Study Gaps in Leadership Styles and Employees Performance in Public Sectors: A Review of Literature

Redie Bezabih Hailu (Corresponding author)

School of Business Leadership, University of South Africa

South Africa

Dr. Derek Verrier(Co-Author)

School of Business Leadership, University of South Africa

South Africa

Abstract

Purpose – The paper aims to examine the relationship of leadership styles and employees job performance in public sectors and to identify study gaps in the area

Design/methodology/approach – The paper used exploratory study approach and reviewed literatures related to this study. The data used for study was generated from secondary sources of articles, books and review papers.

Findings – The paper provides empirical insights about how leadership styles have relations and impacts on employees' performance and the practice of public service leadership in different contexts and nations.

Research limitations/implications – This study used only qualitative method and data were gained from only secondary sources. This may cause generalizability limitations.

Practical implications – The paper has significant implication for researchers, role players of public sectors leaders and experts working under the supervision of leaders or managers.

Originality/value – This paper is original and own effort of the researcher.

Keywords: leadership, leadership styles, employees, employees job performance

1. Background of the Study

Currently, the world is highly in need of valuable leadership styles and the success of human resources. An effective leadership style can make the organization successful and bring change for the achievement of organizational objectives. Leadership becomes known as the latest and moderate approach for administering staff and the organization as well. The traditional concept of personnel management has step by step been replaced with human useful resource management. This helps leaders to integrate new leadership styles with effective management of employees that can increase employees and organizational performance (Ken and Heresy, 2015). A study by Shafie et al. (2013) explains that leadership in an organization is vital to the employees who are the main drivers of the organization. It is therefore important that employees are provided with the right direction and psychological satisfaction to deliver results based on the assigned duties and responsibilities. For instance, employees in public institutions of Malaysia are regarded by terrible overall performance, lack of flexibility, inefficiency, terrible obligation, and red tape (Said, et al., 2015:15-37). Leadership in Malaysia is linked with a preference for the chain of command and acquaintance for a vast period (Ansari, et al., 2004:109-138). Leaders in Malaysia are well identified with unlimited power and influence as well as regulation of law and order Hofstede (2001). They are also considered as decision-makers (Jayasingam and Cheng, 2009:54-65). Ansari, et al. (2004) explored that Malaysian staff have no freedom to implement and decide their activities following rules and regulations without the consent of subordinates.

The bridge between people and government is explained by the service that the government gives to people through its public sector leadership. Thus, investigating public sector leadership is a crucial purpose of this study. There is unhappiness with the quality of service delivered in public organizations and public leadership inefficiencies in the world. People anywhere criticize the quality of customer service, legislative body, facilities, and rules as well as directives including the working atmosphere of public organizations. Due to this, there is a lack of good governance and leadership dissatisfaction in Africa. Good governance is defined by the absence of participation, abuse of rule of law, lack of transparency; poor responsibility, inequity, and inefficiency that expose employees towards misconduct (Alaaraj, 2014: 171-185). There is a failure and weak policy governance and implementation which are demonstrated by inefficient public services delivery of bureaucracy, corruption, selfishness, and favoritism as Timothy and Maitreesh (2005) explained. The limitation of the public intuitions' system is composed of weak inspiration and poor liability consequently bring economic and social burden to the community (Lubuva, 2008).

As Rob and Richard (2007) studied that sub-Saharan Africa has Civil services oversized, insensitive, rule-bound, or with not enough (effective) rules, low incentive, driven by corruption. Public service plays a fundamental role in ensuring good governance that is highly integrated with the preparation and execution of policies devised for the advancement of the public (Lawal and Owolabi, 2012:1-12). For instance, the devised policies and strategies are not properly applied as expected in Africa. The practice and subject of public management for example, in Nigeria is complete of political interference, bureaucratic values of impersonality which conflict with societal values, deficiencies in accounting and budgetary

system, over-staffing, and the trouble of simple running centers (Achimugu, Stephen, and Aliyu, 2013). These problems negatively impact public institutions and government employees' job performance because of which citizens' service delivery becomes in danger (Ibori, 2014; Ozuhu-Suleiman, 2013). For this reason, the government is at an unstopping reform of structures with various functional units and departments (Onuoha, 2005). An insignificant value is provided to African public service and not organized in its state of affairs (Nkomo et al., 2015; Bierschenk and de Sardan, 2014). There is no strong evidence that declares how Ethiopian leaders understand public service leadership and its practice. The existing studies on the Ethiopian public sector are few and mainly narrate issues related to reform. Public sector leadership was determined as an explanatory reason for underestimated execution of reforms (Solomon, 2013:235-247 and Apaza, 2014:1-12).

As researchers exhibited that the basic issue in most public service institutions is to distinguish what leadership is and what leaders do to guarantee group and authoritative achievement is less surely known (Kouzes and Barry 2002; Niven, 2003; Palestini, 2008 and Barbara, 2002). It is likewise contended that the absence of proficient leadership is a typical issue in most public service giving organizations (Getachew and Richard 2006). In the Ethiopian setting, the legislature has started for the advancement of public service leadership exercised by various systems through the civil service reform program. As (Duressa Z., 2014) clarified that public service leaders at various levels elevate transformation motivation to accomplish development and transformation plan (GTP) objectives. However, the performance of public service organizations is not as expected in effectiveness, efficiency, and leadership practice. Following this, researchers showed leadership assumes a vital job in making an exciting environment and culture in an association (Alghazo and Al-Anazi, 2016:37-44). Then again, Hurduzue (2015) declared that a suitable leadership style could advance greatness in the improvement of the individuals from the organization. Hence, the Ethiopian government implemented Business Processing Re-engineering (BPR), Result Oriented Performance Management System (RPMS) which is currently exercised as Balanced Scorecard reform Programs (BSC). In any case, (Bersisa et al., 2016) expressed that there are shortcomings in the execution. There were additional issues of administration delivery as incompetent local officials, an absence of responsibility, poor human resource performance, deficient acquisition execution, and an absence of initiative (Janse van Rensburg, 2014). Consequently, people are suffering from a lack of good governance, a high level of dissatisfaction, and corruption effects. To ease these issues, cautious and efficient research ought to be considered concerning the effect of leadership styles on employees' job satisfaction and employees' task, adaptive and contextual performance in Ethiopia, Amhara region public sectors. Furthermore, variables have a direct or indirect impact on the employees' performance, such as satisfaction, trust, justice, ethics and many more. Hence, the satisfaction of employees is a fundamental concept that mediates leadership styles and employees' job performance. Enhancing employees' job satisfaction in such organizations appears to be paramount and is often regarded as the fundamental source of improving performance levels (Adeyinka et al., 2007). For this reason, job satisfaction is considered to be an area that has attracted more research in the literature of organizational behavior and organizational psychology over the past three decades (George and Jones, 2008). In this study,

the researcher aimed to investigate the impact of leadership styles on employees' job performance with respect to the mediating role of job satisfaction. To this end, the researcher is able to have encountered many problems while living with the community and observed public service practices around the study area. This additionally empowered the researcher to see the issues that happened on leadership and workers' activity execution out in the public service institutions. In addition to this, Amhara National Regional State (ANRS) public sector bureaus annual achievement report (2018) demonstrated that there was less achievement of the plan in all sectors since there was a gap to mobilize and integrate people, employees, and leaders. These were the ground facts that initiated the researcher to conduct this study and to suggest possible solutions in the area of leadership as well as employees.

2. Theoretical Literature Review on Leadership Styles

2.1 Introduction

This part outlines the theoretical literature review on leadership styles organized with the supply of books, magazine articles, and associated studies so that it offers an overview of key findings, principles, comparisons, and tendencies about Leadership patterns and employees' performance and the function of public sectors with world context presented by the researchers and authors as well for additional understanding. In addition to this, the clear elaboration of variables and concepts significantly contributes to the development of the research described in this review of related literature. The literature review in this study forms the nucleus of the content. As a scientific investigation to succeed in new conclusions and establish facts, each research builds on existing data.

Significantly, the theoretical literature review in this study consists of the previous studies within the field, established thought, articles, and scientific journals among different things. The theoretical literature review compositions vary from field to field. In exhausting sciences, the literature is usually facts and also the review could also be merely an outline of the important. Review literature in this study has the following aim and importance.

This literature review conjointly validates the study by providing data on its relevance and coherency to the prevailing data and ways in the analysis. In turn, it establishes the author's experience within the field and provides legitimacy to hold forward the knowledge of the world in systematic ways. The literature reviews service whereas revealing the continuance of data conjointly entails areas that need more investigation and hence, aid as a start line for the study. Thus, the review literature in this study consists of the following major components.
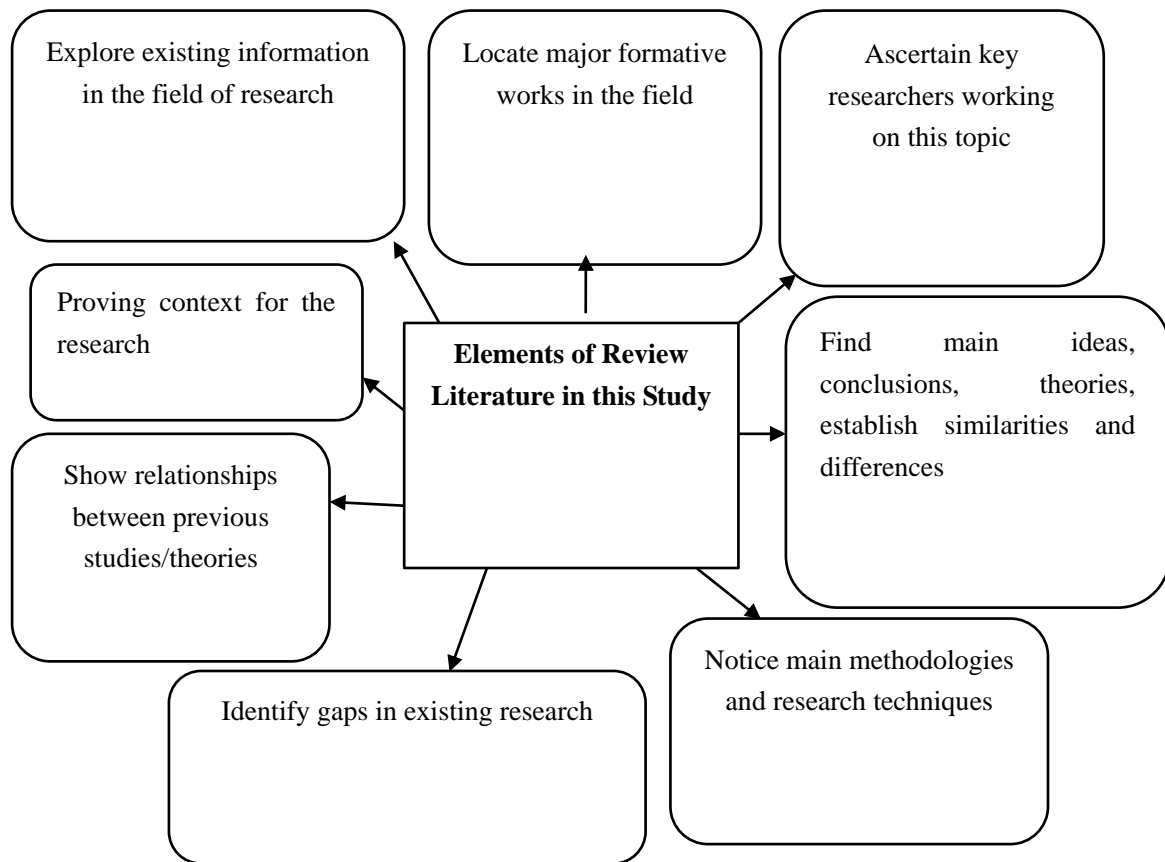
Figure 3.1 Elements of Review Literature

2.2 Concepts of Leadership

Leadership is a complete and extensive field of study that does not have an unattached and clear-cut definition. Scholars and authors throughout the sector argued that the study of leadership is going back to the ancient philosophers like Pluto, Socrates, and Aristotle as described through Sunil Kumar. R (2018). Even though the awareness and relevance of engaging in leadership research changed in the 20th century, the socio-clinical approach became not regarded until the 30s as defined by (House and Aditya, 1997; Ozera et. Al, 2014). May leadership be a well-written social phenomenon of all time but not well understood until because of its complexity that is related to the number of variables and ideas (Almohaimeed, Saleh, 2014).

Almost all definitions described leadership as the guiding or persuasion of individuals or agencies closer to not unusual goals (Shastri and et al., 2010; Keskes, 2014). On the other hand, leadership is defined through the leaders' influence towards their followers Yukl (1994). Leaders make a contribution of large value in shaping employees' attitudes, motivation, and performance. As (Cole, 2005; Chowdhury, 2014) verified leadership is that it's a process and full-of-life system people persuade each other for you to attain organizational goals. Leadership is all approximately having the functionality of leading, integrating, and utilizing deployed sources to perform deliberate dreams and targets (Amanchukwu, R. N., Stanley, J.

G., and Ololube, N. P., 2015). Leadership practices have diverse consequences following the way leaders behave towards followers and organizational desires.

In addition to this, leadership is a theme that has long excited interest among people. The term signifies images of powerful, dynamic individuals who command victorious armies, direct corporate empires from atop a gleaming skyscraper or share the course of nations (Yukl, 2002:1). Leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth (Burns, 1978:2). From the beginning of civilization, history has been concerned with the study of its leaders, and leadership is still an area of active inquiry. Indeed, leadership is often regarded as the single most critical factor in the success or failure of institutions (Bass, 1990). The discussion of leadership as a process may have been originated by Machiavelli in the sixteenth century (Smith, et al, 1989). However, a more systematic analysis of leadership may have only been advanced by different scholars. Research on leadership has developed more systematically giving way to an array of theoretical perspectives and conceptual definitions (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 2002).

