, organizational dependency, age, education, employment alternatives, attitude of family and friends. The variables explain 65% of the variance in organizational commitment. Glisson and Derrick in Adeyemo and Aremu (1999) in their study of 319 human service organization workers analyzed the effects of multiple predictors (job, organization, and worker characteristics) on satisfaction and commitment. They showed that skill variety and role ambiguity are best predictors of satisfaction, while leadership and the organization's age are the best predictors of commitment. Ellemer, Gilder, and Heuvel (1998) found that background variables as gender, level of education, or team size were not clearly related to three forms of commitment. Adeyemo (2000) reported a positive correlation between education and organizational commitment. Irving, Coleman, and Cooper (1997) found that age was not related to organizational commitment. Meyer and Allen (1984) earlier argued that age might be correlated with commitment by postulating that it serves as proxy for seniority that is associated with opportunity to better one's position in the work. On the issue of gender, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) reported its relationship to organizational commitment. Similarly, it was found by Irving, *et al.* (1997) that the men in their sample had higher level of commitment than the women

Martins and Nicholls in Mullins (1999:813) view commitment as encapsulating by "giving all of yourself while at work". This commitment entails things as using time constructively, attention to detail, making that extra effort, accepting change, co-operation with others, self development, respecting trust, pride in abilities, seeking improvements and giving loyal

support. He says that there are three pillars of commitment and they include:

(I) A sense of belonging to the organization

This builds upon the loyalty essential to successful industrial relations. The sense of belonging is created by managers through ensuring the workforce is informed. involved and sharing in success:

(II) A sense of excitement in the job

Improved results will not be achieved unless workers can also feel a sense of excitement about their work which results in the motivation to perform well. This sense of excitement can be achieved by appealing to the higher-level needs of pride. trust and accountability for results: and

(III) Confidence in management

The senses of belonging and excitement can be frustrated if workers do not have respect for. and confidence in. management leadership. This respect is enhanced through attention to authority. dedication and competence.

A large measure of the success of the companies studied derives from their management of people and from creating a climate for commitment. For example:"if people feel trusted. they will make extraordinary efforts to show the trust to be warranted'. However. creating commitment is hard. It takes time. the path is not always smooth and it requires dedicated managers (Mullins. 1999:813).

Sources of Commitment

Hellriegel (2001:54) argues that. as with job satisfaction. the sources of organizational commitment may vary from person to person. Employees' initial commitment to an organization is determined largely by their individual characteristics (e.g. personality and attitudes) and how well their early job experiences match their expectations.

Later, organizational commitment continues to be influenced by job experiences, with many of the same factors that lead to job satisfaction also contributing to organizational commitment or lack of commitment: pay, relationships with supervisors and co-workers, working conditions, and opportunities for advancement. Over time, organizational commitment tends to become stronger because individuals develop deeper ties with the organization and their co-workers as they spend more time with them; seniority often brings advantages that tend to develop more positive attitudes; and opportunities in the job market may decrease with age, causing workers to become more strongly attached to their current job (Hellriegel, 2001:55).

Relation to Job Behaviour

Managers are interested in the relationships between organizational commitment and job behaviour because the lack of commitment often leads to low turnover. The stronger an employee's commitment is to the organization, the less likely the person is to quit. Strong commitment is also correlated with low absenteeism and relatively high productivity. Attendance at work (being on time and taking little time off) is usually higher for employees with strong organizational commitment. Moreover, committed individuals tend to be more goal directed and waste less time while at work, which has a positive impact on productivity. Effective management can foster increased commitment and loyalty to the organization (Hellriegel, 2001:54).

Strategies for Increasing Employee Commitment

There are many ways to build employee commitment and employers often fail to realize that some of the most effective things they can do to develop and sustain motivated, committed employees costs very little or nothing at all. Nelson (1999:01) proposes the power of the five I as below.

Interesting work. No one wants to do the same boring job over and over, day after day. Moreover, while any job will always require some boring, repetitive tasks, everyone should have at least a part of their job be of high interest to them.

Information. Information is power, and employees want to be empowered with the information they need to know to do their jobs better and more effectively. Further, more than ever, employees want to know how they are doing in their jobs and how the company is doing in its business. Open channels of communication in an organization allow employees to be informed, ask questions, and share information.

Involvement. Managers today are faced with an incredible number of opportunities and problems and, as the speed of business continues to increase dramatically, the amount of time that they have to make decisions continues to decrease. Involving employees in decision-making, especially when the decisions affect them directly, is both respectful and practical. Those closest to the problem typically have the best insight as to what to do. As one involve others, one increases their commitment and ease in implementing new ideas or change.

Independence. Few employees want their every action to be closely monitored. Most employees appreciate having the flexibility to do their jobs as they see fit. Giving people latitude increases the chance that they will perform as one desires - and bring additional initiative, ideas, and energy to their jobs.

Increased visibility. Everyone appreciates getting credit when it is due. Occasions to share the successes of employees with others are almost limitless. Giving employees new opportunities to perform, learn, and grow as a form of recognition and thanks is highly motivating for most people.

Mullins (1999:815) concludes that a high level of employee commitment implies willingness to work for the organization's benefit: but that its continuation depends on the reciprocal

commitment by the organization to its members. In the current industrial climate, there needs to be concern not only for producing goods or services, but also for the encouragement of innovative, exploratory and creative ideas that go beyond what can be prescribed for the job, and for the application to work of intuitive as well as explicit knowledge. These multiple objectives can only be achieved if managers consider, with care, exactly what kinds of commitment they are aiming for, and design policies and practices accordingly.

2.3 Organisational Culture

Organisational culture has assumed considerable importance in the 21st century, because of its impact on employee performance and job satisfaction. It is the imperative of every organisation to understand its own dynamic culture so that managers can capitalise on the insights generated by the cultural perspective to wield greater control over their organisations. The culture of an organisation has an important impact on its performance.

With the ever - changing technology and fast - paced business arena, companies today are grappling to find new and innovative ways of improving performance with the minimal addition of cost. Many companies have now turned to exploring the sociological aspect of the business in order to improve profitability. Culture is one aspect that is not tangible, yet it plays a very important role to the success of any business enterprise.

What is organizational culture?

There is no single definition for organizational culture. The topic has been studied from a variety of perspectives ranging from disciplines such as anthropology and sociology, to the applied disciplines of organizational behaviour, management science, and organizational commitment. The following definitions are views of authors from the applied sciences' disciplines and are more relevant to the scope of this research document.

Robbins (2000:34) postulates that culture, as a concept, has had a long and chequered history.

In the last decade, it has been used by some organizational researchers and managers to indicate the climate and practices that organizations develop around their handling of people or to refer to the espoused values and credo of an organization.

Schein (1999:200) defines culture as a pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems.

Mullins (1999:53) defines organizational culture as the collection of traditions, values, beliefs, policies, and attitudes that constitute a pervasive context for everything one does and thinks in an organization. Aswathappa (2003:479) refers to culture as a, —complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and other capabilities and habits acquired by man in a society".

Collins and Porras (2000:338) state that organizational culture refers to a system of shared meaning held by members that distinguish one organization from other organizations. They believe that these shared meanings are a set of key characteristics, and that the organization values and the essence of an organization's culture can be captured in seven primary characteristics. These characteristics are:

Innovation and risk - taking. The degree to which employees are encouraged to be innovative and take risks;

Attention to detail. The degree to which employees are expected to exhibit precision analysis and attention to detail;

Outcome orientation. The degree to which management focuses on results or outcomes rather than on the techniques and processes used to achieve those outcomes;

People orientation. The degree to which management decisions take into consideration the effect of outcomes on people within the organization;

Team orientation. The degree to which work activities are organized around teams rather than individuals;

Aggressiveness. The degree to which people are aggressive and competitive rather than easygoing; and

Stability. The degree to which organizational activities emphasize maintaining the status quo in contrast to growth.

ach of these characteristics exists on a continuum from low to high. Appraising the rganization on these seven characteristics, gives a composite picture of the organization's ulture.

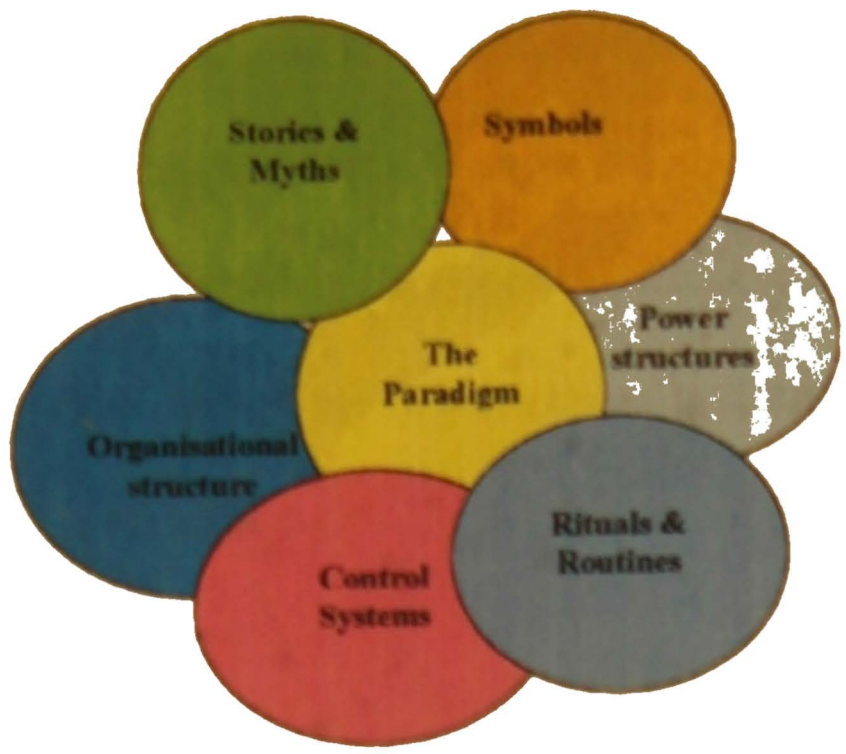
Moorhead and Griffin (1995:628), authors of books on organizational culture, feel compelled o develop their own definitions of culture. These may vary from the very broad definitions to the highly specific. Most definitions refer to some sort of values, beliefs, and attitudes that are held by individuals and the organization.

Upon close examination of the definitions, it can be assumed that there exists a general agreement that organizational culture comprises common beliefs, attitudes, and values. These values according, to Moorhead and Griffin (1995:626), help employees understand how they should act in the organizations.

The cultural web

Mullins (1999:806) presents a cultural web, as illustrated in the figure below. It brings together different aspects for the analysis of organizational culture.

The cultural web of an organization



Source : Mullins (1999:806)

The different aspects of the cultural web are as follows:

Routines-the ways that members of the organization behave towards each other and towards those outside the organization and which make up how things are done or how things should happen;

Rituals -the special events through which the organization emphasizes what is particularly important and can include formal organizational processes and informal processes;

Stories- told by members of the organization which embed the present and flag up important events and personalities, and typically have to do with success, failures, heroes, villains, and mavericks;

Symbols-such as logos, offices, cars, titles, type of language or terminology commonly used which becomes a shorthand representation of the nature of the organization;

Power structures- the most powerful individuals or groups in the organization which may be based on management position and seniority, but, in some organizations, power can be lodged with other levels or functions;

Control Systems- the measurement and reward systems that emphasize what it is important to monitor, and to focus attention and activity upon œ for example, stewardship of funds or quality of service; and

Organization structure-which reflects power structures and delineate important relationships and activities within the organization, and involves both formal structure and control and less formal systems.

All of these aspects, which make up the cultural web, help define and develop the culture of an organization. An organization's culture can be disseminated by analysing each aspect of the cultural web.

