

**TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP IN THE PUBLIC SECTOR:  
INTEGRATING PUBLIC VALUES**

**BY**

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## ABSTRACT

Agreement exists that leadership studies should give increased attention to the application of generic leadership in specific contexts. In the public sector, a specific need exists to examine the effect of public values on the content and effectiveness of leadership. This study adds to the public administration literature by, principally, developing a transactional leadership (TL) substyle that incorporates public values (PV). This thesis calls this substyle “Public Values-focused Transactional Leadership” (PVTL).

Three main study questions are addressed: (1) *What is the impact of Transactional Leadership on the Organisational Commitment (OC) of public employees?* (2) *What is the impact of Public Values on Organisational Commitment?* (3) *What is the impact of Public Values-focused Transactional Leadership on the Organisational Commitment?*

This study uses a multiphase mixed-method design and data gathered from 25 interviews and a dyadic survey of 499 employees and 78 supervisors across 27 public agencies in Vietnam. Empirical results show positive, direct impacts of TL, PV and PVTL on OC. It also finds indirect impacts of PVTL on OC through psychological contracts, and a mediation effect of a participatory style on the relationship between PVTL and OC. Hence, support is provided for the relationships of the above study questions. PVTL is discussed as a new, useful construct for public sector leadership studies and as holding promise for improving public sector management.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AC	Affective Commitment
AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structure
AVE	Average Variance Extracted
CC	Continuous Commitment
CFA	Confirmatory factor analysis
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
CLF	Common latent factor(s)
CMB	Common Method Biases
CPV	The Communist Party of Vietnam
CR	Contingent Reward
<u>CR</u>	Composite Reliability
CRT	Contingent Reward Transactional leadership
DPADM	Division for Public Administration and Development Management
EFA	Exploratory factor analysis
FRL	Full-Range Leadership
GFI	Goodness of Fit Index
HR	Human Resource
IEC	Information, Education, and Communication
IC:	Individualised consideration
LMX	Leader-Member Exchange
MBE	Managemen-By-Exception
MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
NC	Normative Commitment
OC	Organisational Commitment
OCB	Organisational Citizenship Behaviour
PA	Public Administration
PC	Psychological Contract
PCLOSE	<i>p</i> of Close Fit
PSI	Participatory Style of Interaction
PSM	Public Service Motivation
PSV	Public Service Values
PV	Public Values
PVTL	Public Values-focused Transactional Leadership
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
TF	Transformational Leadership
TL	Transactional Leadership
TS	Task Significance
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
US	United States

## **CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1. Research needs**

The importance and impact of leadership styles on organisational outcomes and employee behaviours is well established in public administration research (see Wright & Pandey, 2010; Vigoda-Gadot & Beerli, 2012; Bellé, 2013; Moynihan et al., 2012; Pandey, Davis, Pandey, & Peng, 2016; Van Wart, 2013; Sun & Henderson, 2016). While much research involves the impact of generic leadership styles, there is a growing interest in subtypes of leadership that address specific issues, and which are suitable for specific settings (Rowold, 2014; Anderson & Sun, 2017). Examples of such substyles include e-leadership, ethical leadership (see Eisenberg, 2012; Meyer et al., 2012), strategic leadership, and instrumental leadership (see Antonakis & House, 2014).

There is also a need to develop subtypes of generic leadership styles tailored for public administration (PA), such as leadership that may increase, inspire or sustain motivation for public service (for example, see Goodwin, Wofford & Whittington, 2001). Specifically, although generic leadership styles perform and make valuable contributions in public administration (PA), they sometimes do not include important roles of public leaders, nor are they always effective in this specific context (Spicker, 2012; Tummers & Knies, 2016; Van Wart, 2013). Indeed, “public leadership ought to be considered distinct from general leadership studies” (Getha-Taylor et al., 2011, p.8).

Because of these needs, scholars assert that leaders should choose behaviours that best suit them (Rowold, 2014; Spicker as cited in Ospina, 2016; Tummers & Knies, 2016; Northouse as cited in Anderson & Sun, 2017). That is, instead of just using a generic style, public leaders can adopt specific behaviours to form substyles that are most suitable and useful for them in addressing specific issues in the specific context of the public sector.

The public sector is a specific context with unique characteristics such as public values and distinctive needs of public employees (Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007; Van Wart, 2013, Getha-Taylor et al., 2011). Therefore, public leadership

research needs to focus on specific characteristics of the public sector (Crosby & Bryson, 2018). Specifically, researchers need to pay attention to public values because they are distinctive features of public leadership (Getha-Taylor et al., 2011). In a similar vein, it is critical to underscore the role of public managers because they have the responsibility and potential to be an active actor who advance and direct public values (Dennis, Langley & Rouleau, 2007; Ospina, 2016).

Although studies in the past investigated some public sector aspects such as specific roles of public leaders (Tummers & Knies, 2016), integrated leadership for the public sector (Fernandez, Cho, & Perry, 2010), normative public values (Pandey et al., 2016), many knowledge gaps exist. One concern is that they emphasise “leadership” over “public” (Vogel & Masal, 2015). Insufficient public aspects in public leadership research make it hard to address the specific context of the public sector (Bryson & Crosby, 2018). A consensus exists that more research is needed on public sector leadership that can address public sector characteristics.

Another concern is the lack of scholarly attention to transactional leadership (TL) (Dinh et al., 2014; Podsakoff et al., 2010), even though TL is a cornerstone in leadership theories and an overarching practice in the public sector (Bass, 1997; Burns, 1978; Bass & Bass, 2008; Van Wart, 2013). This lack may be due to the appeal of transformational leadership research in the public sector (Podsakoff et al., 2010), especially when it comes to linking public leadership with public values (see Moynihan, Pandey & Wright, 2014; Pandey et al., 2016; Wright, Moynihan & Pandey, 2012). This shortage leads to another knowledge gap, namely, that little is known about how public leaders address public values in their exchange relationship with public employees.

These gaps need to be addressed because we need to know more ways to help leadership better match the setting in which it operates for better outcomes. We also need to further our understanding of transactional leadership in the public sector because it has potential that has not been examined. It is particularly critical to augment TL because it is widely used in the public sector and its influence

matters to the performance of public employees and organisations. Also, we need to know about leadership practices that can address public values, apart from using values-based leadership because values-based leadership is not always available and may be unsuitable among people of unaligned values. This knowledge is helpful for public managers in their daily routine managerial tasks, especially in using public values to maintain public employees' commitment to their organisations.

For these reasons, developing a TL substyle related to PV and investigating its influence makes a meaningful contribution. First, by linking TL with PV, this study responds to calls for increasing "public" elements in public leadership theorising and research (Vogel & Masal, 2015, p.1179; Crosby & Bryson, 2018; Getha-Taylor et al., 2011). Second, it helps redress the imbalance between transformational leadership and the under-researched transactional leadership in the public sector.

In a parallel vein, this study furthers the understanding of public values by exploring their relevance at the job level. Previous studies investigated public values at sector level (as such discussed in Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007), at the organisational level (organisational values, as in Van der Wal, De Graaf & Lasthuizen, 2008), or the individual level (personal values, such in Witesman & Walters, 2014). Nevertheless, how they are embedded in daily supervisor-subordinate job-related interactions are unknown.

This study examines the effects of transactional leadership (TL) and public values (PV) on organisational commitment (OC) in the public sector. TL is the exchange relationship between leaders and subordinates (Bass, 1997). Public values are parts of public work and reflect the public organisation's contribution to society. Organisational commitment is chosen as the dependent variable because it is a critical organisational outcome and associated with many positive behaviours of employees (e.g., performance, productivity and leadership effectiveness (Meyer & Allen, 1997; O'Reiley & Chatman, 1982; Cohen as cited in Maneje, 2009; Mathieu & Zajac, 1999)).

Also, this study investigates Public Values (PV) as a predictor of OC and as a moderator in the relationship between TL and OC. The reason for investigating the moderation effect is the inconsistency in findings of previous studies on this relationship (e.g., Chen, 2002; Afshari & Gibson, 2016; Baladez, 2014; Grage & Ramijee, 2013). Such an inconsistency suggests that this relationship needs to be re-examined (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In the context of public organisations, adding the effect of public values may strengthen this relationship.

Importantly, this study proposes Public Values-focused Transactional Leadership (PVTTL) as a substyle of TL that incorporates PV in the transaction. It develops this substyle and examines its direct effect on OC. Furthermore, it also explores PVTTL indirect effects on OC through two communication factors: one is a communication style that motivates employee participation in communication (named Participatory Style of Interaction (PSI)), and the other is psychological contracts (PC). Because leadership needs communication (Hackman & Johnson, 2013), it is reasonable to predict that supervisors can use PSI as a channel to exercise their influence on the commitment of employees. A psychological contract is an informal agreement between a supervisor and an employee about issues related to their work relationships (Berman & West, 2003). Past research has found that both PSI and PC influence the leader - employee relationship (see Mayfield & Mayfield, 2009; Mayfield et al., 1998; Gutierrez-Wirsching et al., 2015; Finnegan, 2000).

The following section provides more details on the problems that motivate this study.

## **1.2. Statement of the problem**

Promoting public values among public employees is a critical responsibility of public managers (Pandey et al., 2016). Attention to public values matters because those values represent the characteristics and purposes of the public sector (Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007; Bryson & Crosby, 2018). However, public values can be difficult to understand because they are abstract, even ambiguous (Bozeman & Su, 2015). Therefore, scholars and practitioners are both interested



in how to communicate public values with public employees in ways that make them realise the purposes of the public sector (Bryson & Crosby, 2018).

Line managers/supervisors can help public employees understand public values because they have information about values such as organisational missions and the environment in which their organisations operate (Robson & Tourish as cited in Van Vuuren, Jong, & Seydel, 2007). Line managers can also include public values in various routine job tasks, such as ensuring employees have necessary resources, including the provision of direction, training, support, and opportunities to participate (Van Wart, 2013). Nevertheless, although line managers and direct supervisors have important roles in promoting public values in order to motivate employees, this does not always happen in reality (Ospina, 2016; Pandey et al., 2016; Wright et al., 2012).

Regretfully, in practice, the situation is not always favourable for public managers to do these things. The resources available for them to use are very limited (Rainey & Bozeman, 2000), and they do not receive sufficient training themselves because of financial and time constraints (Bower, 1999). Therefore, it is difficult for them to use tangible rewards to motivate employees, and they may not know about or have proper skills to use alternative methods in motivating public employees. This situation may lead to a decreased level of commitment of employees because they do not see the meaning or the self-affirmation in public work (Rainey & Steinbauer, Weiss & Piderit as cited in Wright, Moynihan & Pandey (2012)). In short, the lack of resources and capability of public managers in addressing public values can affect their influence on employee commitment.

These concerns may exist in many countries, but in Vietnam, they are particularly salient. In Vietnam, the need for public managers to promote public values, thereby influencing public servants, is emerging in the new, modern, reform-oriented context. Public managers in Vietnam, as elsewhere, face many challenges in helping public servants to understand public values. This study underlines three prominent challenges, including the requirements related to historical, institutional values (the role of the Communist Party of Vietnam), the need of public employees to understand public values in the time of profound

changes, and the capacity of public managers. Vietnam is, therefore, a useful study site to understand the use of public values in public organisational leadership.

The first issue is the requirement concerning public values that the Communist Party of Vietnam (CPV) expects public servants to fulfill. The CPV is constituted as the leading force of the State and society and is acting upon the Marxist-Leninist doctrine and Ho Chi Minh's thought (The National Assembly of Vietnam, 2013). It promotes values that match these philosophical foundations and introduces those values through laws and regulations. Although there is some cross-over between those values and the public values mentioned by scholars (such as contribution to society and political loyalty), the main focus is on conforming with Communist ideology and placing loyalty to the party, rather than placing citizens first (e.g. underscored by Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007). For example, in Vietnam public servants, especially those who are in key managerial positions, are required to be "*vừa hồng vừa chuyên*" ("red and expert", which means strongly communist-oriented and loyal to the Communist Party and professionally excellent (Painter et al., 2009). A person who works in the public sector may not be fully viewed as a public servant of the socialist administration system until he/she is '*hồng*' (i.e. to join the Party and follow their guidance and order during his/her time of service) (Nguyen, 2016). Its rules apply to non-party members too. While ideology education is compulsory for public employees, a general code of conduct for public servants/employees is absent. This fact implies that in the Vietnamese administration hierarchy is emphasized over citizenship and political values is prioritised.

The second concern is the public employees need to understand new public values in a time of profound change. Vietnam is undergoing significant transitions and reforms, such as the shift to a job-based system to replace the career-based system and the downsizing of the public workforce. During this time of change, public employees are confused and sometimes doubtful (Nguyen & Pham, 2014). Therefore, their need for explanations of new values has become urgent and requires new leadership and day to day supervisory practices. Supervisors and managers must provide subordinates with clear communication and interpretation

of public values in practical and genuine ways rather than abstract slogans and speeches.

The third concern is the role and capability of line managers in communicating and interacting with public employees about work. The top-down approach of the CPV means that managers are marginalised from giving the meaning of the public service to employees. In public organisations, public managers do not participate much in activities related to public values information, education and communication (IEC). These tasks are conducted by internal organisational party committees (which, by law, exist in all hierarchical levels of all public organisations (Painter et al., 2009). Externally, ideology courses are conducted by the Party's schools. Also, criticism exists that current leaders lack communication skills (Tuong Lai, 2008). Communication skills are crucial for interpreting and transferring values-related matters. Hence, there is a need to provide them with tools and skills that help them to improve the quality of communication, thereby, positively influencing their subordinates.

Additionally, previous studies about Vietnam point to several problems. In particular, transactional leadership is widely applied but not always effective (Pham, 2018; Nguyen, 2019). There are high turnover rates and intentions to leave (Henderson & Tulloch, 2008; Dieleman et al as cited in Ho, Le, Dinh & Vu, 2016; Bahuet, 2008; Bui & Chang, 2018). These problems may be due to the issues of public manager capability in supporting employees and satisfying their needs in the time of change.

In sum, the above problems make the public sector of Vietnam a relevant setting to investigate transactional leadership and its impact on public employees' commitment. It is a relevant case for examining how public managers foster the use of public values to make their influence on public employees.

### **1.3. Research questions and objectives**

The primary objective of this study is to examine the relationships between leadership styles, public values and organisational commitment. This study addresses the following research questions:

***Question 1:** What is the impact of transactional leadership on the organisational commitment of public employees?*

***Question 2:** What is the impact of public values on the organisational commitment of public employees?*

***Question 3:** What is the impact of a transactional leadership substyle that incorporates public values on the organisational commitment of public employees?*

This study also aims at identifying transactional leadership behaviours that can be integrated with public values. Besides, it investigates two potential communication channels through which the proposed transactional leadership substyle (PVTL) exercises its influence on public employees' commitment.

#### **1.4. Definition of key terms**

The key terms used in this study are defined as follows:

- Transactional Leadership (TL): Transactional Leadership is the exchange relationship between leaders and subordinates that aims to satisfy their self-interests (Based on Bass, 1997).
- Public Values (PV): "Public Values" is a characteristic of work in public organisations, that reflect the trait of public organisations as institutions that are established to serve the public. (Based on Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007; Van Wart, 1998; Van der Wal et al., 2008; Berman & West, 2013) that resides in public work.
- Public Values-focused Transactional Leadership (PVTL): Public values-focused Transactional leadership is the exchange relationship between leaders and subordinates in public organisations based on their mutual understanding of public values in public work.
- Organisational Commitment (OC): Organisational commitment is the psychological attachment people have toward their organisations that

reflects the degree to which they internalise or adopt values/characteristics of their organisation (Based on O'Reilly & Chatman as cited in Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001).

- Participatory Style of Interaction (PSI): Participatory style of interaction is the manner of communication aimed at having employees take part in the exchange between supervisors and employees (Based on Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958; Richmond & McCroskey, 1999, and Eisenbergh & Smidt, 1971).
- Psychological Contract (PC): A psychological contract is an unwritten (informal) agreement between an employee and his or her immediate superior about their expectations and contributions. (Berman & West, 2003; Berman et al. 2013).

In-depth discussions on these terms are presented in Chapter 4.

## **1.5. Methodology**

This pragmatic study develops a conceptual research framework using evidence from literature and practice. The study uses a multiphase mixed methods design, with interviews preceding quantitative surveys, and follow-up interviews for explication. Data are collected through a dyadic survey of employees and managers from 27 public organisations and 25 semi-structured interviews with public managers, public employees, and scholars, conducted in Vietnam in 2018.

## **1.6. Significance of the study**

### ***1.6.1. Theoretical contributions***

This study contributes to the knowledge base of public administration and public leadership. It develops and empirically examines a substyle of transactional leadership that integrates public values. It identifies distinct behaviours that capture more of the publicness of transactional leadership in public organisations. By doing so, it responds to the calls urging scholars to bring public values in leadership theorising and research (Crosby & Bryson, 2018) and focusing on

public elements, especially for studies that apply behavioural approaches (Vogel & Masal, 2015). Also, it draws more attention to transactional leadership by highlighting and testing the ability of TL to conduct intangible values transactions. This contribution is meaningful because there is a dearth of empirical research on this ability, although it has been a subject of theoretical discussions (see Bass, 1998; Walumbwa et al., 2008). This research, therefore, contributes to mitigating the lack of research on TL in PA and public leadership.

Additionally, this furthers the understanding of public values in work-specific contexts, hence, providing specificity in ways that public values are clarified and realised. In this way, it helps to reduce the ambiguity of public values associated with public organisations (as mentioned by Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007). Moreover, it enriches the knowledge of various channels through which leadership can be enabled by empirically examining leadership's indirect effects.

### ***1.6.2. Practical implications***

This study is useful for both top leaders and middle managers in public organisations. First, it helps to raise their awareness of the critical role of managers in advancing public values. Public values communication is the responsibility of not only top leaders but also of supervisors and managers who interact with public employees in daily routine.

Second, it provides another option for public leaders to choose from in addressing public values: in addition to values-based leadership styles, they can apply the public values-focused transactional leadership (PVTTL) to facilitate public servants in doing public work. That is, they clarify the meaning of public work to public employees and use rewards and discipline to encourage daily performances towards public goals.

Findings of the study can be used to design training programs to improve leaders and managers' awareness and skills in furthering public values. This study also suggests communication tools (such as psychological contracts and participatory styles of interaction) that public managers can use to increase their influence on their subordinates.

### **1.7. Limitations of the study**

The limitations of this study are mainly due to its research methods. First, empirically, this study only examines the public sector of Vietnam. While the sample includes respondents from a broad range of public organisation and is appropriate for study purposes, it may not be generalisable to all of Vietnam as the sampling method uses purposive sampling and snowball sampling.

Second, the systematic data are from a cross-sectional survey, hence, empirical support for the study relationships show associations, only, rather than causality. Also, the survey data are from both the same source and dyadic data but, due to the difficulty in getting supervisors to rate individual employees, only supervisory ratings of workgroups are available. This may increase errors by failing to conclude that significant relationships exist (Type II error). As surveys are limited in size, we cannot include some control variables that other studies have found relevant.

Third, the study is limited by studying only selected aspects of broad concepts. This study develops a new study measure that would benefit from further triangulation and measurement in other contexts. This study was conducted in a country with distinctive characteristics (communist-party run centralised administration) that, while not necessarily central to this study's main concepts and mechanisms, may nonetheless affect study conclusions.

### **1.8. Thesis outline**

This thesis includes the following chapters:

#### *Chapter 2: Background*

This chapter provides necessary information about the country and the public sector context in which this study is based. The focus of the chapter is on the characteristics of the leadership practice in public organisations, the issues of values, and the turnover problems.

### *Chapter 3 Literature review*

This chapter reviews and synthesises several bodies of literature, including generic transactional leadership, public values, organisational commitment, supervisory communication, and the psychological contract. The review is to understand the foundation of knowledge of transactional leadership in the public sector and public values and to locate this study in this foundation. Based on the reviews, this study provides the definitions of the main study concepts. Notably, it conceptualises Public Values in public work and Public Values-focused Transactional Leadership.

### *Chapter 4 Conceptual framework*

This chapter presents a conceptual framework of the main variables and develops hypotheses regarding the relationship among those variables. It is grounded on the theories of transactional leadership, public values, the psychological contract, and supervisory communications with particular attention to the public sector context.

### *Chapter 5 Research design and methodology*

This chapter presents the research paradigm on which this study is based and the rationale for the selection of the paradigm. It then explains the selection of the methodology, including research approach and the methods of collecting, analysing and integrating data. This chapter also describes the methods that this research uses to establish research quality. Ethical considerations are also addressed in this chapter.

### *Chapter 6 Data analysis and results*

This chapter starts with presenting the statistical procedures used to analyse quantitative data. It reports the results of validity and reliability testing and hypothesis testing. It then quantifies the results using thematic analysis.



## *Chapter 7 Discussion and conclusion*

This chapter discusses the main findings from the survey concerning interviews results. Based on the findings, it underlines the contributions to the theory as well as implications for practitioners and scholars. It addresses the limitations and then finishes by making suggestions for future research.

## **CHAPTER 2. BACKGROUND**

### **Introduction**

This chapter outlines the Vietnamese public sector context of the study. It briefly describes the current leadership practices in Vietnam's public organisations, points out the transactional leadership features of this practice and the shortcomings in public managers' competency. Second, it discusses the public values issues in the Vietnamese public organisations, including the challenges brought about by the public administration reforms, the Communist Party of Vietnam as a source of public values, and the problems of public values communication. Section 2.3 addresses the problems of commitment in the public sector of Vietnam. Evidence is drawn from research, the media, and government documents for illustration. These features of high levels of transactional leadership, low use of public values, and varying commitment make Vietnam well-suited for this study.

### **2.1. The Public Administration of Vietnam**

#### ***2.1.1. Basic background***

The Socialist Republic of Vietnam is a single-party rule country under the Communist Party of Vietnam (CPV). The governmental system structure consists of the Legislative branch, the Judiciary branch, and the Executive branch. The National Assembly is the national supreme organ and the only body with constitutional and legislative power (Division for Public Administration and Development Management (DPADM) (2004). The Supreme Court, the local People's Courts, and the military tribunals are judicial organs. The Government is the executive organ of the National Assembly and is the highest organ of state administration of the nation (DPADM, 2004).

Local Government is designed as a three-level structure including provincial, district, and communes. All levels follow the same format, which consists of one representative body (People's Council) and one executive body (People's Committee) (DPADM, 2004). The People's Council is elected by local

residents. The Council then selects the president and vice-presidents of the People's Committee. Notably, candidates for the people's committee often need the nomination of the Vietnamese Fatherland Front<sup>1</sup> and approval from a higher administrative unit. The local people's council is not the local legislative organ. The people's committee is mandated with both budgetary and administrative responsibility. The provincial and local departments have to report to local governments and the central ministries.

The public organisation system of Vietnam consists of various classifications. The main three branches include Legislative organisations (the National Assembly, the local representative organs); Administrative organisations (the Government, local governments); Juridical organisations (The Supreme Court, local courts).

Apart from these, the following organisations are also considered public because they are established by an authorised organisation of the Party or the State, receive public funds to perform, and perform within the practice governed by laws on public organisations: The Communist Party's agencies; political-socio organisation; The Army agencies and units; The Police offices and units; public non-business organisations (service delivery organisations); and the state-run enterprises.

The public personnel system in Vietnam is very complex. People who serve in the public sector are divided into different categories based on various criteria such as the methods of selection; the term of service, and the type of organisations in which they work. Main classifications include cadres (cán bộ), civil servants (công chức), and public professionals (viên chức)<sup>2</sup>. These categories

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<sup>1</sup> The Vietnamese Fatherland Front is a political-based pro-government organisation that amalgamates many other political-based and community-based organisations to implement the policy and direction of the CPV and the Government of Vietnam.

<sup>2</sup> "*Cadres* are Vietnamese citizens who are elected, approved and appointed to hold posts or titles for a given term of office in agencies of the Communist Party of Vietnam, the State, socio-political organisations at the central level, in provinces and centrally-run cities (below collectively referred to as provincial level), in districts, towns and provincial cities (below collectively referred to as district level), included in the payrolls and salaried from the state budget.

are important to employees because they are associated with the particular law by which a public worker is governed and the rights and responsibilities applied to him/her, including issues such as pay, appraisal, promotions. Because these issues are fundamental to workers, they might affect their commitment behaviours to the public sector.

### **2.1.2. Current situation**

The current situation of Vietnam can be characterised by public sector reform and transition. One of the most significant reform efforts was the Master Program on Public Administration Reform launched in 2001 as an imperative to tackle the long-standing weaknesses of the administration, such as redundancy, severe red tape, low competence of civil servants, and low effectiveness of government organisations (Vu, 2018; Ngo, 2013). The PA Reform has ambitious goals. It aims at building a democratic, clean, strong, professional, modern, effective and efficient PA system which operates in line with the principle of the socialist state ruled-by-law under the leadership of the CPV. Another goal is to ensure public cadres and civil servants will have appropriate skills and ethical qualities to respond to the requirements of the cause of national building and development (The Government of Vietnam, 2001). The critical pillars of reform include

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*Civil servants are Vietnamese citizens who are recruited and appointed to ranks, posts or titles in agencies of the Communist Party of Vietnam, the State, socio-political organisations at the central, provincial and district levels; in People's Army agencies and units, other than officers, professional military personnel and defense workers; in People's Police offices and units other than officers and professional non-commissioned officers, and in the leading and managerial apparatuses of public non-business units of the Communist Party of Vietnam, the State and socio-political organisations (below collectively referred to as public non-business units), included in the payrolls and salaried from the state budget; for civil servants in the leading and managerial apparatuses of public non-business units, they are salaried from the salary funds of these units according to law.*

*Cadres of communes, wards and townships (below collectively referred to as commune level) are Vietnamese citizens who are elected to hold posts for a given term of office in People's Council standing bodies and People's Committees, as Party secretaries and deputy secretaries, and as heads of socio-political organisations. Commune-level civil servants are Vietnamese citizens who are recruited to hold specialised titles in commune-level People's Committees, included in the payrolls and salaried from the state budget." (The Law on Cadres and Civil Servants, 2003).*

*Public employees are Vietnamese citizens recruited according to working positions, working in public non-business units under working contracts and salaried from salary funds of public non-business units in accordance with law." (The Law on Public Employees, 2008)*

institutional reform, organisational structure reforms, civil servant competence improvement, public finance reform, and public administration modernisation (The Government of Vietnam, 2001, 2011).

Public administration reform has brought about profound change in the administration system including a more visible separation between the function of political party and the administrative body which results in more authority for the latter in management (Vu, 2018; Ngo, 2013) and a better-structured apparatus system with less redundancy and less duplication in terms of functions and tasks (Vu, 2018; Ngo, 2013). Moreover, new human resource practices are piloted and then utilised to improve the quality of the staff pool (Ngo, 2013). For example, new policies and methods of recruitment in which competitive examination is applied, and basic training for all cadres and civil servants, become more common practices to support the country's effort in transitioning from a career-based system to a more job-based oriented system (Poon, Nguyen & Do, 2009). In a broader context, PA reform significantly contributes to key socio-economical aspects such as economic reforms, the democratisation of the society, integration with the world, and consolidation of political stability (Ngo, 2013). Also, it contributes to Vietnam's success in becoming a mid-income country that is more actively integrated internationally.

However, critics suggest that public administrative reform is inconsistent and slow to progress in institutional reform, organisational structure reform, and public personnel reform (Poon et al., 2009; Ngo, 2013). Consequently, success is fragmental and problems remain: the institutional system is incomprehensive; the ministerial apparatus system is inadequate quantitatively; along with an improper salary system, training, and right-sizing (Ngo, 2013). The approach for job analysis and job description is top-down and normative (Bruynoghee et al., 2009), and therefore, fails to make progress in shifting to a more job-based oriented system.

To conclude, Vietnam has undertaken significant changes during its administrative reform and transition from a centralisation-oriented economy to a socialist-oriented market economy with rapid economic growth (Poon, Nguyen,

Do, 2009). Although the country has obtained significant achievements, the public administration is still struggling with various problems in leadership practice as well as with public personnel. The following section further discusses these problems.

## **2.2. Public leadership, public values and organisational commitment in the public sector of Vietnam**

### ***2.2.1. Public leadership issues***

Leadership practice in public organisations of Vietnam is a topic of interest for both scholars and practitioners. Among a wide array of issues related to this topic, this study emphasises two main points: (i) the presence of transactional leadership in public organisations and, (ii) the capacity of line-managers in public organisations. Past empirical findings show that transactional leadership is a common practice in the public sector of Vietnam, and the competency of line managers is a concern. Because of this concern, it is challenging for them to communicate public values to their subordinates.

Despite the perception that autocratic leadership is the dominant style in developing countries (Dao & Han, 2013; Pham, 2016), scholars also point out a new trend in organisational leadership in Asia that places emphasis on personal consideration and expectation (Jayasingam & Cheng, 2009; Jogulu, 2010). In the same vein, leadership practice is described as routine and input -focused (Nguyen, T.K as cited in Nguyen T.T, 2013); close supervision and a great amount of direction from managers over subordinates is delivered to ensure jobs get done (Quang & Vuong, 2002); and the focus is on daily tasks (Poon et al., 2015). These are features that reflect the properties of transactional leadership. Empirical research also offers evidence showing that transactional leadership is used in public organisations of Vietnam alongside some other leadership styles (Pham et al., 2017; Pham, 2018; Suong & Dao, 2019). Examples from reality show that leadership practice is designed as a task-oriented model (see the Decree 157/2007/ND-CP dated 17 October 2007). It is also shown to be a common practice used by supervisors and line-managers.

Regarding the quality of leadership of line managers/supervisors in public organisation, research shows both positive comments and concerns as well as criticisms. There is empirical evidence that in Vietnam transactional leadership can positively contribute to organisational outcomes such as the result-based planning process (Pham, 2018) and employees' outcomes such as job satisfaction and motivation (Suong & Dao, 2019; Mai & Dang, 2015). Managers in public organisations are praised for paying attention to individualised consideration towards public employees. This can be partly explained by the traditional culture of Vietnam, which values relations and relationship (Nguyen & Mujtaba, 2011). It is also noticed that line-managers/supervisors in public organisations of Vietnam highlight rules and regulations. To a certain extent, the respect of rules can positively contribute to maintaining organisational stability and orders.

Nevertheless, it seems that concerns and criticisms outweigh positive comments. There is concern regarding the competency of public leaders and managers. From the view of the Government, leaders and managers are inadequate in terms of managing competency, and therefore, are not able to fulfil their mandates (The CPV, 2006, as cited in Pham et al., 2012). There are shortcomings in their managerial and leadership knowledge, along with their perspectives, and independent and strategic thinking (Nguyen, T.T. 2013).

Research findings are in line with these negative comments. Leaders lack skills in connecting and sharing information with others (Poon et al., 2015). Managers fail to build and maintain a good relationship with their subordinates resulting in a high rate of turnover (Pham et al., 2012). These findings agree with a previous observation describing the leadership practice as a 'monologue culture', which implies the dominance of top-down communication (Tuong Lai, 2008). Second, leaders are subjective and influenced by 'guan-xi' (individual unofficial relations) (Poon et al., 2015). It is very likely that they, in turn, also depend on 'guan-xi' to perform. Leaders also are not reliable at separate work-related issues from relationship-related issues (Poon et al., 2009).

Apart from leadership skills, critiques are also placed on the lack of professional expertise. For example, 30% of mid and upper-level public servants

failed the official exam to move to a higher rank. (CPV Online Newspaper in Nguyen T.T., 2013). Moreover, the higher rank people attain, the less they invest themselves in learning (Poon et al., 2015).

The weaknesses of public managers can be explained in several ways. First, line managers are not provided with sufficient authority and resources to lead well (Pham et al., 2012). Specifically, it is challenging for transactional managers because their primary tools – contingent rewards and punishment – are not in their hands. In public organisations of Vietnam, rewarding and sanction are aligned with the framework set by the Ministry of Home Affairs. Another explanation comes from the recruitment practice that emphasises selection based on political quality, morality and family background over skills and knowledge (Nguyen as cited in Vu, 2018). This practice results in a pool of public servants and managers whose competency does not match their managerial and professional requirements.

### ***2.2.2. Public values issues***

This study notes three significant issues related to public values in the public sector of Vietnam: (i) the importance of clarifying public values in the context of transition and reforms; (ii) The Communist Party as a source of public values, and (iii) the present practice of public values communication in public organisations. These existing issues require more attention from public managers whose roles are important but do not have much capacity.

#### **Public values in the context of transition and reforms**

Besides multiple benefits for the administration and the country, reforms and transition have also brought challenges in terms of values. The country as a whole and the public administration are experiencing significant changes such as decentralisation, the shift from the current career-based to a position-based system, and the reduction of the administrative machine. Because of these changes and reforms, new values are initiated and introduced while old values are questioned or erased. As a result, value conflicts and confusion have emerged (Nguyen & Pham, 2014). For example, a new policy promoting a position-based



system was launched in 2014 and offered more opportunities for young and competent people (such as acknowledgement and advancement). It was not welcomed by those who only want stable jobs and depend on seniority. Many did not understand the new requirements and values introduced by this policy (Nguyen & Pham, 2014).

Concerns exist that the confusion and conflict of values would negatively affect public servants and public organisations in various ways. For example, people's resistance to change might become harder to handle (Nguyen et al., 2014), and their level of commitment might be reduced (Pham et al., 2012). Overall, the performance of public organisations might be affected.

Changes in values create conflicts that are hard to solve. Because of their shortcomings and lack of competency, it is challenging for public managers to handle these tasks. Furthermore, leadership training in the public of Vietnam is ideology-oriented, and therefore, does not contribute significantly to improving managerial skills of public managers.

#### The Communist Party ideas about public values

In Vietnam, the Communist Party of Vietnam (CPV) is the leading force of the State and the society, as stated in the Constitution of the country (Article 4, The Constitution). As observed by scholars, the CPV influence is enormous because it claims the dominant role in executive and legislative processes, taking control over not only the lawmaking but also the implementation of laws, and involving itself in state management practice daily (Painter et al., 2009). In line with this observation, Wescott (2003) notes the fact that Party organisations are maintained within government agencies, and claims that the supreme, unquestionable leadership in Vietnam is in the hands of the CPV.

Given this context, it is clear that the CPV introduces values that it wishes to promote to the administration and the society. Communism is one of the four main ideologies that influence the public administration of Vietnam (the other three include the traditional folk values, the Three Teachings (the combination of

Confucianism, Buddhism and Taoism) and the Western bureaucratic model) (Le K.M (2019).

There is some accordance in values underscored by the CPV and those suggested by scholars. For example, the CPV also values the ideas of "the government for the people", "to serve the country, to hold accountability (as in the discussion by Jørgensen and Bozeman, 2007). However, the CPV still prioritises their core values as declared in the Constitution of Vietnam. The CPV only accept the Marxist-Leninist doctrine and Ho Chi Minh's thought as the ideological foundation upon which they function; understandably, they prioritise the values based on this foundation. Also, political loyalty receives a lot of concentration and is emphasised over many other public values. Similarly, attention is also placed on Communist ideology (which means the assertion of Communist theories and thinking).

Public servants are supposed to be strongly communist-oriented and professionally excellent (Painter et al., 2009). Furthermore, both Party and state officials are bound not only by law but also by requirements from the Party (Painter et al., 2009).

#### Public values communication

Promoting and maintaining its values are in the interest of the CPV. Therefore, it has significantly invested in values information, education and communication (IEC). The CPV values promotions are conducted in various forms. First, values are conveyed in legal documents (Le, 2019). Ideas and values initiated by the CPV are introduced into resolutions. Party's resolutions are considered as guidelines and instructions for the design and determination of Government policy (Painter et al., 2009).

Furthermore, values may be inserted in the administration through the involvement of the CPV in state management activities. Party officials often directly intervene in management and decision making (Painter et al., 2009). Both party and state officials are bound not only by law but also by party policy which is expressed in directives and resolutions of the Politburo and Central Committee

and proclaimed by lower party organs (Painter et al., 2009). Significant position holders are mostly members of the party (Poon et al., 2009; Painter et al., 2009) and are still required to be 'red' (strongly communism-oriented) and professionally excellent (Painter et al., 2009). All state officials are also encouraged to become party members (Poon et al., 2009). For example, the promotion system is designed in such a way that it implicitly encourages workers to join the party: in order to be promoted, and especially for middle-ranking positions and upwards, public officials would be expected to have political qualifications (Poon et al., 2009.)

Education and training are two main methods used by the CPV to promote values. Ideology education is compulsory for public servants at all levels of the echelon. For high ranked leaders and middle-ranked managers, taking intensive ideology education is a must. The ideology education is conducted by authorised Party schools and institutions. Besides ideology education, public servants are eligible for training. In public servant training, there are some topics related to public values, such as public servant ethics but these two methods are not effective. The education ideology emphasises Marxist – Leninist and Ho Chi Minh' Thought and Modeling rather than public values. The training does not match with the needs of public servants and managers, including the needs of skills to clarify, communicate, and promote public values. Official training schemes are designed in a formative top-down fashion: compulsory training contents are initiated by the Ministry of Home Affairs, and not based on Training Need Analysis (TNA).

### ***2.2.3. Organisational commitment issues***

The public sector of Vietnam has been dealing with severe brain drain over the last fifteen years. This phenomenon, first captured by the media, has become a serious concern of practitioners, scholars, policymakers, and the public. The brain drain demonstrates itself in two aspects: retaining staff and attracting talent (Poon et al., 2009). A survey by the Ministry of Home Affairs shows that between 2005 and 2012 about 28,500 public officers voluntarily left their organisations (Pham et al., 2012) causing severe losses of human resources in both organisational and sector levels.

The problem goes far beyond just statistical data. Quantitatively, it is not a shocking number, totalling around 1.7 million public officers. Nevertheless, there are three critical concerns about this figure. Firstly, many people that departed were senior managers and staff with high expertise (Pham et al., 2012; Bahuet, 2008). Their departure caused a loss of excellence that new replacements have been unable to make up for. Table 2.1 shows illustrations of the human resource loss.

**Table 2.1: Examples of human resource loss in the public sector of Vietnam**  
(Time period: 2005 – 2010)

<b>Organisation</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Number of resignees</b>	<b>%</b>
Ministry of Public Health	22,800	0,898	03.94
Ministry of Finance	09,731	1,321	14.00
Ministry of Labor, War Invalids and Social Welfares	00,240	0,024	10.00
Public banks	07,701	1,156	1501
Organisations under the People's Committee of Ho Chi Minh City	124, 038	7,442	05.99

Source: The Ministry of Home Affairs of Vietnam (as cited in Pham et al., 2012)

Secondly, this phenomenon is unprecedented. Before this period, the public sector had been commonly considered the preference of choice for many people. Consequently, not only individual public organisations and their leaders but also the public sector as a whole were inexperienced in dealing with this challenge. There is evidence of policy ineffectiveness in tackling this problem. The focus on pay is an example. The Master Program of Public Administration Reform (Phase 1) identifies salary as the main incentive for improving the working motivation of public officers. Pay adjustments have been implemented ten times during the last thirteen years (the latest was launched in 2018). Nevertheless, this policy has not produced significant improvement. The Government makes public its career-based pay scheme. Therefore, people who want to join the public sector would not expect a high wage from the Government. That is, salary is hardly the reason for them to choose the public sector in the first place. It is, logically, probably not the main reason that makes them leave the

public sector. Hence, it is fair to say that policies aiming at raising pay little by little are not the right answer.

Finally, the high rate of turnover and turnover intention suggests that a lack of organisational commitment is the main concern because the level of organisational commitment is measured by the level of turnover (Cohen, 2003).

In short, the public sector of Vietnam is facing some serious problems, including the role and the capacity of line managers in communicating public values to public employees and the low level of commitment.

### **Chapter summary**

This chapter provides a brief description of the setting of the present study – the public sector of Vietnam. In public organisations of Vietnam, transactional leadership is a common leadership style. On one hand, this leadership style contributes to the performance of public employees and public organisations. On the other hand, it has weaknesses. These weaknesses hinder public managers from fulfilling their tasks and making positive influences, including the tasks of clarifying public values, especially in the context of reforms and changes and the ideology-focused requirements and intervention of the Communist Party of Vietnam. Also, the public sector of Vietnam is dealing with high turnover rates. Altogether, the issues of public leadership, public values, and commitment imply that Vietnam is a relevant case to study public sector transactional leadership and its influence on a critical outcome, with the emphasis placed on the publicness.

## **CHAPTER 3. LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **Introduction**

This chapter provides the background for this study and definitions of main study concepts. It locates this study in the foundation of public administration and public leadership literature. In Section 3.1, a definition of TL is presented, followed by an overview of the establishment of TL theory and a brief review of research on this leadership style in the PA literature. Based on prior research findings, this section reviews the contribution of TL to organisational outcomes, especially to organisational commitment (OC). Section 3.2 is dedicated to Public Values: after the definition and conceptualisation of the construct comes a brief review on how public values are studied in the PA literature and their significance. Section 3.3 starts with a discussion of the need for leadership substyles in the public sector. Then it conceptualises Public Values-focused Transactional Leadership - the study substyle of TL that integrates with public values (PV). Section 3.4 briefly reviews organisational commitment research in the public sector. The final section presents two other study concepts, including Participatory Style of Interaction (PSI) and the psychological contract (PC).