The study of leadership that began in the twentieth century was initially concerned with leader effectiveness (Yukl, 2002). Leadership has been defined in terms of traits, behavior, influence, interaction patterns, role relationships, and occupation of an administrative position (Yukl, 2002:2). Consequently, the definitions of leadership were forwarded by different scholars could be summarized as follows:

- Leadership is a dynamic process, where leaders mobilize others to get extraordinary things done. To do so, leaders engage in five practices: model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart. (Kouzes and Posner, 2007:14)

- Leadership can be defined as the nature of the influencing process – and its resultant outcomes – that occurs between a leader and followers and how this influencing process is explained by the leaders' dispositional characteristics, and behaviors, follower perceptions and attributions of the leader, and the context in which the influencing process occurs. (Antonakis et al., 2004:5)

- leadership is directing a group of people to accomplish the designated goal

- (Northouse, 2004),

- Leadership is a special case of interpersonal influence that gets an individual or group to do what the leader or manager wants to be done (Schermerhorn, 2000: 287)

- Leadership is the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organization (House et al, 1999: 184).

- Leadership is the process of influencing others to achieve organizational goals (Bartol and Martin, 1998: 415).

- Leadership is the process of giving purpose to the collective effort and causing willing effort to be expended to achieve the purpose (Jacobs and Jaques, 1990: 281).

- Leadership is the influence increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization (Katz and Kahn, 1978: 528)

- Leadership is exercised when persons mobilize institutional, political, psychological, and other resources to arouse, engage, and satisfy the motives of followers (Burns, 1978: 18).

- Leadership is an interpersonal influence exercised in a situation and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of the specialized goals (Mussarik, 1961).

Besides, leadership is different from management. Many just know it intuitively but have not been able to understand this difference clearly. These concepts are completely different and have their underlying philosophies, functions, and outcomes. Similarly, leaders and managers are not similar and have dissimilar characteristics. Subsequently, the distinction between leadership and management is explained below.

2.3 Leadership Versus Management

As (Jarad, 2012:479) viewed leadership as a subset of management and that both are important to facilitate organizational performance. However, management deals with planning, budgeting, controlling, and structuring (Price, 2009:26). On the other hand, leadership refers to a process of directing, visioning, and motivating including coordinating and the development of individuals and influencing others to achieve the long-term goals of the organization (Bartol et al., 2003:33). Leadership and management are different in their internal and external role (Price, 2009:27). The goals of managers come from necessities but the goals of leaders come from a place of active attitudes (Zaleznik, 2004:76). The leaders use their effort to inspire people to become creative in problem-solving while managers focus on the organization's day-to-day activities.

In this context, scholars argue that the creativity of leaders can sometimes be affected by managers as managers avoid risks while leaders actively seek and take them (Zaleznik 2004:80). In addition, a leader has soul, passion, and creativity while a manager has the mind, rationality, and persistence (Kotter, 2001). On the other hand, a leader is flexible, innovative, inspiring, courageous, and independent, and differently, a manager is consulting, analytical, deliberate, authoritative, and stabilizing. An individual can be a leader, a manager, and both a great leader and a great manager. The difference comes from the way they act, the principle they follow to achieve goals and objectives. The difference between leader and manager is explained below by specific activities accomplished by leadership and management actors.

Table 2.1. Comparison of leadership and Management

Management Produces **(Order & Consistency)**	**Leadership Produces** **(Change & Movement)**
● Planning and Budgeting ● Establishing agendas ● Setting timetables ● Allocating resources ● Organizing and Staffing ● Provide structure ● Making job placements ● Establishing rules and procedures ● Controlling and Problem Solving ● Developing incentives ● Generating creative solutions ● Taking corrective action	● Establishing Direction ● Creating a vision ● Clarifying the big picture ● Setting strategies ● Communicating goals ● Seeking commitment ● Building teams and coalitions ● Inspiring and energize ● Empowering subordinates ● Satisfying unmet needs

Source: Adapted from (Jarad, 2012)

The general content of review literature in this study is mainly focused on leadership theories like Great Man & trait theory, behavioral theory, situational theory, transformational theory, transactional theory, and five impartial variables likely democratic leadership style, transformational leadership style, transactional leadership style, laissez-faire leadership style and autocratic leadership style as described below for further investigation.

2.4 Leadership Theories

Leadership theories that are most recognized and respected come from years of study and research. Leadership theories currently are social phenomena and must be open to discussion, analysis, and testing. Ancient theories, like the Great Man Theory and Trait Theory, are no longer relied upon as being scientific. They are only vital and examined currently as they are the foundation for contemporary research. Fortunately, for aspiring leaders, including managers and business owners, modern theories like the Contingency Theory, Situational Theory, and Behavioral Theory give insight into when different types of leadership are appropriate or inappropriate and discuss the behavior of leaders that can be learned and adopted. Based on this, there are various types of leadership theories such as the great man

and trait theory, behavioral theory, situational theory, path-goal leadership theory, transactional theory, and transformational theory will be discussed briefly to provide the theoretical background and context for the understanding of the leadership theory to appreciate the differences and similarities among the theories and to realize the evolution or development of leadership theories as well.

2.5 Great Man and Trait Theory

The pioneer of great man leadership theory believes that leaders are born with qualities that inspire people to follow them. The great man leadership theory also suggests that great leaders are born to lead people (Swanepoel, Erasmus, Van Wyk and Schenk, 2000:23). According to the great man theory, it is assumed that such leaders come up when the need presents itself. On the other hand, the trait theory is based on the great man theory. The trait leadership approach recognizes leadership as indispensable for organizational success and performance. Zaccaro (2007:10-16) states that both the great man theory and trait view presupposes that great leaders in nature have qualities that distinguish them from other people. Sashkin (2003) implies the work of researchers like Stogdill (1974) in their attempt to determine the specific personality of great leaders and find that leaders are a bit cleverer, more sociable, innovative, accountable, taller, and heavier than average people. However, Ricketts (2009) has discovered that even if some traits are familiar to numerous leaders, the general verification suggests that a leader may not be a leader in all types of situations because one who is a successful leader in one circumstance may not be a successful leader in another condition. Thus, situations influence the success of leaders because of trait leadership theory. Hayward (2005) demonstrates that the leadership trait theory emphasizes a leader's behavior, physical form, social background, intelligence, and ability, and this theory proposes that leaders are in nature effective since the traits or qualities with which they are gifted by nature. However, (Hackman and Johnson 2000, cited in Anteneh 2016), explains that debatable findings were reported by researchers following previous studies that had been carried out to estimate the specific traits or qualities that make the leader highly successful.

As (Hackman and Johnson, 2000; cited in Anteneh, 2016) stated three traits that are the most important in effective leaders such as interpersonal factors, conscious mental process factors, and managerial factors. These researchers added that terms like integrity, sensitivity, consistency, emotional stability, self-confidence, communication skills, and conflict management skills are part and parcel of interpersonal factors, while cognitive factors deal with leadership in which more competent leaders become better at problem-solving, decision-making, critical thinking, and creativity. The managerial factors show the capacity to plan and organize as well as to execute most of the activities regularly required of the workers.

The leadership trait theory shows that people are born with a unique quality that makes them better suitable to leadership (Cherry, 2010) and supposes that it is likely for a being to recognize a leader if he/she can see people with the correct trait. Nevertheless, the trait studies find it difficult to differentiate between the traits that are needed for acquiring leadership and those that are essential for maintaining it (Cherry, 2010). As a result, it can be

believed that this theory is based on a questionable assumption concerning personality (Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, and Humphrey, 2011:11-12). As mentioned above, the trait theory of leadership typically focuses on the personality, physical appearance, and competence of the leader; while autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire styles can be identified based on the behavior of leaders (Cherry, 2010). Therefore, the next section tries to explain how the trait theory of leadership differs from behavioral theories. Consequently, it is possible to derive a conclusion that leaders under trait leadership theory are successful with concerning solving the troubles of their supporters even if the path-goal theory differently defines that a leader may not be successful in any type of situation (House, 1996:26).

2.5.1 Behavioral Theory

As Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, and Humphrey (2011:11-12) states that behavioral theories believe that great leaders are made and by inference, are not born that way which means that leadership capability, similar to behavioral theories, can be learned and are not inherent. Besides, Derue et al. (2011) consider that behavioral theories focus on what the leaders do and not on the quality of their philosophy. Therefore, this theory explains that people can learn to become leaders through teaching and observation. Hayward (2005) defines that the behavioral leadership theory started to develop when the trait theory began to lose support. This means that researchers launched to determine the effectiveness or failure of leadership contributed by leadership styles rather than evaluating leaders in terms of their attributes. The behavior of a leader is explained when he/she is performing tasks and the leadership styles employed by a leader are some of the ways by which a leader can be studied in positions of authority (Chiok, 2001:191-204). The behavioral approach advocates that employees are more influenced by leaders' behavior than leaders' characteristics (Williams, 2004).

Furthermore, Bolden, Gosling, Marturano, and Dennison (2003) describe behavioral leadership in such a way that the study of behavior makes up a leadership style. This area of study focuses on how followers can be engaged effectively by their leader (Bolden et al., 2003:7-8). Adeyemi (2010:83-91) discloses that the behavioral leadership theory is different from the situational leadership theory as it can either be job-centered or employee-centered. The job-centered behavioral theory becomes functional when there is close control of employees in an organization while the employee-centered behavioral theory becomes functional when leaders exercise general supervision.

A behavioral study is a social science study since it can employ case studies and quantitative approaches to study the types of behavior shown by leaders at a variety of times and in various conditions (Derue et al., 2011). These types of leadership can be executed in various situations in the organization. For that reason, a leader has to be sensitive to the situation as well as to the needs of the organization. If a leader applies one rather than another because it is his/her preference a leader becomes inflexible (Hayward, 2005). Moreover, a leader also lacks focus resulting in weakness in terms of both leadership and of the organization (Hayward, 2005). Hence, one should choose one's style of leadership carefully. Significantly, the style of leadership is secondary to achieve the vision and the goals of the organization. The behavioral leadership theory asserts that leadership capabilities are learned and not

inherent as explained by the trait leadership theory which means that the behavioral leadership theory dictates that people can become effective leaders as they are people-centered or employer-centered.

2.5.2 Situational Leadership Theory

The situational features of a discipline influence leadership effectiveness more than the behavior of leaders Miskel (2001). A situational leader is supposed to act per specific conditions (Rowland, 2008). Hence, the approaches and leadership practices that are exercised by a situational leader to lead an organization should depend on the situation or the organization. Consequently, the preference of any leadership style depends upon situational variables such as leadership styles and expectations, followers' styles and expectations, superior styles and expectations, the organizational culture, and job demands (tasks). As (Hoy and Miskel, 2001) explains that there are also variables like the external environment, the history of the organization and the size of the group to be led, the degree to which the group member is required to participate, the cultural expectations of subordinates and the time needed and permitted for decision-making.

There are four situational approaches which are the path-goal theory, Fiedler's contingency theory, Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory, and the leader-member exchange theory Rowland (2008). The path-goal theory is a leadership theory in the field of organizational studies developed in 1971 and revised in 1996 by Robert House. The fundamental motive why this leadership theory has been favored is that it offers the needed information, support, and resources to ensure the satisfactory and effective performance of subordinates (House, 1996; House and Michell, 1974), indicate that the path-goal leadership theory can indicate the leadership style that matches the relevant situational factors. Thus, examining this theory contributes significant value for the researcher to recognize the impact of leadership styles on employees' job performance following related conditions.

During the early stages of management studies (the period before the development of the situational leadership theory), the saying that there is always one best way of doing things was adhered to by management writers and practitioners. However, as science and technology have developed, the environment has become more dynamic. This has forced leaders to question their assumptions regarding leadership. As a result, the challenge to the concept of one best way has led writers to develop a typical adaptable model which is called situational leadership (Robbins, 2001).

The situational leadership theory states that there is no best style of leadership suitable for all situations, or a single leadership style that is always the best. Successful and effective leaders adapt their leadership style to fit the requirements of the situation (Robbins, 2001), as is also reflected in the path-goal theory. In addition, leaders should make choices appropriate to the kind of leadership style and behavior they will exhibit in a specific situation. If a leader wants to be effective, the most important element he/she should keep in mind is the leadership style or behavior appropriate for the situation and to understand the effect of his/her acts (Nahavandi, 2006, in Ricketts, 2009). This applies to the path-goal theory as well. The path-goal leadership theory is regarded as one of the most respected approaches to leadership

(Robbins, 2001). The path-goal leadership theory assumes that the most important part of the leader's job is to assist followers in attaining their goals and to provide the necessary direction and support to ensure that their goals are compatible with the overall objectives of the group or organization (House, 1996). The term path-goal draws from the principle that successful leaders clarify the path that should be followed by their subordinates to achieve their work goals and to make the journey along the path easier by avoiding difficulties that stand in the way of achieving the goal. In other words, the path-goal leadership theory is based on the principle that employees` expectations of the amount of effort and performance expected from him/her are affected greatly by the leader's style. Leaders meet these expectations by giving the needed information, assistance, and other resources required by workers (Robbins, 2001).

There are different types of leadership behavior. The first type pertains to the directive leader who lets followers know what is expected of them, schedules work to be done, and gives specific guidance about how to complete the tasks (House, 1996). The amount of direction that a leader provides or his/her directive behavior is characterized by the extent to which he/she employs one-way communication by spelling out the roles of followers by informing them what, where and when work should be done, how the task should be completed and by supervising the performance closely (House, 1996). Inversely, the supportive leader is friendly and shows concern for the needs of followers (House, 1996). The level of support and encouragement is associated with supportive behavior, where the leader involves others in two-way communication, listens, provides support and encouragement, facilitates interaction, and involves followers in decision-making (House, 1996). The participative leader is a leader who uses the suggestions of his/her followers who are consulted to make decisions (House, 1996).

2.5.3 Transformational Leadership Theory

Transformational leadership theory is essential as it is significantly influencing the work attitudes and behaviors of followers. It aids in the development of an emotional attachment between leaders and their followers which helps in shaping the values, aspirations, and priorities of followers (Yukl, 2010). A transformational leader aims to motivate his/her team members to make them effective and efficient. This leader is highly visible and uses communication to attain his/her goal by focusing on the group. Furthermore, the leader is always looking for ideas that motivate the organization to achieve the organization's vision. Research is conducted on transformational leadership theory, which was conceptualized by James Mac Gregor Burns (1978) which was extended by (Bass and Riggio, 2006). Burns believes that transformational leaders extend their leadership capabilities through stimulating and inspiring their followers to achieve outcomes (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Avolio and Yammarino (2002) underscored that this type of leadership is vital regardless of the sector and setting it is practiced in. (Bass,1999) extended the transformational leadership theory and identified four dimensions, which include idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. These dimensions were defined by scholars as:

- **Idealized Influence**: Transformational leaders act as role models and display a charismatic personality that influences others to want to become more like the leader. Idealized influence can be most expressed through a transformational leader's willingness to take risks and follow a core set of values, convictions, and ethical principles in the actions he takes. It is through this concept of idealized influence that the leader builds trust with his followers and the followers, in turn, develop confidence in their leader.