The importance of organizational culture

Mullins (1999:807) attests that culture helps to account for variations among organizations and managers, both nationally and internationally. Culture helps to explain why different groups of people perceive things in their own way and perform things differently from other groups. Culture can help reduce complexity and uncertainty. It provides a consistency in outlook and values, and makes possible the process of decision-making, co-ordination and control. "there is nothing accidental about cultural strengths....there is a relationship between organizational culture and its performance".

Saiyadin (2003:258) explains that culture performs the following functions:-

Culture supplements rational management: creation of work culture is a time- consuming process. Therefore, organization culture cannot suddenly change the behaviour of people in an organization. Culture communicates to people through symbols, values, physical settings, and language, and, thereby supplements the rational management tools such as technology and structure;

Culture facilitates induction and socialisation: induction is a process through which new

entrants to an organization are socialized and indoctrinated in the expectations of the organization; its cultural norms, and undefined conduct. The newcomer imbibes the culture of the organization, which may involve changing his / her attitudes and beliefs to achieving an internalised commitment to the organization;

Culture promotes a code of conduct: a strong culture in an organization explicitly communicates modes of behaviour so that people are conscious that certain behaviours are expected and others would never be visible. The presence of a strong culture would be evident where members share a set of beliefs, values, and assumptions which would influence their behaviour in an invisible way. Where culture has been fully assimilated by people, they persistently indulge in a typical behaviour in a spontaneous way. Promotion of the culture of quality can help achieve good business results; and

Sub-cultures contribute to organizational diversity: sub-cultures, and sub-systems of values and assumptions which may be based on departmentalisation, activity centres, or geographical locations, provide meaning to the interests of localized, specific groups of people within the macro organization. Sub-cultures can affect the organization in many ways (i) they may perpetuate and strengthen the existing culture; (ii) they may promote something very different from those existing; (iii) they may promote a totally opposite sub-culture (beliefs and values) or counter culture when in a difficult situation.

Culture and organizational performance

Denison (1984) found, in his study of organizational culture, that companies with a participative culture reaped a return on investment, which averaged nearly twice that of firms with less efficient cultures. His conclusion was that cultural and behavioural aspects of organizations were intimately linked to both short-term performance and long-term survival (Petty *et al.*, 1995:483).

A basic problem in much management thinking and writing is an impatience in showing the great potential of organizational culture. Associated with this is a bias for a premature

distinction between the good and the bad values and ideas, trivialization of culture, overstressing the role of management and the employment of causal thinking.

Premature normativity: the idea of good culture

Associated with the technical interest of optimizing means for accomplishment of goals is an underdeveloped capacity to reflect upon normative matters. Viewing cultures as means leads to evaluations of them as more or less 'good', i.e. as useful, without consideration whether this goodness is the same as usefulness or if usefulness may be very multidimensional. The more popular literature argues that 'good' or 'valuable' cultures – often equated with 'strong' cultures – are characterized by norms beneficial to the company, to customers, and to mankind and by 'good' performance in general:

> *Good cultures are characterized by norms and values supportive of excellence, teamwork, profitability, honesty, a customer service orientation, pride in one's work, and commitment to the organization. Most of all, they are supportive of adaptability – the capacity to thrive over the long run despite new competition, new regulations, new technological developments, and the strains of growth.* (Baker, 1980: 10)

Good cultures are, according to this author, cultures that incorporate all good things in peaceful co-existence. Also many other authors eager to appeal to practitioners focus on highly positive-sounding virtues, attitudes, and behaviour claimed to be useful to the achievement of corporate goals as defined by management (e.g. Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Trice and Beyer, 1985). Kilmann *et al.* (1985: 4) argue that 'a culture has a positive impact on an organization when it points behavior in the right direction.... Alternatively, a culture has negative impact when it points behavior in the wrong direction'. According to Wilkins and Patterson (1985: 272): 'The ideal culture is characterized by a clear assumption of equity, a clear sense of collective competence, and an ability to continually apply the collective competence to new situations as well as to alter it when necessary.

The effects of organizational culture on performance

There are four views on the relationship between organizational culture on performance:

1 Perhaps the most common one is the so-called strong-culture thesis. It has often been assumed that commitment of an organization's employees and managers to the same set of values, beliefs and norms will have positive results – that the 'strength' of 'corporate culture' is directly correlated with the level of profits in a company (e.g. Denison, 1984). Researchers adopting this hypothesis tend to place new kinds of human relations (involving employees in decision-making, allowing them some discretion, developing holistic relations, etc.) at the core of organizational culture (e.g. Peters and Waterman, 1982; Ouchi, 1981). It is frequently argued that a distinct organizational culture contributes to performance through facilitating goal alignment – a common culture makes it easier to agree upon goals as well as appropriate means for attaining them. There are also positive effects on motivation – a shared culture encourages people to identify with the organization and feel belongingness and responsibility for it, it is assumed (Brown, 1995).

2 There are also, however, researchers that suggest the reverse relationship between culture and performance: that high performance leads to the creation of a 'strong' corporate culture (cultural homogeneity). It is possible that success brings about a common set of orientations, beliefs and values. A particular workplace spirit may develop and there may be little incentive or encouragement to question 'ways of doing things', thus forming broad consensus and possibly conformism. This culture may be more than just a by-product of high performances: values and meanings may reproduce a successful organization and thus contribute to performances. It may also be a source of conservatism and a liability in situations calling for radical change.

3 Another idea draws upon contingency thinking to suggest that under certain conditions a particular type of culture is appropriate, even necessary, and contributes to efficiency. Wilkins and Ouchi (1983), for example, consider culture an important regulatory mechanism in organizational settings too complex and ambiguous to be controlled by traditional means (bureaucracy and the market). In corporate situations where these means of regulation function well, corporate control as a distinct form is less significant.

4 Still another version says that 'adaptive cultures' are the key to good performance, i.e cultures that are able to respond to changes in the environment. Such cultures are characterized by people willing to take risk, trust each other, are proactive, work together to identify problems and opportunities, etc. It may be tempting to say that 'adaptive cultures' are self-evidently superior. There easily enters an element of tautology here 'adaptive' implying successful adaption and this is per definition good for business. But as Brown (1995) remarks, there are organizations that are relatively stable and fit with a relatively stable environment, and risk-taking and innovation are not necessarily successful. Too much change can lead to instability, low cost-efficiency, risky projects and a loss of sense of direction.

It is very difficult to investigate and test these diverse ideas. The relatively few systematic empirical studies on the culture-performance link lead us to conclude that none of these four ideas have received much empirical support (Brown, 1995; Calori and Sarnin, 1991, Siehl and Martin, 1990). Siehl and Martin find important methodological deficiencies in all these studies and suggest that the idea of a corporate culture concept cannot be linked simply and tightly to corporate results.

2.4 Organizational Performance

One of the important questions in business has been why some organizations succeeded while others failed. Organization performance has been the most important issue for every organization be it profit or non-profit one. It has been very important for managers to know which factors influence an organization's performance in order for them to take appropriate steps to initiate them. However, defining, conceptualizing, and measuring performance have not been an easy task. Researchers among themselves have different opinions and definitions of performance, which remains to be a contentious issue among organizational researchers (Barney, 1997). The central issue concerns with the appropriateness of various approaches to the concept utilization and measurement of organizational performance (Venkatraman & R manuiam, 1986).

Definition of Organizational Performance

Researchers among themselves have different opinions of performance. Performance, in fact, continues to be a contentious issue among organizational researchers (Barney, 1997). For example, according to Javier (2002), performance is equivalent to the famous 3Es (economy, efficiency, and effectiveness) of a certain program or activity. However, according to Daft (2000), organizational performance is the organization's ability to attain its goals by using resources in an efficient and effective manner. Quite similar to Daft (2000), Richardo (2001) defined organizational performance as the ability of the organization to achieve its goals and objectives. Organizational performance has suffered from not only a definition problem, but also from a conceptual problem. This is what Hefferman and Flood (2000) stated.

They stated that as a concept in modern management, organizational performance suffered from problems of conceptual clarity in a number of areas. The first was the area of definition while the second was that of measurement. The term *performance* was sometimes confused with productivity. According to Ricardo (2001), there was a difference between performance

and productivity. Productivity was a ratio depicting the volume of work completed in a given amount of time. Performance was a broader indicator that could include productivity as well as quality, consistency and other factors. In result oriented evaluation, productivity measures were typically considered.

Ricardo (2001) argued that performance measures could include result-oriented behavior (criterion-based) and relative (normative) measures, education and training, concepts and instruments, including management development and leadership training, which were the necessary building skills and attitudes of performance management. Hence, from the above literature review, the term "*performance*" should be broader based which include effectiveness, efficiency, economy, quality, consistency behavior and normative measures (Ricardo, 2001).

The next issue that was always asked about organizational performance was what factors determine organizational performance. According to Hansen and Wernerfelt (1989) in the business policy literature, there were two major streams of research on the determinants of organizational performance. One was based on economic tradition, emphasizing the importance of external market factors in determining organizational performance. The other line of research was built on the behavioral and sociological paradigm and saw organizational factors and their 'fit' with the environment as the major determinant of success.

The economic model of organizational performance provided a range of major determinants of organizational profit which included:

(i) Characteristics of the industry in which the organization competed.

(ii) The organization's position relative to its competitors, and

(iii) The quality of the firm's resources.

Organizational model of firm performance focused on organizational factors such as human resources policies, organizational culture, and organizational climate and leadership styles

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Another study by Chien (2004) found that there were five major factors determining organizational performance, namely:

(i) Leadership styles and environment,

(ii) Organizational culture,

(iii) Job design,

(iv) Model of motive, and

(v) Human resource policies.

Measurement of Organizational Performance

Previous research had used many variables to measure organizational performance. These variables include profitability, gross profit, return on asset (ROA), return on investment (ROI), return on equity (ROE), return on sale (ROS), revenue growth , market share, stock price, sales growth, export growth, liquidity and operational efficiency (Snow & Hrebiniak, 1983; Segev, 1987; Smith,Guthrie & Chen, 1989; Parnell & Wright, 1993; Thomas & Ramaswamy, 1996; Gimenez, 2000).Although the importance of organizational performance is widely recognized, there has been considerable debate about both issues of terminology and conceptual bases for performance measurement (Ford & Schellenberg, 1982). No single measure of performance may fully explicate all aspects of the term (Snow & Hrebiniak, 1980).

There was also inconsistent measurement of organizational performance-although most researchers (Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Marcoulides & Heck, 1993; Denison & Maishra, 1995; Peter & Crawford, 2004; Lee, 2005) measured organizational performance by using quantitative data like return on investments, return on sales and so forth. The definition of performance has included both efficiency-related measures, which relate to the input/output relationship, and effectiveness related measures, which deal with issues like business growth and employee satisfaction. Additionally, performance has also been conceptualized using

financial and nonfinancial measures from both objective and perceptual sources. Objective measures include secondary source financial measures such as return on assets, return on investment, and profit growth. These measures are nonbiased and are particularly useful for single-industry studies because of the uniformity in measurement across all organizations in the sample (Venkatraman & Ramunujam, 1986).

Financial measures enable researchers to construct trend analyses and benchmarking analyses (Drew, 1997). Perceptual sources include employee evaluations of organizational effectiveness or financial health and their overall level of satisfaction. These subjective assessments of performance frequently have been used in organizational theory to evaluate organizational effectiveness and overall employee satisfaction. Given the increasing pressure of organizations to satisfy multiple stakeholder groups, there is a need for more complex measures of organizational effectiveness in which overly simplistic single variable models are inadequate expressions of the real world, multi-goal existence of organizations (Kirchhoff, 1977).