### **3.1. Transactional Leadership**

This section presents the definition of Transactional Leadership concept, reviews the establishment of TL theory, the contribution of TL, and the relevance of this leadership style to modern leadership research. Based on these discussions, this section clarifies the lack of research on this leadership style in the PA literature.

#### ***3.1.1. Definition***

The idea of a transactional approach can be traced back to expectancy theory (by Vroom, 1964) exchange/equity theories (e.g., Adams, 1963; Homans, 1958) and reinforcement theory (e.g., Skinner, 1953) (Houghton & Yoho, 2005). However, the term “transactional leadership” is often considered to have been introduced by Burns (1978) and later extended by Bass (1985). Their definitions of TL are the most frequently- applied TL definitions.

According to Burns (1978), TL is the bilateral relationship between leaders and followers, of which the foundation is their mutual understanding and agreement of what to give and what to receive. Stated differently, TL is an interaction between leaders and followers based on the exchange of things that each party values. These things can be in different forms: economic, political or psychological in nature (Burns as cited in Tavanti, 2008).

Burn's early work on TL was expanded by Bass (1985). Like Burns', Bass considered TL as leadership based on exchanges. Bass defined TL as a process of exchange of reinforcement by the leader that is contingent on followers' performance (Bass, 1997; Bass & Bass, 2008). Bass advanced Burns' original research considerably, but there are slight differences in perspective and evolution in thinking. Over time, Bass's research has come to be seen as needing more adaptation to different contexts, and as allowing for richer, higher, more tangible and more durable exchanges than earlier considered.

A significant evolvement of TL theory is the Full-Range Leadership Theory (Bass & Avolio, 1994). This theory introduces three leadership styles, including transformational leadership, transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership. Also, it depicts a continuum of leadership behaviours ranging from non-leadership to more transformational leadership-oriented<sup>3</sup>. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (the MLQ) is commonly used to study the FRL theory (Bass & Avolio, 1994). It has received much attention and is widely applied in PA research where the effectiveness of different approaches can be studied (Vogel & Masal, 2015).

There is some debate about whether TL is a foundation to transformational leadership, or whether it is a distinct alternative (Burns as cited in Khanin, 2007;

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<sup>3</sup> Transformational leadership includes: Idealise Influence, Inspirational Motivation; Intellectual Stimulation, and Individualised Consideration. Transactional Leadership includes Contingent Rewards, Management-By-Exception Active; Management-By-Exception Passive. Laissez-faire is considered non-leadership (Kirdbride, 2006).

Baas cited in Khanin, 2007; Den Hartog et al., 1999; Bolman & Deal as cited in Doyle & Smith, 2001). Regarding effectiveness, TL commonly ranks below TF and above laissez-faire (Bass & Avolio, 1994). However, there are exceptions to this, with recent research confirming that the utilitarian task-oriented approach of TL can work better than TF in some settings (e.g., Vigoda- Gadot & Beeri, 2011; Paracha et al., 2012). TL is rooted in behavioural theory (Hernandez et al., 2011). That means TL is a behaviour-based leadership style, and transactional leaders make impacts by conducting behaviours.

According to The Full-Range Leadership (FRL) Theory, TL has three dimensions: Contingent Reward (CR), Management-By-Exception Active (MBE Active) and Management-By-Exception Passive (MBE Passive). CR refers to the process in which leaders assign tasks to subordinates, support them, and reward them in exchange for their efforts to complete the tasks (Bass & Bass, 2008). This process is considered constructive. MBE is a corrective type of transactional behaviour (Bass & Bass, 2008). In the active case, leaders observe subordinates' performance and take corrective action to prevent deviances, mistakes, and errors from occurring; if passive, leaders do not take any action until problems emerge (Bass & Bass, 2008). Within the TL construct, CR is considered more effective than MBE Active; MBE Passive is the least effective one.

This study also adopts Bass's idea in viewing TL as a construct of two main dimensions which are reflected by two main behaviours: Contingent Rewards (CR) and Management-By-Exception (MBE). Based on Bass' definition, TL in this study is defined as follows:

Transactional leadership is the exchange relationship between leaders and subordinates that aims at satisfying their interests.

### ***3.1.2. Critical points from TL theory***

The following section briefly reviews some critical points in the early TL approaches and how those points are received by recent scholars to develop the TL theory. It also discusses how TL is considered in contemporary leadership studies.



### Universalisation and Adaptability

The transactional-transformational leadership paradigm was originally considered universal (Bass, 1997), meaning it worked across sectors and organisations. This point has encouraged researchers to study TL in very diverse settings. Previous studies found TL existing in various contexts and producing outcomes (for example, see Avolio et al., 1999; Taylor, 2016; Walumbwa et al., 2008).

However, leadership models and leaders need to be adaptable to meet different work contexts and different employee needs (Burns as cited in Khanin 2007; Bass as cited in Khanin, 2007). This adaptability allows TL to adjust to different subtypes (Burns as cited in Khanin, 2007).

These two points, of universality and adaptability, indicate that although TL conceptualisations work universally, the application needs specific approaches. Therefore, sector-specific approaches are critical. Even within sectors, such as PA, TL leaders need to adjust their styles accordingly to the needs of employees because these needs are distinctive and change during their career development (Van Wart, 2013). For example, TL can be more directive when new employees start their jobs as they need clear guidance and close supervision. For those who are familiar with the jobs, TL leaders may adjust to a more participatory approach (Van Wart, 2013). Nevertheless, studies of adapted TL styles are rare. The sector approach is necessary for studying TL in other sectors as well.

### Intangible exchanges

CR behaviours can deliver intangible rewards, including: “psychological rewards contingent upon the fulfilment of contractual obligations” (Walumbwa et al., 2008, p.252). One framework of TL consists of three components: contingent pecuniary rewards, contingent non-pecuniary rewards, and contingent sanctions (Jensen et al., 2019). These aspects are not covered in the early TL conceptualisations.

Critically, in order to make a strong influence, transactional leaders should aim for high-exchange, which means the interaction between leaders and followers when leaders provide ample attention and support to followers in

exchange for good attitudes and performance. High-exchange needs more intangible values, such as trust and consideration (Bass as cited in Walumbwa, Wu, & Orwa, 2008; and in Kirkbridge, 2006), in contrast to low-exchange which focuses on material values.

The intangible nature of rewards (and sanctions), although mentioned in the early TL theory (such in Burns, 1978 in Tavanti, 2008; Bass, 1985 in Walumbwa, Wu, & Orwa, 2008; and in Kirkbridge, 2006.), is surprisingly understudied. Recently, there have been efforts to reconceptualise the TL in the Full-Range Leadership Theory TL (see (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; Jensen et al., 2019) resulting in a TL construct that involves a component namely non-pecuniary rewards (refer to rewards such as feedback, acknowledgement). These studies are valuable but it is still not clear what specific intangible values TL can exchange, what mechanisms TL leaders use to conduct these exchanges, or what behaviours leaders need to conduct to deliver those values, and what benefits they and their subordinates can obtain. More TL research in this direction, therefore, is needed.

### Clarity

Clarification is needed in TL, that is done to obtain the rewards (Yukl, 1989). From this point, a takeaway is drawn: TL, as an exchange process, requires such things as explanations, specification and clarity. TL leaders need proper instruments to provide these necessities to make exchanges, for instance, skills to give clear direction, to get employees in discussions, to avoid confusing and discouraging employees (Van Wart, 2013).

The need for clarification is underlined in some previous studies that revisited TL (see the Self-Other Agreement Paradigm, Whittington et al., 2009). In order to initiate and implement an exchange, a leader-subordinate agreement is essential. Such an agreement can be obtained only if the two parties are clear about their responsibilities and expectations. In other words, clarity for mutual understanding is one critical condition, and also one component of exchange relationships.

In sum, recent authors support the early TL theory but also emphasise the need for clarity, including specificity (Whittington et al., 2009). Leader behaviour must clarify roles, task requirements and rewards (both tangible and intangible) (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Also, context is a critical factor: TL needs to adapt and it can adapt to match the context in which it operates (Van Wart, 2013).

### ***3.1.3. Considering TL in current leadership theories***

TL approaches have been used in studies that attempted to develop models of leadership cognition. For example, cognitive leadership is one of the new research areas of leadership studies and pays attention to the exploration of how leaders and followers think and process information (Avolio, Walumbwa & Weber, 2009). Cognitive approaches draw on classic leadership literature, including TL theory. For example, the work of Wofford (et al., as cited in Avolio, Walumbwa & Weber 2009), one of the most significant studies in this area, uses a TL approach to study the way transactional leaders view work with followers. Interestingly, Wofford & Goodwin (1994) find that even transformational leaders (who are often viewed as focusing on vision) also have some TL elements in their repertoire, and transactional leaders can adjust themselves from concrete transactions to more abstract transactions.

A TL approach is also discussed in ethical leadership. In ethical leadership, moral leaders use rewards and disciplines to reinforce followers to conduct actions that suit their ethical standards (Treviño & Brown, 2006). Moral leaders need to communicate clearly their ethical standards and expectations. Through these behaviours of leaders (clarifying standards and expectations and providing reinforcements), ethical leadership can be displayed explicitly. This approach is called the transactional approach to ethical leadership (Treviño & Brown, 2006). This study views this approach as valuable and important because it helps to reduce the ambiguity of ethics.

As these examples show, TL is still of relevance in modern leadership research, and studying new leadership styles may help address the dearth of TL research. TL theory continues to be useful as an overarching leadership theory

because of its many applications and strengths in leading followers daily (Van Wart, 2013).

### ***3.1.4. Studies of transactional leadership in the public sector***

#### ***3.1.4.1. The public sector as the setting of transactional leadership studies***

TL research has already been conducted in the public sector setting. Those research found that TL exists and functions in public organisations across countries and industries such as the military in the US (Bass as cited in Avolio, Bass & Jung, 1999; Ivey & Kline as cited in Yahaya & Ibrahim, 2015), government research agencies in the US (Avolio et al., 1999), servant organisations in China (Liu et al., 2011) water utilities in Australia (Taylor, 2016) public schools in Denmark (Jacobsen & Andersen as cited in Taylor, 2016), public medical centres in Israel (Vigoda-Gadot & Beerli, 2011), various governmental agencies in the US (Barbuto Jr., 2005), and federal government agencies in the US (Asencio & Mudjick, 2006; Oberfield as cited in Taylor, 2016).

Studies also reaffirm that TL exists across various levels of the administrative hierarchy such as government level (Trottier et al., 2008), sectoral level (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003), and organisational level (Asencio & Mudjick, 2006; Brevaart et al. 2010; Vigoda-Gadot & Berri, 2011) or team level (Walumbwa et al., 2008; Liu, Liu, & Zeng as cited in McCleskey, 2014).

The above examples show that the existence of TL in the public sector is well-documented. It indicates that TL is extensively-applied in the public sector, and therefore, may have a critical influence on people and work in the public sector. Searching for ways to improve TL for the use of the public sector, therefore matters.

Notably, an important direction for TL research in the public sector is the “theory-to-practice” approach (Van Wart, 2013, p.553), which aims to make the TL theory easy for practitioners to understand and apply. Van Wart also pointed out the contemporary obstacles that challenge transactional leaders in the public sectors nowadays (such as the reduced resources, reductions in benefits packages,

and the increased cynicism of public employees). Furthermore, he suggested several ways to improve TL concerning changes and challenges in the new context of the public sector: Understanding the needs of employees, adjusting leadership to meet customised demands, and creating “high-exchange” (a referral to the relationship whereby leaders provide employees with ample attention and good assignments in exchange for positive employee attitudes. These are public aspects that TL research in the public sector needs to pay attention to.

#### *3.1.4.2. Main focuses and gaps in transactional leadership studies in the public sector*

A common approach in studies conducted in the public setting is exploring the influence and outcomes of TL. TL is often paired with TF for comparison and linked with a wide array of organisational outcomes in a public agency context. (More examples and details are provided and further discussed in Section 3.1.5).

Generally, previous studies agreed that (i) TL was positively associated with organisations’ effectiveness, and (ii) the impact of TL was smaller than that of TF. This overall result is in line with the Full Range Leadership Theory as well as with the findings of research conducted in an earlier period (reviewed by Lowes (et al., 1996)) and in other sectors (see Section 3.1.5.1). However, this review also notices some inconsistencies in the empirical findings. Section 3.1.5 deliberates this issue.

Notably, studies on TL in the public administration has some specific issues as follows:

TL is often not the main focus: it is paired up with TF but does not receive much attention. The main focus is on TF while TL investigated as a part of the Full Range Theory, or as a control variable. Similarly, and outside of PA, in the top-ten leadership journals in the 2000-2012 period, only 5% of articles addressed TL while 25% of them were about TF (Dinh et al. 2014). Scholars commented that the neglect of research on TL was an ‘unfortunate consequence’ of TF’s popularity (Podsakoff et al., 2010).

Research also focuses on the TL general construct and the contingent reward dimension of TL. The other dimensions (MBE Active and Passive) receive little attention. This review found only a few examples that considered MBE (see, for example, Trottier et al., 2008; Vigoda-Gadot & Berri, 2012). This is a shortage because MBE is an important element of TL (Avolio, 1999). The knowledge base of TL is incomplete without the understanding of this dimension.

Importantly, although conducted in the public setting, not many studies have linked TL with public sector aspects or characteristics, such as public values, or public service motivations (PSM). This can be considered as a critical shortage because the aspects or characteristics of the public sector are a critical key factor in theorising and elucidating the phenomenon of public leadership (Ospina, 2016). This finding is in line with the perspective that public leadership studies emphasized “leadership” over “public” (Masal & Vogel, 2015). That means, the critical point from early TL theorists (see “Universalisation and Adaptability” in Section 3.1.2) has been overlooked in studying TL in the public sector context.

Finally, regarding how TL is studied, survey approaches are dominant. The most frequently applied scale to measure TL in surveys is the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaires (Barbuto Jr., 2005; Bycio et al., 1995) (such as in the work of Trottier et al., 2008; Asencio & Mudjick, 2006). Using one scale is beneficial for comparing findings across studies, but it is not best to contribute to exploring and capturing the totality of the construct. Therefore, the use of other measures is necessary. Other adapted measures are also used. For instance, Vigoda-Gadot and Berri (2011) adapted their transactional measurement from three sources (including Podsakoff et al., 1984; MacKenzie et al., 2001; and Bettencourt (2004)); Taylor (2016) used items from two sources (including Benjamin Flynn, 2006 and Creamer & Van Knippenberg, 2004).

Also related to methodology, mix-methods are not common among TL studies in the public sectors. This situation is in line with the findings of Chapman (et al., 2016), which showed the prevalence of survey approach in public leadership studies. An overwhelming number of research initiatives use single

methods in PA research (Raimondo & Newcome, 2017). This point indicates that mix-methods need more scholarly attention to obtain fuller stories about TL.

Given the above findings, this study concludes that TL research, no doubt, is still in the mainstream of PA and public leadership literature. However, concerns exist. First, the TL theory is not being refreshed significantly because of the use of the one dominant method approach. Second, the attention on TL in the public sector is slim. Third, not enough research considers the public sector characteristics in TL. Thus, little is known about whether TL in the public sector can address distinguish features of the public sector, and if so, how.

### ***3.1.5. The significance of transactional leadership***

#### ***3.1.5.1. The general impact of transactional leadership***

Theorists underline that TL has myriad effects and contributes various organisational outcomes (Burns, 1978; Bass as cited in Whittington et al., 2009; Bass as cited in Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2015). TL can identify roles and specifies goals for employees; give them specific guidance on what to do to obtain those goals; provide confidence to them in their goal-pursuit (Politis as cited in Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2015); motivate employees by increasing satisfaction based on their needs (Sadler in Yukl, 2010; Bass, as cited in Yahaya & Ebrahim); enhance the leader-member relationship, and reinforce rules and regulations.

General empirical findings support these theoretical claims. They found TL positively associated with employees' discretionary and proactive behaviours (Chiaburu, 2014; Jackson et al. 2014) as well as their instrumental motivation, self-concept, and external motivation (Barbuto Jr, 2005). Especially, CR can increase employee daily engagement (Breevaart et al., 2014), overall performance, satisfaction (Podsakoff et al. as cited in Anderson & Sun, 2015), creativity (Herrmann & Felfe, as cited in Anderson and Sun, 2015).

Empirical TL research in the public sector context reveals similar findings: it helps to build employee trust in leaders (Asencio & Mudjick, 2006); to improve motivation (Barbuto Jr, 2005) by satisfying employees basic needs (Oberfield,

2012); to minimise workplace anxiety (Sadegh & Pihie as cited in McCleskey, 2014); to protect employees from harmful effects of work hindrance stressors (Zhang et al as cited in Taylor, 2016); and to increase employee change-oriented citizenship behaviours (Vigoda-Gadot & Beerli, 2011). There is also a shared conclusion about the contribution of TL to the effectiveness of leadership (Taylor, 2016; Van Wart, 2008; Podger et al. as cited in Taylor, 2016; Trottier et al., 2008).

However, TL practice also receives criticism for aiming low, depending on material rewards, and being rigid (Yukl, 2011, Yukl as cited in McCleskey, 2014). Also, and arguably, TL practice leads followers to short-term exchange relationships with leaders: “These relationships tend toward shallow, temporary exchanges of rewards and often create resentment between the participants” (Burns, p.122 cited by McCleskey, 2014). There is empirical evidence that supports this point of view, despite the role of intangible rewards.

Although theory and many empirical findings show that the TL effect is smaller than that of TF, there are some exceptions. Some empirical studies in different public settings found TL more effective than TF. For example, a stronger effect of TL on Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) was found (see Vigoda-Gadot & Beerli, 2012), and on performance (Kalsoom, Khan, Zubar, 2018; Paracha et al., 2012.). From these studies, some critical takeaways are drawn: (i) employee’s positive behaviours are encouraged by the exchange relationship and actions that support them, specifically in the public sector; (ii) leadership among public managers is different from that among other managers and its impact on employees’ behaviours may also be different (Vigoda-Gadot & Beerli (2012). This indicates that research is needed to investigate the difference of leadership practice of public managers.

To conclude, empirical evidence supports the view highlighted by Bass (1985, 1977) that TL, although less effective than transformational leadership in most cases, can contribute to the outcomes of public organisations and through that, to the effectiveness of the public sector as a whole. Therefore, further studies on TL in the public sector are relevant to the PA literature and needed.



### *3.1.5.2. The impact of transactional leadership on organisational commitment*

Leadership theory and organisational commitment (OC) theory share the view that leaders' transactional behaviours (e.g. contingent rewards, individualised consideration, communication) can affect employee loyalty to the organisations in different ways (Bass, 1985; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; O'Reilley & Chatman, 1986; Meyer & Allen, 1997; Cohen, 1999). Multiple empirical studies support this view (e.g. Walumbwa et al., 2008; Whittington et al., 2008; Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016).

Nevertheless, empirical findings also show some inconsistency. Some studies found positive relationships between the general TL construct and some aspects of OC (such as in the work of Chen, 2002; Lee, 2005; Jackson et al., 2013; Chiaburu et al., 2014; Afshari & Gibson, 2016). In the meantime, other studies found negative relationships (e.g. Brown & Dodd; Erkutlu; Lo et al.; Tremblay as cited in Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). Other studies did not find significant impacts. Tables 3.1 shows examples of this inconsistency.

[Insert Table 3.1. About Here]

The inconsistency implies that this relationship might affected by moderating effects (Baron & Kenny, 1986). Further examination that pays more attention to contextual factors, therefore, is needed.

**Table 3.1: Previous empirical findings of the relationship between TL and OC**

Dimension of OC	Types of relationship found		
	Positive	Negative	No relationship or insignificant associated
Affective commitment	Lee (2005)	Brown & Dodd (1999)	Garg & Ramjee (2013); Hayward (et al., 2004); Lee J (2005); Lo (et al., 2009)
Normative commitment	Lee (2005); Lo (et al., 2009)	Baladez (2015), Brown & Dodd (1999)	Garg & Ramjee (2013); Hayward (et al., 2004); Lee J. (2005); Lo (et al., 2009)
Continuous Commitment	Lo (et al., 2009); Garg & Ramjee (2013); Baladez (2015); Zhuplatova (2015)	Brown & Dodd (1999) in Alkahtani (et al., 2015)	Hayward et al., (2004); Lee J (2005); Lo et al., 2009)
Uni- dimensional	Chiaburu (et al., 2012); Chen (2002); Afshari & Gibson (2016); Dashan et al., 2017); Walumbwa (et al., 2008)		

Source: Based on the work of Afshari & Gibson (2016); Alkahtani (et al., 2015)

### 3.2. Public Values

Public administration studies have paid great attention to public values (Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007) and often link PV with leadership to develop values-based leadership such as authentic leadership, ethical leadership, and TF. Besides, value issues are often addressed in research on public employees' behaviour and motivation (The Public Service Motivation theory (PSM), for instance). For these reasons, considering public values in a study about the influence of leaders' behaviours on public employees' commitment matches one crucial discussion in the PA literature.

This section develops the conceptualisation of the study concept of PV. Moreover, it briefly reviews how public values issues are addressed in the PA literature and the contributions of PV in public organisations.

### ***3.2.1. Definition and conceptualisation***

#### **Definition**

The concept “Public Values” is defined in different ways. PV refers to “the rights, benefits and prerogatives to which citizens should (and should not) be entitled, the obligations of citizens to society, the state and one another; and the principles on which governments and policies should be based (Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007, p.13). PV represents the ideals, coined as principles, to be followed when producing a public service or regulating citizens behaviours, thus providing direction to the behaviour of public servants (Andersen et al., 2013, p.293).

“Public Values” in this study is established based on a set of four theories including Value (Kluckhohn as cited in Theam, 2015; Kernaghan, 2003), Public Values (Van Wart as cited in Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007; Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007; Berman & West, 2012), Public Organisational Values (Van der Wal, de Graaf, & Lathuiszen, 2008), and Task Significance (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). It is defined as follows:

“Public values” is a characteristic of work in public organisations that reflect the trait of public organisations as institutions that are established to serve the public mission.

“Public values”, first of all, refers to an important quality that makes the public sector meaningful. This idea is built on the Value definition by Kluckhohn (as cited in in Theam, 2015) and Kernaghan (2003) that values are things, ideas, or goals that are critical and meaningful to people/things, and/or such that enables people/things to be understood.

More specific, this important quality is the spirit of serving the public interests, or “Serviceability”. Public organisations are said to have distinctive characteristics: they are institutions that are born to serve the public interests

and/or embodies the spirit of sacrifice and hold on to distinctive public purposes ((Van Wart as cited in Witesman & Walters, 2014; Berman & West, 2012). These characteristics and purposes are reflected in public work: when people implement public work, they are realising the public mission of their organisations but at the job level. Such PV at the job-context level distinguishes public work from work in private organisations. Although they might have similarities in terms of professional requirements or technical standards: public work contributes to the mission of public organisations while work in private business contributes to the benefits of the owners and/or shareholders. Put another way, the property covered in this study concept of PV is “serving the public interest.”

Finally, “Public Values” manifests the significance of public work and the effect of this significance on public employees. This idea is grounded on the theory of Task Significance (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) which underlines that the importance of a job/task can affect people in various ways and that employees tend to feel motivated doing jobs that sustainably improve either psychological or physical well-being of others than jobs that they perceive as not important (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). In other words, the common attribute of “Public Values” is the importance of organisational work, but it has a unique attribute that only applies in public work. Table 3.2 displays some main features of the PV concept drawing from the above explanations and arguments.

[Insert Table 3.2. About Here]

**Table 3 . 2: Main features of the proposed Public Values concept**

<b>Definition</b>	A <u>characteristic</u> of public work reflecting the trait of public organisations as institutions that are established to serve the public mission.
<b>Theoretical base</b>	Values, Public Service Values, Public Organisational Values, Task Significant
<b>Nature of Public Values conceptual domain</b>	Common attributes: the significance of work Unique attributes: only in public work, stable across all public work (not depends on either job design or work- incumbents)
<b>Entity (to which Public Values applies)</b>	Public work (general entity: public organisations)
<b>Property</b>	Meaningful public service for public purposes
<b>Dimensionality</b>	Unidimensional: Focus only on the idea of contributing to the public good
<b>What it manifests</b>	Meaningful public service
<b>Environment/Stability</b>	Public organisations/agencies; across public agencies

Note: Some of the factors on the left column are adopted from factors to consider in Construct Conceptualisation (MacKenzie, Podsakoff & Podsakoffl., 2011)

#### Contrasting the proposed concept and similar terms in PA

There are a set of terms that hold on the idea of contributing to the public interests: “public values” (Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007), “public sector values” or “public service values” (Witesman & Walters, 2014) and “normative public values” (Pandey et al., 2016). Additionally, the term “public service motivation” (PSM) is also driven by a similar idea because it concerns the motivation of individuals doing good things to others and community by doing their public service (Perry & Wise, 1990; Andersen et al., 2013). Understandably, the proposed PV concept has consensus with these terms and is connected to them because as defined, it embraces the distinctiveness of the public sector serving the public purposes.

Nevertheless, the differentiation between this proposed concept and the others are notable. They are displayed in various forms. First, their loci are

different. The locus of the proposed concept means where the concept occurs. As defined, PV is a job-level concept. It is so because the uniqueness of the public organisations is actualised when people implement public work. In contrast, PSV and PSM are personal values (Perry & Wise, 1990; Andersen et al., 2013) within public employees, which means their loci are at the individual level; “Public sector values” and the generic public values are values at the sector level.

The second difference is the dimensionality. The proposed PV concept captures only one aspect, which is the spirit of serving/or the contribution to the public purpose, while the other terms involve complexity. For illustration, “Public values” is a set of values derived from the institutional role of the public sector in society (Pandey et al., 2016) and is arranged into various constellations of individual values (Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007). “Public service values,” by contrast, is “a subset of values (social, professional, ethical, and others) that are related directly to a person’s role as a public servant (Witesman & Walters, 2014, p.377). PSM is a multidimensional concept consisting of multiple elements (Perry & Wise, 1990; Andersen et al., 2013).

Furthermore, there is a difference concerning the belongingness. As defined, the proposed PV is a unique characteristic of public work, which means it exists in the public sector only. In contrast, PSM and public service values can be found in other sectors because they are ‘not the executive province of government’ (Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007, p.373).

Compared to the general task significance concept (TS), PV has a narrower effect and a more independent status. It zeroes-in on the effect of public work on incumbents within their immediate organisations while TS refers to the effect of work both within and outside the organisations (people’s life, for instance). Besides, PV resides in public work as a built-in attribute inherently associated with public sector values, and therefore, does not depend on how a particular work is designed or described. In contrast, TS, by definition, is a component of job characteristics and needs to be aligned with the other four components of job characteristics through job design (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). Furthermore, while TS implies the difference of impact of a particular job in an organisation

compared with other jobs in the same organisation, PV underlines what distinguishes public work from a similar job in a business.

It also needs to mention that “PV” as defined in this study is distinguished from the “work values” concept by Lyons, Duxbury and Higgins (2006), which refers to the “beliefs about the desirability of certain attributes of works (e.g., pay, autonomy, working conditions)” (p.607).

Overall, the proposed PV concept is developed on a set of well-established theories in the public administration and management fields. It is distinguished from other similar concepts by its specific and robust concentration placed on the values presented in public work. Table 3.3 summarises the similarities and differences between the studied concept and some similar terms.

[Insert Table 3.3 About Here]

Among the concepts of public values/public value, this study examines public values at the job-level because this aspect of public values has been under-researched (Section 3.2.2 further discusses this issue).

**Table 3 . 3: The proposed Public Values concept vs. similar terms in the literature**

	<b>The proposed “Public Values”</b>	<b>General “PublicValues”</b>	<b>“Public Service Values”</b>	<b>“Public Service Motivation”</b>	<b>“Public Value” (Moore)</b>
<b>Definition</b>	A characteristic of public work, reflecting the unique trait of public organisations as institutions that are defined to serve the public interest.	Values that give public organisations their unique purposes (Van Wart, 1998)	A set of values derived from the institutional role of the public sector in society and arranged into various constellations of individual values	An individual’s predisposition to respond to motives grounded primarily or uniquely in public institutions and organisations (Perry & Wise, 1990, p.368)	The result obtained by public organisations that are worth the cost of private consumption and the resources that they use (including authority) to produce the results.
<b>Characteristics</b>	An implicit value that gives public work a distinctive meaning; Not dependent on personal values of public servants	Institutional values of the public sector; a product of culture and social interaction	Implicit values that are directly related to a person’s role as a public servant and would be acknowledged by that person (Witemans & Walters, 2014, p.377)”	A prosocial behaviour which encompasses a set of other-regarding behaviour (Brief & Motowidlo as cited in Perry, Hondeghem & Wise, 2010)	Explicit benefits as short or long-term results (for instance: keep the street safe, education for children (Moore, 1995)
<b>Theoretical base</b>	Values; Public Organisational values Job significance	PA, public organisation theory (Jorgensen & Bozeman, 2007)	Public service ethics	Public service ethics	Public administration; New Public Management
<b>Property</b>	Meaningful public service	Various values	The willingness to contribute to the public service/ public good	The willingness to contribute to the public service	The use of provided public resources
<b>Entity</b>	In work in public organisations	In organisations	In person	In person	In performance outcomes



### ***3.2.2. Studies of Public Values in the public administration literature***

Research on public values has been growing and become “nearly boundless” (Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007, p.356) with richness and diversity (Jørgensen & Rutgers, 2015). Scholars particular attention has focused on the following aspects: (i) conceptualisations, and (ii) comparison between the public and the private sector (Jos & Tomkin as cited in Witesman & Walters (2014); Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007).

#### **Regarding the conceptualisation issue**

The first aspect concerns defining the concept and identifying the origin, meanings and boundary of public values. The literature related to this concern is rich and diverse, indicating conflicting views on what PV captures (Paarlberg & Perry, 2007). Many scholars have tried to explore the typology of PV. Kelly, Mulgan and Muers (2002), for example, suggested a typology of public values comprising three elements: services, outcomes, and trust. In their notable work, Jørgensen and Bozeman (2007<sup>4</sup>) discuss values existing in the public sector and under the umbrella of “public values” and arranged those values into seven categories in which each combines an array of values of similar themes. Importantly, in their inventory, they suggested one set of values associated with the idea of contributing to the public mission.

A consensus of a set of values is not agreed upon either. Stated differently, views on properties of “public values” are also very diverse. Van Wart (as in Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007), for instance, suggested five value sources for decision making in the public sector<sup>5</sup> but did not discuss any specific value. In contrast, Nolan (as cited in Bannister & Connolly, 2014) introduced seven specific principles for

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<sup>4</sup> Jørgensen and Bozeman (2007) introduced seven constellations of public values including the following: 1- Public sector’s contribution to society; 2- Transformation of interests to decisions; 3- Relationship between public administrators and politicians; 4- Relationship between public administrators and their environment; 5- Intraorganisational aspects of PA; 6- Behaviour of public sector employees; 7- Relationship between PA and the citizens.

<sup>5</sup> These values include: 1- Individual’s values; 2- Professional values; 3- Organisational values; 4- Legal values, and 5- Public interest values.

governing the public<sup>6</sup>. Using an organisational values approach, Van der Wal (et al., 2008) considered PV as an organisational level concept to compare the perceptions of public and private workers on what values are most important to them. At an individual level, attention has been placed on the “public service values” (PSV) (sometimes interchangeably used as “public values”) which “refers to a subset of social, professional, and ethical values that are directly related to a person’s role as a public servant” (Witemans & Walters, 2014, p.377), and very close to PSM (Witesman & Walters, 2014). Notably, Jørgensen and Bozeman’s efforts (2007) to elicit PV resulted in seven constellations of public values, some of which can be seen as values associated with the public sector as a whole (this review considers them as PV at sectoral level); some can be found in organisational values (public values at an organisational level), and some are values associated with individuals.

Instead of different views, an overlap exists in work on PV conceptualisations (Andersen et al., 2013). In the view of this study, one possible explanation for this issue is that different concepts share one underpinning idea - the idea of contributing to the public interest.

#### Regarding the comparison between the public sector and the private sector

Scholars disagree with each other on the differences and similarities between government agencies and business agencies in terms of values (Van der Wal et al., 2008). Those who support the difference underline the importance of not mixing values of these two sectors (Jacob, 1992; Frederikson, 2005; Schultz, 2005 as reviewed by Van der Wal et al., 2008). The opposite side advocates the idea that there are similar moral values applicable in all organisations regardless of their sectoral boundary (Kaptain, and Caiden, 1999 as cited in Van der Wal et al., 2008). Moreover, there is a third school of thought which acknowledges that there might be pure public

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<sup>6</sup> These principles include: 1- Selflessness; 2- Integrity; 3- Objectivity; 4- Accountability; 5- Openness; 6- Honesty; and 7- Leadership

values alongside with pure private values and at the same time, some shared values (Van der Wal et al., 2008; Jørgensen & Rutger, 2015).

Motivated by this acknowledgment, a relatively small number of studies have been conducted to compare the impact of values on employees' behaviours (for instance, see Lyon et al., 2006; Stackman et al., 2005). However, as noted by Van der Wal (et al., 2008), these studies applied the psychology and business approach rather than the public administration approach. Hence, there is not much evidence for this review to conclude which school of thought dominates the discussion in the PA literature.

This review notices three main issues in the literature as follows:

First, conceptual issues still exist, especially the issue of differentiation, an essential criterion in concept assessment which requires a concept to be distinguished from other closely related concepts (Gerring, 1999). The instances and the attributes of the existing “public values” concepts are not always clearly differentiated from some similar concepts in the PA literature including “public value,” “public sector values,” PSV, and PSM. For example, PSV and “public values” are sometimes interchangeably used to describe a set of individual values associated with those who serve as public employees (see such in work by Witesman & Walters, 2014; Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007; Pandey et al. 2016). Additionally, the boundaries of PV concepts are not clear. For example, both the “public values” concept (see Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007) and PSM employ “altruism”. This unclear issue causes some challenges for scholarly communication.

Second, there is a shortage of empirical research on the impact of PV. It is probably a consequence of the lack of strong conceptualisations and measurements – the two shortcomings as pointed out by Andersen (et al., 2013). Without sound conceptualisations, it is challenging to construct development and directions for empirical research (Andersen et al., 2013; Bozeman & Su, 2014).

Finally, there is an imbalance of attention in PV research. Previous studies often examined public values at three levels: the sectoral level (see Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007), the organisational level (e.g. Van der Wal et al., 2008), and the individual level (especially with the regard to public employees' motivation (e.g. Witesman & Walters (2014); Lyons, Duxbury & Higgins, 2006; Pandey et al., 2016). Studies that research PV at job level is rare.

Based on these findings, this review concludes that research on the conceptualisation is still needed and that investing this concept in the job-level context can contribute to this mission.

### ***3.2.3. The significance of public values***

Despite contrasting views on the conceptualisations, scholars agree on the importance of public values to public administration. Theorists argue that public management and public policymaking is all about establishing, following and realising PV (Jørgensen & Rutger, 2015, p.4), and that public values link to decision making (Jørgensen & Rutger, 2015; Berman & West, 2013), influence PSM (Mouton, 2009), and place boundaries on behaviours (Paarlberg & Perry, 2007).

Empirically, efforts have been exerted to measure PV. This review notices that one scale establishment method used by PV researchers is using value typologies to develop measurements to evaluate dimensions of PV. For example, Andersen (et al., 2013) employed the value typology based on modes of governance (hierarchy, clan, networks and market) to establish a measurement for the importance of a set of specific values; similarly, Berman and West (2013) developed measurements to evaluate public values commitment. Another method is extending the existing measure. For instance, Vigoda-Gadot (2007) applied PV drawn from the New Public Management theory and extended the scale of organisational-personal values fit.

Previous empirical findings show that PV is related to several organisational behaviours such as choosing decision-making styles, weighing ethical consideration, achieving outcomes, and motivation (Alonso & Lewis (2001), Brewer, Selden &

Facer (2000), Conner & Becker (2003) as cited in Berman & West, 2011). Notably, public values shape PSM (Wright & Pandey, 2008; Berman & West, 2011). These findings support the scholarly agreement that public values are one of the most influential predictors of complex organisational outcomes (Moulton, 2009 as cited in Berman & West, 2011).

In a more specific vein, commitment behaviours of public employees also capture the attention of public values researchers. Scholars found that values of public organisations are positively associated with the commitment of public employees, especially if value congruency exists between them (Boxx, Odum & Dunn, 1991; Abbott, White & Charles, 2005; Paarlberg & Perry, 2007). These findings are in line with the conclusion about the relationship between organisational values and commitment to organisational studies (see Finnegan, 2000). Interestingly, there is attention given to the extent to which public servants are committed to public values. Berman and West (2011) examined the commitment of public managers and employees to several values (i.e. accountability, developing communities, managerial effectiveness, and business-like values).

Empirical research often links PV with leadership styles as strategies for strengthening public values and organisational outcomes, partly because of the argument that an important role of public leaders is to safeguard the values of the public sector (Dennis, Langley & Rouleau, 2007). The general findings are consistent: values-based leaderships (e.g. transformational leadership, authentic leadership) are positively associated with PV, and values-based leaders are seen as those who often use public values to make an impact on public employees and or organisations (e.g. Pandey et al., 2016; Tummers & Knies, 2013; Vigoda-Gadot & Beeri, 2011; Wright, Moynihan & Pandey, 2012). However, research that investigates other leadership styles and PV is rare.

To conclude, the PA literature acknowledges the richness and diversity of public values research. The existing conflicts in conceptualisations and the lack of validated measurements requiring further research should mean a continuing focus

on these issues. Interestingly, instead of these disputes, theoretical and empirical studies share the same view on the importance of public values to the public sector as a whole, public organisations, as well as public employees.

### **3.3. Integrating TL with public values**

#### ***3.3.1. The need for leadership substyles in organisations***

Leadership styles and their impacts are one of the most-discussed topics in public leadership and leadership literature. Although leadership styles are valuable, they do not adequately capture the totality of leadership behaviours in organisations, and in public organisations, particularly (Anderson & Sun, 2017). Therefore, leadership research needs to look at specific forms of leadership that operate in specific contexts (Rowold, 2014). There is a call for “an explicit and coordinated integration strategy” “to boil down the bewildering assortment of leadership styles into what is truly distinct” (Anderson & Sun, 2017, p. 90).

Particularly in PA research, scholars suggest that TL in public organisations needs to be augmented to match the uniqueness of the public sector (such as specific purposes, relationships with citizens, specific needs of public employees (Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007; Van Wart, 2013), which cannot be captured by the generic construct (Tummers & Knies, 2016; Vogel & Masal, 2015). Moreover, public organisations have particular problems that challenge TL (for examples the limits of authority and resources to conduct transactions with their employees (Rainey, 1982); the increment of employees’ demands and developmental needs and the decrease of resources (Van Wart, 2013).

Given the uniqueness and the challenges of public organisations, transactional leaders need to use a variety of substyles contingent with different tasks and the development of public employees (Van Wart; 2013). In other words, a TL substyle with strong public purpose-orientation and more practical for specific usages is needed.

### Strategies to form leadership substyles

This study highlights two strategies suggested by scholars in response to the call for leadership substyles. One strategy is to include contextual elements in constituting leadership (Avolio, 2007). The other is to combine leadership behaviours (Anderson & Sun, 2017).

The first one, “Integrative strategy”, means to consider various interaction between leaders and followers and take into account various contexts to develop leadership (Avolio, 2007, p.25). Including contextual factors in models of leadership is suggested as a strategy because (i) the context in which leadership occurs can alter leadership outcomes and (ii) the *fit* or *match* of a leader’s style and the followers are important (Avolio, 2007, p.26). In order to adopt this strategy, great attention should be paid to the broad cultural context wherein leaders and followers interact (Avolio, 2007).

The second strategy suggests combining different leadership behaviours or to add-on behaviours beyond the existing leadership styles (Anderson & Sun, 2017). An example is the Instrumental Leadership (by Antonakis and House (2014)). This strategy is suitable for behaviour-based leadership styles, like TL.

These two strategies match with this study purposes, which are to examine TL in a unique context in which followers have a particular need concerning public values and to establish a TL substyle for usage in this context. Particularly, this study involves PV in the integrative strategy as the contextual factor. Also, it combines various TL behaviours of managers to capture what has been missing in the generic construct. Combining behaviours is practical because in practice managers can choose to use a range of different behaviours depending on the context or people that they are dealing with (Rowold, 2014).

In sum, although general leadership styles are valuable and of high importance for producing organisational outcomes, leadership substyles combining different elements are suggested for addressing specific issues or contexts. A

combination of TL integrated with public values, therefore, is a possible way to form a leadership substyle that works in the particular context of public organisations.