- **Inspirational Motivation:** The leader can inspire confidence, motivation, and a sense of purpose in his followers. The transformational leader must articulate a clear vision for the future, communicate expectations of the group, and demonstrate a commitment to the goals that have been laid out. This aspect of transformational leadership requires super communication skills as the leader must convey his messages with precision, power, and a sense of authority. Other important behaviors of the leader include his continued optimism, enthusiasm, and ability to point out the positive.

- **Intellectual Stimulation:** Transformational leadership values creativity and autonomy among the leader's followers. The leader supports his followers by involving them in the decision-making process and stimulating their efforts to be as creative and innovative as possible to identify solutions. To this end, the transformational leader challenges assumptions and solicits ideas from followers without criticizing which helps to change the way followers think about and frame problems and obstacles. The vision the leader conveys helps followers see the big picture and succeed in their efforts.

- **Individualized Consideration:** Each follower or group member has specific needs and desires. For example, some are motivated by money while others by change and excitement. The individualized consideration element of transformational leadership recognizes these needs. The leader must be able to recognize or determine through eyes dropping or observing what motivates each individual. Through one-to-one coaching and mentoring, the transformational leader provides opportunities for customized training sessions for each team member. These activities allow team members to grow and become fulfilled in their positions.

Moreover, transformational leadership theory is new which means that leaders are expected to provide the vision and direction to the organization and that they have to strengthen, inspire and motivate followers to work towards a common end (AlHosam, 2012). Tsegay and Wogari (2006) maintain that transformational leadership can communicate a vision that inspires and motivates subordinates to attain something unusual or that can be used as the basis for the strategy applied to attain the objectives set. There is a conceptual difference between transformational and transactional leadership that transactional leadership theory is stated as follows.

2.5.4 Transactional Leadership Theory

Transactional leadership is a trade of something between a leader and a follower so the leader acquires something from the subordinate in return for something different. This is an attempt

to satisfy the needs of followers by focusing on exchanges and conditional reward behavior (Sarros and Santora, 2001). The transactional leader develops a reasonable structure and offers prizes to acquire the help of subordinates (Sarros and Santora, 2001). Discipline cannot be referenced by transactional leaders that employees realize that discipline will follow any performance deviation. The beginning periods of transactional leadership involve arranging the agreement and paying compensation and giving different advantages to the subordinates and in this regard, transactional leaders get power over subordinates. As (Sarros and Santora, 2001) describes transactional leadership style, subordinates are completely liable for the everyday jobs assigned to them, and most definitely, they are penalized for their failure and are remunerated for their victories. One of the contrasts between transformational and transactional leadership styles is that the transactional leadership style has a role of telling style while the transformational initiative has a function of selling style (Bolden, Gosling, Marturano, and Dennison, 2003). Researchers proved that there is not the only appropriate leadership style exercise and implementation in all situations which vary following the nature of the organization and expected outputs. When you take a hard look at successful leaders, you'll notice not all have become successful the same way. The truth is there are lots of different leadership styles. And no single one of those styles is the correct style. Most of the leaders you admire set several styles to lead. Sometimes they are charismatic. Other times they are participative, and from time to time circumstances will force them into using a situational leadership style.

3.1 Leadership Styles

Leadership style is the method and approach of providing direction, implementing plans, and motivating people. As seen by the employees, it includes the total pattern of explicit and implicit actions performed by their leader (Newstrom, Davis, 1993). Leadership style is viewed as the combination of traits, characteristics, skills, and behaviors that leaders use when interacting with their subordinates (Marturano and Gosling, 2008, Jeremy et al., 2011). The first major study of leadership styles was performed in 1939 by Kurt Lewin who led a group of researchers to identify different styles of leadership (Lewin, Lippit, White, 1939). This early study has remained quite influential as it established the three major leadership styles: (U.S. Army, 1973). These styles include:

- **Authoritarian or Autocratic:** The leader tells his or her employees what to do and how to do it, without getting their advice.
- **Participative or Democratic:** The leader includes one or more employees in the decision-making process, but the leader normally maintains the final decision-making authority.
- **Delegate or Laissez-faire (free-rein):** The leader allows the employees to make the decisions; however, the leader is still responsible for the decisions that are made.

On the other hand, there are also leadership styles that are directly related to the contemporary approach and organizational environment. These include transactional and transformational leadership styles which are the current leadership styles. According to (Rees and French, 2013), the two leadership styles are associated with a society that no longer accepts the use of authority as a form of command.

The way the leader approaches, motivates, directs, and persuades people to determine to get organizational success or failure (R. M. Ojokuku., T, A. Odetayo, and A. S. Sajuyigbe, 2012). Following the appearance of behavioral theory, behavioral scholars (Lewin, Lippitt and White, 1939; Ikram, A. Su. Q. Fiaz, M., and Saqib., A., 2017) recognized democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire leadership styles as an influential preseason to excel or reduce institutional growth. Leadership styles have negative or positive impacts in shaping employees' attitudes and motivations that consequently affect organizational success or failure. Another most important and highly integrated leadership style is included as an independent variable in this study that these variables have argumentative character and comparative nature. Thus, organizational dedication levels were observed to be higher in groups led by transformational leaders in comparison with dedication existing in groups led by transactional leaders (Bass and Riggio, 2006). Transactional leadership is frequently positioned as a less efficient one than transformational leadership although each one is complementary to the other (Northouse, 2012). On the other hand, a democratic leadership style is preferable for participatory decision making while a laissez-faire leadership style is needed when employees are with strong working performance and can perform independently without close supervision. The effectiveness of leadership styles varies following the nature of the organization and the determined goals. This study demarcated and focused on five independent variables likely democratic leadership style, transformational leadership styles, transactional leadership style, laissez-faire styles, and autocratic leadership styles for further investigation.

3.1.1 Types of Leadership Styles

3.1.1.1 Democratic Leadership Style

This leadership style runs freedom of alternative decision-making and follows participatory techniques to cope with troubles. Democratic leadership style is likewise explained through the motivation of employees as they may be given the freedom to participate in involved

organizational troubles (Malik et, al., 2016:385-406). As Milgron (1991) and Ittner(2002) reveal that this style is the most preferable in many organizations which brings all activities that give direction and benefit to its social existence while persevering and enduring the duties from individual accomplices. Heneman et.al (1999) reinforces democratic style drives the sharing of responsibilities and courses of action regarding daily tasks and meetings. In this style, the leader's suggestions and propositions on each basic concern and choice are enough to transfer tasks and projects towards subordinates and permit them full authority and commitment concerning their obligations. Kirega (2006) evaluated employees` perspectives towards their seniors that this style focuses on using the limits, participation, and consideration of others. Employees will not settle on the enormous choice without instantly getting the dedication, by giving unaffected approval and delegate commitments. This style encourages getting the consent of employees while making tasks and leaders prefer to listen to workers' ideas. Democratic style leads activities as a collaboration where fundamental organizations are decentralized and commonly shared by subordinates (Tannenbanum and Schmidt, 1958). The most serious issue with leaders who follow this style is that they believe everybody has an equivalent prize, as a result, irrespective of their skills and ability. Although

it sounds good at the initial level, it is usually hindered in its particular direct procedure and workable outcomes when there is a direct need for enormous measures of action.

3.1.1.2 Transformational Leadership Style

The Ethiopian federal government is trying to mobilize people to plan and execute developmental agendas through this leadership style. However, due to various reasons, the result is not as expected. The transformational leadership style is focused more on awareness, perceptions, and core humanistic parameters other than materialistic motives which have negative results on organizational performance Yukl (2011). The involvement and consensus of employees to organizational success as well as the effects they return lower back to the company under commonplace dreams and objectives makes this leadership style different from other patterns and theories. Followers of this leadership style are benefited as they can realize their willpower and celebrate adjustments (Avolio 2007 and Afshinpour, 2014:156-169). The leader tries to provoke, stimulate, encourage, and transform followers to accomplish activities for the pleasant interest of organizational achievement (Avolio et al., 2009; Samad. et.al, 2015). Under this leadership style, leaders motivate and provoke their followers to accomplish organizational desires and goals as opposed to private dreams (Burns, 1978). These pupils moreover identified this leadership style that is dedicated to growing the degree of motivation and morale of other employees. They also inspire professional manpower, integration, and synergy for organizational achievement and goal fulfillment (Aydin, Sarier, Uysal, 2013; Cho & Dansereau, 2010 and Samad. et.al, 2015). In addition to this, a transformational leader develops well-organized members of his own family in a few of the chief and the employees. Besides, transformation leadership helps employees to exploit their superior performance. Hence, it has an impact on employees' and organizations' overall performance (Jyoti and Bhau, 2015:1-13). Moreover, different scholars at different times found out the impact of transformational leadership on employees' performance. As a result, (Sofi and Devanadhen, 2015) demonstrated that transformational leadership has a strong effect on organizational performance.

3.1.1.3 Transactional Leadership Style

Researchers carried out in the 1970s and early 1980s exhibited numerous ways that were modified from the name leaders, leadership strategies, and the followers closer to the activities of leaders and the interaction among them (Sunil Kumar R., 2018). The transactional leadership style focuses on the change of goals and expectancies. This style is explained using the chief supply against what the worker contributed (Avolio et al., 2009). Transactional leaders' maximum probable put in force leadership through an exception that involves strong tracking and evaluation mechanisms (Avolio, 2007, Afshinpour, 2014 and Obiwuru, et al., 2011). This leadership style is described as give and take motion between leaders and followers for the cause of achieving organizational goals and objectives (Bass, 1997 and Samad. et.al, 2015). Transactional leaders plan to praise employees or followers based on their expected running working culture and sensible activities exercised. The transactional leadership style is taken into consideration as autocratic due to the reason that

leaders exercise extra power and influence over their followers at a time of decision making (Lyons & Schneider, 2009; Samad. et. al, 2015). Researchers investigated and made an argument about the impact of transactional leadership on employees' performance at different times. Based on this, the transactional leadership style has an impact on the organizational overall performance (Longe, 2014:68-83). To enhance and maximize organizational performance, tangible and intangible reward systems should be established and provided to employees. This leadership style mainly gives priority to employees' performance that increases overall organizational success (Longe, 2014).

3.1.1.4 Laissez-Faire Leadership Style

This leadership style is characterized by the way of leaders who delegate followers and intensively impart decision-making strength. There is not much more check and stability mechanism that leaders do not tightly control units about what goes on and what their followers are doing (Bass & Riggio, 2006 and Samad. et.al, 2015). This style is completely indifferent from the action, attitude and result or output of employees rather they are separated from participation in decision making, monitoring attempt and assessment of effects (Chowdhury, 2014) and they do not have strong involvement with the organization they are operating on (Malik et, al., 2016). This also has its strengths and weaknesses depending on the conditions it is exercised. Accordingly, various writers suggested this leadership style following its strengths and weaknesses. Laissez-faire leadership style is associated with unproductiveness, ineffectiveness, and dissatisfaction (Deluga 1992; cited in Koech and Namusonge, 2012). On the other hand, different researchers also described how laissez-faire leaders exercise their power. According to (Bass & Avolio, 1997 and Hartog & Van Muijen, 1997), laissez-faire leaders avoid making decisions, the provision of rewards, and the provision of positive/negative feedback to subordinates (cited in Mester, et al., 2003). As (Jones and Rudd, 2007) described laissez-faire leadership is an inactive form characterized by an unwillingness to be actively involved and a view that the best leadership comes from disassociation from activities. These leaders avoid active participation in the responsibility of goals setting and avoid being involved when leadership direction is needed (Cilliers, Van Eeden, and Van Deventer, 2008; cited in Ejimabo, 2015).

3.1.1.5 Autocratic Leadership Style

This leadership style is a form of leadership where the single leader takes the capability of decision-making on behalf of the whole employer without the participation and involvement of other members and groups. Employees or followers of these styles are upset and are not influenced by their task that the leaders have unlimited power and decision-making functionality over the organization (Kerfoot, 2013 and Afshinpour, 2014). Leaders have their own ways of exercising authority and come upon followers or crew members and bear in mind themselves as the only important part (Michael, 2010; Ojokuku, R. et.al, 2012). The followers apprehend the manner of how failure occurs and what is going to manifest due to such motives. Even though there is commonplace know-how, the imaginative and prescient leaders are unable to empower, encourage and assist their followers due to the rigid nature of their implementation (Malik et. al., 2016).

The autocratic leaders pressure their followers to execute the offerings and strategies in keeping with the narrow way. Iqbal, Anwar, and Haider (2015:1-6) examined the impact of autocratic leadership styles on job performance. This study characterized autocratic leadership as an authoritarian leadership style. Autocratic Leaders are poor in creativity and promote one side conversation, one side conversation and decision making affect employees' happiness and belongingness. But it is considered an effective leadership style in the short term. The autocratic leadership style restricts workplace socialization and communication which is cordial for powerful organizational overall performance. The autocratic leadership additionally leads to organizational conflicts that negatively affect the general overall performance (Iqbal, et al., 2015:1-6). On the other hand, Bhargavi and Yaseen(2016) suggested that the autocratic leadership style has a positive effect on organizational performance. This leadership style is more suitable as the tasks are to be finished within the given deadline (Bhargavi & Yaseen, 2016).

Following the above leadership styles, this approach and philosophy affected the way leaders exercise their power. As Khan, et al. (2015) described autocratic leadership is where a leader retains unlimited power and decision-making authority. As (Melling and Little, 2004; cited in Akor, 2014)) stated that autocratic leaders are high-handed leaders and are the center of every activity that goes on in the establishment and all authority emanated from them and ends with them. According to Iqbal, et al. (2015) autocratic leaders are characterized by the philosophy that they tell other people what to do without any consensus. According to (Nwankwo,2001) & (Enoch,1999; cited in Akor, 2014) study, the autocratic style is a leadership style where leaders exclusively make decisions on producing goods and services without considering any humanitarian elements.

Therefore, having an understanding of different leadership styles as expressed above, the researcher explained studies and experiences of leadership practices in Africa and the world in the following section.