Most practitioners seemed to use the term *performance* to describe a range of measurements including input efficiency, output efficiency and in some cases transactional efficiency (Stannack, 1996). According to Doyle (1994), there was no single measure or best measure of organizational performance. Organization adopts different objectives and measurements for organizational performance. Hamel and Prahalad (1989) and Doyle (1994), however, argued that profitability was the most common measurement used for organizational performance in business organizations. This view is supported by Nash (1993) who stressed that profitability was the best indicator to identify whether an organization met its objectives or not. Other researchers such as Galbraith and Schendel (1983) supported the use of return on assets (ROA), return on equity (ROE), and profit margin as the most common measures of performance. Return on Assets (ROA) is derived by dividing net income of the fiscal year with total assets. Return on Equity (ROE) means the amount of net income returned as a

percentage of shareholders equity. It measures a corporation's profitability by revealing how much profit a company generates with the money shareholders have invested.

Richardo (2001) emphasized that successful organizations were those with the highest return on equity and those who had established performance management system "aligning" every aspect of the organization from top management to the factory floor. On the other hand. Nicholas (1998) argued that many organizations did not give a balanced picture of organizational performance. There was an over-emphasis on financial criteria. with pre-occupation with past performance. Performance measures were usually not linked to strategies and goals of the overall organization and they were inward looking and did not capture aspects of performance necessary to gain and retain customers or build long term competitive advantage. Zou and Stan (1998) proposed seven categories of financial. non-financial. and composite scales to measure export performance based on a review of the empirical literature between 1987 and 1997. The financial measures are sales measures. profit measures and growth measures. whereas the non-financial measures are perceived success. satisfaction and goal achievement. Financial measures are more objective compared to the non-financial measures which are more subjective.

Financial Performance

Firms' performance is widely measured through the financial success of the organization. Financial stress for most profit-oriented firms can be assessed both in terms of "top-line" (e.g.. sales) as well as "bottom-line" (e.g.. profitability) measures (Davis *et al*.. 2000).The profitability of an organization is an important financial indicator to reflect the efficiency of the organization and the owners managers ability to increase sales while keeping the variable costs down (Davis *et al*.. 2000). Profit margin. return on assets. return on equity. return on investment. and return on sales are considered to be the common measures of financial profitability (Robinson. 1982; Galbraith & Schendel. 1983).

Non-Financial Performance

Besides financial indicators as an evaluation of firm's performance in any industry, other industry-specific measures of effectiveness may also reflect the success of the organization. These measures include job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and employee turnover (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982; Mayer & Schoorman, 1992; Hosmer, 1995; Rich, 1997; Zulkifli & Jamaluddin, 2000). Job satisfaction is defined as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences (Rich, 1997). Similarly, Robbins (2003) defines job satisfaction as a general attitude toward one's job; the amount of rewards received should at least be equal to the expected. However, according to Hackman and Oldham (1975), job satisfaction is associated with five core dimensions: skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback from the job itself in which leading to satisfaction with supervision, satisfaction with co-workers, satisfaction with work, satisfaction with pay, and satisfaction with promotion.

Job satisfaction represents an attitude rather than a behavior, thus it has important implications on employees' physical and mental health that can affect firm's performance. Hence, job satisfaction is a key determinant to demonstrate relationship to performance factors and value preferences in most of the organizational behavior researches (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Hansen, Morrow & Batista, 2002; Robbins, 2003). On the other hand, organizational commitment has been defined in many ways. Organizational commitment refers to the willingness to exert effort in order to accomplish the organizational goals and values, and a desire to maintain membership in that organization (Mowday *et al.*, 1982; Reichers, 1985; Nyhan, 2000; Robbins, 2003). The affective dimension of organizational commitment reflects the nature and quality of the linkage between an employee and management (Oliver, 1990). Organizational commitment can thus be influenced through intrinsic incentives. Increased affective organizational commitment is essential to the

retention of quality employees (Nyhan, 2000).Both job satisfaction and organizational commitment is in fact related to employees' turnover. Employees who are low in job satisfaction and organizational commitment tend to have low morale and less motivated. These employees will have the tendency to leave their employment, thereby increasing the turnover rate (Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Reichers, 1985; Sulaiman, 1989 &1993; Nyhan, 2000; Robbins, 2003).

Job Satisfaction

Locke and Lathan (1976) give a comprehensive definition of job satisfaction as pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of ones job or job experience. Job satisfaction is a result of employee's perception of how well their job provides those things th t are viewed as important. According to (Mitchell and Lasan, 1987), it is generally recognized in the organizational behaviour field that job satisfaction is the most important and frequently studied attitude. While Luthan (1998) posited that there are three important dimensions to job satisfaction:

Job satisfaction is an emotional response to a job situation. As such it cannot be seen, it can only be inferred. Job satisfaction is often determined by how well outcome meet or exceed expectations. For instance, if organization participants feel that they are working much harder than others in the department but are receiving fewer rewards they will probably have a negative attitudes towards the work, the boss and or coworkers. On the other hand, if they feel they are being treated very well and are being paid equitably, they are likely to have positive attitudes towards the job. Job satisfaction represents several related attitudes which are most important characteristics of a job about which people have effective response. These to Luthans are: the work itself, pay, promotion opportunities, supervision and coworkers.

Job satisfaction is so important in that its absence often leads to lethargy and reduced organizational commitment (Levinson, 1997, Moser, 1997). Lack of job satisfaction is a

predictor of quitting a job (Alexander, Litchtenstein and Hellmann, 1997; Jamal, 1997). Sometimes workers may quit from public to the private sector and vice versa. At the other times the movement is from one profession to another that is considered a greener pasture. This later is common in countries grappling with dwindling economy and its concomitant such as poor conditions of service and late payment of salaries (Nwagwu, 1997). In such countries, people tend to migrate to better and consistently paying jobs (Fafunwa, 1971). Explaining its nature some researcher (e.g. Armentor, Forsyth, 1995, Flanegan, Johnson and Berret, 1996; Kadushin, and Kulys, 1995) tend to agree that job satisfaction is essentially controlled by factors described in Adeyemo's (2000) perspectives as external to the worker. From this viewpoint satisfaction on a job might be motivated by the nature of the job, its pe vasive social climate and extent to which workers peculiar needs are met. Working conditions that are similar to local and international standard (Osaghemi, 2000), and extent to which they resemble work conditions of other professions in the locality. Other inclusions are the availability of power and status, pay satisfaction, promotion opportunities, and task clarity (Bolarin, 1993; Gemenxhenandez, Max, Kosier, Paradiso and Robinson, 1997).

Other researchers (e.g. MacDonald, 1996; O'Toole, 1980) argue in favour of the control of job satisfaction by factors intrinsic to the workers. Their arguments are based on the idea that workers deliberately decide to find satisfaction in their jobs and perceive them as worthwhile.

Employee turnover

Employee turnover is a ratio comparison of the number of employees a company must replace in a given time period to the average number of total employees. Organizations invest a lot on their employees in terms of induction and training, developing, maintaining and retaining them in their organization. Therefore, managers at all costs must minimize employee's turnover. Although, there is no standard framework for understanding the

employees turnover process as whole, a wide range of factors have been found useful in interpreting employee turnover Kevin *et al.* (2004).

Definition

Employees' turnover is a much studied phenomenon Shaw *et al.* (1998).But there is no standard reason why people leave organisation. Employee turnover is the rotation of workers around the labour market; between firms, jobs and occupations; and between the states of employment and unemployment Abassi *et al.* (2000). The term "turnover" is defined by Price (1977) as: the ratio of the number of organizational members who have left during the period being considered divided by the average number of people in that organization during the period. Frequently, managers refer to turnover as the entire process associated with filling a va ancy: Each time a position is vacated, either voluntarily or involuntarily, a new employee must be hired and trained. This replacement cycle is known as turnover Woods, (1995).

This term is also often utilized in efforts to measure relationships of employees in an organization as they leave, regardless of reason. "Unfolding model" of voluntary turnover represents a divergence from traditional thinking (Hom and Griffeth, 1995) by focusing more on the decisional aspect of employee turnover, in other words, showing instances of voluntary turnover as decisions to quit. Indeed, the model is based on a theory of decision making, image theory Beach, (1990). The image theory describes the process of how individuals process information during decision making. The underlying premise of the model is that people leave organizations after they have analyzed the reasons for quitting. Beach (1990) argues that individuals seldom have the cognitive resources to systematically evaluate all incoming information, so individuals instead of simply and quickly compare incoming information to more heuristic-type decision making alternatives.

Sources of employee turnover

Job related factors

Most researchers (Bluedorn, 1982; Kalliath and Beck, 2001; Kramer *et al.*, 1995; Peters *et al.*, 1981; Saks, 1996) have attempted to answer the question of what determines people's intention to quit by investigating possible antecedents of employees' intentions to quit. To date, there has been little consistency in findings, which is partly due to the diversity employed by the researchers and the lack of consistency in their findings. Therefore, there are several reasons why people quit from one organisation to another or why people leave organisation. The experience of job related stress (job stress), the range factors that lead to job related stress (stressors), lack of commitment in the organisation; and job dissatisfaction m 'ke employees to quit Firth *et al.* (2004). This clearly indicates that these are individual decisions which make one to quit. They are other factors like personal agency refers to concepts such as a sense of powerlessness, locus of control and personal control. Locus control refers to the extent to which people believe that the external factors such as chance and powerful others are in control of the events which influence their lives Firth *et al* (2004). Manu *et al.* (2004) argue that employees quit from organization due economic reasons Using economic model they showed that people quit from organization due to economic reasons and these can be used to predict the labour turnover in the market. Good local labour market conditions improve organizational stability Schervish (1983). Large organizations can provide employees with better chances for advancement and higher wages and hence ensure organizational attachment (Idson and Feaster 1990). Trevor (2001) argues that local unemployment rates interact with job satisfaction to predict turnover in the market. Role stressors also lead to employees' turnover. Role ambiguity refers to the difference between what people expect of us on the job and what we feel we should do. This causes uncertainty about what our role should be. It can be a result of misunderstanding what is expected, how to meet the expectations, or the employee thinking the job should be different Kahn *et al.*

Muchinsky, 1990. Insufficient information on how to perform the job adequately, unclear expectations of peers and supervisors, ambiguity of performance evaluation methods, extensive job pressures, and lack of consensus on job functions or duties may cause employees to feel less involved and less satisfied with their jobs and careers, less committed to their organizations, and eventually display a propensity to leave the organisation (Tor *et al.*, 1997). If roles of employees are not clearly spelled out by management supervisors, this would accelerate the degree of employees quitting their jobs due to lack of role clarity

Voluntarily vs. involuntary turnover

There are some factors that are, in part, beyond the control of management, such as the death or incapacity of a member of staff. Other factors have been classed as involuntary turnover in th past such as the need to provide care for children or aged relatives. Today such factors should not be seen as involuntary turnover as both government regulation and company policies create the chance for such staff to come back to work, or to continue to work on a more flexible basis Simon *et al.* (2007)

Organizational factors

Organisational instability has been shown to have a high degree of high turnover. Indications are that employees are more likely to stay when there is a predictable work environment and vice versa (Zuber, 2001). In organizations where there was a high level of inefficiency there was also a high level of staff turnover (Alexander *et al.* 1994).

Therefore, in situations where organizations are not stable employees tend to quit and look for stable organisations because with stable organisations they would be able to predict their career advancement. The imposition of a quantitative approach to managing the employees led to disenchantment of staff and hence it leads to labour turnover. Therefore management should not use quantitative approach in managing its employees. Adopting a cost oriented approach to employment costs increases labour turnover Simon *et al.* (2007). All these approaches should be avoided if managers want to minimize employee turnover an increase

organisational competitiveness in this environment of globalization. Employees have a strong need to be informed. Organisation with strong communication systems enjoyed lower turnover of staff (Labov, 1997). Employees feel comfortable to stay longer, in positions where they are involved in some level of the decision-making process. That is employees should fully understand about issues that affect their working atmosphere (Magner *et al.* (1996). But in the absence openness' in sharing information, employee empowerment the chances of continuity of employees are minimal. Costly *et al.* (1987) points out that a high labour turnover may mean poor personnel policies, poor recruitment policies, poor supervisory practices, poor grievance procedures, or lack of motivation.

