



**THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OWNER-MANAGERS'
TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS AND HUMAN
RESOURCE STRATEGIES WITHIN SMALL FAST-FOOD
RESTAURANTS IN MANGAUNG METRO AREA**

by

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DECLARATION

I Lebohang Samuel Ntlhanngoe, student number _____, do affirm that this research dissertation constitutes my own work and that all sources I have used or quoted have been accredited and acknowledged by means of complete references. Furthermore, this research study is submitted at Central University of Technology for the MMS: Human Resource Management and has never been previously submitted in full or partial fulfilment of the requirements for an equivalent or higher qualification at any other educational institution.



SIGNATURE OF STUDENT

November 2020

DATE

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DEDICATION

To my mother Manthati, my wife 'Makhotso and our two beautiful daughters,
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LIST OF ABRIVIATIONS

TL	Transformational Leadership
TLB	Transformational Leadership Behaviour
HPWS	High-Performance Work Systems
HPWP	High-Performance Work Practices
HIWS	High-Involvement Work Systems
HCWS	High-Commitment Work Systems
HPMS	High-Performance Management Strategy
HIMS	High-Involvement Management Strategy
HCMS	High-Commitment Management Strategy
HR	Human Resource
HIM	High-Involvement Management
HCM	High-Commitment Management
HPM	High-Performance Management

ABSTRACT

Managing employee performance, commitment and involvement deals with among others an organisation's human resource strategy with respect to establishing sustainable competitive advantage. HR strategies, on the other side, may serve as a medium through which the basic elements of transformational leadership, idealised influences, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration, can be made observable in the workplace. In an endeavour to rescue a sinking small fast-food restaurant sector, the present study investigated the relationship between owner-managers' transformational leadership behaviours and human resource strategies within small fast-food restaurants in Mangaung Metro area. The main objective of this study was to determine the extent to which owner-managers' transformational leadership behaviours and human resource strategies correlate. Conceptual framework model was developed and latent variables measured using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). It was a descriptive survey in terms of methodology. For data collection, a questionnaire was self-administered to 102 participants via census method of data collection. The results showed that there is a relationship between owner-managers' transformational leadership behaviours and HR strategies though the relationship is not so strong

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1. INTRODUCTION

This study seeks to establish the relationship between owner-managers' transformational leadership behaviours (TLB) and human resources (HR) strategies within small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area in the Free State Province of South Africa. Fast-food restaurants fall under the hospitality sector and a majority of them fall within the category of small and medium businesses (Mhlanga, 2018). In South Africa, fast-food restaurants are an ever-growing industry whose presence is visible in various parts of the country. This study will be limited to local fast food restaurants categorised as small, macro and medium enterprises (SMMEs) in South Africa. As a result, international franchises/brands will not form part of this study. The small fast-food restaurants, to be considered in this study, provide a range of products such as meals and beverages and affect South African households in various ways (Contogiannis & Williams 2011). Despite this contribution, the South Africa Hotel Restaurant Institutional Sector Report (2016) highlights that a huge proportion of the country's small fast-food restaurants have been plagued by failure since 2014. Some of the reasons behind this failure are increased competition from supermarkets, retail chains and convenience stores, and lack of proper leadership skills among the owner-managers (Davidson & Wang, 2011; Ukandu & Ukpere, 2014). Whitelaw (2013) reports further that fast food restaurants in South Africa are bedeviled by constant resignations of staff who are mostly employed on temporary basis and whose earnings are based on commission. These challenges adversely affect the small restaurants' bottom line and staff retention (Gill, Flaschner, Shah, & Bhutani, 2010; Davidson & Wang, 2011; Kim & Brymer, 2011). These challenges form the basis of the scope for research into small fast food restaurants in South Africa.

Moreover, the intended study is, therefore, based on the assumption that; leadership and management of human resources are some of the critical challenges the small fast food restaurants in South Africa are facing and, these issues are worth investigating or exploring empirically to assist in the growth and contribution of such businesses to the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP). It is against this backdrop this study investigates the facets of transformational leadership (TL) which are 1.

Idealised influence, 2. Inspirational motivation, 3. Individualised consideration, and 4. Intellectual stimulation (Bass & Riggio, 2006). (These are explained in some detail in the literature section). The justification for investigating the leadership issue is given impetus by literature which shows that leadership behaviours, especially transformational leadership (TL) in small businesses, play a huge role in the creation of an organisation's competitive advantage and sustainability (Saad & Mazzarol, 2014). With evidence that TL is good for small business (Saad & Mazzarol, 2014), it is possible to argue that, its strong focus on how the behaviour of a leader influences human resources actions might assist in dealing with some of the people-related challenges bedeviling the small fast-food restaurant sector in South Africa.

Beside leadership, people-oriented challenges can also be mitigated using good human resources (HR) strategies. For example, studies have shown that human resources strategies are a significant factor in overcoming barriers that militate against the survival and sustainability of small businesses (Nyandiko & Onger, 2015). Karabat and Seker (2014) refer to HR strategies as current and long-term HRM rule and practice. While determining what the organisation intends to achieve, it also helps it clearly states that they must already perform well to succeed in the future. Karabat and Seker further states that because businesses have different structures and features, their HR strategies differ from institution to institution. As such, some organisations opt for general HR strategies such as high-performance Management strategy (HPMS), while others prefer high-commitment management strategy (HCMS) and others high-involvement management strategy (HIMS) or a combination of any two at a given time as proposed by (Armstrong & Taylor, 2014). (These are explained in some detail in the literature section). Whichever strategy is adopted by any organisation, Chambulikazi (2013) claim that the management of human resources was, until recently, considered costly and inappropriate for small businesses and therefore the need for HR strategies was ignored. Moreover, a limited number of small businesses have an established HR department and yet they still practice HR management (Rauch, 2011). As such, arguing that small businesses do not need HR strategies is detrimental and indicative of an absolute misunderstanding of an important function that is needed for the maximum growth of business and employee utility. After all, HR management is regarded as one of the engines that drives any organisation (Nyandiko & Onger, 2015).

In view of the afore-mentioned pertaining to transformational, leadership and HR strategies, Loshali and Krishna (2013) are of the opinion that specific HR strategies can be fostered by certain TL behaviours. This relationship is empirically supported by Pittam (2011), Boyne (2012), Whitelaw (2013) and Proctor (2014) who established, within large corporate context, that certain TL styles, such as idealised influence, are linked to high-involvement management strategy, help managers to share information and request input from employees. In the absence of known such relationship in within any small business sector, there is scope for further investigating these two variables. Specifically, there is dearth of on such a relationship within the hospitality sector, especially among small fast-food restaurants in developing contexts, such as South Africa. As previously alluded to, the interest in small fast-food restaurants is because of the leadership challenges they are facing, resulting in many of them failing to survive and grow. Investigating the relationship between owner-managers' transformational leadership behaviours and human resources strategies in small fast-food restaurants in developing contexts might thus assist in the reduction of failure by such businesses through the provision of sector-specific developmental programmes focusing on the effective use of TL behaviours that engender the use of correct human resource strategies.

1.2. PROBLEM STATEMENT

South African needs small businesses as they make a recognisable huge contribution to the country's economy (Abor & Quartey, 2010). In contributing to this critical role, the hospitality sector's small businesses face stiff competition from well-established businesses and therefore some of them fail to survive beyond the first two years of establishment. Reasons for failures range from lack of skills in dealing with human resources, utilisation strategies and limited adoption and use of transformational leadership by owner-managers (Nyandiko & Onger, 2015; Ukandu & Ukpere, 2014). For example, in a study on employee turnover in the fast-food restaurants, Shriedeh (2019) found that human resource management practices such as reward and benefit dimensions were found to be most significant practices in influencing intention to leave in most fast-food restaurants hence majority of them fail. On the other hand, number of researches shows that most leaders in restaurant industry use either laissez fair or authoritarian leadership style instead of TL which results into leaders imposing their

will on employees, leading to abuse and only providing advice and resources if needed but generally not getting involved (Al Rahbi, Khalid & Khan, 2017; Jony, Alam, Amin & Alam, 2019). Dolle (2012) emphasises that HR strategies can be linked to specific TL behaviours for business growth and survival, for example, Shehu and Mohamad (2016) assert that with individualised consideration, followers have a will and the aspiration for self-development (HR practices) and have fundamental motivation for their task (drive that fuels high-commitment). Nonetheless, there is no known study that has been conducted within the South African context to establish the link between TL and HR strategies, particularly among the small fast food restaurants.

1.3. RESEARCH AIM(S)

The aim of this study is to contribute to the debate on human resources management among small businesses, particularly small fast-food restaurants in the hospitality industry, in order to promote their survival and longevity, by examining owner-managers' transformational leadership behaviours and how these are correlated to the choice of human resources strategies.

1.3.1 MAIN RESEARCH QUESTION

To what extent are owner-managers' transformational leadership behaviours and human resource strategies correlated?

1.3.1.1. Specific Research Questions

1. What transformational leadership behaviours are exhibited by the owner- managers of small fast-food restaurants within the Mangaung Metropolitan area?
2. What HR strategies are currently being employed by owner-managers of small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan?
3. To what extent is the inspirational motivation behaviour of owner-managers correlated with the HCMS within small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area?

4. What is the relationship between individualised consideration behaviour of owner-managers and HPMS within small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area?
5. To what extent does idealised influence behaviour of owner-managers correlate with HPMS within small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area?
6. Is there a correlation between the intellectual stimulation behaviour of owner-managers and HIMS within the small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area?
7. What is the nature of the correlation between individualised consideration behaviour of owner-managers and HIMS within the small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area?

1.3.2. RESEARCH OBJECTIVE(S)

1.3.2.1. Main Research Objective

To determine the extent to which owner-managers' transformational leadership behaviours and human resource strategies correlate.

1.3.2.2. Specific Research Objectives

1. To establish the transformational leadership behaviours displayed by owner-managers of small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area.
2. To establish HR strategies employed by owner-managers of small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metro area.
3. To determine the extent to which owner-managers' inspirational motivation behaviour correlate with HCMS within the small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area.
4. To assess the extent to which individualised consideration behaviour of owner-managers correlate with HPMS within the small fast food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area.

5. To establish the extent to which owner-managers idealised influence behaviour correlate with HPMS within the small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area.

6. To determine the extent to which owner-managers' intellectual stimulation behaviour correlate with HMS within the small fast food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area.

7. To examine the extent to which owner-managers individualised consideration behaviour correlate with HMS within the small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area.

1.4. LIMITATIONS

This research study has couple of limitations. Limitations ought to be given some consideration when results are interpreted. These limitations are:

1. The weightiest limitation for this research study has to do with census method of data collection. For this study, administering of questionnaires was costly because a number of manpower was required.

2. Behaviour does not always predict future behaviour and require longitudinal studies to trace the actual behaviour. However, case study enquiry into data collection was used on this study due to time and research constraints.

3. The results obtained are based on small fast-food restaurants in Mangaung Metro area. Therefore, the results might not hold true for other restaurants in Municipalities, indicating the lack of substance for generalisation.

1.5. CONCLUDING REMARKS

This chapter outlined the problem statement, the research questions and objectives, as well as its limitations. The following chapter reviews literature on transformational leadership and HR strategies.

CHAPTER TWO: TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS AND HUMAN RESOURCE STRATEGIES

2.1. INTRODUCTION

Building on the details on the research aim, questions, objectives, conceptual framework, and problem statement, this chapter uses an array of literature and concepts related to owner-managers' transformational leadership behaviours and human resources (HR) strategies to model a theoretical framework. In an effort to contribute to the debate on how to assist small businesses, particularly small restaurant businesses in the hospitality industry to survive, this research examines owner-managers' transformational leadership behaviours and how these are correlated to the choice of HR strategies. It is necessary to understand antecedents and consequences of both variables in order to examine the relationship between owner-managers' transformational leadership and HR strategies.

This literature review begins by conceptualising transformational leadership, discusses dimensions of transformational leadership and reviews the antecedents and consequences of transformational leadership. This continues with conceptualising HR strategies, types of HR strategies and a review of the antecedents and consequences of HR strategies. Finally, the relationship between the variables, transformational leadership and HR strategies, is discussed.

2.2. TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

The concept of transformational leadership (TL) was first coined and defined by Burns (1978), and Bass (1985) extended and operationalises the concept as leadership and performance beyond expectations. Today, TL is considered one of the main leadership styles that influence organisational and individual outcomes to achieve competitive advantage (Alqatawenh, 2018). TL is defined by Robbins and Judge (2013) as a style of leadership where a leader articulates a clear vision and mission, communicates high expectations, encourages intelligence, rationality and problem solving carefully and give personal attention, serve personally, training and advising. In this regard, one would say transformational leaders typically rely on four characteristics: charisma, inspiration, individual consideration, and intellectual stimulation.

Moreover, it is believed that transformational leader uses these characteristics to motivate behaviour. This is supported by Aunjum, Abbas and Sajid's claim (2017) that all dimensions of transformational leadership have positive impact on employee motivation. Through workers' motivated behaviour, transformational leadership encourages a sense of team spirit, thereby, creating a general enthusiasm, especially towards demanding challenges (Hughes 2014). It is also, highly probable that motivation levels within the workplace have a direct impact on employee productivity. This view gains some support from Babjohn, Pavan and Neelophertaj (2018) that employees who feel motivated to work are likely to be persistent, creative and productive, turning out high quality work that they willingly undertake. From such view, it is certainly necessary for an organisation to keep its workers motivated towards work because motivation is considered vital for the success of an organisation.

Beyond influencing success of an organisation, transformational leaders are the ones who motivate followers to work for transcendental goals and for a higher level of self-actualising need, instead of working towards their self-interests (Muppidathi & Krishnan, 2015). By motivating followers to work for a higher level of self-actualising need, transformational leadership conforms to Maslow hierarchy of needs model (Chowdhury, 2014). Taking Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs theory into account, Oliver (2012) is of the view that transformational leaders understand that employees have a range of needs and their performance at workplace is determined by the extent to which their needs are met. In other words, motivation levels of employees is predominantly affected by how their needs are being met.

Besides the motivational theory, transformational leadership is also considered effective in any culture or situation because it does not specify any conditions under which it is irrelevant or ineffective (Lewis, Boston, & Peterson, 2017). From a cultural stance, there is sufficient reason to disagree with Lewis *et al.* (2017) because, as recent multidisciplinary academic conferences on future leader in business have shown, leaders with more traditional cultural values see a weaker link between transformational leadership and leadership effectiveness, as compared to those with less traditional cultural values (Hrehova, Bednarand, & Klimkova, 2017). This argument of Hrehova *et al.* (2017) is confirmed by the findings of one study conducted in China. Redding and Witt (2010) showed that, exercising transformational leadership

in Chinese family businesses may face obstacles and even create negative impact on employees' organisational commitment, because Chinese leaders traditionally lead their followers paternalistically through a hierarchical family structure. Leaders generally give orders to followers and absolute obedience is expected. Based on the above debate, it is highly probable that, perception of leadership effectiveness is influenced by societal values and cultural context.

Transformational leadership is comprised of behavioural components or dimensions. With aspects of dimensions most researchers agree that transformational leadership have five components, namely, vision, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, personal recognition, and supportive leadership (Bodla & Nawaz, 2010; Mansouri, 2016). Others propose the following broad dimensions -idealized influence attributed, idealized influence behaviour, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012; Olcer, 2015). Others also maintain that transformational leadership is comprised of four primary factors-idealised influence/charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration/empowerment (Bass, 1985; Ghadi, Fernando, & Caputi, 2013; Susilo, 2018).

In line with Bass' transformational leadership theory and similar to other studies in hospitality industry (for a review, see Banks, 2018; Uen et al., 2012), this study categorises and operationalises transformational leadership into four broad dimensions, namely, idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. Dinh, Lord, Garnder, Meuser, Liden, and Hu (2014) claim that these four dimensions are distinguishable, often highly interdependent and mutually reinforcing attributes, thus, they can be combined to form a single overall measure of transformational leadership. This approach is supported by Renjith, Renu, and George (2015) in a study investigating transformational leadership. Renjith *et al.* (2015), found all four of the dimensions of transformational leadership to be extensively interdependent, hence they were treated as one construct. Each of these attributes are, however, individually discussed below.

2.3. DIMENSIONS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

2.3.1. IDEALISED INFLUENCE

Idealized Influence is known as the first dimension of a transformational leadership that involves specific behaviour and traits of the leader. It is divided into two sub-dimensions: idealised influence attributed and idealised influence behaviour (Keskes, 2014). These sub-dimensions are discussed below.

2.3.1.1. Idealised Influence Attributed

Idealized influence (attributed) (or attributed charisma) is defined by Franke and Felfe (2011) as the emotional component of leadership whereby leaders consider the needs of others over their own personal needs. It shows the elements that are attributed into the leaders' personality by their followers and other associates (Bodla & Nawaz, 2010). For instance, subordinates develop respect and trust and emulate their leader as a role model. These leaders are further categorised by their followers as possessing astonishing skills, persistence and determination (Franke & Felfe, 2011; Long, Yusof, Kowang, & Heng, 2014). From this perspective, one might argue that if leaders display certain positive attributes such as perceived power, their followers may develop an emotional tie to him.

Additionally, this attributed charisma has impact on self-concept-related processes, as well as on emotional support. From a self-concept stance, confidence in a leader, as well as mutual trust and respect, are important for establishing a strong personal identification and a positive relationship with the leader (Franke & Felfe, 2011). Humphrey (2013) emphasises that leaders need to provide emotional support and training to help their followers learn new skills. In this regard, it is fair, therefore, to propose that idealised influence attributes are positive personal characteristics of the leader that are socially-constructed in leader-follower relationships.

This attribute entails the consideration of others' needs over personal needs, symbolises particular appreciation because followers feel respected. Consequently, leaders high in idealised influence (attributed) are identified as maintaining or enhancing followers' positive self-concept and providing the basis for an open communication (Franke & Felfe, 2011). Open communication enables leaders to reach

out to their followers and communicate their vision and mission to them resulting in followers creating a collective self (Lorenz, 2013). In accordance with this perspective, Sedam (2015) reports that social identity approach (collective self) provides for the consideration of collective behaviour, and thus collaboration becomes a psychologically based event. It can, thus, be proposed that idealised influence attribute is an overarching framework that entails social identity, collaboration, communication and emotional support.

2.3.1.2. Idealized Influence Behaviours

This component refers to the behaviour of the leader that keeps his followers admiring, respecting, and at the same time believing (Bodla & Nawaz, 2010). These charismatic actions include leaders talking about their most important values and beliefs, emphasising the collective mission and purpose, as well as considering the ethical implications of their decisions (Susilo, 2018). This description is consistent with Harms and Crede's (2010) view that idealised influence (behavioural) refers to charismatic actions by the leader that are based on values, beliefs, or ideals, hence, idealised influence behaviour may be referred to as behaviourally-based charismatic leadership.

Researchers have long assumed that idealised influence behaviour enables transformational leaders to lead and mentor their subordinates by using various types of examples and shows consistent fairness to all in decision-making (Shibru & Darshan, 2011; Grant, 2012). These assumptions are consistent with Sosik and Jung's view (2011) that idealised influence behaviour reflect character strength in a way that allows one to be true to oneself and others, therefore, this leads to followers reflecting charisma back at a leader. Such view rests upon the assumption that when your followers see you displaying idealised influence behaviours, they are likely to attribute certain positive characteristics to you (Shibru & Darshan, 2011; Grant, 2012).

2.3.2. INSPIRATIONAL MOTIVATION

Inspiration and motivation are two major components of transformational leadership. A transformational leader motivates the follower to accomplish the goals and objectives of the organisation while inspiring them to achieve their own aims (Renjith et al., 2015). This component is defined by Yukl (2010) as a method in which the transformational leader shares his or her vision in order to inspire followers towards a

more effective and efficient performance of their duties. In other words, sharing a vision can certainly serve as an inspiring motivator to organisation members. This conforms to Vanhatalo's (2017) claim that motivation stems from the leader's ability to communicate a vision to and instil in the followers the confidence to pursue such vision. This, therefore, inspires followers to achieve an organisation's aims successfully and, thus, support leaders in implementing strategies (Birasnav, 2014).

Muppidathi and Krishnan (2015) explains that the visionary aspect of leadership is supported by communication skills that make the vision understandable, precise, powerful, and engaging. Thus, followers invest more effort in their tasks; they feel encouraged and optimistic about the future and believe in their abilities. It is essential, therefore, for leaders to consistently communicate their vision, because as researchers have showed, a well-articulated vision motivates and encourages greater performance among employees (Ezekwe & Ekwu, 2016). This is a confirmation of the assertion that articulation of a vision is a leadership behaviour (Men, (2010) and Kolisang (2011), even though, Rawolle (2010) contends that the self-concept-based theory does not explicitly consider the articulation of a vision as a leadership behaviour.

Inspirational motivation also reflects the extent to which leaders articulate and emphasises to subordinates, among others, the need for superlative performance (Lai, 2011). However, Boyne (2012) content that no studies have been identified, however, that have measured the specific influence of motivational leadership on hospitality service employees' job performance. While, in a small and medium scale enterprises' study in Nigeria, Saasongu (2015) found that transformational leadership style exert a positive but insignificant effect on employee performance. Based on the above examples, inspirational motivation is important though there is still a challenge on how it influences superlative performance. Either way, taking into consideration the volatile environment that the restaurant industry is operating in, inspirational motivation is still important because workers experiencing a sense of purpose could express higher levels of commitment to the company and may be less likely to contemplate leaving the company (Smith, 2018).

2.3.3. INTELLECTUAL STIMULATION

Intellectual stimulation is the third set of behaviours and attributes, the term refers to the ability of leaders to give employees indications to be innovative and being a risk taker (Ghadi et al., 2013). Robbins and Coulta (2005) as cited in Bodla and Nawaz (2010) concur that intellectual stimulation is based on encouraging imagination and creativity of employees, in other words, a transformational leader strives to create innovation and creativity through intellectual encouragement. This is in line with Ogola, Sikalieh and Linge (2017)'s view that a leader encourages the followers to be innovative and creative through questioning assumptions, reformulating issues and approaching old situations entirely in new ways. Mbizi, Hove, Thondhlana, and Kakava (2013) claim that innovation and creativity are the decisive factors in any economic activity. For instance, in a study in Taiwan on concept of sustainable innovative service in restaurants, Chou, Horng, Liu, Huang and Chung (2016) discovered that innovation and creativity plays an important part in reduction of cooking time, for example, the use of technology in the preparation of dishes, making preparation faster and more secure or cooking with a distinct taste.

Besides innovation and creativity, organisational executives using intellectual stimulation are able to discern, comprehend, visualise, conceptualise, and articulate the opportunities and threats to the organisation and determine the organisation's strengths, weaknesses, and comparative advantages (Smith, 2015). Additionally, Shadraonis (2013) opines that organisations can be more responsive to emerging threats when leaders intellectually stimulate subordinates by scanning current problems and questioning assumptions, thus, making it possible to detect newly-emerging trends and potential threats. Shadraonis further suggests that leaders must be adaptive to face the problems of a rapidly changing operating environment and to be adaptive, leaders should encourage feedback and innovative approaches to current problems or new issues as they arise. The essence of Shadraonis's (2013) argument is that, intellectually stimulating leader is a decisive leader. Thus far, one may conclude that intellectual stimulation represents an essential component of transformational leadership and from the above perspectives, an area where this leadership behaviour can be practiced is in the hospitality sectors, by owner-managers to keep up with rapidly- changing operating environment.

2.3.4. INDIVIDUALISED CONSIDERATION

Individualised consideration is the fourth and final factor of transformational leadership Hughes (2014). Doci and Hofmans (2015) put forward that individual attention emerges when a leader pays attention to the individual needs of the followers. While, Robbins and Coulter (2005) as cited in Bodla and Nawaz (2010) claim that individual attention emerges when a leader pays provide special attention to individual follower's aspirations and needs for growth and achievement by acting as a mentor or coach for them. In other words, transformational leaders may serve as mentors and coaches, and take into account individual needs and desires. This is arguably supported by Stone, Conley and Luo (2014) that leaders who are effective in individual consideration behaviour are better able to support their subordinates, and be responsive to individual needs. Followers seeing that their individual needs are paid attention to, will feel that they are valued and so will embrace their jobs more (Kaygin, 2011).

Leaders with individual consideration qualities also encourage communication in the organisation as a mechanism that leads to organisations functioning as planned and performing well (Jacobsen & Salomonsen, 2015). This context affords leaders the opportunity to make interactions with followers more meaningful; leaders who personalise communication and encourage two-way communication can find it to be a valuable asset for their organisation because the leader remembers previous conversations, is aware of individual concerns, and sees the individual as a whole person rather than as just an employee. (Bodla & Nawaz, 2010; Shadraconis, 2013). For instance, a study on the influence of individualised consideration leadership behaviour on employee performance in small and medium enterprises in Kenya, Ogola, Sikalieh and Linge (2017) found that employees were satisfied with their work because the Chief Executive Officer communicated and listened to them and helped them build their potential. In other words, leaders with individualised consideration behaviour, listen, communicate, and encourage.

Apart from the ability to encourage communication, Rahmisyari (2015) claims that leaders with individualised consideration behaviour encourages employee development, which has a positive and significant effect on employee performance. Logically this means when employees are provided with the opportunities where they are encouraged to grow and progress intellectually, it results in improved performance

(Ogola et al., 2017). It is assumed, however, that this style can either encourage or discourage employees, which can in turn lead to increasing or decreasing performance levels (Belonio, 2012). In USA for example, Luomanpaa (2012) investigated employee motivation at Tommy Bartlett, Inc. The findings showed that encouraging employees to achieve their goals in the tourism and hospitality industry is important in creating an enjoyable work environment, therefore, it is conceivable that leading through individualised consideration encourages employees to reach their goals and gives a message to employees that someone cares. The consequence of this is increased performance and a conducive environment.

2.4. ANTECEDENTS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

In today's competitive workplace, Kaifi and Mujtaba (2010) believe that more leaders that are transformational are required due to their ability to influence workers positively. This argument is supported by a claim from Wang and Gagne (2013) that transformational leadership is one of the most effective leadership styles across cultures. Subsequent studies highlight that understanding the antecedents of transformational leadership is significant, given its potential benefits for leadership training and development (Phaneuf, Boudrias, Rousseau, & Brunelle, 2016; Brouer, Chiu, & Wang, 2016). Extensive studies on antecedent of transformational leadership discuss aspects like, contextual and personal characteristics, leader's qualities, organisational features, leader's and colleagues' characteristics as well as social and emotional skills as antecedents of transformational leadership (Carson, 2011; Sun, Chen, & Zhang, 2017). Ramchandran, Colbert, Brown, Denburg and Tranel (2016), further claim that the largest body of literature on the antecedents of transformational leadership emphasise personality traits as potential antecedents. Therefore, in line with five-factor model of personality traits, extraversion and agreeableness will be discussed owing to the summative nature of these two factors (Amponsah & Asamani, 2015).

On the other hand, Carson (2011) put forward that largest body of literature regarding antecedents of transformational leadership maintain that social and emotional skills are potential antecedents of transformational leadership. Carson further states that among social and emotional skills, emotional intelligence has most frequently been studied in relation to transformational leadership behaviours as antecedent of

transformational leadership. Therefore, extraversion, agreeableness and emotional intelligence antecedents will be reviewed below.

2.4.1. EXTRAVERSION

International studies conclude that, extraversion among the Big Five, is the strongest and most consistent predictor of transformational leadership (Guay, 2011). Extraversion is a personality trait that broadly describes differences between people in their social interactions, positive emotions, impulsivity, and energy levels. A highly extraverted person is generally thought to be outgoing, energetic, enthusiastic, and positive. Someone with low levels of extraversion (sometimes called introverted) is thought to be quiet, shy, calm, and slow-paced (Fielden, Kim, & MacCann, 2015). Jackson and Schneider, (2014) add that extraversion is a stable personality dimension characterised primarily by the tendency to experience positive affect. Systematically, it is fair for one to say, extraversion is a term associated with a range of human behaviours and experiences.

Furthermore, within the concept of transformational leadership, a primary trait displayed by such leaders is that of extroversion (Townes, 2012). Such view correlates with Alkahtani, Abu-Jarad, Sulaiman and Nikbin (2011)'s claim that extroversion is related to bringing about change, which is one part of transformational leadership. Based on this perspective Grant, Gino and Hofmann (2011) rightly argue that extraversion is the best personality predictor of transformational leadership taking into account that leaders high in extraversion are more likely to express charisma, provide intellectual stimulation, and offer individualised consideration to their employees.

Besides extraversion's potential to predict transformational leadership, a common perception exists that extroverts are better communicators than introverts, and thus, make the best leaders (Clack, 2017). For instance, in a South African example, de Villiers (2015) investigated the relationships between emotional labour, the HEXACO personality traits, work engagement and burnout in the hospitality industry. The results indicated that extraversion is a personality type highly regarded in the restaurant industry, since employees, like waiters who are extraverts are naturally more comfortable working with people. From this example, one would draw a conclusion

that extraversion is certainly a trait that enables an individual to engage with others, therefore, predicts transformational leadership.

2.4.2. AGREEABLENESS

Agreeableness is a personality dimension that is associated with being cooperative, behaving in a giving way and how individuals interact with others (Hoch & Dulebohn, 2017; Deniz & Satıcı, 2017). Individuals high in agreeableness are perceived by Phipps and Prieto (2011) as affectionate, generous, cooperative, trusting and good with relationships. In brief, agreeableness is an accommodative personality trait and that agreeable leaders are friendly, kind and want the best for their followers.

Phipps and Prieto (2011) regard being accommodative as a relevant personality trait when considering transformational leadership because it alludes to a nurturing character of leaders, who act to bring out the best in their followers and are sensitive to their needs. This confirms the argument of Deinert, Homan, Boer, Voelpel, and Gutermann (2015) that agreeableness constitutes a characteristic of individualised consideration. Lamm (2013) undertook a study to investigate the relationship between agreeableness and transformational leadership in undergraduate students. The results showed that, trust, straightforwardness, altruism, and tender-mindedness all had moderate positive correlations with individualised consideration. The facets of agreeableness, however, tended to be much more robust in predicting transformational leadership and transformational leadership factors. It is highly plausible, therefore, that agreeableness is a significant antecedent of transformational leadership because individualised consideration behaviour requires empathy (a key component of agreeableness).