3.2 Context of World and Africa Leadership

Advocates of African leadership argue that African efforts to bring about real development will be frustrated until African indigenous leadership is re-instituted (Ngambi et al., 2004:107-132). The call for indigenous leadership is embedded in the idea of an African renaissance focusing on African aesthetics and identity (Makgoba, 1999). As (Said, 2002) asserts that the idea is matching with post-colonial theory calling on the colonized people to regain their own culture, history, and aesthetics. Different researchers contributed their best concerning African leadership that colonialism has affected the indigenous African cultural leadership profoundly and accordingly on which calls are made for the revival and institutionalization of African indigenous leadership. Various questions were raised that if Africa was better off in the past, what then has gone wrong at present. Regarding this, (Jackson, 2004) in his work has accused colonialism to be the primary cause for the life of corrupt and useless leadership in Africa at present. The underlying assumption is that if traditional African leadership can be revived with African leaders, there will be a high-quality attitude that motivates leaders to remedy important issues that exist in the continent at present.

African voices on African leadership philosophy are currently blaming the domination of Western leadership practices in Africa's past (Horwitz, 2002). Scholars forward an argument that these practices are inadequate for the reason that African leadership challenges are implanted in a completely different social, cultural, political, and economic environment (Blunt & Jones, 1997:19; Jaeger, 1990: 131-145; Boaduo, 2011). They also criticize the pre-supposition that others can learn little from African leadership (Mangaliso, 2001: 23-33).

Blunt and Jones (1997) have attempted to assert the impracticability of the application of the Western leadership style in Africa. They have attempted to present a reason for this pointing out that Africa had a very dissimilar cultural and economic development path. They oppose the concept that leadership was brought to Africa by colonialism and argue that African leadership thought and exercise turned into interrupted or even in conflict with Western leadership. Nzelibe (1986: 6-16) argues that Western colonialism strongly affected indigenous African leadership. In line with Nzelibe's concept, Kiggundu (1991: 32-47) has attempted to blame Western colonialism. He announces that in the colonization length local establishments and leadership practices were both destroyed. Next, colonizers replaced them via their colonial administrative structures. Indigenous perspectives had been devalued and afterward omitted. Africans have been knowledgeable and trained most effectively, a good way to serve in administrative centers at a lower level (Afro-Centric Alliance, 2001). Likewise, Rodney (1974) remarks that the better-degree leadership abilities of Africans were not allowed to expand. The motive given is that Africans have no longer been located in leadership positions. Therefore, in instances, while African countries were given their independence, only a few of them have been skilled to take higher leadership positions. Furthermore, Dia (1996) in his work tries to recommend that many of the problems that Africa is confronting currently are due to the disconnection between informal traditional institutions and the formal ones. After investigating the records of many African international locations, pupils of African leadership philosophy, particularly Iguisi (2007), Edoho (2001: 73-89) and Kiggundu (1991: 32-47) have come to consider the existence of effective indigenous leadership in Africa in the course of the pre-colonial era. The scarcity or even absence of written documents has made it rarely possible to describe what form of African leadership structures existed in Africa earlier than the colonization of the continent by alien powers. Although this hassle had existed, it did not prevent scholars from producing descriptions of African leadership. Mazrui (1998) observes that scholars have now not paid much interest to the studies of African literature as well as the writings of African historians. Western leadership concept is believed to stand for Euro-centrism and individualism. On the other hand, the African leadership concept is assumed to make awareness of traditionalism, collectivism, and mythology.

On the other hand, (Nzelibe, 1986 and Messay, 2006) revealed the opinion that African leadership is typically guided through basic traditional values, assumptions, and concepts. These pupils talk over the information of administrative strategies courting again to ancient instances that enabled African kingdoms to complete widespread, huge undertakings. Ancient African empires in Ethiopia, Ghana, Mali and Songhai, and Oyo provide ancient evidence that powerful leadership existed. Examples are given of historic management and leadership, standards of delegation and authority, and judiciary structures (Pankhurst, 1990). Kiggundu

(1991) attempts to explain that African leadership is exceptionally personalized and authoritarian, and adds that such management turned grounded in conquest and special relationships with the supernatural electricity. Just to mention one example, human beings in addition to all land in Ethiopia have been taken into consideration to be the private property of the emperor at some point in the period of imperial rule. Blunt and Jones (1997) describe African leadership as authoritarian, paternalistic, conservative, and alternate-resistant. In addition, Mutabazi (2002:202-223) tried to reveal that African nations primarily consisted of small clans and kingdoms earlier than colonization. The hit leaders (head of their own family, clan, or nation) could exercise the capability to listen properly and foreground the community's pursuits.

Moreover, (Ngambi, 2004) mentioned that a lot of heads or chiefs have been educated to examine problems of a social nature and their consequences on their groups. He states that each clan chief enjoyed a few autonomies and they learned from the studies of their predecessors as well as from their reviews about how to preserve and guard their neighborhood hobbies without upsetting other leaders. He recognized not unusual social standards in African leadership which pertain to appreciating their position in the ongoing cycle of lifestyles. In addition, they helped their subjects comprehend that their communal existence changed into more than that of individuals and companies. Regarding the human relationship, the number one obligations of leaders pertain to setting up the network and environment harmony. The universal fellowship is emphasized in their moral order and human relationships. It is, therefore, to be anticipated that any such leadership method needs to adapt to painting conditions inside the complex technological current order.

Furthermore, (Ezzamel, 2004: 497-539) discussed the art of employers in historic Egypt substantially. Unlike the incidental account in many leadership books, Ezzamel has produced an in-depth exposition of the organization of labor, which includes the ideas of labor division, administration, and accounting in historic Egypt. In well-known, African leadership includes the character's courting with nature, supernatural beings, and ancestors (Mbigi, 2005). Nzelibe (1986) argues that African leadership philosophy is grounded in the continuity from the material to the non-secular. From the discussion to date on African leadership one may also derive that each western and African leadership traditions display strong points and demanding situations and that there are opportunities for enrichment from both facets. This examination must be visible in this light. There are possibilities for public service leaders to get to know more about the background of leadership in Africa. The researcher's stand is for this reason that African leaders have to improve their present leadership context taking their cultural historical past into consideration in trying to complement and enhance their employees' job performance practices.

Africa's improvement in demanding situations and its marginal role inside the worldwide political financial system has generated and persisted debate (JphacePoneian and Edwar Simon Mgan, 2015). Research carried out by Patrick Bond (2006) and Samir Amin (2014, 2011, and 1977) shows that Africa's underdevelopment is particularly integrated with its colonial and post-colonial capitalist and imperialist economic exploitation and marginalization. On the other hand, Africa's poverty and underdevelopment are related to the

global mechanism for the reason that commercial technology (Amin, 2014). The collaboration damage between international capitalists and the local elites makes Africa poor by exploring its resources at different times. Both public and private institutions come together to exploit resources and drain the resources abroad at the expense of the African community (Bond, 2006). Hence, the development of leadership and its efficiency are related to international political economy trends.

3.3 The Role of Public Sectors for the Nations Development

Delivering goods and services through public establishments can safeguard and make sure the wellness of the society for governmental and private organizations play an important role in the country and world economy (Linna, Pekkola, Ukko and Melkas, 2010). The public sectors have a selection of stakeholders with a corresponding desire to get required services to impose the public service establishments to work more (Van Helden, G. J., and Tillema, S. (2007). To cope with the desires and expectancies of all these stakeholders, the general public sectors wish to be powerful and green in satisfying its responsibilities. Efficiency and effectiveness in public services are defined by using the achievement of planned activities in addition to the accomplishment of responsibilities following the desired fee and time (Mihaiu, Opreana, and Cristescu, 2010). Reform shall be the launch that allows you to understand deliberate activities to meet the first-class hobby of stakeholders by way of imposing tasks accordingly with suitable cost, value and time (Gabel-Shemueli and Capell, 2013). The preferred contributions can be affected by numerous determinant factors as incompetent public servants, a loss of responsibility, unskilled manpower, inefficient procurement practices, and poor leadership exercise (Janse van Rensburg, 2014). Public sectors play a primary role in improving public service delivery and satisfying society. Thus, the way how the interaction of employees and leadership styles contribute to public service delivery in Ethiopia is described as follows.

3.4 Public Service Leadership Practice

There were no changes in attitudinal problems regarding the concept of the civil service reform program till 2001. This is explained by using planned conservatism for change and unwillingness to peer into new happenings (Paulos, 2000). Organizational members consider that civil service reform application was targeted on the mindset of the humans in place of improving the structure and system of the organization. Ethiopian civil servants worry about the future and have been conservative to change (Getachew and Richzard, 2006). There are bad public service delivery leadership practices and a shortage of properly prepared implementation in Ethiopia that ended in ineffective organizational performances in turning public services that are related to loss of enforcing civil service reform packages for best implementation.

Ethiopia attempted to initiate changes in public service organizations at different times. Unfortunately, those change initiatives could not be found out due to numerous causes. Business processing reengineering (BPR) becomes a suitable example that could not be as it should be carried out because of a lack of knowledge, dedication, and negative conversation problems. Solution-oriented measures have not been taken to alleviate issues related to public

service organizations yet (Mengistu, 2006). BPR could not be carried out without the right communication with employees, clients, and stakeholders, and the community at large (Mehret and Paulos, 2000). Ethiopia is attempting to make sure economic development and societal welfare using civil service reform programs. Nevertheless, the aged bureaucratic system of the civil service system and resistance to change had been the vital barriers discovered. As a result of this, there are still much less powerful and weak overall performance public service provider institutions.

African public service establishments should open their eyes to how to enhance service delivery and build properly organized public service for sustainable increase and

development (Nkomo et al., 2015:4-26; Bierschenk & de Sardan, 2014). Moreover, Ethiopian

civil service leaders no longer neatly conceptualize their roles and are not able to serve the general public accordingly even though Public sector leadership is the vital element to decide the fulfillment and failure of imposing civil service reform programs (Solomon, 2013 and Apaza, 2014). Hence, Studies conducted regarding Ethiopian public services are very small and they are more associated with reforms that further study shall be conducted

3.5 Employees Job Performance

3.5.1 Dimensions of Employees Job Performance

Performance is a multi-component construct and on the fundamental level one will distinguish the process aspect of performance, that is, behavioral engagements from associate degree expected outcome (Borman, & Motowidlo, 1993). The behavior up here denotes the action individuals' exhibit to accomplish a piece, whereas the result states concerning the consequence of an individual's job behavior (Campbell, 1990). Apparently, during work, the behavioral engagement and expected outcome area unit are associated with one another (Borman, & Motowidlo, 1993), however the great overlap between both the constructs aren't evident nevertheless, because the expected outcome is influenced by factors like motivation and psychological feature talents than the behavioral aspect. There are different dimensions of performance. The researcher considered as the most important components for this study are described as follows:

Task Performance: This is composed of job explicit behaviors which incorporate crucial job responsibilities allotted as a part of the job description. Scholars (Conway, 1999) explained that task performance requires more cognitive ability and is primarily facilitated through task knowledge, task skill, and task habits. Therefore, the primary antecedents of task performance are the ability to do the job and prior experience. Task performance is considered a contractual agreement between a leader and employees to achieve the given task. Task performance could be segmented into technical–administrative task performance and leadership task performance. The technical–administrative task performance comprising of planning, organizing, and administering the day-to-day work through one's technical ability, business judgment while leadership task performance is incorporates setting strategic goals, upholding the necessary performance standards, motivating and directing subordinates to accomplish the job (Borman, & Brush, 1993; Tripathy, 2014).

Adaptive Performance: An individual can adapt and provide the necessary support to the job profile in a dynamic work situation (Hesketh, & Neal, 1999). Various studies have found that once the employees derive a certain amount of perfection in their assigned tasks, they try to adapt their attitude and behavior to the varied requirements of their job roles (Huang et al., 2014). An effective adaptive performance necessitates employees' ability to efficiently deal with volatile work circumstances like technological transformations, changes in one's core job assignment, restructuring of the organization, and so on (Baard, Rench, & Kozlowski, 2014). It is performance where employees achieve their assignments under contingent or situational working conditions.

Contextual Performance: It is a performance in which efforts have been carried out toward ascertaining the significance of non-job components of performance to create a better workplace (Viswesvaran, & Ones, 2000). Different scholars referred to non-job components as organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) or a voluntary action of employees that benefit employers intangibly (Bateman, & Organ, 1983). Contextual performance is a kind of prosocial behavior demonstrated by individuals in a work set-up. Such behaviors are expected of an employee but they are not mentioned in one's job description. These kinds of unstated expectations are called prosocial behavior or extra-role behavior. These reasonably unspoken expectations are known as prosocial behavior or further role behavior. Contextual performance could be a reasonable perspective like volunteering for further work, serving others in finding tough tasks, upholding enthusiasm at work, cooperating with others at the time of would like, sharing important resources and knowledge for structure development, permanent by the prescribed rules, and supporting structure choices for a far better modification (Coleman, & Borman, 2000). This sort of behavior contributes to making a noteworthy culture and climate of the organization that aids in achieving individual productivity and structure effectiveness.
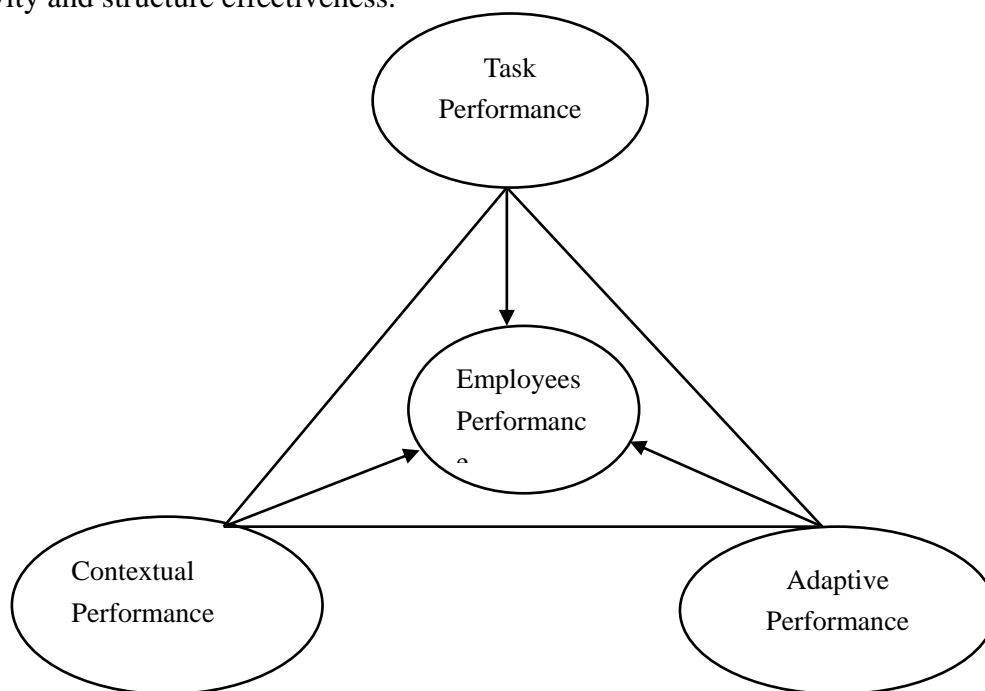

