THE IMPACT OF TQM AND SERVICE EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION ON GOVERNMENT SERVICE QUALITY: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY IN THE JORDANIAN PUBLIC SECTOR

BY

SHAKER AHMAD TALAL ALADWAN

A thesis submitted to
The University of Birmingham
For the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.)

Department of Management
Birmingham Business School
College of Social Sciences
University of Birmingham

January 2016
DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to

My Father: Mr. Ahmad Aladwan

My Mother: Mrs. Jawaher Aladwan

My Wife: Amani Aladwan

My Son: Talal
ACKNOWLEDGMENT

When I came to Great Britain in October 2011, I felt fear and anxiety. This was due to several reasons, such as the very strict financial agreement that I have signed with the sponsor, suffer from homesick, feeling unfamiliar with the educational system in the UK and so on. However, after four years, I can say that I am fully satisfied because I learned a lot of things theoretically and practically. Yes, I agree that Ph.D. is a long journey, and it encompasses collaboration with others who are supervisors, lecturers and students. Thus, I thank all of the people who helped me during my journey.

First and foremost, I thank my God ‘ Allah Almighty’ for his generosity and blessing that gave me the patience and strength to complete this work, therefore, without his support the completion of this work would be impossible.

I would thank Dr Paul Forrester for his continuous support through providing his comments, suggestions and corrections during the period of writing this thesis. Also, great thanks should go to Dr Joe Sanderson for his challengeable questions and comments during last two annul reviews. Also, I would like to thank Dr Victoria Hanna for her valuable comments in the first year annual review. Also, I would like to thank the examiners for their time; I am sure their comments will improve the quality of this thesis.

Also, I extend my sincere thanks for my sponsor (Yarmouk University-Jordan) for funding me. Especially, Professor Sultan Abu Orabi Aladwan ‘the previous President of Yarmouk University’ and ‘the General Secretary, Association of Arab Universities currently’ for his encouragement and support.

Greatest thanks should go to participants both customers and employees, who fill the questionnaires and those who give their time, ideas, thoughts in interviews. Also, I would like to thank Mrs. Yasera Ghosheh “The Executive Director - King Abdullah Centre for Excellence” who kindly provide access to the KAA Reports used in this thesis. I would like to thank my little family (My wife, Mrs Amani, and my little beloved son, Talal) for their love, patience and continuous support and I promise them that, Insha Allah, I will not stay away from them again.

Finally, I ask Allah to guide me to the best and accept this work for his sake only. I pray to Allah that this work will benefit all human beings, Amin.
ABSTRACT

Theories of management have largely focused on the relationship between organisations, employees and customers within the context of manufacturing and private business. However, this body of research lacks integration and needs an internally consistent framework comprising mechanisms, causalities and critical constructs. This thesis fills the gap in the TQM and public service management literature by providing a more sophisticated understanding of the relationship between TQM, employee satisfaction and service quality within the context of Jordanian public sector organisations.

The primary data for this research relied on two sources, survey and semi-structured interviews. These were conducted as part of fieldwork within the public sector of Jordan. The study was based on two samples to achieve the research objectives. Firstly, 420 employees working on the frontline in public service organisations in Jordan were surveyed to diagnose TQM and employee satisfaction issues. 821 customers were surveyed to explore service quality issues. For further clarification and explanation on TQM and employee satisfaction 30 employees were interviewed in parallel to the survey fieldwork. 30 customers were interviewed to explore service quality issues. Thus, three sources of data were used and a mixed methods methodology was implemented. Qualitative data such as “Excellence” reports were used to support, validate and explain elements of the research model.

Findings from Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) reveal the direct impact of TQM on employee satisfaction, whereas TQM was found to have an indirect impact on service quality (mediated by employee satisfaction). At the same time, employees’ satisfaction has a direct impact on dimensions of service quality, namely reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy. The variance of service empathy can be highly predicted by employee satisfaction levels (71%).

Interestingly, the outcomes of this research revealed that service employees in the public sector play four roles: enabler, mediator, complementary and collaborator. Each role reflects the importance of service employees as a cornerstone between enablers (TQM critical factors) and outcomes (high level of service quality in Jordanian public sector organisations).

The major theoretical contribution of this thesis is to support existing TQM and service quality theories with empirical evidence to explain the trilogy of relationships between TQM, Employee Satisfaction, and Service Quality in public sector organisations. More specifically, this research provides a contribution to the Empathy Engine Model, Profit-Service Chain Model, Social Exchange Theory, Service Climate Theory, Role Theory, and service employee satisfaction theories. Finally, this research is considered a starting-point for establishing the structural relationship between TQM, ES and SQ in the public sector. Thus, the researcher urges other researchers to replicate this model of enquiry in other sectors in the public administration domain.

Keywords: TQM, Employee Satisfaction (ES), Government Service Quality (SQ), the roles of service employees, public sector organisations, Jordan.
List of publications and Knowledge Contributions


Future Research


Practical Contributions to Quality Awards and Society

1. Lead EFQM Assessor [King Abdullah Award for Excellence – Jordan].

2. Lead EFQM Assessor [Abu Dhabi Award for Excellence- UAE].

3. Team Leader for people Awards [Abu Dhabi Award for Excellence- UAE]

4. Lead EFQM Assessor [Sheikh Mohammad Bin Rashid for Excellence- Dubai, UAE].

5. Certified Expert in Arab Association for Social Responsibility and quality.

6. Team Leader [King Abdul-Aziz Award for Quality, KSA].

7. Senior Lecturer [Yarmouk University, Jordan] [2009-2011].
# Table of Contents

**CHAPTER ONE: THE INTRODUCTION**

Table of Contents ........................................................................................................................................... 6

1.1 Preface ......................................................................................................................................................... 1
1.2 Research Story and motivation .................................................................................................................... 1
1.3 Research background ................................................................................................................................. 6
1.4 Research Aim and Objectives .................................................................................................................... 9
1.5 Research Questions .................................................................................................................................... 13
1.6 Contents of the thesis and context ............................................................................................................. 13

**CHAPTER TWO: THE CONTEXT OF JORDAN: HOLISTIC VIEW**

2.1. Introduction .................................................................................................................................................. 15
2.2 Country Overview ...................................................................................................................................... 18
2.3 Public Administration in Jordan ................................................................................................................... 20
	a. 1 Central Public Administration .................................................................................................................. 20
	b. 2.3.1.1 The Cabinet ..................................................................................................................................... 20
	b. 2.3.1.2 The Ministries .................................................................................................................................. 21
2.4.2 Decentralised Public Administration ........................................................................................................ 23
	a. 2.4.2.1 Public organisations ....................................................................................................................... 23
	b. 2.4.2.2 Local Administration .................................................................................................................... 23
2.5 Civil Service in Jordan ................................................................................................................................ 24
2.6 The Context of Public Administration ......................................................................................................... 24
	a. 2.6.1 Political Context .................................................................................................................................... 25
	b. 2.6.2 Economic Context ............................................................................................................................... 27
	b. 2.6.3 Social Context ...................................................................................................................................... 28
	b. 2.6.4 Technological Context ....................................................................................................................... 30
	b. 2.6.5 Educational Context .......................................................................................................................... 32
2.7 Administrative Development in Jordan ....................................................................................................... 33
2.8 Sample Organisations in this Study and their services ................................................................................. 40
	a. 2.8.1 Jordanian Customs (JC) ...................................................................................................................... 40
	b. 2.8.2 The Ministry of Industry and Trade (MoIT) ......................................................................................... 40
	b. 2.8.3 The Drivers and Vehicle Licensing Department (DVLD) .................................................................. 41
	b. 2.8.4 Department of Land and Survey (DLS) ............................................................................................... 41
	b. 2.8.5 Social Security Corporation (SSC) ...................................................................................................... 42
	b. 2.8.6 Income and Sales tax Department (ISTD) ......................................................................................... 42
# Chapter Summary

## Chapter Three: TQM in Public Administration

- **3.1 Introduction** ................................................................. 46
- **3.2 The Concept of TQM** ....................................................... 47
- **3.3 TQM: An Evaluation Perspective** ..................................... 52
  - 3.3.1 The Quality Control (CQ) Paradigm ................................ 52
  - 3.3.2 The Continuous Improvement (CI) Paradigm ...................... 53
  - 3.3.3 The Commitment Paradigm ......................................... 55
  - 3.3.4 TQM and Organisational Excellence ............................... 57
- **3.4 TQM Theory and Early Pioneers** .................................... 60
  - 3.4.1 TQM and Management Theory ...................................... 62
  - 3.4.2 TQM in Public Administration (PA) ............................... 63
  - 3.4.3 TQM and the Bureaucracy Theory ................................ 66
- **3.5 TQM: Critical Factors in Public Administration** ................ 74
  - 3.5.1 Top Management Commitment and Support (TMCS) ............. 75
  - 3.5.2 Focus on Customer (FC) ............................................ 79
  - 3.5.3 Continuous Improvement (CI) ...................................... 81
  - 3.5.4 Employee Participation (EP) ....................................... 85
  - 3.5.5 Employee Training (ET) ............................................ 88
  - 3.5.6 The Management Information System (MIS) ...................... 91
- **3.6 Chapter Summary** ......................................................... 94