Transformational leadership also allows leaders to build trust and warm relationship with followers through honesty (Mumtaz & Sarwar, 2015). Owing to this aspect of their personality, agreeable leaders have been found to score high on idealised influence, or as role models because of their trustworthiness and consideration for others (Simic, Ristic, Milosevic, & Ristic, 2017). From a trustworthiness stand point, leadership by trust emphasises trustful behaviour towards employees because the follower's trust in the leader is based on the leader's trustworthy behaviour (Savolainen & Hakkinen, 2011). For instance, in one qualitative study of leaders' trustworthiness in the SME

context, Hakkinen (2012) found that followers' trust in the leader's trustworthy behaviour was linked into trust in the leader's competence to lead as his position required: to make sure that the organisation will succeed, but with integrity and in a benevolent manner. In this regard, it is fair for one to conclude that agreeableness may be regarded as an antecedent of transformational leadership.

2.4.3. EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

It is assumed that effective leaders possess emotional intelligence, which is the ability to recognise and manage emotion in one's self and in others (Ugoani, Amu, & Emenike, 2015). Alexander, Jr (2016) defines it as the capacity to think abstractly about emotions, and to use emotions to enhance thinking. It includes the abilities to accurately perceive emotions, to access, generate emotions and to regulate emotions so as to promote emotional and intellectual growth. Briefly, emotional intelligence describes the capacity, skill and self-perceived ability to identify, assess and manage ours and others' emotions.

From these competencies, Lam and O'Higgins (2012) suggest that emotional intelligence could be a characteristic that directly influences the development and maintenance of transformational leadership. Lindebaum and Cartwright (2010) argues that, it may be difficult for a leader to exercise individualised consideration, intellectual inspiration, inspirational motivation, and idealised influence without the ability to accurately appraise and express emotions in the self and others. This is important because failure to do so would create differences between the leader and follower, thereby inhibiting the very transformational process from taking effect. Likewise, the use of emotions to facilitate thinking may be conducive to instilling confidence or hope in followers who feel overwhelmed by the task at hand, thus being closely linked to inspirational motivation (Lindebaum & Cartwright 2010). Emotional intelligence competency, such as transparency, is fundamental to communicating visionary messages, a sign of inspirational motivation (Harms & Crede, 2010).

Apart from inspirational motivation, emotional intelligence also predicts individualised consideration. Primarily, a major component of individualised consideration is the ability to understand followers' needs and interact accordingly (Lam & O'Higgins, 2012). With its emphasis on empathy and the ability to manage relationships

positively, leaders manifesting emotional intelligence are likely to extend individualised consideration. This argument is in line with Lindebaum and Cartwright (2010) who claim that the management of emotions in the self and others is reflected, *inter alia*, in the individualised consideration component of transformational leadership. In drawing a conclusion, it is certain that emotional intelligence's components of understanding emotions and its management are important indicators of transformational leadership. This is in line with Sun *et al.* (2017) findings that transformational leadership is related to others showing emotional intelligence as an antecedent.

2.5. CONSEQUENCES OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Transformational leadership is considered one of the main leadership styles that influence organisational and individual outcomes to achieve competitive advantage (Alqatawenh, 2018). This means, transformational leadership outcomes can either be observed from personal point of view and or organisational point of view. There is a plethora of consequences of transformational leadership, but for the purpose of this study, only empowerment, job satisfaction, organisational citizenship behaviour and organisational commitment will be discussed since studies in the hospitality industry have identified them as consequences of transformational leadership (Erkutlu, 2008; Chiang & Wang, 2012; Munir, Rahman, Malik, & Ma'amor, 2012; Long, et al., 2014; Sahban, Musa, Tahmir, & Jufri, 2015; Quintana, Park & Cabrera, 2015; Babalola, 2016; Akbar, Seyyed-Amiri, Imani, Rezaeei, & Foroudi, 2017; Majeed, Ramayah, Mustamil, Nazri, & Jamshed, 2017). These consequences are discussed below:

2.5.1. EMPOWERMENT

Over recent decades, the concept of 'empowerment' has received much attention (Maynard, Gilson and Mathieu 2012). This concept can be classified into two distinct categories: structural empowerment and psychological empowerment (Pandey, 2016). According to Laschinger *et al.* (2001) as cited in Havaei and Dahinten (2017) structural empowerment is defined as one's perceptions of access to information, resources, opportunities, support, and formal and informal chains of power, while psychological empowerment perception is related to individuals' performance behaviours, which is specifically stated as "voluntary performance behaviour" and is constructed to involve four cognitive dimensions: meaning, competence, self-

determination and impact. From the aforementioned definitions, structural empowerment and psychological empowerment are two different constructs, nonetheless, Pandey (2016) argues that the structural empowerment leads to psychological empowerment since the former forms the precursor to the latter. For the purpose of this study, the researcher adopts the integrative approach as used by Kristiansen (2013) to address the issue of empowerment. This implies that structural empowerment is viewed as people's perception of being psychologically empowered.

Empowerment is regarded as a consequence of leadership (Seibert, Wang, & Courtright, 2011) from positive forms of leadership behaviours; transformational leadership is regarded as having a positive relationship with empowerment because of the crucial role that leaders play in shaping their followers' work experience. For instance, transformational leaders play an important role in articulating a clear vision which contributes to the employees' understanding of what the organisation can accomplish or become. This in turn helps followers to understand the purpose, objective and priorities of the organisation, thus providing the work with meaning (hallmark of empowerment) (Yukl 2013). In addition, Seibert *et al.* (2011) claim that transformational leaders also play a critical part in organisations by supplying information about strategic or operational goals, hence, allowing employees to enhance meaningfulness (sign of empowerment) because they then see the value of their work. From this perspective, the meaningfulness is, for example, seen as an "engine" of empowerment because if employees' work activity conflicts with their value system, they will not feel empowered.

Employee empowerment is a management tool that can be used towards increasing the productivity of human resources (Andish, Yousefipour, Shahsavaripour, Ghorbanipour and Noorfelri, 2013). It is believed that when successfully incorporated as part of HR strategy, empowerment can, among others, enable organisations to gain competitive advantage, improve employee commitment and use the skill of individual to best advantage and enhance personal capabilities (Lashley, 2011). For example, a dissertation by Meyerson and Dewettinck (2012) examined the effect of empowerment on a telecommunication company employees' performance; their findings showed that there was a significant difference between the rate of employees' performance before and after empowerment. This came as a result of empowerment emphasising the

following factors; delegation, participating management, encouragement and giving rewards. In another study on the effect of employee empowerment on service quality in food service firms, Duong (2015) found that employee empowerment brought to service quality more positive effects, such as motivating staff, helping them to feel valued, be enthusiastic about their job, and be able to provide quick solutions to problems at work. Empowerment, thus, plays an essential contribution to both individual and organisational performance. A similar situation can occur in small fast-food restaurants to improve business bottom line, hence might be a strategic move by owner-managers.

2.5.2. JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction is one of the most crucial but controversial issues in industrial Psychology and behavioural management in organisation. It is conceptualised by Omar and Hussin (2013) as the degree to which an individual is content with his or her job in an organisation. While, Mishra (2013) defined it as one's effective response to the job. In brief, job satisfaction means attitudes related to the job. Effective leadership and employee job satisfaction are two factors that have been regarded as fundamental for organisational success (Voon, Lo, Ngui, & Ayob, 2011); employees with high job satisfaction are likely to exert more effort in their assigned tasks and pursue organisational interests. Ultimately, an organisation that fosters high employee job satisfaction is also more capable of retaining and attracting employees with the skills that it needs (Kiilu & Wambua, 2017).

There are number of factors that determine job satisfaction, and one of the factors is leadership style (Voon et al., 2011). In comparison to other leadership styles, Bayram and Dinc (2015) claim that transformational leadership is one of the essential determinants of job satisfaction. This claim is consistent with evidence from one Pakistani study on the effect of transformational Leadership on employees' job satisfaction and organisational commitment in a banking sector, Lahore. In this study, Bushra, Usman and Naveed (2011) found that if managers encourage employees' innovative thinking, spend time to teach and coach them, consider their personal feelings before implementing a decision and help them to develop their strengths, these will cause an increase in the level of emotional attachment that workers have to their organisations. Employees will feel proud to be a part of it, find similarities between

their own and organisational values, and be ready to accept any type of job assignment for the smooth running of organisation. Based on the aforementioned discussions, many will agree that all the dimensions of transformational leadership have significant and positive influence on job satisfaction. This assumption is in line with the work of Hamidifar (2010) who found that, transformational leadership among different leadership styles positively determines employees' job satisfaction.

Job satisfaction helps to create positive attitudes in employees, boosts up their morals, improves their performance and creates pleasant relationship with their co-workers (Bushra et al., 2011). In an example with an Indian setting, a dissertation by Gill *et al.* (2010), examined relations of transformational leadership and empowerment with employee job satisfaction with a sample of 218 restaurant industry employees from the Punjab. The findings indicated that transformational leadership improves employee job satisfaction by increasing positive employee attitudes and clarifying the role of employees. Adopting transformational leadership to promote employees' job satisfaction in the hospitality sector, therefore, would be a calculated wise move, because, according to Bushra *et al.* (2011) employees who are satisfied with their jobs tend to be more creative and innovative, help businesses to grow, flourish and bring positive market changes, thus, making organisations able to compete.

2.5.3. ORGANISATIONAL COMMITMENT

Organisational commitment has become an extensively researched topic, globally. This construct is an important issue in today's highly competitive business environment, as organisations need committed employees to survive in this globalised scenario (Jain and Duggal, 2015). Organisational commitment like other concepts has been defined in different ways. Feizi, Ebrahimi and Beheshti (2014) contend that the best and common method to deal with organisational commitment is to consider the notion as a kind of emotional attachment to organisation. In this context, individuals who are strongly committed find their identity in the organisation; they get involved in it, merges into it, and enjoy being members of the organisation. Organisational commitment is certainly a notable factor that promotes and facilitates longer employee retention and employee identity.

Within organisations leaders can adopt appropriate leadership styles to affect employee job satisfaction, commitment and productivity (Voon et al., 2011). From a leadership stance, Malik, Javed, and Hassan (2017) suggest that transformational leadership is a better leadership style and facilitates workers' productivity and organisational commitment. Along those lines, Gao, Bai, and Shi (2011) undertook a study in China to examine the effects of transformational leadership on organisational commitment of family employees in Chinese family businesses. Their findings showed that, Chinese family businesses' owners, generally behave as role models for their employees and pay specific attention to their own moral standards, inspire those around them by providing vision and meaning for work and treat each employee uniquely by considering their specific work and life needs. Consequently, their family employees have higher commitment to the values of the family firm, and feel more attached to their job by having a higher commitment to stay with the current company. One could draw the conclusion that organisational commitment is an outcome of transformational leadership as this study might be a motivation to small fast-food restaurants in other parts of the world since the majority of them are family-owned businesses.

Organisational commitment increases the work potential of employees. Therefore, a highly committed employee has, among others, a willingness to put effort for the betterment of the organisation (Mowday, Porter & Steers, 1982, cited in Hassan & Mahmood, 2016). In this regard, one would probably conclude that if an individual is willing to put effort for an improvement of the organisation he/she might as well be committed or willing to execute implemented strategies by an organisation. On this note, it is extremely necessary to understand the connection between transformational leadership and organisational commitment so that such behaviour could be used for enhancing the organisational commitment of the employees. Similarly, Jain and Duggal (2015) conducted a study on the role of transformational leadership in organisational commitment. The results showed that leaders who depict transformational behaviour better understand what actions to take to evoke change, spur innovation, and make decisions that will create growth. These characteristics induce a sense of commitment in the employees of the organisation. Based on the discussions and taking into consideration the uncertainty that threatens small fast-food

restaurants' performance, transformational leadership style is a crucial issue which may play a deciding role in organisational commitment among employees.

2.5.4. ORGANISATIONAL CITIZENSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Organisational Citizenship Behaviour (OCB) is a term that encompasses anything positive and constructive that employees do, of their own choice, which supports co-workers and benefits the company (Thiruvankadam & Durairaj, 2017). This researchers further referred to OCB as anything that employees choose to do, spontaneously and of their own accord, which often lies outside of their specified contractual obligations. In narrow sense, the definitions implies that it is discretionary. Sanati and Nikbakhsh (2014) assert that, without the willingness of such people to cooperate voluntarily, organisations will be unable to develop their effectiveness.

To facilitate this citizenship behaviour, Saeed and Ahmad, (2012) are of the view that leaders should be recommended to adopt transformational leadership style to influence their subordinates to go beyond the call of duty to display organisational citizenship behaviour, beneficial to organisational growth. This researcher advocates that transformational leaders motivate their followers to perform beyond expectations and significantly increase displays of altruism and conscientiousness to support this. In the same context, transformational leaders' behaviour not only motivate but also inspire followers to 'go the extra mile', traditionally classified as organisational citizenship behaviour (Wright & Pandey, 2010). In support, in a theoretical review of organisational citizenship behaviour, Ahmed and Khan (2016) found that motivated workers are more likely to assist others and create a helping-others working climate and thus these workers find organisational citizenships' behaviours, exhilarating. Analytically, transformational leaders certainly display behaviours that promote a conducive environment for employees to willingly indulge in extra duties without any reciprocity in terms of rewards.

It is believed that apart from the role obligations that it creates in individuals, Citizenship behaviours can be one of the grounds for human resource productivity (outcome of high-performance management strategy) in the organisation (Rezai & Sabzikaran, 2012). While in a causality between high-performance work systems (HPWS) and organizational performance research, Shin and Konrad (2017) found that

high productivity leads to an increase in HPWS (also known as High-performance management strategy) implementation. In view of the above, one would conclude that the relationship between productivity and HPWS is reciprocal. Therefore it is obvious that effectiveness of HR strategy can be achieved when organisational members display organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB).

According to Cavus and Harbaliloglu (2016), the concept of OCB is closely related with, among others, employees' bond to the organisation. For instance, Iftikhar, Shahid, Shahab, Mobeen, & Qureshi (2016), opine that OCB leads toward affective commitment, therefore, employees who are more committed to the organisation would be less likely to have turnover intentions. This implies that OCB plays significant role in motivating employees to stay at their current organisations. To this end, taking into consideration the high employee-turnover rates facing small fast-food restaurants, owner-managers within small fast-food restaurant may need to demonstrate managerial skills and also the management support in order to drive OCB on employees.

2.6. HUMAN RESOURCE STRATEGIES

HR strategies refer to a strategic aspect in most of the companies or organisations, whether private or public sector, in any country. This is because, to provide proper services, encourage more profits and be sustainable require an organisation to have clear HR strategies that are directional to their future goals or mission (Kajiru, 2014). On that note, many would view HR strategies as ways of plotting future direction of organisations through what they are performing on a particular occasion. Beyond this view, Armstrong (2006) and Armstrong and Taylor (2014), conceptualises HR strategies as approaches that are concerned with ensuring the availability of an efficient workforce, training, rewards and good employee relations. These strategies identify the intentions and plans related to overall organisational considerations such as organisational effectiveness, and to more specific aspects of people management such as learning and development. In support, Altuntas, Semercioz, Mert and Pehlivan (2014) view HR strategies as key components that assist an organisation to reach its competitive goals by recruiting, training and retaining the employees that have essential abilities and motivation consistent with the organisation's strategy. In spite of the different focuses of these authors, one could conclude that HR strategies are

internally consistent bundles of human resource practices that provide a framework of crucial ends and means of organisations.

HR strategies may also be defined by the top management, officially, as a part of the organisation's strategic plans and it is often formed in detail by an HR department (Vardarlier, 2016). Examined at a very detailed level, Armstrong and Taylor (2017) opine that HR strategies are formally part of a strategic human resource management processes that lead to the development of general or specific strategies for implementation by HR through line managers. From line managers' point of view, one would assume that practically HR strategies are applicable in large organisations, however, that HR strategies are mainly applicable in large businesses, is not readily substantiated, as it is evident from the claim by Osibanjo and Adeniji (2012). These authors concur that even smaller organisations do engage in some of these activities (development and implementation of HR strategies), although the owner-managers usually handles them. From these perceptions, it may be concluded that HR strategies are applicable in every organisation regardless of the size, whether in the private or public sector.

Researchers, such as Karabat and Seker (2014), however, argue that different HR strategies are developed based on different job levels and or job functions mainly because, different business strategies require the development and implementation of different HR strategies. This assertion adds weight to the argument of Vardarlier, (2016) that HR strategies are truly different for each company as the culture and environment of the firms are different from each other. This argument is, additionally, supported by the contingency theory. This theory postulates that, no single strategy can fit all situations (Kajiru, 2014). Essentially, therefore, HR strategies may differ due to different situations. In the situation of poor performance of small fast-food restaurants as a result of increased competition from supermarkets, retail chains and convenience stores, this view is very relevant as is indicated by Ukandu and Ukpere (2014).

This study discusses general HR strategies (high-performance management, high-involvement management and high-commitment management) as described by Armstrong and Taylor (2014) as an overall system or bundle of complementary HR practices that the organisation proposes to adopt or puts into effect in order to improve

organisational performance. Even though, Boxall (2012) indicates that a particular configuration of management systems (that is, high-involvement working systems and high-commitment working systems) are not necessarily performance- enhancing, but they are overlapping conceptual companions. To this end, whether or not one talks of practices, processes, systems or management, these dimensions are more descriptive of HR systems because they indicate the dominant theme underpinning managerial action and are discussed below.

2.7. TYPES OF HR STRATEGIES

2.7.1. HIGH-PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT

With passage of time globalisation, privatisation, competition and technological advancement and their effect on human resource management practices, forces organisations to make new strategies, that is, high-performance management strategy (HPMS), among others, to maintain the level of high performance (Bashir, Jianqiao, Ghazanfar, & Abrar ,2012). According to Armstrong and Taylor (2014), high-performance management aims, through high-performance work systems (bundles of practices that enhance employee performance and facilitate their engagement, motivation and skill enhancement), to make an impact on the performance of the organisation in such areas as productivity, quality, levels of customer service, growth and profits. High-performance working practices include rigorous recruitment and selection procedures, extensive and relevant training and management development activities, incentive pay systems and performance management processes.

Evans and Davis (2005) as cited in Ribiere and Worasinchai (2013) operationalise HPWS as an integrated system of HR practices that are designed to increase organisational performance and productivity when internally consistent (alignment among HR practices) and externally consistent (aligned with organisation strategies). While, Wei and Lau (2010) claim that high performance work systems (HPWS) represent a systematic and integrated approach of managing human resources toward the alignment of HR functions and the achievement of firm strategy. From the aforementioned definitions, it is clear that, that HPWS involves a cluster of HR practices that when aligned with firm's strategy may result in positive organisational outcomes. This argument is confirmed by Kagwiria's (2015) assertion that "human

resource management is part and parcel of business strategy formulation since the introduction of competitive HR practices program”. Kagwiria’s (2015) point then is that HR practices and business strategy are now ‘two sides of the same coin’.

HPWS is comprised of a bundle of HR practices that together influence employees’ abilities, motivate and provide opportunities to participate; these have a direct impact on organisational performance (Byremo, 2015). This claim supports the proposed Jiang (2013) ability, motivation and opportunity (AMO) model of performance. Prior research of the AMO model suggests the HPWS (with its AMO-enhancing practices) procures desirable performance outcomes by encouraging employees to engage in productive behaviours (see Edgar, Zhang, & Blaker, 2019 for review). In support of this, in a study exploring the high performance work system through AMO model and its impact on organisational performance. Jyoti and Rani, (2017) found that the dimension of high performance work system, i.e. ability is the strongly predictor of organisational performance. For instance, extensive employee training programmes help to improve the efficiency of employees in order to make better business environment.

HPWS has been promoted as a modern approach for productive enterprises and characterised as a form of human resources management that enhances firms’ performance (Bashir et al., 2012). However, the way in which these HRM practices impact performance is subject to questioning. This being the case, Karatepe (2013) recently suggested the HRM – employee performance link to be mediated by work engagement. Work engagement has been argued to positively relate to employee performance. As explained in the words of Christian, Garza, and Slaughter (2011) “because engaged employees experience a high level of connectivity with their work tasks, they strive toward task-related goals that are intertwined with their in-role definitions and scripts, leading to high levels of task performance”. In support of this view, Karatepe (2013) tested work engagement as a mediator of the effects of High Performance Work Practices on job performance and extra-role customer service. Collecting data from Romanian hotel employees, he found engagement to have positive effects on hotel employees’ job performance and extra-role behaviour. He explains this by arguing that when engaged employees are more vigilant and concentrated on their tasks, they are more successful when dealing with costumer

requests and problems, which results in high quality performance. On this note, it is clear that work engagement plays a mediating role in the relationship between HRM practices and employee performance.

2.7.2. HIGH-INVOLVEMENT MANAGEMENT

High-involvement management, in Wood, Van Veldhoven, Croon, and de Menezes (2012)'s terms, is an approach to management that encourages greater proactivity, flexibility and collaboration amongst workers through the use of practices that offer opportunities for organisational involvement, either directly – through idea-capturing schemes, team work and flexible job descriptions – or indirectly, through the disclosure of financial information, specific training for involvement, or appraisal systems. On the other hand, according to Wall *et al.* (2004) as cited in Wood and Ogbonnaya (2018), high-involvement management, also known as empowerment or enriched job design, is an approach to the design of high-quality jobs that allows employees an element of discretion and flexibility over the execution and management of their primary tasks. From these definitions one can identify two dimensions (i.e., role and organisational involvement management)

Moreover, in terms of organisational involvement management, it seems high-involvement involves a couple of HR practices. This is emphasised by Lawler (1986) as cited in Tremblay (2019) that high-involvement work systems (HIWS) refers to a system of human resource practices that signal involvement, empowerment, and engagement of employees in decision-making activities. On the other hand, Koskinen (2015) believes that employee involvement can be achieved through leadership practices which drive employee characteristics include, (1) two-way communication and (2) cooperation with the employees, (3) career training and development, (4) immediate management, (5) work appraisal, (6) equal opportunities and fair treatment, (7) health and safety and (8) work-life balance. These researchers agree on the use of HR practices but, where this agreement ends are on whether this practices operate as a bundle or individually.

Moreover, Shangahaidonhi (2014) opine that theoretically bundling should promote organisational effectiveness, at a minimum bundles should produce greater performance effects than any of the individual HR practices of which they are

composed. On that note, Wadhwa (2012) suggests that, HIWS bundles that are designed to foster autonomy, participation, feedback, and a social structure that is conducive to developing a sense of social connection should serve as important resources in work settings. For example, policies and practices focusing on regular training and development are likely to equip employees with knowledge, skill and ability (KSAs) and self-efficacy to deal with different situations encountered at work. These views are consistent with Mendelson, Turner, and Barling (2011)'s view that high-involvement management strategy operate better as bundles of practices than as separate practices. For instance, high-involvement work processes (HIWP) empower workers to make more decisions, enhance the information and knowledge they need to do so, and reward them for doing so (Halfers, 2018). Similarly, information-sharing together with training are believed to improve employees' capacity to deal with tasks because they provide the time and opportunity for them to discuss difficulties and share solutions (Castanheira & Chambel, 2010). From these examples, one would argue that HIMS practices may provide significant synergies, when applied as a bundle.

Other empirical researches have led to alternative bundles of high-involvement practices designed to maximise employees' sense of involvement with their work. Wadhwa (2012) in a study of 161 corporate-owned restaurants, identifies three types of practices: effective selection, training and development, and monetary and non-monetary incentives. On the line, Bockerman, Bryson, Ilmakunnas (2012) add teams, problem-solving groups, information-sharing, incentives and pay, and supportive practices such as training and associated recruitment methods to the practices previously studied. Although, there is a good deal of debate as to what set of practices can be deemed "high-involvement practices", Wood and Bryson (2009) as cited in Bockerman *et al.* (2012) and Bockerman, Bryson, and Ilmakunnas (2013) maintain that core components should include teams, problem-solving groups, information-sharing, incentive and pay, as well as supportive practices, such as training and associated recruitment methods; collectively they constitute high involvement practices.

Beyond the aforementioned composition, multiple theoretical frameworks link high-involvement management to employee well-being and health outcomes. In support of

this, in prior studies, high-involvement practices were found to be negatively associated with well-being but had a positive association with performance (Wood et al., 2012). From well-being stance, using a national population survey, Boxall and Macky (2014) examined how high-involvement work processes affect employee well-being. The multivariate analyses showed that high-involvement work processes are associated with greater satisfaction and better work–life balance and have no relationship with fatigue and stress. They suggest that workers distinguish between processes that foster their involvement in decision-making and those that intensify their working life, and that they see the former as providing gains to their well-being or, at the least, an absence of threat.

Moreover, Boxall and Macky found that greater autonomy, fairer reward and better development opportunities are factors that contribute to higher job satisfaction. In terms of job satisfaction, no significant difference is determined between psychological well-being and job satisfaction levels of the employees (Isgor & Haspolat, 2016). This means job satisfaction and well-being are two sides of the same coin. Therefore, from the aforementioned findings, it is plausible that utilisation of high involvement practices may result in job satisfaction which might not be the situation globally, considering the high staff turnover and the cost associated with it in the quick service restaurant industry in South Africa as indicated by Swanepoel (2015). It is important, therefore, to consider implementing high-involvement management strategy in order to curb the issue of employee turnover, because a satisfied employee is less likely to quit the job

2.7.3. HIGH-COMMITMENT MANAGEMENT

In recent decades, many employers have introduced practices designed to maximise employees' sense of commitment to their organisations, in the expectation that this will improve their organisations' performance. In fact, with increasing pressure of competition, HCM practices may come to approximate a 'sacrificial HR strategy' (D'Cruz & Noronha, 2012). High-commitment management has been described by Wood (1996) as cited in Armstrong and Taylor (2014) as: 'A form of management which is aimed at eliciting a commitment so that behaviour is primarily self-regulated rather than controlled by sanctions and pressures external to the individual, and relations within the organisation are based on high levels of trust.' On the other hand, Farndale, Hope-Hailey and Kelliher (2011) posits that in order to support a desire for

high commitment, certain HRM practices can therefore be put in place in organisations. Hence, the likes of Wood and De Menezes (1998) as cited in Rubel, Rimi, Yusliza and Kee (2018) characterised High-Commitment Management (HCM) as including HRM practices of information dissemination, problem-solving groups, minimal status differences, job flexibility, and team working in combination. In addition, Marchington and Grugulis (2010) claim that components of high-commitment HRM include extensive training, learning and development, employee involvement, compensation and providing a conducive work environment for employee to mention just but a few.

Moreover, in some studies, high-commitment management is referred to as high-commitment HRM (HCHRM), High-commitment HR Practices (HCHRP) or High-commitment work systems (HCWS) (Sapegina & Weibel, 2017; de Klerk, 2018; Li, Sun, & Li, 2019). Despite the varying labels of HCM, researchers share the perspective that organisations need to adopt HCHRPs which allow organisations to develop skilful, motivated, and committed employees, who can ultimately create superior value for organisations (Kwon, Bae, & Lawler, 2010). On the other hand, Employee perceptions of HCHRM/HCHRPs are likely to be reciprocated with appropriate attitudes and behaviours including job satisfaction and affective commitment, (Gould-Williams, Bottomley, Redman, Snape, Bishop, Limpanitgul, & Mostafa, 2014; Schopman, Kalshoven, & Boon, 2015), knowledge sharing behaviour (Chiang, Han, & Chuang, 2011), innovation activities (Ceylan, 2013), organisational citizenship behaviour (Lin, Chen, Huang, & Lu, 2014), employee creativity (Chang, Jia, Takeuchi, & Cai, 2014), job embeddedness (Ghosh & Gurunathan, 2015) and work engagement and commitment (Boon & Kalshoven, 2014). In this regard, it is fair for one to conclude that high-commitment management strategy (HCMS) is good for both organisation productivity and employee development.

HCMS is not only beneficial for both firm productivity and employee development but it also works as a retention strategy. This is emphasised by Schopman *et al.* (2015) that HCHRM is also likely to be reciprocated with retention intention. According to Tsui *et al.*, (1995) and Batt (2002) as cited in Park, McQuaid, Lee, Kim and Lee (2019), high-commitment HRM practices increase employees' willingness to exert additional effort and satisfy customers by facilitating a high level of involvement between

employees and employers. In such firms, with many different types of programs, individual employees can improve their abilities through HR programs, this is useful, as it is not all employees but the most skilful ones that employers wish to retain. Most employees welcome an opportunity to develop their performance through HR programs (Terera & Ngirande, 2014), and therefore are more likely to want to stay at companies that offer a range of HRM support programs. From the above views, one would conclude that HCMS is basically a more people-centred approach to employee management.

The configuration and bundling of HCWPs have been a source of contention in the literature. For instance, Kooij, Jansen, Dikkers and De Lange (2010) undertook a study to examine the influence of age on the associations between HR practices and both affective commitment and job satisfaction. In this study, high-commitment work systems/ practices (HCWS)/ (HPWP) examined were job security, staffing and selection, rewards and benefits, performance management (including both performance appraisal and pay), participation, information sharing (including communication), working teams (including cooperation, training and development, career management and job enrichment. On the other hand, Yousaf, Sanders and Yustantio (2018) view intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and training with other chefs as high-commitment practices considering that they accommodate chefs' views on their occupational work environment more positively as they enhance their affiliation with culinary industry. This is consistent with Boxall's (2012) claim that HCWS involve practices that aim to enhance employee commitment to the organisation. In view of the above, one would definitely agree with the notion by Timiyo (2014) that effectiveness of high performance work systems (HPWS) or HCWS depends on the companies' culture, structure, type of employees and other environmental factors.