Figure 3.2 Triarchy Model of Employee Performance

Source: (Rabindra Kumar Pradhan, 2017)

3.5.2 Measures of Employees Job Performance

Employee job performance is evaluated using the observed outcomes. This is not the only mechanism used to measure performance; rather there are other parameters to measure employees' job performance. Hence, it can also be looked at in terms of behavior (Armstrong, M. 2000). Moreover, Kenney et al. (1992) stated that the employee's performance is measured against the performance standards set by the organization. Various types of measures can be taken into consideration when measuring performance such as productivity, efficiency, effectiveness, quality, and profitability measures (Ahuja, K. 2006). Efficiency is the ability to produce the expected outcomes using resources in a costly fashion while effectiveness is the ability of employees to achieve the planned objectives or target (Stoner J., 1996). Productivity is expressed as a ratio of output to that of input (Stoner, J., Freeman, E., and Gilbert, D., 1995.). It is a measure of how the individual, organization, and industry convert input resources into goods and services. The measure of how much output is produced per unit of resources employed (Lipsey, R. 1989). Quality is the features of products or services that bear a capacity of satisfying identified needs (Kotler, P. and Armstrong G., 2002). It is progressively attaining superior products and services at a progressively more competitive price (Stoner, J. 1996). Thus, better employee performance has been related to well-informed consumers about service quality, while poor employee performance has been related to highly rated customer criticism and brand switching. Consequently, employee performance could be simply understood by the way how assigned activities are well performed and executed following the expectations.

On the other hand, performance is always about performance management and performance involves stages that need to be acknowledged and maintained. Performance management is a systematic process focusing on organizational progress by creating the performance of individuals and teams (Armstrong, 2006). Researchers found out this description as the conceptual, organizational, and operational definition which researchers recognized as an optimal tool for investigating performance management. Besides, (De Nisi and Pritchard, 2006) argued that performance control is a huge set of development aimed toward enhancing employee performance. The essence of overall performance control is the development of individuals with competence and commitment, working towards the achievement of shared meaningful objectives inside a corporation that helps and encourages that achievement (Lockett, 1992). According to Armstrong (2006:1), the reason for performance management is to get better outcomes from an entire organization, or teams and people within it, by expertise and handling performance within an agreed framework of deliberate desires, standards, and competence necessities. Performance management is largely involved with enhancing the value-adding procedure via growing the productivity and first-class of the connection among organizational inputs/sources, outputs brought and consequences achieved as the following relationship. There is no single universally accepted model of performance management in use rather the management literature advances some of the separate contributions and that those may be expressed as a performance life cycle which includes five factors like putting performance targets, measuring effects, comments of consequences, and

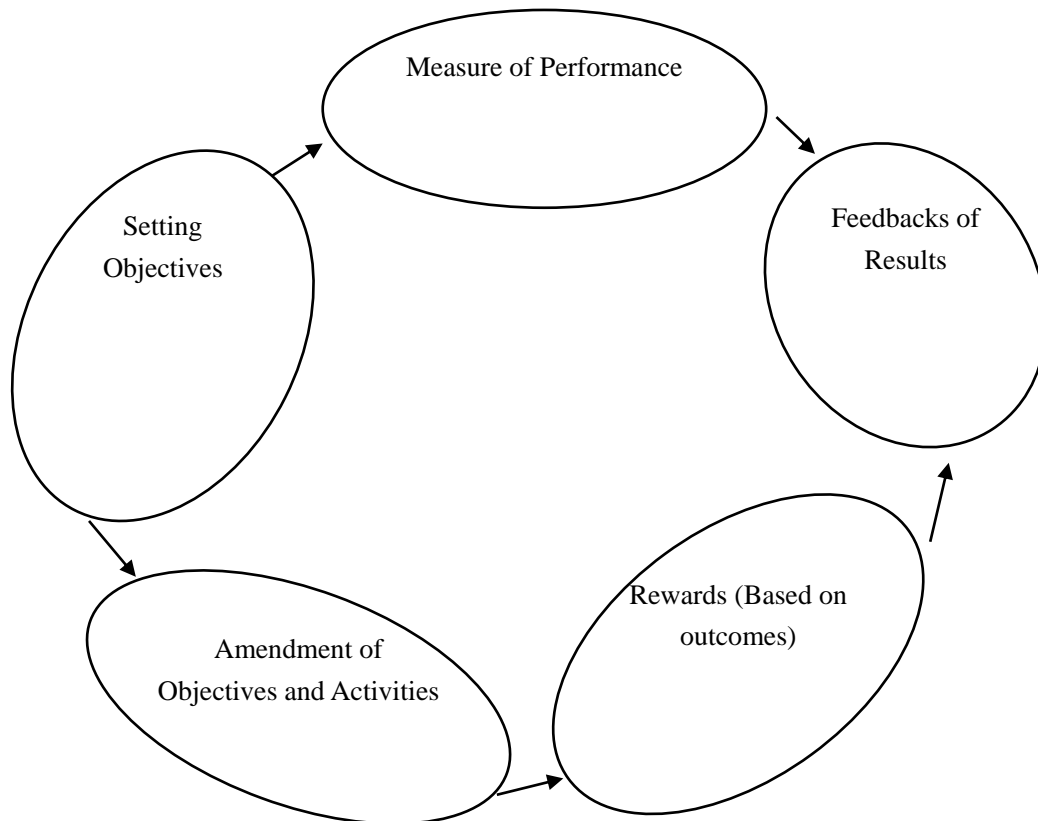amendments to goals and activities (Storey, et al., 1998).

Figure 3.3. The Performance Management Cycle

Source: Adapted from (Storey, et al., 1998)

The stage at which a performance management device operates will vary in line with how the organization chooses to apply the version or the level at which the commentator analyzes the situation. There is not anything in the model to signify that the factors apply to the control of character employees, or the organizations and teams or the company as a whole.

3.6 Determinants of Employee's Performance

Any organization runs its operation for the purpose it is established. Following this, there may be challenges that determine the result of the organization during implementation. Therefore, leaders should consider such determinants and take remedial actions to become successful in their achievements. According to some researchers and practitioners, there are tremendous numbers of determinants of employees' performance that can affect the performance of employees positively or negatively. Some of them which are about this study are summarized below. These include:

- **Leadership:** Leadership is a process of influencing an individual and a group to attain common goals (Northouse, 2007). It is the combination of attitude and behavior by which leaders and followers deal together (Dubrin, 2004). The leadership style has a

determinant effect on an organization and the performance of employees (Armstrong & Murlis, 2004; Cronje et al., 2001).

- **Coaching:** Coaching is a very significant method to advance the performance of employees (Champathes, 2006). It is a two-way communication approach by which coaches' focus on things that are proposed to be developed. Furthermore, coaching addresses the belief and behaviors that hinder performance (Toit, 2007). In addition to this, coaching is all about helping someone else to improve performance (Starr, 2004).

- **Empowerment:** It is a multi-dimensional social process that helps people gain control over their own lives. It is a process that fosters power in people for use in their own lives, their communities and in their society, by acting on issues they define as important. Duvall (1999) describes success as achievement, accomplishment, and attainment which is the consequence of empowerment as individual success in form of employee's role performance, the organizational success which is achieved as members of the organization accomplish collective organizational goals as well as objectives and organizational members that are mutually beneficial and satisfying work experience meeting both social and personal growth needs. Besides, empowerment had significant positive correlations with both performance and satisfaction (Bartram & Casimir, 2007).

- **Participation:** According to (Chen &Tjosvold, 2006) participation in management is about concerning employees in the decision-making process where the employees feel that they have the opportunity to deal with problems and can influence organizational decisions. Participation can increase employees' job performance and reduce turnover within the organization. Organizations can act to potentially strengthen the positive performance effects of employee participation (Lam et al, 2002). Employees will be motivated when management considers them as partners in contributing to organizational success.

- **Organizational Culture:** Tough culture in the organization is very supportive to develop the performance of the employees that leads to goal achievement and increases the overall performance of the organization (Deal & Kennedy, 1982). Stewart (2010), states that the norms and values of organizational culture are highly affected by those having directly or indirectly involved within the organization. These norms are invisible and have a great impact on the performance of employees which are characterized by shared value.

- **Working Environment:** the organization which fulfills the requirement of the working environment enables employees to become creative in their work. There will not be the intention of leaving and dissatisfaction where the organization accompanied the creative requirements of the job. Enhancing the creative performance of employees has been recommended for remaining competitive in a dynamic environment and for enhancing the overall innovations of an organization (Janssen, O. and NW. Van Yperen, 2004).

- **Motivation:** Motivation is a key determinant of job performance. This is explained by excessive staff turnover, higher expenses, negative morale, and increased use of managements' time (Jobber, 1994). Therefore, the organizations have to know what exactly inspires the staff (Jobber, 1994). Green (2000) has explained that motivation should be done proactively with the participation of employees to reduce dissatisfaction and turnover. Unless there is dealing with low performers, there will be low productivity and less success of the organization.

- **Training:** Training is developing the process of employees' skills to improve performance (Swanson, 1999). It is a planned and systematic level of skill, knowledge, and competency-building process that is essential to accomplish work effectively (Gordon, 1992). As existing literature witnesses that training and development affect employee performance. According to Wright and Geroy (2001), employee competencies can be improved using effective training. It is proven that training builds knowledge, skills, ability, competencies, and behavior which are significant for the employee as well as for the organization to achieve success and add value (Appiah, 2010; Harrison, 2000; Guest, 1997).

3.7 Review Literature Summary

The research gap is a research question or problem which has not been answered appropriately or at all in a given field of study. To recognize government economic and social policies efficiently and effectively, to improve transparency and accountability in the regions, the identification of problems and in-depth evaluation of the leadership practices shall have high output in meeting the intended growth and transformational goal. However, there are no consolidated and comprehensive research works, which can support in presenting recommendations for leadership challenges existing in public service organizations. Few trials made so far by (Meheret & Paulos, 2000; Getachew & Richard, 2006) were so limited to the federal level leaving the cases of regions at local levels.

Besides, there is no exhaustive study conducted especially in developing countries that clearly showed the impact of leadership styles on employees' job performance. Following this, researchers suggested their view of how the result found is inconsistent at different times. In Africa, although progress has been made in understanding leadership traits, there is a need to realize that much is not known about how a leadership style can be applied effectively to enhance employee performance, thus gaps and unanswered questions remain (Mohammed, Yusuf, and Sanni, 2014). As(Koech and Namusonge, 2012) identified that literature available on the subject of leadership styles and performance is limited and inconclusive, thus the need for more studies that can contribute to a growing body of literature investigating leadership influence on employees' performance. Scholars have described academic research lags behind concerning the role of leadership in employee performance especially in the county government leadership and its influence on employees' performance is a serious gap that needs further study currently. Moreover, the evidence of the effect of leadership style on employee performance is also varied. While most of the literature reviewed is somehow consistent in suggesting that both transformational and transactional leadership styles are

significantly positively related to employee performance and that transformational style's effect is more pronounced than that of the transactional leadership style (Rasool, et al., 2015; Kehinde & Bajo, 2014; Tsigu& Rao, 2015), the evidence on the relationship between laissez-faire and performance is not that straight forward. As (Aboushaqah et al., 2015) states that there is a negative relationship between Laissez-faire leadership and employees' performance while (Gimuguni, et al., 2014) have reported a positive relationship. This suggests that the evidence on leadership styles is inconsistent. On the other hand, the autocratic leadership style has a positive relationship with employee performance (Nuhu, 2010). Most employees believed that autocratic leadership brought about performance in an autocratic way. On the other hand, few opportunities are given to staff and team members to make suggestions, it has a significant influence on the satisfaction of employees and consequently on their job performance (Amanchukwu, et al., 2015). For that reason, this study is conducted to examine the impact of leadership styles on employees' job performance in public sectors in Ethiopia mediated by job satisfaction. An autocratic leader mostly makes a selection based on their judgments and ideas that rarely include follower's advice and these leaders have absolute control over the group (Zareen, et al., 2015). According to (Iqbal, et al., 2015) autocratic leaders give orders without explaining the reasons or future intentions. Therefore, less involvement in decision-making reduces employee performance.

There are no sufficient studies conducted on the impact of leadership styles on employees' job performance. Hence, related studies should be held to alleviate the problem. In most cases, it is only the government reports and development indicator bulletins that tried to indicate failures of the public service leadership.

3.8 Discussion

Leadership is the power and inspirational act of leaders with a non-violent way to have satisfactory outcomes from proposed objectives. However, there is always an argument within the association between leadership styles and employees' job performance. What calls the researcher to examine is that there is inconsistency in the relation of independent and dependent variables or standards. There is a significant relationship between leadership and job satisfaction (DeCremer, 2003). The quality of the leader can influence job satisfaction as well as the leader-employee relationship. For this reason, the researcher reviewed the impact of leadership styles on employees' job performance, one can hint at many leadership styles that have or have no longer relation with employees' job performance. Studies performed in this regard keeping their amount steady however their type and degree of impact is not always a one-time event and predictable as an alternative dynamic and situational. Therefore, the result varies via time horizon, organizational nature, financial paradigm, environmental components, and so forth. Scholars explained the conceptual framework organized in a logical coherence to understand how the impact of the independent variables on dependent

variables (Grant and Osanloo, 2014:12-22). Different scholars discovered how existing

phenomena prompted each other and there are positive associations, negatives associations, and no linkages among those independent and dependent variables. In this regard, Yousef (2000:8) made an overview of them and concluded that the consequences are not completely

constant that the impact of leadership styles on employees' overall job performance can be fine, bad, or no effect. For instance, employees' self-efficacy, satisfaction, motivation, creativity, and job performance are optimistically affected by transformational leadership style (Bronkhorst& et al, 2015꞉124–145). On Contrary, the laissez-faire leadership style is believed less effective and features a negative effect on employees job overall performance (Bass and Avolio, 1985; Yahya and Ebrahim, 2016). In addition to this, employees in autocratic leadership styles have job dissatisfaction as leaders exercising absolute authority and unlimited decision-making power (Kerfoot, 2013 and Afshinpour, 2014, 156-169) which also, therefore, affect employees' job performance.