## Chapter Four: Service Employees Satisfaction

- **4.1 Introduction** ................................................................. 95
- **4.2 The Employee Satisfaction (ES) Concept** ........................... 96
- **4.3 The Theories of Employee Satisfaction** .............................. 97
  - 4.3.1 Maslow’s Need Theory ............................................... 98
  - 4.3.2 The Two-Factor Theory ............................................. 101
  - 4.3.3 The McClelland’s Needs Theory ................................... 103
  - 4.3.4 The Social Exchange Theory (SET) ............................... 104
  - 4.3.5 The Job Characteristics Model (JCM) ............................. 106
- **4.4 Employee Satisfaction Facets** ......................................... 109

---

2.8.7 Greater Amman Municipality (GAM) .................................... 43
2.8.8 Ministry of Labor (MOL) ..................................................... 43
2.8.9 Civil Status and Passport Department (CSPD) ......................... 44
2.9. Chapter Summary ............................................................... 45

---

CHAPTER THREE: TQM IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

3.2 The Concept of TQM ............................................................. 47
3.3 TQM: An Evaluation Perspective ........................................... 52
  - 3.3.1 The Quality Control (CQ) Paradigm ................................ 52
  - 3.3.2 The Continuous Improvement (CI) Paradigm ...................... 53
  - 3.3.3 The Commitment Paradigm ......................................... 55
  - 3.3.4 TQM and Organisational Excellence ............................... 57
3.4 TQM Theory and Early Pioneers ........................................... 60
  - 3.4.1 TQM and Management Theory ...................................... 62
  - 3.4.2 TQM in Public Administration (PA) ............................... 63
  - 3.4.3 TQM and the Bureaucracy Theory ................................ 66
3.5 TQM: Critical Factors in Public Administration ........................ 74
  - 3.5.1 Top Management Commitment and Support (TMCS) ............. 75
  - 3.5.2 Focus on Customer (FC) ............................................ 79
  - 3.5.3 Continuous Improvement (CI) ...................................... 81
  - 3.5.4 Employee Participation (EP) ....................................... 85
  - 3.5.5 Employee Training (ET) ............................................ 88
  - 3.5.6 The Management Information System (MIS) ...................... 91
3.6 Chapter Summary ............................................................... 94

CHAPTER FOUR: SERVICE EMPLOYEES SATISFACTION

4.2 The Employee Satisfaction (ES) Concept .................................. 96
4.3 The Theories of Employee Satisfaction .................................... 97
  - 4.3.1 Maslow’s Need Theory ............................................... 98
  - 4.3.2 The Two-Factor Theory ............................................. 101
  - 4.3.3 The McClelland’s Needs Theory ................................... 103
  - 4.3.4 The Social Exchange Theory (SET) ............................... 104
  - 4.3.5 The Job Characteristics Model (JCM) ............................. 106
4.4 Employee Satisfaction Facets ................................................ 109

---

- **3.5.6 The Management Information System (MIS)** ...................... 91

---

2.8.9 Civil Status and Passport Department (CSPD) ......................... 44
2.9. Chapter Summary ............................................................... 45

---

CHAPTER THREE: TQM IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

3.2 The Concept of TQM ............................................................. 47
3.3 TQM: An Evaluation Perspective ........................................... 52
  - 3.3.1 The Quality Control (CQ) Paradigm ................................ 52
  - 3.3.2 The Continuous Improvement (CI) Paradigm ...................... 53
  - 3.3.3 The Commitment Paradigm ......................................... 55
  - 3.3.4 TQM and Organisational Excellence ............................... 57
3.4 TQM Theory and Early Pioneers ........................................... 60
  - 3.4.1 TQM and Management Theory ...................................... 62
  - 3.4.2 TQM in Public Administration (PA) ............................... 63
  - 3.4.3 TQM and the Bureaucracy Theory ................................ 66
3.5 TQM: Critical Factors in Public Administration ........................ 74
  - 3.5.1 Top Management Commitment and Support (TMCS) ............. 75
  - 3.5.2 Focus on Customer (FC) ............................................ 79
  - 3.5.3 Continuous Improvement (CI) ...................................... 81
  - 3.5.4 Employee Participation (EP) ....................................... 85
  - 3.5.5 Employee Training (ET) ............................................ 88
  - 3.5.6 The Management Information System (MIS) ...................... 91
3.6 Chapter Summary ............................................................... 94

---

CHAPTER FOUR: SERVICE EMPLOYEES SATISFACTION

4.2 The Employee Satisfaction (ES) Concept .................................. 96
4.3 The Theories of Employee Satisfaction .................................... 97
  - 4.3.1 Maslow’s Need Theory ............................................... 98
  - 4.3.2 The Two-Factor Theory ............................................. 101
  - 4.3.3 The McClelland’s Needs Theory ................................... 103
  - 4.3.4 The Social Exchange Theory (SET) ............................... 104
  - 4.3.5 The Job Characteristics Model (JCM) ............................. 106
4.4 Employee Satisfaction Facets ................................................ 109

---

**4.3.5 The Job Characteristics Model (JCM)** ............................. 106

---

2.8.9 Civil Status and Passport Department (CSPD) ......................... 44
2.9. Chapter Summary ............................................................... 45

---

CHAPTER THREE: TQM IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

3.2 The Concept of TQM ............................................................. 47
3.3 TQM: An Evaluation Perspective ........................................... 52
  - 3.3.1 The Quality Control (CQ) Paradigm ................................ 52
  - 3.3.2 The Continuous Improvement (CI) Paradigm ...................... 53
  - 3.3.3 The Commitment Paradigm ......................................... 55
  - 3.3.4 TQM and Organisational Excellence ............................... 57
3.4 TQM Theory and Early Pioneers ........................................... 60
  - 3.4.1 TQM and Management Theory ...................................... 62
  - 3.4.2 TQM in Public Administration (PA) ............................... 63
  - 3.4.3 TQM and the Bureaucracy Theory ................................ 66
3.5 TQM: Critical Factors in Public Administration ........................ 74
  - 3.5.1 Top Management Commitment and Support (TMCS) ............. 75
  - 3.5.2 Focus on Customer (FC) ............................................ 79
  - 3.5.3 Continuous Improvement (CI) ...................................... 81
  - 3.5.4 Employee Participation (EP) ....................................... 85
  - 3.5.5 Employee Training (ET) ............................................ 88
  - 3.5.6 The Management Information System (MIS) ...................... 91
3.6 Chapter Summary ............................................................... 94

---

CHAPTER FOUR: SERVICE EMPLOYEES SATISFACTION

4.2 The Employee Satisfaction (ES) Concept .................................. 96
4.3 The Theories of Employee Satisfaction .................................... 97
  - 4.3.1 Maslow’s Need Theory ............................................... 98
  - 4.3.2 The Two-Factor Theory ............................................. 101
  - 4.3.3 The McClelland’s Needs Theory ................................... 103
  - 4.3.4 The Social Exchange Theory (SET) ............................... 104
  - 4.3.5 The Job Characteristics Model (JCM) ............................. 106
4.4 Employee Satisfaction Facets ................................................ 109

---

**4.3.5 The Job Characteristics Model (JCM)** ............................. 106
CHAPTER FIVE: SERVICE QUALITY IN THE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

5.1 Introduction .................................................................................................................. 128
5.2 The Service Quality Concept ....................................................................................... 129
5.3 Service Quality as a Culture in the Public Sector ......................................................... 131
5.4 Government Services: an Overview ............................................................................. 132
5.5 Service Characteristics in Public Administration ......................................................... 134
5.6 Service Categorisation and Classification .................................................................... 136
5.7 The Dimensions of Service Quality ............................................................................. 139
  5.7.1 Tangibility ............................................................................................................... 140
  5.7.2 Reliability ............................................................................................................... 141
  5.7.3 Responsiveness ...................................................................................................... 144
  5.7.4 Assurance ............................................................................................................... 146
  5.7.5 Empathy ................................................................................................................ 148
5.8 Service Quality Models ............................................................................................... 152
  5.8.1 The Technical and Functional Quality Model (Nordic Model) ............................... 153
  5.8.2 SERVQUAL and SERVPERF ............................................................................. 155
  5.8.3 The Service Profit Chain Model (SPC) .................................................................. 158
5.9 Customer Satisfaction or Service Quality? ................................................................. 160
5.10 Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses Development ............................................ 162
  5.10.1 Preface ................................................................................................................. 162
  5.10.2 Direct Effects ........................................................................................................ 163
    5.10.2.1 TQM and Employee Satisfaction ................................................................. 163
    5.10.2.2 Employee Satisfaction and Service Quality ................................................ 164
  5.10.3 Indirect and mediation effects .............................................................................. 166
    5.10.3.1 ES as mediator variable between TQM and SQ .......................................... 166
    5.10.3.2 TQM and Service Quality .......................................................................... 167
CHAPTER SIX: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