2.8. ANTECEDENTS OF HR STRATEGIES

Human Resource (HR) strategies may emerge from external reasons, like difficulty to meet some future plans or needs as a result of business environment and intensifying competition, among others (Ugheoke, Isa & Noor, 2015; Vardarlier, 2016). Vardarlier (2016) further states that certain HR strategies may be declared by the top management officially, as a part of the organisation's strategic plans and it is often formed in detail by HR departments; some may be emergent (Ingvaldsen, Johansen,

& Aarlott, 2014). From the above views, one would definitely argue that HR strategies are either planned or emergent. Furthermore, Ingvaldsen *et al.*, concur that planned and emergent HR strategies represent distinct patterns of antecedents. An interesting question at this point could be on the antecedents of planned and emergent HR strategies, particularly high-performance management strategy (HPMS), high-commitment management strategy (HCMS) and or high-involvement management strategy (HIMS). In response to this question, management intervention, organisational culture and leadership style have been identified as the most salient antecedents commonly studied by several researchers in diverse industries (For a review, see -Oppenauer, 2014; Arendse, 2015; Mabuza, 2015). The antecedents are reviewed below.

2.8.1. MANAGEMENT INTERVENTION

In some cases, management becomes an initiator of change. For instance, Ingvaldsen *et al.* (2014) assert that management may introduce HPWS through a process of planned change, hence, they can be described as a management strategy (Chadwick, Super, & Kwon, 2015), managerial practices (Macky & Boxall 2014), and or an HRM system (Posthuma, Campion, Masimova, & Campion, 2013). From these views, one can certainly argue that management intervention is an antecedent to HPMS. In addition, according to Heffernan and Dundon (2012), managerial interventions would, normally, be to remove obstacles against self-organisation by simplifying control systems, removing excessive supervision and encouraging, rather than enforcing HPWPs. Heffernan and Dundon further emphasises that competitive advantage can be derived from the way, work, employees and the labour process are managed. It is this that lies at the heart of HPWS, however, in contrast, in a study on why HRM may not be needed to build a high performance work system, findings by Ingvaldsen *et al.* (2014) showed that HPWS may emerge in the absence of managerial or HRM interventions.

Besides converse perception, in some cases top management declares their HPWS in their vision-like-statement. For example, in consideration of the resource-based view, Ozcelik, Aybas, and Uyargil (2016) undertook a study to investigate high performance work systems and organisational values. The results of the analysis indicate that focal senior management, publicly, articulate and announce many of their

HPWS, which they claim to achieve within their core value statements. Among the HPWS items, employee autonomy, participation and information-sharing, quality improvement and teamwork design, as well as employee development, flexibility and performance-based pay and result-oriented appraisals are articulated as the most frequent items within the organisational value statements. In this regard, Arendse (2015) argue that the effective sharing of human resource (HR) knowledge to line-management pose a positive impact on business success. This implies that, providing a line-management with HR knowledge is important in supporting implementation of HPWS. The argument, thus, has been made that there should be a mutually beneficial relationship between HRM and line-management to improve the effectiveness of HPWS (Alfes, Truss, Soane, Rees, & Gatenby, 2013). To this end, it might be crucial for owner-managers of small fast-food restaurants to get HR knowledge so that they would find it easy to support implementation of HPWS.

Supporting implementation of HPWS, line managers undertake more HR responsibilities (e.g., recruitment, training, performance appraisal, and promotion) today than in the past (Jiang, 2013; Kuvaas, Dysvik, & Buch, 2014). Line managers may acquire HPWS information from HR departments and implement and convey HR practices to employees. As a result, line managers play a vital role in implementing HPWS (Bos-Nehles, Van Riemsdijk, & Looise, 2013; Brewster, Gollan, & Wright, 2013; Sikora, Ferris, & Van Iddekinge, 2015; Pak & Kim, 2018). Guest and Bos-Nehles (2013) making a similar contention point out that line managers play an important role either as primary implementers or as primary evaluators in arguably all the different stages of HRM adoption including the decision to introduce new HRM policies, the design of those policies, and the quality of their implementation. Murphy (2010) acknowledges that what was previously thought of as “soft” HR work practices have become increasingly important to restaurant managers, if not paramount to successful HR strategies in restaurant. From these views, one would concur that managerial intervention is an antecedent of HR strategies, particularly HPWS.

2.8.2. ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE

Organisational culture is not only considered as a form of organisational capital, but may also be an antecedent of HR strategies (Ingvaldsen et al., 2014; Ozcelik et al., 2016). In addition, Ozcelik et al., opines that organisational values, as a reflection of

organisation culture are developed to influence issues such as strategic change, management decision-making and also shape employee commitment and organisation's interaction with external stakeholders. In other words, there is more to an organisation's culture than being an antecedent to HR strategies. In a South African example, Mabuza (2015) undertook a study to investigate the influence of organisational culture on a high-commitment work system and organisational commitment. The researcher asserted that organisational culture of Chinese multinational corporations in the South African context has shaped the nature of their high commitment work system (HCWS) and leads to organisational commitment. From this assertion one would conclude that organisational culture influences and / or shapes HR strategy. This is consistent with Janicijevic's (2012) argument that organisational culture influences strategy in both the process of its formulation, as well as in the process of its implementation.

It is further argued that human resource (HR) has a strong role in changing the culture of the organisation, enacting values espoused in the mission statement, corporate strategy and HR strategy (Kosiorrek & Szczepanska, 2016). From organisational culture's stance, this implies that HR can also shape an organisational culture. Hence it is imperative to determine whether the current HR practice is considerably prepared to incorporate change by canvassing the participation of all stakeholders. Thus management and employees should be in the same line of understanding of the change process and the need to make alterations in the organisational culture (Mbeba, 2014). On the other hand, Mbeba further posits that organisational culture change is essential to support organisational change efforts (strategic, structural, or process), in other words a flexible organisational culture is essential in ensuring a smooth change process. It is therefore obvious that HRM is an antecedent of organisational culture while, organisational culture is an antecedent of HR strategy. An interesting question here is how the concept of self-directed organisational culture or value influences HR strategy.

In response to the question above, Belschak and Den Hartog (2010) concur that organisations enjoys benefits from employees who are able and willing to proactively engage problems or potential problems in the workplace, as well as self-direction and self-motivation. These types of behaviours are viewed as "future or change-orientated"

and increase the likelihood that employees can take charge of situations during change. From the self-direction point of view, Belschak and Den Hartog (2010) are implying that self-directed behaviour increases the chances of employees' involvement in decision-making. On that note, one would definitely argue that self-directed organisational culture may influence high-involvement management strategy.

2.8.3. LEADERSHIP STYLE

When reviewing literature related to leadership styles, as an antecedent of HR strategies, Alsughayir (2014) postulates that various leadership styles can serve as basis from which enterprises can implement various HRM strategies. In agreement, Wang, Chich-Jen and Mei-Ling (2010) note that “the development, motivational and transfer strategy of the human resource (HR) strategy are positively related to the leadership style”. Apparently what Wang *et al.* (2010) are implying is that the development of HR strategy, among others, is related to leadership style. For example, a delegating leadership style is indirectly a suitable leadership style for development of high-involvement management. This is, because, according to Bhargavi and Yaseen (2016), delegating leadership is characterised by very little guidance from leaders; there is complete freedom for followers to make decisions; leaders only provide the tools and resources needed and the group members are expected to solve problems on their own (hallmark of high-involvement management). In a Malaysian example, Alkahtani *et al.* (2011) undertook a study to investigate the impact of personality and leadership styles on leading change-capability of Malaysian managers. The study came up with a new leadership style, which was named by the researcher as ‘involvement leadership style’, which reflects the extent to which the leaders get involved with the activities of the employees. In terms of involvement, this leadership style certainly supports development of HR strategy, particularly high-involvement management strategy (HIMS). To this end, such a view adds weight to Alsughayir's (2014) claim that it is possible to use different leadership styles for different strategies.

Transformational leadership on the other hand, Pongpearchan (2016) opine that the dimension of intellectual stimulation is important to create strategic human resource management (SHRM) for the success of firms. SHRM is a process that involves the use of overarching approaches to the development of HR strategies, which are

integrated vertically with the business strategy and horizontally with each other (Armstrong, 2006). These HR strategies define the intensions and plans related to more specific aspects of human resource management such as learning and development, among others (Gupta, 2020). Therefore, one would view transformational leadership style as an antecedent to HR management strategies, and this is emphasised by Hamid and Azhar (2014)'s assertion that transformational leadership style focus on the needs of the employees that include learning and development (component of high performance management strategy), among others.

Leadership styles do not only directly influence HR strategies, but also indirectly influence HR strategies. This was illustrated in a study on multi-national companies in Istanbul. Zehir, Ertosun, Zehir, and Müceldili, (2011) investigated the effects of leadership styles and organisational culture on firm performance. The results revealed that mechanistic-based leadership and humanistic-based leadership are significantly related to organisational culture (Antecedent of HR strategy). Correspondingly, in a Turkish study, Aydin (2018) examined 173 employees who work in a private construction sector to establish the role of organisational culture on leadership styles. The results reveal that, adhocracy-oriented cultures are dynamic and entrepreneurial, with a focus on risk-taking, innovation, and doing things first. In such a culture, transformational leaders may be the ideal types because of their ability to adapt quickly to changing conditions. In view of these empirical support, one would definitely conclude that organisational culture may be reliant on leadership style, therefore, if leadership is an antecedent to organisational culture, organisational culture is an antecedent to HR strategy as mentioned above by Ingvaldsen *et al.* (2014). In this spirit, leadership style may be indirectly an antecedent to HR strategy.

Apart from aforementioned indirect relationship, leadership styles that support a firm's HR strategy are seen as the key in making psychological contracts that benefit both the firm and its members. This means that, when managers' styles are out of synergy with HR strategy, this mismatch can lead to poorer performance through ineffective and unfulfilled psychological contracts with workers (Llego, 2014). What is implied here is that leadership styles that support HR strategy promote fruitful employment relationships. For example, visionary style certainly needs to support rewarding systems (hallmark of HPWS), because according to McDermott, Conway, Rousseau,

and Flood (2013), a visionary style promotes identity with the firm and broadens the scope of rewards experienced by employees, as the firm's success can feel like their own. This been the case, one could also argue that leadership styles do not only influence HR strategy but also play an important role in employment relationship. On this account, managers in the restaurant industry may benefit if their leadership styles do correlate with their HR strategy.

2.9. CONSEQUENCES OF HR STRATEGIES

Researchers conceptualise human resource (HR) strategy as an outcome, process or an action, a mechanism for achieving a desired objective (Purcell & Ahlstrand, 1994 cited in Seyyedjavadin & Zadeh, 2009). Extending this, Bruns (2014) claims that HR strategy refers to the process by which an organisation maintains or changes its HR systems' architecture to enhance organisational outcomes. From these views, one would conclude that HR strategy is certainly a means to an end. This is confirmed by (Al-Ahmadi, 2009 as cited in Quansah, 2013) that performance improvement is not only a result of well-functioning system but also depends on effective human resource strategies that succeed in recruiting and maintaining a committed and motivated workforce.. Additionally, Emm, Halkos and Tzeremes' (2010) claim that HR strategies are important as they provide more efficient ways of organising human labour, as well as they deliver higher levels of productivity and profitability. This means that the required performance can be hard to achieve if organisations do not implement adequate strategies. In this study, in line with high-performance work systems (HPWS) and its conceptual companions, namely, high-commitment work systems (HCWS) and high-involvement work systems (HIWS), this paper discusses productivity, wellbeing and low-employee turnover as the most salient consequences in the service sector (see Smith, Holtom, & Mitchell, 2011; Bockerman et al., 2012; Fenton, Pinilla, Sing, Sadhra, & Carmichael, 2014 and Mahdi, Liao, Muhammad, & Nader, 2014 for review). These consequences are in turn discussed below.

2.9.1. PRODUCTIVITY

Organisations are challenged with meeting rapidly changing dynamics in their day-to-day activities as well as in the future. In order to manage these changing aspects, organisations must certainly work to develop strong workforces that are able to

manage the needs of the organisation, meet productivity requirements, and demonstrate proactive behaviours that can guide the future of the organisation. Mahdi *et al.* (2014) explains that in order to address these needs, organisations may consider high-performance work systems, in much the same way as Huselid (1995) as cited in Michaelis, Wagner, and Schweizer (2015) seminal article advocating a universalistic view showed HPWS to be related to lower turnover, higher productivity, and better financial performance in organisations of different sizes and from a broad range of sectors. This is implying that HPWS (high-performance management strategy) is an antecedent to higher productivity, among others, regardless of the size and type of an organisation.

Besides being an antecedent to higher productivity, the strategic human resource management literature most frequently uses productivity to indicate organisational performance (Gunasekaran, Irani, Choy, Filippi, & Papadopoulos, 2015). Following this view, one would need to ascertain under what conditions firms with a HPWS show high-organisational performance. In response to this, Lee and Bang (2012) suggest that firms adopting a high HPWS (also known as, high-performance management strategy) may produce high organisational performance in workplaces where the employees have high internal motivation. This is achieved by encouraging practices such as participatory decision-making, providing high-quality training and sharing information. For example, Ukandu and Ukpere (2013) undertook a study to investigate the effects of poor training and development on the work performance of fast-food employees in Cape Town. The results showed that training plays an important role in the performance of the fast-food workers especially those in the Cape Town metropolis, by driving customer satisfaction, and by handling their orders quicker and more accurately. It also improves employees' morale and mood and increases employees' motivation to work. From this example, one would conclude that motivation, among others, plays a mediating role on high performance work climate in the relationship between training and work performance.

Apart from training and work performance relationship, an empirical study conducted in the SMEs context by Barrick, Thurgood, Smith, and Courtright (2015) have found that job security (Hallmark of HPWS) is one component of human resource management practices contributing to collective organisational engagement which is

related to organisational performance. In addition, to ensure a degree of job security, Patel, Messersmith, and Lepak (2013) and Mahdi *et al.* (2014) claim that organisations are more likely to promote risk-taking, which may lead to more innovative outcomes for the firms and that may, eventually, lead to high productivity rates within an organisation. Empirical studies have also proven that companies that provide job security to their employees perform better. For example, Lucky, Minai and Rahman (2013) found that job security has a significant effect on the overall performance of a team as well as on its organisational performance. These researchers argued that the more employees enjoy high job security the more likely they are to effectively perform their tasks which then is reflected in the overall performance of the organisation. Meanwhile in another study in Malaysian small and medium organisations, Subramaniam, Shamsudin and Ibrahim (2011) found some support for a positive relationship between job security, among others, and organisational performance. In view of the above, job security as an aspect of HPWS is directly and or indirectly, positively related to organisational performance. Considering the high staff turnover experienced by most fast-food restaurants, job security may not only be important for organisational performance but also may be an important retention strategy.

There is a large quantity of related research on human resource management (HRM) practices and HPWS and organisational performance, however, the majority of previous studies have been conducted with distinct human resource practices (Lengnick-Hall, Lengnick-Hall, Andrade, & Drake, 2009). Meanwhile subsequent studies concur that HPWS can generate higher performance but the organisation will gain higher outcome when it deals with HR practices in synergistic way with the system of the whole organisation (Banks & Kepes, 2015). From this viewpoint, Uyen, Rohaida and Zainal (2016) however claim that the systematic approach for HRM practices or HPWS and organisational performance is still limited.

2.9.2. LOW TURNOVER INTENTION

Subsequent to 20th century, there had been a great deal of debate regarding the appropriate human resource (HR) practices that should be used in an organisation in order to lower the rate of staff turnover (Chenevert, Vandenberghe, & Tremblay, 2015; Sweetly *et al.*, 2017). This is on the grounds that high-worker turnover rate is a serious problem due to various causes from the point of view of human asset administration;

fundamentally from budgetary considerations. The way toward enrolling, choosing, and preparing of fresh workers are essential when workers quit their organisations (Sweetly et al., 2017). In addition, high worker turnover rate tarnishes the image, labelling the company as a bad employer, impacts negatively on implementation of new projects, and organisational performance (Smith et al., 2011; Van Zyl, 2011). From the aforementioned views many would acknowledge that worker turnover is really a major challenge.

In order to overcome this challenge, an Australian casino hotels' research by Kralj (2014) discovered that many HR strategies are aimed at developing an image as an employer of choice and reducing turnover through providing a sense of job security. The most common term characterising such a relationship, is, according to Mihail and Kloutsiniotis (2016) known variously, as 'high performance work systems' (HPWS), 'high performing work practices' (HPWPs), 'high-commitment management' (HCM) and high involvement management (HIM). It should be noted that from the latter, high-involvement work system (HIWS) that foster autonomy and involvement are likely to promote a sense of meaningfulness which, in turn, should promote work engagement (Wadhwa, 2012). Work engagement, therefore, has been found to be strongly and negatively associated with employee turnover intention (Halbesleben, 2010). From this view one would argue that employees operating in environments characterised by HIWS are likely to experience work engagement and ultimately experience low-turnover intention. This view is shared by Juhdi, Pa'wan, and Hansaram (2013) who confirm in their study that employees who have high engagement are unlikely to leave the organisations. Considering common problem, that restaurants hire the wrong people and have a high turnover rate, an environment characterised by HIWS, therefore, might be beneficial.

Besides negative relationship between HIWS and low-turnover intention, previous studies showed that intentions to quit are influenced by lack of commitment (Peryyer, Jordan, Firns, & Travaglione, 2010; Khoo, Chan, Leong, Ng, & Siam, 2017), thus managers need to pay attention to increasing commitment of employees. It, hence, becomes increasingly important to understand how commitment decreases turnover intention. According to Hassan and Mahmood (2016), effective implementation of HRM practices play an important role in increasing organisational commitment of

employees that in turn lead to lower absenteeism and turnover. For example, Ismail (2016) undertook a study: The mediating role of commitment to investigate training and turnover. Training (HR practice) was found to have a significant inverse relationship with turnover intention. In agreement, Allen and Vardaman (2017) asserts that when a company invests in employees' growth, they feel that they are indebted to the company for the added investment, therefore, the employees pay back the company by staying, rather than immediately looking for another job. In view of the above, one would argue that the training is a hallmark for high-commitment work practices and its relationship with low turnover is guided by the social exchange theory.

The Social exchange theory can be defined as “an exchange of activity, tangible or intangible, and more or less rewarding or costly, between at least two persons” (Blau, 1964 as cited in Chiang et al., 2011). This put succinctly says, something beneficial is donated, and at some future point in time, something beneficial is returned by the recipient. From HRM perspective, Kehoe and Wright (2013) have extensively used social exchange theory as a framework to explain the relationship between high commitment HR practices and employee outcomes. For instance, employees' collective perceptions of high performance HR practice use are positively related to affective commitment, organisational citizenship behaviour, and intent to remain with the organisation and negatively related to absenteeism. To this end, looking at the above interdependencies, one would argue that such are based on normative rules of reciprocity.

2.9.3. WELL-BEING

Today, many employers, according to Fenton *et al.* (2014), associate poor health with reduced employee performance, safety and morale. The organisational costs of workers in poor health, and those with behavioural risk factors, include high medical, disability, and workers' compensation expenses, elevated absenteeism and high employee turnover and decreased productivity. Consideration of workplace wellbeing and health in the workplace, hence, is an increasing preoccupation for organisations. This preoccupation is mainly attributable to the positive links that have been found between the health and well-being of employees, productivity and performance (Fenton et al., 2014). Such a view poses a question on what promotes employees' wellbeing. In response to such a question, researchers investigated the relationship

between HR strategies and worker wellbeing (Tregaskis, Daniels, Glover, Butler, & Meyer, 2013; Ogbonnaya, Daniels, Connolly, & Van Veldhoven, 2017). From studies conducted, Wood and De Menezes (2011) and Macky and Boxall (2014) concluded that the different practices of HPWPs influenced the well-being of employees in their own ways. Specifically, some practices have a positive influence on the well-being of the employees while others have negative influences. From this view, many would agree that HR strategy is an antecedent to workers' well-being.

From workers' well-being point of view, Wood and De Menezes (2011), for example, found that enriched jobs (dimension of HPWSs) resulted in increased employee well-being. Following this relationship, de Haas (2017) claims that advantages of HPWPs for employees, like autonomy or developing new skills, ensure that employees reciprocate by engaging in discretionary effort and simultaneously the employees will experience higher job satisfaction (measure of well-being). From an autonomy viewpoint, Bockerman *et al.* (2012) also assert that, if high-involvement management (HIM) enriches employees' working lives by offering them greater job autonomy, more mental stimulation, team-based social interaction, and a heightened sense of achievement, may improve worker well-being. From these views it could be argued that job autonomy as a subset of HIM and HPWPs has an ability to enhance worker well-being. The above researchers, however, also critique the relationship between HPWPs, HIM, and wellbeing. For instance, Bockerman *et al.* (2012) further argue that if HIM is simply a means of intensifying worker effort, this may lead to a higher incidence of illness, injury, absence and stress (decreased level of well-being). Meanwhile, Wood and De Menezes (2011) also argue that HIM is also negatively associated with anxiety–contentment and is unrelated to job satisfaction (measures of well-being). In view of these relationships, it may be challenging to choose appropriate strategy to promote worker well-being, therefore, this may suggest careful consideration.

Careful consideration may also be required in a case of promoting subjective well-being. On this note, Fan, Cui, Zhang, Zhu, Hartel and Nyland (2014) opine that the positive effect of HPWS on subjective well-being is stronger when there is a collaborative relationship between employer and employees in an organisation. For example, Fan *et al.*, have investigated the relationship between HPWPs and

subjective well-being, also known as ‘happiness’, or ‘burn-out’ in the Chinese hospital sector. The results showed that the HPWPs are positive for both employee and employer, for the reason that happy employees perform better and are less absent due to burn-out. In other words, HPWPs decrease job burnout and increase the subjective well-being of employees. On the other hand, Xu, Choi, and Lv (2014) undertook a study to investigate subjective well-being, work motivation and organisational commitment of Chinese hotel frontline employees. The study findings imply that the Chinese hotel company’s job enrichment programs (hallmark of HPWS) can be very influential factors in enhancing their employees’ subjective well-being. In view of the above examples, HPWPs as an HR strategy plays a pivotal role, inducing employee subjective well-being. One would, then, certainly conclude that HPWPs do not only predict subjective well-being but it is also a perfect strategy for hospitality industry.

2.10. HR STRATEGIES IN SMALL FAST-FOOD RESTAURANTS

Fast food businesses are also known as quick service restaurants where getting a meal is quickly accessible with no bother of a long wait or hold up (Mathur & Patodiya, 2016). However, Gould (2010) and Ukorebi (2018) opine that fast food work organisation is a repetitive, boring and tedious labour process with direct control exercised by the constant presence of managers. Given these structural characteristics, adoption of commitment, involvement and or performance orientated human resource practices seem to appear contradictory in such setting. Nonetheless, close inspection of some literature suggests the sector is not solely consumed with surveillance and control with evidence provided of the combination of control and commitment strategies in conformance to certain principles of high commitment management (HCM) strategy (and its co-variants e.g. high involvement/high performance management strategies) (e.g. Kumar, Ramendran & Yacob, 2012; Folakemi, Anthonia & Dayo, 2017). Such formats include, among others, recruitment and selection practices which aim to attract and select highly committed and flexible people.

The fast food sector is believed to have a reputation of employing those with a dearth of employment options (e.g. Leidner, 1993, cited in Butler & Hammer, 2020), akin to minimum wage and low-discretion work. Recruitment process in small fast-food

restaurants can nevertheless be extremely selective. Juariyah (2015) an Indonesian study about recruitment and selection process in restaurant and café industry in Malang city suggest new recruits in Busker Beans Resto and Café were ‘carefully’ selected on the basis of appearance, and fluent communication. This is consistent to Durrani (2013)’s comments with regard to good strategies for success. The researcher suggest managers do not often use the more sophisticated selection tools available, such as individual assessments, assessment centres, or tests during selection process in a restaurant industry. This short summary suggests fast food could provide some interesting opportunities for a theoretically informed examination of the HR strategies phenomenon.

2.11. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS AND HR STRATEGIES

The relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and HR strategies has been a concern for different researchers and the relationship has been interpreted in different ways. For example, HR strategies may serve as a medium through which the basic elements of transformational leadership, idealised influences, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration, can be made observable in the workplace (Castro, Perinan, & Bueno, 2008). The vision and strategic objectives may be established by the transformational leader and aligned with HR strategies so that they may provide a blueprint for employees to buy into the vision and become passionate about it (Ogbonnaya & Valizade, 2015). This assumption is premised on a plausible overlap between the characteristics of transformational leadership and the key components of different HR strategies. This relationship’s manifestation is elaborated below.

As alluded to in the HR strategies section, Boxall and Mackey (2009) claim that HCM has a clear definition of a desired outcome (for example, commitment). This can be possible through the development and implementation of high commitment work practices (HCWPs) (Armstrong, 2009), or facilitated by a transformational leader, in much the same way as Popa (2012) see idealised influence (dimension of transformational leadership) as referring to the leader gaining the trust and confidence of others by showing conviction, commitment, ethics and involvement. From the commitment stance, one would definitely conclude that if a transformational leaders

have the ability of showing commitment, they can obviously maximise employees' sense of commitment, thereby, maximise organisational competitive advantage. This is consistent with the contention of Dlamini, Garg, and Muchie (2017) that gaining a competitive advantage and optimising human capital, largely depends on leadership styles that encourage employee commitment.

Besides encouragement of employee commitment, transformational leadership is also an antecedent to high performance. For instance, Wang, Oh, Courtright, and Colbert, (2011) concur that transformational leadership exhibits a positive relationship with performance across several individual performance criteria, including task, contextual, and creative performance. From transformational leadership and performance relationship standpoints, it is reasonable to assume that transformational leadership acts as a behaviour that has an ability to induce performance, therefore, one would conclude that transformational leadership forms part of high performance work practices (HPWP). On the other hand, Ogbonnaya and Nielsen (2016) add that HPWP serves as a medium through which employers send signals that enable employees to make sense of their work environment. These signals give employees a better understanding of what is expected of them and what the employer expects from them in return, therefore, transformational leaders can, thus, use HPWP to communicate his vision and plans to employees, ensuring that they are aware of their roles in making the vision a reality. To this end, one would certainly argue that HPWP is a mechanism for accentuating transformational leaders' positive impact on employee and organisational performance.

Apart from inducing organisational performance, transformational leadership through individualised consideration behaviour is concerned with coaching and skills development (traditionally known as training) (Hardy, Arthur, Jones, Shariff, Munnoch, Isaacs, and Allsopp, 2010). This implies that a transformational leader is the potential candidate to supervise the implementation of HR strategies that include training practices such as HPWP, high-commitment work practices (HCWP) and / or high involvement work practices (HIWP) (Demirbag, Collings, Tatoglu, Mellahi, & Wood, 2014). In addition, training can also be a mechanism through which transformational leadership behaviour is enhanced. For example, in a study on linking transformational leadership, absorptive capacity, and corporate entrepreneurship, Shafique and Kalyar

(2018) assert that as an effort to improve transformational leadership skills in management, appropriate education and training of key personnel of small and medium enterprises (SMEs) are essential for transformational leadership. Ho (2012) also argues that hospitality leadership-development training program is part of employees' training and is a critical ingredient to creating a quality experience for employees and guests. From this views, one would understand that transformational leadership and training (components of HPMS, HIMS and HCMS) are related and can be extrapolated to the hospitality sector.

Beyond the training and transformational leadership relationship, high-involvement management (HIM) can serve as a medium where a leader can easily stimulate employee involvement. For example, Halle (2016) claims that a leader can encourage employee involvement by stimulating followers to think and try new ways in completing tasks, asking followers' opinions when making decisions and motivating followers to use their capabilities when doing challenging works. This indicates that transformational leadership through intellectual-stimulation behaviour relates to HIM, a reality that is further justified in a study by Ismael, Halim, Abdullah, Shminan, Muda, Samsudin and Girardi (2009) on the mediating effect of empowerment in the relationship between transformational leadership and service quality, in a local city-based authority. The findings established that transformational leadership can be meaningful if followers' involvement in decision making is allowed because employees will note that their contributions are appreciated and are thus motivated to use own creativity and innovation in performing jobs. This adds weight to the study by Xanthopoulou, Baker, Heuven, Demerouti, & Schaufeli (2008) on work engagement among flight attendants in Netherlands; the findings established that engaging employees makes them feel a sense of involvement in their work at a mental, intellectual and physical level, and this makes them eager to exercise all their dynamism at work. Based on the above examples, one would conclude that high involvement management (HIM) correlates with transformational leadership behaviour, therefore, this relationship might further apply in small fast-food restaurants because employees in restaurants also need to be highly involved in their given tasks to enhance creativity in preparing a variety of dishes.

Still on high-involvement management, HIM can also work as a medium through which a leader can communicate with his followers. For instance, because high involvement management is concerned with communication and involvement (Armstrong, 2008), a leader can thus emphasise individualised consideration by conducting one-on-one conversations (communication) about work progress (Ismael et al., 2009). This suggest that HIM relates to transformational leadership through individualised-consideration behaviour. Xesha, Iwu, and Slabbert (2014) confirm this relationship in their study on the impact of employer-employee relationships on business growth. Their findings showed that the existence of communication between employees and the employer enabled employees to understand the business' strategy and their role towards achieving success for that business. Correspondingly, another study on strategy communication in family-owned restaurants and an informal business carried out by Rosalin, Poulston, and Goodsir (2016) established that communication between a manager and an employee opens up a discussion between the two on strategic issues that help to clarify the business direction. This example, which draws on small businesses and family-owned restaurants, can also apply to small fast-food restaurants and encourage them to communicate the company's culture, policies, goals and expectations.

Besides ability to encourage communication, transformational leadership can also be associated with high performance work systems (HPWS). Investigating this relationship, Chang *et al.* (2009) as cited in Leggat, Bartram and Stanton (2011) notes that one of the key HPWS practices is teamwork (collective values) while Dhladhla (2011) established that the idealised behaviour of a leader is manifested in collective values and actions taken throughout the organisation. On the other hand, Lee, Cheng, Yeung and Lai (2011) arguably found that only intellectual stimulation positively influences team performance, with respect to team cohesion, team-leader job satisfaction and team competence which, in turn, influence the service-quality dimensions of reliability and responsiveness. In fact, Ismail's (2012) thesis which evaluated the implementation of total quality management within small businesses in the construction sector based in United Kingdom and Jordan, found that employees can learn from each other while doing jobs through teamwork. This example can also apply in the hospitality sector, specifically in small fast-food restaurants, because

training may be costly for such small businesses, hence, a need for teamwork to ensure seamless and effective operations.