3.9 Conclusion

The study of leadership and employees' job performance will continue to be the focus of attention from academics and practitioners in both private and public sector organizations as a way to manage and control organizations. Employees' job performance is a core concept within work and organization and researchers have made progress in clarifying and extending the performance concept. The review in this paper revealed leadership styles versus employees' performance that needs timely and appropriate attention. Employees' performance is also a multi-dimensional construct to ensure organizational effectiveness and efficiency. The theoretical literature review related to employees' job performance also demonstrated several dimensions as task performance, adaptive performance, and contextual performance for further research in the field of employees' job performance. Eventually, this paper presented the research gap which needs prospective investigation.

References

Aboshaiqah, A. E., Hamdan-Mansour, A. M., Sherrod, D. R. Alkhaibary, A. &Alkhaibary, S. (2014)Nurses Perception of Managers Leadership Styles and Its Associated Outcomes. *American Journal of Nursing Research, 2*(4), 57-62.

Achimugu, H., Stephen, M. R., & Aliyu, A. (2013) `Public Administration and the Challenge of National Development in Nigeria`: Issues and Concerns. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences, 4*(6), 171-185.

Adeba, H. (2014)`Practices and challenges of employee's performance appraisal in the Ministry of Culture and Tourism of Ethiopia, International Journal of Academic Research, ISSN: 1(2/2, July/September 2014. Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia.), pp. 2348-766.

Adeyemi, T. O. (2010) Principals' leadership styles and teachers' job performance in senior secondary schools in Ondo State, Nigeria. *International Journal of Educational Administration and Policy Studies, 2*(6), 83-91.

Afegbua, S. I., &Adejuwon, K. D. (2012). The Challenges of Leadership and Governance in Africa. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 2*(9), 141-157.

African Leadership Academy (2014) 'World Class Curriculum', Retrieved August 11, 2014, (), pp. [Online]. Available at: http://www.africanleadershipacademy.org/building-foundation/world-class-curriculum (Accessed).

Afro-Centric Alliance (2001) 'Indigenizing organizational change: Localization in Tanzania and Malawi'. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 16*(1), pp. 59-78.

Afshinpour, Saeid. (2014)`Leadership Styles and Employee Satisfaction, International Letters of Social and Humanistic Sciences Online`: 2014-05-04 ISSN: 2300-2697, Vol. 27, pp 156-169.

Alaaraj, H., & Ibrahim, F. W. (2014) `The Influence of E-government Practices on Good Governance from the Perspective of the Public in Lebanon. *Journal of Public Administration and Governance, 4*(3), 171-185.

Alghazo, A. M., & Al-Anazi, M. (2016) 'The Impact of Leadership Style on Employees Motivation'. *International Journal of Economics and Business Administration, 2*(5), pp. 37-44.

Alghazo, A. M., & Al-Anazi, M (2016) 'The Impact of Leadership Style on Employees` Motivation', International Journal of Economics and Business Administration, 2(5), pp. 37-44.

Amarneh, B., Abu Al-Rub, R., and Abu Al-Rub, N. (2010) 'Co-Workers' support and job performance among nurses in Jordanian hospitals', *Journal of Research in Nursing, 15*(5), pp. 391-401.

Amhara National Regional State. (2018) Annual development and good governance achievement report, Bahir Dar, Ethiopia: Plan Commission.

Analytic Review of Leadership Impact Research: Experimental and Quasi-Experimental Studies (2009). US army.

Ansari, M. A., Ahmad, Z. A., &Aafaqi, R., (2004) 'Organizational Leadership in the Malaysian Context', Leading in High Growth Asia, (), pp. 109-138.

Antonakis, J., Avolio, B. J., &Sivasubramaniam, N. (2003) 'Context and leadership: An examination of the nine-factor full-range leadership theory using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire'. *The Leadership Quarterly, 14*, pp. 261-295.

Apaza, C. (2014) "Building institutional capacity in Africa: results and trends from Ethiopia and Mozambique", PA Times, The American Society for Public Administration, pp. 1-2.

Appiah, C. (2010) Human Resource Strategies for International Growth, London: Routledge.

Araujo-Cabrera, Y., Suarez-Acosta, M. A., &Aguiar-Quintana, T. (2016). 'Exploring the influence of CEO extraversion and openness to experience on firm performance: The mediating role of top management team behavioral integration, Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies. https://doi.org/10.1177/1548051816655991.

Armstrong, M. (1995), a handbook of personnel Management Practices: Kogan Page Limited London.

Armstrong, M., & Murlis, H. (2004) Reward management: A handbook of remuneration strategy and practice, 5th edition eds., London: Kogan Page Limited.

Aswathappa, A. (2002) Human Resource and personnel management: Text and Cases, 3rd edition, Tata McGraw-Hill Publishing Company Limited, New Delhi, pp. 199-231.

Avolio, Bruce J., Richard, Rebecca J., Hannah, Sean T., Walumbwa, Fred, O., & Chan, Adrian. (2009).

Avolio, J., & Bass, M., (2000) Developing potential across a full range of cases on transactional and transformational leadership, London: Lawrence Erlbaum associate, Inc.

Awolusi, O. D. (2014) 'Effects of motivation on employee's job commitment in the Nigerian banking industry: an empirical analysis. *International Journal of Business and Innovation Research, 1*(3), pp. 1-17.

Babbie, E. (2005). The basis of social research.3rd ed. Toronto: Wadsworth.

Bahru, Z. (1994). A history of modern Ethiopia, 1855-1974, London: James Curry.

Bailey, K. (2008). *Methods of social research*: Simon and Schuster.

Bartol, K., & Martin, D. (1998) Management, 3rd Ed ed., USA: McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc.

Bartol, K., Tein, M. Mathew, G., & Martin, D. (2003) Management: A Pacific Rim Focus enhanced ed, Sydney: McGraw-Hill.,

Bartram, T., & Casimir, G. (2007) 'The relationship between leadership and follower in-role performance and satisfaction with the leaders: The mediating effects of empowerment and trust in the leader'. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal, 28*(1), 4-19.

Bass, M., & Riggio, E., (2006) Transformational leadership. (2nd). USA: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Belete, N. (2008).Business Process Re-engineering Challenges and Opportunities in Ethiopia, Symposium on BPR, Challenges, and Opportunities in Ethiopia, October 25 and, Ethiopian Management Professionals Association (EMPA): BT Constantinos and Nigatu Teshome.

Bernard, R. (2000) change management, London: Pearson limited.

Bertolino, M., Truxillo, D. M., & Fraccaroli, F. (2013) 'Age effects on perceived personality and job performance. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 28*(7/8), 867-885.

Bhargavi, S., &Yaseen, A., (2016) Leadership Styles and Organizational Performance. *Strategic Management Quarterly, 4*(1), 87-117.

Bhatti, M. A., Battour, M. M., & Ismail, A. R. (2013). Expatriates adjustment and job

performance': *International Journal of Productivity and Performance Management, 62*(7), 694-717.

Blunt, P., & Jones, M. L. (1997). Exploring the limits of Western leadership theory in East Asia and Africa. *Personnel Review, 26*(1/2), 6-23.

Boaduo, N. A. (2011) Practical educational research principles for practicing teachers: Manual for teacher researchers. Saarbrücken: Lambert Academic Publishing.

Bolden, R., Gosling, J., Marturano, A., & Dennison P. (2003) A review of leadership theory and competency frameworks, United Kingdom: Unpublished, University of Exeter.

Bond, P. (2006) Looting Africa: The Economics of Exploitation, London and New York: Zed Books.

Borman, W. C., &Motowidlo, S. J. (1993) *Expanding the criterion domain to include elements of contextual performance*. In N. Schmitt & W. Borman (Eds), Personnel selection in organizations (pp. 71–98) in., New York: Jossey-Bass.

Brockner, J., Tyler, T., & Schneider. (1992). The Influence of Prior Commitment to An Institution on Reactions to Perceived Unfairness`: The higher they are, the harder they fall'. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 37*, 241-261.

Bronkhorst, B., Steijn,B., & Vermeeren, B. (2015). `Transformationalleadership,goal setting,and work motivation: Thecase of a Dutch municipality. *Review of Public Personnel Administration, 35*(2), 124–145.

Bruno. Leo. (2013). Longitudinal Assessment of the Impact of Leadership on Organizational-Leader, Slovenia:

Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2007) Business Research Methods, New York: Oxford University Press.

Bryman, A. (1992) 'Quantitative and qualitative research: further reflections on their integration. Mixing methods: Qualitative and quantitative research, 57-78.

Bryman, A. (2012). Social research methods (4th Edition ed.): Oxford university press.

Bučiūnienė, I., &Škudienė, V. (2008) `Impact of Leadership Styles on Employees' Organizational Commitment in Lithuanian Manufacturing Companies. *SEE Journal, 33*, 57-65.

Burns, J. M. (1978) Leadership, NY: Harper & Row.

Calderisi, R. (2007). The Trouble with Africa: Why Foreign Aid Isn't Working`: New Haven and London: Yale University Press.

Campbell, J. P., McCloy, R. A., Oppler, S. H., & Sager, C. E. (1993). *A theory of performance*, In C.W. Schmitt & W.C.A. Borman (Eds), Personnel selection in organizations (pp. 35–70) end.,. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Cellar, D. F., Sidle, S., Goudy, K., & O'Brien, D. (2001) Effects of leader style, leader sex, and subordinate personality on leader evaluations and future subordinate motivation. J. Bus. Psychol. 16, 1 (Fall 2001), 61-72.

Champathes, M. R. (2006). Coaching for performance improvement: The coaching model. *Development and Learning in Organizations, 20*(2), 17–18.

Chen, Y. F., & Tjosvold, D. (2006). Participative leadership by American and Chinese managers in China: the role of relationships. *Journal of Management Studies, 43*(17), 27–52.

Cherry. K. (2010). Leadership theories - 8 major leadership theories. (Online). Available: from http://psychology.about.com/od/leadership/p/leadership.theories.htm.

Chhokar, J. S., Brodbeck, F. C., & House, R. J. (eds.). (2007). Culture and leadership across the world: The globe book of in-depth studies of 25 societies. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Chiok Foong Loke, J. (2001). Leadership behaviors: effects on job satisfaction, productivity, and organizational commitment. *Journal of Nursing Management, 9*(4), 191-204.

Choi, S. (2007). The lessons of exemplary models for democratic governance: International *Journal of Leadership Studies, 2*(3), 243-262.

Chowdhury, G. R. (2014) A Study on the Impact of Leadership Styles on Employee Motivation and Commitment, Patil University: Doctoral dissertation, Padmashree Dr. D.Y.

Chu, L. C., & Lai, C. C. (2011) A research on the influence of leadership style and job characteristics on job performance among accountants of county and city government in Taiwan. *Public Personnel Management, 40*(2), 101-118.

Clapham, C. (2002) In Ethiopia since the Derg: A decade of democratic presentation and performance, edited by Pausewang, S., Tronvoll, K. and Aalen, L. London: Zed Books.

Coleman, V. I., & Borman, W. C. (2000). Investigating the underlying structure of the citizenship performance domain. *Human Resource Management Review, 10*(2), 24-44.

Connelly, L. M. (2008). Pilot studies. *Medsurg Nursing, 17*(6), 411–413.

Conway, J. M. (1999) 'Distinguishing contextual performance from task performance for managerial jobs. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84*(3), 3-13.

Cooper, D., & Pamela, S. (2014) Business Research Methods, New York, NY: Mcgraw-Hill Education.

Creswell, J. (2009) Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approach. (2nd Ed). New Delhi: SAGE.

Cronje, G. J. de J., du Toit G. S., & Motlatla, M. D. C. (2001). Introduction to Business Management, 5th edition ed., Cape Town: Oxford University Press Southern Africa.

Daoanis, L. E. (2012). `Performance appraisal system: its implication to employee

performance`: International journal of economics and management science, 2(3), 55-62.

De Vaus, D. A. (2002). *Surveys in social research* (5th Ed). Psychology Press.

Decenzo, D., & Robbins, S. (2005) Fundamentals of Human Resource Management. (8th ed.). USA: von Hoffmann press.

Denhardt, J. V., & Denhardt, R. B. (2003). The new public service: Serving, not steering, Armonk, NY: M. E. Sharpe.

Derue, D. S., Nahrgang, J. D., Wellman, N. E. D., & Humphrey, S. E. (2011) Trait and behavioral theories of leadership: An integration and meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Personnel Psychology, 64*(1), 11-12.

Dessler, G. (1999) The Path-Goal Theory of Leadership: Some Post Hoc and Priori Tests. New York: HarperRow.

Dewakar, G. (2009) Human resource management: Delhi, pp. 26-60.

Dia, M. (1996) Africa`s Management in the 1990s and beyond. Washington, DC: The World Bank.

Diamantopoulos, A., & Schlegelmilch, B. B. (1996). Determinants of the industrial mail survey response: A survey-on-survey analysis of researchers' and managers views. *Journal of Marketing Management, 12*(6), 505-531.

Dixon, J., Gulliver, A., Gibbon, D., & Hall, M., (2001) Farming Systems and Poverty: Improving Farmers' Livelihoods in a Changing World, Washington, DC: World Bank.

Donham, D., & James, W., (2002). The southern marches of imperial Ethiopia (eds ed.). London: James Currey.

Douglas, D. (2003) `Inductive theory generation: A grounded approach to business inquiry. *Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods, 2*(1), 47-54.

Drucker, K., (1999). Organizational Leadership, New York: Paulist Press.

DuBrin, A. (2004) Leadership: Research findings, practice, and skills, New York: Houghton Mifflin.