6.1 Introduction ........................................................................................................................................... 172
6.2 The Research Process ........................................................................................................................... 172
6.3 Research philosophy .............................................................................................................................. 173
   6.3.1 Ontology and epistemology ........................................................................................................... 174
   6.3.2 Interpretivism VS positivism ........................................................................................................... 175
   6.3.3 Pragmatism ..................................................................................................................................... 176
   6.3.4 Pragmatism and public administration ........................................................................................ 177
6.4 Data Collection methods ....................................................................................................................... 178
   6.4.1 Mixed methods ............................................................................................................................. 179
   6.4.2 Questionnaires ............................................................................................................................. 182
      6.4.2.1 Questionnaire design and Development.................................................................................. 182
      6.4.2.2 Questionnaire wording and layout .......................................................................................... 183
      6.4.2.3 The translation of the questionnaires ...................................................................................... 185
      6.4.2.4 The content of the questionnaires .......................................................................................... 186
      6.4.2.5 Piloting the questionnaires .................................................................................................... 187
6.5 Measurement and Scales ....................................................................................................................... 188
   6.5.1 Scales and operational definitions ............................................................................................... 189
      6.5.1.1 The TQM scale ...................................................................................................................... 189
      6.5.1.2 The employee satisfaction scale ............................................................................................. 190
      6.5.1.3 The service quality scale ....................................................................................................... 192
6.6 Population and sample .......................................................................................................................... 192
   6.6.1 Defining the population .................................................................................................................. 193
   6.6.3 Response Rate ............................................................................................................................... 197
6.7 Semi-structured interviews .................................................................................................................... 198
6.8 KAA Reports ........................................................................................................................................ 200
6.9 Reliability and Validity .......................................................................................................................... 201
   6.9.1 Reliability ...................................................................................................................................... 201
   6.9.2 Validity .......................................................................................................................................... 202
      6.9.2.1 Content validity ..................................................................................................................... 202
      6.9.2.2 Construct validity .................................................................................................................. 203
   6.9.3 The validity of the semi-structured interviews ............................................................................. 204
CHAPTER SEVEN: DATA ANALYSIS
6.10 Data Analysis ................................................................................................................. 205
   6.10.1 The quantitative data analysis ..................................................................................... 206
   6.10.2 Qualitative data analysis (QDA) ................................................................................. 208
6.11 Ethical Considerations ..................................................................................................... 210
6.12 Fieldwork process ........................................................................................................... 211
6.13 Chapter Summary ............................................................................................................ 214

7.1 Introduction ....................................................................................................................... 215
7.2 Sample Characteristics ...................................................................................................... 215
7.2.1 Employees Sample ......................................................................................................... 216
   7.2.1.1 Gender ...................................................................................................................... 216
   7.2.1.2 Age ........................................................................................................................ 217
   7.2.1.3 Marital Status .......................................................................................................... 217
   7.2.1.4 Job level .................................................................................................................. 218
   7.2.1.5 Educational Attainment .......................................................................................... 219
   7.2.1.7 Income level (in Jordanian Dinars. JD) ................................................................. 221
7.3 Quantitative data analysis (descriptive statistics) ............................................................. 221
   7.3.1 Evaluate the level of TQM in the Jordanian public sector ......................................... 222
      7.3.1.1 Top Management Commitment and Support (TMCS) .......................................... 222
      7.3.1.2 Focus on Customer .............................................................................................. 226
      7.3.1.3 Continuous Improvement .................................................................................... 229
      7.3.1.4 Employee Participation ......................................................................................... 232
      7.3.1.5 Employee Training .............................................................................................. 235
      7.3.1.6 Management Information Systems (MISs) ........................................................ 237
7.4 Evaluating the level of employees’ satisfaction in the Jordanian public sector ................. 240
   7.4.1 Employees Satisfaction facets ..................................................................................... 241
      7.4.1.1 Supervision ............................................................................................................ 241
      7.4.1.2 Operating Conditions ......................................................................................... 243
      7.4.1.3 Co-workers ......................................................................................................... 244
      7.4.1.4 Nature of work .................................................................................................... 246
      7.4.1.5 Communication .................................................................................................. 247
7.5 Customers Survey Results ............................................................................................... 251
   7.5.1 Characteristics of Customers Sample .......................................................................... 251
      7.5.1.1 Gender ................................................................................................................ 251
8.1 Introduction ........................................................................................................................................... 289
8.2 Interviewee characteristics ..................................................................................................................... 289
8.3 The Structural relationships (TQM, ES and SQ) ..................................................................................... 292

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-section</th>
<th>Relationship</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8.3.1</td>
<td>TMCS ➞ Employee Satisfaction ➞ Service Quality</td>
<td>293</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.3.2</td>
<td>Focus on customer ➞ employee satisfaction ➞ service quality</td>
<td>298</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.3.3</td>
<td>Continuous improvement ➞ employee satisfaction ➞ service quality</td>
<td>302</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.3.4</td>
<td>Employee Participation ➞ Employee Satisfaction ➞ Service Quality</td>
<td>305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.3.5</td>
<td>Employee training ➞ employee satisfaction ➞ service quality</td>
<td>310</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.4 Service quality dimensions: further discussion ................................................................................ 315

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-section</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8.4.1</td>
<td>Service Empathy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.4.2</td>
<td>Service Assurance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.4.3</td>
<td>Service Responsiveness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.4.4</td>
<td>Service Reliability</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.5 The roles of employees in the delivering of public services .................................................................. 328

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sub-section</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8.5.1</td>
<td>The Mediator Role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.5.2</td>
<td>The Enabler Role</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.5.3</td>
<td>The Collaborator Role</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.6 Chapter Summary .................................................................................................................................... 334

CHAPTER NINE: THE CONCLUSION

9.1 Introduction ........................................................................................................................................... 337
9.2 Empirical and Theoretical Conclusion ..................................................................................................... 338
9.3 Theoretical Contribution .......................................................................................................................... 342
9.4 Managerial implications ............................................................................................................................ 347
9.5 Limitations and Future Research ............................................................................................................ 354
9.6 Chapter summary ....................................................................................................................................... 356

References ....................................................................................................................................................... 359

Web Sites ......................................................................................................................................................... 413
# List of Tables

## CHAPTER TWO

| 2.1 The initiatives of administrative development in Jordan | 35 |
| 2.2 Excellence motivators in Jordanian public sector | 39 |

## CHAPTER THREE

| 3.1 TQM issues and pioneers contributions | 61 |
| 3.2 TQM dimensions and pioneers contributions | 61 |
| 3.3 TQM contribution for management theories | 63 |
| 3.4 TQM and Bureaucracy: a different forms | 70 |

## CHAPTER FOUR

| 4.1 The Characteristics of Job | 106 |
| 4.2 The link between the TQM theory and employee satisfaction theories | 109 |

## CHAPTER FIVE

| 5.1 Characteristics of service and their challenges | 136 |
| 5.2 Understanding the nature of the service act | 137 |
| 5.3 Degree of customers contact in the government organisations | 138 |
| 5.4 Model Gaps and Definitions | 155 |

## CHAPTER SIX

| 6.1 The Research Process | 173 |
| 6.2 Contents of questionnaires | 186 |
| 6.3 The operational definitions for TQM Scale | 190 |
| 6.4 The operational definitions for Employee satisfaction Scale | 191 |
| 6.5 The operational definitions for service quality Scale | 192 |
| 6.6 Total number of frontline employees in sample organisations | 195 |
| 6.7 Quality Assessment reports and sample organisations | 201 |