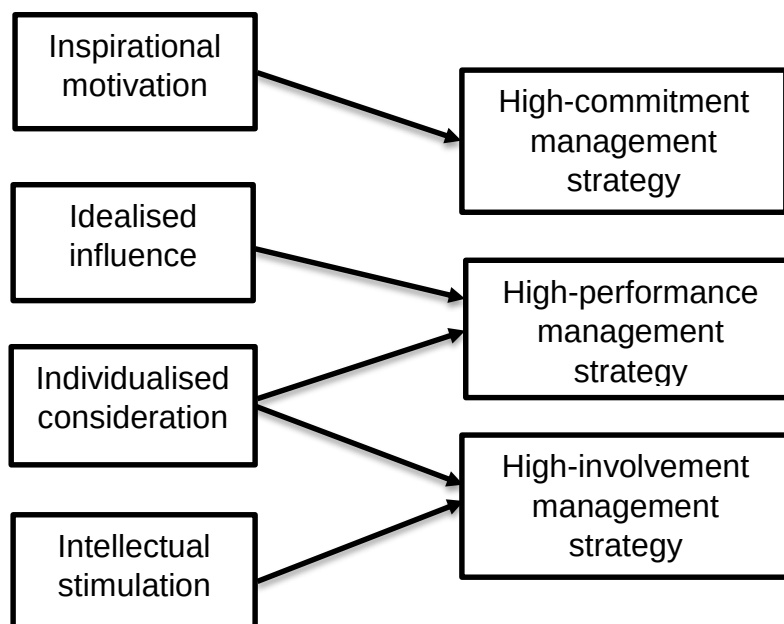
Lastly, high-commitment management correlates with transformational leadership. This argument is confirmed by Westgeest (2011) who notes that if the commitment of followers is needed then their empowerment is needed. In other words, empowerment can be seen as an activity that enhances commitment (Baumgartner, 2014). This makes it essential for a leader to exercise his inspirational motivation behaviour and use it to give a feeling of personal empowerment to the employees (Karaca, 2010). It is evident, from the above literature that inspirational motivation and commitment work hand-in-hand. The concurrence above is supported by Duong's research (2015) on the effect of employee empowerment on service quality in food-service firms that showed that restaurant owner-managers empowered their staff to be responsible for the daily running of the restaurant. Since small fast-food restaurants are mostly family-owned businesses, owners need to empower their staff to enhance commitment and provide quality services to customers.

2.12. PROPOSED CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

This section presents the conceptual framework for the study, based on the literature review above.

Transformational Leadership HR strategies

Figure 1. Conceptual framework



Source: Self-compilation

As shown in Figure 1, it is hypothesised that, within the small fast-food restaurants, specific transformational leadership behaviours of owner-managers are correlated with specific choices of HR strategies. For example, drawing from the notion that inspirational motivation describes managers who motivate associates to commit to the vision of the organisation and that leadership behaviours which involve building trust and inspiring a shared vision, among others, are somewhat positively related to employee commitment (Garg & Ramjee, 2013; Malela & Gathumbi 2016). We therefore hypothesise the following:

Hypothesise 1: Owner-managers' inspirational motivation behaviour do correlate with HCM strategy relevant to small fast-food restaurants.

Empirical evidence (Eisenbeiß & Boerner, 2013) shows that transformational leadership is strongly correlated with employee work outcomes such as higher level of productivity, among others. For example, in a study investigating the influence of individualised consideration leadership behaviour on employee performance. Ogola, Sikalieh and Linge (2017) concluded that high performance is achieved when the leader recognises employees' efforts, creates confidence, encourage self-development practices, effective communication as well as mentoring and coaching (attributes of individualised consideration). Additionally, Weller, Süß, Evanschitzky, and von Wangenheim (2020) is of the view that transformational leaders give individualised consideration to employees, which on the surface appears to speak against consensus building. However, individualised consideration, in essence, implies that each employee receives the treatment he or she needs or deserves, resulting in strong and consensual high performance management strategy perceptions. In sum, these arguments lead to the following:

Hypothesis 2: Owner-managers' individualised consideration behaviour do correlate with HPM strategy relevant to small fast-food restaurants.

Literature suggests that certain elements of TL behaviours may influence particular dimensions of high performance culture (i.e. vision and strategy) (e.g. Mathebula, 2016). For example, Bass and Riggio (2006) are of the view that idealised influence behaviour may be associated with employees' collective identification with organisation's vision and goals. Additionally, in a study assessing the influence of transformational leadership on employee performance. Jerobon, kimutai and yusufkibet (2016) found that there is a positive relationship between idealised influence and employee performance implying that enhancement of idealised influence leads to better performance (outcome of HPMS). In sum, we posit the following:

Hypothesis 3: Owner-managers' idealised influence behaviour do correlate with HPM strategy relevant to small fast-food restaurants.

Finally it is emphasised in this study that to ensure the proper implementation of any employee-centred HR strategy, those implementing the practices would need to engage in the behaviours described in the four components of transformational leadership, a reality that is justified by Mendelson et al. (2011)'s view that employee-centred practices essential to creating a high involvement work organisation are consistent with the transformational leadership concept. Therefore, drawing from the notion that at the heart of high-involvement reforms are practices that try to decentralise decision-making and problem solving from management and that transformational leader creates work environment conducive for better performance by concentrating on particular techniques, such as including employees in decision making process and problem solving (hallmark of intellectual stimulation behaviour) (Boxall and Macky 2009; Ogola et al., 2017). This study posit the following:

Hypothesis 4: Owner-managers' intellectual stimulation behaviour do correlate with HIM strategy relevant to small fast food restaurants.

The inclusion of a transformational leadership component (Bass, 1985) as an important practice in a high involvement work system has been much of a concern in previous studies (e.g. Mendelson, Turner & Barling 2011). Besides that leadership can identify training needs, create and sustain teams and team members' motivation, and ensure information sharing occurs to sustain trust and commitment (e.g. Sosik & Jung, 2011; Rahbi, Khalid & Khan, 2017; Shah, 2017). Researchers concur that transformational leaders enable followers to transcend their own self-interests for the purpose of exceeding performance expectations and they do this by paying attention to the concerns and developmental needs of their followers (individualised consideration) (Tafvelin, 2013). Thus, we posit the following:

Hypothesis 5: Owner-managers' individualised consideration behaviour do correlate with HIM strategy relevant to small fast-food restaurants.

2.13. SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter outlined the different aspects of transformational leadership behaviours and human resource strategy. It defined and explained the dimensions, antecedent and consequences of transformational leadership behaviours and human resource strategies. The conceptual framework developed was based on the four aspects of transformational leadership behaviours: Idealised influence, Inspirational behaviour, Individualised consideration and Intellectual stimulation and Human resource strategies: High-performance management, High-involvement management and High-commitment management strategy. The relationship between transformational leadership behaviours and human resource strategies was also discussed. The next chapter outlines the research methodology used in this study.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter highlighted and discussed major theoretical concepts that provide a foundation for this research study. The constructs underpinning the operationalisation of the research's conceptual framework were conceptualised. This chapter highlights the research paradigm; research design describes the research population; sampling; data collection, questionnaire design; reliability and validity and data analysis methods. In summary, this chapter highlights the rational methods utilised to investigate the relationship between owner-managers' transformational leadership behaviours and HR strategies within small fast-food restaurants.

3.2. RESEARCH PARADIGM

A research paradigm is defined by Denzin and Lincoln (2000) as cited in Doe (2015), as a basic belief system or worldview that guides the investigator, not only in choices of method but in ontologically and epistemologically fundamental ways. Ontological assumptions in research are indicative of the researcher's preference by specifying what considered truths about information, knowledge and the world (Wangombe, 2013 cited in Gamah, 2014). It is clear from these views that the belief about reality (ontology) informs the method of seeking knowledge (epistemology) and this in turn determines the particular method of research used to gain knowledge (methodology).

This research study is therefore, based on a realist ontological philosophy. According to Ryan (2018), realist ontological philosophy suggests that reality is the same for each person, and observation and measurement tell us what that reality is. Due to the realist ontology underpinning this research study, a positivist epistemological approach was chosen.

3.3. EPISTEMOLOGY

Epistemology is a branch of knowledge that is concerned with the nature of knowledge and the means of knowing (Ultanir, 2012). For instance, if one claim to know something; one has to show that what one claims to know is the case (Ndubisi, 2014). In other words, Epistemology tries to understand what it means to know. Positivist epistemology was employed in this study to examine the relationship between owner-managers' transformational leadership behaviours and human resource strategies within small fast-food restaurants in Mangaung Metro. Positivism was preferred due to its hypothetico-deductive nature, as opposed to interpretivism which bases conclusions on specific observation rather than logical arguments (Kuada 2012).

3.4. RESEARCH APPROACH

At the fount of research methodology, lie the philosophical underpinnings that guide the viewpoint, approach, and action of the researcher. Researchers can either use qualitative, quantitative, or mixed-methods methodological approach depending on the knowledge being sought (Kuada 2012). The present study investigates the relationship between owner-managers' transformational leadership behaviours and HR strategies within small fast-food restaurants. Therefore, quantitative approach was preferred over qualitative approach because conducting quantitative research studies, researchers seek to, among others, establish relationships between variables, and sometimes attempt to explain causal relationships between variables (Mertler, 2016). The qualitative research methodology was considered but ignored since no interviews were involved in the data collection, nor themes used in the analysis of data.

3.5. RESEARCH DESIGN

According to Nxumalo (2017) research design is concerned with creating a coherent picture of the research methodology that was employed to meet the afore-mentioned

research objectives. It details the procedures necessary for collection, measurement and analysis of data, which helps the researcher to structure or solve business research problems (Sreejesh, Mohapatra, & Anusree, 2013).

Since this study sought to examine the relationship between owner-managers' transformational leadership behaviours and human resource (HR) strategies- a non-experimental descriptive correlational design was deemed fit for this research study. The objective of descriptive correlational study according to Brown (2005) as cited in Cwiekala-Lewis (2019), is to determine potentially significant relationships that may subsequently be used to formulate causal links between variables in future research.

Moreover, a non-experimental correlational design was chosen since it does not rely on manipulating variables. Rather, it makes observations about how variables are related to one another and describe the findings (Bonds-Raacke & Raacke, 2014). The experimental approach was considered, but not chosen for this study due to a reason that currently correlation does not imply causation.

3.5.1. POPULATION

A study population refers to all people who enter a research study, regardless of whether they are exposed, are treated, develop the outcome of interest, or drop out of the study before completion (Kestenbaum, 2019). It is further defined by Bhattacharjee (2012) as unit of analysis, which refers to the person, collective, or object that is the target of the investigation. In this instance, population for this study was 102 owner-managers (N=102) from the registered (independent) small fast-food restaurants that have been in operation for at least two years within Mangaung Metropolitan Municipality at the time of this current investigation. Precisely, 78 were managers and 32 were owners.

3.5.2. SAMPLE

Selection of the sample is very important step in conducting a research study. According to Naimatul (2014), sample is a part of population which will to be analysed. Sample must be representative as one is to be able to generalise with confidence from the sample to population. Thus, it is crucial that researchers must judge whether the sample is actually representative of the target population – failure of which the results

obtained will not reflect the population and can, therefore, not be regarded as trustworthy. However, because of small population under study, census was used to conduct the study. As mentioned earlier, the population of the study was 102 owner-managers and given the small size of the population of owner-managers of small fast-food restaurants within Mangaung Metropolitan Municipality, census involving all owner-managers, was considered. Out of the 102 owner-managers, 92 successfully completed the survey questionnaire (n=92), thus representing 90% of the total population.

3.5.4 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

Considering the small population of the study, a census was adopted. A census is considered appropriate when the total population is small or it is reasonable to include the entire population. Census means all the members of the population are studied without any exception, as such the study population also becomes the sample (Senam & Akpan, 2014). Thus, of the 92 owner-managers who successfully completed the questionnaire, 72 were managers and 20 owners.

3.5.5. DATA COLLECTION

Researchers have in custody a range of methods that can be applied in data collection. Either way, each method has its own benefits and limitations. Therefore, it is within discretion of a researcher as to which method is more suitable for his/ her research (Oflazoglu, 2017). In this study, questionnaire method was used because the research is quantitative in nature. The questionnaire method of data collection was preferred over qualitative method because, among others, the results of the questionnaires can usually be quickly and easily quantified by either a researcher or through the use of a software package and can be analysed more scientifically and objectively than other forms of research (Kabir, 2016)

3.5.6. QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

In the present study the questionnaire contained three sections. Section A contained 5 demographic questions, while Section B contained 25 multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) items to assess owner-managers' transformational leadership behaviours within small fast-food restaurants in Mangaung Metro. Bass and Avolio

(1995) as cited in Alsayed, Motaghi, and Osman (2012) opine that, the MLQ is widely used for measuring leadership styles (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire). Further, it was utilised in several empirical researches, particularly those concerned with the relationship between leadership styles and other factors. Hence, in this study, MLQ items were used to measure 4 dimensions of transformational leadership, (that is, idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. The responses to the questions were measured on a scale that range as follows: 0 “Not at all”; 1 “once in a while”; 2 “sometimes”; 3 “fairly often”; 4 “frequently, if not always”, as this was of a more appropriate level for the scope of the study.

Section C included 67 items to measure HR strategies, namely: high-performance, high-involvement and high-commitment management strategies. These included: 5 dimensions as representatives of high performance management strategy (HPMS) (recruitment and selection, involvement and participation, training and development, performance appraisal and rewards), 4 dimensions as representatives of high involvement management strategy (HIMS) (Recruitment, training, participation and rewards) and lastly, 5 dimensions as representatives of high commitment management strategy (HCMS) (information sharing, training, career management, team work and appraisals (Chiang et al., 2011; Bockerman et al., 2012; Wadhwa, 2012; Khoo et al., 2017; Rubel et al., 2018; Zhang, Akhtar, Bal, Zhang, & Talat, 2018). The responses to the questions were also measured on a scale that range as follows: 0 “Not at all”; 1 “once in a while”; 2 “sometimes”; 3 “fairly often”; 4 “frequently, if not always”, as this was of a more relevant for the scope of the study.

The MLQ items have been used in past studies and have been proven reliable and valid (Whitelaw, 2013; Shehu & Mohamad, 2016). Quintana *et al.* (2015) used these questionnaire items with hospitality managers and found Cronbach’s alpha, internal consistency reliability estimates of 0.66 to 0.84 for each of the four dimensions of transformational leadership including idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration, hence they were used in this study. On the other hand, subsequent studies have used questionnaire items measuring high-performance, high-involvement and high-commitment management strategy and Cronbach’s Alphas were well above the acceptable cut off (Zhang &

Morris, 2014; Kooij et al., 2010). Wadhwa (2012) used the same questionnaire items within hospitality and found Cronbach's alphas of .83 for high involvement management strategy. Hence the researcher's decision to use them in this study.

3.5.6.1. Validity and Reliability

1. Validity

As defined by Heale and Twycross (2015), validity refers to the extent to which a concept is accurately measured in a quantitative study. For example, a survey designed to explore depression, but which actually measures anxiety would not be considered valid. It is, therefore, important to ensure that the questionnaire measures what it intended to measure and that it complies with the validity criteria. In this study face validity and construct validity were used.

Haele and Twycross (2015) define face validity as a sub-set of content validity where experts are asked their opinion about whether an instrument measures the concept intended. The study questionnaire was, therefore, submitted to be scrutinised by an expert in the field of Human Resource Management at the Central University of Technology to confirm a sufficient level of face validity. The expert reported good face validity of the questionnaire.

Cohen et al. (1996) as cited in Karlsson, Busch, Aboagye, and Jensen (2015) define construct validity as the extent to which a test or measure relate to underlying theoretical constructs. In this study, construct validity was assured by examining in some detail, all concepts in the literature review pertaining to transformational leadership and HR strategies.

2. Reliability

Reliability has to do with the quality of measurement. In its everyday sense, reliability is the "consistency" or "repeatability" of your measures used (Burke, 2017). It indicates the accuracy, stability and predictability of a research instrument: the higher the reliability the higher the accuracy: or the higher the accuracy of an instrument, the higher its reliability (Kumar, 2011). Reliability is essential to ensure that the results received from the respondents are consistent.

As indicated in the questionnaire design, Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) adopted from Bass (1985) was used in this study. This is a questionnaire that measures TL and is scored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (Not at all) to 4 (frequently, if not always). It has sub-scale under TL which are idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration. Quintana, Park and Cabrera (2015) as alluded, previously used these questionnaire items with hospitality managers and found reliability Cronbach's alpha coefficient of between 0.66 and 0.84 for TL subscales. On the other hand, standard questionnaire was used to determine the extent to which owner-managers employ HR strategies. Subsequent studies have used questionnaire items measuring HPM, HIM and HCM strategy and Cronbach's Alphas were well above the acceptable cut off (e.g., Zhang & Morris, 2014; Kooij et al., 2010). Wadhwa (2012) used the same questionnaire items within hospitality and found Cronbach's alphas of .83 for HIM strategy. Hence the researcher's decision to use them in this study. *(See next chapter for the alpha values of the scales used).*

3.5.7. DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis is the step which follows up data collection in the research process. To analyse data collected in this research, SPSS statistical software package was used to capture the raw data. For construct validation of transformational leadership and HR strategies' as well as the reliability of the survey instrument, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted and Cronbach's Alphas determined. Spearman's rho coefficient and regression equations were further applied to test whether relationship between transformational leadership and HR strategies do exists (see next chapter for further details).

3.6. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS OF THE STUDY

There are ethical issues that researchers come across during the various stages of a research project. Research ethics are subsequently and broadly accepted moral principles that govern how researchers should carry out their work (de Vos, Strydom, Fouche, & Delport, 2011). They offer rules expected behaviours about correct conduct towards experimental subjects and respondents.

Carrying out a research is considered as an ethical enterprise (Stuwig and Stead, 2001 cited in Govender, 2012). It is essential that all the researchers follow regulations that apply to their work. Because the data gathered for research purpose from different sources is of utmost importance, respect should be given to humans and information gathered be treated with equal dignity. On this note, the non-disclosure agreements – compromising participants' confidentiality and deceiving people who took part in the research process was not violated. The rights of the participants were considered and protected, their privacy was respected, and hence, they had an option of disclosing or not disclosing their identification. The respondents were also informed that the information sought was solely for research purposes.

3.7. SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the research methodology of the study. The study employed a quantitative research design and a questionnaire was used to collect data from the respondents. Reliability statistics were used to determine construct internal consistency. The next chapter presents the analysis, results and discussion.

CHAPTER FOUR: ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented the cluster of methodological procedures and processes that this research study applied in order to attain empirical data and ultimately, to meet the research aim and objectives. In this chapter, the researcher presents an analysis of the results and interprets the findings obtained from the questionnaires in this research study. The survey questionnaire instrument was distributed to owner-managers of small fast-food restaurants to collect data. The data collected from the responses was analysed with SPSS version 20.

This chapter will present the descriptive statistics in the form of tables and figures for the data that was obtained from responses. In a sequential order, this chapter presents research results of the data analysis and discuss these results drawing on mainstream literature treating these distinct concepts.

4.1.1. RESPONSE RATE

In this research study, 102 survey questionnaires were distributed at the small fast-food restaurant. Of the 102 survey questionnaires distributed, only 10 were returned incomplete. Hence, these were excluded from the sample. Language barrier and lack of expertise in human resource related issues were the main cause for this incompleteness. However, Bryman, Bell, Mills, and Yue (2011) assert that a response rate below 50% is not acceptable, hence the response rate for this study (90%) is considered adequate for data analysis. The final sample included 92 usable survey questionnaires, representing a 90% response rate, which were analysed for the research study.

4.1.2. BIOGRAPHICAL PROFILE OF THE RESEARCH SAMPLE

This section provides an overview of the biographical profile of the sample. The biographies information is constructed along the gender, age group, and number of years in service, position in a restaurant and race of the respondents.

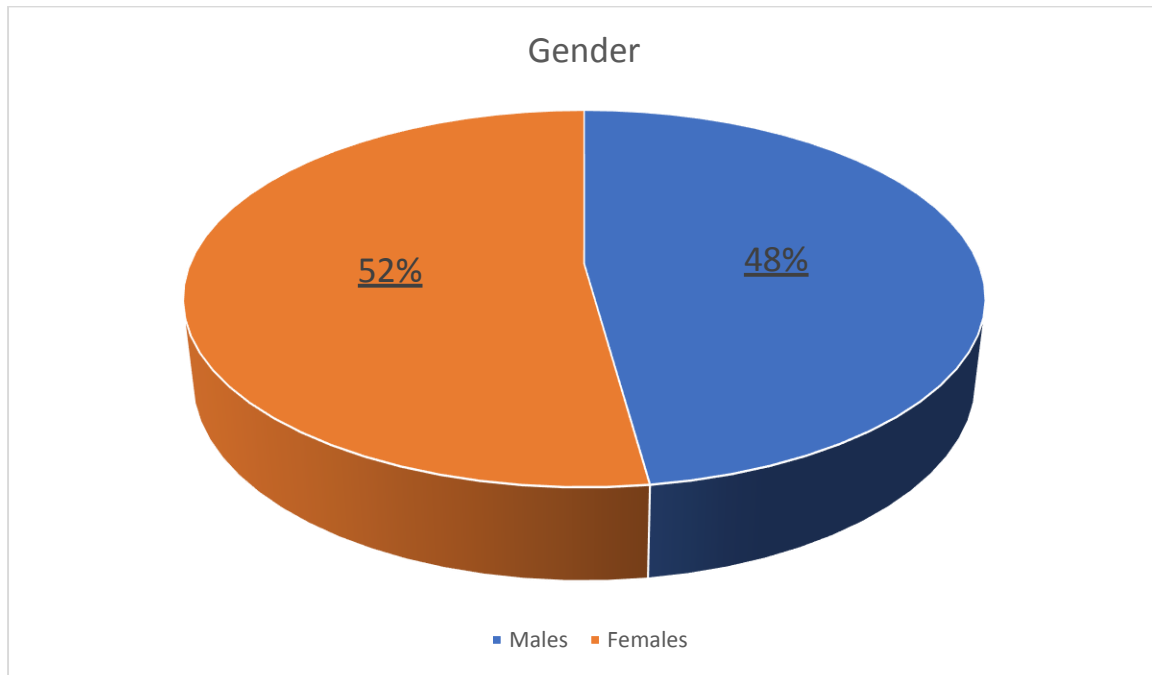


Figure 4.1: Gender of respondents

Figure 4.1 illustrates that a majority 52% of the respondents were female, whilst 48% were male. According to the US Bureau of Labour Statistics, women represent approximately 55% of food service workers in the United States; they occupy only roughly 20% of upper echelons of restaurant work (Konkol, 2013). Although, the perception of the society sees women as home cook rather than professional chefs. Over the past two decades the mentality about the culinary world and gender has changed (Sebastien, 2015). Hence, the slight dominance of female over male in this study. Sebastien further states that the hospitality industry is now becoming of real value to both young men and young women of today. Working in the culinary industry is not underestimated anymore. Now the chefs are viewed like rock stars and even more like role models. Even though, mostly leaders are still men, though we begin to see more and more women becoming at their turn real leaders.

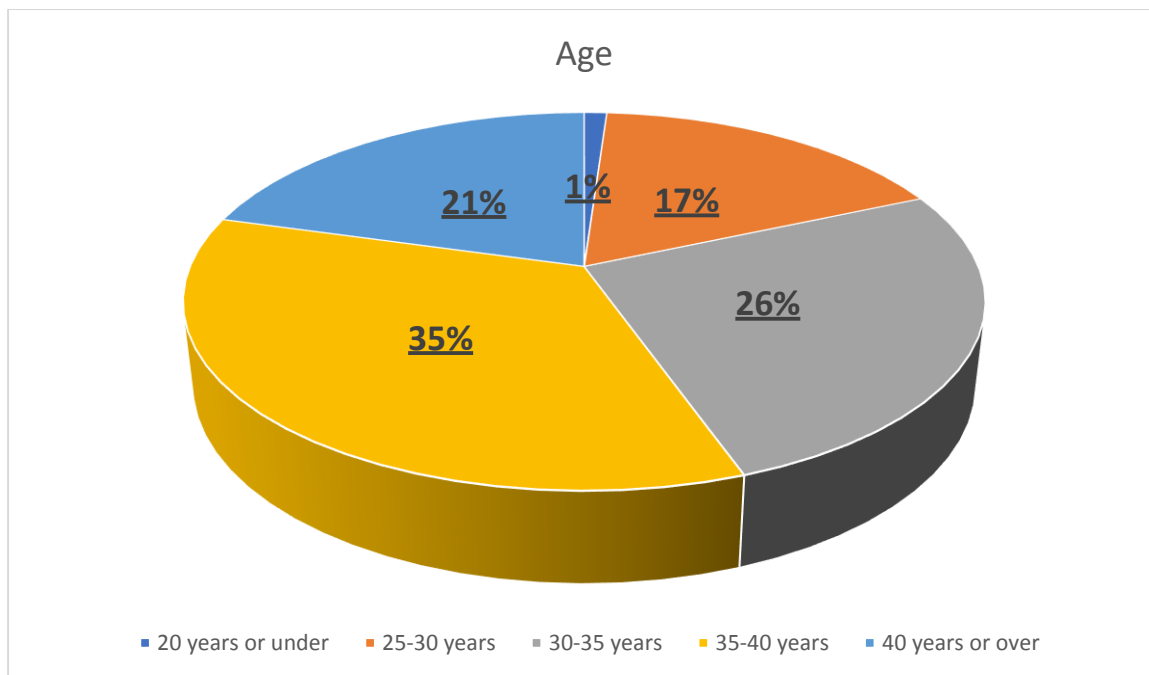


Figure 4.2: Age of respondents

Based on Figure 4.2, there is immoderate balance in the five age groups of the owner-managers of the small fast food restaurants. About 35% of this owner-managers is an elderly population aged 35-40 years and this group is followed by 30-35 age group, which comprises 26%. It is closely followed by old population (21%) aged 40 and above age group with youthful population (17%) aged between 25-30 years. The 20 years or under has the lowest percentage (1%). It can be inferred from these biographies that, while there is an immoderate balanced representation of various age groups in the small restaurant businesses in Mangaung, all the respondents belonged to the economically active population. The immoderate balance in the five age groups is consistent with the notion that the hospitality industry is now becoming of real value to both young men and young women of today (konkol, 2013).

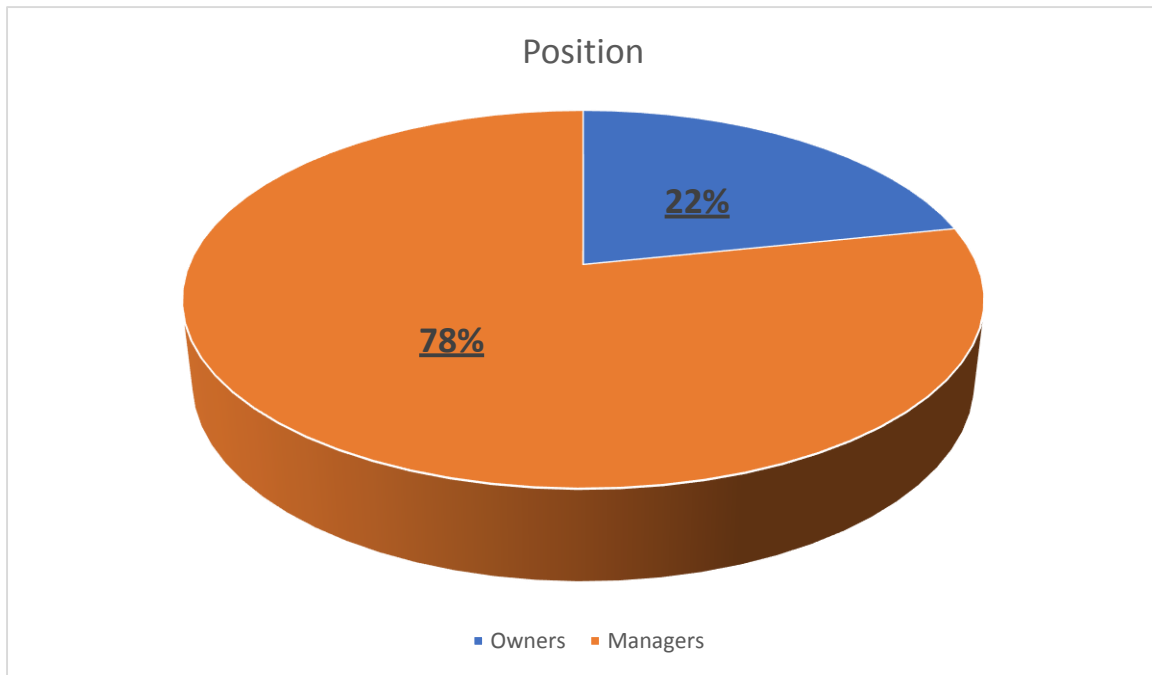


Figure 4.3: Position of respondents

Figure 4.3 illustrates that a majority of respondents (78%) are managers, with 22% being owners of small fast-food restaurants in Mangaung. It can be concluded that majority of small restaurants business have employed people who are responsible for the day-to-day operation and management of the restaurant. However, in some instances a restaurant owner may also serve as the manager, instead of creating one from the scratch. This correspond with Harrison (2011)'s work, who found that in some of the smaller operations in restaurants, the owners doubled as managers. This could be that the involvement of the owners in the running of the operation is also important and is associated with innovation (keeping creative emotions high) (Agarwal & Dahm, 2015)

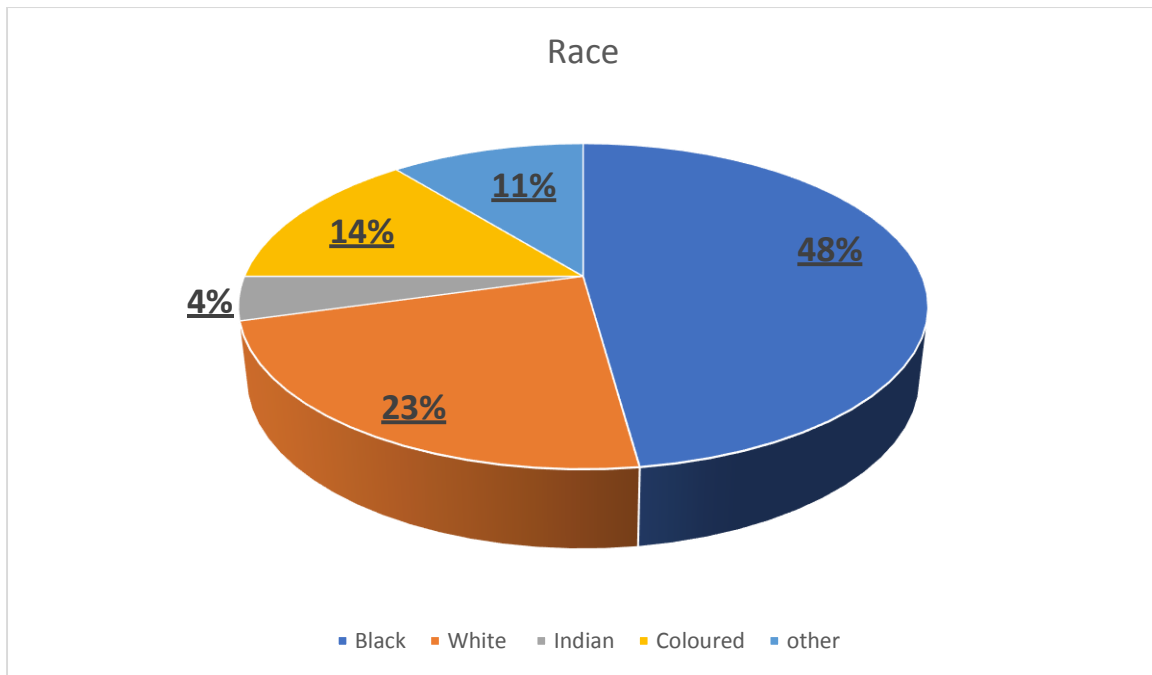


Figure 4.4: Race of respondents

Figure 4.4 demonstrates that 48% of the respondents were black African, 27% were white, 14% were coloured, 11% were other and 4% were Indians. A synopsis of these results shows that most of small fast-food restaurants in mangaung Metro are owned and managed by Black African. This can be concluded that majority of people living in Mangaung are black Africans. This is consistent with Statistic South Africa (2016) which report that out of 747431 total population of Free State 83.3% were black Africans, 11% whites, and 5% non-black people of colour. As a result of this diversity, the languages spoken in Mangaung Metro Municipality are Sotho (53.3%), Afrikaans (16.6), Tswana (12.6), Xhosa (9.9%), and others (8%).