### ***3.3.2. Public Values focused -Transactional Leadership: Conceptualisation***

As mentioned earlier, public leadership researchers underline the importance of adjusting TL practice in public organisations in such ways that TL creates more high-exchange (Van Wart, 2013) to leadership to meet the customised demands. Besides, TL scholars theorise that TL can involve intangible values in high-exchange (Burns, 1978). However, this ability of TL is not covered by frequently researched TL constructs such as the TL construct in the FRL theory (by Bass & Avolio, 1997). Scholars share a consensus that there are some missing elements in the FRL theory (Yukl, 2008; Antonakis & House, 2014; Anderson & Sun, 2017).

This study argues that one of the missing elements is the behaviour of transactional leaders transacting intangible values. Previous studies mention that transactional leaders also exchange nontangible rewards and values for maintaining follower's performance and their bond. For example, the exchange of values such as respect and trust between a transactional leader and his/her employees is critical to actualising the needs of each side (Burns as cited in Kuhnert & Lewis (1987). This form of exchange (also known as "higher-order transaction") is thought to be more effective than the exchange based on commodities or concrete rewards (known as "lower-order transaction" (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987, p.649), yet, is less common (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987). This point of view is advocated by some scholars (e.g. Kirkbridge, 2006) but supporting empirical findings are rare. Furthermore, this study also notices the need to identify a behaviour that can explain how leaders conduct the exchange of intangible values with their employees.

Based on the above arguments and the PV definition describing public values as job-related information, this research introduces Public Values-focused Transactional Leadership (PVTTL). It is a public sector substyle of TL, which uses public values in TL behaviours.



### *3.3.2.1. Definition*

PVTL is defined as follows:

Public values focused-transactional leadership (PVTL) is the exchange relationship between leaders and subordinates in public organisations based on their mutual understanding of the values residing in public work.

This definition is developed based on the proposed public values concept and the transactional leadership theory (Burns 1978; Bass, 1985), Walumbwa (et al.,2008)' Contingent Reward Transactional Leadership, and Whittington (et al., 2009)' Self-Other Agreement Regime.

PVTL is characterised by two essential properties: mutual understanding and exchange. Mutual understanding is vital for exchanged-based relationships (Whittington et al., 2009). Without such an understanding, it is difficult to conduct an exchange. For PVTL, it is even more critical because what supervisors and subordinate need to understand are public values – an abstract issue.

Making exchange is the property that PVTL inherits from generic TL, the exchange-based interaction (Burns, 1978; Walumbwa et al.,2008). However, the PVTL exchange differs from the generic one because it involves intangible values in the exchange action. Moreover, with public values, it is also distinguished from other intangible values discussed in previous research (such as trust, acknowledgement (see Whittington et al., 2009; Walumbwa et al., 2008).

The following paragraphs further explain how the PVTL transaction is conducted based on a mutual understanding of public values.

In PVTL, supervisors provide employees with guidance on the value and meaning of their work. They need to show employees and underscore the connection between performance and public values-oriented rewards. In order to do so, they need to offer clarification of public values because those values are abstract. This mission

can be done through CR because CR practice allows leaders to clarify requirements and expectations and provide support to employees (Walumbwa et al., 2008). Employees can expect to receive such support from supervisors and rewards for exhibiting public values in their performance. In return, they are supposed to express the right attitudes and behaviours as well as good performance.

It can be seen that in PVTL exchange, the interaction between supervisors and subordinates is ample. Subordinates receive generous attention and good assignments from supervisors, especially opportunities to serve the public and/or to help people. Supervisors, in return, get public task done, obtain good team members with the proper understanding of their work, which can be a door to positive work-related attitudes/behaviours (such as satisfaction, motivation). Such transactions match what scholars describe as a high-exchange relationship (Graen & Uhl-Bien as cited in Van Wart, 2013). Therefore, PVTL, although exchange-based, is more than a bargaining process like generic TL.

In short, PVTL is specified as an action of leaders that involves the tasks of clarifying and incorporating public values to target employees' understanding of those values and their correspondent behaviours. This study expects that for public organisation management, PVTL is more effective than the TL generic because PVTL is not only about having the work done like the generic TL but; it also aims at having public work done in specific ways, the ways that are based on the specifically clarified public values.

It is critical to underline the differences between PVTL and TF. Although they have some similarities such as both involving values and targeting employees' awareness of values, and therefore, both can be highly effective, the differences are clear, as follows:

First, PVTL, as defined, is an exchange-based practice, not a values-based practice. In this exchange, values are not the foundation of leaders' behaviours but a part of the responsibility and expectation that needs to be clarified and agreed upon

between supervisors and employees. This is different from the use of values in values-based leadership in which leaders are supposed to exercise their leadership based on their underlying moral and ethical foundations (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999; Treviño & Brown, 2006; Gardner et al., 2005).

Furthermore, PVTL and values-based leadership are distinguished by the roots of the values they promote. In PVTL, the values reside within public work, and therefore, are universal across public organisations. In contrast, values underpinning values-based leadership are within leaders, which means that these leadership styles are greatly concerned with inner qualities and personal values of leaders. Their personal values are not universal: priorities might vary in different values-based leadership styles depending on what matters the most to leaders. For example, transformational leaders place importance on developing leaders' morals so that they can support followers to a higher plane of morality as well (Burn, 1978) or to provide role models (Bass, 1985; Burn as cited in Pandey et al., 2015); in the meantime, authentic leaders emphasise a deep sense of purpose, leading with hearts, and demonstrating their self-restraint discipline; ethical leaders' emphasis is on establishing ethical standards, adhering to those standards, and proactive concern for the ethical behaviour of their followers (Treviño & Brown, 2006).

Finally, the difference is that PVTL supervisors do not have to hold on to public values as their own values. As defined, in order to conduct the exchange, supervisors and employees need to be on the same page of understanding public values; therefore, PVTL supervisors are evaluated on how much they can make employees understand the values within public work rather than whether or not they are personally dedicated to public values. It is unlike in values-based leadership that requires leaders to express their personal values and show their commitment to those values through modelling.

These differences imply that PVTL is also a good choice for aligning public employees and public values, although the contribution of values-based leadership is documented and significant. Contrasting PVTL with values-based leadership, it can

be seen that PVTL is targeted and specific because it is about work. Moreover, PVTL is stable because it does not involve personal moral values of leaders, which might be changeable.

Taking these similarities and differences together, it can be said that PVTL does not conflict with either the generic TL or values-based leadership and can be used together with other leadership styles in promoting public values and motivating public employees.

#### 3.3.2.2. *Dimensionality*

As shown in the definition, PVTL exchange requires two main behaviours of leaders: (i) to clarify the values in public work, and (ii) to incorporate those values into leaders' actions. This study argues that the PVTL construct is comprised of two dimensions represented by these two behaviours. This argument is made based on the theoretical discussions and previous empirical works on combining leadership behaviours to form integrated styles/substyles. For instance, Antonakis and House (2014) conceptualised the Instrumental Leadership construct comprising two subsets of behaviours which are *strategic leadership* (including the behaviours of monitoring the working environment and developing policy, goals, and objects to support the vision and mission) and *follower work facilitation* (referring to behaviours of targeting towards giving various types of support and removing obstacles from goal attainments, and providing clarification) (Antonakis & House, 2014). Another example is the work of Goodwin (et al., 2001) introducing a TL construct comprised of MBE Active and Passive behaviours and the explicit negotiation of rewards identified from the CR subscale.

##### Behaviour 1: Clarifying public values

In order to clarify public values, PVTL can use the combination of transactional behaviours that it inherits from the generic TL, which are Contingent Reward (CR) and Management-By-Exception (MBE). These two behaviours can be combined to form the behaviour of clarifying public values because both have a shared ability,

that is, the ability to clarify. CR can clarify expectations and job-related information such as task requirements (Walumbwa et al., 2008), and therefore can reduce role ambiguity. MBE can clarify standards, rules, and regulations (Kirkbride, 2006). Thus, they can be used in alignment for the task of making employees understand their work.

Notably, there should be more of the CR element than of MBE element in this PVTL behaviour because CR can address tangible values, as confirmed by scholars: “CR transactional leaders provide both tangible and intangible support” (Walumbwa et al., 2008, p.252). Generally, CR is believed to have a greater impact on organisational outcomes than MBE (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass & Bass, 2008). However, the employment of MBE is also important. First, it distinguishes PVTL from CR leadership. Second, it augments PVTL by adding onto the clarification of what needs to be done to avoid punishment (Avolio as cited in Whittington et al., 2008); thus, employees may see the boundaries that they should not cross.

#### Behaviour 2: Incorporating public values into the transaction

The second behaviour of PVTL arises from public values. PVTL supervisors do all the job that transactional supervisors do, such as specifying expectations, negotiating conditions, clarifying responsibilities and providing resources, but all of these tasks should be public values-centred, or should use public values as a guide. For instance, instead of providing rewards for good performance or correcting deviation (like in the generic transactional style), PVTL supervisors reward good performances that significantly further public values. In addition, public values can be adopted in creating desired changes in behaviours and attitudes. In order to do so, supervisors use public values (for example “attitudes towards citizens”) as criteria to evaluate subordinates.

Given the above arguments, we suggest that PVTL is a two-dimensional construct. One dimension is formed by clarifying activities; the other is formed by

aligning public values in supervisors' tasks either in constructive or corrective manners.

### **3.4. Organisational Commitment**

This section concentrates on the dependent variable – organisational commitment (OC). It provides the definition applied in this study and a brief review of how OC has been considered in public administration studies.

This study applies the definition of O'Reilly and Chatman (1982), one of the most leading OC conceptualisations (Cohen, 2014):

Organisational commitment is the psychological attachment people have toward their organisations based on how much they accept and adopt characteristics or values of their organisations (O'Reilly & Chatman (as cited in Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001)).

This definition of OC is based on the attitudinal approach, which highlights the psychological bond of the moral aspect of OC and pays attention to the process by which people come to think about their relationship (Cohen, 2014) (e.g. Mowday et al., 1979; Mathieu & Zaiac, 1990; Allen & Meyer, 1997). OC is not only an attitude but also a behaviour because it is not only people's desire to maintain the bond with their organisations but also their actions (e.g. to accept, to adopt). It contrasts with the calculative approach, which is based on the idea that people's relationship with their organisations is exchange-based: they remain in their organisations for the benefits associated with their stay.

#### Organisational commitment in PA studies

In the literature of public administration, organisational commitment (OC) is a well-known concept. It is often examined as one outcome of leadership styles. Great attention has been placed on empirical research. Interestingly, although OC has an affecting ability (Becker, 1960, Morrow, 1993; O'Reilly & Chatman, 1982; Cohen, 2003), PA researchers often consider OC as an outcome variable of other factors in

organisations or the public sector, such as leadership, public service motivation, communication, trust, value-congruence, and the psychological contracts (e.g. Nyhan, 1999; Castaing, 2006; Mao et al., 2016).

Notably, the relationship between leadership (various styles) and OC is one of the most popular themes in PA research with multiple empirical studies (e.g. Ashikali & Groeneveld, 2015; Kim, 2014; Yang et al., 2011; Ahmad & Gelaidan, 2011). In comparing, studies concerning conceptualisation and instruments of OC are fewer in quantity. This review notes that theoretical issues such as conceptualisation and measures are not main focuses in studies concerning OC in the public administration domain.

However, a critical discussion in the public administration is whether the conceptualisation of OC (and measurement) is applicable across sectors. Noteworthy is the effort to explore the OC construct in relation to publicness or the characteristics of the public sector. One notable example is the work of Balfour and Wechsler (1996). Starting with the argument that a distinctive definition and measurement of commitment in public organisations was needed, the two authors developed and tested constructs in public organisation settings. Their results provided evidence of the suggestion that OC in the public sectors are affected by factors on the basis of the public sector (e.g. organisational arrangement, the contribution of the job to the goal of public organisations, the opportunities to provide direct service to the public of the job (Balfour & Wechsler, 1996).

In line with the above concern, comparative studies were conducted. Views about sectors vary. Some scholars support the idea that OC is lower in government agencies than in private business (Buchanan as cited in Liou & Nyhan, 1994; Perry & Rainey Liou & Nyhan, 1994) while others expected the level of OC to be highest in the public sector (Druckeras cited in Goulet & Frank, 2002). Interestingly, previous empirical research supporting the first view, although valuable, did not examine the multidimensional aspect of OC (Liou & Nyhan, 1999). Therefore, they failed to take into account important factors that can affect the commitment of public servants such

as different professional beliefs and values (Rainey, 1991; Filley et al. cited in Liou & Nyhan, 1999). Empirical findings of multidimensional OC in public organisations are consistent, however.

Since the work of Balfour and Wechsler, conceptualisation and measurement of OC to be applied in the public sector has not yet been extensively established. The most-frequently applied definitions and measurements of OC in studies in the public administration domain include the ones developed by Meyer and Allens (1997), Mowday et al., (1979) and O'Reilley and Chatman (1982). They are also the most widely-adopted OC constructs and instruments in other research fields, including the PA domain.

### **3.5. Other variables**

Section 3.5 addresses two other variables that this study also examines in the relationship between TL and organisational commitment: Participatory Style of Interaction – a style of supervisory communication, and the Psychological Contract. Brief reviews focus on how these two issues have been investigated in public administration studies.

#### ***3.5.1. Participatory Style of Interaction***

##### Definition

Leadership study and public leadership study agree upon the importance of communication to leadership (Hackman & Johnson, 2013; Jackson & Parry 2008; De Vries, Bakker-Pieper & Oosteveld, 2010). The use of communication and its impact on leadership effectiveness and followers are not the same in different leadership styles (Modaff, DeWine & Butler, 2008). Despite the perception that transactional leaders tend to take charge of the communication and speak in a strong manner ((Modaff et al., 2008), this research argues that transactional leaders in fact, also use communication styles that encourage two-way discussions and employees' inputs. The reason for this is because such styles are suitable for them to implement



individualised consideration (Fielder, 1967; House & Mitchell 1974; Blake & Mouton, 1964, 1965; House, 1971 as cited in Trottier et al., 2008).

Based on the above arguments, this study introduces the study concept “Participatory Style of Interaction” (PSI) – a communication style combined from different communication manners. The definition of Participatory Style of Interaction is as follows:

Participatory Style of Interaction (PSI) is a way of communication applied by supervisors in their exchange with their subordinates which focuses on encouraging and facilitating subordinates to be involved in the decision-making process.

This study investigates PSI because a communication style that pays attention to employees’ active participation is useful for establishing mutual understanding – the foundation for exchanged-based relationships (Whittington et al., 2009). Since PVTL is an exchange-based leadership that entails public values, an abstract and complicated issue, such a style is even more critical because it encourages employees to express their concerns or raise questions about public values. Public leadership researchers argue that good transactional leaders would promote a higher level of participation, allow subordinates to make decisions and support them without overusing these techniques (Van Wart, 2013). That means a communication style that combines Consulting and Joining is relevant for transactional leadership in the PA context.

The term “Participatory style of interaction” (PSI) is composed of three keywords: *interaction/interact*, *style*, and *participatory*.

- *Interaction/interact*. In organisational communication literature, *interaction* can be used interchangeably with communication. Therefore, like communication, it can be understood as the process of creating, exchanging, interpreting (correctly or incorrectly), and storing messages within the system of human interrelationship’ (Modaff et al., 2008, p.3).

- *Style*: This study uses the definition of Sheth (1976 as cited in William & Spiro, 1985, p.2) that depicts style as ‘representing the format, ritual or mannerism adopted by two parties in their interaction/communication/transaction’. A style is exhibited by both parties of the communication process, not just a particular, distinctive, or characteristic mode of individuals when conducting communicative actions (Sheth as cited in William & Spiro, 1985). *Style* is critical in the communication concept for several reasons. First, it is a composite component of communication, along with contents, codes, and rules (Eisenberg & Smith as cited in Williams & Spiro (1985). Second, it is the component that encompasses all the other three elements together to form a unique combination<sup>7</sup>. That is, how the contents are delivered between two parties depends on the style of mutual communication that they adopt.
- *Participatory* in this study has a similar meaning with ‘participative’ or ‘participation’, which means to take part in an activity or to get in on the act.

### Theoretical grounds of PSI concept

PSI is mainly grounded on the idea and model of leadership communication in decision-making (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958; Richmond & McCroskey, 1979). Also, this study draws ideas from the generic organisational communication literature (Modaff et al., 2008) and supervisory communication research (Miles, Patrick & King Jr., 1996).

The main theory ground on which PSI is established is the model of leader communication style in decision making initiated by Tannenbaum and Schmidt (as cited in Richmond & McCroskey (1979) and further developed by Richmond and McCroskey (1979). This communication schema is relevant for a study about

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<sup>7</sup> Contents are the ideas contained in the messages; codes are the verbal and non-verbal forms in which the content is relayed; rules are to bond the code with the content (Eisenberg & Smidt, 1971 in Williams and Spiro, 1985).

leadership because it is embedded in the leadership context, especially in the decision-making process. Furthermore, the model, although early initiated, is still being applied in recent research (see Richmond & McCroskey, 1979; O' Dea & Flin, 2001; Rozilah et al., 2013; Guo, Li, & Wu, 2015). Overall, the use of this idea and model in this study is justifiable.

This model introduced four styles, namely *Telling* (briefly, it is the directive style of interaction), *Selling* (the persuasive style), *Consulting* (the dialogue-encouraging style), and *Joining* (the facilitating style) (O'Dea & Flin, 2001; Rozilah, Muhamed, & Khamaluddin, 2013; Guo, Li, & Wu, 2015).

Specifically, *Consulting* is the style that encourages discussion between supervisors and subordinates and also requires supervisors to listen while retaining authority to make the final decision his/herself. *Joining* is the style that requires supervisors to make it easy for employees to be involved in the decision-making process, and/or to help them bring out their ideas or opinions to make contributions. (Tannenbaum & Schmidt as cited in Richmond & McCroskey, 1979; Richmond & McCroskey, 1979). By contrast, *Telling* and *Selling* styles involve one-way communication; the participation of employees, therefore, is not active. This study views *Consulting* and *Joining* as the two key elements of PSI because they concern the active engagement of subordinates.

#### Research on leadership communication style in PA literature

Although leadership communication is documented in the PA literature, not many studies have paid attention to the leaders/managers' use of communication styles and its possible effects on leadership effectiveness. Studies in the past paid attention to other aspects of leadership communication such as public managers' social communication (Park & Rainey, 2012) strategic communication (Falkheime et al., 2017) communication channels of transformational leaders (Men, 2014). In another vein, although organisational studies literature discusses communication style and LMX (Bakkar & De Vries., 2009; De Vries et al., 2010; Jian & Dalisay, 2015; Bakar

& Connaughton, 2009), it does not involve the public sector elements in its primary focus. That is, there is a dearth of research that links public elements, leaders, and communication styles. Because of this dearth, research on communication style used by public managers is relevant and necessary.

### ***3.5.2. The Psychological Contract***

#### ***3.5.2.1. Definition***

The Psychological Contract (PC) is a well-studied concept in PA literature. It is an early established concept that refers to an unwritten agreement, the summation of the mutual expectation between the organisation and employees (Levinson as cited in Cullinane & Dundon, 2006). The increment in studies on PC started with the work on the reconceptualisation of Rousseau (1989) which defined PC as “individual beliefs, shaped by the organisation, regarding terms of an exchange agreement between the individual and their organisation” (Rousseau, 1995, p.9). Specifically, “beliefs” refers to explicit and implicit promises; “exchange” refers to what parties of the psychological contract give and get in return, and “organisation” refers to any potential agent or factor perceived as acting on behalf of the organisation (Conway & Pekcan, 2019). This approach by Rousseau is significantly influential and widely applied in multiple studies with different operations: some view a psychological contract as an obligation, some others emphasise the expectation (Cullinane & Dundon, 2006).

This study adopts the following definition, which was previously used in PA research:

A psychological contract is an unwritten (informal) agreement regarding expectations and contributions between an employee and his/her immediate superior (Berman & West, 2003; Berman et al. 2013).

This definition is in line with the key idea of the general PC definition concerning the mutual understanding and agreement about the exchange between two

parties. However, unlike the original definition (which describes it as an agreement between employees and organisation) and Rousseau's definition (which does not explicitly identify the partner/ party of employees), this definition is explicitly clear about who can be the parties that are involved in the contract: an employee and his/her direct supervisor. This definition, therefore, is relevant to be applied in a study on the effect of direct supervisors' behaviours on employee behaviours (see Castaing, 2006; Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2003; Conway, Kiefer, Hartley & Brine, 2014).

The PC is a useful concept. Researchers and practitioners both acknowledge the importance of using PC to understand critical issues in work environments such as employee attitudes and behaviours, employment relationships, major organisational change, and increased use of flexible employment (Conway & Pekcan, 2019). More specifically, PC can contribute to multiple organisational outcomes such as job satisfaction, sense of security, and organisational citizenship behaviour, and normative commitment (Farmer & Fedor as cited in Berman & West, 2003; Guest as cited in Berman & West, 2003; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). In order for a PC to be initiated and applied, it is necessary to satisfy some conditions which include: how organisations treat and communicate with employees; the values and norms that operate within those organisations, and the type of foundation of power and institutional arrangement applied in those organisations (Bowditch et al., 2007).

Notably, this study investigates PC because it is important to PVTL. As an exchange, PVTL must obtain agreement between supervisors and employees. Given that requirement, PC is a channel for the two parties to achieve an exchange that satisfies them.

#### *3.5.2.2. The PC in public administration literature*

The Psychological Contract (PC) also has captured scholarly attention in the public administration domain, resulting in a rich literature. The most widely applied approach to study PC is Rousseau's approach which supports the idea that PC is in the eyes of beholders (i.e. employee perceptions about the contracts with their

employers (e.g., Robinson & Morrison, 2000; Berman & West, 2003; Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2003; Berman, Chen, Jan & Huang, 2013; Conway, Kiefer, Hartley & Briner, 2014). This popularity is in line with the dominance of this approach in the general PC research. Although some authors believe that PC can be examined from the perspectives of managers or organisations (Bowditch et al., 2007; Conway & Pekcan, 2019), studies that follow this second approach are rare in PA research as well as in the organisational studies literature. This study acknowledges that today many scholars also use PC as a concept of the relationship between employees and organisations rather than only their supervisors.

Second, regarding main issues, two subjects that receive significant attention include the content of the PC and the process of the PC. The term “content” refers to the promise of what in the deal of exchange between employees and employers, and the “process” refers to the manner in which a PC is operated (Conway et al., 2014) – that is the fulfilment and/or the violation of a PC.

This review notes that studies that investigate the content are almost in line with each other. They show that the content of the PC is broad, which means that those agreements can be about the exchange of various particular aspects and issues, including both explicit and implicit matters. For example, reported topics of those contracts include work productivity, quality, absenteeism, work issues (e.g. rewards, job security, work schedule, promotions), and even family issues (Berman & West, 2003). More importantly, those contracts can cover not only specific tasks but also relationships. For example, a supervisor and a subordinate can establish an agreement on how some tasks should be done. Such an agreement concerns the tasks; but at the same time, it also takes into account some features of the supervisor-subordinate relationship under which those tasks are performed. These findings from studies in the public administration domain support a theoretical argument of Rousseau that all PC can be categorised as transactional contracts or relational contracts (1995): the former concerns mostly economic terms while the latter contains socio-emotional terms (Devos as cited in Castaing, 2006).

The process of PC also receives much attention. The main theme of the studies on the process is exploring the impact of the fulfilment and/or the breach of PC on organisational outcomes (such in the works by Coyle-Shapiro & Keller, 1998; Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2003; Guest & Conway, 1998; O'Donnell & Shields as cited in Castaing, 2006).

This review found a consensus between studies on the PC in public administration and in general, not only in terms of approach and interests but also findings. Empirical evidence shows that perceived PC fulfilment are positively associated with a wide range of important organisational outcomes such as OC and extra-role behaviours (Coyle-Shapiro & Kessler, 2003; Castaing, 2006). The breach of PC is negatively associated with trust, commitment, job satisfaction, productivity, and can increase intention to exit or reduce OC (Cassar, 2001, Bunderson as cited in Castaing, 2006). These findings confirm theoretical arguments and finding of research in other domains regarding the process of the PC (e.g Robinson, 1996, Lester et al. as cited in Castaing, 2006).

In addition to the two main interests above, some studies explore more specific questions such as how widespread the use of PC in management practice in public agencies is, and when and how a PC is initiated (Berman & West, 2003; Berman, Chen, Jan, & Huang, 2012). This theme, although not as popular as the two previously mentioned themes, is important as it provides an understanding of the PC as a management tool in the repertoire of public managers and how they use it.

Finally, it is also very important to note the effort that considers the characteristics of the public sector in research on the PC. Bunderson (2001) and Castaing (2006) tried to capture some specific elements of the public sector. Bunderson argued that in the non-profit sector, the PC can have two dimensions: *professional* (refers to the obligation related to the professional role of employees) and *administrative* (refers to the community-oriented role of employees). In the same line with his idea, Castaing (2006) introduced a two-dimensional PC construct combining *public service expectations* (refers to obligations toward the

public/the community) and *administrative expectations* (refers to obligations toward employees themselves). Empirical tests were conducted to answer the questions whether PC with some publicness can produce different impacts on public servants compared to the general construct. However, the hypotheses that the fulfilment of PC with obligations toward the community had a stronger effect on public servants than those with obligations toward themselves were not confirmed.

Based on these findings, this review comes up with the following takeaways. First, the PC is an important concept in the PA literature, and also a common practice in the public sector context. This study did not find conflicting views regarding the use and the significance of the PC in both the PA literature as well as in the general literature. Third, most of the prior studies, although they were conducted in the public setting, did not consider this contextual factor as one of the main focuses. Although there were efforts to involve elements of publicness, there is little empirical evidence to conclude whether the public sector context has an impact on the relationship between PC and organisational outcomes.

A study that considers PC in its main focuses and takes into account the characteristics of the public sector, therefore, is relevant to the PA literature, and necessary to be conducted.

## **Chapter summary**

This chapter has reviewed a range of literature related to four main study concepts which are used as predictors in the research model. It provides the researcher with a better understanding of the knowledge base of these concepts as well as how they have been studied in the public administration domain.

The review of the TL literature and public values suggest several important points. First, more attention should be placed on TL to further explore this important leadership style. Second, studies on public leadership should consider the characteristics of the public sector as one of their research focuses. These takeaways show that it is relevant to use a public values approach to explore the ability of TL



further. They also allow the researcher to conceptualise and define a new substyle of TL that can be used by public managers, that is, Public Values-focused Transactional Leadership.

The examination of the literature on PC, and in leader's communications, helps the researcher to design a framework of interaction among the leadership styles used by public managers and other factors in public organisations.

The relationships among predicting variables and the criterion variable will be discussed in detail in Chapter 4 in order to establish a theoretical ground for the proposal of conceptual research of this study.

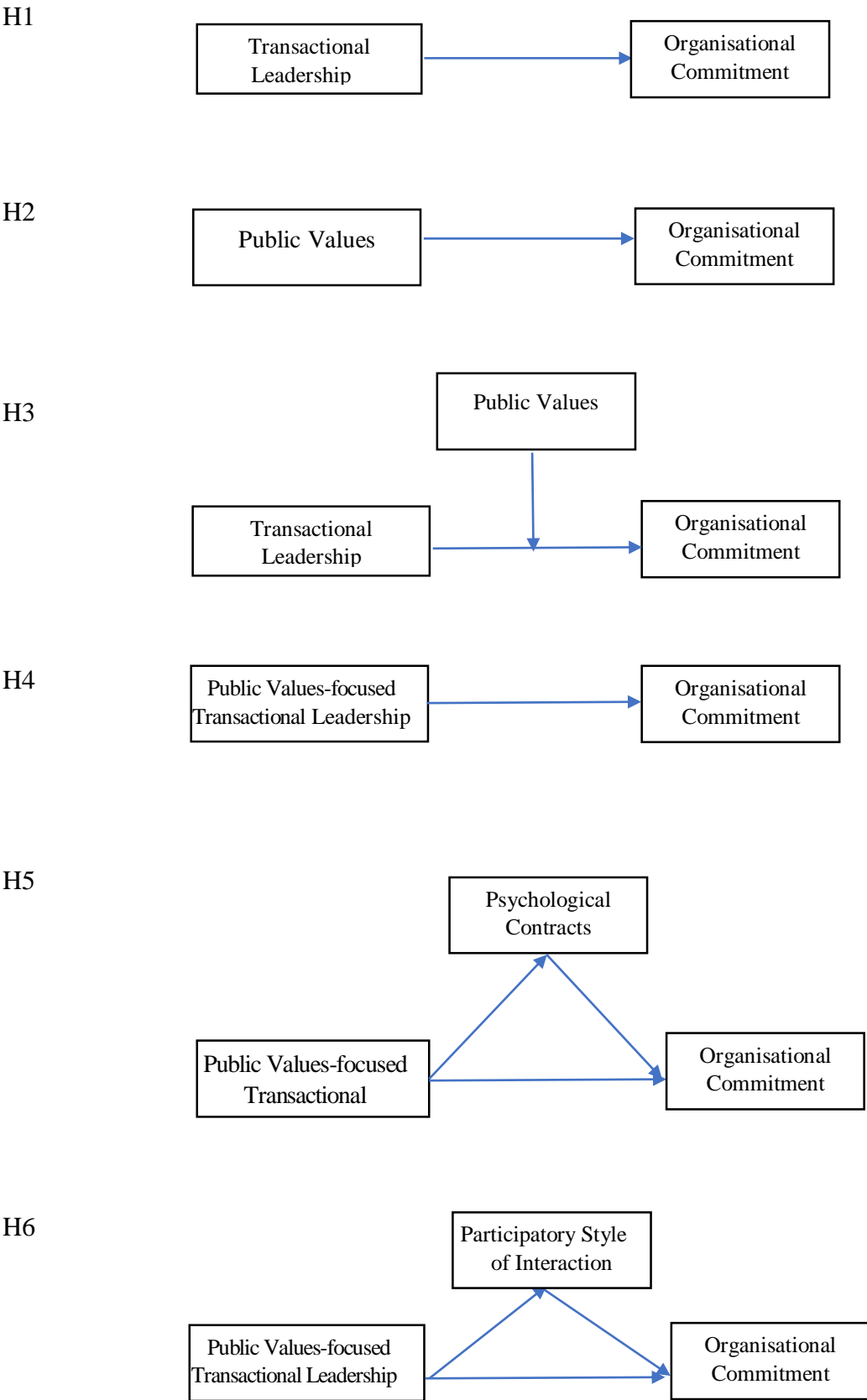
## **CHAPTER 4: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

### **Introduction**

Reviews of previous studies discussed in Chapter 3 show an association between transactional leadership (TL) and organisational commitment (OC), but also indicate a lack of studies examining task-specific leadership substyles. In public administration, such substyles may be especially relevant concerning efforts that further public values (PV), including those among civil servants. Based on the theories reviewed in Chapter 3 and the background, Chapter 4 proposes a conceptual framework that examines potential relationships among the main studied concepts. Section 4.1 discusses how TL can affect OC. Section 4.2 discusses the different roles that PV can play in relationships with transactional leadership and OC. Section 4.3 focuses on the mechanism in which the proposed Public Values-focused Transactional Leadership (PVTL) substyle influences OC. Section 4.4 extends this model by examining the effects of Participatory Style of Interaction and the Psychological Contract in the relationship between the proposed substyle and commitment.

Figure 4.1 shows the conceptual frameworks of the study. It posits positive relationships between (a) the generic transactional leadership and OC; (b) public values and OC; (c) public values-focused transactional leadership and OC. It also proposes that public values moderate the relationship between transactional leadership and OC. Finally, it suggests that the relationship between PVTL and OC can be enabled through two mediators: (i) psychological contract and (ii) participatory style of interaction.

**Figure 4. 1: Conceptual Framework**



#### **4.1. The relationship between Transactional Leadership and Organisational Commitment**

This study examines the relationship between transactional leadership (TL) and organisational commitment (OC). TL is defined as the exchange relationship between leaders and subordinates that aims at satisfying their own self-interests. OC is defined as the psychological attachment that people have toward their organisations based on the degree to which they accept and adopt the values or the characteristics of their organisations (O'Reilly and Chatman as cited in eyer & Herscovitch, 2001)).

This study argues that in public organisations, TL can increase OC. First of all, it is noteworthy to mention that because TL is a behaviour-based leadership style (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Hernandez et al., 2011), leaders must carry out particular behaviours in order to influence OC. According to TL conceptualisation, TL involves two main behaviours, including Contingent Reward (CR) and Managerial-By-Exception (MBE). Both behaviours can increase OC but in different mechanisms.

##### Influencing by using Contingent Reward behaviour

The direct positive relationship between TL and OC can be partly explained by how CR affects OC. CR behaviour can be carried out in the forms of providing rewards and support (Bass and Avolio, 1994; Bass, 1985; Walumbwa et al., 2008; Whittington et al., 2009). Rewards can affect employee commitment in various ways. First, they can draw upon employees “exchange commitment” - the direct commitment formed when receiving rewards (Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Reicher (as cited in Balfour & Wechsler, 1996); Mercurio, 2015; Becker (as cited in Mecurio, 2015). Also, rewards, when contingently provided, implicate fairness and acknowledgment, which contribute to employees’ satisfaction – a factor positively associated with commitment (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Breevaart et al., 2014). Moreover, contingent rewards can make employees feel obliged to return the favour to their organisations through good performance and loyalty (Afshari & Gibson, 2016). In terms of support, supervisors can conduct CR to clarify job requirements, specific roles and

responsibilities (Bass, 1985; Walumbwa et al., 2008; Whittington et al., 2009) thereby reducing role ambiguity and uncertainty, factors that can negatively affect OC.

In short, CR behaviours of supervisors can be presented and interpreted in different forms: a reward, a support/consideration, or a cause of obligation. All of these forms can result in a psychological influence on employees that develops in them the mindset of attachment (Allen 1992; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001; Walumbwa et al. as cited in Afshari & Gibson, 2016; Hernandez et al. 2011; Tjosvold, Saaki & Moy as cited in Manetje, 2009).

#### Influencing by using Management-By-Exception behaviour.

Another mechanism for TL to directly influence OC is by conducting MBE. Although MBE aims at correction, which is somewhat negative, it can produce a positive impact on OC. Scholars have asserted that MBE can be tailored in ways to highlight support rather than rebuke and reinforce employees' understanding of what to do (Trottier et al., 2008). For example, correction, if conducted contingently and consistently can consolidate trust between supervisors and employees (Whittington et al.; 2009), thus improving the quality of their relationship. Moreover, similarly to CR, MBE can also provide clarification, only with different approaches and focuses. Instead of reducing the ambiguity of goals or mission like CR, MBE helps to reduce the ambiguity of rules and standards and clarifies the link between deviation/misconduct and censorship. This clarification provides what is needed to identify a 'safe-zone' for employees to perform within: if employees follow instructions and rules, they can avoid risks of insecurity (such as getting criticised or even fired, for instance). This kind of safe zone can buffer their intentions to leave the organisations.

Studies supporting the above arguments can be found in organisational commitment literature. Some scholars pointed out the negative impact of role ambiguity on OC (Mowday et al., 1982), and also underlined the positive influence

of goals clarity on OC (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Curry, Wakefield, Price, & Mueller, 1996).

In conclusion, CR and MBE ensure that the exchange is clear, explicit and agreed-upon, thus, reducing role ambiguity, misunderstanding, and at the same time, increasing trust between supervisors and employees, job clarity, and employee-perceived support and satisfaction. CR and MBE can help to create a favourable condition for commitment to be developed and improved. Based on the reasons discussed above, this study posits that:

*H1: Transactional leadership increases the organisational commitment of public servants.*

#### **4.2. The relationship between PV and OC**

Public administration literature has documented that public values can explain the behaviours of public employees in different mechanisms: specific mechanisms vary and depend on how PV is defined and where they are located. For example, the values congruency between public organisations and public employees' personal values can improve the employees' motivation and reduce their intention to leave (Wright & Pandey, 2008). Public service values (PSV) and public service motivation (PSM), which reside within public employees, can affect employee motivation, OCB, and OC (Witesman & Walters, 2013; Boxx, Odom, & Dunn, 1991; Abbot, White & Charles, 2005; Perry & Wise, 1990).

The "public values" proposed by this study reside within the public work and manifest the meaningful public service. This study argues that these proposed "public values" can influence OC in two different mechanisms: direct effect and moderation effect. The following sections further describe the mechanisms of these two effects

### *The direct effect*

The direct positive effect of Public Values on OC can be explained by the attraction of public work to public servants. The proposed PV is about “serving the public”, or “Serviceability” (the word used by Van der Wal, De Graaf & Lasthuizen, 2008) through doing public work. This study argues that PV makes public work attractive to public servants because, often, public servants are those who want to serve the public (Perry & Wise as cited in Bozeman & Su, 2015; Scott & Pandey, 2005). Doing work that encompasses PV may help them actualise their wants of making contributions to the public missions; thus, it is satisfactory to them. Therefore, it is expected that they will remain in the organisations that provide them with opportunities to do the work that they like (Balfour & Wechsler, 1996). Our prediction is supported by previous studies which argued people were more committed to doing work that match their values (Boxx, Odom, & Dunn, 1991; Vancouver & Schmidt as cited in Finnegan, 2000), and that PV reduces turnover intention (Naff & Crum as cited in Wright and Pandey, 2008).

This study also argues that the influence of PV on OC is separate from the influence of leadership practice because PV resides in public works, as conceptualised, not within leaders. Our argument is supported by the idea of task significance theory which explains the direct link between the importance of jobs and the commitment of incumbents.

### *The moderating effect*

Another way that PV influences public employee commitment is through interaction with TL. It means that PV increases the positive impact of TL on OC.

TL supervisors can produce a positive impact on their subordinates’ levels of commitment (Afshari & Gibson, 2016). Because supervisors are also bound by many factors within organisations such as rules, regulations, policies and settings (Pieterse et al., 2010), the effectiveness of TL may vary in different conditions with the presence of different factors. Meanwhile, PV is a factor embedded in public work.

When it is clarified, PV can directly influence employee commitment. At the same time, it can alter the strength of TL influence on OC. The following paragraph explains how this occurs.

Although all public work has the same public values (the contribution to the public mission), public values may be more obscure in some work than in others. It can be said that ‘the level of public values’ is different across work. When a leader uses spoken persuasion to elucidate the meaning of public work to employees and help employees understand, the PV level can increase. Employees may consider leaders who help them as good leaders. Because of this, the influence of the leader may increase among these employees.

Hence, this study argues that PV moderates the influence of TL. The positive effect of TL on commitment would increase in cases of well-clarified PV as compared to the case of obscure PV. This mechanism differs from the mechanism of PVTL influencing OC. This difference is explained further in Section 4.3, where this research theorises the impact of PVTL.

Evidence to support our arguments can be found in previous studies that examine the interaction of value and leadership on followers and those that discuss the role of task/job importance/meaning. For instance, empirical findings show that the value-congruence which facilitates the impact of leadership on follower moral efficiency is increased when followers have a high level of value-congruence with leaders and reduced when the level of congruence is low (Lee, Choi, Youn & Chun 2017).

Based on the literature and the arguments above, this study proposes the following hypotheses:

*H2: Public values in public work increase the organisational commitment of public employees*



*H3: Public values in public work moderate the relationship between transactional leadership and organisational commitment of public employees.*

#### **4.3. The relationship between PVTL and OC**

Public Values-focused Transactional leadership (PVTL) is theorised as the transaction between supervisors and subordinates comprising two dimensions reflecting two behaviours of supervisors. These two behaviours include: explicating PV and incorporating PV in their actions. This study argues that by conducting these two behaviours, PVTL supervisors can positively influence employees' commitment.

First, to understand the effect of PVTL on OC, it is necessary to understand (i) how PVTL supervisors use CR and MBE to clarify PV thus forming the public values clarifying behaviour, and (ii) how PVTL supervisors integrate PV in their exchange with subordinates. The following sessions provide explanations for these inquiries before explaining the mechanism of the PV-added transactions affecting employees' commitment.

To form the Public-Values clarifying behaviour, PVTL supervisors can use both CR and MBE approaches because as discussed in the conceptualisation, CR and MBE both can clarify (Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003). The distinctiveness of PVTL clarification is that it pays great attention to the public values aspect, compared to clarification provided by the generic TL. Specifically, using CR for clarifying PVTL not only provides employees with general instructions of how the mission should be done in some ways (like a generic TL supervisor would do) but also points out how doing things that way would result in more benefits for the public (e.g. citizens, community). In a parallel vein and using MBE manner, supervisors might also make it clear to employees how ignoring instructions or violating regulations leads to not only failure in completing their mission but also harms the public interest.

In order to incorporate PV into the exchange with employees, PVTL supervisors do all the tasks within the responsibility of transactional supervisors but with the awareness of PV: in the case of providing support and rewards, they need to make sure the rewards would be related to PV (PV-focused CR); in the case of providing corrections, the correction needs to involve PV elements (PV focused MBE).