## CHAPTER SEVEN

| 7.1 Frequency Distribution by Gender of respondents (Employees) | 216 |
| 7.2 Frequency Distribution by Age of respondents (Employees) | 217 |
| 7.3 Frequency Distribution by marital status (Employees) | 217 |
| 7.4 Frequency Distribution by Job Title (Employees) | 218 |
| 7.5 Frequency Distribution of Educational Attainment (employees) | 219 |
| 7.6 Frequency of Distribution Length of Work Experience (Employees) | 220 |
| 7.7 Frequency Distribution by income (Employees) | 221 |
| 7.8 Means and Percentages for TMCS | 222 |
| 7.9 Core values in the public sector organisations | 225 |
| 7.10 Means and Percentage for Focus on Customer | 226 |
| 7.11 Mean and Percentages for Continuous Improvement | 229 |
| 7.12 Mean and Percentage for Employee Participation | 232 |
| 7.13 Mean and Percentage for Employee Training | 235 |
| 7.14 Mean and Percentage for Management information system | 237 |
| 7.15 Total Descriptive results for TQM construct | 240 |
| 7.16 Mean and percentage for supervision | 241 |
| 7.17 Mean and percentage for operating conditions | 243 |
| 7.18 Mean and percentage for co-workers | 244 |
| 7.19 Mean and percentage for nature of work | 246 |
| 7.20 Mean and percentage for communication | 247 |
| 7.21 Total Descriptive results for employee satisfaction Scale | 255 |
| 7.22 Frequency Distribution by Gender of respondents (Customers) | 251 |
7.23 Frequency Distribution by Age (Customers)  ................................................................. 252
7.24 Frequency Distribution by fare ......................................................................................... 252
7.25 Frequency of Distribution by service guide ................................................................. 253
7.26 Frequency of Distribution by Car Parking ................................................................. 254
7.27 Frequency of Distribution by Ordering System ......................................................... 254
7.28 Frequency of Distribution by Waiting Rooms ........................................................... 255
7.29 Frequency of Distribution by location of public service office ............................ 255
7.30 Means and percentage for Reliability ........................................................................... 256
7.31 Means and Percentage for Responsiveness ................................................................. 258
7.32 Means and percentage for Assurance ............................................................................ 261
7.33 Means and Percentage for Empathy ............................................................................. 263
7.34 Total Descriptive results for service quality construct ........................................... 264
7.35 level of government service quality in the Jordanian public sector (KAA Reports) .... 266
7.36 Service quality Characteristics ‘Mystery Shoppers Remarks’ ................................... 267
7.37 Reliability statistics (TQM, ES, and SQ) ............................................................ 268
7.38 Excluded items and loadings ......................................................................................... 270
7.39 Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) results (TQM) .................................................... 270
7.40 Regression of TQM Scale and its variables ................................................................. 271
7.41 Confirmatory Factor Analysis results (Employee Satisfaction) .............................. 271
7.42 Regression of Employee satisfaction and its variables ............................................... 272
7.43 Confirmatory Factor Analysis results (service quality) ................................................ 272
7.44 Regression of service quality and its variables ......................................................... 273
7.45 Correlations between the TQM variables (N= 420) .................................................. 274
7.46 Correlations between the employee satisfaction variables (N=420) ....................... 274
7.47 Correlations between the service quality variables (N=821) .................................... 275
7.48 The Summary of Model Fit Statistics ................................................................. 276
7.49 Final Model Results ................................................................................................. 285
7.50 The Summary of Results ........................................................................................... 287

CHAPTER NINE

9.1 Key findings and Research Contribution........................................................................ 357
List of Figures

| CHAPTER ONE | 1.1 Research Context and Phenomena | 14 |
|            | 1.2 The structure of the thesis     | 14 |
| CHAPTER TWO | 2.1 Political and Administrative Map of Jordan | 19 |
|            | 2.2 Public Administration Structure in Jordan | 22 |
| CHAPTER THREE | 3.1 Theory C (Control, Continuous Improvement and Commitment) | 56 |
|            | 3.2 Levels of TQM adoption          | 58 |
|            | 3.3 The Jordanian Excellence Pyramid | 59 |
|            | 3.4 Organisational excellence principles in the Jordanian public sector | 60 |
|            | 3.5 TQM, NPM and Bureaucracy        | 73 |
| CHAPTER FOUR | 4.1 Hierarch of Needs Pyramid       | 99 |
|            | 4.2 Job characteristics Model (JCM) | 106 |
|            | 4.3 Typologies of Job               | 112 |
| CHAPTER FIVE | 5.1 Classifications of service based on customer contact | 138 |
|            | 5.2 Dimensions of service quality (Examples) | 139 |
|            | 5.3 The relationship between KPIs and service reliability measurement | 143 |
|            | 5.4 Enablers service assurance in the public sector organisations | 147 |
|            | 5.5 The Empathy Engine (EE)         | 155 |
|            | 5.6 Empathy Engine in the Public Sector | 151 |
|            | 5.7 The Empathy Process             | 152 |
|            | 5.8 Nordic Service Quality Model    | 155 |
|            | 5.9 Gap Service Model               | 157 |
|            | 5.10 The Service- Profit Chain Model | 159 |
|            | 5.11 The Proposed Study Model       | 170 |
| CHAPTER SIX | 6.1 The Triangulation & Complementarity Process | 181 |
|            | 6.2 The Application of Mixed Methodology | 181 |
|            | 6.3 The Structural and the Measurement Models | 208 |
|            | 6.4 Transcription Process (Interviews) | 210 |
| CHAPTER SEVEN | 7.1 Level of TQM in Jordanian Public organisations | 240 |
|            | 7.2 Level of Employee Satisfaction in the Jordanian Public Organisations | 250 |
|            | 7.3 Level of service quality in the Jordanian Public Organisations | 263 |
|            | 7.4 The Level of Government Service Quality (KAA reports) | 265 |
|            | 7.5 The Research Model              | 277 |
|            | 7.6 The path model [TQM and SQ] without mediation | 278 |
|            | 7.7 Final Model Results (TQM, ES and Service Quality) | 285 |
|            | 7.8 The roles of employees in delivering of public services | 286 |
| CHAPTER EIGHT | 8.1 Theoretical Graph: TMCS, ES and SQ | 297 |
|            | 8.2 Nature of work and service quality in public sector | 305 |
|            | 8.3 TQM, ES and Service Empathy Chain | 317 |
|            | 8.4 Assurance Chain in the public sector organisations | 323 |
|            | 8.5 Service Reliability Chain in the public sector organisations | 327 |
|            | 8.6 Matrix of service employees’ roles | 334 |
|            | 8.7 Theoretic Graph model [TQM, ES and SQ] in the public sector | 336 |
## List of Appendices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Appendix</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1  Organisational Structure of Public Bodies in Jordan</td>
<td>415</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2  Questionnaire Development (TQM Scale)</td>
<td>416</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3  Questionnaire Development (Employee Satisfaction Scale)</td>
<td>419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4  Questionnaire Development (Service Quality Scale)</td>
<td>420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5  List of Questionnaires’ Referees</td>
<td>421</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6  Employees Questionnaire</td>
<td>422</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7  Customers Questionnaire</td>
<td>428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8  The Results of Structural Models</td>
<td>432</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9  Recruitment letter</td>
<td>434</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Full Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CBJ</td>
<td>Central Bank of Jordan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CCD</td>
<td>Companies Control Department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI</td>
<td>Continuous Improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CS</td>
<td>Customer Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTD</td>
<td>Central Traffic Department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DLS</td>
<td>Department of Land and Survey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DOS</td>
<td>Department of Statistics (Jordan)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DPADM</td>
<td>Division for Public Administration &amp; Development Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DVLD</td>
<td>Drivers and Vehicle Licensing Department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EE</td>
<td>Empathy Engine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFQM</td>
<td>Europe Foundation for Quality Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EP</td>
<td>Employee Participation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>Employee Satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESA</td>
<td>Excellent Service Award.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ET</td>
<td>Employee Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FC</td>
<td>Focus on Customer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GAM</td>
<td>Greater Amman Municipality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GIA</td>
<td>Government Innovation Award</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HR</td>
<td>Human Resources</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISO</td>
<td>International Organization for Standardization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISTD</td>
<td>Income and Sales Tax Department</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JC</td>
<td>Jordanian Customs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JCM</td>
<td>Job Characteristics Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JDI</td>
<td>Job Description Index</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JSS</td>
<td>Jordan Standards and Metrology Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KAA</td>
<td>King Abdullah Award for Excellence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KACE</td>
<td>King Abdullah Center for Excellence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KHAAD</td>
<td>King Hussein Award for Administrative Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>KPIs</td>
<td>Key Performance Indicators</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MIS</td>
<td>Management Information System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoICT</td>
<td>Ministry of Information Communication Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoIT</td>
<td>Ministry of Industry and Trade</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOL</td>
<td>Ministry of Labor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOPSD</td>
<td>Ministry of Public Sector Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NPM</td>
<td>New Public Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OE</td>
<td>Organisational Excellence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O&amp;M</td>
<td>Organising and Methods Departments</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PA</td>
<td>Public Administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QC</td>
<td>Quality Control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R&amp;D</td>
<td>Research and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEM</td>
<td>Structural Equation Modelling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SERVPERF</td>
<td>Service Performance Scale</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SERVQUAL</td>
<td>Service Quality Scale [Gap Measurement Scale]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SPC</td>
<td>Service-Profit Chain Model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SQ</td>
<td>Service Quality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSC</td>
<td>Social Security Corporation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TMCS</td>
<td>Top Management Commitment and Support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TQM</td>
<td>Total Quality Management</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER ONE

THE INTRODUCTION

1.1 Preface

This thesis focuses on three main concepts: total quality management (TQM), employee satisfaction (denoted as a variable in this thesis as ES) and service quality (denoted as SQ). More precisely, this research explores the impact of TQM and employee satisfaction on the government service quality in the Jordanian public organisations. This first chapter presents the story of the research, then the background, aims and objectives and the research questions. Finally, the overall structure of thesis is introduced.