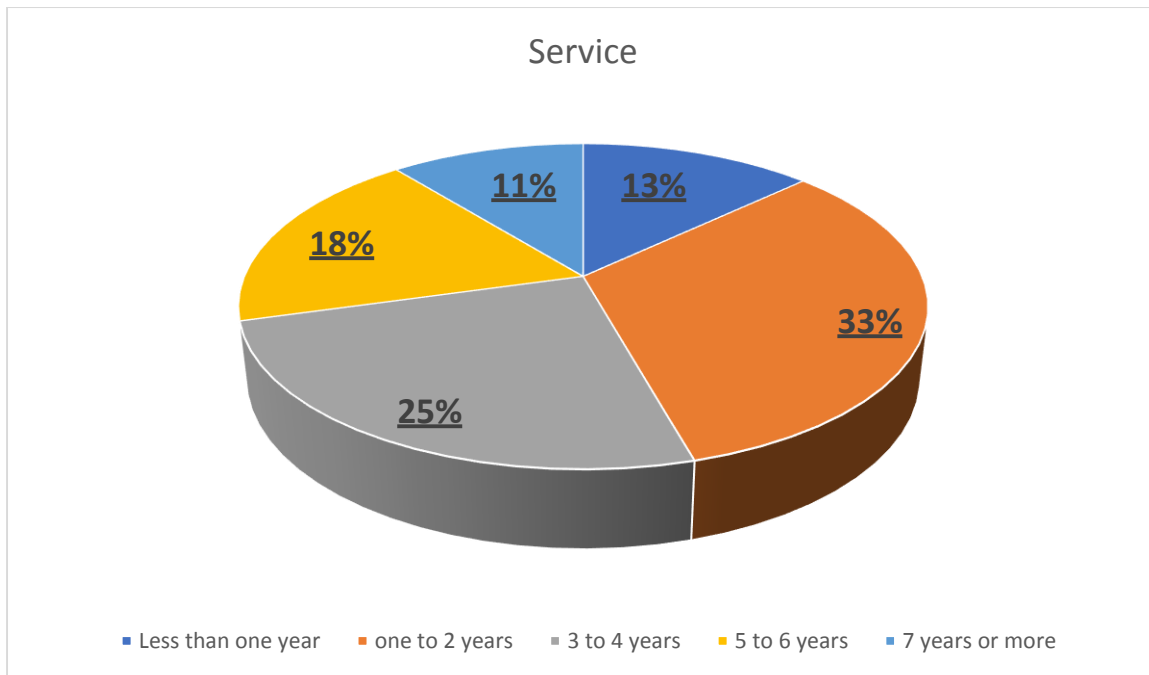


Figure 4.5: Service of respondents

Figure 4.5 shows that 33% of respondents had been serving in small fast-food restaurant for over one to two years, 25% for one to two years, 18% for 5 to 6 years, 13% for less than one year and 11% for 7 years or more. The results reflect that there is an imbalance in the number of years the respondents served in small fast-food restaurants. This could mean that some small fast-food restaurants have long been in operation, judging from number of years some managers have been in service such as 7 years and beyond. However, Nel, Williams, Steyn, and Hind (2018) still insist that many restaurants in South Africa fail to keep their doors open.

4.2. VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Items of a construct were deemed to be consistent in their combined measurement of the intended latent variable if their Chronbach's Alpha statistic was greater or equal to 0.700. In overall, all constructs had adequate internal consistency except for Recruitment under High Involvement Management Strategy (Chronbach's Alpha=0.635) but the Chronbach's Alpha increased to 0.686 when item C2.3A was excluded. It was observed that, while the other three items seem inclined towards training and motivation, item C2.3A seemed to shield employees from possible new recruitments (Giving employees' priority over external candidates for job openings). The construct of Recruitment under High Involvement Management Strategy was

computed without item C2.3A because of the reason described above. The whole questionnaire was regarded as having highly internal consistency with a Chronbach's Alpha statistic of 0.960 which means that variables are reliable and can be used for further statistical analysis. Reliability statistics are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Reliability statistics.

Construct	Number of items	Chronbach's Alpha	Comment
Transformational Leadership Behaviour			
Idealised Influence	7	0.793	High internal consistency
Inspirational Motivation	6	0.834	High internal consistency
Intellectual Stimulation	7	0.892	High internal consistency
Individualised Consideration	5	0.815	High internal consistency
High-Performance Management Strategy			
Training And Development	7	0.827	High internal consistency
Recruitment And Selection	7	0.782	High internal consistency
Performance Appraisal	6	0.810	High internal consistency
Rewards	5	0.780	High internal consistency
Participation	5	0.864	High internal consistency
High-Involvement Management Strategy			
Recruitment (without item C2.3A)	4	0.635 (0.686)	Moderate internal consistency
Training	3	0.798	High internal consistency
Participation	5	0.800	High internal consistency
Rewards	4	0.788	High internal consistency
High-Commitment Management Strategy			
Information Sharing	5	0.888	High internal consistency
Career Management	4	0.788	High internal consistency
Appraisals	4	0.904	High internal consistency
Training	5	0.876	High internal consistency
Teamwork	3	0.896	High internal consistency
Overall questionnaire			
All Likert Scaled Questions	92	0.960	High internal consistency

4.2. ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section presents results of statistical analysis and discussion of results. Descriptive statistics such as tables, percentages and charts were used for collation and tabulation of statistical results, interpretation and exploratory analysis, hypothesis testing and model fitting. The strength of the relationship between variables was measured using Spearman's rho correlation coefficient and regression equations. A

Cronbach's alpha coefficient was also used to test if the variables constructed were reliable. For further analysis of these variables, a test to determine whether or not the variables are normally distributed was done.

4.2.2. TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR

Transformational Leadership Behaviour has four constructs, namely, Idealised Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation and Individualised Consideration. These four constructs are discussed in the subsections that follow.

4.2.2.1. Idealised Influence

The construct of Idealised Influence has seven items that are summarised in Table 2 below.

Table 2. Frequency distribution and descriptive statistics of Idealised Influence.

B1. IDEALISED INFLUENCE		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive		Latent Factor (Principal component) Coefficient
		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	% Fairly often/ Frequently, if not always	Mean	Std Dev	
B1.1. Instilling pride in employees for being associated with me	Count %	7 7.7%	8 8.8%	22 24.2%	19 20.9%	35 38.5%	59.3%	2.7	1.3	0.661
B1.2. Going beyond self-interest for the good of the group.	Count %	2 2.2%	3 3.3%	25 27.2%	30 32.6%	32 34.8%	67.4%	2.9	1.0	0.721
B1.3. Acting in ways that build employee's respect for me.	Count %		2 2.2%	2 2.2%	27 29.3%	61 66.3%	95.7%	3.6	0.6	0.729
B1.4. Emphasising the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	Count %	1 1.1%	2 2.2%	6 6.5%	23 25.0%	60 65.2%	90.2%	3.5	0.8	0.640
B1.5. Talking about my most important values and beliefs.	Count %	2 2.2%	2 2.2%	28 30.4%	25 27.2%	35 38.0%	65.2%	3.0	1.0	0.639
B1.6. Considering the moral and ethical consequences of decision.	Count %	2 2.2%	1 1.1%	6 6.6%	30 33.0%	52 57.1%	90.1%	3.4	0.8	0.697
B1.7. Displaying a sense of power and confidence.	Count %	1 1.1%	2 2.2%	7 7.6%	20 21.7%	62 67.4%	89.1%	3.5	0.8	0.671
		Cronbach's Alpha						0.793		

In Table 3, 38.5% of the participants indicated that they frequently instilled (if not always) pride in employees for being associated with them, 20.9 % claimed to do so fairly often, 24.2% claimed to do so sometimes, with 8.8 % claiming to do so once in

a while and 7.7% not doing so at all. As indicated in table 3, 67.4% of the participants claimed to go beyond self-interest for the good of the group (Fairly often/ frequently if not all the times), 27.2% claimed to do so sometimes, 3.3% claimed to do so once in a while, and 2.2% do so not at all. The participants indicated that they act in ways that build employee's respect for them. This was shown by 95.7% who claimed to do this (fairly often/frequently if not all the times), 2.2% confirmed to do so sometimes, 2.2% claimed to do so once in a while, and 0.0% doing so not at all. Most of the participants indicated that they emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of mission as shown by 90.2% who confirmed that they did so (fairly often/frequently if not always), 6.5% claimed to do so sometimes, 2.2% confirmed to do so once in a while, and 1.1% did so not at all. Participants believe that they talk about their most important values and beliefs. This was evidenced by 30.4% who believe that they do so sometimes, 65.2% doing so (fairly often/frequently, if not always), 2.2% doing so once in a while, and 2.2% claimed to do so not at all. Table 3 also shows that the respondents consider the moral and ethical consequences of their decisions with 90.1% doing so (fairly often/ frequently, if not always), 6.6% confirmed doing so sometimes, 1.1% doing so once in a while, and 2.2% claimed to do so not at all. The participants further indicated that they display sense of power and confidence as shown by 89.1% who believed to do so fairly often/frequently, if not always, 7.6% believed to do so sometimes, 2.2% doing so once in a while, and 1.1% doing so not at all. Table 3 is indicative of most statements fairly often/ frequently if not always fitting the participants' idealised influence behaviour. The results confirm the assumption that an effective leader is one that command respect and trust by their followers (Long et al., 2014), and this also correspond to Yukl's (2010) claim that transformational leaders have the ability to motivate others, inspiring their followers to admire, respect, trust, and be loyal to them.

4.2.2.2. Inspirational Motivation

The construct of Inspirational Motivation has six items that are summarised in Table 3 below. In Table 3, 60.9% of the participants talk optimistically about the future frequently, if not always, 27.2% do so fairly often, 9.8% claim to do so sometimes, 1.1% claim to do so once in a while and 1.1% claim to do so not at all. As indicated in Table 4, participants were expressing with a few simple words what I could and should

do, 33.7% admit to doing so frequently, if not always, 30.4% claim to do so fairly often, 31.5% confirm doing so sometimes, and 2.2% claim to do so once in a while and 2.2% claim to do so not at all. Most of the participants indicated that employees find meaning in their work as shown by a majority 77.2% claiming to do so frequently, if not always.

Table 3. Frequency distribution and descriptive statistics of Inspirational Motivation.

B2. INSPIRATIONAL MOTIVATION		Frequency Distribution					Descriptive		Latent Factor (Principal component) Coefficient	
		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	% Fairly often/ Frequently, if not always	Mean		Std Dev
B2.1. Talking optimistically about the future.	Count %	1 1.1%	1 1.1%	9 9.8%	25 27.2%	56 60.9%	88.0%	3.5	0.8	0.760
B2.2. Expressing with a few simple words what I could and should do.	Count %	2 2.2%	2 2.2%	29 31.5%	28 30.4%	31 33.7%	64.1%	2.9	1.0	0.626
B2.3. Helping employees find meaning in their work.	Count %	0 0.0%	2 2.2%	4 4.3%	15 16.3%	71 77.2%	93.5%	3.7	0.7	0.554
B2.4. Talking enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	Count %	0 0.0%	2 2.2%	7 7.6%	28 30.4%	55 59.8%	90.2%	3.5	0.7	0.835
B2.5. Articulating a compelling vision for the future.	Count %	1 1.1%	1 1.1%	7 7.6%	29 31.5%	54 58.7%	90.2%	3.5	0.8	0.849
B2.6. Expressing confidence that goals will be achieved.	Count %	0 0.0%	2 2.2%	2 2.2%	25 27.2%	63 68.5%	95.7%	3.6	0.7	0.834
		Cronbach's Alpha					0.834			

About 16.3% claim to do it fairly often, 4.3% claim to do it sometimes, and 2.2% admit doing it once in a while, whilst 0.0% claims to do it not at all. There is positivity as expressed by participants talking enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished as indicated by 59.8% claiming to do so frequently, if not always. 30.4% admit to doing so fairly often, while 7.6% claim to do so sometimes, 2.2% of the participants claim to do so once in a while, and 0.0% does so not at all. Table 3 is indicative of participants articulating a compelling vision for the future as indicated by 58.7% claiming to do so frequently, if not always, 31.5% fairly often, 7.6% sometimes, 1.1% once in a while and 1.1% not at all. Table 3 shows respondents expressing confidence that goals will be achieved as shown by 68.5% claiming to do so frequently, if not always, 27.2% fairly often, 2.2% sometimes, 2.2% once in a while and 0.0% not at all. These findings are in line with previous literature; for example, authors such as Steinmann, Klug and Maier (2018) discovered that transformational leaders lead employees to further perceive organisational goals to be attainable. Enhancing the importance and attainability of the goals they disseminate, transformational leaders

are thus able to facilitate their followers' organisational goal striving. The findings supports theoretical assumptions that leaders' confidence in their own abilities can enhance their effectiveness (Hannah, Avolio, Walumbwa, & Chan, 2012).

4.2.2.3. Intellectual Stimulation

The construct of Intellectual Stimulation has seven items that are summarised in Table 4 below. The results in Table 4 show that most respondents seek differing perspectives when solving problems as evidenced by 41.3% who do so frequently if not all the time, 32.6% do so fairly often whilst 22.8% do so sometimes, 3.3% do so once in a while and 0.0% claim to do so not at all.

Table 4. Frequency distribution and descriptive statistics of Intellectual Stimulation.

B3. INTELLECTUAL STIMULATION		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive		Latent Factor (Principal component) Coefficient
		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	% Fairly often/ Frequently, if not always	Mean	Std Dev	
B3.1. Seeking differing perspectives when solving problems.	Count %	0 0.0%	3 3.3%	21 22.8%	30 32.6%	38 41.3%	73.9%	3.1	0.9	0.791
B3.2. Enabling employees to think about old problems in new ways.	Count %	0 0.0%	8 8.7%	23 25.0%	32 34.8%	29 31.5%	66.3%	2.9	1.0	0.794
B3.3. Providing employees with new ways of looking at puzzling things.	Count %	0 0.0%	6 6.5%	15 16.3%	38 41.3%	33 35.9%	77.2%	3.1	0.9	0.845
B3.4. Suggesting new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.	Count %	0 0.0%	4 4.3%	9 9.8%	46 50.0%	33 35.9%	85.9%	3.2	0.8	0.826
B3.5. Encouraging employees to look at problems from many different angles.	Count %	0 0.0%	4 4.3%	10 10.9%	43 46.7%	35 38.0%	84.8%	3.2	0.8	0.860
B3.6. Encouraging innovative problem solving.	Count %	0 0.0%	1 1.1%	16 17.4%	39 42.4%	36 39.1%	81.5%	3.2	0.8	0.669
B3.7. Encouraging brain-storming with employees to solve problems.	Count %	0 0.0%	6 6.5%	21 22.8%	27 29.3%	38 41.3%	70.7%	3.1	1.0	0.682
		Cronbach's Alpha						0.892		

The respondents also claim to enable employees to think about old problems in new ways with 31.5% doing so frequently, if not always, 34.8% do so fairly often, 25% do so sometimes, 8.7% do so once in a while and 0.0% doing so not at all. As indicated

in Table 4 most of the participants provide employees new ways of looking at puzzling things with 35.9% claiming to do so frequently, if not all the time, 41.3% doing so fairly often, whilst 16.3% doing so sometimes, 6.5% doing so once in a while and 0.0% doing so not at all. Furthermore, 85.9% of the respondents believe that they fairly often/ frequently, if not always suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments, 9.8% confirmed doing so sometimes, 4.3% doing so once in a while and 0.0% doing so not at all. Most of the contestants (84.8%) encourage employees to look at problems from many different angles fairly often/ frequently, if not always, 10.9% doing so sometimes, 4.3% claiming to do so once in a while and 0.0% doing so not at all whilst 81.5% encourage innovative problem solving fairly often/ frequently, if not always, 17.4% doing so sometimes, 1.1% claimed doing so once in a while and 0.0% doing so not at all. The majority of the participants also (70.7%) encourage brainstorming with employees to solve problems fairly often/ frequently, if not always, 22.8% confirmed doing so sometimes, 6.5% doing so once in a while and 0.0% doing so not at all. Previous literature by Mbah (2016) states that intellectual stimulation is seen when a manager provides new ways of looking at things which use to puzzle the workers. The findings, therefore, confirm Levine, Muenchen, and Brooks' (2010) as cited in Shadraconis (2013) definition of intellectual stimulation. The authors refer to intellectual stimulation as "leader's ability to motivate subordinates to discover new ways of accomplishing tasks" (2). This outstanding finding about suggesting new ways of looking at how to complete assignments, is in line with previous literature; for example, authors such as Gheribi (2017), found that restaurant managers can make menus more innovative as to be able to respond properly to modern gastronomic trends and create the offer that is in accordance with the guests' current demands.

4.2.2.4. Individualised Consideration

The construct of Individualised Consideration has five items that are summarised in Table 5 below. Table 5 presents results of questionnaire items on individualised consideration. The results show that most participants spend time teaching and coaching as indicated by 39.1% who do so frequently, if not always, 27.2% doing so fairly often, 20.7% doing so sometimes, 12.0% doing so once in a while and 1.1% doing so not at all.

Table 5. Frequency distribution and descriptive statistics of Individualised Consideration.

B4. INDIVIDUALISED CONSIDERATION		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive		Latent Factor (Principal component) Coefficient
		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	% Fairly often/ Frequently, if not always	Mean	Std Dev	
B4.1. Spending time teaching and coaching.	Count %	1 1.1%	11 12.0%	19 20.7%	25 27.2%	36 39.1%	66.3%	2.9	1.1	0.433
B4.2. Giving employees' personal attention.	Count %	0 0.0%	7 7.6%	34 37.0%	25 27.2%	26 28.3%	55.4%	2.8	1.0	0.761
B4.3. Helping employees to develop their strengths.	Count %	0 0.0%	3 3.3%	24 26.1%	33 35.9%	32 34.8%	70.7%	3.0	0.9	0.838
B4.4. Considering employee as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.	Count %	2 2.2%	17 18.5%	22 23.9%	27 29.3%	24 26.1%	55.4%	2.6	1.1	0.895
B4.5. Treating employee as an individual rather than just as a member of a group.	Count %	2 2.2%	18 19.6%	22 23.9%	22 23.9%	28 30.4%	54.3%	2.6	1.2	0.861
		Cronbach's Alpha						0.815		

The results also show that 37% of the participants sometimes give employees personal attention with 27.2% doing so fairly often, 28.3% doing so frequently, if not always, 7.6% doing so once in a while and 0.0% doing so not at all. As indicated in the table 6, 70.7% of the respondents help their employees develop their strengths fairly often/frequently if not always whereas 26.1% do so sometimes, 3.3% doing so once in a while and 0.0% doing so not at all. Participants are shown to consider employees as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others with 18.5% doing so once in a while, 23.9% (sometimes), 29.3% (fairly often) and 26.1% doing so frequently if not always whilst 2.2% doing so not at all. Table 6 is indicative of 30.4% of participants frequently, if not all the time treating employees as an individual rather than just as a member of a group, 23.9% claimed to do so fairly often while 23.9% doing so sometimes, 19.6% doing so once in a while and 2.2% doing so not at all. It seems the majority of participants rated the above items fairly often / frequently, if not always. The finding about helping employees to develop their strengths, extent one of Chebon, Aruasa and Chirchir's (2019) leading findings. The finding shows that supervisors spent time teaching and coaching employees and focused on developing their strengths. This finding also concurs with that of Ogola, Sikalieh and Linge (2017)

which revealed that, the employees were fairly often satisfied with their work because the CEO communicated and listened to them and helped them build their strengths.

The above results revealed that owner-managers of small fast-food restaurants do fairly often/frequently, if not always exhibit transformational leadership behaviours. The Cronbach's Alpha scores of MLQ were; 0.793 for idealised influence, 0.834 for inspirational motivation, 0.892 for intellectual stimulation, and 0.815 for individualised consideration. The scores indicate that MLQ, as used in the current study, was a reliable measure.

4.2.3. TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS EXHIBITED BY OWNER-MANAGERS OF SMALL FAST-FOOD RESTAURANTS IN THE MANGAUNG METRO AREA

This section focuses at the four transformational leadership behaviours outlined in the sections above with a view to determine which, among them, are more prevalently displayed by owner-managers of the small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metro area. The objective being addressed reads:

To establish transformational leadership behaviours exhibited by owner-managers of small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metro area.

In order to compare how frequently the four transformational leadership behaviours were displayed, the 4 constructs (latent factors) measure across all four transformational leadership behaviours had their means calculated and ranked. The construct with the highest mean was ranked number 1 and one with the smallest mean was ranked number 4. The rank was used as a measure of how frequently transformational leadership behaviour was observed.

Table 6. Ranking of transformational leadership behaviours' constructs scores

Transformational leadership behaviours		N	Mean	Std. Dev.	Rank of Mean	
Idealised influence	B1.1 Instilling pride	91	2.74	1.272	3	Mean Rank = 15
	B1.2 Going beyond self-interest	92	2.95	0.976	8	
	B1.3 Acting in ways that build respect	92	3.60	0.647	24	
	B1.4 Emphasising collective sense of mission	92	3.51	0.805	21	
	B1.5 Talking about values and beliefs	92	2.97	0.988	9	
	B1.6 Considering moral and ethical	91	3.42	0.844	17	
	B1.7 Displaying confidence	92	3.52	0.818	22	
Inspirational motivation	B2.1 Talking optimistically	92	3.46	0.804	18	Mean Rank = 18.5
	B2.2 Expressing with few simple words	92	2.91	0.968	6	
	B2.3 Helping employees find meaning	92	3.68	0.662	25	
	B2.4 Talking enthusiastically	92	3.48	0.733	20	
	B2.5 Articulating a compelling vision	92	3.46	0.776	19	
	B2.6 Expressing confidence	92	3.60	0.742	23	
Intellectual stimulation	B3.1 Seeking differing perspectives	92	3.12	0.875	13	Mean Rank = 12
	B3.2 Enabling employees to think	92	2.89	0.955	5	
	B3.3 Providing employees with new ways	92	3.07	0.887	12	
	B3.4 Suggesting new ways to complete assignments	92	3.17	0.779	14	
	B3.5 Encouraging employees to look at problems from all angles	92	3.18	0.797	16	
	B3.6 Encouraging innovativeness	92	3.18	0.797	15	
	B3.7 Encouraging brainstorming	92	3.05	0.953	11	
Individualised consideration	B4.1 Spending time teaching and coaching	92	2.91	1.086	7	Mean Rank = 4.5
	B4.2 Giving employees personal attention	92	2.76	0.954	4	
	B4.3 Helping employees to develop their strengths	92	3.02	0.864	10	
	B4.4 Considering employees as having different needs	92	2.59	1.131	1	
	B4.5 Treating employees individually	92	2.61	1.176	2	

The results in Table 6 show transformational leadership behaviour with the highest mean score, hence the most observed, is Inspirational Motivation (mean score=18.5) with Idealised Influence coming second (mean score=15). The third one being Intellectual Stimulation (mean score=12) and the least observed transformational leadership behaviour is Individualised Consideration (mean score=4.5)

Results in Table 6 address objective 1, this means that, the most displayed transformational leadership behaviour by owner-managers of small fast-food restaurants in Mangaung Metro is Inspirational motivation with Individualised consideration being the least displayed one.

Figure 4.6 illustrate.

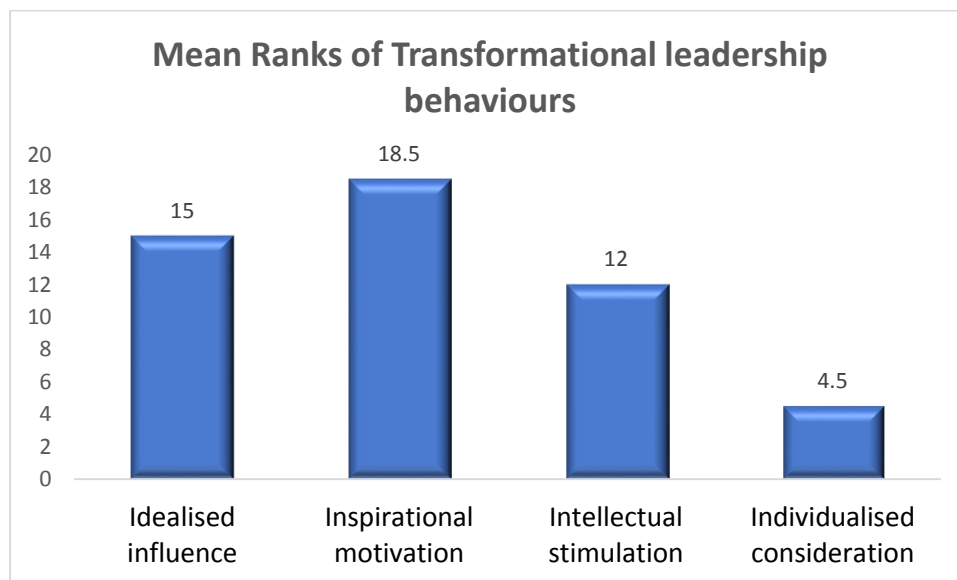


Figure 4.6: Mean ranks of Transformational leadership behaviours

The results of this study are in concurrence with the findings of Lo, Ramayah, and Min (2009), Voon *et al.* (2011), Sadeghi and Pihie (2012) though conducted in different context. They found that inspirational motivation is a dimension of transformational leadership which received the highest mean score. According to Bass and Avolio (1994), inspirational motivation symbolises the charismatic aspect of transformational leadership. Since small restaurant businesses in their endeavour to survive and have longevity are confronting with enormous change, Conger, Kanungo, and Menon (2000) put that charismatic leadership is an effective leadership style that can satisfy the requirements of effective change and charismatic leaders are able to mobilise their organisation in the face of difficult challenges. This justifies why inspirational motivation has received highest mean score. In the same context, based on the socio-cultural characteristics of developing countries, charismatic leadership has emerged as the most important and suitable method of leading for organisational leaders (Tuomo, 2006). This implies that, owner-managers' leadership style can meet the requirements of small restaurants businesses in the face of challenges.

One of the reasons inspirational motivation has received the highest mean score could be that inspirational motivation promotes empowerment within employees. This corresponds to literature reviewed on the antecedents of transformational leadership. Seibert *et al.* (2011) claim that transformational leaders play a critical part in organisations by supplying information about strategic or operational goals (hallmark of inspirational motivation), hence, allowing employees to enhance meaningfulness (sign of empowerment) because they then see the value of their work. This extends the previous work of Boyne (2012) on leadership and motivation in hospitality. Empowerment has been measured as having an effect that complements that of motivational leadership on employee work attitudes.

In a nut shell, for service staff (restaurants) experiencing challenging employment characteristics such as low pay, long and anti-social hours, unstable and seasonal employment, low job status, lack of career progression opportunities and poor levels of employment benefits, the presence and influence of an inspirational leader who can provide or enhance work meaning, motivate them to perform well and increase their levels of job satisfaction, may be welcomed.