#### Public values-focused CR

Rewards in PVTL are for good performances that highlight the values of serving the public welfare. This is different from rewards for performance in the generic TL. It can be seen that TL theory does not discuss specific aspects of performance that rewards are particularly related to. That means, in generic TL, rewards, although contingent, but are not bound by specific criteria; therefore, they can be for various things (such as high productivity, diligence, goals achievements, creativity, or quick problem-solving).

The link between rewards and performance in PVTL, in contrast, is more specific and targeted. It is possible for conversations like this to take place between a TL supervisor and his employees: *"If you obtain the goal, you will get promoted"*; and the one between a PVTL supervisor and her employees: *"If you obtain the goal, which brings great benefits to the community, you will get promoted"*. Stated differently, if CR in the generic TL highlights the general effort-rewards relationship, public values-focused CR highlights the link between the performance-for-values and rewards.

#### Public values-focused MBE

As MBE is about corrections, the clarified public values are not used for rewarding, but for monitoring. For example, supervisors can blend PV in standards or manners by which assigned tasks should be completed, and later take actions (disapproval or criticism) if employees fail to meet the standards that have built-in values. For illustration, the requirements and warnings from a PVTL supervisor might be *"Do not miss the deadline as this will make the citizens unhappy, and the result will be*

*actions of discipline."* While what might come from a generic TL supervisor might be simpler: *"Do not miss the deadline or there will be actions of discipline."*

Table 4.1 provides illustrations of supervisors' actions to incorporate PV in their leadership. In sum, this behaviour, although based on CR and/or MBE, is distinguished from the general CR and MBE behaviours because of its strong PV content.

**Table 4.1: Illustrations of supervisor activities to incorporate PV  
in leadership practice**

<b>Supervisor Activity</b>	<b>Public values-focused MBE</b>	<b>Public values-focused CR</b>
Assigning task	- Use PV as criteria in drafting standards for employees	- Provide specific and well-defined requirements and expectations to employees including the requirement of meeting PV-standards they drafted for their employees.
Coaching	- Break the goals with implicit values into small concrete tasks - Provide corrections based on the said standards	- Provide sufficient time and resources for employees to implement those tasks - Give performance feedback: state what they observed (about the employee's performances and attitudes) with regard to the public values- standards
Assessing performance	- Define public values in criteria for each level of ranking and use the same criteria for every employee; - Give comments about the performance against the criteria	- Together with employees, setting performance goals that involve promoting public values.

Between CR and MBE, the former seems to be the most relevant. CR is more capable than MBE in intangible delivery values; moreover, it is a constructive transaction which is considered more effective than corrective transactions (Bass, 1985 in Walumbwa 2008; Whittington et al., 2009). However, MBE can assist CR. That is, supervisors can combine CR and MBE or use either of them to bring PV into their leadership practice. In other words, PV is compatible with TL.

Based on the explanations of how PVTL supervisors clarify and incorporate PV, the researcher of this study explains the mechanism of PVTL influencing OC. As a substyle of TL, PVTL is expected to directly and positively affect OC. However, the mechanism of PVTL works differently from the generic TL through the following mechanism of aligning PV with rewards.

The first sub-mechanism is using CR and MBE to conduct tangible value exchange and monitoring (Mecurio, 2015; Becker, 1960 in Mecurio, 2015; Walumbwa et al., 2008; Avolio, 1999; Naff & Crum, 1999 in Wright & Pandey, 2008; Liu et al., 2008). PVTL can use this mechanism because it is a substyle of TL.

The second sub-mechanism is related to the effect of PV. Given that PV increases OC (Finnegan, 2000; Balfour & Wechsler, 1996), it is expected that a leadership practice with behaviours compatible with PV (as explained above) can expose PV to public employees, thereby, motivating them to commit to work that shares the values they hold on to.

Finally, the combination of these two sub-mechanisms can produce augmented leadership impact as follows: the PV entailed in public work, if well clarified can contribute to a range of essential factors, such as the mutual understanding of supervisors and employees, the quality of the exchange, the better employees' understanding of work, and the agreements between supervisors and employees. These factors can be considered as a high exchange, which is believed to be appreciated by employees and has a positive association with employees' behaviours and attitudes (Van Wart, 2008), including the commitment to organisations.

Based on the above argument, this study introduces the hypothesis as follow:

*H4: The use of public values-focused transactional leadership increases the organisational commitment of public employees.*

Critical notes: The PVTL mechanism is different from the interaction between TL and PV. In the PVTL mechanism, PV is like a built-in element of CR and MBE

behaviours to increase the public values content of these behaviours. That is, PV enhances CR and MBE. The influence of PVTL on OC then depends on how well managers clarify and incorporate PV in their rewarding and monitoring activities. In contrast, in the interaction, PV is a contextual factor that creates different conditions which may or may not favour TL. The influence of TL on OC alters based on how clear PV is to employees.

#### **4.4. The indirect effects of PVTL via communication**

The PA literature underlines the importance of examining indirect effects of leadership (Moynihan et al., 2014 in Pandey et al., 2016) because that helps to understand the potential influence of leadership that might be underestimated by studies of only direct effects. This study, therefore, examines possible channels through which PVTL is enacted. This study examines potential mediators, including the Participatory Style of Interaction (PSI) and the Psychological Contract (PC).

##### ***4.4.1. Participatory Style of Interaction as a mediator***

This study argues that the proposed communication style – Participatory Style of Interaction (PSI) can serve as a vehicle through which Public values-focused Transactional leadership exercises its impact on public employees' commitment.

This argument is based on the well-documented consensus of three bodies of literature including leadership, public leadership and communication that leadership involves a great deal of communication (Hackman & Johnson, 2013; Jackson & Parry, 2008; Richmond & McCroskey, 1979; De Vries, Bakker-Pieper & Oosteveld, 2010; Guo, Li & Wu, 2015; Guy as cited in Pandey & Garnett, 2006). Moreover, leadership is impossible if communication is absent (De Vries et al., 2010), which implies that communication is a mediator of leadership. Empirical findings from various fields support this argument showing that communication is an important channel through which leadership influences different employees' behaviours such as work engagement, job satisfaction, motivation, commitment, performance, absenteeism, burn-out (Bakkar & Connaughton, 2009; Mayfield, Mayfield & Kopf,

1995; Mayfield & Mayfield, 2009); and that how leaders conduct their communication also matters (Norton, 1978; Guo, Li & Wu, 2015; Chaganti & Bikkina; 2011; Brunetto & Farr-Wharton, 2004; De Vries Bakker-Pieper & Oosteveld, 2010).

To understand the indirect linkage between PVTL, PSI and OC, it is necessary to understand (i) how PVTL generates PSI, and (ii) how PSI influences OC.

PVTL, as defined, is the exchange based on mutual understanding between supervisors and employees on public values. In order to obtain such understanding, first, communication is critical; second, the communication must not be one-way, supervisor-centric and in a strong manner because such communication is ineffective for articulating abstract public values and aligning those values with the rewarding and monitoring. Indeed, PVTL supervisors need to apply a style of communication that allows the participation of employees and encourages questions and inputs from employees. That is to say they promote PSI – the style combining of Consulting (which encourages two-way discussion between supervisors and employees) and Joining (which aims at promoting the employees' participation in the communication process).

On the other hand, PSI is also positively linked to OC. This linkage can be explained by studies that confirm the effect of general communication OC (Allen, 1992; De Ridder, 2004; de Vuuren, de Jong, Seydel, 2007; Postmec et al.as cited in de Vuuren et al., 2007); of supervisor - subordinate communication on OC (Verona, 1996), and especially, by studies that showed the mediation effect of supervisor communication in the relationship between leader-member exchange and OC (Bakkar, Dilbeck & McCroskey, 2010).

Having Consulting and Joining as the main characters, PSI can be considered as an effective communication style in management (Tannabaum & Schmidt, 1958; Richmond & Croskey1977; O'Dea & Flin, 2001; Rozilah, Muhamed & Khamakuddin, 2013). PSI offers both supervisors and employees more opportunities

to clarify their expectations of what they have to exchange. Moreover, having been encouraged by supervisors, employees feel more appreciated and satisfied, and expectedly, satisfaction increases their commitment.

Based on these reasons, the following hypothesis is introduced:

*H5: Participatory style of interaction mediates the relationship between public values-focused transactional leadership and organisational commitment of the public employees.*

#### **4.4.2. The Psychological Contract as a mediator**

This study examines The Psychological contract as a mediator through which PVTL exercises its influence on OC. Similar to the investigation of PSI, in order to explain the mediation effect of PC first we need to understand how PVTL brings about PC, and then how PC is positively linked with OC.

As argued earlier, PVTL is based on fair exchange and mutual understanding. In order to ensure such a relationship, self-other agreements are vital to both supervisors and employees. This study argues that PC can even be used as a proxy of PVTL because PC, by nature, is a reciprocal agreement between a supervisor and an employee. Such an agreement can involve transactional content factors (such as pay, workload, work schedule) as well as non-transactional factors (such as job-related information (Berman & West, 2003). Supervisors, on one hand, use PC to conduct rewarding performance, allocating workload, scheduling (Berman & West, 2003) in such a way that satisfies employees. On the other hand, PC can be used in providing information about jobs (especially for recruits) – including the PV entailed in the jobs, explaining expected and acceptable behaviours in the organisations, clarifying employees and supervisors' roles/jobs to minimise misunderstanding (Berman & West, 2003). These activities can align with the main functions of PVTL, which is to provide support and monitoring based on the clarification of PV.

The use of PC can contribute to the bond between public employees and their organisations.). As defined, PC is a deal, an agreement. In order to achieve an agreement, both parties are required contributing inputs; it is also necessary that both sides are reasonable and fair in making requests and offers. If well established, a psychological contract can make employees feel appreciated and satisfied. These feelings can even be more significant if the employees are encouraged to initiate the contracts (Berman & West, 2003). Those feelings are positively associated with commitment. At the same time, an agreement can make employees feel obligated to the organisations because it can keep employees maintain to fulfil the deal. Moreover, PC can increase commitment because it addresses many work-related expectations that supervisors have for employees and vice versa – the task that is seldom touched by formal contacts (Berman & West, 2003). The great deal of clarity that PC can add to what otherwise might be ambiguous helps employees understand their work, the supervisors, and their organisations better, and thereby, promotes their commitment toward the organisations.

This study's arguments are supported by psychological contract literature which claims that there is a wide range of management tasks that supervisors can do through PC (Berman & West, 2003) and that employees' commitment is affected by the perceived fulfilment of the agreement between them and their organisations (Rousseau, 1990). Furthermore, empirical research in the public organisational settings also supports this claim (Coyle Shapiro & Kessler 2002; Janssens, Sels, Van den Brande., 2003; Cassar, 2001; Castaing, 2006, Lemire & Rouillard, 2005). In conclusion, it is drawn from these studies that the neglect or violation of psychological contracts negatively affect employees' commitment and increases their intention to exit while the fulfilment of psychological contracts does the opposite.

Based on these reasons, we propose the following hypothesis:

*H6: The use of Psychological contracts mediates the relationship between public values-focused transactional leadership and organisational commitment of the public employees.*



**Table 4 1: Summary of the proposed hypotheses**

<b>H1</b>	Transactional Leadership increases Organisational Commitment
<b>H2</b>	Public Values increase Organisational Commitment
<b>H3</b>	Public Values moderate the relationship between Transactional Leadership and Organisational Commitment
<b>H4</b>	Public Values-focused Transactional leadership increases Organisational Commitment
<b>H5</b>	Participatory Style of Interaction mediates the relationship between Public Values-focused Transactional leadership and Organisational Commitment
<b>H6</b>	The Psychological Contract mediates the relationship between Public Values-focused Transactional leadership and Organisational Commitment

### **Chapter summary**

This chapter has proposed a conceptual framework that involves the main studied constructs and provides a possible explanation for the relationship among these constructs. As described by the framework, transactional leadership and public values each have a direct relationship with OC; at the same time, the public values construct is hypothesised to moderate the relationship between TL and OC. This chapter also proposes a direct effect of public values-focused transactional leadership on the same outcome. Finally, it explains how PVTTL can be enabled through the channels of Participatory Style of Interaction and the Psychological Contract. Overall, the framework proposed in the chapter provides a theoretical ground and direction for testing the hypotheses.

## **CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

### **Introduction**

This chapter provides the research methodology designed for the assessment and validation of the conceptual framework developed in Chapter 4. The mixed-method approach is used because it can tell a fuller story. Furthermore, a mixed-method design is relevant to the types of questions that this study addresses and the situation of this study. For these reasons, a combination of surveys and interviews, with survey focus, was conducted for this study. The following sections, first, introduce the paradigm/worldview of the study, followed by the discussion of the specific methods applied in this study including sample collection, methods of data collection, and analysis, and ethical consideration.

### **5.1. The selection of the research paradigm**

The paradigm stance (or the world-view) of this research is the philosophical assumptions about reality, how knowledge is obtained, and the methods of gaining knowledge. A research paradigm has four components, which address four fundamental issues that require responses from researchers need to response. They are: (i) Ontology – what is the nature of reality? (ii) Epistemology – what is the relationship between the researcher and that being researched? (iii) Axiology – what is the role of values? and (iv) Methodology – what is the process of research? (Creswell & Clark (2003). How a researcher responds to these questions determine the paradigm for his/her research. These paradigms are distinguished by their common elements and their implications for practice (Creswell & Clark (2003).

#### Ontology and Epistemology

“The way we think the world is (ontology) influences: what we think can be known about it (epistemology); how we think it can be investigated (methodology and research techniques); the kinds of theories we think can be constructed about it; and the political and policy stances we are prepared to take” (Fleetwood, p32 as cited in Iosofide, 2011).

There is a continuum of ontological positions that range from realism to idealism (Morgan, 2013). *Realism* advocates that there is an external reality independent of what people may think or understand it to be. *Idealism/Constructivism* claims that reality can only be understood via the human mind and socially constructed meanings.

Different ontological positions lead people to different epistemology, which concerns how knowledge can be defined and learnt. According to the realism perspective, truth is defined as the accurate representation of an independently existing reality. The accumulation of knowledge is thereby considered to be the accumulation of accurate representations of what is (independently) outside of us.” (Smith and Hodkinson, 2005, p.916). In order to learn about reality, quantities/preoccupation with measurement are suggested. Research that applies this perspective of ontology and epistemology falls under the category of Positivism.

Regarding epistemology of constructivism, the social sciences are inevitably concerned with social, economic and cultural worlds that are constituted by the human capacity for meaningful understanding and action.” (Prasad, 2005, p.5). “If we believe something to be real, it is real enough in its consequences for we behave as if it does exist” (Thomas as cited in Smith, 1998, p.161).

In reality and practice, however, it is acceptable to be flexible and not adhere rigidly to either one of these two dominant stances. A pragmatic view is that the world is both real and socially constructed; a researcher can be an interpreter of the single existing reality and at the same time, someone who is part of the social world, and can act on it as well as study it.

Axiologically, this research aims to not only understand problems in the existing social world (human behaviours in public organisations) but also contribute to solving those problems. That is, the research uses both objective and subjective reality to contribute to the knowledge base. This stance leads the researcher to use Pragmatism as the research paradigm.

### Pragmatism as the research paradigm

Pragmatism has the values as a philosophy because it places importance on the question of *why to* as well as the question of *how to* (Morgan, 2014). “Classic pragmatism is not a methodology per se. It is a doctrine of meaning, a theory of truth. It rests on the arguments that the meaning of an event cannot be given in advance of experience. The focus is on the consequences and meanings of an action or event in a social situation” (Denzin, p.81 as cited in Morgan, 2013).

Given this philosophical foundation, the researcher is believed to be able to create knowledge through an active process of inquiry, which involves a continual back-and-forth movement between belief and action (Dewey, as cited in Morgan, 2014).

### Mixed-method approach as the research methodology

Grounded on Dewey’s Pragmatism, this study has the freedom to make choices of what to research and what means to use for the research. The choice is a mix-method approach. The Pragmatic paradigm is compatible with mixed methods (Hall, 2013; Morgan, 2014). Especially, Deweyan pragmatism “embraces and promotes the mixing of methods” (Greene, p.69 as cited in Hall, 2013).

The mixed-method (MM) approach involves the integration of qualitative and quantitative research and data in a research study (Creswell, 2014). This study applies a mixed-method (MM) approach because it is relevant to the selected paradigm and has multiple values for the researcher.

The MM approach has many practical advantages. It can use the strengths but mitigate the weaknesses that qualitative and quantitative methods each have. Qualitative approaches (often applied by constructivists) are suitable to help understand meanings, surrounding contexts, unanticipated phenomena, processes, and reasons behind causal relationships (Maxwell, 2005). But they are poor at exploring trends in a population. In contrast, quantitative approaches can provide methods to test objective theories by examining relationships among variables to

predict trends, and to compare differences. But they cannot do what qualitative approaches can.

Another advantage of MM is that it enables a researcher “to clarify subtleties, cross-validate findings, and inform effort to plan, implement, and evaluate intervention strategies” (Black and Ricardo, p.1066 as cited in Creswell & Clark, 2003) and to obtain a more complete picture of the phenomenon of his/her interest as well as more possible explanation for their findings (Creswell & Clark, 2003; Creswell, 2014).

Because of its advantages, the MM approach is valued and used by PA researchers (Hendren, Luo & Pandey, 2018). (See Hartley et al., 2015; Pautz, 2015, Young and Park, 2013, for instance). PA researchers want to see more mixed methods used in the field (Raimondo & Newcomer, 2017; Hendren et al., 2018).

Moreover, this study applies the MM approach because neither a quantitative nor qualitative approach is enough to understand the research problems that the study addresses. On one hand, this study aims to explore the influence of leadership factors on an organisational outcomes in a particular context. This problem calls for the understanding of a predictor on an outcome; therefore, a quantitative approach is relevant. The survey approach is used because it is best for investigating relationships among factors (Creswell & Clark, 2003). On the other hand, this study aims at developing a detailed view of a phenomenon (a new transactional leadership sub-style) which leads to the requirement to identify concepts and refine the measurements. Therefore, qualitative data is especially useful (Creswell, 2014); specifically, interviews are conducted to gain in-depth knowledge of the participants’ perspectives about the phenomenon and a better understanding of possible reasons behind the hypothesised relationships (Creswell & Clark, 2003).

MM is complex and needs extensive data collection and time-intensive data analysis. It takes time to make sense of the data. Additionally, researchers need to be familiar with both qualitative and quantitative research (Creswell, 2014).

## 5.2. Research design

Among many designs existing in the mixed-methods, the primary model is often found in social science includes Convergent parallel mix-methods; Explanatory sequential mixed-methods, and Exploratory sequential mixed methods<sup>8</sup>. Each of these designs has the requirements of how data should be collected and on which data the conclusion should be made (Creswell, 2014). These basic models can be used in more advanced mixed methods, including Transformative mixed methods, Embedded mix-methods, and Multiphase mix-methods<sup>9</sup>(Creswell, 2014).

This study applies the multiphase mixed methods design. This design allows the researcher to use several MM studies in one overall research. In this research, the need for the development of new measurement and tests of hypothesis calls for exploratory sequential methods; the need for a more in-depth understanding of the quantitative results suggests the explanatory MM design.

In order to obtain these expected outcomes, both exploratory sequential and explanatory sequential methods are employed as main strategies for data collection and analysis. These two phases are built on each other to address the overall research problems.

Figure 5.1 displays the research design with details on the priority on the type of methods selected, the sequential form of data collection, and the expected outcomes of each phase. The data obtained are connected, which means that the

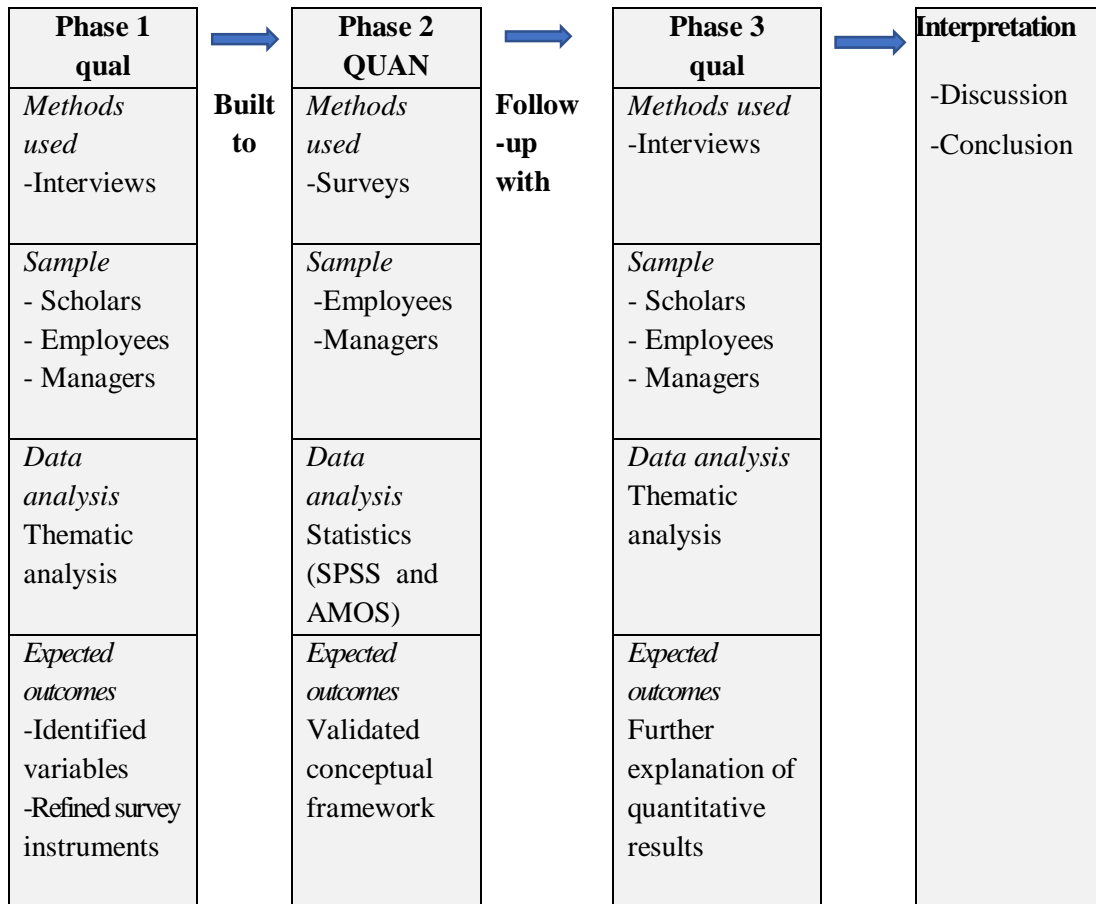
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<sup>8</sup> Convergent parallel mix-methods: A MM design that allows a researcher to obtain both quantitative and qualitative data, analyses them separately and then compares the results to see whether or not the findings confirm each other; Explanatory sequential mixed-methods: A MM strategy consist of two phases: the first phase is for collecting and analysing quantitative data; the second phase, qualitative is planed based on the results of the first phase; Exploratory sequential mixed-methods: A MM strategy consist of two phases: the first phase is for collecting and analysing quantitative data; the second phase, qualitative is planed based on the results of the first phase (Creswell, 2014)

<sup>9</sup> Transformative mixed methods: A form of MM design in which the researcher identifies one of the qualitative theoretical frameworks and uses the framework through the MM study; Embedded mix-methods: A MM design the involves a convergent, explanatory sequential, or exploratory sequential method within a larger design; Multiphase mix-methods: In this design, a researcher conducts several MM project in a longitude study with a focus on a common objective for the multiple projects. (Creswell, 2014)

analysis of one data is used to lead into the data of the following data set (Creswell, 2014).

**Figure 5. 1: Visual diagram of the research design**



Notes: Uppercase: Greater emphasis on the data used, analysis, and the interpretation in the study; Lower case: Less emphasis; →: Sequential method (Creswell, 2014)

### **5.3. Study sample**

#### ***5.3.1. Process***

The target population of this study were public managers and public employees in the public sector of Vietnam who can provide perspectives, insights, and opinion about leadership practice. Participants in this study were purposively selected based on the following criteria: (i) they identified as public officers, according to the public personnel laws of Vietnam; (ii) they had experienced at least one year working in the public sector; (iii) they were willing to participate in the study. This study focused on the middle-level managers and street-level public employees under the direct supervision of said managers.

A combination of nonprobability sample techniques was applied to select organisations for the study. Snowball sampling was adopted because it helps the researcher to cope with a cultural constraint: in Vietnam's public sector, it is difficult for people from outside to approach public organisations and interact with their officers for reasons that are not directly and officially related to their work. Therefore, a suitable method is to ask people who can help the research to approach organisations that are likely to give approval for the researcher to conduct a study in their organisation. Moreover, this method also helps the researcher to deal with the constraints of budget and time. For the above purposes and these reasons, purposive sampling and snowball sampling are appropriate (Babbie, 2013). Nevertheless, the researcher is aware that the absence of random selection would affect the representativeness of the sample (Miller, 2003; Babbie, 2013).

#### ***5.3.2. Description of the sample***

Using her networks and the help from her informants, the researcher was able to contact leaders of departments in public organisations and was approved to approach 27 organisations to recruit participants for the study. Table 5 shows the organisations and agencies involved in the study.



As shown in Table 5.1, among 27 organisations, 10 are bureaucracy agencies, 11 are public-service delivery agencies, 3 are communist party agencies, and 4 are agencies from other sub-sections. Regarding levels, 15 are at central/ministerial level; 5 are at the provincial/city level, 2 at a district level, and 05 are ward/commune level. These organisations are distributed in the Northern, the Central, and the Southern of Vietnam; most are in urban areas (25); only 2 are in rural areas. 78 departments/units under these organisations are involved in the main survey.

**Table 5. 1: Selected organisations for the study**

Code	Organisation	Sub-section	Type	Level	Employee
1	The University of Culture of Ha-noi City	Education	SD	Local	Public professional
2	Vietnamese Union of Friendship Organisation	External affairs	PSO	Central	Public professional
3	Union of Young Communist of Ha-noi City	Politics	CPA	Local	Civil servant
4	The Department for External Relations of the Central Committee of Communist Party	Politics	CPA	Central	Civil servant
5	Su-that Publishing House of Politics under of the Central Committee of Communist Party (Ha-noi City branch)	Politics	CPA	Central	Public professional
6	Central Hospital of Acupuncture	Health care	SD	Central	Public professional
7	State Treasury	Finance	SD	Central	Civil servant
8	Ba-dinh District (Ha-noi City) Communist Party Committee	Politics		Local	Civil servant
9	People committee of Ward 2, Ben-tre City, Ben-tre Province	Executive	BO	Local	Civil servants and Cadre
10	Department of Home Affairs of Ben-tre City, Ben-tre Province	Executive	BO	Local	Civil servants
11	Office of Business Promoting and Consultation (under the Ministry of Planning and Investment, Da-nang City Office)	Business	SD	Ministerial	Public professional
12	University of Da-nang City	Education	SD	Local	Public professional
13	National Academic of Public Administration	Politics & Education	SD	Ministerial	Public professional
14	Ha-noi University of Pedagogy	Education	SD	Local	Public professional
15	People's Council of Lien-chieu District, Da-nang City	Executive	BO	Local	Civil servants and Cadres

16	Department of Home Affairs of Da-nang City,	Executive	BO	Local	Civil servants
17	Department of Relations with European countries under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs	Executive	BO	Ministerial	Civil servants
18	National University (Ha-noi Campus)	Education	SD	Central	Public professional
19	Ministry of Home Affairs	Executive	BO	Ministerial	Civil servants
20	Su-that Publishing House of Politics under of the Central Committee of Communist Party (Ho Chi Minh City Branch)	Politics	CPA	Central	Public professional
21	Central Hospital of Traditional Medicals	Health care	SD	Central	Public professional
22	People' Committee of Bung-rieng Commune, Xuyen-moc District, Ba-ria Vung-tau Province	Executive	BO	Local	Civil servants and Cadre
23	People's Committee of Bong-trang Commune, Xuyen-moc District, Ba-ria Vung-tau Province	Executive	BO	Local	Civil servants and Cadre
24	People' Committee of Commune 12, District 6, Ho Chi Minh City	Executive	BO	Local	Civil servants and Cadre
25	Labours Daily (under the authority of The Trade Union of Ho Chi Minh City)	Mass media	P/M	Local	Public professional
26	National Library	IEC	SD	Central	Public professional
27	National University (Ho Chi Minh City Campus)	Education	SD	Central	Public professional

Note: SD: Service Delivery Organisation; BO: Bureaucratic Organisation; CPA:

Communist Party Agency; PS: Political-Social Organisation; P/M: Propaganda/Media

#### **5.4. Phase 1: Qualitative data collection: Pre-survey interviews**

This phase aims at three primary purposes: (1)- to explore if transactional leadership is applied in public organisations in Vietnam; (2)- to identify some public values-related issues in the public sector of Vietnam; (3)- to support the quantitative phase by identifying concepts for the refinement of the measurements used in this study.

##### **5.4.1. Interview**

###### Interview questions

In-depth and semi-structured interviews were conducted. Main questions included questions about leadership practice, public values issues, psychological contracts, the way public managers address public values; and the ways public managers communicate with employees. These questions were slightly adjusted to suit the particularity of specific interviewees (Appendix C).

###### Interview participants

A small group of interviewees was purposively selected to obtain in-depth information. They are people who have experience observing management practice in various public organisations or working in public organisations.

The selected scholars were those whose research interests include public leadership, public personnel and organisational studies. Most of the chosen scholars were from educational and research institutes that have public administration/management programs in their main curriculum. The interviews involved 3 scholars (from the National Academy of Public Administration (Ho Chi Minh City Campus), the University of Home Affairs (Ho Chi Minh City Campus); and the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development (Ha-noi City).

The public managers and public employees were drawn from the selected organisations. Only people who had at least 5 years of experience working in the public sector and in academia were selected to participate in the interviews. Participants include 3 supervisors (from an agency under the CPV and a political-

socio organisation); 1 HR senior staff from an agency under the CPV; 4 employees from two ministry/ministry-level organisations of the Government of Vietnam (2 in Ha-noi City; 2 in Ho Chi Minh City).

#### Interview procedure

The interviews were conducted from September to December of 2018 in Vietnam. They followed the ethical requirements stated in the ethical approval from the Victoria University of Wellington's Human Ethics Committee and the suggestions from the literature of methodology. All of the interviewees were informed about the identity of the researcher and the objective of the research and were provided with information statements and consent forms. With their consent, interviews were conducted, recorded, and notes were taken. Techniques to ensure the trust and cooperation of interviewees were applied: Most of the interviews took place in an environment with a friendly atmosphere which was convenient for the interviewees (e.g. their private office, a café, or a discussion place in a public library). The duration of the interviews was between 30 – 60 minutes.

Most of the interviews were recorded based on the agreement between the interviewees and the researcher. There were two exceptions. One was an additional interview when one of the interviewees contacted the researcher by phone and provided further information about the content of the previous interview. Notes were taken of this conversation. The other exception was one scholar who provided information via email.

#### ***5.4.2. The use of qualitative data analysis***

The qualitative data obtained from pre-survey interviews were used for two main purposes: (i) to help the researcher find out the leadership practice and the public values issues in the public sector of Vietnam; (ii) to identify the new construct of PVTL, and to confirm other main constructs in the conceptual framework. For these purposes, thematic analysis was selected as the main method because of its strength

and its relevance. The thematic method can be used for identifying, recognising, and reporting patterns or themes within the data (Braun & Clark, 2006).

Following the procedure suggested by Braun and Clark (2006), the following steps were conducted to analyse the data. First, the data was transcribed and read thoroughly to help the researcher become familiar with the information. Second, the researcher assigned preliminary codes to the data to describe the content. Third, the researcher searched for patterns or themes in the codes across the different interviews. Fourth, themes were reviewed. Fifth, themes were defined and named.

Overall, the analysis shows that interview data supports previously held claims about the use of transactional leadership in the public sector of Vietnam as well as the generated constructs and measurements applied in the research model of this study.

## **5.5. Phase 2: Quantitative data collection: Surveys**

Focusing on surveys as the primary method, this phase has three stages: survey design; survey pre-test, and main survey. Survey design included the following tasks: developing measurements designing questionnaires and selecting modes of data collection. The next stage was launching a pre-test survey. Its results were used to refine the instruments. In the final stage, the main survey, data was collected using the final instruments for the purpose of testing the hypotheses and evaluating the framework.

### ***5.5.1. Survey design***

#### ***5.5.1.1. Measurement development***

Taking the suggestion from Babbie (2013), this study considered using measures that have been validated by previous research to ensure reliability. This technique was applied in developing the instruments for four constructs (transactional leadership, organisational commitment, the psychological contract, and participatory style of

interaction) with some adjustment to fit the specific context of the research. The “Public Values” measurement was developed based on the theories of public service values and public organisational values (Van Wart, 1998; Van der Wal et al., 2008) and the idea of “Public Interest” (Perry & Wise, 1990). Items from TL and PV scales were combined to form the scale “Public Values-focused Transactional Leadership”. Qualitative data from interviews was also used for the establishment of PV and PVTL scales. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was applied to explore how the variables relate and group based on intervariable correlations (Gaskin, 2012). Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was applied to confirm the factor structure extracted in the CFA (Gaskin, 2012).

This study applied the 5-point Likert scale for all of the instruments because this scale has a particular value of unambiguous ordinality of response categories and is easy to understand (Babbie, 2013). It is one of the most commonly used formats in survey research using questionnaires (Cook et al. as cited in Hinkin et al., 1997). Table 5.2 displays the set of instruments as the outcomes of this stage. (See page 105-108).

The questionnaire was composed in English and then translated into Vietnamese based on the suggestion of back-to-back translations (Vallerand as cited in Banville, Desrosiers & Genet-Volet, 2000). In order to ensure the meaning of the originals, the researcher invited people with proper translating skills to be involved in the translation process. Of 6 volunteer translators, 4 had majored in linguistics (English) and two are scholars with a management background and a high level of academic English proficiency. All of the translations were accumulated, compared, and synchronised to form the final version of questionnaires (Appendix A and B).

### Transactional Leadership

A combination of items drawn from previous studies in the PA literature is applied to measure transactional leadership. Using various sources to form measures is a popular method in PA research (e.g. Günzel-Jensen, Hansen, Jakobsen & Wulff (2017); Vigoda-Gadot & Beerli (2012); Atwater & Wright (1996).

This study used items from three sources. Five items were adopted and adapted from the transactional leadership items derived from Bass and Avolio's (2004) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaires (MLQ) – one of the most frequently-applied leadership scales (Ospina, 2016). The internal consistency of the MLQ is ensured with the reliability for the total items and for each leadership factor scale of the MLQ ranging from .74 to .94. (Bass & Avolio as cited in Song, 2002). Other four items were from other validated measurements that have been used in PA studies (Vigoda-Gadot & Beerli (2011) and Trottier et al., 2008) and management studies (Podsakoff, Todor & Skov (1982).

Overall, the TL scale comprises 9 items. In the employee survey, the participants were asked to evaluate the leadership of their direct supervisors. Examples of items: “My supervisor provides me with assistance in exchange for my effort” and “My supervisor takes action to deal with performers who cannot or will not improve”. In the supervisor survey, participants were asked to provide a self-rating of their leadership. Examples of items: “I provide my subordinates with support in exchange for their efforts” and “I take actions to deal with performers who cannot or will not improve”. The scale ranged from 1 (not at all) to 5 (frequently if not always) and was applicable for both surveys.

### Public Values

The Public Values construct was measured by a 6-item scale that was developed based on the theories of general public values (Jørgensen & Bozeman; 2007) and public organisational values (Van Wart, 1998; Van der Wal et al., 2008). Interviews were conducted to identify the “public values” concept: the interviewees were asked to share their perspectives about the significance of their work and the difference between public work and work in private. The Likert 5-point scale was used in which 1 = “strongly disagree” to 5= “strongly agree”. Examples of items: “My supervisor makes it clear to me that the significance of the job of a public employee is to serve the public and the people” and “My supervisor tells me that I can help people through my work”.

### Public Values -focused Transactional Leadership

The instrument for the PVTL was established based on the conceptualisation and qualitative data and TL and PV measures. Interviews were conducted to explore the view of managers and employees about how public values were used in the leadership practice in their workplace. Also, items from the TL and the PV measures were amalgamated to form the PVTL measure. The dimensionality of the PVTL construct was examined and confirmed by conducting EFA and CFA. Examples of items: “My supervisor provides me with assistance in exchange for my effort” and “My supervisor tells me that I can help people through my work”.

### Organisational Commitment

OC is measured using the OC scale generated by Chatman and O’Reilley (1986). With the reliability score of 0.80 (O’ Reilley & Chatman, 1986; Caldwell, Chatman, & O’Reilley, 1990), it is among the best well-known OC measures (Cohen, 2014) and has been previously used in some PA studies (e.g. Pandey et al., 2016).

For the employee survey, 11 items were adopted. Item Number 3 of the original scale was removed because in the Vietnamese version it conveyed a similar content to item number 9. Also, one reversed item of the original (Number 7) was reworded to make it easier for the respondents to understand. Examples of items: “I talk up this organisation to my friends as a great organisation to work for” and “I am attached to this organisation because of its organisational values”. For the supervisor questionnaires, the items were reworded to fit with the purpose of discovering the perceptions of leaders on employee commitment. Items that were impossible to be rewritten were removed, resulting in a 5-item scale. It is possible that a short measure (4 or 5-item scale) can produce good reliability (Harvey et al. as cited in Hinkin et al., 1997). Examples of items: “I think, in general, my subordinates under my direct supervision are proud to be members of this organisation” and “I think, in general, my subordinates under my direct supervision express the right attitude in order to get rewarded”. For both scales, the Likert 5-point scale was used in which 1 = “strongly disagree” to 5= “strongly agree”.



### Participatory Style of Interaction

The construct of the Participatory Style of Interaction (PSI) was grounded on the theory and model of leader communication in decision making (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1958) and The Questionnaire on Management Communication (QMC) developed by Richmond and Mc Croskey (1997) based on the work of Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958). Recent studies testing the QMC showed that the scale was a valid and reliable instrument (Rozilah, Muhammad, & Khamalludin, 2013). This study adapted 3 Consulting style items and 4 Joining style items to form the PSI scale. Examples of items: “My supervisor listens to my inputs.”, and “My supervisor encourages me to generate initiatives”. The Likert 5-point scale was used in which 1 = “strongly disagree” to 5= “strongly agree”.

### Psychological Contract

For the PC construct, the instrument is designed using a combination of items drawn from validated scales used in prior empirical studies undertaken in the public sector context including Berman & West (2003), Berman et al., (2013), and Coy-Shapiro & Kessler (2003). The scale items used in these studies, therefore, are relevant to this study. Examples of items: “My supervisor and I have an understanding of what support each should give” and “I can discuss with my supervisor training needs to improve my skills”. The Likert 5-point scale was used in which 1 = “strongly disagree” to 5= “strongly agree”.

### Control variables

A number of demographic factors that can have impacts on OC were employed as control variables, including qualification, and tenure (Meyer & Allen, 1997, Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Additionally, factors such as professions and sub-sectors were also considered because in the Vietnamese public sector those factors indicate the benefits and treatment policy a public employee may receive from the government, which in turn affects his/her willingness to stay. Checkboxes with multiple items were used to obtain demographic information from the recipients (Appendix).

Importantly, the study controlled for transformational leadership (TF) because of two main reasons. First, theory and empirical studies both show that TF is a strong factor that can affect OC (Avolio et al., 1999; Caillier, 2014; Kim, 2014). Second, empirical research found the application of TF in public organisations in Vietnam (see Pham, 2018). To measure TF, this research used 7 items adopted and adapted from various validated measures previously used in PA studies including the MLQ by Bass and Avolio (2004) and Wright and Moynihan (2012). The participants were asked to evaluate the leadership of their immediate manager. Examples of items: “My supervisor says things that make me proud of the organisation” and “My supervisor talks about his/her important values”. The scale ranged from 1 (not at all) to 5 (frequently if not always).

#### *5.5.1.2. Questionnaires design and the modes of data collection*

This study used paper-based questionnaires for both the pilot and the main survey. The following sessions were included in the questionnaire: introduction (providing the information concerning the aims of the research; the use of the data, and the instructions for answering the surveys); measures of the study constructs; requests for the demographic information; and a thank-you note to confirm acknowledgement.

For data collection, this study used mail and face-to-face surveys. Face-to-face surveys were applied because they tended to increase the possibility of gaining higher rates of responses and also provided an opportunity to observe the respondent's attitudes. However, this is known to be time-consuming and costly (Berman & Wang, 2012). The mail survey was used because it is the best mode for collecting sensitive information (Pollock, 2004); respondents may be more willing to share information because they do not have to deal with interviewers face-to-face (Berman & Wang, 2012); and it is easy and cost-efficient. Nevertheless, this method offered no opportunity for the researcher to probe the respondent; and the concerns of respondents regarding the degree of confidentiality of their responses may lead to a low rate of response. Altogether, it was considered that combining various modes can help to minimise the weakness and to maximise the strength of a single method.