1.2 Research Story and motivation

The idea for this research project originated in 2009 while the researcher was working as Head of the Department of Quality and Strategic Planning in one of Jordan’s public sector organisations. A great desire to conduct a piece of research in the area of quality emerged due to the urgent need for such studies in the public sector context and the gaps in knowledge that were clearly evident in the Jordanian context. Initially, I intended to develop a model for studying the challenges and obstacles facing TQM application in the public sector and started to review the literature. This stage coincided with me joining the Ph.D. programme towards the end of 2011. Many studies have addressed the challenges and difficulties encountering the application of TQM in the public sector, with some of them dealing with the failure of the private sector in the Arabic, European and American contexts (e.g. Alqudah, 2006; Brown, 2013; Halachmi, 2005; Hughes and Halsall, 2002; Tizard, 2012; Vakalopoulou et al., 2013; Van der Wiele and Brown,
2002; Asif et al., 2009). However, the researcher was concerned about the possibility presenting a non-original study; thereupon, the research had a turning point and started to ask the following question: why not consider stories of TQM success rather than those of failure?

Accordingly, I studied and consulted the literature more deeply to identify the theoretical and knowledge gaps in the previous studies within the public administration context. In this field, there is a lack of robust and systematic studies on administration in general and on quality in particular. This lack is more noticeable in the context of developing countries, like Jordan, where public administration is different from that practised in the West (such as the USA and developed European countries) which cultivate the concept and theories of quality in terms of aims, organisational culture and administrative philosophy. In light of the reviewed literature, I detected a theoretical interest amongst writers when exploring the role of TQM in achieving organisational success and performance and administrative innovation, but did not find very much research interest in the achievement of TQM aims such as improving the quality of services and citizen/customer satisfaction in the public sector. Consequently, I realised I could provide a theoretical and knowledgeable contribution in the field of public administration, namely TQM and quality in the provision of governmental services.

In addition, the rationale behind this research is related to the fact that many of the previous studies concluded that problems in applying TQM in the public sector stem from two issues. The first issue is the adoption of TQM without adapting or modifying it to suit different environments. For example, models of TQM applied in the private sector in developing countries that were initially developed in Western environments, without adaptation or modification, tended to lead to failures. Therefore, the study of public administration models in developing countries provided
an opportunity for knowledge contribution related to the mechanisms of TQM application in the public sector. The second issue is related to many public sector organisations developing TQM models without taking into account the needs of employees, who were often excluded from participation in developing these administrative models and systems in the first place. The following questions emerged: How can an efficient and a good level of TQM application be guaranteed? And how can the aims of TQM, represented by improving the quality of services, be achieved?

Subsequently, the research concentrated on exploring the role of employees and employee satisfaction in achieving the aims of TQM and in improving the quality of government services. The conclusion reached is that a positive impact of TQM on service quality cannot be guaranteed without an important mediator, i.e. the employee. This conclusion raised other questions: What is the impact of the employee? And what is the part played by the employee as a mediator between TQM and the service quality? In this respect, the researcher found a limited number of models and studies dealing with the relationship between the satisfaction of the employee and that of the customer.

As mentioned earlier, the public sector differs from the private sector in terms of aims, environment and administrative philosophy. So, can some of the models successful in the private sector be applied in the public sector? The researcher searched for models tackling the relationship between the employee and the customer and worked on developing a model suitable for the nature of the public sector making use of the ‘profit chain service model’ presented by Haskett et al. (1994). I made radical changes to this model in terms of variables. For instance, I introduced TQM and its variables in addition to the use of employee satisfaction (ES) as an
intermediary variable. Moreover, I developed measurement tools for assessing levels of employee satisfaction that better suited the nature of public sector services. Previous studies (e.g. Brown and Lam, 2009; Wangenheim et al., 2007; Jeon and Choi, 2012) focused on factors in measuring job satisfaction including role ambiguity, role conflict and self-efficacy. But the current study it provides and relies upon new variables measuring employee satisfaction (ES) which are: the nature of the job, supervision, operating conditions, communication and co-workers.

Finally, quality of the service was used as a sub-variable in place of ‘customer satisfaction’ because the latter is still much debatable within the context of the public sector, which aims at delivering the best services to citizens (as distant from ‘customers’) and where participation is less than that in the private sector especially with regards to identifying the service quality. For instance, if someone goes to a restaurant and wishes to modify their meal choice in terms of taste and appearance, there would be the opportunity to order variants from a long menu of options. In contrast the public sector is controlled by laws and regulations related to governmental service; citizens or customers cannot generally change or modify the service specifications at short notice. What they have is only the right to express opinion for the aim of improving the processes of delivering the service, arrangements and employee behaviour. What really matters for governmental organisations is providing a high-quality governmental service for the benefit of needy citizens. Further, the public sector monopolises a great number of services: the citizen can get receive many of these services from public sector organisations. The great importance of employees in the public sector is attributed to the fact that they have direct contact with the customer. In other words, since public sector employees are public servants, great care must be given in terms of their training, development of working conditions, motivation and opportunities
for open communication. This care is necessary for the implementation of true TQM. Hence, it can be argued that looking after public sector employees and maintaining their satisfaction might be the guarantee for reaching positive TQM results and the improvement of governmental service quality.

After long deliberation, I decided to study the impact of TQM on service quality in the public sector with the focus on exploring the pivotal role of employee satisfaction in providing service quality with respect to four aspects: reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy. Accordingly, I started to think about the ways to answer the question of the research depending on the best approaches, data sources and analysis techniques, etc. At first, I was inclined to follow a quantitative approach, finding that most of the studies conducted within the context of the private sector focused on the quantitative approach, but without offering a comprehensive explanation on the link between employee satisfaction and the quality of the service. Researchers who had conducted such studies (e.g. Jun et al., 2006; Jeon and Choi, 2012; Wangenheim et al., 2007; Brown and Lam, 2008; Homburg and Stock, 2005) satisfied themselves by concluding in a relatively superficial way that there is a positive relationship between employee satisfaction and customer satisfaction. The nature, directions and scope of this relationship had not been deeply and specifically studied before. In addition all the studies identified above had been within the context of the private sector and this makes them completely different from this piece of research. This led the researcher to resort to other sources (qualitative sources) than the quantitative to support and validate the results of the existence of this relationship and explain it.

At the first stage, the relationship between the study’s variables was statistically tested. After ensuring of the validity of the model of the study which showed the positive relationship, the
research enquiry moved to the second stage which relied on qualitative approach. Thus, I conducted a number of interviews with employees and managers in the public sector to discuss the impact of TQM on employee satisfaction in addition to further interviews with customers to evaluate the quality of services and discover the role of the employee in public service provision of services from the customer’s viewpoint. A unique feature in this study is the deployment of a third source, Excellence Assessment Reports. In addition to these sources, I used other available documentary information related to TQM application and consulted the KAA reports of the Excellence in Governmental Service Award to support and explain the results related to the quality of service in the Jordanian public sector.

1.3 Research background

Communities’ educational levels, as well as sophistication of needs, have risen in most societies of the world. Therefore, expectations of governmental service quality have also increased for people in such communities. The services sector now has a strategic role for the economy and society, especially in developing countries like Jordan. As shown by the work of Williams (2010) and Cassia and Magno (2011), public sector employment has converged significantly with the context experienced by employees in the market-driven private sector, with increased pressure to improve the quality of services in attempting to satisfy the expectations and needs of increasingly discerning customers / citizens.