Among the dimensions of transformational leadership, the results indicate that individualised consideration ($M=4.5$) received the lowest mean score. This is also consistent with previous work of (Lo *et al.*, 2009; Voon *et al.*, 2011; Sadeghi and Pihie, 2012). It is thus probable for one to conclude that, due to the busy schedule in the restaurant business, it is impossible for owner-managers' to pay individual attention to staff members hence the lowest mean score. This is supported by Hanaysha, Khalid, Mat, Sarassina, Rahman, and Zakaria (2012) who claimed that, a possible explanation for negative relationship between individualised consideration and job satisfaction in their study could be that employees could not meet their leaders due to leader's busy schedule leading to lack of individual consideration, thus, the lesser the individual consideration, the higher the job satisfaction. From job satisfaction point of view, although individualised consideration is ranked lowest, it is stated literature that transformational leadership improves employee job satisfaction by increasing positive employee attitudes and clarifying the role of employees (components of individualised consideration) (Gill *et al.*, 2010).

Considering challenging employment characteristics in restaurants businesses such as; low pay, long and anti-social hours, unstable and seasonal employment, low job status, lack of career progression opportunities and poor levels of employment benefits) as mentioned above, it is surprising to find that individualised consideration ranked lowest in this study. This is because in a work environment where there is low work morale, through individualised consideration, transformational leaders are expected to support employees by tailoring their guidance to followers' particular characteristics and situations (Su, Cheng, & Wen, 2019). For instance, a study conducted in Italy showed that leaders' ability to understand followers' stress is beneficial to followers' mental health and psychological well-being (Giorgi, Leon-Perez, Cupelli, Mucci, & Arcangeli, 2014).

4.2.4. HIGH PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT STRATEGY

High Performance Management Strategy has five constructs, namely, Training and Development, Recruitment and Selection, Performance Appraisal, Rewards and participation. These five constructs are discussed in the subsections that follow.

4.2.4.1. Training and Development

The construct of Training and Development has seven items that are summarised in Table 8 below. The results in Table 7 show that 57.6% of the participants provide restaurant server training program to employees fairly often or frequently, if not always, whereas 25% do so sometimes and 13% do so once in a while.

Table 7. Frequency distribution and descriptive statistics of Training and Development.

C1. TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive		Latent Factor (Principal component) Coefficient
		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	% Fairly often/ Frequently, if not always	Mean	Std Dev	
C1.1A. Providing restaurant server training program to employees.	Count %	4 4.3%	12 13.0%	23 25.0%	24 26.1%	29 31.5%	57.6%	2.7	1.2	0.800
C1.2A. Giving general training to employees.	Count %	3 3.3%	5 5.4%	30 32.6%	22 23.9%	32 34.8%	58.7%	2.8	1.1	0.800
C1.3A. Providing sales training program to employees.	Count %	4 4.3%	7 7.6%	13 14.1%	31 33.7%	37 40.2%	73.9%	3.0	1.1	0.809
C1.4A. Providing marketing training program to employees.	Count %	7 7.6%	16 17.4%	23 25.0%	19 20.7%	27 29.3%	50.0%	2.5	1.3	0.816
C1.5A. Providing job rotation to the employees.	Count %	5 5.4%	17 18.5%	21 22.8%	25 27.2%	24 26.1%	53.3%	2.5	1.2	0.517
C1.6A. Providing employees' on-the-job training.	Count %	1 1.1%	4 4.3%	16 17.4%	35 38.0%	36 39.1%	77.2%	3.1	0.9	0.547
C1.7A. Financially investing in training for employees.	Count %	16 17.4%	23 25.0%	20 21.7%	18 19.6%	15 16.3%	35.9%	1.9	1.3	0.609
		Cronbach's Alpha						0.827		

The majority believe that they give general training to employees as shown by 34.8% who do so frequently if on always, 23.9% (fairly often), 32.6% (sometimes) and 5.4% (once in a while) while 3.3% do so not at all. The participants are also claiming to provide sales training to employees with 73.9% (fairly often/frequently, if not always), and 14.1% (sometimes), while 7.6% do so not at all. Results shown in the table above show that 50% of the participants claim to provide marketing training program to employees fairly often/frequently, if not always, 25% (sometimes) and 17.4% doing so once in a while and 7.6% doing so not at all. They also believe that they provide job rotation to their employees as indicated by 26.1% (frequently, if not always), 27.2% (fairly often) and 22.8% (sometimes) with 18.5% doing so once in a while, whilst 5.4% claimed to do so not at all. On the job training is also provided by most of the participants to their employees as shown by 39.1% (frequently, if not always), 38%

(fairly often) and 17.4% doing so sometimes, while 4.3% claimed to do so once in a while and 1.1% doing so not at all. As far as financially investing in training for employees is concerned, 17.4% do not so at all while 25% do so once in a while, 21.7% (sometimes) and 35.9% doing so fairly often/frequently if not always. This finding about providing employees on the job training, correspond to Vasanthi and Basariya's (2019) claim that a large majority of employee learning is accomplished through on-the-job training. In support of this finding, Timsal, Awais and Shoaib (2016) found that job descriptions in McDonald's are very organised and, as a result, employees find their jobs interesting, and the on job training sessions helps in maintain that interest.

4.2.4.2. Recruitment and Selection

Respondents were asked how frequently the following statements on recruitment and selection occur in their leadership behaviour. Their responses were as shown in Table 8 below. The results show that 23.9% of the respondents use the capability to communicate effectively as a recruitment criterion frequently, if not always, 34% (fairly often), 27.2% (sometimes), 15.2% (once in a while) and 3.3 (not at all).

Table 8. Frequency distribution and descriptive statistics of recruitment and selection.

C1. RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive		Latent Factor (Principal component) Coefficient
		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	% Fairly often/ Frequently, if not always	Mean	Std Dev	
C1.1B. Using the capability to communicate effectively as a recruitment criterion.	Count	3	14	25	28	22	54.3%	2.6	1.1	0.584
	%	3.3%	15.2%	27.2%	30.4%	23.9%				
C1.2B. Using interview for selection processes.	Count	10	17	22	18	25	46.7%	2.3	1.3	0.756
	%	10.9%	18.5%	23.9%	19.6%	27.2%				
C1.3B. Using the skill-orientation as a recruitment criterion.	Count	14	18	18	25	17	45.7%	2.1	1.3	0.711
	%	15.2%	19.6%	19.6%	27.2%	18.5%				
C1.4B. Using tests for selection processes.	Count	23	26	22	12	9	21.0%	1.5	1.3	0.701
	%	23.0%	26.0%	22.0%	12.0%	9.0%				
C1.5B. Matching candidates to firm strategy	Count	6	4	21	35	26	66.3%	2.8	1.1	0.677
	%	6.5%	4.3%	22.8%	38.0%	28.3%				
C1.6B. Encouraging external recruitment sources rather than internal recruitment sources.	Count	14	16	20	25	17	45.7%	2.2	1.3	0.610
	%	15.2%	17.4%	21.7%	27.2%	18.5%				
	Count	11	11	22	27	21	52.2%	2.4	1.3	

C1.7B. Considering previous experience as an important hiring criterion.	%	12.0%	12.0%	23.9%	29.3%	22.8%		0.565
Cronbach's Alpha							0.782	

Only 10.9 % of the participants do not use interview for selection processes at all however 18.5% do so (once in a while), 23.9% (sometimes), 19.6% (fairly often) and 27.2% do so frequently if not always. As far as using skills orientation as a recruitment criterion is concerned, 15.2% do not so at all while 19.6% (once in a while), 19.6% (sometimes), 27.2% (fairly often) and 18.5% doing so frequently, if not always. The table shows that 23% of the participants do not use tests as a selection criterion at all whereas 26% utilise these now and then with 12% doing so fairly often and 9% frequently or always doing it while 22% do so sometimes. Matching candidates to firm strategy is not pursued at all by 6.5% of the participants while 66.3% of the participants do so fairly often/frequently, if not always, 22.8% doing so sometimes and 4.3% doing so now and then. Table 8 is indicative of 18.5% frequently, if not always encouraging external recruitment sources rather than internal recruitment sources. 27.2% confirmed doing so fairly often, 21.7% doing so sometimes, 17.4% doing so not at all and 15.2% doing so not at all. The table shows that 29.3% do consider previous experience as an important hiring criterion, while 22.8% claimed to do so fairly often, 23.9% doing so sometimes, 12.0% doing so once in a while and 12.0% doing so not at all. This finding about matching candidates to firm strategy reinforces the notion that a strategic recruitment approach is necessary to match people to jobs because the right people are needed to help position a company to reach organisational goals (Griffin 2018). In addition, Hofhuis, Van Der Zee, and Otten (2016) argue that recruiters are responsible for evaluating and assessing candidates whom they believe will add value to the organisation.

4.2.4.3. Performance Appraisal

Respondents were asked how frequently the following statements on performance appraisal are frequent on their leadership behaviour. Their responses were as shown in Table 9 below. The results in Table 9 show that 17.4% of the respondents do not conduct performance appraisal as a promotion strategy for good performers at all

whereas 18.5% do so once in a while, 25% do that sometimes, 21.7% doing so fairly often and 17.4% frequently, if not always doing it.

Table 9. Frequency distribution and descriptive statistics of performance appraisal.

C1. C. PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive		Latent Factor (Principal component) Coefficient
		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	% Fairly often/ Frequently, if not always	Mean	Std Dev	
C1.1C. Conducting performance appraisal as a promotion strategy for good performers.	Count %	16 17.4%	17 18.5%	23 25.0%	20 21.7%	16 17.4%	39.1%	2.0	1.3	0.733
C1.C2. Conducting performance appraisal activities once in a year.	Count %	26 28.3%	18 19.6%	19 20.7%	13 14.1%	16 17.4%	31.5%	1.7	1.5	0.578
C1.C3. Conducting performance appraisal activities quarterly.	Count %	25 27.2%	15 16.3%	24 26.1%	15 16.3%	13 14.1%	30.4%	1.7	1.4	0.688
C1.C4. Conducting performance appraisal activities annually.	Count %	20 21.7%	17 18.5%	22 23.9%	13 14.1%	20 21.7%	35.9%	2.0	1.4	0.692
C1.C5. Conducting performance appraisal to promote good performers	Count %	9 9.8%	5 5.4%	15 16.3%	36 39.1%	27 29.3%	68.5%	2.7	1.2	0.833
C1.C6. Providing employees’ feedback for personal development through performance appraisals.	Count %	8 8.7%	2 2.2%	12 13.0%	35 38.0%	35 38.0%	76.1%	2.9	1.2	0.805
		Cronbach's Alpha						0.810		

It also shows that 28.3% of the participants do not all conduct performance appraisals once in a year whereas 19.6% do such once in a while with 20.7% doing such sometimes and 31.4% doing so fairly often/frequently if not always. The table shows that 17.2% of participants do conduct performance appraisal activities quarterly whereas 26.1% doing so sometimes, 16.3% doing so once in a while and 30.4% doing so fairly often/frequently, if not always. Only 35.9% of the participants conduct performance appraisals annually fairly often/frequently, if not always, 23.9% doing so sometimes and 21.7% not conducting such at all annually while 18.5% do such once in a while. As far as conducting performance appraisal to promote good performers is concerned 29.3% do such fairly often, 39.1% claimed to do so fairly often whereas 16.3% doing so sometimes, 5.4% doing so now and then and 9.8% doing so not at all.

Most of the participants provide employees feedback for personal development through performance appraisals as indicated by 76.1% who claim to do so fairly often/frequently, if not always, 13.0% doing so sometimes, while 2.2% do such once in a while and 8.7% not doing that at all. In line with a finding about providing employees' feedback for personal development through performance appraisals, Bhurtel and Adhikari (2016) agree that supervisors as a role model should provide affirmative and developmental feedback based on the results not only to plan for future actions, but also to persuade them of the fairness of the appraisal system. However, in their study exploring the perceptions of supervisors on performance appraisal in relation to employee development. Bhurtel and Adhikari found that the information in performance appraisal was found to be kept confidential. Due to this, supervisors were unable to provide feedback and plan for employees' development based on the performance appraisal done consequently.

4.2.4.4. Rewards

The construct of Rewards under the High-Performance Management Strategy has five items as summarised in Table 10 below. Table 10 shows that only 3.3% of the participants do not at all provide employees monetary rewards for their good performance whilst 10.9% do provide once in a while with 28.3% doing so sometimes, 26.1% doing so fairly often and 31.5% frequently doing so if not always.

Table 10. Frequency distribution and descriptive statistics of Rewards.

C1. D. REWARDS		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive		Latent Factor (Principal component) Coefficient
		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	% Fairly often/ Frequently, if not always	Mean	Std Dev	
C1.1D. Providing employees monetary rewards for their good performance.	Count %	3 3.3%	10 10.9%	26 28.3%	24 26.1%	29 31.5%	57.6%	2.7	1.1	0.710
C1.2D. Providing employees non-monetary rewards for their good performance.	Count %	11 12.0%	8 8.7%	21 22.8%	24 26.1%	28 30.4%	56.5%	2.5	1.3	0.738
C1.3D. Ensuring that employees’ compensation packages are performance oriented.	Count %	3 3.3%	8 8.7%	21 22.8%	31 33.7%	29 31.5%	65.2%	2.8	1.1	0.833
C1.4D. Ensuring that compensation is skill based.	Count %	21 22.8%	17 18.5%	23 25.0%	15 16.3%	16 17.4%	33.7%	1.9	1.4	0.611

C1.5E. Rewarding employees on individual performance in satisfying customers.	Count	5	9	22	25	31	60.9%	2.7	1.2	0.788
	%	5.4%	9.8%	23.9%	27.2%	33.7%				
Cronbach's Alpha								0.780		

The results above also show that 12% of the participants do not provide employees non-monetary rewards for their good performance whereas 8.7% do so once in a while, 22.8% doing so sometimes whereas 26.1% do so fairly often and 30.4% frequently, if not always do so. Table 10 shows that 22.8% of the participants do sometimes ensure that employees' compensation packages are performance oriented, 33.7% doing so fairly often whereas 31.5% frequently doing so if not always, 8.7% doing so once in a while and 3.3% doing such not at all. As shown in the table 22.8% of the participants do not ensure that compensation is skill based with 18.5% doing so once in a while and only 17.4% frequently, if not always doing it whereas 16.3% fairly often doing so and 25.0% sometimes doing so. There is no convincing consensus on the existence of a satisfactory rewards system as indicated by the percentages of respondents who acknowledged that positive aspects of the rewards system occur fairly often or frequently or always (average around 60%). However, the finding about ensuring that employees' compensation packages are performance oriented concurs with Adams equity theory. According to Adams (1965) as cited in Al-Zawahreh and Al-Madi (2012), when someone feels underpaid he or she might either work less as a mean of altering a person's inputs to reduce inequity, or that person might work harder if he or she choose to cognitively distort the amount of his or her current inputs. This also is in line with Kalen's (2017) conceptualisation of Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory in relation to linking pay to performance. The author posits that, reward must be given when the performance goal is reached.

4.2.4.5. Participation

The construct of participation under the High-Performance Management Strategy has five items as summarised in Table 11 below. Table 11 shows that 66.3% of the participants ask employees for opinions in advance if a decision made might affect them fairly often/frequently, if not always whereas only 1.1% do not do so with 23.9% doing so sometimes while 8.7% do such once in a while.

Table 11. Frequency distribution and descriptive statistics of Participation.

C1. E. PARTICIPATION		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive		Latent Factor (Principal component) Coefficient
		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	% Fairly often/ Frequently, if not always	Mean	Std Dev	
C1.1E. Asking employees for opinions in advance if a decision made might affect them.	Count %	1 1.1%	8 8.7%	22 23.9%	21 22.8%	40 43.5%	66.3%	3.0	1.1	0.799
C1.2E. Asking employees to participate in work-related decisions.	Count %	1 1.1%	3 3.3%	22 23.9%	23 25.0%	43 46.7%	71.7%	3.1	1.0	0.812
C1.3E. Providing employees with the opportunity to suggest improvements in service processes.	Count %	0 0.0%	5 5.4%	20 21.7%	28 30.4%	39 42.4%	72.8%	3.1	0.9	0.800
C1.4E. Developing a problem- solving team within a restaurant.	Count %	4 4.3%	7 7.6%	21 22.8%	34 37.0%	26 28.3%	65.2%	2.8	1.1	0.829
C1.5E. Developing a formal work team within a restaurant	Count %	5 5.4%	7 7.6%	20 21.7%	33 35.9%	27 29.3%	65.2%	2.8	1.1	0.794
		Cronbach's Alpha						0.864		

Only 1.1% of the participants do not ask employees to participate in work related decisions whereas 23.9% do so sometimes with 25% doing so fairly often and 46.7% frequently, if not always doing so while 3.3% do so now and then. As indicated in the table 72.8% of the participants provide employees with the opportunity to suggest improvements in service processes fairly often/ frequently, if not always with none not doing such, whilst 21.7% do that sometimes and 5,4% doing so once in a while. It also shows that only 4.3% of the participants not develop a problem-solving team within a restaurant whereas 22.8% do so sometimes, 37% (fairly often) and 28.3% doing so frequently, if not always with 7.6% doing so once in a while. The table further shows that 65.2% of the participants fairly often/frequently, if not always develop a formal work team within a restaurant with 21.7% doing so sometimes while 7.6% do so once in a while and 5,4% doing not so at all. This finding about providing employees with the opportunity to suggest improvements in service processes, is consistent with the notion that employee participation is a management and leadership philosophy about how employees are most enabled to contribute to continuous improvement and the success of their organisation (Uma, 2015).

4.2.5. HIGH-INVOLVEMENT MANAGEMENT STRATEGY

The High-Involvement Management Strategy has four constructs, namely, Recruitment, Training, Participation and Rewards. These four constructs are discussed in the subsections that follow.

4.2.5.1. Recruitment

The construct of Recruitment, under the High-Involvement Management Strategy, has four items whose results are presented in Table 12 below. Table 12 presents results of questionnaire items where participants were asked to indicate how frequent they use the indicated human resources practices.

Table 12. Frequency distribution and descriptive statistics of recruitment.

C2. A. RECRUITMENT		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive		Latent Factor (Principal component) Coefficient
		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	% Fairly often/ Frequently, if not always	Mean	Std Dev	
C2.1A. Emphasising physical stamina as a requirement for providing high quality of customer services when hiring.	Count	6	9	24	32	21	57.6%	2.6	1.1	0.635
	%	6.5%	9.8%	26.1%	34.8%	22.8%				
C2.2A. Placing emphasis on candidates' potential to learn when recruiting.	Count	2	4	20	45	21	71.7%	2.9	0.9	0.859
	%	2.2%	4.3%	21.7%	48.9%	22.8%				
C2.3A. Giving employees' priority over external candidates for job openings.	Count	8	16	31	19	18	40.2%	2.3	1.2	0.495
	%	8.7%	17.4%	33.7%	20.7%	19.6%				
C2.4A. Providing an orientation program for new employees to learn about the organisation.	Count	2	4	20	39	27	71.7%	2.9	0.9	0.809
	%	2.2%	4.3%	21.7%	42.4%	29.3%				
		Cronbach's Alpha						0.635		

The results show that only 6.5% of the participants do not emphasise physical stamina as a requirement for providing high quality of customer services when hiring whereas 26.1% do so sometimes with 34.8% doing so fairly often, 9.8% doing so once in a while and 22.8% doing so frequently, if not always. Only 2.2% do not place emphasis on candidates' potential to learn when recruiting while 48.9% do so fairly often and 22.8% doing so frequently, if not always whereas 21.7% do so sometimes and 4.3% doing so once in a while. As far as giving employees' priority over external candidates for job openings is concerned, 8.7% do not do such at all whereas 19.6% frequently,

if not always do so with 33.7% doing so sometimes, 17.4% do so once in a while and 20.7% do such fairly often. The table further shows 71.7% fairly often/ frequently if not always provide an orientation program for new employees to learn about the organisation while 21.7% do so sometimes with 4.3% doing so once in a while and 2.2% is not doing such at all. This finding extent observations made by Kozak (2013) in a study on how selection and orientation at the workplace are regulated and practiced at an American profit-oriented company. The observations revealed that the candidate who is selected is informed by the HR manager who then presents the employee handbook, the job description and the employment agreement to the newcomer. The applicant has a few days to peruse those documents and then the HR manager presents the orientation training to him/ her.

4.2.5.2. Training

As far as training under the High-Involvement Management Strategy is concerned, the results in Table 13 show that 39.1% of the participants frequently, if not always continuously provide employees with formal training programs with 26.1% doing so fairly often while only 5.4% not doing this at all and 18.5% doing so sometimes with 10.9% doing so once in a while.

Table 13. Frequency distribution and descriptive statistics of Training.

C2. B. TRAINING		Frequency Distribution					Descriptive		Latent Factor (Principal component) Coefficient	
		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	% Fairly often/ Frequently, if not always	Mean		Std Dev
C2.1B. Continuously providing employees with formal training programs.	Count %	5 5.4%	10 10.9%	17 18.5%	24 26.1%	36 39.1%	65.2%	2.8	1.2	0.836
C2.2B. Providing training, not only limited to skill training.	Count %	5 5.4%	4 4.3%	15 16.3%	30 32.6%	38 41.3%	73.9%	3.0	1.1	0.855
C2.3B. Providing new employees' formal training programs to teach them the skills they need to perform their job	Count %	4 4.3%	4 4.3%	14 15.2%	29 31.5%	41 44.6%	76.1%	3.1	1.1	0.845
		Cronbach's Alpha					0.798			

Furthermore 73.9% provide training not only limited to skill training fairly often/frequently, if not always with only 5.4% not doing such whereas 16.3% do so

sometimes with 4.3% doing so once in a while and 5.4 not doing so at all. Most of the participants (76.1%) claim to provide new employees' formal training programs to teach them the skills they need to perform their jobs fairly often/frequently, if not always, with 15.2% doing so sometimes while 4.3% do so now and then and 4.3% do so not at all. However, this finding is in contrast with Opondo's (2018) claim that hospitality investors assume that a chef can easily be developed from the kitchen through apprentice and made to steer the kitchen operations to greater heights without necessarily undergoing formal training, however, in another study, Opondo (2018) showed that majority of chefs considered formal hospitality training to significantly influence a chef's job performance. This is also confirmed by Tracey, Hinkin, Tran, Emigh, Kingra, Taylor, and Thorek (2015) who found that hotels and restaurants spend approximately the same time on pre-opening training for new staff, with the exception of restaurant managers, who receive significantly more days of training than do their hotel counterparts.

4.2.5.3. Participation

The construct of participation, under the High-Involvement Management Strategy has five items that are summarised in Table 14 below. As shown in the table, 69.6% of the participants ask employees for opinions in advance if a decision made might affect them fairly often/ frequently, if not always with only 2.2% not doing this at all. It also shows that 77.2% of the participants ask employees to participate in work related decisions fairly often/frequently, if not always with only 2.2% not doing so. This finding confirms Knudsen, Busck and Lind's (2011) argument that workplace democracy does not have to be confined to professional occupations. This finding further responded to Francis and Chombo's (2020) research recommendation that managers and owners should be trained and also encourages the lower ranked staff to be involved in decision making process to avoid disappointing clients.

Table 14. Frequency distribution and descriptive statistics of participation.

C2. C. PARTICIPATION		Frequency Distribution					Descriptive		Latent Factor (Principal component) Coefficient	
		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	% Fairly often/ Frequently, if not always	Mean		Std Dev
C2.1C. Asking employees for opinions in advance if a decision made might affect them.	Count %	2 2,2%	5 5,4%	21 22,8%	24 26,1%	40 43,5%	69,6%	3,0	1,0	0.881
C2.2C. Asking employees to participate in work-related decisions.	Count %	2 2,2%	3 3,3%	16 17,4%	27 29,3%	44 47,8%				
C2.3C. Providing employees with the opportunity to suggest improvements in service processes.	Count %	2 2,2%	3 3,3%	27 29,3%	30 32,6%	30 32,6%	65,2%	2,9	1,0	0.800
C2.4C. Developing a problem-solving team within a restaurant.	Count %	9 9,8%	10 10,9%	28 30,4%	24 26,1%	21 22,8%				
C2.5C. Developing a formal work team within a restaurant	Count %	4 4,3%	13 14,1%	23 25,0%	24 26,1%	28 30,4%	56,5%	2,6	1,2	0.656
		Cronbach's Alpha								

As far as providing employees with the opportunity to suggest improvement in service processes 2.2% do not do such with 3.3% doing so once in a while whereas 29.3% doing so sometimes and 65.2% doing so fairly often/ frequently, if not always. Only 30.4% sometimes develop a program-solving team within a restaurant with 20.9% doing so once in a while and 9.8% not doing so at all. The table further shows that most of the participants 56.5% fairly often/ frequently, if not always develop a formal work team within a restaurant with 25.0% doing so sometimes and 4.3% not doing so at all.

4.2.5.4. Rewards

The respondents were asked to indicate how they frequently observed the following reward strategies and their responses are presented in Table 15.

Table 15. Frequency distribution and descriptive statistics of Rewards.

C2. D. REWARDS		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive		Latent Factor (Principal component) Coefficient
		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	% Fairly often/ Frequently, if not always	Mean	Std Dev	
C2.1D. Providing competitive salaries.	Count %	0 0.0%	5 5.4%	8 8.7%	23 25.0%	56 60.9%	85.9%	3.4	1.0	0.619
C2.2D. Providing employees non-monetary rewards for their great effort.	Count %	9 9.8%	6 6.5%	18 19.6%	19 20.7%	40 43.5%	64.1%	2.8	1.3	0.861
C2.3D. Providing employees monetary rewards for their great effort.	Count %	3 3.3%	6 6.5%	20 21.7%	32 34.8%	31 33.7%	68.5%	2.9	1.1	0.816
C2.4D. Financially rewarding employees based on their individual performance in addition to their basic salary.	Count %	10 10.9%	3 3.3%	31 33.7%	21 22.8%	27 29.3%	52.2%	2.6	1.3	0.817
		Cronbach's Alpha						0.788		

Table 16 shows that 85.9% of the participants claim to provide competitive salaries fairly often/frequently, if not always with none not claiming to do so whereas 8.7% confirming to do so sometimes and 5.4% doing so now and then. In contrast, Oshi and Enyia (2017) contend that fast-food restaurants make so much money, but they spend very little percentage for employee financial incentives. However, in a study on an emerging service paradigm for catering industry in China. Chen, Shen, and Fan (2015) found that employees in Hai Di Lao normally have levels of satisfaction as the company offers competitive compensation. The table also indicates that most of the participants (64.1%) provide employees non-monetary rewards for their great effort fairly often/frequently, if not always with 19.6% doing so sometimes and 9.8% not doing such as all. Furthermore, 68.5% of the respondents indicated that they provide employees monetary rewards for their great effort fairly often/frequent, if not always whereas 3.3% claiming not to do so at all with 21.7% doing sometimes and 6.5% doing so once in a while. Table 15 is indicative of 52.2%fairly often/ frequently, if not always financially rewarding employees based on their individual performance in addition to

their basic salary with 10.9% not doing so at all whereas 33.7% doing so sometimes and 3.3% doing so once in a while.

4.2.6. HIGH-COMMITMENT MANAGEMENT STRATEGY

The last strategy that the respondents were asked to evaluate was the High-Commitment Management Strategy. The results that summarise the perceptions of the respondents with regards to this strategy are presented in the section that follows.

4.2.6.1. Information Sharing

The respondents were asked to indicate how they frequently observed the following information sharing items and their responses are presented in Table 16.

Table 16. Frequency distribution and descriptive statistics of Information Sharing.

C3. A. INFORMATION SHARING		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive		Latent Factor (Principal component) Coefficient
		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	% Fairly often/ Frequently, if not always	Mean	Std Dev	
C3.1A. Keeping employees informed about how well a restaurant is doing.	Count %	0 0.0%	4 4.3%	24 26.1%	30 32.6%	34 37.0%	69.6%	3.0	0.9	0.690
C3.2A. Communicating organisation policies clearly to employees.	Count %	1 1.1%	4 4.3%	8 8.7%	32 34.8%	47 51.1%	85.9%	3.3	0.9	0.867
C3.3A. Giving notice to employees prior to making changes in policies.	Count %	2 2.2%	6 6.5%	14 15.2%	26 28.3%	44 47.8%	76.1%	3.1	1.0	0.860
C3.4A. Making effort to get the opinions of people who work in this organisation.	Count %	1 1.1%	3 3.3%	18 19.6%	29 31.5%	41 44.6%	76.1%	3.2	0.9	0.881
C3.5A. Keeping employees informed about changes that might affect their job.	Count %	0 0.0%	2 2.2%	11 12.0%	32 34.8%	47 51.1%	85.9%	3.3	0.8	0.873
		Cronbach's Alpha						0.888		

None of the participants claim not to keep employees informed about how well a restaurant is doing whereas 37% do so frequently, if not always and 32.6% do so all. The table also shows that 76.1% of the respondents claim to make effort to get the opinions of people who work in their organisation fairly often/frequently, if not always with 1.1% not doing so at all. Only 76.1% confirmed to give notice to employees prior to making changes in policies with 2.2% not doing such at all while 85.9% claim to keep employees informed about changes fairly often/frequently, if not always. This

finding correspond to previous literature; for example, Walker (2016) maintain that communication from leadership might be vital to keeping employees informed about changes to programs and new ideas and concepts. Similar to this finding, in a study on the effective strategies used by restaurant managers to reduce employee absenteeism. Johnson-Tate (2018) discovered that managers use communication to keep employees informed about all information related to company policies, especially employee absenteeism.

4.2.6.2. Career Management

The respondents were asked to indicate how they frequently observed the following career management items and their responses are presented in Table 17.

Table 17. Frequency distribution and descriptive statistics of Career Management.