A'' these factors contribute to high employee turnover in the sense that there is no proper management practices and policies on personnel matters hence employees are not recruited scientifically, promotions of employees are not based on spelled out policies, no grievance procedures in place and thus employees decides to quit. Griffeth *et al.* (2000) noted that pay and pay-related variables have a modest effect on turnover. Their analysis also included studies that examined the relationship between pay, a person's performance and turnover They concluded that when high performers are insufficiently rewarded, they quit If jobs provide adequate financial incentives the more likely employees remain with organization and vice versa. There are also other factors which make employees to quit from organisations and these are poor hiring practices, managerial style, lack of recognition, lack of competitive compensation system in the organisation and toxic workplace environment Abassi *et al.* (2000).

Strategies to minimize employee turnover

Strategies on how to minimize employee turnover, confronted with problems of employee turnover, management has several policy options viz. changing (or improving existing) policies towards recruitment, selection, induction, training, job design and wage payment.

Policy choice, however, must be appropriate to the precise diagnosis of the problem. Employee turnover attributable to poor selection procedures, for example, is unlikely to improve were the policy modification to focus exclusively on the induction process. Equally, employee turnover attributable to wage rates which produce earnings that are not competitive with other firms in the local labour market is unlikely to decrease were the policy adjustment merely to enhance the organization's provision of on-the job training opportunities. Given that there is increase in direct and indirect costs of labour turnover, therefore, management are frequently exhorted to identify the reasons why people leave organization's so that appropriate action is taken by the management. Extensive research has shown that the following categories of human capital management factors provides a core set of measures that senior management can use to increase the effectiveness of their investment in people and improve overall corporate performance of business: Employee engagement, the organization's capacity to engage, retain, and optimize the value of its employees hinges on how well jobs are designed, how employees' time is used, and the commitment and support that is shown to employees by the management would motivate employees to stay in organization's. Knowledge accessibility, the extent of the organisation's "collaborativeness" and its capacity for making knowledge and ideas widely available to employees, would make employees to stay in the organisation. Sharing of information should be made at all levels of management. This accessibility of information would lead to strong performance from the employees and creating strong corporate culture Meaghan *et al.* (2002). Therefore: information accessibility would make employees feel that they are appreciated for their effort and chances of leaving the organisation are minimal. Workforce optimization, the organisation's success in optimizing the performance of the employees by establishing essential processes for getting work done, providing good working conditions, establishing accountability and making good hiring choices would retain employees in their organisation. The importance of gaining better understanding of the factors related to recruitment,

motivation and retention of employees is further underscored by rising personnel costs and high rates of employee turnover (Badawy, 1988; Basta and Johnson, 1989; Garden, 1989; Parden, 1981, Sherman, 1986). With increased competitiveness on globalizations, managers in many organizations are experiencing greater pressure from top management to improve recruitment, selection, training, and retention of good employees and in the long run would encourage employees to stay in organisations.

Job involvement describes an individual's ego involvement with work and indicates the extent to which an individual identifies psychologically with his/her job (Kanungo, 1982). Involvement in terms of internalizing values about the goodness or the importance of work made employees not to quit their jobs and these involvements are related to task characteristics. Workers who have a greater variety of tasks tend stay in the job. Task characteristics have been found to be potential determinants of turnover among employees (Couger, 1988, Couger and Kawasaki, 1980, Garden, 1989, Goldstein and Rockart, 1984). These include the five core job characteristics identified by Hackman and Oldham (1975, 1980): skill variety, which refers to the opportunity to utilize a variety of valued skills and talents on the job; task identity, or the extent to which a job requires completion of a whole and identifiable piece of work - that is, doing a job from beginning to end, with visible results; task significance, which reflects the extent to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people, whether within or outside the organisation; job autonomy, or the extent to which the job provides freedom, independence, and discretion in scheduling work and determining procedures that the job provides; and job feedback, which refers to the extent to which the job provides information about the effectiveness of one's performance (Tor *et al*., 1997).

Involvement would influence job satisfaction and increase organizational commitment of the employees. Employees who are more involved in their jobs are more satisfied with their jobs and more committed to their organization (Blau and Boal, 1989; Brooke and Price, 1989;

Brooke *et al.*, 1988; Kanungo, 1982). Job involvement has also been found to be negatively related to turnover intentions (Blat and Boal, 1989). Job satisfaction, career satisfaction, and organisational commitment reflect a positive attitude towards the organization, thus having a direct influence on employee turnover intentions. Job satisfaction, job involvement and organisational commitment are considered to be related but distinguishable attitudes (Brooke and Price, 1989). Satisfaction represents an affective response to specific aspects of the job or career and denotes the pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from an appraisal of one's job or career (Locke, 1976; Porter *et al.*, 1974; Williams and Hazer, 1986) Organisational commitment is an affective response to the whole organisation and the degree of attachment or loyalty employees feel towards the organisation. Job involvement represents the extent to which employees are absorbed in or preoccupied with their jobs and the extent to which an individual identifies with his/her job (Brooke *et al.*, 1988) The degree of commitment and loyalty can be achieved if management they enrich the jobs, empower and compensate employees properly. Empowerment of employees could help to enhance the continuity of employees in organisations. Empowered employees where managers supervise more people than in a traditional hierarchy and delegate more decisions to their subordinates (Malone, 1997). Managers act like coaches and help employees solve problems. Employees, he concludes, have increased responsibility. Superiors empowering subordinates by delegating responsibilities to them leads to subordinates who are more satisfied with their leaders and consider them to be fair and in turn to perform up to the superior's expectations (Keller and Dansereau, 1995). All these make employees to be committed to the organization and chances of quitting are minimal.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

.0 Introduction

'his chapter gives a detailed description of the research design, study population, sampling rocedure and size, the instruments, data collection and analysis.

3.1 Research Design

n this section we look at the plan of action, methodology, approaches and techniques that vere used in the study. Specifically the study adopted a cross-sectional survey design vhereby the views of the respondent were sorted once only. The approach used was purely uantitative design. It was in order to generate quantified data that was used to explain the elationship between the study variables.

A research design is a plan, structure and strategy of investigation so conceived as to obtain answers to research questions or problems (Kumar, 2005). It is the systematic plan for collecting data in order to provide answers to specific questions (Runyon & Haber, 1988). The design was quantitative in nature. The researcher's interest was to look at the relationship between leadership quality and organisational performance in reference to Uganda Universities and to achieve the general objective of the study by accounting for the variance of the dependent variable by the different independent variable either separately or in combination.

3.2 Study Population

Runyon and Haber (1988) defined population as "a complete set of individuals, objects, or measurements having some common observable characteristics, or a theoretical set of potential observations." The study was conducted in Gulu University and Uganda Martyrs

University. It involved the Academic, Senior Administrative and Support staff of the two Universities

3.3 Sampling Procedure and Sample size

The study used stratified sampling technique to get responses from the study population. This technique was chosen because the population within a stratum shows homogeneity in characteristics throughout the Universities. Also this enabled all the beneficiaries of the Universities to be represented amongst the respondents in the study (see Table 3.1)

Table 3. 1: Study Population and Sampling Size

	Frequency	
	Gulu University	Uganda Martyrs University
Academic	85	35
Senior Administrative	65	25
Support	50	20
Total	**200**	**80**

The determination of this sample size was based on the Krejcie and Morgan (1970) table in Amin (2005). According to this table, there are given sample size for the given population sizes (N), the sample size was determined quantitatively as from the formula below:

$$n = \left(\frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}\right)$$

Where

N=Total Sample population

n= Sample size

e= Accepted error

For Gulu University. The values for N are a) academic staff N=110, b) Senior Administrative staff N=83 and Support staff N=63

For Uganda Martyrs University, the N values are a)Academic N=45, b) Senior Administrative staff N=32 and Support staff N=25

3.4 Data Collection Techniques and Instruments

Data was collected from both primary and secondary sources. Secondary information was gathered from the available literature which was used as a guiding principle at the same time providing the researcher with an insight of the study. Under this source, a non survey method called documentary analysis was used to obtain the data. On the other hand, primary data was collected using the cross-sectional survey method which was administered by way of questionnaire

3.4.1 Source of Data

There were two sources from which information was collected to reflect leadership quality and organisational performance in Gulu University and Uganda Martyrs University

3.4.2 Primary Sources

Only the questionnaire was used to collect primary data from respondents. The instrument was structured in such a way that leadership nature and other independent variables (Employee Commitment and Organisational Culture) could easily be analyzed

3.4.3 Secondary Sources

The main source of these data includes literature from related journals, internet, newsletters papers, Textbooks and other supportive data from Gulu University Library. Other facts was gathered through the documentary study of the National Council of Higher Education

3.5 Instruments

The instruments used in the study were the Questionnaire and personal observation of documents

3.5.1 Questionnaires

A close-ended questionnaire was administered to respondents The use of close-ended questions was thought to be more appropriate since the study had an overview and an insight as put forward by other scholars. It therefore simply intended to establish the relationship that existed between the variables The Questionnaire method helped the respondents to read through the question several times and understood in order to give the most suitable answers The questionnaires were more applicable to the researcher because information collected was easily obtained fairly, easily and questionnaire responses could be easily coded

3.5.2 Testing the validity and reliability of the Data Collection Instruments

Validity

The validity of the research instrument describes an indicator of a concept i e it has to measure what it is intended to measure The researcher relied on the supervisor and colleagues to evaluate the content of the test to ensure that it was representative of the area which the test was intended to cover The task was carried out by experts in the field of Management to judge whether a collection of tests would meet certain skills

Reliability

A reliable measuring instrument was used to produce the same result on different occasions. Cronbach alpha coefficient (Cronbach, 1951) was used as a test of reliability as to whether a respondent would give the same answers repeatedly, if the measurement could be made in such a way that their situation had not changed and they could not remember the answer they

gave before. Correlation achieved here was expected to exceed 0.9. this is as indicated in the table below:

Table 3. 2 Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.86	28

3.5.3 Data Processing and Analysis

Data processing and analysis of coded data was done by the use of statistical package of social sciences (SPSS) on the computer. Each questionnaire was checked for accuracy. consistency and completeness using the descriptive statistics. and finally drawing proper conclusion and recommendation.

3.6 Limitations

A major limitation of the study was the scarcity of recent literature relating to the relationship between leadership and performance of schools in the Uganda context. Most of the recent literature that was accessible was from western countries. which was not always relevant to the local situation in Uganda.

The study was also limited to a representative sample due to the high expenses which would be involved in terms of time and funds if a longitudinal study was to be conducted. Furthermore. the representative sample to be used was limited in scope to enable the generalization of the findings from the study on the effect of leadership on institutional performance in Ugandan universities. The findings of this study would consequently not be generalized to all schools in the country. since different geographical areas may have their own peculiar characteristics in terms of location. the socio-economic status and the culture of institution.

3.7 Assumptions

- The problem of preference continues to torment the institutions.
- Public Universities operate under the same conditions so the findings in Gulu University apply to all other public Universities.
- Private Universities also operate under same conditions so the findings in Uganda Martyrs University apply to all other private Universities.

3.8 Ethical Considerations

The researcher received an introduction letter from the University to enable him collect data from the two Universities. The researcher by use of this introduction letter sought permission from the higher authorities before distribution of the research instrument and lastly, the responses received from the respondents were treated with utmost confidentiality.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND ANALYSIS

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study as well as their interpretation and analysis. The findings relate to the analysis of the data collected on Leadership Quality and Organisational Performance in Ugandan Universities Comparative study of Gulu University and Uganda Martyrs University.