In order to increase the response rate of the survey, souvenirs of courtesy were provided to participants in some organisations. This provision was decided based on the suggestions by the informants who work in those organisations and have an insight into the culture and practice of the organisations.

#### ***5.5.2. Survey pre-tests***

This stage included one pre-test of questionnaires followed by two pilot surveys. These steps were critical for this study to ensure the robustness of the measures, given that this study used both scale items adapted from a set of previous studies and newly generated items based on theories and interviews.

##### ***5.5.2.1. The questionnaire pre-test***

The questionnaire pre-test involved three participants who are public servants who had volunteered to help the researcher. They were asked to read the questionnaires and provide comments about the readability and clarity of the questionnaires, and the format of the questionnaires. The questionnaires were also sent to two experts for further evaluation: one researcher specialised in survey design for social research; the other was specialised in management studies.

Based on the comments and feedback from the participants, a number of changes were made to improve the quality of the survey. Main changes included: phrasing, rewording, formatting, and reordering scale items. For example, the classification of public servants was amended. Another example, the term “organisational commitment” was re-translated so that it appears more neutral in the Vietnamese language. Item number 3 of the OC scale was also removed, based on the concern of overlaps among items raised by the experts.

##### ***5.5.2.2. The survey pilots***

###### **The first pilot test**

The first pilot test was conducted in October and November 2018. The participants were public employees who were attending a 3-day training course in Dong-thap

Province. The researcher received permission from the authorised organisers of the course to invite the trainees to take part in the survey test. The survey took three days. On the first day, the questionnaires (all in plain envelopes) were stored in an open box placed on one desk in the hallway providing easy access for those who wished to participate. One closed box was placed on the same desk for the participants to return their responses. On the third day, the questionnaires were collected by the researcher. Among 62 questionnaires received, 35 questionnaires were completed and used for the analysis.

SPSS 23 was applied to analyse the pilot-survey data. Based on the preliminary results of regression tests, the measurements were revised in a way to ensure the PA content of the scales. In the demographic information session, the question about the previous experience of participants was removed.

Together with the questionnaires pre-test, the first survey pilot resulted in a survey measurement with a higher level of clarity and understandability. As follow-up, further examination of the literature was conducted in order to ensure the PA focus and the validation of the measurements.

#### The second pilot test

With the revised measurement that resulted from the first pilot and the revisit of the literature, the second pilot was conducted in March 2018. It involved public servants from two public organisations in Ha-noi City. One is an agency under the communist party of which employees are categorised as civil servants; the other is a public delivery agency with public professionals. With the help of two informants, questionnaires were delivered to several units in these organisations. A similar procedure was applied to ensure the voluntary and anonymity of the participants. From 82 responses collected after two days, 42 questionnaires with complete answers were used for the analysis. The measurement was finalised based on the regression test conducted using the data obtained in this pilot. Details of the measurement are displayed in Table 5.2.

**Table 5. 2: Measures of variables**

Variable	Code	Source
<b>Transactional Leadership</b>		
<i>My supervisor...</i>		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>gives me positive feedback when I perform well.</li> </ul>	CR3	Adapted from Podsakoff, Todor and Skov (1982)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations.</li> </ul>	CR4	Adapted from Bass and Avolio (1990)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>makes clear what I can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.</li> </ul>	CR2	Adapted from Bass and Avolio (1990)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>gives me special recognition for my exceptionally good performance.</li> </ul>	CR5	Adapted from Podsakoff, Todor & Skov (1982)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>gives me enough information for me to do my job well.</li> </ul>	CR8	Adapted from Bass and Avolio (1990)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>provides me with assistance in exchange for my effort.</li> </ul>	CR1	Adapted from Bass and Avolio (1990)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>gives me information so that I can carry out my work.</li> </ul>	CR7	Adapted from Bass and Avolio (1990)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>collects information on my performance to help me improve it.</li> </ul>	ME5	Adapted from Trottier et al., (2008)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>takes action to deal with poor performers who cannot or will not improve.</li> </ul>	ME6	Adapted from Trottier et al., (2008)
<b>Public Values</b>		
<i>My supervisor...</i>		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>makes it clear to me that the significance of the job of a public employee is to serve the public and the people.</li> </ul>	PV1	Based on theories of public values and public organisational values (Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007) Van Wart (1998; Van der Wal et al., 2008)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>tells me that my job also contributes to improving public service.</li> </ul>	PV2	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>tells me that my job can make society fairer</li> </ul>	PV3	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>makes me see that the essential demand of public organisations is to serve the people.</li> </ul>	PV4	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>tells me that I can help people through my work.</li> </ul>	PV5	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>tell me that I can have a positive impact on others through my work.</li> </ul>	PV6	

## Public Values-focused Transactional Leadership

*My supervisor...*

- |   |     |   |
|---|-----|---|
| • tells me that my job also contributes to improving public service.  | PV2 | Based on the PV conceptualisation and the items from the TL and PV measures |
| • tells me that my job can make society fairer.   | PV3 |   |
| • makes it clear to me that the significance of the job of a public employee is to serve the public and the people. | PV1 |   |
| • makes clear what I can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.                                     | CR2 |   |
| • provides me with assistance in exchange for my effort.  | CR1 |   |
| • collects information on my performance to help me improve my performance.   | ME5 |   |
| • gives me special recognition for my exceptionally good performance.   | CR5 |   |

## Organisational Commitment (Employee measure)

- |   |      |  |
|---|------|--|
| • What this organisation stands for is important to me.   | OC1  | Adopted and adapted from O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) |
| • I talk up this organisation to my friends as a great organisation to work for.  | OC2  |  |
| • I am attached to this organisation because of its organisational values.  | OC3  |  |
| • How hard I work for the organisation is directly linked to how much I am rewarded.  | OC4  |  |
| • In order for me to get rewarded around here, it is necessary to express the right attitude.                                     | OC5  |  |
| • Since joining this organisation, my personal values and those of the organisation have become more similar.                     | OC6  |  |
| • My personal view about this organisation goes in line with what I show publicly.  | OC7  |  |
| • The reason I prefer this organisation to others is because of what it stands for, that is, its values.                          | OC8  |  |
| • My attachment to this organisation is primarily based on the similarity of my values and those represented by the organisation. | OC9  |  |
| • I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation.  | OC10 |  |
| • I feel a sense of 'ownership' for this organisation rather than being just an employee.   | OC11 |  |

### Organisational Commitment (Supervisor measure)

*I think, in general my subordinates under my direct supervision...*

- |   |      |  |
|---|------|--|
| • are proud to be members of this organisation.                                       | OC1S | Adopted and adapted from O'Reilly and Chatman (1986) |
| • show that they have personal values that are similar to those of this organisation. | OC2S |  |
| • show that they take it important what this organisation stands for.                 | OC3S |  |
| • express the right attitude in order to get rewarded.                                | OC4S |  |
| • show that they consider this organisation a good one to work for.                   | OC5S |  |

### Participatory Style of Interaction

*My supervisor...*

- |  |      |  |
|--|------|--|
| • invites me to discuss work with him/her before he/she makes final decisions. | PSI1 | Adapted from Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1958) and Richmond and McCroskey (2009) |
| • spends time listening besides talking when it comes to discussing work.      | PSI2 |  |
| • encourages two-way communication.  | PSI3 |  |
| • encourages me to provide input.  | PSI4 |  |
| • encourages me to ask questions about work issues                             | PSI5 |  |
| • encourages me to speak up at formal meetings.                                | PSI6 |  |
| • supports me to generate initiatives.   | PSI7 |  |

### Psychological Contract

- |   |     |  |
|---|-----|--|
| • My supervisor and I have an understanding of what support each should give                          | PC1 | Adapted from Berman and West (2003), Berman et.al (2013), and Coy-Shapiro and Kessler (2003) |
| • My supervisor and I have an understanding of what contributions each should make                    | PC2 |  |
| • What I and my supervisor expect to give and get from each other is fair                             | PC3 |  |
| • My supervisor initiates informal meetings with me to talk about what we can expect from each other  | PC4 |  |
| • My supervisor and I have a mutual understanding about suitable ways to communicate with each other. | PC5 |  |
| • I can approach my supervisor to discuss a flexible work schedule when I need it.                    | PC6 |  |
| • I can discuss with my supervisor training needs to improve my skills.                               | PC7 |  |
| • I can approach my supervisor to discuss my needs from him or her.                                   | PC8 |  |

### **5.5.3. Main survey**

#### *5.5.3.1. Procedure and administration*

The main survey started in April 2018. The researcher contacted the informants in the selected public agencies to hand out the questionnaires and provided them with detailed instructions of how the distribution should be conducted. As with the procedure applied in the pilots, the questionnaires were all stored in plain envelopes. With the help of the informants, questionnaires were placed in a common area of the department/unit where the survey took place.

The survey lasted for two months to provide flexibility and time for the participants. During that period of time, the researcher kept in regular contact with the informants in an effort to increase the response rate.

At the end of May 2019, 657 employee responses were obtained. Among the employee responses, 158 responses did not have the corresponding responses from their supervisors, and therefore, were not included in the data. There were 499 responses that were matched with the response of their direct supervisors in their department/unit. Those responses were usable for the study because none of them completed less than 50% of the questionnaires.

#### *5.5.3.2. Methods of data analysis*

The data used for the analysis came from two sources: information from the employee survey was considered as the same source data; information from the supervisor survey was considered as dyadic data. The use of various sources of data is to address the issues of common methods biases CMB (Podsakoff et al., 2003). The same source data were analysed first without controlling for common latent factor (hereafter referred to as “unadjusted measure/data), and then with CLF adjusted (hereafter referred to as “adjusted measure/data).

First, the hypotheses were tested using the unadjusted measure to measure all main and control variables. To follow, the test was repeated using multi-data sources:



the CLF unadjusted measure was used to measure the predictors and control variables while the dyadic data was used for the outcome variable. This was to address not only the CMB issues in general but also the issues that might occur due to self-ratings of leadership (Fleenor et al., 2010). In addition, the tests were conducted using the CLF adjusted measure.

The data analysis was conducted using SPSS25 and AMOS 25. SPSS is a commonly applied software in social science research (Miller, 2017). AMOS was used for two purposes: (i) to conduct CFA to confirm the results of EFA; (ii) to adjust common latent factors to reduce CMB of the measurement. Specifically, EFA using SPSS and CFA using AMOS were used to test the validity and reliability of the studied variables.

Various procedures were conducted to test the hypotheses. Details are as follows:

#### Testing direct effects

As hypothesised, a direct link is expected to exist between TL and OC (H1); PV and OC (H2); PVTL and OC (H4). Linear regression was performed to test each of these hypotheses.

#### Testing the moderation effect

This study posits that Public Values moderates the relationship between TL and OC (H3). Moderation effect occurs when the third factor alters the strength or the direction of the relationship between the independent variable (X) and dependent variable (Y) (MacKinnon, 2011). The moderator qualifies the relation between X and Y. PROCESS 3.3 was applied to test this relationship because the proposed moderation model fits with one of the pre-defined models offered by PROCESS (Model 1) (Hayes, 2016). The conclusion of interaction effects can be made based on whether the change in  $R^2$  (the coefficient of determination) is significantly greater than zero (Zedeck, 1971).

### Testing mediation effect

This study proposed two channels through which PVTI can be exercised including the Participatory Style of Interaction (PSI) (H5) and Psychological Contract (PC) (H6). To test these hypotheses, PROCESS 3.3 (Model 4) was applied for a reason similar to that of the moderation effect test. (Hayes, 2016). If the effect of the independent variable (X) on the dependent variable (Y) is insignificant prior to testing for the indirect effect, it would be concluded that an indirect effect occurred. If three individual significant indirect effects exist among X, Y, and the mediator (M) and the mediation test also reveals a significant result, that means it is a partial mediation. In the case that the significant direct effect of X on Y become insignificant when M is presented while the indirect effect is significant, then a full mediation exists.

The matrix displayed in Table 5.3 shows how the conclusions would be drawn based on the findings of the tests.

**Table 5. 3: Guideline for Study Conclusion**

		Same source data		Dyadic data	Conclusion
		Unadjusted measure	Adjusted measure		
<b>Possible Outcomes</b>	1	v	v	v	Accepted
	2	v	v	x	Mixed
	3	x	v	v	Mixed
	4	v	x	x	Rejected
	5	x	x	v	Rejected
	6	x	x	x	Rejected

Note: v= significant result; x = insignificant result

## **5.6. Phase 3: Qualitative methods: Follow-up interviews**

### **5.6.1. Interviews questions**

In this phase, interviews were conducted for two purposes: first, to obtain qualitative evidence about the hypothesised relationships; second, to look for further explanations of the findings revealed by the quantitative data analysis, especially unexpected findings.

The questions for this phase were developed based on the above purposes. For example, as for the first purpose, the researcher asked people to share their views of their feelings toward their organisations under the leadership under which they operate. In a similar vein, the researcher asked questions about the impact of the significance of their work, the use of psychological contracts and supervisor communication. Regarding the second purpose, the researcher provided the interviewees with some information regarding the results of the analysis and asked them why they thought such results had occurred.

#### ***5.6.2. Interviews sampling and procedure***

In Phase 3, 22 interviews were conducted involving leaders of organisations, immediate supervisor employees and scholars. The researcher purposively invited candidates to take part in the interviews based on two conditions: their willingness to participate (which was indicated by the contact information that they provided in the questionnaires) and their ability to provide insight about the management practice in public organisations (indicated by their work experience and current position).

The interviews were conducted in seven months. Sixteen interviews were conducted in Vietnam after the preliminary results of quantitative data analysis were produced. The researcher contacted the candidates via email/phone to confirm their participation and sent them more information about the research. The time and place for interviews were discussed and agreed upon between the candidates and the researcher with respect to the principles mentioned in Section 5.4. No candidate withdrew from the process. Four interviewees were not willing to have the interviews audio-taped. Therefore, the researcher took note instead. After the overall results were finalised, follow-up interviews were conducted. Interviews were conducted via phone calls and emails. (The researcher contacted the interviewees from New Zealand).

Conversations via phone were recorded. Most of the audio-taped interviews were transcribed for thematic analysis.

### ***5.6.3. The use of data analysis***

As mentioned previously, the purposes of this phase were to confirm and/or to provide further clarity of the quantitative results. Guided by these purposes, the researcher reviewed the data collected in this phase to identify evidence that could support and/or explain the findings. Overall, the qualitative findings were amalgamated with quantitative findings to help the researcher answer the research question.

## **5.7. Establishing research quality**

Two touchstones often used to judge the quality of social research are reliability and validity (Babbie, 2013; Bryman, 2008). Reliability refers to the question of the stability or consistency of the results of research, or in other words, the ability of research findings to be repeatable (Bryman, 2008). Validity is concerned with the question of whether the results obtained meet all requirements of the scientific research method (Bryman, 2008). The satisfaction of these two criteria supports the research findings to be accepted while the violation of them would harm the findings. In qualitative and quantitative research, reliability and validity, however, are somewhat different (Creswell, 2009). A mixed- methods research needs to satisfy the requirement of both strands.

### ***5.7.1. Reliability and validity of the quantitative inquiry***

For quantitative research, reliability refers to “the quality of measurement methods that suggest that the same data would have been collected each time in repeated observations of the same phenomenon” (Babbie, 2013, p.148); validity refers to “the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration” (Babbie, 2013, p.151).

More specifically, reliability in quantitative research underlines the internal reliability of the measurement – the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of a variable (Hair, 2006). This study applied various methods

suggested by scholars to ensure internal reliability, including applying validated scales, refining the scales through pilot tests, and testing internal consistency reliability using Cronbach's alpha test.

Regarding validity of measurement, this research examined three types of validity, including convergent validity (which means "the degree to which indicators of a specific construct converge or share a high proportion of variance in common" (Hair et al., 2006, p.669); discriminant validity ("the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs" (Hair et al., p.678); and construct validity ("the degree to which a measure relates to other variables as expected within a system of theoretical relationships" (Babbie, 2013, p.152). In order to ensure these criteria of validity, this study examined the following indicators to see if they met the thresholds suggested by scholars:

- Factor loading and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) were applied to test the contingent validity against the thresholds of equal or greater than 0.50 for both standardised loading estimates (as recommended by Hair et al., 2006) and AVE (as suggested by Fornell & Larcker, 1981).
- The square root of AVE was used as the indicator to evaluate the discriminant validity, as suggested by Fornell & Larcker, 1981).
- CFA was applied to evaluate if a theoretical measurement model is valid (Hair et al., 2006). The main indices used to evaluate the goodness of a model included: the ratio of chi-square statistic and the degree of freedom; the comparative fit index (CFI), the goodness of fit index (GFI) and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSA) (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

Particular attention was placed by the researcher when testing the PVTL scale. As conceptualised, PVTL is a behavioural-based leadership substyle. There is a need for valid tools that measure whether supervisors conduct behaviours which aimed at bringing public values into play at job-level of management. Measurement tools, therefore, should comprise the supervisory behaviours associated with eliciting and using public values in supervising employees. Such measurement should capture to

what extent a supervisor implements their transactions with employees with respect to public values in public work.

This study introduced a tool for PVTL using items from the TL and PV measures. Interviews were conducted to identify the PVTL concept; EFA and CFA were performed using survey data to examine the structure of the measure. This process is discussed further in Chapter 5 (Research Design and Methodology) and the results are presented in Chapter 6 (Data analysis and Results). The results of the test for reliability and validity of the measurements are displayed in Chapter 6.

### ***5.7.2. Reliability and validity of the qualitative inquiry***

In qualitative research, reliability concerns the consistency of an approach across different researchers and different projects (Creswell, 2014); validity “means that the researcher checks for the accuracy of the findings by employing certain procedures” (Creswell, 2014, p. 247).

To ensure the reliability of the qualitative strand, the researcher followed the recommendation suggested by scholars. Researchers document the procedures of their case studies and document as many of the steps of the procedures as they can (Yin, 2009 in Creswell, 2014). Based on these suggestions, the researcher initiated a protocol for qualitative data collection as guidance for conducting interviews.

The researcher applied a set of various strategies, suggested by Creswell (2014), to ensure the validity of the qualitative strand, including the following:

- Triangulate: different groups of interviewees were invited so triangulate the data including scholars, supervisors, HR managers, and employees. Having several sources of information or perspectives contribute to the validity of the themes established based on those sources.
- All information, included negative and discrepant information that runs counter to the themes, was presented.

- Use member checking: conducting follow-up interviews with participants in the study and providing an opportunity for them to comment on the findings.

### ***5.7.3. Addressing common method bias***

Common method biases (CMB), or common method variance refers to method biases that arise from “response tendencies that raters apply across measures, similarities in item structure or wording that induce similar responses, the proximity of items in an instrument, and similarities in the medium, timing, or locations in which measures are collected” (Edwards (2008, p. 476 in Podsakoff et al., 2012, p 541). CMB involves “systematic error variance shared among variables measured with and introduced as a function of the same method and/or source” (Richardson, Simmering, and Sturman. p.763 as cited in Jakobsen & Jensen, 2015).

It is essential to address CMB because it can bias parameter estimates of the relationship between two different constructs (Podsakoff et al., 2012) and artificially inflate reliability estimates. CMB can affect estimates of the relationship between two constructs and thus (i) affect hypothesis tests and lead to Type I or Type II errors, (ii) lead to incorrect perceptions about how much variance is accounted for in a criterion construct, and (iii) enhance or diminish the nomological or discriminant validity of a scale (Podsakoff et al., 2012). In recent years, CMB has been increasingly addressed in PA research (Jakobsen & Jensen, 2015), especially bias produced by using a common source (e.g., a survey respondent or rater) to provide information on both the independent and dependent variables, though bias produced by item characteristics continues to be strongly addressed as well (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff, 2012; MacKenzie & Podsakoff, 2012; Jakobsen & Jensen, 2015).

In order to reduce effects of method bias, this study gives attention to both study design and the statistic controls suggested by scholars (See Podsakoff et al., 2012; Jakobsen & Jensen, 2015). Specifically, to address problems of method biased from a common source or rater, this study uses a dyadic survey that obtains measures of the predictor and criterion variables from different sources (i.e. public employees

and their direct managers/supervisors). Qualitative information was also collected from different sources.

Also, where same source data are used, statistical controls were used to control for common source or rater bias. Specifically, a common latent factor was used to test the CMB (Jakobsen & Jensen, 2015; Gaskin, 2012). As the test results showed that some CMB exists, common-method adjusted factor scores of variables were estimated and used, as suggested by Gaskin (2012). This approach results in a model with CMB adjusted composites (Chapter 6 further discusses this approach). In any event, study conclusions are based on testing hypotheses across three data sets: the unadjusted measure and the CLF adjusted measure (from employee rating) and the dyadic data (from manager/supervisor rating).

Finally, to address method effects produced by items characteristics, this study employed the following techniques:

- Selecting respondents with proper knowledge and experience to answer survey questions;
- Providing sufficient information and explanations about the research projects and questionnaires;
- Keeping survey anonymous, brief (approximately 15-20 min to complete);
- Allowing enough time for respondents to answer the questionnaires. (They had several days to decide whether to participate, complete and return the questionnaire);
- Using clear language and avoiding technical terms or abstract concepts;
- Assuring respondents that there were no right or wrong answers; to label all response options, and to ask about current states rather than retrospective states. In order to increase their motivation to participate, small gifts were provided (for more details, see Section 5.3 and 5.5.3).



## **5.8. Ethical consideration**

The researcher obtained the approval from the Human Ethics Committee (HEC) of the Victoria University of Wellington to conduct this study. The research followed the procedure approved by the HEC to ensure the anonymity, privacy, and safety of the participants as well as the confidentiality of the information they provided.

## **Chapter summary**

This chapter discussed the approach applied by the researcher, which determines her selection of word-view, the research design, and the methods used to conduct this present study. Also, the strategies used by the researcher to establish research quality and to conform to ethical standards were also presented. Results produced by using the above-discussed methods are presented in the next chapter.

## CHAPTER 6: DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

### Introduction

This chapter reports the results of the data analysis. It first presents the test for validity and reliability of the measurements used in the studies. This is followed by the results of hypotheses testing using quantitative data. Significant quotes from interviews to support the quantitative findings are presented accordingly.

### 6.1. Quantitative data analysis

#### *6.1.1. Demographic profile of survey participants*

Survey participants are employees and managers in public organisations of Vietnam. For the same source data, participants were employees in a unit/division of a public organisation; for dyadic data, participants were direct supervisors of that unit/division. As shown in Table 6.1, civil servants and public professional each account for a relatively similar percentage (43.9% and 48.3% respectively). This result implies that the survey considered both sub-sections of the public sector, which are the bureaucracy, and the public service delivery. Most of the participants in the employee survey reported that they had at least one year working with their current supervisors. This result suggests that these participants have had sufficient observation of their supervisors' leadership styles. Some other characteristics of participants are presented in Table 6.1.

[Insert Table 6.1 About Here]

**Table 6. 1: Demographic profile of survey participants**

	Employee (N=499)		Supervisor (N=78)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
<b>Gender</b>				
Male	176	35.30	30	38.50
Female	304	60.99	47	60.30
Not identified	19	02.63	01	01.30
<b>Qualification</b>				
Vocational degree	34	06.80	1	01.30
College graduate	27	05.40	3	03.80
Undergraduate degree	267	53.50	26	33.30
Post graduate degree	163	32.70	48	61.60
Other	6	01.20	0	00.00
<b>Profession</b>				
Cadre	26	05.20	6	07.70
Civil servant	219	43.90	25	32.10
Public professional	241	48.30	47	60.30
Others	11	02.20	0	00.00
<b>Type of Organisation</b>				
Bureaucracy	168	33.70	25	32.10
Public service delivery	208	41.70	43	55.10
Party agencies	62	12.40	3	03.80
Political-socio organisations	39	07.80	4	05.10
Other	22	04.40	3	03.80
<b>Level of Organisation</b>				
Central/Ministerial	288	57.70	54	69.20
Provincial	115	23.00	16	20.50
District	10	02.00	1	01.30
Commune	64	12.80	4	05.10
Others	22	04.40	3	03.80
<b>Working experience</b>				
	Experience working with current supervisor		Experience working as a supervisor	
At least 1 year, less than 5 years	274	54.90	26	33.30
At least 5 years, less than 10 years	158	31.60	30	38.40
At least 10 years, less than 15 years	36	72.00	20	25.60
Above 15 years	8	01.60	02	02.50
Not identified	24	04.80	0	00.00

### ***6.1.2. Data examination***

#### Treatment of missing data and outliers

In order to prepare the data for analysis, treatment of missing data, and diagnosis of outlier were conducted. The technique suggested by Hair (et al., 2006) was applied: -99 was used to indicate missing values. The number of missing values in the data set is less than 5% per indicator. When analysing data with SPSS 25, the listwise method was selected for further procedure. Boxplots using SPSS were applied for outliers and indicated no outliers.

#### Addressing common method biases using common latent factor: Using a common latent factor to create CMB-adjusted factor score

This research applied the technique suggested by Gaskin (2012) as the statistic solution for the CMB issues. This technique uses a common latent factor (CLF) to capture the common variance among all observed variables in the model.

The researcher of this study used AMOS to create two CFA models: the first one without CLF (unadjusted); the second one included CLF (adjusted). Then, the researcher compared the standard regression weights of these two models. It showed that there were noticeable differences (greater than 0.2 (Gaskin, 2012). These differences indicated that the measures were affected by CMB (Gaskin, 2012).

Next, the researcher used the factor loading scores (or, the regression weight) in the second model (with the CFL in it) instead of the ones in the first model. The loading scores in the second model were lower than those in the first model because some of the variances were explained by the CLF. With these loading scores, the researcher created the CMB adjusted composites and used them for hypotheses testing. In other words, the researcher retained the CMB in the model. (See Appendix G).

### 6.1.3. Testing validity and reliability

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) in SPSS and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in AMOS were applied to examine the internal consistency reliability, convergent validity, construct validity and discriminant validity.

#### 6.1.3.1. Testing Public Values – focused Transactional Leadership construct

In this study, the establishment of the empirical scale for the PVTTL construct consists of two steps: generating items and testing the properties of the scale. First, items for the PVTTL scale were selected among the TL and PV scales based on the conceptualisation of PVTTL and interviews. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA), using SPSS, was then conducted. Finally, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), using AMOS was performed.

Table 6.2 presents the EFA results of PVTTL.

**Table 6.2: Public Values-focused Transactional Leadership: EFA and CFA results**

Items	EFA (N = 484)					CFA (N=442)		
	Factor		AVE	<u>CR</u>	Alpha	Indices	Initial model	Final model
	1	2						
PV2	<b>.873</b>		.684	.895	.857	$\chi^2$	67.670	39.362
PV4	<b>.871</b>					Df	19	18
PV3	<b>.837</b>					$\chi^2$ /Df	3.562	2.187
PV1	<b>.716</b>					p value	.000	.003
CR2		<b>.836</b>	.595	.854		GFI	.966	.979
CR1						CFI	.971	.987
ME5						RMSEA	.076	.052
CR5						PCLOSE	.014	.412
Eigenvalue	4.080	1.404						
% of variance	51.005	17.770						
Total % of variance explained	68.555							

It is showed that the 8-item measure loaded onto two components. All of the items have a high factor loading value on the respective factors. The Average Variance Extract (AVE) values and Cronbach Alpha are over the thresholds of .50 and .70,

respectively. These results indicate that the PVTL construct has convergent validity and internal reliability. Table 6.2 also shows the CFA results. In the initial model, the results of Chi-square/df, GFI and CFI met the thresholds. However, the RMSEA value was higher than the suggested cut off- point of .08. The modification indices showed that high covariance exists among the error terms within the construct. After this issue was corrected, all critical criteria for model fits were met. Interviews providing support for the validation of the PVTL scale are presented in Section 6.2 (Qualitative data analysis).

#### *6.1.3.2. Testing Transactional Leadership construct*

Table 6.3 displays the EFA results of transactional leadership (TL). All nine items loaded on one factor with factor loadings ranging from .67 to .82, which shows a strong loading. The AVE value of the TL construct is .57, which is higher than the threshold of .50 for the minimum acceptable level for convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The Cronbach Alpha score is .90 (Table 6.5), which is much higher than the suggested .70. These results suggest that the convergent validity and internal reliability of TL are confirmed. The composite reliability (CR) is .920.

CFA was conducted to evaluate construct validity. In the initial model, the results of Chi-square/df, GFI and CFI met the thresholds. However, the RMSEA value was higher than the suggested cut-off point of .08. The modification indices showed that high covariance exists among the error terms within the construct. After this issue was corrected, all critical criteria for model fits were met, as shown in the second part of Table 6.3.

[Insert Table 6.3 About Here]

**Table 6. 3: Transactional Leadership: EFA and CFA results**

EFA (N = 494)					CFA (N=442)		
Items	Factor	AVE	<u>CR</u>	Alpha	Indices	Initial model	Final model
CR3	.824	.574	.920	.906	$\chi^2$	242.974	33.624
CR4	.779				Df	26	20
CR2	.775				$\chi^2$ /Df	9.345	1.681
CR5	.768				p value	.000	.029
CR8	.767				GFI	.877	.963
CR1	.764				CFI	.896	.993
CR7	.757				RMSEA	.138	.000
ME5	.701				PCLOSE	.039	.761
ME6	.670						
Eigenvalue	5.163						
% of variance	57.361						
Total % of variance explained	57.361						

#### 6.1.3.3. Testing Public Values construct

Table 6.4 displays the EFA and CFA test of the Public Values construct. All of the six items loaded on one factor with high loading value (ranging from .742 to.899). Cronbach Alpha and AVE are .910 and .694 respectively, indicating high convergent validity and internal reliability. The CFA results confirm that the EFA outcomes are showing 1 factor with high loading value. The model is fit after the issue of high covariance among errors was addressed.

**Table 6.4: Public Values: EFA and CFA results**

EFA (N =482)					CFA (N=442)		
Items	Factor	AVE	<u>CR</u>	Alpha	Indices	Initial model	Final model
PV4	.889	.694	.931	.910	$\chi^2$	87.000	17.812
PV5	.887				Df	9	7
PV3	.857				$\chi^2$ /Df	9.667	2.553
PV2	.843				p value	.000	.013
PV6	.764				GFI	.938	.987
PV1	.742				CFI	.956	.994
Eigenvalue	4.156				RMSEA	.140	.059
% of variance	69.274				PCLOSE	.000	.283
Total% of variance explained	69.274						

EFA and CFA with similar procedures were applied to test the convergent validity, and internal reliability of other studied constructs, including Organisational Commitment, Psychological Contract, and Participatory Style of Interaction, and Transformational leadership as a control variable. The EFA results showed OC (employee survey) as a three-factor construct and PC as a two-factored construct, while CFA results showed that both are best described as single factored constructs. In the meantime, the EFA results of OC (supervisor survey), PSI, and TF are supported by CFA results showing that they are single dimension factors. The detail results of these tests are presented in Appendix F).

#### *6.1.3.4. Testing discriminant validity*

To assess the discriminant validity, this study applied the method suggested by Fornell and Larcke (1981): comparing the squared root of AVE value with the correlation of the latent construct. If a greater value of the former is found, it indicates that the discriminant validity of the construct is satisfied. It is so because a latent construct should better explain the variance of its indicator rather than the variance of other latent constructs.

Table 6.5 presents the squared roots of AVE values of the studied constructs and the correlations among those constructs. Importantly, the squared roots of the AVEs for PVTL and TF are higher than the correlations of these two constructs. Noteworthy, the results show correlations among some constructs: TL, PV, and PVTL, which indicates the lack of discriminant validity. These results, however, were anticipated because PVTL is a combined leadership style which has been established based on TL and PV. Similarly, the squared root of the AVE value for TL (.758) was slightly smaller than the correlation between TL and TF (.771). This correlation is explainable as scholars have noted the discriminant issues of the Full Range Leadership model (Walumbwa 2007; Trottier et al., 2008).

Also shown in Table 6.5, TL has a positive and significant correlation with OC-E (from the same source data) and OC-S (from the dyadic data) ( $r = .581^{**}$  and



.148\*\*, respectively). The correlation between PV and OC is positive and significant ( $r = .569^{**}$  and  $r = .219^{**}$ , respectively); and as is the correlation between PVTl and OC ( $r = .837^{**}$  and  $r = .185^{**}$  respectively).

[Insert Table 6.5 About Here]

#### **6.1.4. Testing hypotheses**

##### *6.1.4.1. The effects of TL, PV, and PVTl on OC*

Hypothesis 1 proposes that TL increases OC; Hypothesis 2 proposes that PV increases OC; Hypothesis 4 proposes that PVTl increases OC.

In order to test these relationships, multiple regression (OLS) is used. Regression is used in three models. The data used include the same source data with and without adjusting for common latent factor (CLF); and dyadic data. Table 6.6 shows the results of these tests. H1, H2, and H3 also show the expected positive relationships. H1 is significant in each model, albeit at  $p < .05$  with the dyadic data and  $p < .01$  with the same source data. H2 and H4 are both  $p < .01$  in each of the three models. Based on the decision rule of Table 5.4, each of these hypotheses is accepted. Each model was also examined for regression assumptions, but no violation was found.

Specifically, the unadjusted measure data show that the effects of TL, PV and PVTl on OC are significantly positive:  $\beta = .350$  ( $p = .000$ );  $\beta = .384$  ( $p = .000$ ) and  $\beta = .468$  ( $p = .000$ ) respectively. After adjusting CLF, the effects are:  $\beta = .143$  ( $p = .003$ );  $\beta = .489$  ( $p = .000$ ) and  $\beta = .781$  ( $p = .000$ ), respectively. The results revealed by the dyadic data are  $\beta = .158$  ( $p = .029$ );  $\beta = .177$  ( $p = .001$ ); and  $\beta = .201$  ( $p = .002$ ), respectively.

[Insert Table 6.6 About Here]

**Table 6. 5: Reliability, means, SD, inter-correlations among the study constructs, and the squared root of AVE**

Constructs	Alpha	Mean (SD)	TL	PVTL	PV	PSI	PC	TF	Edu	Pro	Org	OC-E	OC-S
<b>TL</b>	.906	3.566 (.783)	<b><u>.758</u></b>										
<b>PVTL</b>	.857	3.647 (.702)	.862**	<b><u>.800</u></b>									
<b>PV</b>	.910	3.796 (.740)	.524**	.830**	<b><u>.823</u></b>								
<b>PSI</b>	.920	3.807 (.701)	.563**	.638**	.601**	<b><u>.754</u></b>							
<b>PC</b>	.904	3.613 (.691)	.575**	.673**	.671**	.627**	<b><u>.774</u></b>						
<b>TF</b>	.874	3.360 (.805)	.771**	.716**	.492**	.537**	.555**	<b><u>.870</u></b>					
<b>Education</b>	N/a	.1302 (.337)	.119*	.126**	.099*	.005	.103*	.102*	N/a				
<b>Profession</b>	N/a	.4372 (.500)	-.014	.029	.075	.010	.132**	.058	-.076	N/a			
<b>Org Type</b>	N/a	.4326 (.496)	.020	.084	.127**	-.001	.099*	.104*	-.101*	.716**	N/a		
<b>OC (Employee)</b>	.847	3.583 (.591)	.581**	.637**	.569**	.493**	.633**	.567**	.119*	.116*	.088	<b><u>.717</u></b>	
<b>OC (Supervisor)</b>	.816	3.837 (.569)	.148**	.185**	.219**	.078	.195**	.108*	.070	-.016	.067	.067	<b><u>.770</u></b>

Note 1: \*\*. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). \*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed). c. N (listwise) = 430.  
2: Standard deviation in parentheses. 3: The squared root of AVEs is underlined and bolded. 4: PVTL is expected to be highly correlated with (i) PV and (ii) TL because PVTL is combined from TL and PV behaviours. 5: TL is correlated with TF because they both can conduct similar individualised considerations.

**Table 6. 6: Direct effects of TL, PV and PVTL on OC**

Predictor	Outcome variable: Organisational Commitment											
	Same source data: Employee self-rating								Dyadic data: Supervisor rating			
	Unadjusted measure				CLF adjusted measure							
	B	SE	Beta	p	B	SE	Beta	p	B	SE	Beta	p
Constant	1.841	.102		.000	1.413	.033		.000	3.478	.123		.000
Transactional Leadership (H1)	.267	.043	.358	.000	.126	.042	.143	.003	.112	.051	.158	.029
Transformational Leadership	.214	.042	.294	.000	.297	.066	.217	.000	-.017	.050	-.025	.727
Education level	.099	.065	.056	.128	.030	.059	.024	.609	.077	.077	.047	.312
Profession	.168	.063	.141	.007	.168	.057	.195	.003	-.162	.075	-.142	.032
Organisation type	-.045	.063	-.038	.473	-.037	.057	-.043	.003	.188	.076	.163	.014
	<b>R<sup>2</sup>=.403; AdjR<sup>2</sup>=.396; N=462</b>				<b>R<sup>2</sup>=.125; AdjR<sup>2</sup>=.114; N=426</b>				<b>R<sup>2</sup>=.037; AdjR<sup>2</sup>=.027; N=470</b>			
Constant	1.428	.115		.000	.815	.059		.000	3.290	.143		.000
Public Values (H2)	.307	.032	.384	.000	.456	.038	.489	.000	.134	.040	.177	.001
Transformational Leadership	.283	.029	.385	.000	.440	.056	.321	.000	.007	.037	.010	.854
Education level	.087	.063	.049	.169	-.010	.052	-.008	.848	.080	.077	.048	.301
Profession	.165	.060	.138	.006	.151	.050	.175	.003	-.152	.075	-.134	.043
Organisation type	-.107	.061	-.089	.080	-.086	.050	-.100	.085	.166	.076	.145	.030
	<b>R<sup>2</sup>=.455; AdjR<sup>2</sup>=.449; N=456</b>				<b>R<sup>2</sup>=.336; Adj R<sup>2</sup>=.040; N=460</b>				<b>R<sup>2</sup>=.051; AdjR<sup>2</sup>=.040; N=460</b>			
Constant	1.502	.111		.000	.697	.041		.000	3.358	.139		.000
PVTL(H4)	.395	.042	.468	.000	.340	.055	.781	.000	.161	.053	.201	.002
Transformational Leadership	.175	.036	.239	.000	-.114	.088	-.164	.195	-.040	.046	-.057	.384
Education level	.075	.062	.043	.229	.022	.044	.019	.625	.077	.077	.047	.316
Profession	.177	.060	.148	.003	.115	.043	.147	.007	-.157	.075	-.137	.037
Organisation type	-.084	.061	-.070	.165	-.044	.043	-.056	.307	.179	.076	.155	.019
	<b>R<sup>2</sup>=.455; AdjR<sup>2</sup>=.449; N=458</b>				<b>R<sup>2</sup>=.407; AdjR<sup>2</sup>=.329; N=426</b>				<b>R<sup>2</sup>=.046; AdjR<sup>2</sup>=.035; N=462</b>			

#### 6.1.4.2. The effect of PV in the relationship between TL and OC

Hypothesis 3 proposes that Public values (PV) moderate the relationship between TL and OC (H3). A moderation effect occurs when the direction and/or the strength of the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable is affected by the third variable. This study treats TL as the independent variable, OC as the dependent variable, and PV as the potential moderator. Table 6.7 shows that in the unadjusted measure, moderation was shown up by a significant interaction effect: the effect  $b = .065$ ,  $t = 2.19$ ,  $p = .029$ . In the same vein, Figure 6.1 displays the change in the level of OC against the high and low level of PV. As shown in the plotting, when the public values are clear (high level), the influence of TL on OC is enhanced; when public values are not clear (low level), this impact gets weaker. The  $R^2$  change value is small. However, small  $R^2$  change value is not uncommon for a moderation effect.

**Figure 6. 1: The effect of PC on the relationship between TL and OC**



**Table 6. 7: Moderation effect of Public Values on the relationship between TL and OC**

	Outcome variable:      Organisational commitment											
Predictor	Same source data: Employee self-rating								Dyadic data: Supervisor rating			
	Unadjusted measure				CLF adjusted measure							
	Coeff	SE	t	p	Coeff	SE	t	p	Coeff	SE	t	p
Constant	2.926	.136	21.531	.000	1.487	.025	58.376	.000	3.942	.173	22.776	.000
TL	.177	.043	4.153	.000	.173	.036	4.797	.000	.067	.054	1.248	.000
PV	.280	.034	8.218	.000	.469	.038	12.475	.000	.144	.044	3.294	.001
PV*TL (H3)	.065	.030	2.191	.029	-.055	.069	-0.795	.427	.041	.038	1.087	.278
TF	.174	.040	4.310	.000	.364	.057	6.432	.000	-.039	.051	-0.769	.442
Education level	.075	.062	1.208	.228	-.023	.051	-0.461	.057	.072	.077	0.936	.350
Profession	.180	.059	3.045	.002	.160	.049	3.283	.019	-.151	.075	-2.014	.045
Organisation type	-.092	.060	-1.544	.123	-.096	.049	-1.950	.049	.160	.076	2.099	.036
	R <sup>2</sup> = .479; R <sup>2</sup> change = .006; N = 454;				R <sup>2</sup> = .371; R <sup>2</sup> change= .001; N= 426				R <sup>2</sup> = .246; R <sup>2</sup> change= .002; N= 457			

#### 6.1.4.3. The mediation effects

Hypothesis 5 posits that Participatory Style of Interaction (PSI) mediates the relationship between PVTL and OC. Hypothesis 6 posits that Psychological Contract (PC) mediates the relationship between PVTL and OC.