Durssa Z. (2014) Leadership Effectiveness in Public Service Organizations of Ethiopia. *Perceptions of Leaders in Public Service Organizations, 26*(2224-3240).

Easterby-Smith, M. R., T., & Lowe, A. (2002) Management Research: an Introduction, Second edition ed ed., Sage.

Edoho, F. M. (2001) Management in Africa: The quest for a philosophical framework. In Edoho, F. M. (ed.) Management challenges for Africa in the twenty-first century: Theoretical and applied perspectives. Westport, CT: Praeger, pp. 73-89.

Epitropaki, O., & Martin, T. (2005) `Themoderatingroleofindividualdifferencesintherelationbetweentransformational/transactiona

l leadership perceptions and organizational identification. *Leadership Quarterly Journal, 16*(4), 569–589.

Ethiopian Civil Service College. (2007) Proceedings of the first national conference on the achievements.

Evans, J. R., & Mathur, A. (2005) 'The value of online surveys: *Internet research, 15*(2), pp. [Online]. Available at: *195-219.* https://doi.org/10.1108/10662240510590360

Ezzamel, M. (2004). Work organization in the Middle Kingdom, ancient Egypt. *Organization*, (4), 497-539.

Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia (2010). Woreda and City Administrations Benchmarking Survey III: Survey of Service Delivery Satisfaction Status Report, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia: Ministry of Capacity Building in collaboration with PSCAP Donors.

Field, A. (2009). Discovering Statistics Using SPSS. 3rd ed. London: SAGE Publication Ltd.

Gabel-Shemueli, R., &Capell, B. (2013) `Public sector values`: Between the real and the ideal. *Cross-Cultural Management, 20*(4), 586–606.

Gall, M. D., Gall, J. P., & Borg, W. R. (2003) Educational research: An introduction (7th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.

Galton F. (1888) Personal identification and description: Nature 38:173–177

Gebru T., (2004). From Alphabet to the Shire: The defeat and demise of Ethiopia's red army 1988-1989. *Journal of Modern African Studies, 42*(1), 239–282.

Getachew. H., & Richard, C. (2006). Civil Service Reform in Ethiopia: success in two ministries. UK: center for management and organizational learning.

Ghauri, P. N., & Grønhaug, K. (2005). Research methods in business studies: A practical guide: Pearson Education.

Gill, J., & Johnson, P. (2010) Research methods for managers: Sage.

Gimuguni, L., Nandutu, J., &Magolo, A. (2014) Effect of leadership styles on performance of local governments in Uganda, A case of Mbale District.

Golafshani, N. (2003). Understanding Reliability and Validity in Qualitative Research. *The Qualitative Report, 8*(4), 597-606.

Gordon, B. (1992) Are Canadian firms under-investing in training? *Canadian Business Economics, 1*(1), 25-33.

Grant, C., & Osanloo, A. (2014). Understanding, Selecting, and Integrating a Theoretical Framework in Dissertation Research: Creating the Blueprint for 'House'. Administrative Issues Journal: Connecting Education, Practice and Research, Pp. 12-22.

Green, C., & Heywood, J. (2008). Does performance pay increase job satisfaction? *Journal of Economical, 75*(3), 710-728.

Greene, J. C., &Caracelli, V. J. (eds.). (2007). *Advances in mixed-method evaluation: New directions for evaluation.* Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Guest, D. E. (1997). Human resource management and industrial relations. *Journal of Management Studies, 24*(5), 503-521.

Haavelmo, T. (1943). The statistical implications of a system of simultaneous equations. *Econometrical, 11*(1), 1–12.

Hackman, M., & Johnson, C. (2000) Leadership: the communication perspective, Prospect Heights, IL: Waveland Press.

Harrison, R. (2000) Employee Development. Silver Lakes, Pretoria: Beekman Publishing.

Heneman, R. L., Gresham, M. T. (1999). The effects of changes like work on compensation, USA: Ohio State University.

Hennessey, J. (1998) Reinventing government: Does leadership make the difference? Public Administration Review, 58(6), 522-532.

Herzberg, F, Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B. (1959). The motivation to work: New York: Wiley.

Hill, R. (1998). What sample size is "enough" in internet survey research? Interpersonal Computing and Technology: An Electronic Journal for the 21st Century, 6(3-4). Retrieved February 26, 2021, from http://www.emoderators.com/ipct-j/1998/n3-4/hill.html.

Horwitz, F. M. (2002) Whither South African Management? In: Warner, M., and Joynt, P. (eds.), Managing across cultures, London: Thomson Learning.

House, R. (1996). The path-goal theory of leadership: Lessons, legacy and a reformulated theory. The Leadership Quarterly, p.26.

House, R., et al (1999). Cultural Influences on Leadership and Organizations: Project Glob". In Mobley, W., et al, (Eds): Advances in Global Leadership, 171-233.

House, R. J., & Mitchell, T. (1974) 'Path-Goal Theory of leadership. *Journal of Contemporary Business, 3*(4), 81-97.

Huang, Y. H., Hammer, L. B., Neal, M. B., & Perrin, N. A. (2004). The relationship between work-to-family conflict and family-to-work conflict: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Family and Economic Issues, 25*(1), 10-100.

Hurduzue, R.-E (2015). The Impact of Leadership on Organizational Performance', *SEA - Practical Application of Science, 1*(7), 289-294.

Iguisi, O. (2007). The role of culture inappropriate management and indigenous development. Proceedings of the First African Seminar on Culture dimensions to appropriate management in Africa, Paris: UNESCO: Makerere University, Kampala, Uganda.

Ikramullah, Shah, B., Hassan, F. S. U., & Zaman. (2012). Purpose of performance appraisal

system: A perceptual study of civil servants in district Dera Ismail khan Pakistan. *International Journal of Business and Management, 7*(3), 142-151 [Online].

Iqbal, N., Anwar, S., & Haider, N. (2015) 'Effect of leadership style on employee performance. *Arabian Journal of Business and Management Review, 5*(5), 1-6.

Isaac, S., & Michael, W. B. (1995) *Handbook in research and evaluation*, San Diego, CA: Educational and Industrial Testing Services.

Ittner, C. (2002) Determinants of performance measure choice in work incentive plans, USA: Sunrise printer, Chicago.

Ivancevich, J. M. (2004). Human resource management (9th ed.). McGraw-publisher: Boston.

Jackson, T. (2004) Management and Change in Africa: A cross-cultural perspective, London: Routledge Palmer.

Jacobs, T., &Jaques, E. (1990). Military Executive Leadership, In E. Clark (Eds.), "Measures of Leadership", West Orange ed., NJ, Leadership Library of America, 281-295.

Jaeger, A. M. (1990) The applicability of Western management techniques in developing countries: A cultural perspective, In Jaeger, A.M., & Kanungo, R.N. (eds) ed., London: Routledge Palmer, 131-145.

Janse van Rensburg, J. O. (2014). Internal Audit Capability: a Public Sector Case Study, Unpublished M.Com. Dissertation ed., Pretoria: University of Pretoria.

Janssen, O., & NW. Van Yperen (2004). Employees' goal orientations: the quality of leader-member exchange and the outcomes of job performance and Job Satisfaction.

Jarad, G. H. (2012). The construction manager leading characteristics for the success of construction projects in the Gaza Strip, The Islamic University of Gaza.

Jayasingam, S., & Cheng, M. Y., 2009. Leadership Style and Perception of Effectiveness: Enlightening Malaysian Managers. *Asian Social Science, 5*(2), 54-65.

Joakim, T. (2011) 'Attitude towards saving and Motivation to save. UMEA: School of Business. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management, 35*(1), 3–22 [Online]. Available at: http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/08853134.2014.958157

Jobber, D., & Lee, R. (1994). A comparison of the perceptions of sales management and salespeople towards sales force motivation and demotivation. *Journal of Marketing, 10*(4), 325- 332.

John, S. (2011). *The top 50 challenges with performance appraisal.* Available at: www. tint. Com.

Jones, D. W., & Rudd, R. D. (2007) Transactional, Transformational, or Laissez-Faire Leadership: An assessment of College of Agriculture Academic Program Leaders (Deans) Leadership Styles.

Joreskog K. G. (1969, 1970, 1975 & 1978) Structural analysis of covariance and correlation matrices. *Psychometrical, 43*(4), 443–473.

Jyoti, J., & Bhau, S. (2015) 'Impact of transformational leadership on job performance: Mediating role of leader-member exchange and relational identification'. *SAGE Open, 5*(4), 1-13.

Kamali, H. (2014) 'Studying the relationship between transformational leadership style and gain competitive advantage (case study: wire and cable company at Moghan located in Shahrood city. *Reef Resources Assessment and Management Technical Paper, 40*(1), 518-532.

Katz, D., & Kahn, R. (1978). The Social Psychology of Organizations. (2nd ed.). New York: Johan Wiley.

Kenney et al. (1992). *Management Made East.* (1st Ed). South Carolina: Omron Publishers.

Keskes, I. (2014). Relationship between leadership styles and dimensions of employee organizational commitment Intangible Capital IC, *10*(1), 26-51.

Khan, M. S. et al. (2015) 'The Styles of Leadership: A Critical Review', International Institute for Science. *Technology, and Education (IISTE), 5*(3), 87-93.

Khan, Z. A., Khan, A. N. I., & Khan, I. D. (2016) 'Journal of Resources Development and Management, An International Peer-reviewed Journal, 16(2422-8397), pp. [Online]. Available at: www.iiste.org (Accessed).

Kiggundu, M. N. (1991) 'The challenges of Management Development in Sub-Saharan Africa. *Journal of Management Development, 10*(6), 32-47.

Kim, J. C. (2004). The effects of work experiences and institutional support on job satisfaction among NCAA coaches Unpublished Thesis; Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of Texas A&M University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science.

Kirega, V. P. G. (2006) Kampala City handbook, Kampala Uganda: Gava associated services.

Kotler, P., & Armstrong, G. (2002) Marketing: An introduction, (6th Ed.). London: Prentice-Hall.

Kotter, J. P. (2001). Leading change: A conversation with John P Kotter, 25(1).

Kouzes, J., & Posner, B. (2007). *The Leadership Challenge*. (4th ed.). San- Francisco: Jossy-Bass.

Kouzes, M., & Barry, Z. (2002). *The Leadership challenge*. (3rd ed.). USA: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Lam, S. S. K., Yik, M. S. M., & Schaubroeck, J. (2002) ' Responses to formal performance appraisal feedback: The role of negative affectivity. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 87*, 192 – 201.

Lawal, T., & Owolabi, B. (2012). Leadership Debacle: The Bane of Good Governance in Nigeria. *Afro Asian Journal of Social Sciences, 3*(3), 1–12.

Leedy, P. O., &Ormond, J. E. (2001) Practical research; Planning and Design, 7th ed.Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.Leedy, P. N., & Ormond, J. E. (2005). Practical research. Planning and design. 8th ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice-Hall.

LePine, M. A., Zhang, Y., Crawford, E. R., &Rich, B. L. (2015) 'Turning their pain to gain: Charismatic leader influence on follower stress appraisal and job performance', Academy of Management Journal. [Online].

Lewin, K., Lippit, R., White, R. K. (1939). Patterns of aggressive behavior in experimentally created social climates. *Journal of Social Psychology, 10*, 271-301.

Lipsey, R. G. (1989). *Introduction to Positive Economics.* (7th Ed.). London: Weindnfeld& Nicholson.

Lodico, M. G., Spaulding, D. T., &Voegtle, K. H. (2006) Methods in educational research: From theory to practice, San Francisco: CA: Jossey-Bass Wiley.

Longe, O. J. (2014). Leadership style paradigm shift and organizational performance: A case of the Nigerian Cement Industry. *African Research Review, 8*(4), 68-83.

Lotich, P. (2014) 'Advantages and disadvantages of performance appraisals', (), pp. [Online]. Available at: http://thethriviingsmallbusiness.com/advantages and-disadvantages –of-performance –appraisal/

Luthans, F (2005). Organizational behavior: 10th ed. McGraw-Hill.

Makgoba, W. (1999). African renaissance, ed ed., Cape Town: Mafube Publishing.

Malhotra, N. K., Hall, J., Shaw, M., & Oppenheim, P. (2004). *Essentials of marketing research: an applied orientation*. Pearson Education Australia.

Malik, S. Z., Saleem, M., & Naeem, R. (2016). Effect of leadership styles on organizational citizenship behavior in employees of telecom sector in Pakistan Pakistan Economic and Social Review, *54*(2), 385-406.

Maloş, R. (2012). Leadership styles. Annals of EftimieMurgu University Resita, FascicleII, Economic Studies, 421-426.

Mamoria, C., & Rao, V. (2012). Personnel management (13th ed.). *Mumbai: Himalaya management, 16*(1), 76-81.

Mangaliso, M. P. (2001) 'Building competitive advantage from Ubuntu: Management lessons from South Africa. *Academy of Management Executive, 15*(3), 23-33.

Mazrui, A. (1986). The Africans: A triple heritage, Boston: Little Brown Company.

Mbah, C. E. (2013). Question and Development Crises: The 21st Century Challenges in Africa and Quest for Change. *Journal of Sustainable Development in Africa, 15*(2), 142-153.

Mbigi, L. (2005). The Spirit of African Leadership, Pretoria: Knowledge Resources.

Mehra, A., Smith, B., Dixon, A., & Robertson, B. (2006). Distributed leadership in teams: the network of leadership perceptions and team performance. *Leadership Quarterly, 17*(3), 232-245.

Men, R. L. (2010) Measuring the Impact of Leadership Style and Employee Empowerment on Perceived Organizational Reputation, Doctoral dissertation ed., University Of Miami, Institute of Public Relations:

Mengesha, G. H., & Richard, K. C. (2006) Civil Service Reform in Ethiopia: Success in Two Ministries (Ministry of Trade and Industry and Ministry of Education.

Mercier, J. (2011) Ethiopian art history in Horowitz et al. (eds). Ethiopian art: The water art museum, London: The Third Millennium Information Ltd.

Messay, K. (2006). The roots and fallouts of Haile Selassie I educational policy, UNESCO: Forum Occasional Paper Series Paper no. 10.

Milgron, P., & Holmstrom, B. (1991) Incentive contracts, asset ownership, and job design, London: Prentice-Hall printer.

Mills, G. (2011) Why Africa is Poor and What Africans can do about it, Johannesburg: Penguin Books.