The study was carried out with the major aim of answering the research questions using the methodology described in chapter three.

The research objectives were: to examine the quality and nature of leadership in Gulu and Uganda Martyrs Universities, to analyse the effect of employee commitment in the performance of Gulu and Uganda Martyrs Universities, to explore the organisational culture in Gulu and Uganda Martyrs Universities and how they affect performance in these Universities.

4.1 Data Presentation

4.1.1 Bio data information

This section describes the characteristics of the respondents in the study as shown in the tables below:

Table 4. 1: Gender Distribution

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	144	58.1	58.1	58.1
	Female	104	41.9	41.9	100
	Total	248	100	100	

Source: Field Research

In Table 4.1, we observe that a total of 248 persons participated in the research instead of the 280 total number which was expected. The total number of respondents who participated was representative hence the findings from them can be used to draw conclusion. Majority of the respondents were Male (58.1%) and the minority are female (41.9%). Though not of equal proportion, the study was gender balanced

Table 4. 2: Age bracket

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Below 20	2	.8	.8	.8
	20-24	18	7.3	7.3	8.1
	25-29	36	14.5	14.5	22.6
	30-34	64	25.8	25.8	48.4
	35-39	54	21.8	21.8	70.2
	40-44	41	16.5	16.5	86.7
	45-49	19	7.7	7.7	94.4
	50-54	9	3.6	3.6	98.0
	55 and above	5	2.0	2.0	100.0
	Total	248	100.0	100.0	

Source Field Research

From Table 4.2, the Findings revealed more respondents were aged between 30-34 years (25.8%) followed by 35-39 (21.8%) and 40-44 years (16.5%) then 25-29 years (14.5%). This then shows a total of 78.6% of the respondents ranging from 25-44 years. The results also show that the respondents age ranging from below 20 years to 24 years represented only

8.1% of the total number of respondents while 13.3% of the respondents were from 45 years and above.

Table 4. 3: Marital Status

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Single	79	31.9	32	32
	Married	146	58.9	59.1	91.1
	Divorced	9	3.6	3.6	94.7
	Separated	11	4.4	4.5	99.2
	Widowed	2	0.8	0.8	100
	Total	247	99.6	100	
Missing	No response	1	0.4		
Total		248	100		

Source: Field Research

Table 4.3 revealed that 79 (31.9%) of the respondents were single. 146 (58.9%) married. 9 (3.6%). divorced 11 (4.4%) separated. 2 (0.8%) also were widowed.

Table 4. 4: Highest Level of Education

			Name of Institution		Total
			Gulu University	Uganda Martyrs University	
Highest Level of Education	O Level	Count	11	5	16
		% within Highest Level of Education	68 8%	31 3%	100 0%
		% of Total	4 4%	2 0%	6 5%
	A Level	Count	13	3	16
		% within Highest Level of Education	81 3%	18 8%	100 0%
		% of Total	5 2%	1 2%	6 5%
	Diploma	Count	13	9	22
		% within Highest Level of Education	59 1%	40 9%	100 0%
		% of Total	5 2%	3 6%	8 9%
	First Degree	Count	54	18	72
		% within Highest Level of Education	75 0%	25 0%	100 0%
		% of Total	21 8%	7 3%	29 0%
	Postgraduate	Count	11	4	15
		% within Highest Level of Education	73 3%	26 7%	100 0%
		% of Total	4 4%	1 6%	6 0%
	Masters	Count	64	28	92
		% within Highest Level of Education	69 6%	30 4%	100 0%
		% of Total	25 8%	11 3%	37 1%
	PhD	Count	10	5	15
		% within Highest Level of Education	66 7%	33 3%	100 0%
		% of Total	4 0%	2 0%	6 0%
Total		Count	176	72	248
		% within Highest Level of Education	71 0%	29 0%	100 0%
		% of Total	71 0%	29 0%	100 0%

Source: Field Research

The study as seen from Table 4.4 revealed that most of the respondent were Master holders with 92 (37.1%) of which 64 (25.8%) were from Gulu University and 28 (11.3%) were from Uganda Martyrs University Nkozi, followed by first degree 72 (29%) of which 57 (21.8%) were from Gulu University and 18 (7.3%) were from Uganda Martyrs University Nkozi, then

Diploma holders 22 (8.9%) of which 13 (5.2%) were from Gulu University and 9 (3.6%) were from Uganda Martyrs University Nkozi. A level had 16 (6.5%) of which 11 (4.4%) were from Gulu University while 3 (1.2%) were from Uganda Martyrs University Nkozi. O level had also 16 (6.5%) of which 11 (4.4%) were from Gulu University while 5 (2.0%) were from Uganda Martyrs University Nkozi. Postgraduate Diploma holders were 15 (6.0%) of which 11 (4.4%) were from Gulu University and 4 (1.6%) were from Uganda Martyrs University Nkozi and PhD holders were also 15 (6.0%) of which 10 (4.0%) were from Gulu University and 5 (2.0%) were from Uganda Martyrs University Nkozi.

From the above table, we can conclude that relatively, Gulu University has more qualified staff interms of Masters Degree holders of 64 (25.8%) compared to Uganda Martyrs University of 28 (11.3%) and PhD 10 (4.0%) of Gulu University compared to 5 (2%) of Uganda Martyrs University Nkozi.

Table 4. 5: Category of Staff

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Academic	113	45.6	45.6	45.6
	Senior Administrative	78	31.5	31.5	77.0
	Support	57	23.0	23.0	100.0
	Total	248	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Research

Overall, we observe that a total of 248 respondents study from the Universities. Majority of these respondents were the 3 (45.6%) Senior Administrative Staff with 78 (31.5%) and

Table 4. 6: Transactional Leadership

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Supervisor rewards for effective performance	Count	35	67	27	104	15	248
	%	14.1%	27.0%	10.9%	41.9%	6.0%	100.0%
Supervisor explains how to do work to get rewarded	Count	21	57	18	134	18	248
	%	8.5%	23.0%	7.3%	54.0%	7.3%	100.0%
Supervisor checks on quality of work from time to time	Count	15	38	25	131	39	248
	%	6.0%	15.3%	10.1%	52.8%	15.7%	100.0%
Supervisors asks for progress report on daily basis	Count	9	51	22	122	44	248
	%	3.6%	20.6%	8.9%	49.2%	17.7%	100.0%
Supervisor provides sufficient information about work	Count	17	87	20	93	30	247
	%	6.9%	35.2%	8.1%	37.7%	12.1%	100.0%
Supervisor takes time to listen	Count	17	34	25	123	47	246
	%	6.9%	13.8%	10.2%	50.0%	19.1%	100.0%
Supervisor cares for career advancement	Count	22	73	55	82	16	248
	%	8.9%	29.4%	22.2%	33.1%	6.5%	100.0%
Supervisor offers training opportunities in formal setting	Count	30	52	29	113	24	248
	%	12.1%	21.0%	11.7%	45.6%	9.7%	100.0%
Supervisor appreciates role in the workplace	Count	16	37	26	141	28	248
	%	6.5%	14.9%	10.5%	56.9%	11.3%	100.0%
Supervisor demonstrates accurate decision in work	Count	8	74	57	94	15	248
	%	3.2%	29.8%	23.0%	37.9%	6.0%	100.0%
Supervisor gets well with me at workplace	Count	13	32	27	148	28	248
	%	5.2%	12.9%	10.9%	59.7%	11.3%	100.0%
Supervisor makes his/her attitudes clear to every member	Count	9	44	56	122	16	247
	%	3.6%	17.8%	22.7%	49.4%	6.5%	100.0%
There is good communication flow between my supervisor and me	Count	8	36	24	143	37	248
	%	3.2%	14.5%	9.7%	57.7%	14.9%	100.0%
Supervisor is supportive enough to enable me perform well	Count	8	83	25	107	25	248
	%	3.2%	33.5%	10.1%	43.1%	10.1%	100.0%
Supervisor encourages use of uniform procedures at the workplace	Count	13	46	27	120	42	248
	%	5.2%	18.5%	10.9%	48.4%	16.9%	100.0%
Average	**%**	**6.5%**	**21.8%**	**12.5%**	**47.8%**	**11.4%**	

Source: Field Research

From the Table 4.6, it is revealed that most respondents agree that transactional leadership was being practiced in their institutions (average of 59.2%) while only 28.3% said that

transaction leadership was not being practiced. From the transaction leadership items, most respondents agreed that there was good communication flow between them and their supervisors (72.6%) while only 17.7% of the respondents disagreed with a view that there was no good communication flow between them and the supervisors. Also to mention was that 71% of the respondents agreed that their supervisors get well with them at their work places while only 18.1% of the respondents disagreed that their supervisors get well with them at their workplaces.

On the other hand, 39.6% of the respondents agreed that their supervisors care about their career advancements while 38.3% of the respondents disagreed about their supervisors caring about their career advancement. Also 49% of the respondents agree that their supervisors provide sufficient information about their work while 42.1% disagree with the statement. These figures are almost the same therefore there is need for improvement in those area.

Table 4. 7 : Transformational Leadership

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
Supervisor is a role model to follow	Count	19	42	38	97	52	248
	%	7.7%	16.9%	15.3%	39.1%	21.0%	100.0%
I Have complete belief in my supervisor	Count	21	94	42	70	21	248
	%	8.5%	37.9%	16.9%	28.2%	8.5%	100.0%
Supervisor makes everyone around him/her feel good	Count	16	50	45	118	17	246
	%	6.5%	20.3%	18.3%	48.0%	6.9%	100.0%
My Supervisor finds out what I need and tries to help me get it	Count	18	99	36	83	12	248
	%	7.3%	39.9%	14.5%	33.5%	4.8%	100.0%
Supervisor expresses appreciation when il do a good job	Count	10	75	30	104	29	248
	%	4.0%	30.2%	12.1%	41.9%	11.7%	100.0%
Supervisor gives personnal attention when one seems to be neglected	Count	17	67	38	107	19	248
	%	6.9%	27.0%	15.3%	43.1%	7.7%	100.0%
Supervisor encourages a look at problems from a different perspective	Count	13	42	30	122	41	248
	%	5.2%	16.9%	12.1%	49.2%	16.5%	100.0%
Supervisor talkes about importance of mutual trust among members	Count	13	41	24	113	57	248
	%	5.2%	16.5%	9.7%	45.6%	23.0%	100.0%
Supervisor provides coaching to help develop new skills	Count	18	57	26	113	33	247

	%	7.3%	23.1%	10.5%	45.7%	13.4%	100.0%
Supervisor encourages me to participate in all decision makings that involve my work	Count	23	82	22	102	19	248
	%	9.3%	33.1%	8.9%	41.1%	7.7%	100.0%
Supervisor consults me before making decisions that pertain me	Count	32	62	20	105	29	248
	%	12.9%	25.0%	8.1%	42.3%	11.7%	100.0%
I am invited to address the administrative problems at my workplace	Count	33	60	25	107	23	248
	%	13.3%	24.2%	10.1%	43.1%	9.3%	100.0%
My supervisor guides me in solving administrative problems with fellow staff	Count	20	68	22	106	31	247
	%	8.1%	27.5%	8.9%	42.9%	12.6%	100.0%
Supervisor makes personal sacrifice and goes beyond self intererst for the benefit of the University	Count	31	77	66	57	17	248
	%	12.5%	31.0%	26.6%	23.0%	6.9%	100.0%
Supervisor delegates part of his/her power to me after carefully coaching me	Count	36	70	16	100	26	248
	%	14.5%	28.2%	6.5%	40.3%	10.5%	100.0%
I Consider my supervisor to be trusworthy	Count	52	54	45	70	27	248
	%	21.0%	21.8%	18.1%	28.2%	10.9%	100.0%
My supervisor exhibits honesty in his/her dealings	Count	31	53	65	77	22	248
	%	12.5%	21.4%	26.2%	31.0%	8.9%	100.0%
Supervisor goes extra mile to make it pleasant to be member of his group	Count	32	62	62	81	11	248
	%	12.9%	25.0%	25.0%	32.7%	4.4%	100.0%
Average	**%**	**9.7%**	**25.9%**	**14.6%**	**38.8%**	**10.9%**	

Source: Field Research

Table 4.7 shows that transformational leadership is being practiced (49.7%) while 35.6% said that there was no transformation leadership style being practiced in their institutions. 68.6% of the respondents said that their supervisors talked about the importance of mutual trust among members while only 21.9% of the respondents said that their supervisors do not talk about the importance of mutual trust among the members. Also 65.7% of the respondents agreed that their supervisors encouraged them to look at problems from a different perspective.