A key factor which played a role in the contextual shift from a rule-bound culture to a performance-based one in the public sector is the introduction of the New Public Management (NPM) phenomena (Williams, 2010; Talbot, 2010). Government leaders’ ability to adopt TQM and excellence models and sophisticated human-resource techniques has been the outcome of
this important shift (Brown 2008; Angelini 2010; Kim, 2008; Farazmand 1999). The basis of TQM, which is an operational philosophy, is the principle that the consistent delivery of high-quality services to customers is vital for the survival and development of public organisations (Randall and Senior, 1992). In this regard, there are many needs that must be met by TQM. Leaders of public organisations demand a constant development of services in addition to investment both in internal and external customers – a continuous improvement. As for external customers, they require public service suppliers that are constantly reliable. To deliver high-quality service, public organisations employees, for their part, need the existence of continuously unfailing provisions required for service delivery such as: materials, training, appropriate information systems, proper management processes and tools in addition to recognition and support from top management.

In the case of Jordan, the public sector has, historically speaking, encountered a number of challenges such as: the lack of resources, the fast developments in technology, and the communication revolution and, above all, administrative pathologies – like favouritism and nepotism. The urgent need for the change in work systems in Jordan’s public sector stem from these challenges. The required changes include resorting to ‘leaner’ approaches aiming to reduce waste resources, whether financial or human, instead of the conventional mechanisms based upon centralised decision making. Also, the need for change entails productivity and quality improvement, increasing the satisfaction of both customers and employees (Baidoun, 2004; Hartley and Skelcher, 2008; Maharmeh, 2008). In order for the public sector in Jordan to cope with the above challenges, many initiatives like strategies and projects of administrative reform have been adopted since the 1980s such as: the adoption of new managerial systems which included quality systems, and the establishment of the King Hussein Award for Administrative
Development (KHAAD). Concerning the initiatives related to excellence models, TQM and government service improvement, they are covered by the King Abdullah II Award for Excellence in Government Performance and Transparency (KAA) (see chapter 2). Although most public organisations in Jordan adopted and applied TQM systems, as Al-Madi and Nseirat (2011) note, they did not involve employees; therefore, the degree of employee satisfaction or employees’ acceptance of such systems could not be determined. Hence, if TQM is to reach the required goal, which is delivering a high-quality governmental service, attention should be paid to employees and their needs which could work as a precondition for improving service quality (Bou and Beltrán, 2005; Akdere, 2009).

One should bear in mind that TQM systems are static and that it is employees who achieve the efficient application of these systems. Thus, as emphasised by Dale and Cooper (1992), despite the great significance of quality systems, individuals are still the central element when considering quality. For example, TQM can affect individuals’ attitudes and behaviour in a manner that influences the relationship between the organisation and its external customers. Mosadeghrad (2014) contends that employee satisfaction can be improved if quality management systems are applied and modified properly. However, since no clear agreement exists among scholars regarding the effect of TQM on employee satisfaction, there are many questions concerning the nature of the relationship between TQM and employee satisfaction left for researchers to answer, especially in the public sector. Gomez et al. (2011) argue that an understanding of the relationship connecting customers, employees and TQM application is missing. For instance, rather than concentrating on employees who are in direct contact with customers, the literature on TQM has concentrated on the processes (Rodriguez- Anton and Alonso-Almeida, 2011). So, because employees are the most significant factor in service
delivery, they are considered the main link not only in the value chain but also in terms of customers’ view of the degree of service quality experienced compared to their expectations (Campbell et al., 2008). Before applying TQM and delivering the services, a greater understanding of service employees is demanded (Thiagraajan and Zairi, 1997; Oakland, 2003; Jung and Hong, 2008), particularly within the context of the public sector. A great deal of the research related to organisations have had job satisfaction as the centre of attention leaving the relationship between TQM variables and job satisfaction open to scholars’ debates and disagreement (see for example, Ooi et al., 2008; De Menezes, 2012, Paauwe, 2004; Ooi et al, 2011; 2012; Turkyilmaz et al., 2011). Taking the above issues into consideration, the researcher of this doctoral project, sought to answer the following questions: What role do both TQM and employee satisfaction play in improving service quality within the public sector? And what is the role of employee satisfaction in the provision of service quality? Williams (2010) calls for a TQM theory, an ES theory, and another theory which can relate both theories to each other. This current study attempts to build upon the previous studies and bridge the gap in the literature on TQM and ES in relation to the service quality provision in the public sector of Jordan.

1.4 Research Aim and Objectives

The traditional opinions related to exchange, particularly in the field of service studies, are twofold (Bagozzi, 1974). The Generalised Exchange Theory (GET)\(^1\) is mainly concerned with a chain of indirect, univocal and reciprocal transfers linking three actors or constructs at least (Marshall, 1998: 274; Evanschitzky et al., 2011). Though it has been much studied for developing

\(^{1}\)The notion of GET produces great solidarity than direct or restricted exchange was first advanced by Levi-Strauss 1969. Thus, the employee satisfaction in this study played as moderator variable between TQM and service quality.
an understanding of the employee-customer relationships in business firms, within the context of the public sector GET has not been well explored in previous studies. The conclusions of some previous studies confirm that, in service organisations, service employees’ role is that of the mediator. For example, as Lee et al (2011) argue, significant changes in shared assumptions, reference frames, organisational values, workplace and communication are pre-requisites for a successful TQM application. Ostensibly, such changes cannot be introduced and achieved without satisfied and motivated employees.

In case of public sector, there is a consensus among researchers and practitioners that two goals form the basis for the existence of governmental organisations: meeting citizens’ needs and expectations and delivering the services with high quality. In spite of the existence of an established body of research concerned with service quality aligned with customers’ interactions, further research exploring and explicating the way of actually achieving service quality based on employees’ perspectives and satisfaction is still needed and important. In other words, there is a demand for more research studying the ways of maximising the quality of service depending on TQM and the part played by the satisfaction of service employees in the public sector.

As mentioned earlier, in developing countries, governmental organisations encounter dynamic environments due to changes within systems, philosophies and the adoption of new principles and values like TQM and customer orientation. Hence, achieving the goals of an organisation is associated with the recognition of what motivates employees to provide services with a high quality (Zeithaml et al., 1990). For example, identifying employees’ motivation as well as perceptions with regard to ensuring higher levels of service quality helps an organisation envisage both behaviour and outcomes and, consequently, retain the individuals who would
contribute to achieving and buttressing the required outcomes (Bodouva, 2009, Button et al., 1996; Dweck and Leggett, 1988).

Again, some critical elements related to the organisation’s human factor play a part in the achievement of the aims of TQM though customer satisfaction per se is not directly measured by TQM or service quality (Lenka et al., 2010: 98). Accordingly, the argument of this thesis is that the objectives of TQM – like service quality improvement – can be realised in cases where both employee satisfaction and engagement in the improvement process are achieved.

Few studies in the governmental service literature so far have paid attention to the variables which impact service employees’ behaviour, what this impact is, and how new philosophies like TQM influence employee satisfaction and, consequently, the quality of the service. Furthermore, the context of previous studies was mainly private industry organisations such as banks, restaurants and hotels (e.g. Yee et al., 2008; Bodouva, 2009; Chi and Gursoy, 2009). Since the exact impact of TQM on employee satisfaction in the public administration context, as well as the extent to which employee satisfaction effects the quality of the service in governmental organisations is unknown, this research investigates the impact of TQM and employee satisfaction on service quality with the aim of filling the gap in the literature on public management. Thus, the objectives of this thesis were established as follows:

1. Developing an understanding of the TQM critical factors through identifying the level of TQM applications and practices in the Jordanian public sector organisations: This understanding will cover six critical factors: top management commitment and support, focus on the customer, continuous improvement, employee participation, employee training and management information systems.
2. Developing an understanding of the employee satisfaction facets through identifying the level of employee satisfaction in the Jordanian public sector concentrating on five main facets which are: supervision, and nature of work, operating conditions, co-workers and communication.

3. Developing an understanding of the service quality dimensions through identifying the level of government service quality in the Jordanian public sector including: reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy.

4. Discovering and explaining the impact of employee satisfaction (ES, as a moderating variable) on government service quality in the Jordanian public sector organisations as the particular impact of employee satisfaction on service quality in the public sector context has not been explored in the developing countries and this study aims to fill this gap in terms of theory and practice.

5. Adding an original value and contribution to the literature concerned with TQM theory, employee satisfaction theory and service quality theory in the public sector: This will be achieved by providing a theoretical and practical model in order to improve the quality service in the public sector and by answering the research questions and achieving the objectives of the study. Thus, the knowledge contribution will be added to public sector studies and the public TQM field in general.
1.5 Research Questions

Following an extensive literature review and discussion (mentioned in section 1.4), the current research answers the following questions:

Q1: What is the level of TQM application in the Jordanian public sector?
Q2: What is the level of employee satisfaction in the Jordanian public sector?
Q3: What is the level of service quality in the Jordanian public sector?
Q4: What (and how) is the impact of TQM on employee satisfaction in the Jordanian public sector?
Q5: What (and how) is the impact of employee satisfaction on service quality in the Jordanian public sector?
Q6: What are the roles of employees in service delivery in the Jordanian public service organisations?