C3. B. CAREER MANAGEMENT		Frequency Distribution					Descriptive		Latent Factor (Principal component) Coefficient	
		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	% Fairly often/ Frequently, if not always	Mean		Std Dev
C3.1B. Providing employees with the opportunity to achieve their career goals.	Count	2	2	25	35	28	68.5%	2.9	0.9	0.874
	%	2.2%	2.2%	27.2%	38.0%	30.4%				
C3.2B. Providing employees with opportunity for advancement in their organisation.	Count	2	7	23	35	25	65.2%	2.8	1.0	0.872
	%	2.2%	7.6%	25.0%	38.0%	27.2%				
C3.3B. Trying to fill vacancies from within the organisation.	Count	5	19	25	32	11	46.7%	2.3	1.1	0.620
	%	5.4%	20.7%	27.2%	34.8%	12.0%				
C3.4B. Providing employees opportunity to improve their skills in the organisation.	Count	1	7	17	37	30	72.8%	3.0	1.0	0.772
	%	1.1%	7.6%	18.5%	40.2%	32.6%				
		Cronbach's Alpha					0.788			

As shown in the table only 2.2% indicated that they do not provide employees with the opportunity to achieve their career goals at all whereas 68.5% claim to do so fairly often/frequently, if not always. Only 2.2% also claim not to provide employees with opportunity for advancement in their organisation whereas 65.2% claim to do so fairly often /frequently, if not always. In terms of trying to fill vacancies from within the organisation 5.4% claim that they do not do such with 20.7% doing so sometimes and 46.7% do so fairly often/frequently, if not always. Most of the clients (72.8%) believe that they provide employees with opportunity to improve their skills in the organisation

by doing so fairly often /frequently, if not always with 1.1% not doing so at all. This finding supports Eby and Allen's (2005), as cited in Seema and Sujatha (2013) assumption that organisation career management improve and increase organisation's human resources management strategy, because it supports that the organisation is valuing its employees, by investing for the development of employees by creating opportunities for employees' development. In a similar study focusing on the impact of employees' training and development on organisational performance, Enga (2017) discovered that due to training methods and tools used by a company, employees' work contribution was greatly improved which led to a positive impact on employee' performance and an improvement in their skills and job efficiency.

4.2.6.3. Appraisals

The respondents were asked to indicate how they frequently observed the following appraisal items and their responses are presented in Table 18.

Table 18. Frequency distribution and descriptive statistics of Appraisals.

C3. C. APPRAISALS		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive		Latent Factor (Principal component) Coefficient
		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	% Fairly often/ Frequently, if not always	Mean	Std Dev	
C3.1C. Providing appraisal of team performance.	Count %	4 4.3%	7 7.6%	29 31.5%	31 33.7%	21 22.8%	56.5%	2.6	1.1	0.757
C3.2C. Using performance appraisals to plan employees' skills development.	Count %	4 4.3%	8 8.7%	16 17.4%	44 47.8%	20 21.7%	69.6%	2.7	1.0	0.936
C3.3C. Using performance appraisals to plan training for future advancement within the organisation.	Count %	5 5.4%	5 5.4%	13 14.1%	38 41.3%	31 33.7%	75.0%	2.9	1.1	0.932
C3.4C. Providing employees' Feedback on appraisals for development purposes.	Count %	4 4.3%	3 3.3%	10 10.9%	35 38.0%	40 43.5%	81.5%	3.1	1.0	0.898
		Cronbach's Alpha						0.904		

Table 19 shows that 22.8% of the participants frequently, if not always provide appraisal of team performance, 33.7% believe that they do so fairly often, 31.5% (sometimes) and only 4.3% claiming not to do so at all. Most of the participants (69.6%) indicated that they use performance appraisals to plan employees' skills development

fairly often/frequently, if not always whereas 4.3% not doing such at all. Furthermore, 75% of the participants use performance appraisals to plan training for future advancement within their organisation with 5.4% claiming not to do such at all and 81.5% provide employees' feedback on appraisals for development purposes fairly often/frequently, if not always with 4.3% not doing such at all. This finding concurs with Khan's (2013) suggestion that employees should be given feedback regarding their appraisal. This will help them to improve on their weak areas. In a study on the role of performance appraisal system on employees motivation Khan claim that, among others, performance appraisal which provide feedback to employees about their performance makes employees work better.

4.2.6.4. Training

The respondents were asked to indicate how they frequently observed the following training items and their responses are presented in Table 19. Table 19 shows that the majority of the participants (60.9%) indicated that they use job rotation to expand the skills of the employees fairly often/ frequently, if not always with 29.3% doing so sometimes and 3.3% not doing so at all.

Table 19. Frequency distribution and descriptive statistics of Training.

C3. D. TRAINING		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive		Latent Factor (Principal component) Coefficient
		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	% Fairly often/ Frequently, if not always	Mean	Std Dev	
C3.1D. Using job rotation to expand the skills of employees	Count %	3 3.3%	6 6.5%	27 29.3%	31 33.7%	25 27.2%	60,9%	2.8	1.0	0.587
C3.2D. Providing training that is focused on team-building	Count %	5 5.4%	3 3.3%	8 8.7%	31 33.7%	45 48.9%	82,6%	3.2	1.1	0.908
C3.3D. Providing training that is focused on team-work skills	Count %	5 5.4%	3 3.3%	10 10.9%	28 30.4%	46 50.0%	80,4%	3.2	1.1	0.911
C3.4D. Offering orientation programme to train employees on the processes of the organisation.	Count %	3 3.3%	5 5.4%	18 19.6%	32 34.8%	34 37.0%	71,7%	3.0	1.0	0.851
C3.5D. Using mentoring system to help the employees develop.	Count %	0 0.0%	4 4.3%	10 10.9%	39 42.4%	39 42.4%	84,8%	3.2	0.8	0.834
		Cronbach's Alpha						0.876		

Most of the participants (82.6%) also indicated that they provide training that is focused on team building fairly often/ frequently, if not always with 8.7% doing so sometimes and 5.4% not doing so at all. Furthermore 80.4% believe that they provide training that is focused on team work skills, offer orientation programme to train employees on the processes of the organisation (71.7%) and use mentoring system to help the employees develop (84.8%) fairly often/frequently, if not always. This finding reinforce the notion that mentoring remains one of the most important developmental tools for the progression of any professional in training, and managers in organisations play a crucial role in developing employees (Coleman et al., 2005, cited in Onyemaechi & Ikpeazu, 2019).

4.2.6.5. Teamwork

The respondents were asked to indicate how they frequently observed the following teamwork items and their responses are presented in Table 20. Table 20 shows that most of the participants (88%) indicated that they emphasise teamwork in their organisations fairly often/frequently, if not always.

Table 20. Frequency distribution and descriptive statistics of Teamwork.

C3. E. TEAMWORK		Frequency Distribution						Descriptive		Latent Factor (Principal component) Coefficient
		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always	% Fairly often/ Frequently, if not always	Mean	Std Dev	
C3.1E. Emphasising teamwork in the organisation.	Count %	1 1.1%	1 1.1%	9 9.8%	42 45.7%	39 42.4%	88.0%	3.3	0.8	0.934
C3.2E. Organising work so that employees work in teams.	Count %	2 2.2%	3 3.3%	12 13.0%	32 34.8%	43 46.7%				
C3.3E. Training employees to work in teams in this organisation.	Count %	2 2.2%	2 2.2%	7 7.6%	31 33.7%	50 54.3%	88.0%	3.4	0.9	0.874
		Cronbach's Alpha								

It is also shown that most of the participants claim that they organise work so that employees work in teams with 81.5% indicating that they do so fairly often/frequently, if not always and only 2.2% claiming not to do so at all. The majority of the participants (88%) confirmed that they train employees to work in teams in their organisation fairly

often/frequently, if not always. The findings strengthen Dang's (2012) conclusion that the question of how to gain the highest profits as possible lays on the hands of the work team. Moreover, despite hierarchical structures in the restaurant environment, work functioning takes place through teamwork. (Wellton, 2017).

4.2.7. HR STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY OWNER-MANAGERS OF SMALL FAST-FOOD RESTAURANTS IN THE MANGAUNG METRO AREA

This section presents the three strategies outlined in the sections above with a view to compare them and determine which one is more prevalently practiced by the small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metro area. The objective being addressed reads:

To establish HR strategies employed by owner-managers of small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metro area.

In order to compare how frequently the three management styles were practiced, the 14 constructs (latent factors) measured across all three management styles, had their means calculated and ranked. The construct with the highest mean was ranked as 1 and one with the smallest mean was ranked as 14. The ranks of the construct means under each management style were then averaged. The average rank was then used as a measure of how frequently a management style construct was observed.

Table 21. Ranking of HR strategies constructs scores.

Management Strategy		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Ranks of means
High Commitment Management Strategy HCMS	Appraisals	92	2.856	0.928	7
	Career Management	92	2.739	0.778	9
	Information Sharing	92	3.191	0.756	2
	Team work	92	3.279	0.791	1
	Training	92	3.057	0.835	3
					Mean Rank = 10.6
High Involvement Management Strategy HIMS	Participation	92	2.833	0.811	8
	Recruitment	92	2.652	0.729	10
	Rewards	92	2.908	0.917	6
	Training	92	2.967	0.963	4
					Mean Rank = 8.0
High Performance Management Strategy HPMS	Participation	92	2.950	0.833	5
	Performance Appraisal	92	2.188	0.963	14
	Rewards	92	2.537	0.896	12
	Recruitment and Selection	92	2.273	0.831	13
	Training and Development	92	2.637	0.820	11
					Mean Rank = 4.0

The results in Table 21 show HR strategy with the highest rank, hence the most observed, is the High-Commitment Management Strategy (mean rank=10.6) with the High-Involvement Management Strategy coming second (mean rank = 8.0) and the least observed management strategy is the High-Performance Management Strategy (mean rank=4.0).

Addressing Objective 2, these results mean that the most practiced human resource strategy by small fast-food restaurants is the High-Commitment Management Strategy with the High-Performance Management Strategy being the least favoured strategy.

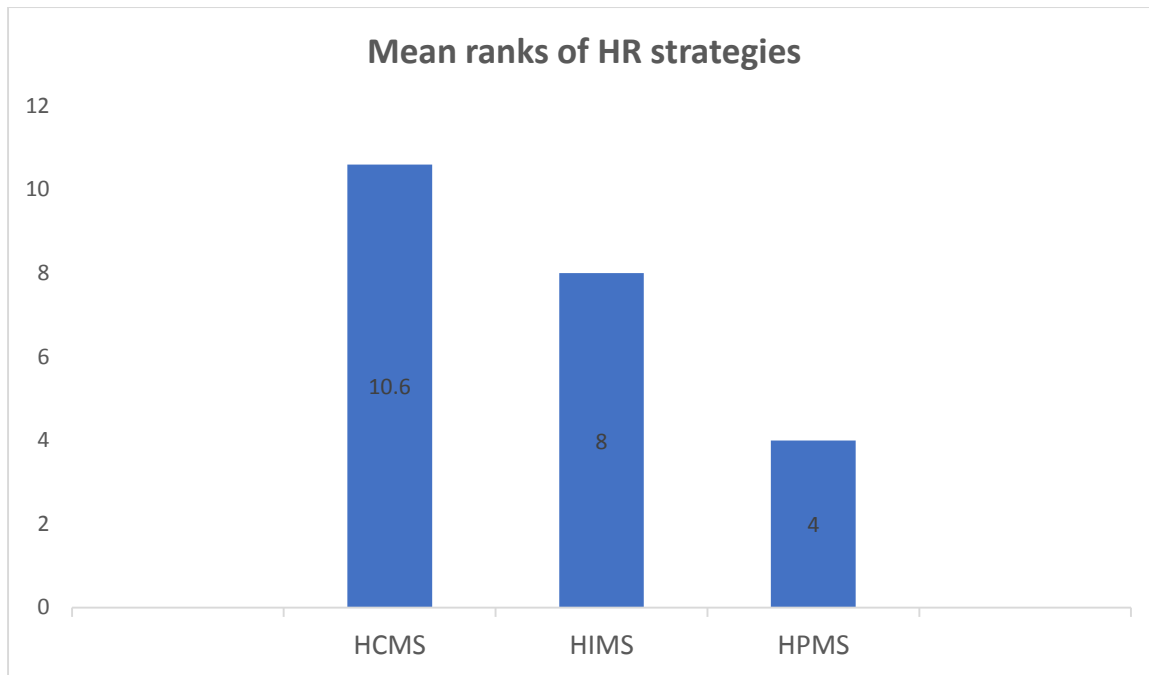


Figure 4.7: Mean ranks of HR strategies

This finding about HCMS being the most practiced strategy with HPMS being the least favoured strategy within small fast-food restaurants have not heretofore found. However, one would assume that HCMS received highest mean rank because in order to have a sustained competitive edge, leaders would encourage followers' commitment to their occupations. Therefore owner-managers would try by all means to enforce HR practices that promote commitment in the workplace. For example, according to Ghosh and Gurunathan (2015) training, among others, forms part of commitment-based HR practices, therefore, effective training is especially important for restaurants that aim to gain competitive advantage by means of good quality service and performance of their employees (Ballesteros-Rodriguez, De Saa-Perez, & Dominguez-Falcon, 2012).

Apart from an intention to attain competitive advantage. One would assume that due to low pay, long and anti-social hours, unstable and seasonal employment, low job status, lack of career progression opportunities and poor levels of employment benefits in the restaurant businesses. Leaders would encourage commitment among employees to shun absenteeism and turn-over. Hence, high-commitment management strategy received highest mean score. This shared assumption is supported by a completed study by Koutroumanis, Alexakis, and Dastoor (2015) on the influence organisational culture has on commitment in the restaurant industry. The

results showed that the more committed to the organisation an employee is, the less likely that employee is to leave the organisation. This implies that, high-commitment management strategy can lead to decreased turnover rate which is consistent to the reviewed literature in this study which indicates that HR strategy leads to decreased turnover intension. This also suggests that, the small fast-food restaurants' heads need an in-depth awareness and knowledge of high-commitment management strategy, so that restaurants operators can mould and modify their systems, practices, and policies to enhance high-commitment management strategy.

The results further revealed that high-performance management strategy received lowest mean score, consequently being the least favored HR strategy. Likewise, because this is the first study to establish ranking of HR strategies, therefore, it is difficult to compare the results of this study with the previous studies. Although the results revealed that HPMS is the least favored strategy Liao, Toya, Lepak and Hong (2009) define HPMS/HPWS as a system of HR practices designed to enhance employees' competencies, motivation, and performance in providing high-quality service to external customers. Based on the benefits of HPMS, it is difficult for one to understand how it became the least favoured strategy. However, in terms of system of HR practices as Liao *et al.* define HPMS, one would assume that since small businesses do operate without HR departments, this might be the case HPMS is rated less favoured strategy. This is supported by Werner and Herman (2013) who found that the management of human resources was, until recently, considered costly and inappropriate for small businesses.

The finding, however, is in concurrence with contingency theory. According to contingency theory, a one-size-fits-all approach is inappropriate, as the effectiveness of HR practices is dependent on the context in which they are applied (Harney, 2016). This implies that owner-managers have chosen to practice HR strategies of their choice. However, there are forces that might have influenced owner-managers' choice of HR strategies.

4.2.8. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TLB-INSPIRATIONAL MOTIVATION BEHAVIOUR AND HCM

This section focuses on the relationship between inspirational motivation behaviour and HCM within the small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area. The objective being addressed reads:

To determine the extent to which owner-managers' inspirational motivation behaviour correlate with HCM within the small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area.

Correlation and regression analysis is used to evaluate this relationship and the results are presented in the sections below.

4.2.8.1. Correlation analysis of the relationship between HCM and inspirational motivation behaviour

Table 22 displays correlation analysis results supporting Objective 3. It shows that the dimensions of High-Commitment Management that are significantly correlated to inspirational motivation behaviour were Information Sharing (correlation=0.293, p-value=0.005), Appraisals (correlation=0.281 p-value=0.007) and Training (correlation=0.262, p-value=0.012). The dimensions of Career Management (correlation=0.179, p-value=0.087) and Teamwork (correlation=0.172, p-value=0.101) were not significantly correlated to HCM. Therefore, based on the majority rule principle, the fact that three out of five HCM constructs were significantly correlated to inspirational motivation behaviour, means that HCM is significantly correlated to TLB dimension of inspirational motivation even though the effect size is small (significant correlations ranging from 0.262 to 0.293).

Table 22. Correlations of HCM and inspirational motivation behaviour.

Pearson's Correlations			Transformational Leadership Behaviour - Inspirational Motivation
High Commitment Management Strategy HCM	Information Sharing	Correlation	0.293**
		P-value	0.005
		N	92
	Career Management	Correlation	0.179
		P-value	0.087
		N	92
	Appraisals	Correlation	0.281**
		P-value	0.007
		N	92
	Training	Correlation	0.262*
		P-value	0.012
		N	92
	Teamwork	Correlation	0.172
		P-value	0.101
		N	92
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).			

The regression results in Table 23 concur with the significant relationships observed in Table 22 through correlational analysis. Although HCM-Information Sharing is significantly impacted on by Inspirational Motivation Behaviour, the value of $R^2=0.086$ indicate that the regression model only accounts for 8.6% of the variation in the information sharing dimension of HCM. This means that there are other dominant factors affecting the information sharing dimension of HCM with the Inspirational Motivation Behaviour only playing a small part, albeit significant.

The other dimensions of HCMS that are significantly impacted on by Inspirational Motivation Behaviour, that is, Appraisals and Training, explain only 7.9% ($R^2=0.079$) and 6.9% ($R^2=0.069$) respectively. In general, there are other factors affecting the dimensions of HCM other than Inspirational Motivation Behaviour even though its contribution is significant.

Table 23. Regression of HCM dimensions on inspirational motivation behaviour.

Dependent Variables	Independent variable	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	p-value	R ²
		B	Std. Error	Beta			
HCM - Information Sharing	(Constant)	1.882	0.456		4.128	0.000	0.086
	TLB: Inspirational Motivation	0.381	0.131	0.293	2.911	0.005	
HCM -Career Management	(Constant)	1.916	0.483		3.968	0.000	0.032
	TLB: Inspirational Motivation	0.240	0.139	0.179	1.730	0.087	
HCM - Appraisals	(Constant)	1.318	0.562		2.347	0.021	0.079
	TLB: Inspirational Motivation	0.448	0.161	0.281	2.776	0.007	
HCM - Training	(Constant)	1.765	0.508		3.475	0.001	0.069
	TLB: Inspirational Motivation	0.377	0.146	0.262	2.580	0.012	
HCM - Team Work	(Constant)	2.475	0.491		5.037	0.000	0.030
	TLB: Inspirational Motivation	0.234	0.141	0.172	1.659	0.101	

The results in Table 23 indicate that high-commitment management strategy is significantly correlated to TLB-inspirational motivation. Considering that inspirational motivation symbolises the charismatic aspect of transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994), this results are parallel to the results of Horn, Mathis, Robinson, and Randle (2013) although it was in a different discipline. These researchers found positive relationship between perceived leader charisma and commitment (consequence of HCMS) although the researcher did not specifically investigate the correlation between HCMS and TLB-inspirational motivation. According to Nohe, Michaelis, Menges, Zhang, and Sonntaga (2013) team leaders are perceived as more charismatic when they engage in change-promoting behaviours. These behaviours facilitate team performance through individual followers' perceived charisma and commitment to change. This means both charisma (inspirational motivation) and commitment (outcome of HCMS) may lead to team productivity (performance). This extend the reviewed literature indicating that productivity is the consequence of HR strategies.

In order to excel amid the growing competition in hospitality, employee commitment is essential in order to have a sustained competitive advantage. This suggests that owner-managers of fast-food restaurants may employ HCMS if they wish to develop high employee commitment in order to achieve mastery in the fast-food operations. This could be possible if owner-mangers could frequently, if not always, display

inspirational motivation behaviour because inspirational leaders communicate an inspiring vision and talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished. Spend time teaching and coaching (Othman, Safiah, Mazrizah, & Salleh, 2014; Chukwuba, 2015). To this end, owner-managers of small fast-food restaurants need to be aware and have detailed knowledge of the relationship between inspirational motivation and high-commitment management strategy considering that inspirational motivation in this study is ranked as the most displayed transformational leadership behaviour and on the other side, high-commitment management strategy is ranked as the most favoured strategy.

4.2.9. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TLB-INDIVIDUALISED CONSIDERATION BEHAVIOUR AND HPMS

This section focuses on the relationship between individualised consideration behaviour and HPMS within the small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area. The objective being addressed reads:

To assess the extent to which individualised consideration behaviour of owner-managers correlate with HPMS within the small fast food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area.

Correlation and regression analysis is used to evaluate this relationship and the results are presented in the sections below.

4.2.9.1. Correlation analysis of the relationship between HPMS and Individualised Consideration behaviour

The results in Table 24 show that the HPMS dimension of Training and Development is significantly impacted on by the TLB dimension of Individualised Consideration (correlation=0.259, p-value=0.013).

Table 24. Correlations of HPM dimensions and TLB-Individualised Consideration behaviour.

Pearson's Correlations			Transformational Leadership Behaviour -Individualised Consideration
High Performance Management Strategy- (HPMS)	Training and Development	Correlation	0.259*
		P-value	0.013
		N	92
	Recruitment and Selection	Correlation	0.228*
		P-value	0.029
		N	92
	Performance Appraisal	Correlation	0.097
		P-value	0.359
		N	92
	Rewards	Correlation	0.171
		P-value	0.104
		N	92
	Participation	Correlation	0.282**
		P-value	0.006
		N	92
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).			

The HPM dimensions of Recruitment and Selection (correlation=0.228, p-value=0.029) and Participation (correlation=0.282, p-value=0.006) were also significantly correlated to the TLB dimension of Individualised Consideration. The other two HPM dimensions of Performance Appraisals (correlation=0.097, p-value=0.359) and Rewards (correlation=0.171, p-value=0.104) were not significantly correlated to the TLB dimension of Individualised Consideration. Table 24 indicates that three out of five HPM dimensions were significantly correlated to the TLB dimension of Individualised Consideration. Alluding to majority rule principle, this means HPMS correlate to the TLB-individualised consideration, even though the effect size is also small (significant correlations ranging from 0.228 to 0.282). Thus, addressing objective 4.

The regression results in Table 25 concurred with the correlation results of Table 24. The construct of HPM-Training and Development was significantly impacted on by TLB-Individualised Consideration behaviour (B=0.267, t=2.546, p-value=0.013) but with a very low effect size and the same applied to HPM-Recruitment and Selection (B=0.238, t=2.217, p-value=0.029) and HPM-Participation (B=0.296, t=2.793, p-value=0.006).

With the values of $R^2=0.067$ (6.7%) for Training and Development, $R^2=0.052$ (5.2%) for Recruitment and Selection and $R^2=0.080$ (8.0%) for Participation, the effects of Individualised Consideration Behaviour on these three dimensions of HPM. Overall, this also means that there are other factors affecting the dimensions of HPM other than Individualised Consideration Behaviour even though it plays an important part.

Table 25. Regression of HPM dimensions on TLB-Individualised Consideration behaviour.

Dependent Variables	Independent variable	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	p-value	R^2
		B	Std. Error	Beta			
HPMS-Training and Development	(Constant)	1.894	0.303		6.243	0.000	0.067
	TLB-Individualised Consideration	0.267	0.105	0.259	2.546	0.013	
HPMS-Recruitment and Selection	(Constant)	1.613	0.310		5.203	0.000	0.052
	TLB-Individualised Consideration	0.238	0.107	0.228	2.217	0.029	
HPMS-Performance Appraisal	(Constant)	1.863	0.367		5.078	0.000	0.009
	TLB-Individualised Consideration	0.117	0.127	0.097	0.923	0.359	
HPMS- Rewards	(Constant)	2.002	0.338		5.922	0.000	0.029
	TLB-Individualised Consideration	0.192	0.117	0.171	1.644	0.104	
HPMS-Participation	(Constant)	2.128	0.306		6.960	0.000	0.080
	TLB-Individualised Consideration	0.296	0.106	0.282	2.793	0.006	

The other two dimensions of HPM, that is Performance Appraisal ($B=0.117$, $t=0.923$, $p\text{-value}=0.359$) and Rewards ($B=0.192$, $t=1.644$, $p\text{-value}=0.104$) were not significantly impacted on by Individualised Consideration Behaviour.

Table 24 and 25 highlight that HPM is significantly correlated to TLB-individualised consideration. This results are in concurrence with the results of previous study

Ogola *et al.* (2017) although it was in different context. The study established a significant positive effect between individualised consideration and employee performance. However, the researcher did not specifically investigate the correlation between HPMS and TLB-individualised consideration. Based on Ogola *et al.*'s findings, the study therefore, concluded that high performance is achieved when the leader encourages self-development practices (hallmark of HPMS), effective communication as well as mentoring and coaching; making employees to perform

maximally at work. Table 25 indicates that rewards is significantly not impacted by TLB-individualised consideration. However, Ogola *et al.* found that high performance is achieved when the leader recognises employees' efforts and performance through rewards (component of HPMS), creates confidence among employees by giving them a sense of ownership. This means in terms of correlation between rewards and individualised consideration, Ogola *et al.*'s results contradict the results of this study.

With individualised consideration, the follower is also transformed in the sense that as his or her needs are continuously addressed, a shift in perspective occurs from a short-term self-interested mutuality of rewards for performance (Avolio & Bass, 1995). This implies that if a follower's needs are taken care of, a follower would eventually be a good performer. This is in line with Maslow hierarchy of needs as reviewed in the literature section that transformational leaders understand that employees have a range of needs and the extent to which they ultimately perform in the workplace is determined by the extent to which these needs are met (Oliver, 2012).

Moreover, if employees' needs are taken care of, motivation is promoted. According to Mutsekwa (2016), the followers require consistent motivation which drives them to push the boundaries and come up with ideas. This implies that motivated employees develop organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB). This is supported by Ariani's (2014) findings that OCB is a form of intrinsic motivation followers. In terms of organisational citizenship behaviour, this also extend the reviewed literature that transformational leadership promotes among others, organisational citizenship behaviour. To this end, owner-managers within small fast-food restaurants need to understand that displaying individualised consideration behaviour may be one of the approaches to implement high performance management strategy within an organisation in order to attain organisational citizenship behaviour and ultimately sustain competitive advantage.

4.2.10. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TLB-IDEALISED INFLUENCE BEHAVIOUR AND HPM

This section focuses on at the relationship between idealised influence behaviour and HPM within the small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area. The objective being addressed reads:

To establish the extent to which owner-managers idealised influence behaviour correlate with HPM within the small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area.

4.2.10.1. Correlation analysis of the relationship between HPM and TLB-idealised influence behaviour

The results, presented in Table 26, indicate that objective 5 is not supported because none of the five dimensions of HPM are significantly correlated with Idealised Influence behaviour. Therefore, HPM is not significantly correlated to TLB dimension of Idealised influence behaviour.

Table 26. Correlations of HPM dimensions and TLB-idealised influence behaviour.

Pearson's Correlations			Transformational Leadership Behaviour - Idealised Influence
High Performance Management Strategy- (HPMS)	Training and Development	Correlation	0.029
		P-value	0.788
		N	90
	Recruitment and Selection	Correlation	0.101
		P-value	0.343
		N	90
	Performance Appraisal	Correlation	0.083
		P-value	0.436
		N	90
	Rewards	Correlation	0.106
		P-value	0.320
		N	90
Participation	Correlation	0.199	
	P-value	0.060	
	N	90	
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).			

As presented in Table 26, HIM dimension of Recruitment is significantly impacted on by the TLB dimension of Intellectual Stimulation Behaviour (correlation=0.285, p-value=0.006).

In this study, it is highlighted that there is no significant correlation between HPMS and TLB-idealised influence. Considering that, idealised influence behaviour may be referred to as behaviourally-based charismatic leadership (Harms & Crede, 2010). This results are in concurrence with Jacquart and Antonakis's (2015) proposal that

when performance signals are clear, the charisma of leader does not matter. This might have been the case in this study, hence, none of the high performance HR practices significantly correlated to TLB-idealised influence behaviour. This results are however nullified by de Vries, Pathak and Paquin, (2011). These researchers found that charismatic leadership is generally related to positive team outcomes and performance (HPMS outcome). In support, Wilderom, van den Berg, & Wiersma (2012) further found a positive relationship between perceived leader charisma and performance (HPMS outcome). However, the researches leading to this findings did not measure specifically relationship between idealised influence behaviour and high performance management strategy. Despite the positive relationship between idealised influence behaviour (charisma) and performance (HPMS), Wilderom *et al.* (2012)'s study did not investigate specifically correlation between HPMS and idealised influence behaviour.

The influence of charismatic leaders on their followers is observed to positively associate with job satisfaction which is further believed to improve performance (Aarons & Sommerfeld, 2012). This extends the reviewed literature indicating that transformational leadership enhance job satisfaction. On this note, this means job satisfaction improves performance. In this case, one would that idealised influence behaviour (charismatic leadership) is not only directly related to performance, but may also relate to performance indirectly.

In this study, TLB-idealised influence behaviour could not significantly correlate with HPMS. This means owner-managers of small fast-food restaurants may focus more on frequently practicing other transformational leadership behaviours (such as, individualised consideration) if they want to implement high-performance management strategy because it is alluded in this study that TLB-individualised consideration is significantly correlated with HPMS.

4.2.11. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TLB-INTELLECTUAL STIMULATION BEHAVIOUR AND HIM

This section looks at the relationship between TLB-intellectual stimulation behaviour and HIM within the small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area. The objective being addressed reads:

To determine the extent to which owner-managers' intellectual stimulation behaviour correlate with HIM within the small fast food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area.

Correlation and regression analysis is used to evaluate this relationship and the results are presented in the sections below.

4.2.11.1. Correlation analysis of the relationship between HIM and TLB-intellectual stimulation behaviour

Table 27. Correlations of HIM dimensions and TLB-Intellectual Stimulation behaviour.

Pearson's Correlations			TLB -Intellectual Stimulation
High Involvement Management Strategy	Recruitment	Correlation	0.285**
		P-value	0.006
		N	92
	Training	Correlation	0.252*
		P-value	0.015
		N	92
	Participation	Correlation	0.330**
		P-value	0.001
		N	92
	Rewards	Correlation	0.356**
		P-value	0.001
		N	92
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).			