On the other hand, It is also important to note that much as most respondents agreed that there was transformational leadership being practiced, most respondents disagreed on the following issues; that their supervisors find out what they need and try to help them get

(47.2%), that they have complete belief in their supervisors (46.4%), their supervisors make personal sacrifice and go beyond self interest for the benefit of their institutions (43.5%).

Table 4. 8 : Employee Commitment

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
I would be happy to spend the remainder of my career with this University	Count	21	50	61	85	31	248
	%	8.5%	20.2%	24.6%	34.3%	12.5%	100.0%
I am proud to tell people that I work for this University	Count	10	36	23	125	54	248
	%	4.0%	14.5%	9.3%	50.4%	21.8%	100.0%
I feel a strong sense of belonging to this University	Count	11	46	24	112	55	248
	%	4.4%	18.5%	9.7%	45.2%	22.2%	100.0%
I Feel emotionally attached to this University	Count	41	79	25	71	32	248
	%	16.5%	31.9%	10.1%	28.6%	12.9%	100.0%
It is difficult for me to leave this University right now	Count	20	97	41	71	19	248
	%	8.1%	39.1%	16.5%	28.6%	7.7%	100.0%
I am not afraid of leaving this University even if I do not have another job offer	Count	30	67	42	88	21	248
	%	12.1%	27.0%	16.9%	35.5%	8.5%	100.0%
I feel comfortable working with this University	Count	17	37	22	149	23	248
	%	6.9%	14.9%	8.9%	60.1%	9.3%	100.0%
I am proud to be working with this University	Count	18	30	23	130	47	248
	%	7.3%	12.1%	9.3%	52.4%	19.0%	100.0%
This University is the right organisation for me to spend my time work for	Count	20	33	46	121	28	248
	%	8.1%	13.3%	18.5%	48.8%	11.3%	100.0%
I continue working in this University because loyalty is important	Count	12	36	30	105	65	248
	%	4.8%	14.5%	12.1%	42.3%	26.2%	100.0%
I do not feel a sence of ownership towards this University	Count	19	71	26	99	33	248
	%	7.7%	28.6%	10.5%	39.9%	13.3%	100.0%
I feel as if this Department's successes and problems are my own	Count	37	87	34	72	18	248
	%	14.9%	35.1%	13.7%	29.0%	7.3%	100.0%
I am satisfied working for this organisation	Count	16	53	28	126	25	248
	%	6.5%	21.4%	11.3%	50.8%	10.1%	100.0%
I enjoy discussing this University with outsiders	Count	25	81	22	86	33	247
	%	10.1%	32.8%	8.9%	34.8%	13.4%	100.0%
Average	**%**	**8.56%**	**23.1%**	**12.9%**	**41.5%**	**14.0%**	

Source: Field Research

The table 4.8 reflect that more employees are committed to their institutions (55.5%). While 31.7% of the respondents were not committed to their institutions.

In light of employee commitment, 72.2% of the respondents were proud to tell people that they worked with their institutions, 71.4% of the respondents are proud to be working with their institutions and 69.4% of the respondents feel comfortable working with their institutions.

On the other hand, 50% of the respondents did not feel as if their departmental successes and problems were their own, 48% of the respondents did not feel emotionally attached to their institutions and 47% of the respondents did not find it difficult for them to leave their institutions.

Table 4. 9: Organizational Culture

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
The organisation makes me feel like it is my personal place	Count	30	75	25	85	33	248
	%	12.1%	30.2%	10.1%	34.3%	13.3%	100.0%
People have more freedom at their work at this organisation	Count	17	90	30	86	25	248
	%	6.9%	36.3%	12.1%	34.7%	10.1%	100.0%
The organisation has become more receptive to feedback	Count	20	89	45	82	12	248
	%	8.1%	35.9%	18.1%	33.1%	4.8%	100.0%
There is more open communication within the Organanisation	Count	28	83	31	93	13	248
	%	11.3%	33.5%	12.5%	37.5%	5.2%	100.0%
The organisation has become less bureaucratic	Count	88	83	23	48	6	248
	%	35.5%	33.5%	9.3%	19.4%	2.4%	100.0%
Roles of employees are more clear in this organisation	Count	19	43	24	132	30	248
	%	7.7%	17.3%	9.7%	53.2%	12.1%	100.0%
Job description are very clear at my organisation	Count	17	39	21	131	40	248
	%	6.9%	15.7%	8.5%	52.8%	16.1%	100.0%
The organisation always encourages innovation	Count	20	77	60	80	11	248
	%	8.1%	31.0%	24.2%	32.3%	4.4%	100.0%
The organisation encourages risk taking	Count	29	88	61	60	10	248
	%	11.7%	35.5%	24.6%	24.2%	4.0%	100.0%
Teamwork rather than individual work is encouraged at this University	Count	23	47	32	106	40	248

	%	9.3%	19.0%	12.9%	42.7%	16.1%	100.0%
Top management maintains a sense of order in this University	Count	28	68	33	90	28	247
	%	11.3%	27.5%	13.4%	36.4%	11.3%	100.0%
Top management recieve special benefits not available to other employees at this University	Count	15	31	36	94	72	248
	%	6.0%	12.5%	14.5%	37.9%	29.0%	100.0%
Top management are given higher respect compared to other employees at this University	Count	31	20	21	101	75	248
	%	12.5%	8.1%	8.5%	40.7%	30.2%	100.0%
Most decisions are endorsed by top executives	Count	15	17	16	98	102	248
	%	6.0%	6.9%	6.5%	39.5%	41.1%	100.0%
Employees who perform the best are paid extra for their efforts	Count	67	72	54	42	13	248
	%	27.0%	29.0%	21.8%	16.9%	5.2%	100.0%
Employees are encourages to search for ways to work more effeciently	Count	23	64	54	94	13	248
	%	9.3%	25.8%	21.8%	37.9%	5.2%	100.0%
Employees work well in teams	Count	22	45	44	116	21	248
	%	8.9%	18.1%	17.7%	46.8%	8.5%	100.0%
Employees are treated fairly	Count	30	61	25	109	23	248
	%	12.1%	24.6%	10.1%	44.0%	9.3%	100.0%
Employees recieve assistance to overcome any personal problems	Count	48	97	31	61	11	248
	%	19.4%	39.1%	12.5%	24.6%	4.4%	100.0%
Leaders work hard to keep employees happy	Count	44	67	29	92	16	248
	%	17.7%	27.0%	11.7%	37.1%	6.5%	100.0%
Employees are always informed of what is happening in the Organisation	Count	34	84	35	76	19	248
	%	13.7%	33.9%	14.1%	30.6%	7.7%	100.0%
Employees care for each other greatly	Count	32	48	30	106	32	248
	%	12.9%	19.4%	12.1%	42.7%	12.9%	100.0%
The University listens to all stakeholders and responds quickly to their needs	Count	82	91	33	32	10	248
	%	33.1%	36.7%	13.3%	12.9%	4.0%	100.0%
Employees adapt quickly to new work requirements	Count	22	72	62	74	17	247
	%	8.9%	29.1%	25.1%	30.0%	6.9%	100.0%
Average	**%**	**13.2%**	**26.1%**	**14.4%**	**35.1%**	**11.3%**	

Source: Field Research

Table 4.9 indicates that 46.4% of the respondents were in agreement with the concept of organisational culture while 39.3% of the respondents were in disagreed with the same.

On the organizational culture items, 80% of the respondents agreed that most decisions were endorsed by the top executives, 70.9% of the respondents said that top management were

given higher respect compared to other employees, 68.9% of the respondents agreed that their job descriptions were very clear at their institutions.

Also to mention 69.8% of the respondents disagreed that their Universities listened to all stakeholders and responded quickly to their needs, 69% of the respondents disagreed that their organizations had become less bureaucratic and 58% of the respondents also disagreed that they received assistance to overcome any of their personal problem.

Table 4. 10 : Organizational Performance

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Not Sure	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
There is formal written performance appraisal system	Count	13	19	19	130	66	247
	%	5.3%	7.7%	7.7%	52.6%	26.7%	100.0%
The performance appraisal system used here is fair	Count	16	44	39	102	47	248
	%	6.5%	17.7%	15.7%	41.1%	19.0%	100.0%
I am informed of hoe my performance is evaluated	Count	41	60	27	95	24	247
	%	16.6%	24.3%	10.9%	38.5%	9.7%	100.0%
I recieve feedback of performance evaluation results about myself	Count	61	102	17	52	16	248
	%	24.6%	41.1%	6.9%	21.0%	6.5%	100.0%
I feel I am valued by this University	Count	25	39	47	109	27	247
	%	10.1%	15.8%	19.0%	44.1%	10.9%	100.0%
I recieve adquate training to do my job well	Count	31	105	18	63	31	248
	%	12.5%	42.3%	7.3%	25.4%	12.5%	100.0%
I am not overwhelmed by my responsibilities	Count	29	66	26	110	17	248
	%	11.7%	26.6%	10.5%	44.4%	6.9%	100.0%
The orientation I recieved prepared me well for the job	Count	26	44	31	119	28	248
	%	10.5%	17.7%	12.5%	48.0%	11.3%	100.0%
I Regularly think/worry about work issues when i am at home	Count	38	91	27	65	27	248
	%	15.3%	36.7%	10.9%	26.2%	10.9%	100.0%
I am satisfied with my income	Count	107	80	20	34	7	248
	%	43.1%	32.3%	8.1%	13.7%	2.8%	100.0%
I would not leave this University even if I had other alternatives	Count	50	83	72	33	10	248
	%	20.2%	33.5%	29.0%	13.3%	4.0%	100.0%
I have mastered the skills necessary to perform my work	Count	9	16	25	138	60	248
	%	3.6%	6.5%	10.1%	55.6%	24.2%	100.0%
I have ample opportunities for advancement in this profession	Count	15	40	47	112	34	248
	%	6.0%	16.1%	19.0%	45.2%	13.7%	100.0%
My job motivates me to perform at the highest level	Count	27	56	24	110	31	248
	%	10.9%	22.6%	9.7%	44.4%	12.5%	100.0%

The job adds significant pressure and anxiety to my ife	Count	41	83	23	75	26	248
	%	16.5%	33.5%	9.3%	30.2%	10.5%	100.0%
If i need extra training, it will be available for me	Count	32	86	58	55	17	248
	%	12.9%	34.7%	23.4%	22.2%	6.9%	100.0%
I am satisfied with the benefits offered to me through this job	Count	66	100	20	47	15	248
	%	26.6%	40.3%	8.1%	19.0%	6.0%	100.0%
Average	**%**	**14.9%**	**26.4%**	**12.8%**	**34.4%**	**11.5%**	

Source: Field Research

As can be seen from Table 4.10, 45.9% of the respondents agreed that their institutions were performing while 41.3% of the respondents disagree that their institutions perform.