Mediation effects can be exercised in different ways including indirect effect, full mediation, and partial mediation. *Indirect effect* occurs when the independent variable (X) has a significant effect on the mediator (M), M has a significant effect on the dependent variable (Y) and the effect of X on Y is equal to zero while leaving M out of the model. *Full mediation* will happen if the effect of the direct relationship between X and Y drops to zero when the mediator (M) is included. Put another way, the direct effect of X on Y would become insignificant while the indirect effect of X on Y is significant. *Partial mediation* occurs when M accounts for some, but not all of the relationship between X and Y. In partial mediation, the relationship between M and Y is significant, and some direct relationships between X and Y are also significant.

In order to test the mediation effects, PROCESS 3.3 was applied. The procedure for examining indirect effect including the following tasks: (i) examining the model with the mediator (PSI/PC) regressed on the independent variable (PVTL); (ii) examining the model with the dependent variable (OC) regressed on the independent variable (PVTL) and the mediator (PSI/OC); (iii), examining the total effect of the independent variable (PVTL) on the dependent variable (OC); and (iv) evaluating the indirect effect.

#### The effect of PSI

Table 6.8 displays the results of the test on the mediation effect of PSI on the relationship between PVTL and OC using the unadjusted measure, the CLF adjusted measure, and dyadic data.

**Table 6. 8: Mediation effect of PSI on the relationship between PVTL and OC**

Predictor	Same source data: Employee self-rating										Dyadic data: Supervisor rating				
	Unadjusted measure					CLF adjusted measure									
	Coeff	SE	Stdcoeff	t	p	Coeff	SE	Stdcoeff	t	p	Coeff	SE	Stdcoeff	t	p
Model with Participatory Style of Interaction regressed on Public Values-focused Transactional Leadership															
PVTL	.543	.050	.544	1.799	.000	-.284	.040	-.958	-7.054	.000	.558	.051	.555	1.980	.000
TF	.148	.044	.171	3.385	.000	.661	.064	1.395	1.294	.000	.141	.045	.160	3.160	.002
Education level	-.184	.075	-.089	-2.453	.001	-.069	.032	-.087	-2.118	.035	-.151	.074	-.073	-2.040	.042
Profession	.077	.076	.054	1.072	.015	-.023	.031	-.043	-.726	.468	.075	.072	.052	1.033	.302
OrganisationType	-.150	.072	-.106	-2.080	.285	-.024	.031	-.045	-.755	.451	-.153	.073	-.105	-2.094	.037
	R <sup>2</sup> =.442					R <sup>2</sup> =.314					R <sup>2</sup> =.444				
Model with Organisational Commitment regressed on Public Values-focused Transactional Leadership and Participatory Style of Interaction															
PVTL	.340	.047	.403	11.102	.000	.314	.058	.720	5.398	.000	.176	.061	.218	2.919	.004
PSI	.096	.040	.114	7.231	.015	-.091	.067	-.063	-1.392	.165	-.019	.050	-.024	-.389	.698
TF	.161	.037	.202	2.433	.000	-.053	.0982	-.076	-.537	.591	-.048	.047	-.068	-1.014	.311
Education level	.086	.063	.049	4.370	.174	.015	.045	.013	.344	.731	.078	.078	.047	.992	.322
Profession	.170	.060	.143	1.361	.004	.113	.043	.145	2.651	.008	-.140	.076	-.122	-1.832	.068
Organisation type	-.069	.060	-.058	2.860	.257	-.046	.043	-.059	-1.074	.283	.178	.077	.155	2.301	.022
	R <sup>2</sup> =.459					R <sup>2</sup> =.409					R <sup>2</sup> =.045				
Total effect of Public Values-focused Transactional Leadership on Organisational Commitment															
PVTL	.391	.042	.465	9.317	.000	.40	.055	.781	6.181	.000	.165	.054	.205	3.090	.002
TF	.175	.037	.239	4.790	.000	-.114	.088	-.164	-1.299	.195	-.051	.047	-.072	-1.084	.280
Education level	.068	.063	.040	1.081	.280	.022	.044	.019	.489	.625	.081	.077	.050	1.035	.301
Profession	.178	.060	.150	2.970	.003	.115	.043	.147	2.699	.007	-.141	.076	-.123	-1.860	.064
Organisation type	-.083	.061	-.070	-1.373	.171	-.044	.043	-.056	-1.023	.307	.181	.077	.157	2.353	.019
	R <sup>2</sup> =.456					R <sup>2</sup> =.407					R <sup>2</sup> =.047				
Indirect effect (H5)	b=.052; SE=.026; 95% CI [.002, .104]					b=.026; SE=.023; 95% CI [-.014, .074]					b= -.011; SE=.0 CI [-.066, .046]				

The next section of the table shows the model of the regression of OC predicted from both PVTl and PSI. In all three sets of the data, it can be seen that PVTl significantly predicts OC (the unadjusted measure:  $b = .340$ ,  $t = 11.02$ ,  $p = .000$ ;  $R^2 = .459$  (which mean 45.9 % of variance explained); in the dyadic data:  $b = .176$ ,  $t = 2.919$ ,  $p = .004$ ;  $R^2 = .045$  (45% of variance explained); in the CLF adjusted measure:  $b = .314$ ,  $t = 5.398$ ,  $p = .000$ ;  $R^2 = .409$ ). These relationships are positive, which means that the increase in PVTl increases OC. Also, in this model, mixed results were found in OC regressed on PSI across data sets. The unadjusted measure shows that PSI positively significantly predicts OC ( $b = .096$ ,  $t = 7.231$ ,  $p = .015$ ; while dyadic data and CFL adjusted measure shows insignificant negative impact (respectively  $b = -.091$ ,  $t = -1.392$ ,  $p = .165$  and  $b = -.019$ ,  $t = -3.89$ ,  $p = .698$ ). These negative relationships indicate that when PSI increases, OC declines and vice versa.

Following is the total effect of PVTl on OC (outcome). The total effect is the effect of the predictor on the outcome when the mediator is not present in the model. When PSI is not in the model, PVTl significantly predicts OC,  $b = .391$ ,  $t = 9.317$ ,  $p = .000$ ,  $R^2 = .456$ , (which means 45.6% of variance explained) as showed in the unadjusted measure;  $b = .165$ ,  $t = 3.090$ ,  $p = .002$ ,  $R^2 = .047$  (4.70% variance explained) (in the dyadic data); and  $b = .340$ ,  $t = .6181$ ,  $p = .000$ ,  $R^2 = .407$  (in the CLF adjusted measure).

Finally, the last section of table 6.8 presents an estimate of the indirect effect of PVTl on OC. The CLF unadjusted data reveals  $b = .052$ ; as well as a bootstrapped standard error ( $SE = .026$ ) and confidence interval (95% CI [.002, .104]). The confidence interval tells us that the true b-value for the indirect effect falls between .002 and .104. As this range does not include zero and  $b$  is different from zero, there is likely to be a substantial indirect effect.

However, similar findings were not repeated in the dyadic data, and the CLF adjusted measure. Although b-values were different than zero, ( $b = .026$ ;  $SE = .023$  and  $b = -.011$ ,  $SE = .028$ ) respectively, zeroes were included in the confidence intervals (CLF adjusted measure: 95% CI [-.014, .074] and dyadic data: 95% CI [-



.066, .046]). These results tell us that the samples do not contain the true values and therefore cannot be used to infer the population value of the effects. Stated differently, PSI does not mediate the relationship between PVTL and OC, according to dyadic data and CLF adjusted measure.

Based on the results of the analysis using three data set, it is concluded that H5 is not supported. Further discussion is presented in Chapter 7.

#### The effect of PC

A similar procedure using PROCESS was applied to explore the effect of Psychological Contract on the relationship between PVTL and OC. The results are presented in Table 6.9.

[Insert Table 6.9 About Here]

These values indicate that increments in PVTL and in PV lead to an increase in OC level and vice versa

The second model concerns OC regressed on PVTL and PC. Similar findings were found except for the effect of PVTL on OC in dyadic data. The CLF adjusted and unadjusted both show significant positive effect of PVTL and PC on OC,  $b = .244$ ,  $t = 5.267$ ,  $p = .000$ ;  $R^2 = .505$  explaining 50.5% of the variance; and  $b = .287$ ,  $t = 5.259$ ,  $p = .000$ .  $R^2 = .442$ , respectively. The dyadic data show insignificant effect with  $b = .093$ ,  $t = 1.524$ ,  $p = .130$ ,  $R^2 = .060$ , which means 6% of variance explained.

The results of the total effect of PVTL on OC are consistent: three data sets reveal that PVTL significantly predicts OC when PC is not presented in the model:  $b = .400$ ,  $t = 9.362$ ,  $p = .000$ ,  $R^2 = .450$  (45% of variance explained) (in the unadjusted measure) data);  $b = .161$ ,  $t = 3.001$ ,  $p = .003$ ,  $R^2 = 0.49$ , which means 4.9% of variance explained (the dyadic data); and  $b = .340$ ,  $t = .6181$ ,  $p = .000$ ,  $R^2 = .407$  (the CLF adjusted).

**Table 6. 9: Mediation effect PC on the relationship between PVTL and OC**

Predictor	Same source data: Employee self-rating										Dyadic data: Supervisor rating				
	Unadjusted measure					CLF adjusted measure									
	Coeff	SE	Stdcoeff	t	p	Coeff	SE	Stdcoeff	t	p	Coeff	SE	Stdcoeff	t	p
Model with Psychological Contracts regressed on Public Values-focused Transactional Leadership															
PVTL	.562	.050	.573	11.580	.000	.272	.068	.552	4.012	.000	.566	.045	.575	11.605	.000
TF	.113	.042	.133	2.688	.008	-.025	.108	-.032	-.232	.817	.114	.043	.132	2.671	.008
Education level	.021	.072	.010	.292	.771	.069	.055	.053	1.269	.205	.039	.071	.020	.555	.580
Profession	.201	.070	.147	2.911	.004	.148	.052	.168	2.823	.005	.210	.069	.151	3.036	.003
Organisation type	-.094	.070	-.070	-1.353	.177	-.073	.053	-.083	-1.39	.165	-.101	.070	-.073	-1.445	.150
	R <sup>2</sup> =.468					R <sup>2</sup> =.295					R <sup>2</sup> =.471				
Model with Organisational Commitment regressed on Public Values-focused Transactional Leadership and Psychological Contracts															
PVTL	.244	.046	.288	5.267	.000	.287	.054	.657	5.259	.000	.093	.061	.115	1.524	.130
PC	.277	.040	.320	6.949	.000	.198	.038	.223	5.143	.000	.120	.052	.145	2.313	.021
TF	.139	.036	.190	3.918	.000	-.109	.085	-.157	-1.28	.201	-.045	.045	-.064	-.963	.340
Education level	.065	.060	.037	1.079	.281	.008	.043	.007	.185	.853	.078	.077	.048	1.013	.312
Profession	.115	.058	.097	1.980	.049	.086	.042	.110	2.052	.041	-.187	.076	-.165	-2.453	.015
Organisation type	-.058	.058	-.049	-.995	.321	-.029	.042	-.038	-.703	.483	.192	.077	.168	2.450	.013
	R <sup>2</sup> =.505					R <sup>2</sup> =.442					R <sup>2</sup> =.060				
Total effect of Public Values-focused Transactional Leadership on Organisational Commitment															
PVTL	.400	.043	.471	9.362	.000	.340	.055	.781	6.181	.000	.161	.054	.120	3.001	.003
TF	.170	.037	.232	4.600	.000	-.114	.088	-.164	-1.299	.195	-.032	.050	-.045	-.673	.501
Education level	.071	.063	.040	1.117	.264	.022	.044	.019	.489	.625	.083	.077	.051	1.069	.290
Profession	.171	.061	.144	2.813	.005	.115	.043	.147	2.699	.007	-.162	.076	-.142	-2.13	.033
Organisation type	-.084	.061	-.071	-1.373	.170	-.044	.043	-.056	-1.023	.307	.179	.077	.157	2.334	.020
	R <sup>2</sup> =.450					R <sup>2</sup> =.407					R <sup>2</sup> =.049				
Indirect effect (H6)	b=.156; SE=.034; 95% CI [.093, .226]					b=.139; SE=.054; 95% CI [.050, .261]					b=.069; SE=.029; 95% CI [.015, .125]				

Similar findings were found in the CFL adjusted and dyadic data with  $b=.139$ ;  $SE=.054$ ; 95% CI [.050, .261] and  $b=.069$ ;  $SE=.029$ ; 95% CI [.015, .] respectively. These results indicate mediation effects. In other words, PC mediates the relationship between PVTL and OC. The above results support H6.

As shown in the table, PVTL predicts PC. Significant effects were found across three set of data:  $b = .562$ ,  $t = 11.580$ ,  $p = .000$ ;  $R^2 = .468$ , which means 46.8% of variance explained the undjusted measure);  $b = .566$ ,  $t = 11.065$ ,  $p = .000$ ;  $R^2 = .471$ , indicating 47.1% of variance explained (the dyadic data), and  $b = .272$ ,  $t = 4.012$ ,  $p = .000$ ;  $R^2 = .295$  (the CLF adjusted).

Concerning how much of the main relationship that the mediation accounts for (full or partial mediation), the researcher looks at the change in variance explained by PVTL and the significance. As shown in Table 6.9, there is a significant modest reduction of PVTL effect on OC when PC is introduced into the model in the unadjusted measure, and a strong reduction in the CFL adjusted data. This reduction indicates partial mediation. However, in dyadic data, the reduction in variance explained was found to be insignificant ( $p = .130$ ). The insignificant relationship indicates a full mediation. The overall results of the three data sets support a partial mediation.

#### **6.1.3.4. Control variables**

This study controls for transformational leadership (TF), education, professions, and type of organisation. In general, mixed results were found.

TF is a critical factor. Although TL is a common practice among line-managers, in reality, there is a possibility that managers used mixed leadership behaviours.

Table 6.6 displays the effect of TL, PV and PVTL on OC. Among the control variables, transformational leadership (TF) was found having positive significant contributions to the impact of TL, PV, and PVTL on OC but only in same source data with  $\beta = .294$ ; ( $p = .000$ );  $\beta = .385$  ( $p = .000$ ); and  $\beta = .239$  ( $p = .000$ ) respectively. Surprisingly, the CLF adjusted measure and the dyadic data show very mixed results: significant positive, insignificant positive and

insignificant negative association. This interesting finding is discussed further in Chapter 7. However, as shown in Table 6.7 and Table 6.8, TF does not contribute to the indirect effect of PVTL through PSI and PC.

Profession contributes to the direct effects of TL, PV, and PVTL on OC, as shown in Table 6.6. The contribution is small. It is confusing that in the dyadic data, the effect of Profession, although significant, is negative.

This study did not find a significant contribution of education and organisational types to the effects of the main variables.

#### 6.1.4.4. Summary of hypothesis testing

In summary, generic TL increases organisational commitment. PV also has a significant relationship with public servant commitment but does not moderate the relationship between TL and OC. In contrast, the integration of TL and PV, which forms the substyle of TL in the public sector has a strong significant impact on OC.

**Table 6. 10: Summary of hypotheses testing results**

	Hypotheses	Un-adjusted	Adjusted	Dyadic	Conclusion
<b>H1</b>	Transactional Leadership increases Organisational Commitment	v	v	v	Accepted
<b>H2</b>	Public Values increase OC	v	v	v	Accepted
<b>H3</b>	Public Values moderate the relationship between TL and OC	v	x	x	Rejected
<b>H4</b>	PVTL increases OC	v	v	v	Accepted
<b>H5</b>	PSI mediates the relationship between PVTL and OC	v	x	x	Rejected
<b>H6</b>	PC mediates the relationship between PVTL and OC	v	v	v	Accepted

Note: v= significant result; x = insignificant result

## **6.2. Qualitative data analysis results**

This section provides evidence from the qualitative data analysis to help explain how and why the proposed relationships enacted or why they did not. Interviews from managers, employees and scholars were analysed.

### ***6.2.1. The direct impact of TL, PV and PVTL on OC***

This study asked interviewers to share their views on the impact of (i) the leadership practice that they have described and (ii) the significance of their job on their attitudes toward their organisations. This study found information that was in line with the quantitative findings of the relationship between TL and OC, PV and OC, and PVTL and OC.

#### ***6.2.1.1. The impact of TL on OC***

This study first asked interviewees to describe activities often conducted by their direct supervisors at work. Interviews show activities/orientation that are considered as being associated with transactional leadership style such as “orders”, “daily work”, “what to do, what needs to be reported, what the higher-ranked boss wants”, “directing style using commands based on the administrative hierarchy”, “based on rules and regulations”, “considerate”, “fair rewards and punishment”. This shows that TL is a common practice in the public sector of Vietnam.

This study then asked interviewees to share their views on attitudes and feeling toward their organisations given the leadership that they described. From their answers, two major points were revealed: (1) the positive influence; and (2) the reversed influence when the leadership is not as expected. These two points are compatible because they both are evidence how and why TL behaviors affect employee commitment behaviour. Example of the first point: some employees favour TL behaviours of supervisors (when properly done) because those behaviours can provide things that matter to them (e.g. fairness, consideration, benefits, safety). These things are antecedent of organisational commitment.

“Some employees like that type of supervisors (directive task/goal focused) because having a close supervision helps them to avoid making a mistake. That makes them feel good” (Interviewee 4).

“Fair rewards and punishments help to make employees feel affective with the organisations.” (Interviewee 5).

“On one hand, the manager has to respect the general rules and regulations; on the other hand, he/she has to understand the background and family condition of his/her subordinates and be considerate and flexible. Otherwise, he would not be able to keep your subordinates up to par”. (Interviewee 6)

Concerning the second point, interviews show that employee relationship with their organisations can be affected by how their supervisors treat them, and that many staffs leave the organisation because of TL is not done properly, such as “insufficient pay”, “not enough contingent rewards to satisfy them”, “tense relationship with their direct managers”, “pressure from their bosses”

“Employees leave the organisation – that is the responsibility of the direct manager.” (Interviewee 1)

“If I had some issues with my supervisor and the organisation did not realise those issues, then, in the long run, there would be problems between my organisation and me.” (Interviewee 2)

“Public agencies have lost many talents because these people are attracted by better pay and better treatment in the private sector.”

Overall, there is a consensus between the perspectives of managers and employees that positive reinforcement is vital in maintaining public servants. This supports the quantitative findings and Hypothesis 1.

#### *6.2.1.2. The impact of PV on OC*

This study asked interviewees about their feelings about their job as a public employee and how they feel about their organisations given the current jobs. Evidence of PV influence on commitment strongly supports the quantitative findings of the direct positive relationship between PV and OC. Employee

relationship with the organisation can “depends on the values that the organisation presents” and on “what they can contribute to society through doing their assigned job”. Interviews show that if employees understand the meaning of their work, they feel motivated, “proud”, and want to “go with their organisations for a long journey”. Interestingly, there are cases that employees can understand public values without help from their supervisors. They join their organisations because they “like the job”, and “still do their job well although their bosses “never mentions anything about the work meaning or values”. In contrast, employees less or not committed (e.g. “being lazy”, “quitting”, “disloyal”) if they do not see the meaning of their work. The following insights shows both aspects.

“There are days that I feel happy going to work, I found the joy in doing even small tasks. I feel affective about my job. I think people need to understand the nature and the meaning of their job, and need to remember those, and then they will be able to continue with their organisations for a long journey.” (Interviewee 9)

“Many peoples want to work for the Commune’ People Committee, although commune work is challenging and sweaty. Moreover, the pay [from the Government] is insufficient, which affect their family life. But what they like (about working for the Committee) is that they have chances to work in the Government system and to serve their commune, and to help their neighbours in the commune. That makes them feel good.” (Interviewee 11)

#### *6.2.1.3. The impact of PVTL on OC*

The interviews show that by explicating public values to employees, supervisors help to reduce ambiguity about their work and goal– a factor that can increase intention to leave. At the same time, they improve the mutual understanding and relationship with their employees. Good leader-member relationship can help to consolidate the relationship between the employees and the organisations.

“If employees do not understand the values of their work, shame on their supervisors. I underline that it is the responsibility of the direct manager to point out to them the big goals of the organisation and how those goals interwoven with the task goals of employees. It is necessary to make employees understand that

in the organisation there is no “work of low value” or “work of no value”, that all work contributes to the mission of serving the people; that their supervisor (me) is not their boss as I am also a paid servant. I need to make my subordinates feel comfortable. Work in the bureaucracy is already stressful enough, plus the low pay. If I cannot make them comfortable and feel good at the workplace, then they do not have many reasons to stay.” (Interviewee 1)

In a parallel manner, it can be derived from employee experience that they became more public values-aware and oriented, and more loyal to their organisations thanks to their supervisors’ explanation and reminders of public values in everyday work.

“To be honest, when I started my job here [as a civil servant at commune level], I only thought that ‘well, I got a job’, I mean, it was all about myself. But my supervisors and other senior staffs have been talking about those things [the meaning, serviceability, helping people] a lot. Listening to their stories, then I found myself convinced. Now, I work with the idea that I have to do a good job to deserve my title and to help the citizens”. (Interview 12)

Even when employees already understand the connection between doing a good job for the people and the reward, they still appreciate if their supervisors talk about this topic with them:

“Between “do a good job and get rewarded” and “do a good job to help the people and get rewarded”, of course, I would prefer [my boss talk to me like] the second version, because it makes me feel good, knowing that I am useful. If supervisors say things like that often, it will make me like to work there better.” (Interviewee 13)

From supervisor /manager perspective, it is critical that supervisors explicitly explicate the public values although leading by modelling is essential. Particularly, in public values communication, supervisors must pay attention to young staffs and newcomers because their need for understanding the job is prominent. Also, they understand that extrinsic rewards were not a major factor in keeping public servants from leaving their organisations because they did not join the public sector for money.



“I think there are times that words speak louder than actions. For example, for new rookies who start from zero, they cannot understand actions without a clear explanation [about values]. In that case, I have to talk to them, spend time for extra explanation. To be honest, even with clear explanation, no guarantee that they would remember. However, if I do not do that [explaining/clarifying], they might even quit the job before the probation ends.” (Interviewee 25)

“Nobody who works for the bureaucracy, even newcomers, would expect high pays, [because we all know the pay policy of the Government]. However, when I receive newcomers, I have to talk with them in a friendly way, like sharing my own stories, about the work of a public servant – the mission to serve the people. I often tell them not to complain about the low incomes and tell them about other benefits that the organisation can offer such as education, training, career development if they make significant contribution. Most of them understand.” (Interviewee 1)

To conclude, the qualitative information supports Hypothesis 4 that PVTL increases OC.

### ***6.2.2. The moderation effect of Public Values***

The quantitative data shows that the interaction of TL and PV were not confirmed in the CFL adjusted and the dyadic data; the significant effect found in the unadjusted measure is small.

Responses from interviewees show that both TL and PV exist in public organisations and have positive impacts on OC. However, they also show that the impacts of TL might vary in different conditions of PV. In the case of jobs with clear PV, the positive impact is likely to increase. For some other jobs, PV might not be evident to employees.

[In my previous job], I interacted a lot with citizens face to face, which made me feel wanting to help them. If then my supervisors talked about it [public values], that would have that made me I felt more encouraged to do my job. In my current job, this idea does not cross my mind that very often”. (Interview 13)

“No, I only focus on doing my job (teaching). I do not think of that idea [to serve the public mission]. It sounds a pretty big one. I am ok. But yes, it can have been nicer and helpful if my supervisor talked about it to our team. (Interviewee 5)

There is some explanation why the moderation effect does not always work. First, as described by one employee, public values are “dry concepts”, “too big too vague”, and are not interpreted. Second, supervisor may not have sufficient authority and resources to reward employees for their public values-related performance. This fact implies that while PV might motivate employees to perform, TL is not really working. In other words, there is no interaction between TL and PV.

“My boss can tell me that I was doing a great job, making contribution and such. However, if he told me that he would reward me for my good performance and contribution, then I would not believe him. Why? Because he is just a supervisor, he has no authority to make a decision on my promotion or similar things.” (Interview 25)

Notably, in such case, the influence of PC is valid only for employees with a sense of responsibility.

“Such things [serving the citizens, or responsibility of public servants] can be found in the regulation of my organisations, in regulations from the Ministry of Home Affairs, too. However, they are merely concepts because they are not used in reality. My boss never mentions anything like that to me. For those [public servant] who are responsible, they do not need the boss to tell them to be a good servant, and they still do their job well. Those who are irresponsible do not care even if you put the whole set of those [regulations] in front of them. Only in cases of serious deviation, for example, when citizens complain a lot about the attitude or behaviours of a public servant, then the boss or organisations would refer to those regulations discipline him/her.” (Interviewee 13).

To conclude, interviews with employees provide some evidence that (1) the interaction between PV and TL do not always occurs; and (2). the influence of TL varies in different conditions of PV. These findings are in line with the results Hypothesis 3.

### 6.2.3. The mediation effects

#### 6.2.3.1. The effect of PSI

This study posited that PSI is a channel through which PVTL enact. I found mixed findings: a significant result in CLF unadjusted data and insignificant results the other two. Qualitative data also reveals mixed information. Interviews show that in the public sector of Vietnam, PSI is not a popular communication style. As showed in Table 6.15, a top-down approach is widely seen. However, it is also not the most common style. More often, supervisors combine various styles depending on types of employees or tasks that they were dealing with.

From the perspective of employees, they also experienced different styles. Interestingly, although scholars might not view top-down command, or Telling, as an effective style, subordinates found it acceptable. They explained that this style matched with the way public organisations were structured, which is multi-hierarchy

Note that, people from bureaucracy tend to experience Telling and Selling more than in other sub-sections.

**Table 6. 11: Various styles of interaction used in public organisations in Vietnam**

<b>Telling style</b>	“As far as I observe, the most common style in the system is command-oriented, top-down. (Interviewee 17)
	“Top-down commands based on authority and rules. That is the most common style of communication of managers in division level”. (Interviewee 20)
	“During my 20 years working in the government system, I have observed a lot. I think “Do it” [Telling] is the most common style, especially in bureaucracy” (Interviewee 3)
	“As an employee, “Telling” suits me the most. Why? Because I think in a hierarchy system like ours, the boss is in the higher rank, he/she has more authority, he/she has the power to tell people what to do and has to take responsibility for their words. I am not always happy with that [style], but I understand and accept the reality”. (Interviewee 10)

	“Part of the communication related to work is done via documents. All are based on regulations, so official documents are important.” (Interviewee 18)
<b>Selling style</b>	“In reality, I see more commands and persuasion, and sometimes, maybe asking for inputs/feedbacks from employees. I think which style to apply depends on what kind of subordinates” (Interviewee 1)
	“A small part of the communication may be done through unofficial channel, but this way is much less common”. (Interviewee 18)
<b>Consulting style</b>	“Consulting is the style that I have experienced the most from working with my supervisors”. (Interviewee 21)
	“I myself prefer to have my subordinates involve and contribute their inputs and share their opinions. In many cases, they have more new ideas than I do. This way, it is helpful not only for getting the work done but also for the development of subordinates”. (Interviewee 3)
<b>Joining style</b>	“I think the best way is to facilitate and involve employees in the conversation” (Interviewee 1)
<b>Mixed style</b>	“My style of communication? I think it is a combination of 80% Joining, 10% Consulting, and the rest (10%) Selling.

#### 6.2.3.2. *The effect of PC*

Interviews showed that the term “psychological contract” is unfamiliar in Vietnam, but the concept – as an informal agreement between a supervisor and his/her employee on how things should be done – exists. Table 6.11 displays some sub-themes related to the existence and the roles of PC in public organisations.

From these quotes, it can be seen that managers/supervisors are aware of establishing agreements with employees. PC can be used as a vehicle that delivers exchange; a method through which managers conduct individualised considerations to support employees; and a tool to create a friendly relationship between supervisors and employees.

For employee, their commitment to the organisations can be affected by the relationship with their supervisors. Therefore, it can be expected that good PC between them can contribute to keeping employees in the organisations. In the

opposite case, if the contract is problematic, it would affect, first the relationship between the employee and the supervisor, and then, in the long run, it might affect employees' feelings toward their organisation. Table 6.12 presents significant quotes as evidence.

**Table 6. 12: The use and the role of Psychological Contract**

<b>The presence of PC</b>	Those kinds of agreements exist, especially in the Vietnamese organisational context. Why did I say so? Because our [Vietnamese] culture is relationship-based. Sometimes we appreciate relationship more than rules.” (Interviewee 22)
<b>The importance of PC</b>	<p>“Those “unofficial” agreements are common”(Interviewee 19)</p> <p>A big job might be done quickly if people “have a say with each other”. A small issue might become a problem or a conflict if people only depend on regulations but ignore the relationship. I know some stories for illustration.” (Interviewee 22)</p> <p>Those “unofficial agreements are essential. They are useful to build a corporate working environment. When the two sides have common concern and benefits or agree with each other about how things should be done, it is easier.”(Interviewee 19)</p>
<b>The role of PC in retaining employees</b>	<p>“I think it is advisable to have such agreements because it encourages managers to consider the human aspects. It will facilitate the manager -employee relationship. Yes, it would be helpful to retain employees.” (Interviewee 19)</p> <p>“My relationship with my organisation depends much more on the values that the organisation presents and on what I can contribute to society through doing my job [rather than on psychological contract]. But wait a minute, I think I see it now: if due to the psychological contract with my supervisor, I had some problems with him/her while my organisation did not notice those problems, then, in the long run, there would be problems between my organisation and me.” (Interviewee 2)</p>

In summary, interviews show that PC is a channel through which supervisors enact their leadership. This results are in line with quantitative results and support H6.

#### ***6.2.4. The incorporation of transactional leadership and public values***

This study asked public managers to describe how they perform their management on subordinates. There is plentiful evidence of managers using public values in their managements. Specific interviews revealed two sub-themes suggesting that PVTL consists two main behaviours of supervisors: clarifying public values and integrating public values in their transaction. These findings support the PVTL conceptualisation and quantitative results of the dimensionality of the PVTL construct. Furthermore, it also shows that PVTL is different from the interaction of PV and TL.

##### **Clarifying/Explicating Public Values**

Interviews with managers show that they are aware of the importance of making public values clear and understandable to their subordinates.

“Concerning the message “public servants do public work for the benefit of the public”, I, as a manager, I would say that this message needs to be communicated frequently, in an understandable, plain, and straightforward way. (...) I take this issue seriously. (...) I avoid big words and abstract slogans.” (Interviewee 15)

Information from employees is in line with insight from managers. In their opinion, it is crucial that managers clarify public values to them.

“I think they [managers/supervisors] play important roles [in clarifying public values]. Although to an extent the staff in my department are aware of the values, yet, it is not always that they remember those, not always that they have enough information to understand the significance or meaningfulness of their work. Therefore, managers, whom I think have more access to information, should communicate [values] to employees.” (Interviewee 16)

##### **Incorporating public values in rewards and disciplines: Transacting intangible values**

First of all, managers consider this task important and among their responsibility as a manager, and moreover, a responsibility of other managers/supervisors as well, or implicitly, of managers in general.

“If they [employees] completed the assigned work concerning the values, I would acknowledge that; in case there is a problem [related to the values] I would give them a warning.” (Interviewee 15).

Second, they believe that PVTL is possible and can be done in various ways (for example: formal/informal, through different forms, at various time), as showed by the following interview:

“There are many ways to do this. I suggest, they can do it through task-allocation and direction, through off-the-job talks, or through refereeing stories in other public agencies (...). It can be done before they assign tasks to employees, during the process, of after the job is accomplished.” (Interviewee 16)

Third and very importantly, there is evidence (as showed in the following interviews) that managers involve intangible values in transaction. Example of intangible values are opportunities to serve, opportunities to be rewarded (rewards with strong public values orientation), warnings of consequences if public values are not respected (punishment/discipline). In other words, public values are integrated in managers CR behavior and MBE behaviour.

Table 6.12 provides significant quotes from both managers and employees showing what managers/supervisors do and/or say to clarify and explicate public values to their employees. They “explain”, “use plain languages”, “give examples”, “give warnings”. Table 6.13 also shows that managers/supervisors engage public values in their managerial tasks. It can be seen that this task is done in various manners (formal/informal) and through different forms. Also, t can be seen that PV is involved in exchange and displays in different forms (e.g. “opportunities to make contribution, to be accepted by the Party for promotion and career development”). These interview responses reflect PVTL behaviours.

**Table 6. 13: PVTL behaviours**

<b>Claryfying public values</b>	<p>“It is necessary to make employees understand that in the organisation there is no “work of low-value” or “work of no value”, that all work contributes to the mission of serving the people; that their supervisor (me) is not their boss as I am also a paid servant.” (Interviewee 1)</p>
<b>Integrating public values in CR (supports)</b>	<p>“I always remind this [value] to my subordinates individually when I assign tasks to them, as well as in general meetings. I remind my staffs [about serviceability] very often, in different ways: in face-to-face interaction, in general meetings, or through work assignment. I use plain, explicit language to talk about this issue, give them examples of good conducts and misconducts.” (Interviewee 15)</p> <p>“To freshmen and young staffs, I provide them with information about the task such as the subject, the content, the main requirements. I ask them to confirm if they understand. If they show a lack of confidence, I tell them that I would back them up, then I ask them again if they think they can do it. Then I summary all critical information, including the requirements about attitude and the importance of the task. I talk about those while writing them down on a note, and give that note to them: “here, for you, to help you remember key things”. The requirement about attitudes is included in the note. I verbally remind them “As you are a freshman, you might not be skilful to get the work done perfectly, but your attitudes must be perfectly right, from the very start.’ And I underline: “It is critical. Please remember that!” (Interviewee 15)</p> <p>When I assign work to a staff member who also has managerial responsibility, I have a different approach. (...) I do not directly talk about the spirit of serving the public mission to her, but I remind her that she needs to remind her subordinates about this issue. I might say things like “Please remind your subordinates that we are “public servants doing public work” and that you would supervise them carefully.”. By using this approach, I send out the message to everybody, including the supervisor.” (Interviewee 15 )</p>
<b>Integrating public values in MBE</b>	<p>“I firmly tell them that troubling the local office [that has less power and authority] is what they are not supposed to do and also provide warnings of discipline.” (Interviewee 15)</p> <p>“Yes, we point out the wrongness. For example, public servants are not supposed to quarrel with citizens. If somebody makes that mistake, that [behaviour] needs to be changed. They would be educated about attitudes, spirit to serve citizens, and things like that.” (Interviewee 17)</p>
<b>Public values in exchange</b>	<p>“My boss called me to meet him and asked me about my expectation and my goal in my career. I think then he was making a deal: He pointed out that I had to satisfy some condition if I want to go further my career, that he and the organisation would support me so that I would be accepted by the Party [for promotion, for career</p>



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development], in return I had to work harder, to contribute more.” (Interviewee 9)

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“We (managers) appreciate capable staffs and offer them good opportunities to make contribution. They can see that. That motivates them” (Interviewee 17)

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“I am aware of this [ talking about ‘serviceability’ when assigning tasks to employees] because I know that reminding my staffs of values and serviceability would be beneficial for them and for the work they have to do, also for me, as their supervisor. Otherwise, I do not fulfil my responsibility as a manager.” (Interviewee 15 )

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As shown in the quotes, public values are explicitly explicated by managers and used in the transaction/exchange between them and their subordinates. In other words, public values are integrated into the constructive and corrective behaviours of managers. These insights support the idea of PVTL as a transactional leadership sub-style which clarifies PV and integrates PV into the transaction between leaders and followers.

#### ***6.2.5. Other qualitative findings***

From the interviews, this study found interesting findings of public values. First, there is evidence showing that PV resides in public work. Second, there are findings of the role of the CPV in promoting public values – this is a unique characteristic of the public sector of Vietnam.

##### ***6.2.5.1. Public Values as a job-level concept***

This study asked public employees questions about their views on their work. For example: “Please share your view on your current job in comparison to a job with similar professional requirements in a business.” People in different sub-sectors and at different ranks are aware that working for the State/Party has a special meaning. Stated differently, their jobs in the public sector are distinguished from jobs in a private business. They mentioned that their work “is different”, “is distinguished”, “different in forms of making influence”, “is meaningful”. They also provided explanations for their perception: it is because such work can provide them with “opportunities to contribute” and “to involve in the policy-making process and thereby, contributing to making change”, and “chance to help their neighbours”.

One manager who works in an agency under the Communist Party stated:

“My work in this organisation is distinguished because it contributes to the values created and emphasised by the Party and the Government while in a private business or corporate agency, a person who holds a similar job to mine has to work for the values chosen by the owner of the business who focuses on pleasing his customers and the market to make profits.” (Interview 19)

An employee stated:

“My work is different from the work in a commercial organisation because I can get involved in the policymaking process and thereby, contributing to making changes that affect the whole system.” (Interview 23)

An HR manager also shared a similar view:

“Work in the state sector also has attractions (...). People want to work for the state for a stable job, but there are people whose attention is not paid on pay but on the opportunities to contribute to, let say, the policymaking.” (Interviewee 8)

Notably, one scholar pointed out that the public values reside in work assigned to public servants.

“The spirit of “serving the public” can be found in many aspects of the subjective [public servants]: such as whether and how they understand their work and their responsibility; whether they understand their customers and their need.” (Interviewee 24)

In sum, the interviews support the conceptualisation of public value which defines public values as a unique characteristic of public work that presents the spirit of serving the people and the public interest.

#### *6.2.5.2. The Communist Party as a source of public values and Public values communication*

The interviews show that apart from the general values of the public service, the public sector of Vietnam also holds values initiated and promoted by the Communist Party of Vietnam (CPV), specifically such values as “loyalty to the

Party”, “Communist moral standards”, “Red and Professional”. The CPV ensures that key position holders in the administration are also well-fed with the values that they want to promote. Therefore, these people are subjects of ideology education. This is one method to expand and maintain the selected values.

“...everything [policies] is initiated and introduced by the Party; anything from or initiated by the government or other bodies in the administration needs approvals from the Party, including core value. Take the core values that the public sector highlights as an examples. “Prosperous people, strong country, and society of democracy, equity and civilisation”, I think these core values are initiated based on the CPV resolutions.” (Interviewee 24)

“The CPV and Party committees at all levels nominate and appoint their people to critical positions in the party system and the administration. Of course, it is mandatory for these people to take part in advanced ideology education (run by Party schools). That how the CPV expands its values.” (Interview 8)

As showed by interviews, propaganda is a common method to communicate values in the public sector and the society as a whole. Slogans, banners, posters, quotes from communist leaders are widely used to deliver the message of values. Ideology education is mandatory.

“Slogans are everywhere. The most seen colours are red and yellow<sup>10</sup>. There is great amount of political education and communication. Nevertheless, in many cases, it is superficial, therefore, ineffective in addressing the core values. We do not know if the current Ideology education is effective because there is no method of measure and evaluation.” (Interviewee 19)

In conclusion, under the CPV leadership, the public values in Vietnam are aligned with the socialist and communist values selected by the party. The dominant method to communicate public values is via political education and political propaganda. Because public values are abstract, it would be ineffective if they are

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<sup>10</sup> Red and yellow are the colors of the National Flag and National Emblem of Vietnam (The National Assembly of Vietnam, 2015); also the colors of the CPV Vietnam (The CPV online, 2019). Red and yellow are also main political colours of communist parties in general.

not communicated in a clear and practical way so that employees at all levels of the echelon can understand and relate those values to their work.

### **Chapter summary**

This chapter presents the findings of quantitative and qualitative data analysis. The analysis was conducted to address the questions and objectives of the current study. The focus is on quantitative findings, including the measurement validity tests and hypotheses tests. The conclusion on hypotheses testing is determined based on the analysis of the same source data (including CLF adjusted and unadjusted measures) and dyadic data. In addition, qualitative findings from the thematic analysis are used to ensure the robustness of the quantitative findings. The findings help the researcher to answer the main research questions of the study:

- Transactional Leadership, Public Values, and Public Values-focused Transactional leadership are factors that can positively influence the commitment of public employees.
- Transactional Leadership and Public Values can be integrated to form Public Values-focused Transactional leadership (PVTL) – a public sector transactional leadership substyle for the specific purposes of public organisations.
- PVTL can indirectly influence the commitment of public employees through the use of psychological contracts.

The implication of these main findings and other results are further discussed in Chapter 7.