1.6 Contents of the thesis and context

This thesis is divided into nine chapters (see Figures 1.1 & 1.2) It is worth mentioning that the literature review chapters were presented according to the sequence presented in the research model (TQM, then Employee Satisfaction, followed by Service Quality). Chapter 2 covers the background of the country where this research been conducted. Chapter 3, 4 and 5 cover the literature related to TQM, employee satisfaction and service quality respectively. Chapter 6 outlines the research design and methodology used when undertaking this research. Chapter 7 presents the analysis of data, while chapter 8 covers further analysis and discussion. Finally, conclusion, contribution and implications are drawn in chapter 9.
Figure 1.1 Research Context and Phenomena

Figure 1.2 The structure of the thesis

Thesis Structure

Background

Ch (1) Introduction

Ch (2) The context of Jordan

Literature Review

Ch (3) TQM

Ch (4) Employee satisfaction

Methodology & Design

Ch (5) Service Quality

Ch (6) Research Methodology & Design

Analysis & Discussion

Ch (7) Data Analysis

Ch (8) Findings & Discussion

Ch (9) Conclusion, Knowledge and practical Contributions
2.1. Introduction

Public administration (PA) is a field of activity that is undergoing substantial change and transformation and is clearly an area for investigation by social scientists as it is undergoing major developments worldwide. These developments affect the stability of public administration and its ability to build modern public management systems which provide public services effectively and efficiently. There are two key issues that affect public administration in Jordan. The first is the ‘quantitative impact’ of change, which includes the increase in the number of government bodies to meet community needs and expectations in a pluralist society. The second issue is the ‘qualitative impact’, with public administration entering new fields, for example industrial, manufacturing, and services support and provision (Alfarhan and Alsokkar, 2002). In Jordan, although public administration faces many challenges in terms of financial crises, and extreme political instability in neighbouring countries, public administration bodies still maintains their ability to achieve goals at national level for public service. This is almost unique in the region, and is due to a number of specific characteristics which will now be identified.

The first characteristic of public administration in Jordan relates to ‘ability and flexibility’. Public administration bodies in the country have largely been able to deal with the economic, political, and social changes that have affected Jordan since its establishment in 1984. The ability of public administration to deal with these changes is a characteristic that enables it to maintain stability and make rational decisions. Jreisat (2009: 37) argues that a good understanding of the changes needed should lead to the affective adaptation of governance and reform of Jordan’s public
administration, enabling it as a nation to deal more effectively with the unfolding process of globalisation. Some progress has been made in transforming the traditional methods of command and control as well as a perceived culture of nepotism in Jordanian public administration organisations. These now appear to work with more collaborative management that relies on institutional capabilities and practices managerial values of accountability, performance evaluation, quality, excellence, transparency and ethics (Jreisat, 2009: 37).

The second characteristic is ‘mutual influence’. As a means to implement public policy, public administration in Jordan influences both employees and citizens. For example, public administration helps to build and develop the internal behavioural categories of public servants and citizens. At the same time, public administration is impacted by the surrounding environment and its components. However, public administration has been seen to be largely capable of adapting to both internal and external environmental changes successfully and consciously.

The third characteristic of public administration is ‘responsiveness’, which refers to the ability of the Jordanian public administration to respond to the new demands for advancement in the form of new organisational mechanisms, systems and processes. Proper assessment and action on these characteristics enhance public administration performance and its efficiency and effectiveness (Alfarhan and Alsokkar, 2002).

Today, modern public organisations have to face the simultaneous challenge and opportunity to provide better service and earn the public’s trust. Hansford (2009) stated that the internal and external environment determine the sustainability of organisations, work opportunities, and potential organisational success and growth. Furthermore, governments in the Arab countries in general, and in Jordan in particular, are increasingly required to respond to various dynamics
such as citizen and customer needs and expectations and political, administrative and economic factors, by adopting new administrative models or systems of work, including the use of “excellence models” and TQM, to sustain the future relevance of public administration organisations. Furthermore, in Jordan, some vital projects were implemented to enhance the ability of government organisations to deliver their services efficiently and effectively (Bani-Ismail, 2012). There were also positive impacts from the legacy of continuing administrative reform projects started at various points over the last four decades.

Building on the above discussion, one can argue public administration in Jordan is capable of establishing and developing required organisational, administrative and legal frameworks. That capability denotes Jordan’s movement from “un-management” at the beginning of the 20th century to an effective and manageable state towards the end of that century (Alfarhan and Alsokkar, 2002). This, however, entails the study of managerial concepts such as TQM and service quality in the public sector in a country that differs in culture, norms, managerial traditions and context from the exemplar countries in Western Europe, Japan and even Africa. Hence, this chapter highlights the contextual issues that surround Jordan in general and its public administration in particular. Specifically, the chapter provides an insight in Jordan’s background as the country in which this research has been conducted. It incorporates a country overview, detail on public administration in Jordan and a discussion of contextual issues (e.g. economy, society, technology, administration and education). Finally, the context of the organisations used in the analysis of this research and their services is also presented.
2.2 Country Overview

Jordan was only one of the component parts of the Ottoman Empire (Al-Salah, 1985). In 1921, after the end of World War I, Britain was entrusted by the League of Nations with the mandate of Jordan which was announced thence as “Trans Arab Emirate” (Al-Salah, 1985: 37). Al-qudah et al. (1995: 41) report that later in 1927 the “Trans Arab Emirate” turned into “Trans-Jordan Emirate” and it was in 1928 that it had its first “Basic Act”\(^2\). 1947, nineteen years after the Basic Act, witnessed the writing down and enacting of the new constitution for Jordan which had been announced as “the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan (HKJ)” in 1964 (Ibid, p: 47). However, this constitution was replaced with the constitution of 1952, which after some modifications is still in force today (Al-Shoubaki, 1995:7). As contended by Massadeh (1999:91), the Kingdom’s borders were defined as extending from the East of Jordan to the West Bank, a unity which had first been declared in 1950. However, the Kingdom could maintain its rule only over the East Bank after the Israeli occupation of the West Bank (Abu-Sheikha, 1995).

King Hussein’s decision of a complete disengagement, both legal and administrative, from the West Bank came in 1988 abiding by the Rabat Arab Summit declaration of 1974 (Massadeh, 1999:91). Accordingly, the 1986 Election Act was modified in 1989 by cancelling the seats allocated to the West Bank in the House of Representatives and it is on this modification that the general elections of the House of Representatives were base in 1989 and in 1993. As for the Palestinian self-government of the West Bank and Gaza, Al-Tawalbah (1994:61-70) states that it came as a consequence of the 1994 Peace Treaties between Israel and Jordan and those between Israel and the Palestinian Liberation organisations. Following the death of King Hussein in 1999,

\(^2\) The “Basic Act” refers to the Jordanian constitution at that time.
his son King Abdullah II succeeded to the Throne and since then he has been adamant on continuing the reforms and the building process started by his father. In terms of geography, Jordan with an area of [89,213] square kilometers. Nevertheless, it is characterised by a remarkable range of diversity whether in climate, terrain or landscape. The three geographic areas of Jordan are: the Jordan valley, the mountain heights plateau and the eastern desert region with the Gulf of Aqaba as the only outlet for Jordan to the Mediterranean Sea (McCrossan and Taylor (2007: 5). In terms of administrative classification, Jordan is divided into the southern, northern and central regions.

**Figure 2.1 Political and Administrative Map of Jordan**

![Political and Administrative Map of Jordan](image)

Source: Royal Jordanian Geographic Center (2013)

Jordan has population of 6.8 million people. Though the majority of the population is formed by Arabs, there are other minor groups and ethnicities like the Circassians and Chechens (DOS, 2014)

---

3 In 2015 the population of Jordan is 6.8 million (DOS, 2014)
2012). More than 92% of all Jordanian people are Muslims and, approximately, 7% of the population is formed by Arab and Western Christian (McCrossan and Taylor, 2007). The population of Jordan also includes several small Druze communities (Ibid, 2007). Now that the historical and geographical background of Jordan has been presented, the following section discusses the country’s public administration.

2.3 Public Administration in Jordan

Jordan is a constitutional monarchy based on the 1952 constitution which grants the King a higher degree of executive and legislative power authorising him to determine domestic and foreign policy. The constitution of Jordan divides power into three branches: legislative, judicial and executive. Since executive power is collateral to public administration, the following parts of this chapter discuss public administration bodies and structure in Jordan. Public administration is the body which is responsible for delivering public goods and services by and for the government whether nationally, regionally or locally (Bhuiyan and Amagoh, 2011). Public administration in Jordan has the following organisational structure: there are central authorities- the King, Cabinet, ministers and public corporations - and the local authorities- the municipal councils and governors (Al-Kayed et al., 1999).