79.8% of the respondents agreed that they had mastered the skills necessary for them to perform, 79.3% of the respondents also agreed that there was formal written appraisal systems in their institutions.

On the other hand, 75.4% of the respondents disagreed that they were satisfied with their income, 65.7% of the respondents disagreed that they received feedback of performance evaluation results, 66.9% of the respondents also disagreed that they were satisfied with the benefits to them through their jobs.

4.3 Data Analysis

4.3.1 Analysis of Variance

The analysis of variance presents the average variations of responses on one variable between two groups on a particular scale. In this study, the groups studied were Gulu University and Uganda Martyrs University .Their responses were tested on the variables of transactional leadership, transformational leadership, employee commitment, organizational culture and organizational performance. The responses were tested on the scale of 1 to 5 in the order as Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Not Sure, Agree and strongly Agree respectively with a confidence level of 95% (0.05).

The result is as presented in the Table 4.11 below.

Table 4. 11: Analysis of variance

Construct	Institution	N	Mean	Std. Dev.	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		F	Sig
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Transactional	Gulu University	176	3.45	0.708	3.35	3.56		
Leadership	Uganda Martyrs University	72	3.31	0.781	3.12	3.49		
	Total	248	3.41	0.731	3.32	3.5	2.131	0.146
Transformational	Gulu University	176	3.34	0.797	3.22	3.45		
Leadership	Uganda Martyrs University	72	2.96	0.879	2.75	3.16		
	Total	248	3.23	0.838	3.12	3.33	10.75	0.001
Employee	Gulu University	176	3.43	0.737	3.32	3.54		
Commitment	Uganda Martyrs University	72	3.19	0.816	3.00	3.39		
	Total	248	3.36	0.766	3.26	3.45	4.741	0.03
Organizational	Gulu University	176	3.15	0.627	3.06	3.25		
Culture	Uganda Martyrs University	72	2.85	0.944	2.63	3.07		
	Total	248	3.06	0.745	2.97	3.16	8.915	0.003
Organizational	Gulu University	176	3.05	0.564	2.96	3.13		
Performance	Uganda Martyrs University	72	2.96	0.813	2.77	3.15		
	Total	248	3.02	0.645	2.94	3.1	0.931	0.336

From Table 4.11, we note that the responses from the two Universities vary according to the variables tested.

Specifically, in transactional leadership, respondents from Gulu University had the highest performance (mean 3.45) as compared to those of Uganda Martyrs University (mean 3.31). However, this performance was not of any significant importance since the significance level is above the present 0.05 (0.146) significance level. This means that the practice of transactional leadership is almost the same in the two Institutions

For Transformational leadership, respondents from Gulu University had also the highest performance (mean 3.35) as compared to those of Uganda Martyrs University (mean 2.96). This performance was of a significant importance since the significance level is below the present 0.05 (0.001) significance level. This means that the practice of transformational leadership is not the same in the two Institutions.

Respondents from Gulu University also had the highest performance for Employee Commitment (mean 3.43) as compared to those of Uganda Martyrs University (mean 3.19). This performance was of a significant importance since the significance level is below the present 0.05 (0.03) significance level. This means that the level of commitment of the employees is not the same in the two Institutions.

For Organisational Culture, respondents from Gulu University had also the highest performance (mean 3.15) as compared to those of Uganda Martyrs University (mean 2.85). This performance was of a significant importance since the significance level is below the present 0.05 (0.003). This means that the practice of transformational leadership is not the same in the two Institutions.

Organizational performance had respondents from Gulu University with the highest performance (mean 3.05) as compared to those of Uganda Martyrs University (mean 2.96). However, this performance was not of any significant importance since the significance level is above the present 0.05 (0.336). This means that the practice of level of organizational performance is almost the same in the two Institutions.

In conclusion therefore, we can say that relatively, Gulu University as far as quality leadership is concerned performs better than Uganda Martyrs University. However, as far as Organisational Performance is concerned, they are at the same level.

4.3.2 Measuring Relationships amongst the variables

To measure the relationship amongst the study variables that is Transactional Leadership, Transformational Leadership, Employee Commitment, Organisational Culture and Organisational Performance, the Pearson Product moment correlation was used. Pearson correlation measures relationships that exist between two variables in terms of either a positive perfect relationship (+1) or a negative perfect relationship (-1) at either 95% level of confidence (0.05) or 99% level of confidence (0.01 significance level). These relationships are as indicated in the table xii below:

Table 4. 12: Correlations

		Transactional Leadership	Tranformational Leadership	Employee Commitement	Organisational Culture	Organisational Performance
Transactional Leadership	Pearson Correlation	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.				
	N	248				
Tranformational Leadership	Pearson Correlation	.601(**)	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.			
	N	248	248			
Employee Commitement	Pearson Correlation	.393(**)	.435(**)	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.		
	N	248	248	248		
Organisational Culture	Pearson Correlation	.382(**)	.548(**)	.506(**)	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.	
	N	248	248	248	248	
Organisational Performance	Pearson Correlation	.360(**)	.373(**)	.493(**)	.511(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.
	N	248	248	248	248	248

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4.12, we note that conceptually the variables presented positive relationships amongst each other. However, specifically we note that:

Organisational Performance conceptually related highest with Organisational Culture (r = 0.5.11; $p < 0.01$). This is followed by Organisational performance and Employee

Commitment (r=0.493;p<0.01); Organisational performance and Transformational leadership (r=0.373;p<0.01); and organizational performance and transactional leadership (r=0.360;p<0.01).

Other notable strong positive relations included Transactional leadership and transformational leadership (r=0.601;p<0.01); transformational leadership and organizational culture (r=0.548;p<0.01); organizational culture and employee commitment (r=0.506;p<0.01);transformational leadership and employee commitment (r=0.435;p<0.01)

These results conform to Kast & Rosenzweig 1972 where he said that all the components of an organisational are related and changing one variables might impact on many others.

4.4 Prediction model for Organizational Performance

In the study, we used the coefficient of determination (Adjusted R square) is used to explain the variations in organizational performance caused by the independent variables of transactional leadership, transformational leadership, employee commitment, and organizational culture as indicated in the model summary below:

4.4.1 Model Summary

This uses coefficients of determination (R square) to explain the amount of variation in the dependent variable caused by the independent variables.

Table 4. 13: Model summary

					Change Statistics				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.590(a)	.348	.337	.525	.348	32.413	4	243	.000

a Predictors: (Constant), Organisational Culture, Transactional Leadership, Employee Commitement, Tranformational Leadership

Table 4.13, we observe that the variations in organizational performance (dependent variable) is explained by the independent variables (Transactional leadership, transformational leadership, employee commitment and organizational culture) at the tune of 34%. This means that a combined unit variation in the independent variable causes a 34% change in organizational performance. Additionally, the individual predictions of organizational performance is hereby explained by the coefficients in the Table 4.14 below:

Table 4. 14: Coefficients(a)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	.992	.191		5.188	.000
	Transactional Leadership	.112	.058	.127	1.930	.055
	Transformational Leadership	-.001	.056	-.001	-.013	.989
	Employee Commitment	.237	.053	.281	4.503	.000
	Organisational Culture	.278	.057	.321	4.846	.000

a Dependent Variable: Organisational Performance

Table 4.14, the Unstandardized coefficient is used to explain the individual predicators of organizational performance in our model.

Observably, the model indicates that organizational culture is the best predictor of organizational performance (B=0.278;sig 0.000). This means that a unit variation in the facets of organizational culture would yield approximately 28% change in organizational performance. This was followed by employee commitment (B=0.237;sig 0.000) and transactional leadership (B=0.112;sig 0.55). However, transformational leadership showed un insignificant negative prediction (B=-0.001;sig 0.989).

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.0 Introduction

In this chapter a summary of the major findings is made, conclusions based on research findings are drawn, possible recommendations are made and areas for further research are suggested.

5.1 Discussion

From the results, conceptually all the variables presented had positive relationships with organisational performance with organisational culture relating highest followed by employee commitment, transformational leadership and lastly transactional leadership. Much as all of these variables had positive relationships, the findings further revealed that Gulu University ranked higher in all the constructs used; that is Transactional Leadership, Transformational Leadership, Employee Commitment and Organisational Culture than Uganda Martyrs University Nkozi. Gulu University has better quality leaders than Uganda Martyrs University Nkozi although both institutions perform at the same level.

5.1.1 Leadership qualities

The findings revealed that transactional leadership and transformational leadership were all practiced in the two Universities with transactional leadership having an average of 59.2% (Table 4.6) and transformational 49.7% (Table 4.7). Findings revealed that good communication existed between the leaders and subordinates, supervisors get well with subordinates, supervisors take time to listen to their subordinates and that supervisors talk about the importance of mutual trust amongst members, supervisors encourage a look at problems from a different perspective, supervisors are role models and supervisors provide coaching to help subordinates develop new skills.

Gulu University had the highest performance in transactional leadership (mean 3.45) as compared to those of Uganda Martyrs University (mean 3.31) . However, this performance was not of any significant importance since the significance level is above the present 0.05

0.146) significance level. This means that the practice of transactional leadership is almost he same in the two Institutions

For Transformational leadership, Gulu University had also the highest performance (mean 3.35) as compared to those of Uganda Martyrs University (mean 2.96) Table 4.8. This performance was of a significant importance since the significance level is below the present 0.05 (0.001) significance level. This means that the practice of transformational leadership is not the same in the two Institutions. For example if institutions could care about their employee's career advancements, supervisors could be trustworthy to their subordinates, supervisors could make personal sacrifices to their supervisors for the benefit of the institutions and supervisors could find out what their employee's want and try to get for them could all improve on the leadership qualities.

Transformational leadership is the best type of leadership quality for institutional performance compared to transactional leadership (Horner, 1997), however, this study found out that transactional leadership quality is more significant in these institutions' performance than transformational leadership. This has been because most subordinates do not have belief in their supervisors, supervisors do not find out what their subordinates need, supervisors do not find their supervisors trustworthy, supervisors do not delegate and supervisors do not coach subordinates.

5.1.2 Employee Commitment

The findings revealed that more employees were committed to their institutions (55.5%) compared to 31.7% who were not committed. Therefore, if institutions are to improve on their performance, they should make their employees more proud to tell other people that they work for their institutions, make their employees proud to be working with their institutions and also make their employees feel comfortable working with their institutions.

On the other hand, respondents did not feel as if their departmental successes and problems were their own, did not feel emotionally attached to their institutions and did not find it difficult for them to leave their institutions.

Employee commitment was found to be significantly important for organisational performance and a good predictor of organisational performance (B=0.237;sig 0.000) (Table 4.14). This means that a unit variation in the facets of employee commitment will yield approximately 24% in organisational performance. Therefore, if institutions are to improve on their performance, they should encourage the employees to be part of their department's success and failures, make employees be emotionally attached to their organisations and make the employees like the organisations such that it becomes difficult for them to leave their organisations. This is because the employees are not satisfied with these items in the study.

5.1.3 Organisational Culture

The findings revealed that 46.4% of the respondents approved the provisions in organisational culture while 39.3% of the respondents disapproved were in disagreed with the same (Table 4.9). The respondents agreed that most decisions were endorsed by the top executives, top management were given higher respect compared to other employees, their job descriptions were very clear.

On the other hand, most respondents disagreed that their Universities listened to all stakeholders and responded quickly to their needs, their organizations had become less bureaucratic and that they received assistance to overcome any of their personal problem.

It was also found that Organisational culture was very significant and the best predictor to organisational performance (B=0.278;sig 0.000). This means that a unit variation in the facets of Organisational culture will yield approximately 28% in organisational performance. For example if the institutions could: listen to all its stakeholders and respond quickly to their

eds, be less bureaucratic, pay extra to employees who perform to their best, give employees sistance to overcome their personal problems, then it could have a strong culture and erefore improved performance.