## **CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**

### **Introduction**

This study of transactional leadership in the public sector addresses three main questions: (3) What is the impact of transactional leadership (TL) on organisational commitment (OC) of public employees? (2) What is the impact of public values (PV) on the OC? and (3) What is the impact of a transactional leadership substyle with a public values-focus (PVTL) on OC? It examines the effect of PV in the TL and OC relationship and develops a transactional leadership substyle construct with a public values-focus (PVTL). The PVTL construct identifies two leadership behaviours that are not part of generic TL: clarifying public values and incorporating public values. A framework formulates hypotheses of the relationships among TL, PV, PVTL and OC, and other factors based on the literature reviews. Empirical data are primarily drawn from quantitative surveys, analysed using SPSS and AMOS, supported by qualitative information from interviews that is thematically analysed.

Study results reported in the previous chapter finds positive direct effects of TL and PV on OC. Notably, it finds that TL can integrate with PV to form Public Values-focused Transactional Leadership (PVTL). PVTL is a two-factored construct involving elements from both TL and PV and is positively associated with OC. Also, this study finds that the relationship between PVTL and OC is mediated by Psychological Contract (PC). These results are supported by qualitative data. This study, however, did not find enough evidence to confirm either the moderation effect of PV in the relationship between TL and OC or the mediation effect of Participatory Style of Interaction (PSI) in the relationship between PVTL and OC.

Section 7.1 provides explanations and interpretation of the findings. Section 7.2 discusses the theoretical contribution and practical implications. Section 7.3 addresses the limitations of the study and makes suggestions for further research.

## 7.1. Discussions of the findings

The findings of the study are summarized in Table 7.1.

**Table 7. 1: Summary of the quantitative findings**

	<b>Hypotheses</b>	<b>Conclusion</b>
<b>H1</b>	Transactional leadership increases Organisational commitment	Accepted
<b>H2</b>	Public values increase OC	Accepted
<b>H3</b>	Public values moderate the relationship between TL and OC	Rejected
<b>H4</b>	PVTL increases OC	Accepted
<b>H5</b>	PSI mediates the relationship between PVTL and OC	Rejected
<b>H6</b>	PC mediates the relationship between PVTL and OC	Accepted

### *7.1.1. The positive relationship between TL and OC*

Hypothesis 1 posits that TL is associated with increased OC. This finding is found in the same source data as well as dyadic data (Table 6.5). The qualitative data indicates TL antecedes OC. (Table 6.11)

This study result is in line with management and PA research that reports positive relationships between TL and OC and other outcomes (see Afshari & Gibson, 2016; Chiaburu et al., 2012; Chen, 2002; Trottier et al., 2008; Vigoda-Gadot & Beerli, 2011; Taylor, 2016; Asencio & Mujkic, 2016). TL uses individualised consideration in order to satisfy follower needs (Burns, 1978; Trottier et al., 2008), and it found that employees tend to commit to the organisations if their needs are satisfied (Meyer & Allen, 1997; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001). Rewards and regulations matter to public employees even when they may exhibit high levels of intrinsic and other motivation (Perry & Wise, 1990; Reiney as cited in Bozeman & Su, 2015).

This study controls for TF because other studies find TF to be a strong predictor of OC; indeed, Full-Range Leadership Theory views TF as more effective than TL (see Afshari & Gibson, 2016; Chen, 2012; Tremblay, 2010).

However, this study's findings differ: (i) The effect of TF on OC is *smaller* than that of TL and PVTL on OC; (ii) The direction of TF is inconsistent: the same source data show positive effects, while the dyadic data show a negative one.

Although rare, similar gaps between the TL effect and TF effect have been reported before in PA literature (e.g., the effect of TL is significantly stronger than that of TF on leader-member exchange (LMX) (Vigoda-Gadot & Beerli, 2011). Also, studies in developing countries show that TL has a greater effect than TF on employee performance (Kalsoom, Khan &, Dubar, 2018; Paracha et al., 2012). There are four possible explanations:

First, in societies that are hierarchical and bureaucratic, people are used to rules and commands (Paracha et al., 2012). TL is a suitable fit for these cultures that rely on transactional exchanges. As Vietnam is hierarchically structured and bureaucratic, employees are probably receptive to leaders with TL behaviours and well-accustomed to TL styles. Another possible explanation may be the reduction of trust in employees toward transformational leadership in Vietnam with leaders who talk the talk but do not walk the walk.

Second, the finding of a negative relationship between TF and OC may occur because the contingent reward aspect of TL is more effective for public employees than abstract transformative talks and actions. Also, some public TF leaders may be too focused on achievement and therefore, may intimidate or cause stress to public employees.

Third, while TF is influential at the top of the organisations (Avolio and Bass 1988), hierarchical structures and rules likely limit the opportunity for TF to be effectively used by managers who are lower in the organisation.

Fourth, another explanation is that TF may be ambiguous and abstract (Yukl, 1999), and so not address, or even worsen the ambiguity that is already associated with public organisations and jobs (Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007). In Vietnamese public organisations, TF is even more abstract because leaders tend to expound on political ideology (which means the direction and requirement from the Communist Party). In such a context, employees would probably be more

encouraged by feasible values exchange and precise instructions provided by TL supervisors who consider their actual needs.

In short, TL is found to increase OC in the study setting, even when TF is controlled for. These findings are strong evidence for ensuring that TL is used effectively in furthering employee relations and public sector outcomes.

### ***7.1.2. The positive relationship between PV and OC***

Hypothesis 2 states that PV increases OC. Results using both same source and dyadic data show that PV is positively associated with OC. These findings are supported by qualitative data. (Table 6.12).

These findings are in line with previous research on the impact of values on OC (Boxx et al., 1991; Abbott et al., 2005; Paarlberg & Perry, 2007; Witesman & Walters, 2014). Values in public service have a unique nature and power for explaining the behaviours and commitment of public employees (Berman & West, 2011; Pandey et al., 2016; Wright, Moynihan & Pandey, 2012).

These findings support the consensus among PA researchers about the importance of public values for public servant attitudes and behaviours. People want to work for public organisations because they are attracted to ideals such as public mission, helping people, and contributing to society (Perry & Wise, 1990 in Bozeman & Su, 2017, Scott & Pandey, 2015). Clear public values, therefore, encourage commitment, and increased commitment might be expected from people who are aware of the meaning and public importance of their jobs that they like (Balfour & Wechsler, 1996; Vancouver & Schmidt (1991) in Finnegan, 2000).

PV is assumed to ‘reside in’ (or, be part of) public work, but it is possible for it to be hidden and ambiguous. For example, one interviewee revealed that she felt more like she was making a contribution to the society in her previous job (a front-line employee receiving citizen requests) compared to her current job (a lecturer in a university).



While some employees need prompting to see PV (and care about it), for others, it may be more intrinsic. According to interviews, some people are aware of the meaning of their jobs and “proud of it” and “always like it” even when their supervisors never talked with them about this topic, while others (especially newcomers and young employees) need explanations because “they cannot understand hence, sometimes words [from supervisors] speak louder than actions”. Further research should measure the extent to which subordinates are aware of PVs and their significance in their work.

Public values, apart from being embedded in sector values and public organisational values (such as discussed in the work of Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007; Anderson et al., 2012; Van der Wal et al., 2008), also resides in jobs. This research suggests that the meaning and attributes of public values in the job are context-relevant (Table 3.2). PV is part of public sector work and reflects the mission of making contributions to society. However, to a large extent, a public organisation is not making contributions only because it is assigned with public missions. Its missions are actualised by having the employees doing their tasks within the organisations.

### ***7.1.3. The significant direct effect of PVTL vs. the insignificant moderation effect of PV on TL influence***

This study hypothesises that PV moderates TL influence on OC (H3) and the substyle PVTL directly influences OC (H4). This study finds a significant direct effect of PVTL on OC supported by the same source data as well as dyadic data. Unexpectedly, the moderation effect of PV in the relationship between TL and OC is found only in the unadjusted measure of the same source data. Discussion of this contrast comes after comparing the results of this study with theories and prior empirical research.

#### ***7.1.3.1. The conceptualisation and measurement of PVTL***

This study introduces a measurement instrument for PVTL based on the conceptualisation, literature, and insights from interviews. The results clearly show loading factors reflecting two behaviours of PVTL: clarifying public values

and integrating public values. Qualitative data support these results showing manager behaviours that engage PV (Table 6.16).

In PVTL, PV needs to be made visible and clarified, in ways that are meaningful to employees. Assigning tasks seems to be very appropriate for engaging with public values, which may involve CR and MBE. Assigning tasks involves many activities, (mostly CR), such as giving requirements (what needs to be done), standards (how things need to be done), instructions (what to do to get things done), showing support, and mentioning the possible consequence (rewards and sanctions). Each of these activities can be relevant to engage public values in the conversation with employees. For example, it is not difficult to see that the exchange values in PVTL can be embedded in the exchange of tasks and recognitions (CR). Some managers shared exactly what they often say to employees about public values: “The requirement about attitude [serving the citizens] is included in the notes [I give them]. I verbally remind them [about attitudes]. Managers are also aware that by involving PV in their order to help employees, they are also helping themselves in fulfilling their responsibilities as managers. That is the benefit for them in the values transaction.

Interestingly, interviews with employees show that not only do they understand the public values-related rewards from supervisors but they also feel motivated by the idea of “getting a reward for doing a good job that helps the community”; it makes them feel more “useful” (compared to getting a reward for doing a good job).

MBE can also help managers integrate PV in their leadership, sometimes through the possibility of value-related sanctions. For example, a public manager in a village revealed that although he did not have the authority to implement punishments on employees, if he mentioned the community disappointment (in cases of employee misbehaviours or deviations), it helped him to correct employee behaviours because “Out of the office, we (the employees, the citizens, and me) are neighbours of each other in this small village.” However, in Vietnam, as elsewhere, employment contracts and other conditions limit the scope for contingent rewards (and sanctions) in PA.

#### *7.1.3.2. PVTL vs. the interaction between PV and TL*

Three issues are discussed in this subsection: PVTL vs PV\*TL (moderation effects), PVTL direct effect on OC, and the moderation effect of PV in the relationship between TL and OC.

##### PVTL vs. PV\*TL

Both quantitative and qualitative findings support the argument that PVTL affects OC in a mechanism distinguishable from the interaction between PV and TL

The PVTL mechanism is direct, in which PV is a part of TL behaviours in the exchange. In PVTL, the effectiveness of leadership depends on supervisor actions: how clear they articulate public values and how well they embed public values in rewards and disciplines. PVTL is applicable to all public work. Particularly for work with obscured PV, it is even more useful because it makes PV “visible”.

TL effects on OC may vary under different PV conditions (Table 6.14). In the moderation effect, PV is a separate element and acts as a context or supplement. It is not part of transactional leadership but shapes how TL affects OC; This effect may depend on job characteristics or the personal values of employees.

Given these results, it can be seen that PVTL has advantages because supervisors can use PVTL in different types of work and with employees with different sense of responsibility and sense of service.

##### The direct effect of PVTL on OC

PVTL is theorised as the substyle in which leaders incorporate public values into transactional behaviours to make an influence. Using the PVTL measure, this study finds that PVTL increases OC (H4).

Interviews support quantitative results. Employees show that they want to hear from supervisors about the link between performance, contribution to the

society, and reward rather than about just performance and rewards. Such a message helps them to feel more “useful” and “like to work there better”. This shows the direct effect of PVTL

#### The moderation effect of PV in the relationship between TL and OC

This study suggested that that PV moderates the relationship between TL and OC (H3). However, because PV is stable across public work (Section 3.2.1 and Table 3.2), the degree to which PV is present varies across jobs and employees, and this might moderate the relationship between TL and OC.

The quantitative results do not provide sufficient support for this proposition, with the interaction between PV and TL significant only in the unadjusted measure but not in the adjusted measure and the dyadic data. Because the unadjusted measure might be affected by CMB, the role of PV as a moderator is not supported.

The qualitative data also shows inconsistent results. Some interviews show that the interaction between PV and TL works within groups of people who have a strong sense of responsibility and willingness to contribute. Nevertheless, this does not work on people who join the public sector for more self-centred purposes ‘they do not care even if you put the whole set of regulations [regarding public servants serving public interests] in front of them’. This situation is a possible explanation of why the quantitative data revealed mixed results of the moderation effect of PV in the relationship between TL and OC. However, the possibility for PV to significantly affect public employees is clear because public employees needs and perceptions about work are developable through leadership behaviours (Van Wart, 2013).

Past studies show inconsistent moderation effects among groups of employees with different perceptions (e.g., Keller, 1989). For example, task clarity moderates the relationship between path-goal leadership and employee performance but not within the groups of employees with high education or internalised professional norms, probably because these employees did not need supervisors to initiate path-goal structure (Keller, 1989). In this current study, it

may be that employees with a strong sense of public service do not need supervisors to explain or clarify public values to them because they are already aware of this issue. In contrast, as for those who do not care about public values (as quoted), supervisors' talk on public values are of no use to them.

The insignificant moderation effect indicates some suggestions for future research concerning comparing groups of public employees with different levels of motivation. Section 7.3.2 discusses this issue further.

#### ***7.1.4. The mediation effects of leader communication***

This study investigates the potential indirect effect of PVTL through two factors related to communication, which are Participatory Style of Interaction (PSI) (H5) and Psychological Contract (PC) (H6). This study found (i) mixed results (mostly insignificant) about the mediation of PSI and (ii), consistent significant results of the mediation effect of PC.

##### **The effect of PSI**

Only results using CMB-unadjusted data show a significant mediation effect of PSI. Since these results may be affected by CMB, the mediation effect was not confirmed. These findings are not in line with prior research which argues that effective supervisory communication is equal to effective leadership (de Vries, Bakker-Pipper & Oostenveld, 2010) and thereby, positively influencing employees' behaviours and attitudes (Mayfield & Mayfield, 2009; Mayfield et al., 1998). It also contrasts with other findings that leadership effects can be indirect (via communication) on the relationship between employees and organisations, or on employee behaviours (for example, see Gutierrez-Wirching et al., 2015).

This study is not alone in finding insignificant results of communication as mediator. Portoghese (et al., 2011), for example, reports that communication does not significantly mediate the relationship between LMX and normative commitment to change.

Some possible explanations for the insignificant mediation effect come from interviews. Cultural factors in Vietnam (such as hierarchy, high power

distance, and seniority respect) mean that employees may not want to participate, especially in terms of giving feedback or expressing their opinions in a meeting. Therefore, even when supervisors apply PSI, employees still might not want to express their opinions about work-related issues verbally. Also, interviews revealed that supervisors used not only one style but tended to mix various styles when communicating with employees. Given such an assortment of styles, it is difficult to identify the main style that produces effects.

### The effect of PC

The quantitative findings of PC are consistent. Significant indirect effects of PVTL through PC were found across data with only one difference: results using the same source data show partial mediations while the dyadic data showed a full mediation.

This investigation of PC breaks away from the two popular approaches PA researchers often apply (which are the content [i.e. what the deal is] and the process of the PC, i.e. the fulfilment and/or breach of a deal). Instead, it joins research that explores other issues related to PC, such as whether PC is used in public organisations, as well as by whom and how it is used (see Berman & West, 2003; Berman et al., 2012). This approach is essential because it provides a specific understanding of PC as a tool for public managers: what they use PC for and at what stage of management they use it. This study supports this body of literature by providing evidence showing that PC is useful for PVTL managers. Notably, it provides evidence that PC can be used as a channel through which PVTL is enacted.

The qualitative data show that using PC is a common occurrence in supervisor-subordinate relationships in Vietnamese public organisations. PC can convey both tangible factors (such as workload and time) and non-tangible factors (such as job-related information). This finding is in line with findings in the past (Berman & West, 2013). The fact that Vietnam is a relationship-oriented culture may further account for the popularity of informal agreements such as PC.

## **7.2. Contribution and implication**

This study contributes to public leadership and public values literature. It also contributes to the TL theory. The contributions are for both theory building and theory testing<sup>11</sup> (terms used by Colquitt and Zapata-Phelan, 2007).

### ***7.2.1. Contribution to theory***

#### **Contribution 1: Developing a leadership substyle and construct of PVTL**

This study draws attention to public values-focused transactional leadership as an important substyle for the public sector. It shows that this substyle increases the effectiveness of the generic TL construct. Developing purpose-focused, context-specific leadership substyles is consistent with leadership research in public administration (e.g., Ysa et al. 2014; Van Wart & Moynihan, 2003; Anderson & Sun, 2015). The focus on TL matches with the calls for balancing out the uneven attention placed on TF, which so often gets the attention (Dinh et al., 2014; Podsakoff, 2010).

Specifically, this study identifies two distinct leader behaviours that have not been covered by generic leadership styles: clarifying public values and incorporating public values to form the PVTL construct.

This study develops and validates the PVTL scale and tests its predictive validity. This scale alone contributes to developing measurements for PA and public leadership research. It is even more meaningful, given that the PA community has not developed many valid measurement instruments, except for a few scales (Tummers & Knies, 2016). The PVTL measure, no doubt, helps to mitigate the shortage of studies on scale development for specific public leadership (Tummers & Knies, 2016) and, therefore, reduce the use of ad hoc scales. Using valid scales in PA is specifically useful for comparative studies in public management (Tummers & Knies, 2016). (More practical suggestions for

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<sup>11</sup> Taxonomy of Theoretical contributions of empirical research. Theory Building: 5- Introduces new constructs or significantly reconceptualises existing ones; 4 - Examines previously unexplored relationship; 3- Introduces new moderators or mediators in an existing relationship or process; 2- Examines effects that have been subjects of prior theorising; 1- Attempts to replicate previously demonstrated effects. Theory Testing: 5- Ground predictions with existing theory; 4- Ground predictions with diagrams, models or figures; 3- Ground predictions with existing conceptual; 2- Ground predictions with past findings; 1- Is inductive or ground predictions with logical speculation (Colquitt and Zapata-Phelan, 2007)

researchers on using the PVTTL concept and scale are discussed further in Section 7.2.2.1).

In a broader context, it is also worthwhile to mention that PVTTL contributes to the scholarship of integrating leadership styles for specific purposes. As various leadership styles need to be blended into what is "truly distinct" (Anderson & Sun, 2017, p.90), the work on PVTTL supports the growing trends in leadership research attempting to "boil down" various leadership styles (Anderson & Sun, 2017, p.90).

#### Contribution 2: Investigating public values at the work level

This study furthers public values research by studying public values as a job-level concept, given that existing studies focus more on other levels (e.g. Van Wart, 1998; Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007; der Wal, de Graaf & Lasthuizen, 2008; Lyon, Duxbury & Higgins). Doing so offers increased locus and specificity in ways that public values are clarified and realised, thereby reducing ambiguity about public values as a study concept which is caused by the fact that "public values brings with it all the associations and confusions of the two highly ambiguous and contested concepts it unites: Public and Value" (Jørgensen & Rutgers, p.4 as cited in Pandey, Davis, Pandey & Peng, 2016; Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007; Tummers & Knies, 2013).

The PVTTL conceptualisation supports several ideas on what is 'public': distinctive purposes of the public sector that filter down to the goals and mission of organisations and jobs (Van Wart, 2013); the specific tasks or roles of public leaders (Getha-Taylor et al., 2011; Tummers & Knies, 2013), and their behaviours (Tummers & Knies, 2014); Vigoda-Gadot & Beerli, 2011). It also includes the responsibility to exercise power on behalf of the public inside and outside their organisations (Crosby & Bryson, 2018).

#### Contribution 3: Providing evidence for the use of the generic measure

This study reexamines the previously observed relationship between TL and OC in a new context and with a new moderator. By doing so, it provides evidence for the use of generic TL measures in the public sector context.



It supports arguments that TL includes individualised consideration and can involve intangible values (Trottier et al., 2008; Van Wart, 2013; Walumbwa et al., 2008). It explains how transactional leaders can involve intangible values in their transaction (public values, in this case).

In a broader context of leadership studies and generic leadership styles, these findings are in line with efforts to develop measurement instruments for specific leadership purposes (for example, see the measurement of Instrumental Leadership (Antonakis & House (2014), or the measurement of the extension of Transformational leadership construct (Goodwin (et al., 2001)).

#### Contribution 4: The relevance of study concepts in diverse settings such as Vietnam

This study examines leadership in an underrepresented context – a developing country with a one-party system. It shows that the study concepts are relevant to diverse settings such as Vietnam with its one-party system and high hierarchy. It also highlights that TL can be more effective than TF in some settings, and that cultural context requires more consideration than is sometimes given.

#### **7.2.2. Practical implication**

##### *7.2.2.1. Implications for researchers*

The PVTTL scale is useful for researchers since it helps to reduce the use of ad hoc scales. Using valid scales in PA is specifically useful for comparative studies in public management when examining the differences between countries or sectors (Tummers & Knies, 2016). The PVTTL scale can be used for several purposes. For example, future studies might want to explore if different human resource systems (e.g., job-based vs. career-based) communicate public values differently, or to compare public managers in different sub-sectors/industries of the public sector.

This study suggests that more attention needs to be paid to the sub-culture contexts of the public sector. As revealed in interviews, it seems that the approaches of managers vary across levels and locations of public organisations because of different sub-contexts. For example, hierarchy seems to be less

significant in organisations at commune level (e.g. villages) because organisations at this level are small and have few ranks (in terms of both personnel and office infrastructure), especially because subordinates and their managers may be from one community, and know the citizens of that community in person. These differences may affect the specific ways public values are delivered at the commune level as compared to managers and employees in a large office in an urban area.

#### *7.2.2.2. Implications for practitioners*

The primary implication for practitioners is the application of PVTL in the daily routines of public managers. In order to do so, several practical steps should be taken:

First, training and other HR steps are likely needed. Investment is necessary to implement Training Needs Assessment, design materials, and organise courses. Training for managers can focus on the following issues:

- Improving awareness of roles and responsibility of clarifying PV and using PV to influence employees. The two behaviours of PVTL (i.e. clarifying PV and integrating PV in rewarding and monitoring) can be taught to managers.
- Providing skills and knowledge of how to apply PVTL behaviours in their management tasks (e.g. in coaching, assigning tasks, conducting assessment and evaluation).
- Providing skills and knowledge of the Psychological Contract and communication styles to use in their practice. Training also needs to equip them with communication skills that are compatible with the use of PVTL.

Second, Supervisors/line managers should be held accountable for the awareness of their direct subordinates regarding public values. That is to say managers should be evaluated and assessed based on how much they make subordinates understand PV. Research is also needed to decide criteria that can be used for assessing and rewarding PVTL behaviours. This step is challenging in a way that it may involve multiple parties in the evaluating process (employees,

higher-ranked leaders). Therefore, it is advisable that public servant training (general) aims to increase employees' knowledge and skills in providing evaluation and feedback.

Finally, provide feedback should be provided for PVTL behaviours. This step is critical for improvement. It also very much depends on the previous because giving feedback also needs clear criteria and involve employees as well.

At this time, it is still not clear how these things can be implemented in reality. Therefore, further practice-oriented development is needed

### **7.3. Limitations of the research and suggestions for future research**

Like other studies, this study has several limitations. It is necessary to address these limitations in order to motivate future research in public administration and public leadership.

#### **7.3.1. *Limitations***

Mainly, the results of this research are affected by the research methods that it applied, including the limitations of data, instruments, and conceptualisations.

First, regarding data, this study used non-probability and snowball sampling. Therefore, the findings may not be sufficient to present the target population, which may limit generalisability. For these reasons, the findings cannot be used for generalisation. However, this study selected diverse PA organisations (bureaucracy, public service delivery, communist party agencies, and political-socio organisations) and levels (central/ ministerial, provincial, district, and commune). This mitigates the disadvantages caused by the absence of random sampling.

Moreover, there is a limitation related to the setting of the study. Vietnam has some distinctive features as a developing country in Asia that emphasises TL and has a history with the CPV leadership. In Vietnam, a need for clarifying public values is urgent. Practitioners in other countries can refer to the results of this study, however, to a lesser extent, which may reduce the importance of the PVTL

influence on OC. At this time, it is unknown. Therefore, future research may consider examining this issue.

Another limitation is the use of data collected at the same time hence a causal relationship cannot be confirmed. Also, this type of method gave the researcher very little control over the environment but challenged her to interpret the results. Nevertheless, it also indicated that PVTL is a group leadership phenomenon rather than just pairs of supervisor-subordinate relationships.

In the dyadic survey, supervisors only rated commitment behaviour of their employees as a group instead of a separate rating for each individual. This limitation might affect the results of the dyadic data and create difficulty for the interpretation of the result.

Second, regarding the instruments, the measures are based on previous research; hence, need refinement. Notably, the PVTL scale needs refinement as well. In this study, given that it was validated through interviews and factor analysis, therefore, further triangulations are advisable.

Third, “Public Values” is a broad concept. This study can only investigate one small aspect of public values, which is the public mission of public organisations (as discussed by Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007). Other aspects, such as accountability or integrity, may have different relationships. Regarding organisational commitment construct, this study views OC as a single factor construct (as previously used by Chen (2002); Limsina & Ogunlana (2008); McGuire & Kennerly (2006)); therefore, it is difficult to compare the results of this research with research that looked at separate dimensions of the OC construct.

Furthermore, regarding control variables, while scholars suggest controlling for factors such as age and tenure of service because they affect commitment, in this study, these factors are unexplored. The reason for this is because survey participants did not provide sufficient information about these factors for analysis.

### ***7.3.2. Future research suggestions***

This study highly recommends that future research conduct experimental studies to compare the effect of PVTL to that of TL, or of other leadership styles. For example, PVTL may be taught to public managers in training courses, as an intervention. Future studies may investigate whether participants who are exposed to PVTL managers outperform or are more committed than a control group.

Because scale validation is an on-going process (De Vellies, 2003), future research can aim at increasing the level of validation of the PVTL construct and measure. This study applies EFA and CFA techniques and qualitative data from interviews for the validation. Future research may want to apply fuller scale development and validation procedures suggested by scholars (e.g., De Vellis, 2012; McKenzie et al., 2011). Also, future research may test whether the PVTL construct and scale work in different contexts such as different countries, types of public organisations, or different levels of public organisations. This study suggests that future research explore the antecedents and effects of PVTL.

Another interesting direction of future research is to explore other variables that involve values. For example, public service motivation (PSM), personal - organisational fit, OCB can be of value. Future research can measure the PSM of public servants and compare the effect of the predictors and the moderation effect among groups of employees with different levels of PSM. For outcome variables, future research would benefit from investigating other essential variables such as OCB, job performance, or job satisfaction. Also, future research can better control for possible factors (other leadership styles, for example).

Finally, this study suggests that future studies should consider generating and testing more substyles or hybrid models of transactional leadership based on previous theoretical discussion (e.g. the transactional approach to ethical leadership (Treviño & Brown, 2006; Grove & LaRocca as cited in McCleskey, 2014; Anderson & Sun, 2015)).

### **Chapter summary**

Chapter 7 started with a brief reminder to readers of the reason why this research was conducted. Then it summarised the research questions and main findings of the study. The discussion involves several activities: it interpreted key results, searched for possible and alternative explanations for these results, then compared and contrasted the results with previous studies and the theories. Chapter 7 also discussed in detail the contributions of this study. It provided self-evaluation of the theoretical contribution based on criteria suggested by scholars. Going in hand with the theoretical discussion is an implication for the benefits of researchers and practitioners. The chapter pointed out the main limitations of the study and used them to make suggestions for future research.

## **Conclusion and closing remarks of the study**

This study is motivated by the need for leadership substyles for specific purposes of the public sector (Crosby & Bryson, 2018; Van Wart, 2013; Vogel & Masal, 2015; Tummers & Knies, 2016; Ospina, 2012), the distinctiveness of public values (Jørgensen & Bozeman, 2007; Anderson et al., 2012) and using public values in theorising leadership (Crosby & Bryson, 2018). Another motivation is to address problems in the reality of public management practice: ensuring that public supervisors/managers align public servants' behaviours with public values.

This study examines three main research questions as follows: (1)- What is the impact of transactional leadership on the organisational commitment of public employees? (2)-What is the impact of public values on the organisational commitment of public employees? (3)- What is the impact of a transactional leadership substyle that incorporates public values on the organisational commitment of public employees? These questions are critical because they address some existing puzzles in the PA field and reality. The first question is interested in a previously examined relationship with inconsistent findings. The second and third questions deal with relationships that have not been investigated before. Especially in the search for the answers to the third question, the study introduces a substyle of transactional leadership that incorporates public values. The development of this TL substyle aims at creating a consensus: TL can transact public values. This point is a critical challenge in the field of research because TL is often known as the leadership style based on the exchange of explicit values.

Also, these issues address several real-world problems: How should public managers communicate public values with public servants in ways that it encourages them to commit to public service? How to support public managers to handle management tasks in the context of increasing needs from employees and limited resources?

The findings of this study are meaningful in various ways. The empirical evidence of the positive relationship between TL and OC is essential because it confirms the contribution and significance of TL in the public sector. Moreover, it even shows and explains why TL can be more effective than TF in the public

sector setting. By taking TL as one primary focus, this study draws more attention from both scholars and practitioners to this cornerstone of leadership. Mainly, the effort this study made to improve TL involves paying attention to aspects of the specific environment in which TL is enacted (the public sector) and the content of the TL transaction in that environment.

The most critical findings of this study are the development of the PVTL concept and measures. This study underscored the ability of TL that has not been empirically investigated, that is the ability to transact intangible values. It used public elements to form a transactional leadership substyle (PVTL) for the specific purposes of public organisations, and explained the mechanism of how PVTL influences public employees. Moreover, it developed the PVTL measures to test the influence of PVTL empirically. The development of the PVTL measure is useful for researchers given the shortage of validated measurements instruments in public leadership and public values research. Practically, the development of PVTL is a valuable approach for public managers together with or separately from the TF approach.

This study is the only research that has investigated public values in public work. Hence, the findings concerning the positive association between PV and OC are distinctive. Also, the proposed PV concept contributes to the clarification of public values. This study found that the use of PV in TL is associated with higher OC. The qualitative data indicate a causal relationship between PVTL and OC. It suggests that PV is a tool of public sector managers. It also suggests that existing leadership styles can be adapted to non-western cultures and content.

Also, the findings concerning PSI and PC are also crucial because they show channels through which PVTL can produce influence, therefore, contributing to the knowledge-base of indirect effects of leadership on outcomes.

Despite study limitations, this study significantly contributes to the theory building and theory testing of public leadership and generic leadership. In a nutshell, it is one of the very few studies to provide empirical evidence to prove that TL can transact intangible values and, therefore, can more effectively increase its impact on public employees. More importantly, it is, so far, the only research



that introduces a TL substyle for specific purposes of the public sector. In other words, this study not only further the consensus of TL but also shifts the consensus to a better understanding of TL. In addition, it also assists our understanding of public values by providing a different approach to public values by exploring public values at the job-level and thereby helps to reduce the ambiguity and confusion associated with public organisations. It also recommends new ways and new tools for public managers to influence public employees to reduce their intention to leave.

All in all, this study offers a different approach to enhance the relationship between public managers and subordinates through transactional leadership that is infused with public values, and increases positive behaviours of public servants for public service.

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## APPENDIXES

### Appendix A. Questionnaires in English

#### Survey 001-Subordinate Form

*Dear participant,*

*Your participation as a respondent to the question in this survey is completely voluntary. You will not be individually identified. Your responses will be used for scientific research purposes only and can only be viewed by the researcher and her supervisors.*

*This study has been reviewed and approved by the Victoria University of Wellington (New Zealand). If you have questions about your rights as a participant in this survey or are dissatisfied with any aspect of the survey, you may anonymously contact the Victoria University of Wellington at +64-4-463 5480.*

*Thank you very much for your time and corporation.*

**Please indicate the level of frequency of activities made by your supervisor based on your observation using the following rating scale:**

Not at all: 1		Once in a while: 2	Sometimes :3	Fairly often:4	Frequently, if not always: 5		
	Activities	Rating					
	<i>My supervisor...</i>						
CR1	Provides me with assistance in exchange for my effort.	1	2	3	4	5	
CR2	Makes clear what I can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.	1	2	3	4	5	
CR4	Expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations.	1	2	3	4	5	
CR3	Gives me positive feedback when I perform well.	1	2	3	4	5	
CR5	Gives me special recognition for my especially good performance.	1	2	3	4	5	
CR7	Gives me enough information for me to do my job well	1	2	3	4	5	
CR8	Makes his/her requirements clear so that I can meet his/her expectation	1	2	3	4	5	
ME5	Collects information on my performance to help me improve my performance.	1	2	3	4	5	
ME6	Takes action to deal with poor performers who cannot or will not improve	1	2	3	4	5	
TF1	Gets me to look at issues from many different angles.	1	2	3	4	5	
TF2	Talks about his/her important values and beliefs.	1	2	3	4	5	
TF3	Emphasizes the importance of us having a collective sense of mission.	1	2	3	4	5	
TF4	Spends time teaching and coaching me.	1	2	3	4	5	
TF5	Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	1	2	3	4	5	

TF6	Challenges me to think about old problems in new ways.	1	2	3	4	5
TF7	Says things that make me proud to be a part of the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5

**Please indicate the level of your agreement or disagreement with each of these statements regarding your work relationship. Tick the answer that suits you the most using the following rating:**

Strongly disagree:1	Somewhat disagree:2	Neither disagree nor agree: 3	Somewhat agree:4	Strongly agree:5		
<i>As a member of this organisation, I feel that:</i>		<b>Rating</b>				
OC.1	What this organisation stands for is important to me.	1	2	3	4	5
OC.2	I talk up this organisation to my friends as a great organisation to work for.	1	2	3	4	5
OC3	I am attached to this organisation because of its organisational values.	1	2	3	4	5
OC4	How hard I work for the organisation is directly linked to how much I am rewarded.	1	2	3	4	5
OC5	In order for me to get rewarded around here, it is necessary to express the right attitude.	1	2	3	4	5
OC6	Since joining this organisation, my personal values and those of the organisation have become more similar.	1	2	3	4	5
OC7	My personal view about this organisation goes in line with what I show publicly.	1	2	3	4	5
OC8	The reason I prefer this organisation to others is because of what it stands for, that is, its values.	1	2	3	4	5
OC9	My attachment to this organisation is primarily based on the similarity of my values and those represented by the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
OC10	I am proud to tell others that I am part of this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
OC11	I feel a sense of ‘ownership’ for this organisation rather than being just an employee.	1	2	3	4	5
PSI1	My supervisor invites me to discuss work with him/her before he/she makes final decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
PSI2	My supervisor spends time listening besides talking when it comes to discussing work.	1	2	3	4	5

PSI3	My supervisor encourages two-way communication.	1	2	3	4	5
PSI4	My supervisor encourages me to provide input.	1	2	3	4	5
PSI5	My supervisor encourages me to ask questions.	1	2	3	4	5
PSI6	My supervisor encourages me to speak up in meetings.	1	2	3	4	5
PSI7	My supervisor supports me to generate initiatives in decision making.	1	2	3	4	5
PV1	My supervisor makes it clear to me that the significance of the job of a public employee is to serve the public and the people.	1	2	3	4	5
PV2	My supervisor tells me that my job also contributes to improving public service.	1	2	3	4	5
PV3	My supervisor tells me that my job can make society fairer.	1	2	3	4	5
PV4	My supervisor makes me see that the essential demand of public organisations is to serve the people.	1	2	3	4	5
PV5	My supervisor tells me that I can help people through my work.	1	2	3	4	5
PV6	My supervisor me that I can have a positive impact on others through my work.	1	2	3	4	5
PC1	My supervisor and I have an understanding of what support each should give.	1	2	3	4	5
PC2	My supervisor and I have an understanding of what contributions each should make	1	2	3	4	5
PC3	What I and my supervisor expect to give and get from each other is fair	1	2	3	4	5
PC4	My supervisor initiates meetings with me to discusses what we can expect from each other	1	2	3	4	5
PC5	My supervisor and I have a mutual understanding of suitable ways to communicate with each other.	1	2	3	4	5
PC6	I can approach my supervisor to discuss flexible work schedule when I need it.					
PC7	My supervisor initiates meeting with me to discuss what training I need to improve my skills.	1	2	3	4	5
PC8	My supervisor and I share views that we can have informal discussions about work.	1	2	3	4	5

Please describe yourself by ticking ‘x’ in the box next to the answers that are true about you.

<b>Age:</b> ..... <b>Gender:</b> <input type="checkbox"/> Female <input type="checkbox"/> Male	<b>Education:</b> <input type="checkbox"/> Vocational training degree <input type="checkbox"/> Associate degree <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor degree <input type="checkbox"/> Master degree <input type="checkbox"/> Ph.D degree	<b>Type of employment</b> <input type="checkbox"/> Regular (permanent employed) <input type="checkbox"/> Non-regular (Short-term contract-based employed) <input type="checkbox"/> Other
<b>Service category:</b> <input type="checkbox"/> Cadre <input type="checkbox"/> Civil servant <input type="checkbox"/> Public servant <input type="checkbox"/> Other	<b>How long have you been in the current position?</b> .....	<b>How long have you been working with your direct supervisor?</b> .....
<b>Your management level within your agency:</b> <input type="checkbox"/> Employee: I do not manage anyone <input type="checkbox"/> Middle-level manager/leader: I manage/lead at least one other person or a larger number of employees <input type="checkbox"/> Senior-level manager/leader: I manage/lead other leaders or managers		
<b>Your service rank:</b> <input type="checkbox"/> Junior staff-member <input type="checkbox"/> Official <input type="checkbox"/> Principal <input type="checkbox"/> Senior <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please verify)	<b>Category of your organisation:</b> <input type="checkbox"/> Bureaucratic <input type="checkbox"/> Public service delivery <input type="checkbox"/> Political-social agency <input type="checkbox"/> Other (Pls. verify)	<b>Level of your organisation:</b> <input type="checkbox"/> Ministerial-level <input type="checkbox"/> Provincial-level <input type="checkbox"/> District level <input type="checkbox"/> Grass-root level <input type="checkbox"/> Other (Pls. verify)

Thank you very much for your corporations.

## Survey-002: Supervisor Form

Dear participant,

Your participation as a respondent to the question in this survey is completely voluntary. You will not be individually identified. Your responses will be used for scientific research purposes only and can only be viewed by the researcher and her supervisors.

This study has been reviewed and approved by the Victoria University of Wellington (New Zealand). If you have questions about your rights as a participant in this survey or are dissatisfied with any aspect of the survey, you may anonymously contact the Victoria University of Wellington at +64-4-463 5480.

Thank you very much for your time and corporation.