The results also show that the HIM dimensions of Recruitment (correlation=0.285, p-value=0.006), Training (correlation=0.252, p-value=0.015), Participation (correlation=0.330, p-value=0.001) and Rewards (correlation=0.356, p-value=0.001), are also significantly impacted on by the TLB dimension of Intellectual Stimulation Behaviour. In general, Objective 6 is fully supported because four out of four HIM dimensions are significantly correlated to the TLB dimension of Intellectual Stimulation. Thus, HIM is significantly correlated to TLB dimension of Intellectual stimulation, even though effect is slightly small ranging from correlation=0.252 to correlation=0.356.

The regression results in Table 28 concurred with the correlation results of Table 27. All the four dimensions of HIM, Recruitment ($B=0.309$, $t=2.824$, $p\text{-value}=0.006$), Training ($B=0.361$, $t=2.473$, $p\text{-value}=0.015$), Participation ($B=0.397$, $t=3.314$, $p\text{-value}=0.001$) and Rewards ($B=0.484$, $t=3.610$, $p\text{-value}=0.001$), are all significantly impacted by the TLB dimension of Intellectual Stimulation behaviour.

Table 28. Regression of HIM dimensions on TLB- Intellectual Stimulation behaviour.

Dependent Variables	Independent variable	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	p-value	R ²
		B	Std. Error	Beta			
HIM-Recruitment	(Constant)	1.697	0.346		4.902	0.000	0.081
	TLB-Intellectual Stimulation	0.309	0.109	0.285	2.824	0.006	
HIM-Training	(Constant)	1.851	0.462		4.008	0.000	0.064
	TLB-Intellectual Stimulation	0.361	0.146	0.252	2.473	0.015	
HIM-Participation	(Constant)	1.605	0.379		4.234	0.000	0.109
	TLB-Intellectual Stimulation	0.397	0.120	0.330	3.314	0.001	
HIM-Rewards	(Constant)	1.410	0.424		3.323	0.001	0.126
	TLB-Intellectual Stimulation	0.484	0.134	0.356	3.610	0.001	

With the values of $R^2=0.081$ (8.1%) for Recruitment, $R^2=0.064$ (6.4%) for Training, $R^2=0.109$ (10.9%) for Participation and $R^2=0.126$ (12.6%) for Rewards, the effects of TLB-Intellectual Stimulation on these four dimensions of HIM is to a very small extent even though they are significant. All in all, the smaller the effects of TLB-Intellectual Stimulation on four dimensions of HIM means that there are other factors affecting the dimensions of HIM with Intellectual Stimulation Behaviour playing a smaller part, even though its contribution is valued significant.

The findings of this study here reveal that TLB-intellectual stimulation significantly correlates with HIMS within small fast-food restaurants with all HR practices constituting HIMS significantly correlating to TLB-intellectual stimulation. In short, TLB-intellectual stimulation significantly correlates with HIM. This results extend the research of Shin *et al.* (2018) in the cross level. These researchers explored the positive relationship between a high involvement work system which is in the organisational-level, and employee creativity (component intellectual stimulation), which is in the individual-level. Shin *et al.* further found that a bundle of high

involvement human resource practices was positively related to individual worker creativity (hallmark of intellectual stimulation). In short, the results of Shin et al. implies that HIMS positively related to TLB-intellectual stimulation, even though their research did not investigate specifically the correlation between HIMS and TLB-intellectual stimulation.

Moreover, these findings subscribe to AMO model of performance as discussed in the literature review section. High-involvement work processes empower workers to make more decisions, enhance the information and knowledge they need to do so, and reward them for doing so. In effect, this parallels the set of lenses in the AMO framework: for the high-involvement model to work, it must positively affect employee abilities, motivations and opportunities to contribute (Boxall & Macky, 2011). In detail, high involvement work practices, such as rigorous recruitment, help organisations recruit talented people with creative thinking and innovative skills (components of intellectual stimulation), which directly ensure the potential for employees to be creative (sign of intellectual stimulation). Extensive training and performance appraisal can further improve the knowledge and skills which are required for an employee to be creative through unified learning improvement and an employee's developmental performance feedback (Chang et al., 2014).

Apart from subscribing to AMO model of performance, displaying intellectual stimulation behaviour, leaders can motivate followers to be creative and innovative and think about old organisational problems with a new perspective while also delegating authority to the followers (Northouse, 2007; Reuvers, Van Engen, Vinkenburg, & Wilson-Evered, 2008; Pihie, Sdeghe, & Elias, 2011). While the effect of HIM is explained by other factors such as improvements in methods based on workers' suggestions, workers approaching their work flexibly, and helping each other out when problems arise (Wood et al., 2012). It can be concluded that both HIMS' and TLB-intellectual stimulation, among others, advocate for ability to solve problems. Therefore, the relationship between TLB-intellectual stimulation and HIMS is essential for enhancement of ability to solve problems in the small restaurants businesses in order to attain and sustain competitive edge.

4.2.12. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TLB- INDIVIDUALISED CONSIDERATION BEHAVIOUR AND HIMS

This section focuses on the relationship between TLB- individualised consideration behaviour and HIMS within the small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area. The objective being addressed reads:

To examine the extent to which owner-managers' individualised consideration behaviour correlate with HIM within the small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area.

Correlation and regression analysis is used to evaluate this relationship and the results are presented in the sections below.

4.2.12.1. Correlation analysis of the relationship between HIMS and TLB- individualised consideration behaviour

The results in Table 29 show that the HIMS dimensions of Recruitment (correlation=0.280, p-value=0.007) and Participation (correlation=0.223, p-value=0.033), are significantly correlated to the TLB dimension of individualised consideration Behaviour. While, training (correlation=0.066, p-value=0.532) and rewards (correlation=0.125, p-value=0.234) are not significantly correlated to the TLB dimension of Individualised Consideration. In general, two out of four HIM dimensions seem to be significantly correlated to TLB dimension of Individualised consideration, thus partially supporting objective 7. In this regard, it can be concluded that HIM is partially correlated to TLB-Individualised Consideration.

Table 29. Correlations of HIM dimensions and TLB- Individualised Consideration.

Pearson's Correlations			TLB -Individualised Consideration
High Involvement Management Strategy	Recruitment	Correlation	0.280**
		P-value	0.007
		N	92
	Training	Correlation	0.066
		P-value	0.532
		N	92
	Participation	Correlation	0.223*
		P-value	0.033
		N	92
	Rewards	Correlation	0.125
		P-value	0.234
		N	92
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).			
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).			

The regression results in Table 30 are in agreement with the correlation results of Table 29. The two dimensions of HIM, namely, Recruitment (B=0.256, t=2.763, p-value=0.007) and Participation (B=0.227, t=2.167, p-value=0.033) are all significantly impacted by the TLB dimension of Individualised Consideration Behaviour.

Table 30. Regression of HIM dimensions on TLB- Individualised consideration behaviour.

Dependent Variables	Independent variable	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	p-value	R2
		B	Std. Error	Beta			
HIM- Recruitment	(Constant)	1.940	0.268		7.239	0.000	0.078
	TLB-Individualised Consideration	0.256	0.093	0.280	2.763	0.007	
HIM- Training	(Constant)	2.745	0.368		7.459	0.000	0.004
	TLB-Individualised Consideration	0.080	0.127	0.066	0.627	0.532	
HIM- Participation	(Constant)	2.202	0.303		7.279	0.000	0.05
	TLB-Individualised Consideration	0.227	0.105	0.223	2.167	0.033	
HIM- Rewards	(Constant)	2.506	0.348		7.198	0.000	0.016
	TLB-Individualised Consideration	0.144	0.121	0.125	1.199	0.234	

The other two dimensions of HIM, that is, Training (B=0.080, t=0.627, p-value=0.532) and Rewards (B=0.144, t=1.199, p-value=0.234) are not significantly impacted by the TLB dimension of Individualised Consideration Behaviour.

With the values of $r^2=0.078$ (7.8%) for Recruitment and $r^2=0.05$ (5%) for Participation the effects of TLB dimension of Individualised Consideration on these two dimensions of HIM is to a very small extent though significant.

The findings here reveal that only two (recruitment and participation) out of four HIMS dimensions significantly correlates to TLB-individualised consideration. While the other two HIMS-dimensions (training and rewards) measured do not significantly correlate to TLB-individualised consideration. It is difficult to compare this results to the results of previous results because correlation between TLB-individualised consideration and high involvement management strategy have not heretofore investigated. However, in terms of participation (dimension of HIMS), individualised consideration is central to participative leadership which focuses on followers' personal growth and needs and are concerned with decisions affecting their work (Hautamaki, 2016). This means participative leadership and individualised consideration are two sides of the same coin. In this case, according to Miao, Newman, Schwarz, and Xu (2013), participative leaders facilitate subordinate involvement (sign of HIMS) in the decision-making process through encouragement, resource provision, support, and influence. This implies that HIMS and TLB-individualised consideration do correlate, although not all paths are statistically significant.

Displaying individualised consideration behaviour, leaders pay attention to the developmental needs of followers and support and coach the development of their followers. The leaders delegate assignments as opportunities for growth (Bass, 1999 as cited in Baethge, Rigotti, & Vincent-Hoeper, 2017). In terms of paying attention to developmental needs of employees, Maslow hierarchy of needs is subscribed to, because as reviewed in the literature section, motivation levels of employees is predominantly affected by how their needs are being met. Based on motivation, the effect of motivation on enduring involvement was found positive in the research of Beckman (2013) on the impact of motivations and enduring involvement in an adventure tourism setting. This implies that individualised leaders promote motivation that eventually enhance involvement. Therefore, this suggests that in their endeavour to promote high involvement, owner-managers of small restaurants businesses need to consider displaying individualised consideration behaviour frequently, if not always.

4.2.12. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The aim of this chapter was to present the results obtained from the data analysis and to discuss them. The results were presented in the form of tables and percentages. The strength of the relationship between variables were measured using Spearman's rho correlation coefficient and regression equations. For further analysis of these variables, a Cronbach's alpha coefficient were used to test if the variables constructed were reliable. The next chapter presents the conclusion, recommendations for practice and policy, as well recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter presented, interpreted and discussed findings of the study. The present chapter discusses whether research questions have been answered, research objectives have been achieved and whether hypotheses were rejected or accepted. Finally, the chapter presents the overall conclusion of the study based on research questions, objectives, problem statement and all hypothesised variables as well as providing recommendations based on the results.

5.2. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

To recap, the following were the research questions and findings of the study:

1. What transformational leadership behaviours are exhibited by the owner- managers of small fast-food restaurants within the Mangaung Metropolitan area? **The results indicate that four transformational leadership behaviours are exhibited though at a different degrees with inspirational motivation being the most exhibited.**
2. What HR strategies are currently being employed by owner-managers of small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan? **The results indicate that HR strategies are employed by owner-managers of small fast-food restaurants though at different degrees with high-commitment management strategy being the most observed.**
3. To what extent is the inspirational motivation behaviour of owner-managers correlated with the HCMS within small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area? **Results show that there is a correlation between HCMS and inspirational motivation behaviour, though the relationship is not so strong.**
4. What is the relationship between individualised consideration behaviour of owner-managers and HPMS within small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area? **Results show that majority of HPMS dimensions significantly correlate to individualised consideration.**

5. To what extent does idealised influence behaviour of owner-managers correlate with HPMS within small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area?

Results show that there is no significant correlation between HPMS and idealised influence behaviour.

6. Is there a correlation between the intellectual stimulation behaviour of owner-managers and HIMS within the small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area? **The results show that there is a significant correlation between HIMS and intellectual stimulation.**

7. To examine the extent to which owner-managers' individualised consideration behaviour correlate with HIMS within the small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area? **The results show that there is a correlation between HIMS and individualised consideration, though the relationship is not strong.**

5.3. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The following section gives an indication on whether or not the objectives of the study were attained:

1. To establish the transformational leadership behaviours displayed by owner-managers of small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area. **Results show that idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration behaviours are exhibited though at a different degrees with inspirational motivation being the most exhibited.**

2. To establish HR strategies employed by owner-managers of small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metro area. **The results indicate that high-performance, high-involvement and high-commitment management strategy are employed by owner-managers of small fast-food restaurants though at different degrees with high-commitment management strategy being the most observed.**

3. To determine the extent to which owner-managers' inspirational motivation behaviour correlate with HCMS within the small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area. **Results show that three dimensions of HCMS (that is; information sharing, appraisals and teamwork) significantly correlate to inspirational motivation behaviour.**

4. To assess the extent to which individualised consideration behaviour of owner-managers correlate with HPMS within the small fast food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area. **Results show that three dimensions of HPMS (i.e., training and development, recruitment and selection and participation) significantly correlate to individualised consideration.**
5. To establish the extent to which owner-managers idealised influence behaviour correlate with HPMS within the small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area. **Results show that none of the five dimensions of HPMS (i.e., training and development, recruitment and selection, performance appraisal, rewards, and participation) significantly correlate to idealised influence behaviour.**
6. To determine the extent to which owner-managers' intellectual stimulation behaviour correlate with HIMS within the small fast food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area. **The results show that five dimensions of HIMS (i.e., recruitment, rewards, training and participation significantly correlate to intellectual stimulation.**
7. To examine the extent to which owner-managers individualised consideration behaviour correlate with HIMS within the small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan area. **The results show that two dimensions of HIMS (i.e., recruitment and participation) significantly correlate to individualised consideration.**

5.4. RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis one: Owner-managers' inspirational motivation behaviour do correlate with HCMS within small fast-food restaurants.

The only HCMS dimensions that significantly correlate with owner-managers' inspirational motivation were Information Sharing (correlation=0.293, p-value=0.005), Appraisals (correlation=0.281 p-value=0.007) and Training (correlation=0.262, p-value=0.012). This means that, there is a relationship between inspirational motivation behaviour and HCMS though the relationship is not so strong.

Hypothesis two: Owner-managers' individualised consideration behaviour do correlate with HPMS within small fast-food restaurants.

Dimensions of HPMS that significantly correlate with owner-managers' individualised consideration were training and development (correlation=0.259, p-value=0.013), recruitment and selection (correlation=0.228, p-value=0.029) and participation (correlation=0.282, p-value=0.006). This means that, there is a relationship between individualised consideration behaviour and HPMS though the relationship is also not so strong.

Hypothesis three: Owner-managers' idealised influence behaviour do correlate with HPMS within small fast-food restaurants.

None of HPMS dimensions do correlate with owner-managers' idealised behaviour.

Hypothesis four: Owner-managers' intellectual stimulation behaviour do correlate with HIMS within the small fast food restaurants.

There is a strong relationship between owner-managers' and HIMS. Dimensions of HIMS that significantly correlate with owner-managers' intellectual stimulation behaviour were recruitment, rewards, training and participation (correlation=0.285, p-value=0.006, correlation=0.356, p-value=0.001, correlation=0.252, p-value=0.015 and correlation=0.330, p-value=0.001 and, respectively),

Hypothesis five: Owner-managers' individualised consideration behaviour do correlate with HIMS within the small fast-food restaurants.

The only HIMS dimensions that correlate with individualised consideration were recruitment (correlation=0.280, p-value=0.007) and participation (correlation=0.223, p-value=0.033). This means there is a relationship between HIMS and individualised consideration though the relationship is weak.

5.5. OVERALL CONCLUSION

Hospitality industry, specifically small fast-food restaurants, plays a big role in the economy of South Africa. In contributing to this role, small fast-food restaurants faces a high failure rate due to a lack of proper leadership skills among the owner-managers and as well as rigid competition from well established businesses such as

supermarkets, retail chains and convenience store. Nonetheless, the study investigated the following: 1. What transformational leadership behaviours are exhibited by the owner- managers of small fast-food restaurants within the Mangaung Metropolitan area? 2. What HR strategies are currently being employed by owner-managers of small fast-food restaurants in the Mangaung Metropolitan? 3. Relationship between transformational leadership and HR strategies particularly among the small fast-food restaurants. Based on the findings, it can be concluded that owner-managers of small fast-food restaurants in Mangaung Metro fairly often/frequently if not always employ HR strategies with high-commitment management strategy being the most observed.

It can also be concluded that owner-managers of small fast-food restaurants in Mangaung fairly often/frequently if not always display four Bass' (1985) transformational leadership behaviours with inspirational motivation being the most exhibited.

Finally, research illustrates the relationship between owner-managers' transformational leadership behaviours and HR strategies. It is concluded that there is a relationship between owner-managers' transformational leadership behaviours and HR strategies though the relationship is not so strong.

5.6. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR MANAGERS/PRACTICE

The findings of this research study embrace some recommendations for managers/practice in the restaurants industry, especially for small fast-food restaurants

The results indicate that idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration behaviours are exhibited though at a different degrees with inspirational motivation being the most exhibited. It is therefore, recommended that owner-managers be cautious of over playing inspirational and transformational leadership behaviours. Employees may begin underperforming if they start realising there is little tangible reward or punishment for performance. The inspirational messages should always be augmented by clear policy and actions by management and leadership for consistent deviation from expectation.

The results also indicate that high-performance, high-involvement and high-commitment management strategy are employed by owner-managers of small fast-food restaurants though at different degrees with high-commitment management strategy being the most observed. Therefore, due to high turnover intention in the restaurant industry, it is recommended that owner-managers give increased attention into implementing high-commitment management strategy, since individuals who are strongly committed find their identity in the organisation; they get involved in it, merges into it, and enjoy being members of the organisation it is alluded that highly committed employees (Feizi et al., 2014).

The results evident in Table 23 show that three dimensions of HCMS (i.e., information sharing, appraisals and teamwork) significantly correlate to inspirational motivation behaviour. Therefore, it is recommended that owner-managers more often/ frequently, if not always display inspirational motivation behaviour in adopting HCMS since inspirational motivation behaviour significantly correlate with HCMS dimensions.

The results in Table 25 conclude that dimensions of HPMS (i.e., training and development, recruitment and selection and participation) significantly correlate to individualised consideration. Therefore, it is recommended that owner-managers with individualised consideration leadership behaviour focus more on training and development, recruitment and selection and participation if their aim is to adopt HPMS.

The results in Table 27 show that none of the five dimensions of HPMS (i.e., training and development, recruitment and selection, performance appraisal, rewards, and participation) significantly correlate to idealised influence behaviour. It is therefore, recommended that owner-managers with idealised influence behaviour consider not adopting HPMS should they consider adopting any HR strategy, since the two variables do not correlate at all.

The results in Table 29 indicate that five dimensions of HIMS (i.e., recruitment, rewards, training and participation significantly correlate to intellectual stimulation. This relationship is strong; therefore, it is recommended that owner-managers wishing to adopt involvement strategy need to put more effort in intellectually stimulating their employees.

The results in Table 30 indicate that two dimensions of HIMS (i.e., recruitment and participation) significantly correlate to individualised consideration. This relationship is

not so strong; therefore, it is recommended that owner-managers with individualised consideration consider not taking risk of adopting HIMS if they wish to adopt any HR strategy.

5.7. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

It is recommended that researchers extend the results by asking restaurants employees to answer questionnaires to rate their owner-managers. The results can therefore, proof whether owner-managers have given out honest responses that they truly display transformational leadership behaviours.

It is recommended that investigation on what HR strategies are being employed not only be contacted on owner-managers of small fast-food restaurants, as even larger fast-food restaurants can use them.

It is recommended that other dimensions of HCMS other than career management and teamwork be used in examining the relationship between HCMS and Inspirational motivation to build a strong relationship between HCMS with the Inspirational Motivation Behaviour.

It is recommended that other dimensions of HPMS other than performance appraisals and rewards be used to ensure a strong relationship between individualised consideration and HPMS.

It is recommended that the correlation between idealised influence behaviour and HPMS be investigated in large fast-food restaurants since there is no correlation at all when investigated in small fast-food restaurants.

There is a strong relationship between intellectual stimulation and HIMS since all dimensions of HIMS (i.e., recruitment, rewards, training and participation) significantly correlate with intellectual stimulation. Therefore, it is recommended that replication of the study in other industries is necessary to verify the findings

It is recommended that other dimension of transformational leadership be used to establish a strong relationship between transformational leadership and HR strategies since only two (recruitment and participation) out of four dimensions of HIMS significantly correlate with individualised consideration resulting in to a weak relationship.

5.7. SUMMARY

This chapter outlined conclusion based on research questions, objectives and hypothesis. It further presented overall conclusion and recommendations. This study focused mainly on the correlation between owner-managers' transformational leadership behaviours and HR strategies. Although the effects of demographic variables on these variables were considered in this study, they were nevertheless, not the core focus of this investigation. Future studies could give greater emphasis on the effects of demographics on these variables.

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ANNEXTURE A

LETTER REQUESTING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT THE STUDY



Central University of
Technology, Free State

**FACULTY OF MANAGEMENT SCIENCES
RESEARCH OFFICE**

Date: 4 December 2018

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

**SUBJECT: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH FOR
THE COMPLETION OF A MASTERS DEGREE [NTLHANNGOE LEBOHANG
215091140]**

A student studying Masters in Human Resource Management at the Central University of Technology, Free State is required to carry out a practical research in an organization of his/her own choice. This allows the student to demonstrate core knowledge, skills and competencies in carrying out research before being awarded the degree.

Your organization has been identified as a place where the above mentioned student would like to carry out his research.

On behalf of the Central University of Technology, Free State, I humbly request your permission to allow this student to carry out his research in your organization.

The research is for academic purposes only and, in line with normal research practice, the information obtained will be kept as confidential as possible.

We are more than willing to share with you the results of the findings.

Your help will be highly appreciated.

If there is anything you need further, do not hesitate to contact the undersigned.

Yours Sincerely



Professor. C. Chipunza
[Assistant Dean: Research, Innovation and Engagement]

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ANNEXTURE B

COVER LETTER

My name is Lebohang Ntlhanngoe, a Masters' student at the Central University of Technology, Free State. I am carrying out a study on how leadership behaviours have an influence on human resources strategies within small fast-food restaurants in Mangaung Metropolitan Municipality, Free State, South Africa.

The data collected will help small restaurant businesses in the hospitality industry to survive and have longevity by examining owner-managers' leadership behaviours and how these can be used to make choices of human resources strategies.

I, therefore, hereby request that you kindly take a few minutes of your time to complete the attached questionnaire. It will take you about 40-50 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Please respond to all items. Any information that is obtained from this study will remain confidential.

For further clarity, please contact my supervisor, Professor C Chipunza, on: 0611387325; Email: cchipunza@cut.ac.za or myself on: 0622062709; Email: ntlha@hotmail.com

Thank you in advance.

Mr. L. Ntlhanngoe

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE

This section seeks to collect information on the demographic characteristics of the respondents, for statistical purposes only. For each item, indicate your responses by marking the relevant option with an “X” in the boxes provided

1. Please indicate your age group

1	20 years or under
2	20-25 years
3	25-30 years
4	30-35 years
5	35-40 years
6	40 years or over

2. Please indicate your racial group

1	Black
2	White
3	Indian
4	Coloured
5	Other

If other, please specify your racial group:

3. Please indicate your gender

1	Female
2	Male

4. Please indicate your position at work

1	Owner
2	Manager

5. How long have you been working for this organisation?

1	Less than one year
2	1 to 2 years
3	3 to 4 years
4	5 to 6 years
5	7 years or more

Please continue to next page

SECTION B: TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS

Below are listed statements that describe different leadership behaviours. Please judge how frequently each statement fits your own leadership behaviour by marking “X” in the appropriate box:

IDEALISED INFLUENCE

B1		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
B1.1	Instilling pride in employees for being associated with me	0	1	2	3	4
B1.2	Going beyond self-interest for the good of the group.	0	1	2	3	4
B1.3	Acting in ways that build employee’s respect for me.	0	1	2	3	4
B1.4	Emphasising the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	0	1	2	3	4
B1.5	Talking about my most important values and beliefs.	0	1	2	3	4
B1.6	Considering the moral and ethical consequences of decision.	0	1	2	3	4
B1.7	Displaying a sense of power and confidence.	0	1	2	3	4

INSPIRATIONAL MOTIVATION

B2		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
B2.1	Talking optimistically about the future.	0	1	2	3	4
B2.2	Expressing with a few simple words what I could and should do.	0	1	2	3	4
B2.3	Helping employees find meaning in their work.	0	1	2	3	4
B2.4	Talking enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	0	1	2	3	4
B2.5	Articulating a compelling vision for the future.	0	1	2	3	4
B3.6	Expressing confidence that goals will be achieved.	0	1	2	3	4

Please continue to next page

INTELLECTUAL STIMULATION

B3		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
B3.1	Seeking differing perspectives when solving problems.	0	1	2	3	4
B3.2	Enabling employees to think about old problems in new ways.	0	1	2	3	4
B3.3	Providing employees with new ways of looking at puzzling things.	0	1	2	3	4
B3.4	Suggesting new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.	0	1	2	3	4
B3.5	Encouraging employees to look at problems from many different angles.	0	1	2	3	4
B3.6	Encouraging innovative problem solving.	0	1	2	3	4
B3.7	Encouraging brainstorming with employees to solve problems.	0	1	2	3	4

INDIVIDUALISED CONSIDERATION

B4		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
B4.1	Spending time teaching and coaching.	0	1	2	3	4
B4.2	Giving employees personal attention.	0	1	2	3	4
B4.3	Helping employees to develop their strengths.	0	1	2	3	4
B4.4	Considering employee as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others	0	1	2	3	4
B4.5	Treating employee as an individual rather than just as a member of a group.	0	1	2	3	4

Please continue to next page

SECTION C: HUMAN RESOURCES STRATEGIES

Below are statements that describe some different human resources strategies that are used by managers. Please judge how frequently you use each of these strategies by marking an appropriate answer with an “X”

HIGH PERFORMANCE MANAGEMENT STRATEGY

Training and development
Recruitment and selection
Performance appraisal

		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
C1						
C1.1A	Providing restaurant server training program to employees.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.2A	Giving general training to employees.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.3A	Providing sales training program to employees.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.4A	Providing marketing training program to employees.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.5A	Providing job rotation to the employees.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.6A	Providing employees’ on-the-job training.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.7A	Financially investing in training for employees.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.1B	Using the capability to communicate effectively as a recruitment criterion.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.2B	Using interview for selection processes.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.3B	Using the skill-orientation as a recruitment criterion.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.4B	Using tests for selection processes.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.5B	Matching candidates to firm strategy	0	1	2	3	4
C1.6B	Encouraging external recruitment sources rather than internal recruitment sources.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.7B	Considering previous experience as an important hiring criterion.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.1C	Conducting performance appraisal as a promotion strategy for good performers.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.2C	Conducting performance appraisal activities once in a year.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.3C	Conducting performance appraisal activities quarterly.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.4C	Conducting performance appraisal activities annually.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.5C	Conducting performance appraisal to promote good performers	0	1	2	3	4
C1.6C	Providing employees feedback for personal development through performance appraisals.	0	1	2	3	4

Rewards

		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
C1.1D	Providing employees monetary rewards for their good performance.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.2D	Providing employees non-monetary rewards for their good performance.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.3D	Ensuring that employees' compensation packages are performance oriented.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.4D	Ensuring that compensation is skill based.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.5D	Rewarding employees on individual performance in satisfying customers.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.1E	Asking employees for opinions in advance if a decision made might affect them.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.2E	Asking employees to participate in work-related decisions.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.3E	Providing employees with the opportunity to suggest improvements in service processes.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.4E	Developing a problem-solving team within a restaurant.	0	1	2	3	4
C1.5E	Developing a formal work team within a restaurant	0	1	2	3	4

Participation

Please continue to next page

HIGH INVOLVEMENT MANAGEMENT STRATEGY

		Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently if not always
Recruitment	C2					
	C2.1A	0	1	2	3	4
	C2.2A	0	1	2	3	4
	C2.3A	0	1	2	3	4
Training	C2.4A	0	1	2	3	4
	C2.1B	0	1	2	3	4
	C2.2B	0	1	2	3	4
Participation	C2.3B	0	1	2	3	4
	C2.1C	0	1	2	3	4
	C2.2C	0	1	2	3	4
	C2.3C	0	1	2	3	4
	C2.4C	0	1	2	3	4
Rewards	C2.5C	0	1	2	3	4
	C2.1D	0	1	2	3	4
	C2.2D	0	1	2	3	4
	C2.3D	0	1	2	3	4
	C2.4D	0	1	2	3	4

Please continue to next page

HIGH COMMITMENT MANAGEMENT STRATEGY

		Not at all	Once in while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, If not always	
Information sharing	C3						
	C3.1A	Keeping employees informed about how well a restaurant is doing.	0	1	2	3	4
	C3.2A	Communicating organisation policies clearly to employees.	0	1	2	3	4
	C3.3A	Giving notice to employees prior to making changes in policies.	0	1	2	3	4
	C3.4A	Making effort to get the opinions of people who work in this organisation.	0	1	2	3	4
Career management	C3.5A	Keeping employees informed about changes that might affect their job.	0	1	2	3	4
	C3.1B	Providing employees with the opportunity to achieve their career goals.	0	1	2	3	4
	C3.2B	Providing employees with opportunity for advancement in their organisation.	0	1	2	3	4
	C3.3B	Trying to fill vacancies from within the organisation.	0	1	2	3	4
	C3.4B	Providing employees opportunity to improve their skills in the organisation.	0	1	2	3	4
Appraisals	C3.1C	Providing appraisal of team performance.	0	1	2	3	4
	C3.2C	Using performance appraisals to plan employees' skills development.	0	1	2	3	4
	C3.3C	Using performance appraisals to plan training for future advancement within the organisation.	0	1	2	3	4
	C3.4C	Providing employees' Feedback on appraisals for development purposes.	0	1	2	3	4
Training	C3.1D	Using job rotation to expand the skills of employees	0	1	2	3	4
	C3.2D	Providing training that is focused on team-building	0	1	2	3	4
	C3.3D	Providing training that is focused on team-work skills	0	1	2	3	4
	C3.4D	Offering orientation programme to train employees on the processes of the organisation.	0	1	2	3	4
	C3.5D	Using mentoring system to help the employees develop.	0	1	2	3	4
Teamwork	C3.1E	Emphasising teamwork in the organisation.					
	C3.2E	Organising work so that employees work in teams.					
	C3.3E	Training employees to work in teams in this organisation.					

Thank you for completing the questionnaire