1.4 Organisational performance

enerally, we found that the two institutions were relatively performing well on certain idicators. The highest indicators being employees mastering the skills necessary for them to rform their work, having formal written appraisal performance appraisal system, having a ir appraisal system.

urther more, the Pearson product moment correlation indicated that of the variables studied, rganisational Performance had the best relationship with organisational culture. However, etween the two institutions, Gulu University seem to measure relatively better (Mean 3.05) ompared to Uganda Martyrs University (Mean 2.96) on organisational Performance.

5.2 Conclusions

The study revealed that all the variables that is transactional leadership, transformational eadership, employee commitment, organisational culture and organisational performance had ositive relationships amongst each other. It also showed that all the variables had significant ontributions to organisational performance up to a tune of 34%.

Transactional leadership and transformational leadership are all practiced in the two institutions but transactional leadership is better than transformational leadership for performance. Although Horner (1997) advocated that transformational leadership was the best in relation to quality leadership, the study established that it is transactional leadership which is a good leadership quality.

Employees of the two institutions are all committed to their institutions but Gulu University employees are relatively more committed than Uganda Martyrs University employees.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: RESEARCH WORK PLAN (TIMEFRAME) AUGUST 2010 TO OCTOBER 2012

S. No	Activity	2010	2011	Apr-12	May-12	Jun-12	Jul-12	Aug-12	Sep-12	Oct-12
1	Writing of Synopsis.	Sep-10								
2	Research Proposal Writing.	Oct-10								
3	Proposal Presentation.	Nov-10								
4	Designing of Research Instruments.									
5	Pretesting of research Instruments.									
6	Data Collection									
7	Data analysis.									
8	Writing of first draft of report.									
9	Submission of report.									
10	Presentation for VIVA VOCE.									
11	Production of final report.									

APPENDIX II:BUDGET ESTIMATES (Ug.Shs) FOR RESEARCH

				Proposal		Report		Total
ITEM	**Unit Measure**	**Units**	**Unit Cost**	**Units**	**Amount**	**Units**	**Amount**	**TOTAL**
GADGETS								
Flask disk (500MB)	Pieces	1						20,000
Sub-Total								**20,000**
SECRETARIAL WORK								
Typing and editing	Pages	30	1000	30	30,000	90	90,000	120,000
Printing	Pages	30	1000	30	30,000	90	90,000	120,000
Binding	Pieces		3000	10	30,000	10	30,000	60,000
Photocopying			200	300	60,000	900	180,000	240,000
Sub-Total								**540,000**
STATIONERY								
Printing Paper	Reams	2		15000				30,000
Writing Paper	Reams	1		10000				10,000
Sub-Total								**40,000**
TRANSPORTATION FACILITATION								
Trip to Uganda Martyrs University						4		240,000
Administering and collection of questionnaires								300,000
Sub-Total								**540,000**
PERSONNEL/ALLOWANCES/FACILITATION								
Research Assistants	14 days for 2 assistants			30000				840,000
Sub-Total								**840,000**
Data entry								150,000
Data analysis								300,000
Report compilation								250,000
Sub-Total								**700,000**
Communication charges/Airtime								200,000
Grand Total								**2,880,000**

APPENDIX III QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent,

My name is Oboke Paul. I am a student of Gulu University, pursuing a Master of Arts in Public Administration and Management degree (MAPAM). I am undertaking a Research entitled **"Leadership Quality and Organisational Performance in Ugandan Universities: Comparative Study of Gulu and Uganda Martyrs Universities"** as a partial fulfillment for the award of the Master's Degree. Based on your experience, I am convinced that you can be a resourceful person to help me fill in this questionnaire for the purpose of this research. The information obtained from you is solely for the purpose of this research and will be treated with utmost confidentiality, purely for academic purpose. I therefore request you to spare a few minutes of your busy schedules to fill in this questionnaire to enable me accomplish this task. Your honest and sincere contribution is highly appreciated.

Thanks in advance.

Oboke Paul

09/U/2885/MPA

Phone: 0774981400

Section A: Background information

1. Sex: Male ☐ Female ☐

2. Age bracket:

Below 20 yrs ☐ (20-24) ☐ (25-29) ☐ (30-34) ☐ (35-39) ☐ (40-44) ☐ (45-49) ☐ (50-54) ☐ (55 and above) ☐

3. Marital status Single ☐ Married ☐ Divorced ☐ Separated ☐ Widowed ☐ Others (Specify).....

4. Highest level of educational level: O level ☐ A level. ☐ Diploma ☐ First degree ☐ Postgraduate ☐ Masters ☐ PhD ☐ Others pecify).....

5. Name of Institution. Gulu University ☐ Uganda Martyrs University ☐

6. Category of staff: Academic ☐ Senior Administrative ☐ Support ☐

7.Rank within the category:

8. Position/Designation.....

9. Department.....

10. Period of service with the Institution in years.....

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4. Highest level of educational level: O level ☐ A level. ☐ Diploma ☐ First degree ☐ Postgraduate ☐ Masters ☐ PhD ☐ Others pecify)……..

5. Name of Institution. Gulu University ☐ Uganda Martyrs Unive☐ity

6. Category of staff: Academic ☐ Senior Administrative ☐ Support ☐

7.Rank within the category

8. Position/Designation……

9. Department……..

10. Period of service with the Institution in years……

SECTION B:

	Please tick the relevant box from column labeled 1 to 5 (on the right)					
	Key: 1 - Strongly Disagree, 2- Disagree, 3 - Not Sure, 4 - Agree and 5 – Strongly Agree.					
No	**Statement**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
A	**Transactional Leadership**					
1	My supervisor rewards me for the effective performance I make.					
2	My supervisor explains to me how I should do my work to get rewarded.					
3	My supervisor checks on the quality of my work from time to time.					
4	My supervisor asks me to report on the progress of my work on a regular basis.					
5	My supervisor provides me with sufficient information about my work.					
6	My supervisor takes time to listen to me.					
7	My supervisor cares for my career advancement.					
8	My supervisor offers me training opportunities in a formal setting.					
9	My supervisor appreciates my role in the workplace.					
10	My supervisor demonstrates accurate decision in his/her work.					
11	My supervisor gets along well with me at the workplace					
12	My supervisor makes his/her attitudes clear to every member including me					
13	There is a good communication flow between my supervisor and me.					
14	My supervisor is supportive enough to enable me perform well.					
15	My supervisor encourages the use of uniform procedures at the workplace.					
B	**Transformation leadership**					
1	My supervisor is a model for me to follow.					
2	I have complete belief in my supervisor.					
3	My supervisor makes everyone around him/her feel good, including me.					
4	My supervisor finds out what I need and tries to help me get it.					
5	I can count on my supervisor to express appreciation when I do a good job.					

6	My supervisor gives personal attention to me when I seem to be neglected.					
7	My supervisor encourages me to look at problems from a different perspective.					
8	My supervisor talks about the importance of mutual trust among members.					
9	My supervisor provides me with coaching to help me develop new skills.					
10	My supervisor encourages me to participate in all major decision makings that involves my work					
11	My supervisor consults me before making decisions that pertain to me.					
12	I am usually invited to engage in addressing administrative problems at my workplace.					
13	My supervisor guides me in solving administrative problems with fellow staff.					
14	My supervisor makes personal sacrifice and goes beyond self interest for the benefit of the University.					
15	My supervisor delegates part of his/her power to me on specific matters after carefully coaching me.					
16	I consider my supervisor to be trustworthy.					
17	My supervisor exhibits honesty in his/her dealings with me.					
18	My supervisor strives to go an extra mile to make it pleasant for me to be a member of the group.					
C	**Employee Commitment**					
1	I would be very happy to spend the remainder of my career with this University.					
2	I am proud to tell people that I work with this institution.					
3	I feel a strong sense of belonging to this University.					
4	I feel emotionally attached to this University.					
5	It is difficult for me to leave this University right now.					
6	I am not afraid of leaving this University even if I do not have another job offer.					
7	I feel comfortable working with this University.					

8	I am proud to be working with this University.					
9	I feel that this University is the right organisation for me to spend my time working.					
10	One of the major reasons that I continue working for this organization is that I believe that loyalty is important.					
11	I do not feel a sense of ownership towards this University.					
12	I really feel as if this department's successes and problems are my own					
13	I am satisfied working with my department.					
14	I enjoy discussing this University with outsiders.					
D	**Organisational Culture**					
1	The organization makes me feel like it is my personal place					
2	People have more freedom in their work at this organisation					
3	The organization has become more receptive to feedback.					
4	There is more open communication within the organisation					
5	The organization has become less bureaucratic.					
6	Roles of employees are more clear at my workplace					
7	Job description for employees are clear at my workplace					
8	The organization always encourages innovation.					
9	The organization encourages risk taking.					
10	Teamwork rather than individual work is encouraged in this university.					
11	Top management maintains a sense of order in my workplace.					
12	Top management receive special benefits not available to other employees at my work place.					
13	Top Management are given higher respect compared to other employees at my workplace.					
14	In my workplace, most decisions are endorsed by top executives.					
15	Employees who perform the best are paid extra for their efforts.					
16	Employees are encouraged to search for ways to work more efficiently.					

17	Employees at my workplace work well in teams.					
18	Employees are treated fairly in my organization.					
19	Employees receive assistance to overcome any personal problems.					
20	Leaders work hard to keep employees happy.					
21	Employees are always kept informed of what is happening in the organization.					
22	Employees care for each other greatly here.					
23	The University listens to all stakeholders and responds quickly to their needs.					
24	Employees adapt quickly to new work requirements in this place.					
E	**Organisational Performance**					
1	There is a formal written performance appraisal system.					
2	The performance appraisal system used here is fair.					
3	I am informed of how my performance is evaluated.					
4	I receive feedback of performance evaluation results about myself.					
5	I feel I am valued by this University.					
6	I receive adequate training to do my job well.					
7	I am not overwhelmed by my responsibilities at work.					
8	The orientation I received prepared me well for the job.					
9	I regularly think/worry about work issues when I am at home.					
10	I am satisfied with my income.					
11	I would not leave this University even if I had other alternatives.					
12	I have mastered the skills necessary to perform my work.					
13	I have ample opportunities for advancement in this profession.					
14	My job motivates me to perform at the highest level.					
15	The job adds significant pressure and anxiety to my life.					
16	If I felt that I needed extra training, it would be made available for me.					
17	I am satisfied with the benefits offered to me through this job.					

This is the end of the questionnaire. Thank you very much for your valuable time.

APPENDIX IV INTRODUCTORY LETTER

GULU UNIVERSITY

P. O. Box 166
Gulu - Uganda

TEL +256 471 432923
FAX +256 471 432094
Email: fbds@gu.ac.ug
URL: www.gu.ac.ug

FACULTY OF BUSINESS AND DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

Date: 21st June, 2012

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: OBOKE PAUL **09/U/2885/MPA**

The above named person is a final year student of Gulu University pursuing a **Master of Arts in Public Administration and Management (MAPAM)** Degree of Gulu University.

As part of the requirements for the award of the Master Degree, he is carrying out a research on the topic **"LEADERSHIP QUALITY AND ORGANISATIONAL PERFORMANCE IN UGANDAN UNIVERSITIES: COMPARATIVE STUDY OF GULU UNIVERSITY AND UGANDA MARTYRS UNIVERSITY."**

Any assistance rendered to him in the process of data collection shall be highly appreciated.

Yours faithfully,

GULU UNIVERSITY
21 JUN 2012
DEAN
FACULTY OF BUSINESS & DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

Uwonda Gilbert
Dean Faculty of Business and Development Studies