**Please indicate the level of frequency of activities you make using the following rating scale:**

Not at all: 1      Once in a      Sometimes:      Fairly often: 4      Frequently      if not while: 2     always: 5						
	Activities	Rating				
CR1	I provide my subordinates with assistance in exchange for my effort.	1	2	3	4	5
CR2	I make clear what they can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.	1	2	3	4	5
CR3	I express my satisfaction when they meet expectations.	1	2	3	4	5
CR4	I give them positive feedback when they perform well.	1	2	3	4	5
CR5	I give them me special recognition for their especially good performances	1	2	3	4	5
CR6	I give them specific instruction for them to carry out given task	1	2	3	4	5
CR7	I give them enough information for them to do their job well	1	2	3	4	5
CR8	I make my requirements clear so that subordinates can meet my expectation.	1	2	3	4	5
ME1	I focus attention on irregularities, exceptions, or deviations from what is expected.)	1	2	3	4	5
ME2	I keep track of all mistakes.	1	2	3	4	5
ME3	I am a firm believer of "if it isn't broken, don't fix it".					
ME4	I monitor their performance so that they do not make mistakes	1	2	3	4	5
ME5	I collect information on their performance to help them improve their performance.	1	2	3	4	5
ME6	I take action to deal with poor performers who cannot or will not improve	1	2	3	4	5
TF1	I get my subordinates to look at issues from many different angles.	1	2	3	4	5
TF2	I talk about the most important values and beliefs.	1	2	3	4	5

TF3	I emphasise the importance of us having a collective sense of mission.	1	2	3	4	5
TF4	I spend time teaching and coaching my subordinates	1	2	3	4	5
TF5	I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	1	2	3	4	5
TF6	I challenge them to think about old problems in new ways.	1	2	3	4	5
TF7	I say things that make them proud to be parts of the organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
PSI1	I invite my subordinates to discuss work with him/her before I make final decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
PSI2	I spend time listening besides talking when it comes to discussing work.	1	2	3	4	5
PSI3	I encourage two-way communication.	1	2	3	4	5
PSJ1	I encourage me to provide input.	1	2	3	4	5
PSJ2	I encourage my subordinates to ask questions.	1	2	3	4	5
PSI3	I encourage my subordinates to speak up in meetings.	1	2	3	4	5
PSI4	I support my subordinates to generate initiatives in decision making.	1	2	3	4	5
PV1	I make it clear to my subordinates that the significance of the job of a public employee is to serve the public and the people.	1	2	3	4	5
PV2	I tell my subordinates that their jobs also contribute to improving public service.	1	2	3	4	5
PV3	I tell my subordinates that their jobs can make society fairer.	1	2	3	4	5
PV4	I make my subordinates see that the essential demand of public organisations is to serve the people.	1	2	3	4	5
PV5	I tell my subordinates that they can help people through my work.	1	2	3	4	5
PV6	I tell them that they can have a positive impact on other through my work.	1	2	3	4	5
PC1	My subordinate (s) and I have mutual understanding about what support he/she can expect from me.	1	2	3	4	5
PC2	My subordinate (s) and I have an understanding of what support each should give.	1	2	3	4	5
PC3	My subordinate(s) and I have an understanding of what contributions each should make	1	2	3	4	5
PC4	What I and my subordinate(s) expect to give and get from each other is fair	1	2	3	4	5
PC5	I initiate meetings with my subordinates to discuss what we can expected from each other	1	2	3	4	5
PC6	My subordinate(s) and I have mutual understanding about suitable ways to communicate with each other.	1	2	3	4	5
PC7	My subordinates can approach me to discuss about flexible work schedule when they need it	1	2	3	4	5
PC8	My subordinate(s) and I share views that we can have informal discussions about work.	1	2	3	4	5



**Please indicate the level of your agreement or disagreement with each of these statements regarding the attitude and behaviours of subordinates under your direct supervision. Circle the answer that you think most true.**

Strongly disagree:1	Somewhat disagree: 2	Neither disagree nor agree : 3	Somewhat agree: 4	Strongly agree: 5
<i>I think, in general, my subordinates under my direct supervision...</i>				Rating
OCb1	...are proud to be a member of this organisation.	1	2	3 4 5
OCb2	...show that they have personal values that are similar to those of this organisation.	1	2	3 4 5
OCb3	...show that they take it important what this organisation stands for.	1	2	3 4 5
OCb4	...express the right attitude in order to get rewarded.	1	2	3 4 5
OCb5	...show that they consider this organisation a good one to work for.	1	2	3 4 5

**Please describe yourself by ticking 'x' in the box next to the answers that are true about.**

Age: .....  <b>Gender</b> Male Female	Education:  <input type="checkbox"/> Vocational training degree <input type="checkbox"/> Associate degree <input type="checkbox"/> Bachelor degree <input type="checkbox"/> Master degree <input type="checkbox"/> Ph.D degree <input type="checkbox"/> Other	Service category: <input type="checkbox"/> Cadre <input type="checkbox"/> Civil servant <input type="checkbox"/> Public servant <input type="checkbox"/> Other
Your management level within your agency: <input type="checkbox"/> Middle-level manager/leader: I manage/lead at least one other person or a larger number of employees <input type="checkbox"/> Senior-level manager/leader: I manage/lead other leaders or managers		How long have you been in the current position? .....
Your service rank: <input type="checkbox"/> Junior staff-member <input type="checkbox"/> Official <input type="checkbox"/> Principal <input type="checkbox"/> Senior <input type="checkbox"/> Other (pls. verify)	Category of your organisation: <input type="checkbox"/> Public administrative agency <input type="checkbox"/> Public profit agency <input type="checkbox"/> Political-social agency <input type="checkbox"/> Party agency <input type="checkbox"/> Other (Pls. verify)	Level of your organisation: Central <input type="checkbox"/> Ministerial level <input type="checkbox"/> Provincial level <input type="checkbox"/> District level <input type="checkbox"/> Grass-root level <input type="checkbox"/> Other (Pls. verify)

Thank you very much for your corporations.

## Appendix B: Questionnaires in Vietnamese

### BẢNG CÂU HỎI KHẢO SÁT (S-001)

Kính chào Anh/Chị,

Khảo sát này để phục vụ đề tài tìm hiểu “Phong cách lãnh đạo/quản lý và sự gắn bó trong cơ quan/tổ chức”. Không có đúng/sai, tốt/xấu trong những vấn đề được nêu trong bảng hỏi này.

Sự tham gia của Anh/Chị vào khảo sát này là hoàn toàn tự nguyện. Anh/Chị không cần tiết lộ danh tính. Thông tin Anh/Chị cung cấp chỉ được tiết lộ cho người nghiên cứu và các giảng viên hướng dẫn và chỉ dùng cho mục đích khoa học.

Đề tài này đã được Hội đồng Đạo đức Khoa học của Đại học Victoria Wellington (New Zealand) xem xét và thông qua (mã số 0000024685). Nếu có câu hỏi về vấn đề gì của cuộc khảo sát, Anh/Chị có thể liên hệ (ẩn danh) tới số máy sau của Đại học Victoria: +64-4-463 5480.

Xin trân trọng cảm ơn Anh/Chị

**I-Anh/Chị hãy nhận xét về mức độ thường xuyên của những hoạt động do người quản lý của anh/chị thực hiện, dựa theo thang điểm sau đây:**

1=Không bao giờ    2=Đôi khi    3=Thỉnh thoảng    4= Khá thường    5= Rất thường xuyên (thậm chí luôn luôn)

	Hoạt động của người quản lý	Mức độ thường xuyên				
CR1	Cấp trên của tôi hỗ trợ cho tôi, và đổi lại, muốn tôi nỗ lực làm việc.	1	2	3	4	5
CR2	Làm rõ cho tôi thấy tôi có thể mong đợi nhận được gì nếu hoàn thành nhiệm vụ	1	2	3	4	5
CR3	Thể hiện sự hài lòng khi tôi làm việc đạt mức ông/bà ấy mong đợi	1	2	3	4	5
CR4	Có phản hồi tích cực khi tôi làm việc tốt	1	2	3	4	5
CR5	Dành cho tôi sự công nhận đặc biệt khi tôi làm việc xuất sắc	1	2	3	4	5
CR7	Cung cấp đủ thông tin để tôi làm việc	1	2	3	4	5
CR8	Làm rõ yêu cầu của mình để giúp tôi đáp ứng sự mong đợi ấy	1	2	3	4	5
ME5	Thu thập thông tin về việc thực thi nhiệm vụ của tôi để giúp tôi làm việc tốt hơn	1	2	3	4	5
ME6	Có biện pháp đối với những ai làm việc kém hoặc không chịu cố gắng.	1	2	3	4	5
TF1	Muốn tôi nhìn nhận các vấn đề từ các góc độ khác nhau	1	2	3	4	5
TF2	Nói về những giá trị và niềm tin mà ông/bà ấy cho là quan trọng	1	2	3	4	5
TF3	Nhấn mạnh tầm quan trọng của việc cấp trên cấp dưới cùng có ý thức về nhiệm vụ	1	2	3	4	5
TF4	Dành thời gian huấn luyện kèm cặp tôi	1	2	3	4	5
TF5	Hào hứng/nhiệt tình khi nói về những gì cần đạt được	1	2	3	4	5
TF6	Thử thách tôi suy nghĩ về những vấn đề cũ theo lối tư duy mới	1	2	3	4	5
TF7	Nói những điều làm tôi thấy tự hào/hãnh diện về cơ quan mình đang làm.	1	2	3	4	5

**II-Anh/chị hãy cho biết mức độ đồng ý hay phản đối đối với những mô tả sau đây về nơi anh/chị công tác và về giao tiếp trong công việc, dựa theo thang điểm dưới đây**

1= Hoàn toàn không đồng ý		2= Cơ bản không đồng ý	3= Không đồng ý không phản đối		4= Đồng ý		5= Hoàn toàn đồng ý
Mô tả			Mức độ đồng ý				
OC1	Những giá trị mà cơ quan này đại diện, thì với tôi là quan trọng	1	2	3	4	5	
OC2	Tôi nói với người quen của mình rằng đây là một chỗ làm tốt.	1	2	3	4	5	
OC3	Ở đây, tôi làm việc thế nào thì sẽ được thưởng phạt tương xứng như thế.	1	2	3	4	5	
OC4	Ở đây, muốn được khen thưởng thì tôi cần phải thể hiện thái độ phù hợp.	1	2	3	4	5	
OC5	Từ khi làm việc ở đây, những giá trị cá nhân của tôi ngày càng giống với giá trị của tổ chức.	1	2	3	4	5	
OC6	Tôi nghĩ về cơ quan này thế nào thì tôi thể hiện ra bên ngoài như vậy.	1	2	3	4	5	
OC7	Lý do tôi thích cơ quan này hơn chỗ khác chính là những giá trị mà nó đại diện.	1	2	3	4	5	
OC8	Tôi gắn bó với chỗ làm này chủ yếu vì giữa tôi với tổ chức có sự tương đồng về giá trị.	1	2	3	4	5	
OC9	Nếu không được khen thưởng theo cách nào đó thì tôi không thấy cần phải bỏ thêm công sức vì cơ quan	1	2	3	4	5	
OC 10	Tôi thấy hãnh diện khi nói với mọi người rằng tôi là làm ở cơ quan này.	1	2	3	4	5	
OC 11	Tôi thấy mình được phát huy tinh thần làm chủ ở cơ quan này.	1	2	3	4	5	
PSI1	Cấp trên trực tiếp của tôi mời tôi cùng tham gia thảo luận về công việc .	1	2	3	4	5	
PSI2	Cấp trên không chỉ nói mà còn lắng nghe khi bàn công việc	1	2	3	4	5	
PSI3	Cấp trên khuyến khích giao tiếp và trao đổi thông tin hai chiều	1	2	3	4	5	
PSI4	Cấp trên khuyến khích tôi đóng góp ý kiến vào công việc	1	2	3	4	5	
PSI5	Cấp trên Khuyến khích tôi đặt câu hỏi về công việc	1	2	3	4	5	
PSI6	Cấp trên khuyến khích tôi phát biểu trong các cuộc họp	1	2	3	4	5	
PSI7	Cấp trên Ủng hộ tôi phát huy sáng kiến trong công việc	1	2	3	4	5	
PV1	Cấp trên Nói cho tôi thấy rằng ý nghĩa công việc của người công chức/viên chức là phục vụ người dân.	1	2	3	4	5	
PV2	Nói cho tôi hiểu rằng công việc của tôi cũng góp phần vào việc cải thiện chất lượng dịch vụ công.	1	2	3	4	5	
PV3	Nói cho tôi hiểu rằng công việc của tôi có thể làm xã hội tốt đẹp hơn.	1	2	3	4	5	

PV4	Nói cho tôi hiểu rằng yêu cầu căn bản đối với một cơ quan nhà nước là phục vụ người dân	1	2	3	4	5
PV5	Nói cho tôi hiểu rằng qua công việc của mình tôi có thể giúp đỡ mọi người.	1	2	3	4	5
PV8	Nói cho tôi hiểu rằng qua công việc của mình tôi có thể tạo ra ảnh hưởng tới người khác.	1	2	3	4	5
PC1	Cấp trên trực tiếp và tôi có thỏa thuận chung về mỗi bên cần trợ giúp bên kia những gì .	1	2	3	4	5
PC2	Chúng tôi thỏa thuận chung về việc mỗi bên đóng góp gì	1	2	3	4	5
PC3	Những gì mà chúng tôi mong đợi hai bên cho đi-nhận lại từ nhau là công bằng	1	2	3	4	5
PC4	Cấp trên nói chuyện ngoài lề công việc với tôi về việc hai bên có thể trông đợi gì ở nhau.	1	2	3	4	5
PC5	Chúng tôi thỏa thuận với nhau về cách thức giao tiếp thông tin cho nhau sao cho hiệu quả	1	2	3	4	5
PC6	Tôi có thể tiếp cận với cấp trên để thảo luận về một lịch làm việc linh hoạt khi tôi cần nó.	1	2	3	4	5
PC7	Tôi có thể nói chuyện với sếp về nhu cầu đào tạo bồi dưỡng của mình.	1	2	3	4	5
PC8	Tôi có thể tiếp cận cấp trên để trao đổi về những nhu cầu trong công việc của mình .	1	2	3	4	5

### III-Anh/chị vui lòng cho biết đôi nét về bản thân:

<b>Tuổi:</b>  <b>Giới tính:</b> <input type="checkbox"/> Nữ <input type="checkbox"/> Nam	<b>Anh/chị là:</b> <input type="checkbox"/> Cán bộ <input type="checkbox"/> Công chức <input type="checkbox"/> Viên chức <input type="checkbox"/> Khác (xin ghi cụ thể)	<b>Trình độ chuyên môn:</b> <input type="checkbox"/> Trung cấp <input type="checkbox"/> Cao đẳng <input type="checkbox"/> Đại học <input type="checkbox"/> Thạc sỹ <input type="checkbox"/> Tiến sỹ <input type="checkbox"/> Khác	<b>Anh/Chị thuộc:</b> <input type="checkbox"/> Biên chế <input type="checkbox"/> Chưa biên chế
<b>Anh/chị thuộc ngạch:</b> <input type="checkbox"/> Cán sự/viên chức chuyên ngành tương đương <input type="checkbox"/> Chuyên viên/viên chức chuyên ngành tương đương <input type="checkbox"/> Chuyên viên chính/viên chức chuyên ngành tương đương <input type="checkbox"/> Chuyên viên cao cấp/viên chức chuyên ngành tương đương <input type="checkbox"/> Khác (Xin ghi cụ thể)		<b>Tính đến nay, thời gian anh/chị làm việc</b> <input type="checkbox"/> ở cơ quan này là ...năm <input type="checkbox"/> với cấp trên này là ...năm	
<b>Vị trí quản lý của anh/chị trong cơ quan:</b> <input type="checkbox"/> Là nhân viên: Không phụ trách ai <input type="checkbox"/> Là quản lý/lãnh đạo cấp trung gian: Phụ trách/lãnh đạo ít nhất một nhân viên <input type="checkbox"/> Là quản lý/lãnh đạo cấp cao: Phụ trách/lãnh đạo những người quản lý/lãnh đạo khác.			
<b>ơ quan của anh/chị là:</b> <input type="checkbox"/> Cơ quan hành chính nhà nước <input type="checkbox"/> Đơn vị sự nghiệp công lập <input type="checkbox"/> Đơn vị thuộc tổ chức Đảng <input type="checkbox"/> Tổ chức chính trị-xã hội (đoàn thể) <input type="checkbox"/> Khác (xin ghi cụ thể)	<b>Cơ quan của anh/chị thuộc:</b> <input type="checkbox"/> Cấp trung ương/Bộ <input type="checkbox"/> Cấp tỉnh <input type="checkbox"/> Cấp huyện <input type="checkbox"/> Cấp xã <input type="checkbox"/> Khác (Xin ghi cụ thể)	<b>Nếu có thể, xin anh/chị cho biết tên cơ quan</b> (không cần ghi tên đơn vị/phòng ban)  .....	

Xin trân trọng cảm ơn sự cộng tác của Anh/Chị.

**BẢNG CÂU HỎI KHẢO SÁT (S-002)**

Kính chào Anh/Chị,

Khảo sát này để phục vụ đề tài tìm hiểu “Phong cách lãnh đạo/quản lý và sự gắn bó trong cơ quan/tổ chức”. Không có đúng/sai, tốt/xấu trong những vấn đề được nêu trong bảng hỏi này.

Sự tham gia của Anh/Chị vào khảo sát này là hoàn toàn tự nguyện. Anh/Chị không cần tiết lộ danh tính. Thông tin Anh/Chị cung cấp chỉ được tiết lộ cho người nghiên cứu và các giảng viên hướng dẫn và chỉ dùng cho mục đích khoa học.

Đề tài này đã được Hội đồng Đạo đức Khoa học của Đại học Victoria Wellington (New Zealand) xem xét và thông qua (mã số 0000024685). Nếu có câu hỏi về vấn đề gì của cuộc khảo sát, Anh/Chị có thể liên hệ (ân danh) tới số máy sau của Đại học Victoria +64-4-463 5480.

Xin trân trọng cảm ơn Anh/Chị

**I-Dưới đây là một số hoạt động của việc quản lý. Anh/chị thực hiện những hoạt động này thường xuyên tới mức nào? Hãy dựa theo thang điểm sau đây để đánh giá:**

1=Không bao giờ      2= Đôi khi      3= Thỉnh thoảng      4= Khá thường xuyên      5= Rất thường xuyên  
(thậm chí luôn luôn)

	<b>Hoạt động của người quản lý</b>	<b>Mức độ thường xuyên</b>				
CR1	Tôi hỗ trợ cho cấp dưới, và đổi lại, muốn họ nỗ lực làm việc.	1	2	3	4	5
CR2	Làm rõ cho họ thấy họ có thể mong đợi nhận được gì nếu hoàn thành nhiệm vụ	1	2	3	4	5
CR3	Thể hiện sự hài lòng khi họ làm việc đạt mức mong đợi của tôi	1	2	3	4	5
CR4	Tôi phản hồi tích cực với cấp dưới khi họ làm việc tốt	1	2	3	4	5
CR5	Tôi dành sự công nhận đặc biệt cho họ khi họ làm việc xuất sắc	1	2	3	4	5
CR7	Tôi cung cấp đủ thông tin để cấp dưới làm việc	1	2	3	4	5
CR8	Tôi làm rõ yêu cầu của mình để giúp họ đáp ứng sự mong đợi của tôi.	1	2	3	4	5
ME5	Tôi thu thập thông tin về việc thực thi nhiệm vụ của cấp dưới để giúp họ làm việc tốt hơn	1	2	3	4	5
ME6	Tôi có biện pháp đối với những ai làm việc kém hoặc không chịu cố gắng.	1	2	3	4	5
TF1	Tôi yêu cầu họ nhìn nhận các vấn đề từ các góc độ khác nhau.	1	2	3	4	5
TF2	Nói về những giá trị và niềm tin quan trọng của tôi	1	2	3	4	5
TF3	Tôi nhấn mạnh tầm quan trọng của việc cấp trên cấp dưới cùng có ý thức về nhiệm vụ	1	2	3	4	5
TF4	Tôi dành thời gian huấn luyện kèm cặp cấp dưới	1	2	3	4	5
TF5	Tôi hào hứng/nhiệt tình khi nói về những gì cần đạt được	1	2	3	4	5
TF6	Tôi thử thách cấp dưới suy nghĩ về những vấn đề cũ theo lối tư duy mới	1	2	3	4	5
TF7	Tôi nói những điều làm cấp dưới thấy tự hào/hãnh diện về cơ quan mình	1	2	3	4	5

**II-Anh/chị hãy cho biết mức độ đồng ý hay phản đối đối với những mô tả sau đây về nơi anh/chị công tác và về giao tiếp trong công việc, dựa theo thang điểm dưới đây:**

**1= Hoàn toàn không đồng ý    2= Không đồng ý    3= không tán thành    4= Đồng ý    5= Hoàn toàn đồng ý**  
**không phản đối**

Mô tả			Mức độ đồng ý				
PSI1	Tôi mời cấp dưới tham gia cùng tôi thảo luận về công việc trước khi ra tôi ra quyết định cuối cùng.	1	2	3	4	5	
PSI2	Tôi lắng nghe cấp dưới khi bàn công việc	1	2	3	4	5	
PSI3	Tôi khuyến khích giao tiếp và trao đổi thông tin hai chiều	1	2	3	4	5	
PSI4	Tôi khuyến khích cấp dưới đóng góp ý kiến	1	2	3	4	5	
PSI5	Tôi khuyến khích cấp dưới đặt câu hỏi	1	2	3	4	5	
PSI6	Tôi khuyến khích cấp dưới phát biểu trong cuộc họp	1	2	3	4	5	
PSI7	Tôi ủng hộ cấp dưới phát huy sáng kiến trong công việc	1	2	3	4	5	
PV1	Tôi nói cho cấp dưới thấy rằng ý nghĩa công việc của người công chức/viên chức là phục vụ người dân, phục vụ xã hội.	1	2	3	4	5	
PV2	Tôi nói cho họ hiểu rằng công việc của họ cũng góp phần vào việc cải thiện chất lượng dịch vụ công.	1	2	3	4	5	
PV3	Tôi nói cho họ hiểu rằng công việc của họ có thể làm xã hội tốt đẹp hơn.	1	2	3	4	5	
PV4	Tôi nói cho họ rằng yêu cầu căn bản đối với một cơ quan nhà nước là phục vụ người dân	1	2	3	4	5	
PV5	Tôi nói cho họ hiểu rằng thông qua công việc của mình họ có thể giúp đỡ mọi người.	1	2	3	4	5	
PV6	Tôi nói cho họ hiểu rằng thông qua công việc của mình tôi có thể tạo ra ảnh hưởng tới người khác	1	2	3	4	5	
PC1	Cấp trên trực tiếp và tôi có thỏa thuận chung về mỗi bên cần trợ giúp bên kia những gì .	1	2	3	4	5	
PC2	Chúng tôi thỏa thuận chung về việc mỗi bên cần đóng góp gì						
PC3	Những gì mà chúng tôi kỳ vọng hai bên trao đổi với nhau (cho đi-nhận lại) là công bằng	1	2	3	4	5	
PC4	Tôi gợi ý với cấp dưới là họ có thể trao đổi với tôi về việc hai bên có thể kỳ vọng gì ở nhau.	1	2	3	4	5	
PC5	Chúng tôi thỏa thuận với nhau về cách thức giao tiếp thông tin cho nhau sao cho hiệu quả	1	2	3	4	5	
PC6	Cấp dưới có thể gặp tôi để thảo luận về giờ làm linh hoạt khi cần thiết	1	2	3	4	5	
PC7	Cấp dưới có thể nói với tôi về nhu cầu đào tạo bồi dưỡng của họ	1	2	3	4	5	
PC8	Cấp dưới có thể nói với tôi về những nhu cầu trong công việc của họ	1	2	3	4	5	
Nhận xét về cấp dưới trong đơn vị/tổ/nhóm của mình, tôi thấy nhìn chung thì họ...							
OCS1	...thể hiện ra là họ tự hào được làm ở cơ quan này.	1	2	3	4	5	

OCS2	... cho thấy rằng họ có những giá trị cá nhân tương đồng với những giá trị của tổ chức	1	2	3	4	5
OCS3	... chấp nhận những giá trị của tổ chức	1	2	3	4	5
OCS4	... thể hiện thái độ phù hợp.	1	2	3	4	5
OCS5	... tỏ ra rằng họ coi đây là một chỗ làm tốt.	1	2	3	4	5

## II-Anh/chị vui lòng cho biết đôi nét về bản thân:

<b>Tuổi:</b>  <b>Giới tính:</b> <input type="checkbox"/> Nữ <input type="checkbox"/> Nam	<b>Anh/chị là:</b> <input type="checkbox"/> Cán bộ <input type="checkbox"/> Công chức <input type="checkbox"/> Viên chức <input type="checkbox"/> Khác (xin ghi cụ thể)	<b>Trình độ chuyên môn:</b> <input type="checkbox"/> Trung cấp <input type="checkbox"/> Cao đẳng <input type="checkbox"/> Đại học <input type="checkbox"/> Thạc sỹ <input type="checkbox"/> Tiến sỹ <input type="checkbox"/> Khác
<b>Anh/chị thuộc ngạch:</b> <input type="checkbox"/> Cán sự/viên chức chuyên ngành tương đương <input type="checkbox"/> Chuyên viên/viên chức chuyên ngành tương đương <input type="checkbox"/> Chuyên viên chính/viên chức chuyên ngành tương đương <input type="checkbox"/> Chuyên viên cao cấp/viên chức chuyên ngành tương đương <input type="checkbox"/> Khác (Xin ghi cụ thể)		<b>Tính đến nay, thời gian anh/chị làm việc</b> <input type="checkbox"/> ở đơn vị này là...năm <input type="checkbox"/> vị trí quản lý đơn vị này là....năm
<b>Vị trí quản lý của anh/chị trong cơ quan:</b> <input type="checkbox"/> Là quản lý/lãnh đạo cấp trung gian: Phụ trách/lãnh đạo ít nhất một nhân viên <input type="checkbox"/> Phụ trách/lãnh đạo những người quản lý/lãnh đạo khác (nhưng không phải trưởng đơn vị) <input type="checkbox"/> Là trưởng đơn vị		
<b>Cơ quan của anh/chị là:</b> <input type="checkbox"/> Cơ quan hành chính nhà nước <input type="checkbox"/> Đơn vị sự nghiệp công lập <input type="checkbox"/> Đơn vị thuộc tổ chức Đảng <input type="checkbox"/> Tổ chức chính trị-xã hội (đoàn thể) <input type="checkbox"/> Khác (xin ghi cụ thể)	<b>Cơ quan của anh/chị thuộc:</b> <input type="checkbox"/> Cấp trung ương <input type="checkbox"/> Cấp tỉnh <input type="checkbox"/> Cấp huyện <input type="checkbox"/> Cấp xã <input type="checkbox"/> Khác (Xin ghi cụ thể)	<b>Nếu có thể, xin anh/chị cho biết tên cơ quan</b> (không cần ghi tên đơn vị/phòng ban)  ..... ..... .....

Xin trân trọng cảm ơn sự cộng tác của Anh /Chị

## ***Appendix C: Interview questions***

### Questions on leadership practice in public organisations

- Can you please describe the leadership practice that you experience the most in public organisations?
- Can you please describe the communication practice between line-managers and employees that you think most common in public organisations?

### Questions on public values and the use of public values

- Can you please share your view on your current job, compared to a similar job in a private business? (questions for employees)
- What do you think about the meaning of your work in a state/public organisation? (questions for employees)
- From your own view, (i) what does it mean by “public values”? (ii) where do public values reside? (question for scholars)
- Apart from the difference in such things as the laws, the working environment, the pay scheme or recruitment policy applied for public servants, are there differences between a job/work and a job/work with a similar title in a private business/a company? If so, what are they? (questions for scholars, for public managers and employees)
- What do public managers/you as a manager/ your managers do about the message “public servants do public work for public mission? (that is, the meaning of public work or the meaning of public organisations) (question for scholars; supervisors, and employees)
- How do you convey this message in your leadership? (question for supervisors)
- Can you please share your views of the way the Communist Party of Vietnam promotes its values and the values of the public service? (question for scholars).

### Questions on communication and the use of Participatory style of interaction

- Can you please describe how your supervisor communicates with you (questions for public employees)?
- Can you please describe how you communicate with your employees? questions for public employees)
- Among the following four styles of communication, which do you think is the most applied in the public sector between line-managers and subordinates? (Telling employees what to do (Telling); Convincing them that your idea is the best (Selling),



Asking for their ideas and inputs (Consulting), and encouraging them to join conversations (Joining).

Questions on psychological contracts

- Have you ever heard of the term “psychological contracts”? Based on your observations, do unofficial agreements between supervisors and employees exist in public organisations in the public sector of Vietnam? (question for scholars)? If so, can you please share your views of the effect of this kind of agreements?
- Have you ever heard of the term “psychological contracts”? Do unofficial agreements between supervisor and employees exist at your workplace? Have you experienced such agreement with your direct subordinate/or supervisors?) (question for public managers and employees).

## ***Appendix D: Interviewees selection***

***Table D. 1: Selection criteria***

<b>Participant</b>	<b>Criteria</b>
<b>Supervisors &amp; HR Managers</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Working in one of the selected agencies.</li> <li>- Having experience working at managerial position (for supervisor) and at Human Resource unit (for personnel manager/senior staff)</li> </ul>
<b>Employees</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Working in one of the selected agencies</li> <li>- Having experience working in the public sector (at least 1 year)</li> </ul>
<b>Scholars</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Having experience doing research and lecturing on organisational leadership and culture, and having insights into the leadership practice in the public sector of Vietnam</li> <li>- Having experiences in public servants and leadership training</li> </ul>

***Table D. 2: Interviewee profiles***

<b>Interviewee</b>	<b>Position</b>	<b>Organisation type</b>	<b>Organisation</b>	<b>Gender</b>
Interviewee 1	Manager	Bureaucracy	Division A, The People Committee of Ben-Tre City, Ben-Tre Province	M
Interviewee 2	Employee	Bureaucracy	Ministry of Foreign Affairs	F
Interviewee 3	Manager	Political-Socio Organisation	The Vietnam Union of Friendship Organisations	M
Interviewee 4	Employee	Public university	The University of Trade Union	M
Interviewee 5	Employee	Public university	The National University	F
Interviewee 6	Manager	Bureaucracy	Division B, The People Committee of Ben-Tre City, Ben-Tre Province	M
Interviewee 7	Scholar	Public university	The National Academy of Public Administration	F
Interviewee 8	HR Manager	Bureaucracy	Ministry of Foreign Affairs	M
Interviewee 9	Employee	Bureaucracy	Ministry of Foreign Affairs	F
Interviewee 10	Employee	Bureaucracy	Ministry of Foreign Affairs	M
Interviewee 11	Manager	Bureaucracy	Commune, Xuyen Moc District, Ba-ria Vung-tau Province	M
Interviewee 12	Employee	Bureaucracy	Ward A, Ben-Tre City, Ben-Tre Province	M

Interviewee 13	Employee	Public university	The National University	F
Interviewee 14	Employee	Bureaucracy	The People's Council, Lien-chieu District, Da-nang City	F
Interviewee 15	Manager	Bureaucracy	Ministry of Home Affairs	M
Interviewee 16	Manager	Party agency	Department A, The Communist Party of Vietnam's Commission for External Relations	F
Interviewee 17	Manager	Bureaucracy	The People's Committee of Ward 12, District A, HCM City	M
Interviewee 18	Scholar	Public university	The National Academy of Public Administration	M
Interviewee 19	Manager	Public service delivery	Su-that Publishing House	F
Interviewee 20	Scholar	Public university	The National Academy of Public Administration	M
Interviewee 21	Employee	Public service delivery	Su-that Publishing House	F
Interviewee 22	Manager	Party agency	Department B, The Communist Party of Vietnam's Commission for External Relations	M
Interviewee 23	Employee	Public service delivery	Su-that Publishing House	M
Interviewee 24	Scholar	Public University	The University of Home Affairs	M
Interviewee 25	Manager	Bureaucracy	Ministry of Foreign Affairs	F

Note: M= male; F = Female

## *Appendix E: Consent to interview*



***Project title: Transactional Leadership in the Public Sector***

### **CONSENT TO INTERVIEW**

This consent form will be held for five years.

Researcher: Nguyen Trang Thu, School of Government, Victoria University of Wellington

- I have read the Information Sheet and the project has been explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I understand that I can ask further questions at any time.
- I agree to take part in an audio-recorded interview.

I understand that:

- I may withdraw from this study within *02 weeks* after the interview and any information that I have provided will be returned to me or destroyed.
- The information I have provided will be destroyed *05 years* after the research is completed.
- Any information I provide will be kept confidential to the researcher and the supervisors. I understand that the results will be used for a *PhD* report and a summary of the results may be used in academic article, reports and/or presented at conferences.
- My name will not be used in reports, nor will any information that would identify me.

- I would like a summary of my interview Yes ☐ No ☐
- I would like to receive a summary of the final report Yes ☐ No ☐  
and have added my email address below.

Participant signature: \_\_\_\_\_

Participant name: \_\_\_\_\_

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Contact address: \_\_\_\_\_



## TRƯỜNG ĐẠI HỌC VICTORIA WELLINGTON

**Tên dự án nghiên cứu: Phong cách lãnh đạo Trao đổi trong bối cảnh khu vực công.**

### PHIẾU CHẤP THUẬN PHÒNG VẤN

Phiếu chấp thuận phỏng vấn có giá trị 5 năm

Người nghiên cứu: Nguyễn Trang Thu, Trường Chính phủ, Đại học Victoria Wellington

- Tôi vừa đọc phiếu thông tin và đã được giải thích về dự án nghiên cứu. Tôi hài lòng với việc trả lời các câu hỏi. Tôi hiểu rằng tôi có thể hỏi thêm bất cứ khi nào.
- Tôi chấp nhận tham gia vào cuộc phỏng vấn được ghi âm.

Tôi hiểu rằng:

- Tôi có thể rút khỏi nghiên cứu này trong vòng 02 tuần kể từ lúc phỏng vấn và bắt cứ thông tin tôi vừa cung cấp sẽ được gửi trả lại hoặc tiêu hủy.
  - Những thông tin tôi vừa cung cấp sẽ được tiêu hủy 05 năm sau khi nghiên cứu kết thúc.
  - Tất cả những thông tin tôi cung cấp phải được bảo mật ngoại trừ với nhà nghiên cứu và những người hướng dẫn đề tài. Tôi hiểu rằng kết quả nghiên cứu sẽ được sử dụng cho Luận văn Tiến sĩ và kết quả chung của nghiên cứu có thể được sử dụng cho những bài báo khoa học, báo cáo khoa học hoặc được trình bày tại các hội nghị khoa học.
  - Danh tính của tôi hay bất cứ thông tin nào có thể xác định danh tính của tôi sẽ không được đề cập ở bất cứ báo cáo nào.
- 
- Tôi muốn nhận được bản tóm tắt cuộc phỏng vấn của tôi Có ☐ Không ☐
  - Tôi muốn nhận được một bản tóm tắt báo cáo cuối cùng và gửi theo địa chỉ email của tôi dưới đây. Có ☐ Không ☐

Chữ ký của người tham gia: \_\_\_\_\_

Tên của người tham gia: \_\_\_\_\_

Ngày: \_\_\_\_\_

Địa chỉ liên hệ: \_\_\_\_\_

**Appendix F: Testing validity and reliability of the dependent variable and the mediators**

**Table F. 1: EFA and CFA results of Organisational Commitment (Employee survey)**

	EFA					CFA			
Items	Factor			AVE	CR	Alpha	Indices	Initial model	Final model
	1	2	3						
OC8	.898			.562	.783	.847	$\chi^2$	368.658	82.603
OC7	.846						Df	44	31
OC11	.690						$\chi^2$ /Df	8.379	2.665
OC10	.689						<i>p</i> value	.000	.000
OC6	.583						GFI	.864	.968
OC4		.862		.409	.765		CFI	.822	.972
OC1		.736					RMSEA	.129	.061
OC2		.556					PCLOSE	.000	.113
OC5		.517							
OC3		.432							
OC9			.893	.797	.758				
Eigen value	4.714	1.127	1.045						
% of variance	43.103	10.249	9.501						
Total % of variance explained: 62.853									

Note: EFA test showed a three-factor construct. CFA test supported a one-factor structure.

**Table F. 2: EFA and CFA results of Organisational Commitment (Supervisor survey)**

EFA					CFA		
Items	Factor	AVE	<u>CR</u>	Alpha	Indices	Initial model	Fixed model
OC-S3	.832	.677	.935	.816	$\chi^2$	196.277	3.928
OC-S1	.825				Df	5	1
OC-S2	.812				$\chi^2$ /Df	39.255	3.928
OC-S4	.704				p value	.000	.048
OC-S5	.665				GFI	.850	.997
Eigenvalue	2.970	59.400			CFI	.816	.997
% of variance	59.400				RMSEA	.292	.081
Total % of variance explained	59.400				PCLOSE	.000	.179

**Table F. 3: EFA and CFA results of Participatory Style of Interaction**

EFA					CFA		
Items	Factor	AVE	<u>CR</u>	Alpha	Indices	Initial model	Final model
PSI4	.872	.677	.935	.920	$\chi^2$	181.63	20.348
PSI5	.863				Df	14	9
PSI3	.856				$\chi^2$ /Df	12.975	2.261
PSI6	.823				<i>p</i> value	.000	.016
PSI2	.815				GFI	.987	.987
PSI7	.807				CFI	.923	.995
PSI1	.711				RMSEA	.165	.053
Eigenvalue	4.738				PCLOSE	.000	.382
% of variance	67.686						
Total % of variance explained	67.686						

**Table F. 4: EFA and CFA results of Psychological Contract**

EFA						CFA		
Items	Factor		AVE	<u>CR</u>	Alpha	Indices	Initial model	Final model
	1	2						
PC2	.921		.682	.914	.904	$\chi^2$	457.767	27.200
PC3	.862					Df	20	14
PC4	.848					$\chi^2$ /Df	22.888	1.943
PC1	.826					<i>p</i> value	.000	.018
PC5	.649					GFI	.772	.985
PC8		.923	.767	.908		CFI	.799	.994
PC7		.903				RMSEA	.223	.046
PC6		.797				PCLOSE	.000	.558
Eigenvalue	4.795	1.107						
% of variance	59.934	13.844						
Total % of variance explained	73.778							

Note: EFA test showed a two-factor construct. CFA test supported a one-factor structure.

**Table F. 5: EFA and CFA results of Transformational Leadership measure**

EFA					CFA		
Items	Factor	AVE	<u>CR</u>	Alpha	Indices	Initial model	Final model
TF6	.802	.573	.903	.874	$\chi^2$	137.094	17.836
TF7	.788				Df	14	9
TF4	.769				$\chi^2/\text{Df}$	9.792	1.982
TF2	.766				<i>p</i> value	.000	.037
TF1	.737				GFI	.917	.989
TF5	.734				CFI	.907	.993
TF3	.702				RMSEA	.141	.047
Eigenvalue	4.017				PCLOSE	.000	.510
% of variance	57.386						
Total % of variance explained							



*Appendix G: Factor scores created by using a common latent factor  
(Standardised Regression Weights)*

**Table G. 1: Factor scores of TL, PV, PSI, PC, OC (Employee), and TF**

Construct	Item	Standardised Regression Weights		
		Unadjusted model (Without CLF)	Adjusted model (With CLF)	Difference
		Estimate	Estimate	
TL	ME5	0.619	0.614	0.005
	ME6	0.676	0.560	0.116
	CR8	0.694	0.516	0.178
	CR7	0.681	0.450	0.231
	CR5	0.741	0.682	0.059
	CR4	0.730	0.651	0.079
	CR3	0.786	0.660	0.126
	CR2	0.735	0.626	0.109
	CR1	0.706	0.516	0.19
PV	PV6	0.731	0.512	0.219
	PV5	0.861	0.678	0.183
	PV4	0.859	0.735	0.124
	PV3	0.827	0.714	0.113
	PV2	0.804	0.678	0.126
	PV1	0.673	0.470	0.203
OC	OC11	0.706	0.453	0.253
	OC10	0.677	0.479	0.198
	OC9	0.102	0.197	-0.095
	OC8	0.703	0.673	0.030
	OC7	0.684	0.618	0.066
	OC6	0.580	0.578	0.002
	OC5	0.630	0.584	0.046
	OC4	0.459	0.316	0.143
	OC3	0.661	0.549	0.112
	OC2	0.721	0.535	0.186
	OC1	0.505	0.266	0.239
PSI	PSI7	0.758	0.487	0.271
	PSI6	0.795	0.679	0.116
	PSI5	0.849	0.722	0.127
	PSI4	0.853	0.691	0.162
	PSI3	0.832	0.571	0.261
	PSI2	0.743	0.403	0.340
	PSI1	0.638	0.327	0.311

PC	PC8	0.758	0.104	0.654
	PC7	0.777	0.133	0.644
	PC6	0.679	0.151	0.528
	PC5	0.734	0.478	0.256
	PC4	0.627	0.676	-0.049
	PC3	0.675	0.681	-0.006
	PC2	0.678	0.733	-0.055
	PC1	0.666	0.602	0.064
TF	TF7	0.674	0.648	0.026
	TF6	0.682	0.743	-0.061
	TF5	0.754	0.575	0.179
	TF4	0.819	0.690	0.129
	TF3	0.764	0.511	0.253
	TF2	0.780	0.619	0.161
	TF1	0.742	0.586	0.156

**Table G. 2: Factor scores of PVTL, PV, PC, PSI, OC (employee), TF**

		Standardised Regression Weights		
		Unadjusted model (Without CLF)	Adjusted model (With CLF)	Difference
Construct	Item	Estimate	Estimate	
PVTL	ME5	0.621	0.410	0.211
	CR5	0.619	0.405	0.214
	CR2	0.635	0.508	0.127
	CR1	0.601	0.452	0.149
	PV4	0.676	-0.326	1.002
	PV3	0.677	-0.265	0.942
	PV2	0.653	-0.320	0.973
	PV1	0.671	-0.107	0.778
PC	PC8	0.667	0.316	0.351
	PC7	0.673	0.321	0.352
	PC6	0.679	0.345	0.334
	PC5	0.752	0.416	0.336
	PC4	0.823	0.642	0.181
	PC3	0.768	0.583	0.185
	PC2	0.779	0.576	0.203
	PC1	0.737	0.475	0.262
PSI	PSI7	0.758	0.478	0.280
	PSI6	0.795	0.587	0.208
	PSI5	0.848	0.671	0.177
	PSI4	0.853	0.726	0.127
	PSI3	0.833	0.607	0.226
	PSI2	0.744	0.483	0.261
	PSI1	0.637	0.347	0.290
OC	OC11	0.708	0.356	0.352
	OC10	0.676	0.466	0.210
	OC9	0.102	0.142	-0.040
	OC8	0.703	0.596	0.107
	OC7	0.684	0.641	0.043
	OC6	0.580	0.559	0.021
	OC5	0.632	0.425	0.207
	OC4	0.457	0.255	0.202
	OC3	0.664	0.392	0.272
	OC2	0.719	0.469	0.250
	OC1	0.502	0.248	0.254
TF	TF7	0.763	0.447	0.316
	TF6	0.782	0.581	0.201
	TF5	0.679	0.463	0.216
	TF4	0.722	0.543	0.179
	TF3	0.630	0.405	0.225
	TF2	0.678	0.587	0.091
	TF1	0.674	0.508	0.166