Mimba, N. P. S. H., Van Helden, G. J., &Tillema, S. (2007) 'Public sector performance measurement in developing countries: A literature review and research agenda. *Journal of Accounting & Organizational Change, 3*(3), 192–208.

Ministry of Capacity Building. (2004). Ethiopia Public Sector Capacity Building Program Support Project Africa Regional Office Government of Ethiopia: Ministry Of Capacity Building, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Ministry of Finance and Economic Development (MofED) (2012) the Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia Growth and Transformation Plan (2010/11-2014/15) Annual Progress Report for FY 2010/11, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Mughal, M. S. (2005) Good Governance for the Sustainable Public Housing Development, Karachi, Pakistan:

Mushtaq, R., & Bokhari, R. H. (2011) 'Knowledge sharing: organizational culture and transformational leadership. *Journal of Knowledge Management Practice, 12*(2), 1-9.

Mutabazi, E. (2001) Preparing African leader, In Derr, C. B., Roussillon, S., &Bournois, F. (eds.). Cross-cultural approaches to leadership development, Westport, CT: Quorum, pp 202-223:

Newstrom, J. W., & Davis, K. (1993) Organizational Behavior: Human Behavior at Work, New York: McGraw-Hill.

Ng, T. W., Sorensen, K. L., & Yim, F. H. (2009). Does the job satisfaction-job performance

relationship vary across cultures? *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 40*(5), 761-796.

Ngambi, H. (2004) African leadership: Lessons from the chief. In: Meyer, T., & Boninelli, I. (eds.). Conversations in leadership: South African perspectives: Johannesburg: Knowledge Resources, pp 107-132.

NICE Journal of Business • Vol. 12 • No. 1 • January - June 2017…GurjeetKaur and Tisha.

Nkomo, S. M., Zoogah, D., & Acquaah, M. (2015). Why Africa journal of management and why now. *Africa Journal of Management, 1*(1), 4-26.

Northouse, P. (2014). *Leadership Theory and Practice*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications Inc.

Northouse, P. G. (2007). Leadership Theory and Practice, London: Sage Publications.

Northouse, P.G. (2013) Leadership: theory and practice, 6th ed ed., Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Nuhu, K. (2010). Effect of leadership styles on employee performance in Kampala district council, Doctoral dissertation in., Makerere University.

Nzelibe, C. O. (1986) 'The evolution of African management thought', *International Studies of Management and Organization, 16*(2), 6-16.

ObasanKehinde, A., & Hassan Banjo, A. (2014). A Test of the Impact of Leadership Styles on Employee Performance: A Study of Department of Petroleum Resources', International Journal of Management Science, Research Academic of Social Science.

Obiwuru, T. C., Okwu, A. T., Akpa, V. O., & Nwankwere. I. A. (2011) 'Effects of Leadership Style on Organizational Performance. *Australian Journal of Business and Management Research, 1*(7), 100-111.

Odumeru, J. A., & Ifeanyi, G. O. (2013) 'Transformational vs. transactional leadership theories: evidence in the literature. *International Review of Management and Business Research, 2*(2), 355-361.

Ojokuku, R. M., Odetayo, T. A., &Sajuyigbe, A. S. (2012) 'Impact of leadership style on organizational performance: a case study of Nigerian banks. *American Journal of Business and Management, 1*(14), 202-207.

Onuoha, E. I. (2005) The Effective Administration of Criminal Justice for the Prevention of Corruption Activities by Public officials: The Nigerian Position, in Resource Materials Series 56 ed.

Oppenheim, A. N. (1992) Questionnaire design, interviewing and attitude measurement: Bloomsbury Publishing.

Ozera, F., Tinaztepeb, Cihan. (2014) Effect of Strategic Leadership Styles on Firm Performance: A Study in a Turkish SME, Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences.

Pankhurst, R. (1990) A Social History of Ethiopia: The northern and central highlands from

early medieval times to the rise of emperor Téwodros II, Addis Ababa: Institute of Ethiopian Studies, Addis Ababa University.

Paul, R. N. (2014) Balanced scorecard evolution, dynamic approach to strategy execution, John Wiley and Sons, Inc, Canada.

Pearson K, Lee A (1903). n the laws of inheritance in man, Inheritance of physical characters: Biometrika 2(4):357–462

Plan Commission. (2018). Development Indicators of Amhara National Regional State, Bahir Dar, Ethiopia: Yihenew Printing Press.

Price, J. J. (2009) The Conception and Operationalization of leadership in construction companies: UNISA.

Ojokuku., R, M., Odetayo., T, A., & Sajuyigbe A. S. (2012) 'Impact of Leadership Style on Organizational Performance. *American Journal of Business and Management, 1*(4), 2012.

Ricketts, K. (2009) Behaving Intelligently: Leadership traits and characteristics, Lexington: the University of Kentucky, College of Agriculture.

Riggio, E., & Bass, M. (2006) Transformational leadership, 1st edition ed., USA: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Rob, L., & Richard, N. (2007). *Imitation and Inspiration in Public Sector Reform: Lessons from Commonwealth experiences.* International Review of Administrative Sciences.

Robbins, S. P. (2003). Organizational behavior, 10th ed ed., Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson.

Roth, P., Purvis, K., & Bobko, P. (2012). Ameta-analysis of gender group differences for measures of job performance in field studies. *Journal of Management, 38*(2), 719-739.

Rowland, K. (2008). The relationship of principal leadership and teacher morale, Dissertation ed., School of Education, Liberty University, Lynchburg, Virginia: Education, Inc.

Rukmani, K., Ramesh, M., & Jayakrishnan, J., (2010) 'Effect of leadership styles on organizational effectiveness. *European Journal of Social Sciences, 15*(3), 365-369.

Said, E. (2002) Imaginative geography and its representations: Orientalising the oriental, In Essed, P., & Goldberg, D.T. (eds.).Race critical theories ed., Malden: Blackwell Publishers, 15-37.

Said, J., Alam, M. M., & Aziz, M. A. A. (2015) 'Public accountability system: Empirical assessment of the public sector of Malaysia. *Asian Journal of Scientific Research, 8*(2), 225-2368.

Samad, A., Reaburn, P., Davis, H., & Ahmed, E. (2015) 'An Empirical Study on the Effect of Leadership Styles on Employee Wellbeing and Organizational Outcomes within an Australian

Regional University 'The Journal Of Developing Areas: (ISBN 978-0-9925622-1-2).

Saqib, K. M., Ahmed, M., & Ullah, I. (2012). A Brief Review of Performance Appraisal Practices and its Implementation at Government Offices in Pakistan. *Interdisciplinary journal of contemporary research in business, 3*(10), 1057-1060.

Sarros, J., & Santora, J. (2001). The transformational transactional leadership model in practice. Leadership & Organization Development Journal, 383-393.

Sashkin, M., &Sashkin, M. G. (2003) Leadership that matters: The critical factors for making a difference in people's lives and organizations' success, San Francisco: Berret-Koehler Publishers.

Sauer, S. J. (2011). Taking the reins: The effects of new leader status and Leadership style on team performance. *J. Appl. Psychol, 96*(3), 574-587.

Schermerhorn, J., Hunt, J., & Osborn, R. (2000). *Organizational Behavior.* (7th Ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

SendilMourougan, & Dr. K. Sethuraman. (2017). Hypothesis Development and Testing': *IOSR Journal of Business and Management, 19*(5), 34-40.

Shafie, B., Baghersalimi, S., &Barghi, V. (2013). The Relationship between Leadership Style and Employee Performance. *Singaporean Journal of Business Economics and Management Studies, 2*, 21-29.

Shajahan, D. S., & Shajahan, L. (2004) *Organization behavior*: New Age International Publications.

Shooshtarian, Z., Ameli, F., & Aminilari, M. (2013). The effect of labor's emotional intelligence on their job satisfaction, job performance and job commitment. *Iranian Journal of Management Studies, 6*(1), 29-45.

Sofi, M. A., & Devanadhen, D. K. (2015). Impact of Leadership Styles on Organizational Performance: An Empirical Assessment of Banking Sector in Jammu and Kashmir. IOSR *Journal of Business and Management, 17*(8), 31-45.

Solomon, M. (2013) 'Civil service reform in Ethiopia: issues, lessons, and future directions, *International Journal of Public Administration, 36*(4), 235-247.

Spearman, C. (1904). General Intelligence; objectively determined and measured. *Am J Psychol, 15*(2), 201–292.

Starr, J. (2004). The manager's role in coaching overcoming barriers to success. *Development and Learning in Organizations, 18*(2), 9-12.

Stewart Douglas. (2001) Growing the Corporate Culture. [Online]. Available at: http://www.wachovia.com/foundation/v/in   dex.jsp?vgnextoid=ab411f07760aa110Vgn VCM1000004b0d1872 RCRD&vgnextfmt=default (Accessed: June 15/6/2020).

Stogdill, R. M. (1974) Handbook of leadership: A survey of theory and research, New York: Free Press.

Stoner, J. A. F. (1996). *Management*. (6th ed.). London: Pearson Education.

Stoner, J. A. F., Freeman, E., & Gilbert, D. A. (1995) Management. (6th ed.). London: Prentice-Hall International.

Stoner, J. A. F., Freeman, E., & Gilbert, D. A. (1995) Management. (6th ed.). London: Prentice-Hall International.

Swanepoel, B., Erasmus, B., Van Wyk, M., & Schenk H. (2000) Training and developing employees: an organizational perspective. Human resource management theory and practice, Cape Town: Juta.

Swanson, R. A. (1999) Foundations of performance improvement and implications for practice, in R. J. Torraco (ed.), Performance Improvement: Theory and Practice, San Francisco: CA: Berrett-Koehler.

Tekeste, N. (1990) The crisis of Ethiopian education: Some implications for nation-building, Uppsala, Sweden: Uppsala University.

Tekeste, N. (2006) Education in Ethiopia, NordiskaAfrikainstitutet: Uppsala.

Teshale, T. (1995). Ethiopia: The Anomaly and Paradox of Africa. *Journal of Black studies, 26*(4), 414-430.

Teshome, W. (2001). African higher education in collaboration to respond to contemporary development imperatives. *Equity and Excellence in Education, 34*(3), 54-55.

The deal, T. E., & Kennedy, A. A. (1982) `Corporate Cultures:  The Rites and Rituals of Corporate Life`: Addison-Wesley, Reading, MA.

The Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia. (2010) Woreda and City Administrations Benchmarking Survey III: Survey of Service Delivery Satisfaction Status Report, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia: Ministry of Capacity Building in collaboration with PSCAP Donors.

Thompson, S. K. (2012) Sampling: Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley and Sons.

Thorn Hill, A., Saunders, M., & Lewis, P. (2013) Research Methods for Business Students, United Kingdom: Pearson.

Tilaye Kassahun. (2007) Service Reform in Ethiopia: Achievements, Problems and Possible Solutions, Proceedings of the First National Conference on the Achievements, Challenges, and Prospects of the Civil Service Reform Program Implementation in Ethiopia ed., Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Toit, A. D. (2007). Making sense through coaching. *Journal of Management Development, 26*(3), 282- 291.

Tripathy, S. P. (2014) ' Impact of motivation on job performance of contractual staff in Devi Ahilya University Indore (M.P.)', *Paripex-Indian Journal of Research, 3*(5), 1-5.

Trochim, W. M., & Donnelly, J. P. (2008) Research methods knowledge base. (3rd ed.).

Mason, OH: Atomic Dog/Cengage Learning:

U.S. Army. (1993) Military Leadership: Field Manual 22-100, Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Uchenwamgbe, B. -B. P. (2013). Effects of Leadership Style on Organizational Performance in Small and Medium Scale Enterprises (SMEs) in Nigeria. *European Journal of Business and Management, 5*(23), pp. 53-73.

Van Wart, M. (2011) Dynamics of leadership in public service theory and practice, (2nd ed.). New York: Sharp, Inc.

Veliu, L., Manxhari, M., Demiri, V., & Jahaj, L. (2017). Vadyba Journal of Management, *31*(2), ISSN 1648-7974.

Viswesvaran, C., & Ones, D.S. (2000) 'Perspectives on models of job performance', *International Journal of Selection and Assessment, 8*(4), 216-226.

Walliman, N. (2010). *Research Methods: The Basics, London*, UK: Routledge.

Weihrich, H., & Harold, K. (1999). *Management: A global perspective.* (10th ed.) McGraw-Hill. Inc.

Williams, S. D. (2004) 'Personality, attitude, and leader influences on divergent thinking and creativity in organizations. *European Journal of Innovation Management, 7*(3), 187-204.

Wood, F., & Sangster, A. (2002). Business accounting. (11th ed.). Pearson Education.

Wright, S. (1918, 1920 & 1921) The relative importance of heredity and environment in determining the piebald pattern of guinea-pigs. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA, 6*(6), 320–332.

Wright, P. C., & Geroy G. D. (2001). Human competency engineering and world-class performance: a cross-cultural approach, Cross-Cultural Management. *An International Journal, 8*(2), 25-46.

Yahaya, A., Boon, Y., & Hashim, S. (2011). Relationship between leadership personality types and source of power and leadership styles among managers. *African Journal of Business Management, 5*, 9635-9648.

Yahaya, R., &Ebrahim, F. A. (2017). Leadership styles and organizational commitment: A literature review. *Journal of Management Development, 35*(2), pp. 190.

Yammarino, J. (2002) 'Leadership and Levels of Analysis: A State-of-the-Science Review', Leadership Quarterly, 16, pp. 879-919.

Yammarino, J. (2002) 'Leadership and Levels of Analysis: A State-of-the-Science Review', Leadership Quarterly, 16, pp. 879-919.

Yemane, T. (1967) statistics, an Introductory Analysis, 2nd Ed ed., New York: Harper and Row, Page 258.

Yukl, G. (2010) Leadership in organizations, 7th edition ed., Upper Saddle River, NJ:

Prentice-Hall.

Zaccaro, S. (2007). Trait-based perspectives of leadership. *American Psychologist, 62*(1), 7-16.

Zaleznik, A. (2004). Managers and leaders: Are they different? *Harv Bus Rev, 82*(1), 74.

Zerihun, D. (2014). Journal of Law, Policy and Globalization, 26. Available at www.iiste.org

Zikmund, W. G. (2003). *Business Research Methods*. Mason, Ohio: Thomson/Southwestern.

Copyright Disclaimer