2.3.1 Central Public Administration

The central administration in Jordan consists of the Cabinet and the ministries.

2.3.1.1 The Cabinet

The Constitution of Jordan (1952: Article 30, p.30) demonstrated that the Cabinet is headed by the Prime Ministers and is constituted by a number of ministers depending on what public interest
entails. Whereas a minister is responsible for all matters relating to their ministry, the Prime Minister decides and enforces what lies within his authority and leaves decision making for the Cabinet in all other matters. For its part, the role of the Cabinet is administrating all affairs, external and internal, apart from any issues assigned to any other person or entity named by the constitution or any legislative order. As explained by Al-Kayed et al., (1999), with the consent of the King, the Cabinet is authorised to issue some regulations independently including the following:

1. The determination of Jordan’s public policy and supervising the responsible parts until this policy is implemented.
2. Controlling the public fund appropriation and spending as well as organising governmental warehouses.
3. Forming governmental departments and classifying administration into divisions.

2.3.1.2 The Ministries

The Oxford Dictionary (2012) defines ministry as a governmental department presided over by a minister. In terms of administrative structure, every ministry in Jordan has an administrative hierarchy with the minister at the top of the hierarchy. The minister’s liability for all administrative and political duties of his ministry makes the highest source of authority within the ministry. In addition, there is a team of employees, consultants along with the secretary general, supporting and helping the minister in the administration of the affairs within his authority in all the departments and division all over Jordan. Supervised by the minister, the secretary general is considered an executive manager whose job is to manage the ministry’s offices in all parts of Jordan (Al-Kayed et al., 1999). The number of the ministers is determined taking into account certain issues like need, public interest in addition to some other political and
administrative circumstances. The ministers are categorized into two types: sovereign ones like the Ministry of the Interior and service ones like the Ministry of Industry and Trade. At the time of writing this chapter, the number of the ministries in Jordan is 24, and that of employees in all ministries is 166731 and there are 214368 employees in civil service (CSB, 2015).

Figure 2.2 Public Administration Structure in Jordan

Full organisational structure presented in Appendix 1.
2.4.2 Decentralised Public Administration

The decentralised administration in Jordan consists of the public corporations and local administrations (municipalities).

2.4.2.1 Public organisations

Public organisations refer to an institutional body that maintains the independence of its management and finance and which has the goal of delivering various services contributing thereby to the achievement of a state’s functions (Massadeh, 1999). There are some general characteristics commonly shared by public corporations. For example, the establishment of public organisations should be by an act and the objective must be governmental functions achievement (Massadeh, 1999). In Jordan, there are several types of public institutions. Firstly, service organisations that provide its service directly for citizens - customers. Secondly, professional organisations, thirdly, economic organisations (Massadeh, 1999). At the time of writing this chapter, the total number of public corporations in Jordan is 47.

2.4.2.2 Local Administration

The Jordanian Constitution (1952: 91) states that municipal affairs must be administrated by municipal or local councils in a way that conforms to special laws. Jordan’s local administration is represented by the governors, branches of central government agencies and municipal councils. Governors represent the King and the government in all the different parts of Jordan. Further, the Minister of the Interior suggests a candidate become the head of all governorates if the Cabinet accepts to appoint this candidate. The role of the branches of central government agencies in delivering service to citizens in the various areas. As for the municipal councils, citizens elect these councils part from the Municipality of Greater Amman as it administrated by
a council containing an even number of elected and appointed members (Kayed et al., 1999; Batarseh, 2008). Jordan’s 12 governorates are equally dispersed in the northern, central and southern regions of the Kingdom and every governorate has similar government departments to those present in the capital. The number of Jordan’s municipalities at the time of writing this chapter is 105 (Ministry of Municipalities Affairs, 2015).

2.5 Civil Service in Jordan

In Jordan, civil service is the body of appointed officials covered by the civil service bylaw. It also covers the employees who occupy posts in government agencies. Civil service officials are covered by the civil service bylaw and they directed by the Prime Minister, perform the government’s functions (CSB, 2014). It is the Cabinet that has the power and right of excluding any government agency from the civil service bylaw, but this is not applicable to military personnel, foreign diplomats and the higher position in the Royal Hashemite Court (Almuanui, 2010). Since the government role is achieved through the civil service employees, civil service functions and the government’s role are mentioned interchangeably. Jordan’s civil service has embraced some values like giving all citizens equal opportunities as well as emphasising merit, eligibility and competitiveness in selection process. It also underscores accountability and efficient performance along with the importance of providing citizens with high-quality services.

2.6 The Context of Public Administration

To understand the issues and circumstance surrounding the Jordanian public sector, following sections will discuss the different aspects of the environmental impacting public administration in Jordan which include: political, economic, social, technology, and education issues.
2.6.1 Political Context

Though relatively small, Jordan has an undeniable political importance stemming from its location at the heart of the Middle East and from its borders with many countries including countries which are sources of oil (Massadeh, 1999). Jordan is close to Egypt and surrounded by the West Bank, Iraq and Syria as well as Saudi Arabia and it is considered a passageway, to the Western and Eastern parts of the world and to Africa. Hence, as Massadeh (1999) vies, these factors of Jordan’s location have qualified it to play a key role over the centuries.

Furthermore, since its emergence as a new state in the Middle East, Jordan has been exposed to danger and suffered many consequences, as stressed by Abu-Sheikha (1985) due to the political turmoil and the fierce wars which took place in the area. A list of political crises, which affected Jordan and left the Jordanian public administration with a heavy burden, include: the political upheavals within Jordan itself in the 1950s and in 1971, the 1948, 1967 and 1968 Israeli-Arabs wars, the 1980 Persian-Iraqi War, the second Gulf War of 1990, the Third Gulf war of 2003 (the American invasion of Iraq) and finally the current Syrian crisis which started in 2011.

Thus, many factors, especially political instability and scarcity of resources posed great difficulties and challenges to Jordan and its public administration. A case in point is what was caused by Iraq’s invasion of Kuwait on the second of August, 1990. At that time, Jordan refused to join the US-led coalition against Iraq; consequently, the US and the Arab Gulf allies of Jordan stopped all kinds of aid they used to grant of Jordan. As a result, the economic situation of Jordan became stake. Above all, the Gulf War led to another negative consequence in Jordan when the United Nations imposed a trade ban on Iraq because this also included a ban on the Iraqi trade with the largest export market of Jordan. Greenwood (2003) argues that the Gulf War led Jordan
to be economically vulnerable and this in turn severely threatened budget security in the Kingdom.

The examples discussed so far add evidence to the argument that through they intervene differently in different systems, societies and countries, governmental organisations have always played a crucial part in any society. Hansford (2009) argues that the public principles of governmental organisations are identical; however, the degree of these organisations involvement. There are many elements which impact the government when responding to the society’s needs; these elements include: political stability, democracy level, resources security and citizens’ expectations. In order to meet the society’s political requirements, a government finds itself obliged to keep working on new plans and regulations.

In the case of Jordan, changing and improving quality of life for Jordanian citizens was a priority; therefore, when King Abdullah II ascended the throne in 1999, the first step was adopting an inclusive plan of reforms. Accordingly, steps included, inter alia, developing the government and political environment as well as democratic process, introducing new education methods, concentrating on knowledge economy in addition to holding regular meetings with the local and national organisations and bodies (Bani-Ismail, 2012). Other steps to be mentioned also cover: achieving trade liberalisation and signing trade agreements with European countries and with the USA “Jordan signed a trade agreement with the USA in 1999” (Bani-Ismail, 2012).

However, since the start of the Arab Spring Movement in several Arab countries, a flood of refugees and immigrants have resorted to Jordan seeking safety and this, of course, is increasing the needs for more governmental services. To take one example, one can mention the increased pressure on the sector of education in Jordan due to the Syrian crisis as refugees’ children are
given free access to both primary and secondary schools in Jordan. This has led to a negative impact on Jordanian schools which originally have had their own problems like overcrowding in areas that have a high-density population (MOPIC- Jordan, 2013). According to UNHCR, the number of Syrians who sought refuge in Jordan has already exceeded 1.7 million (DOS, 2015). The continuous deterioration of the crises of Syria would add more pressure in Jordan due to the increased pressure on public goods, funds and services; this might also create more social tension and worsen the security level in Jordan (World Bank, 2013).

2.6.2 Economic Context

Jordan, in a similar situation to that of other developing countries, Jordan has had its economy changed from depending on agriculture industry and small business enterprises to relying on services such as (government service, fees, taxes, banks or financial services and ICT services). Accordingly, 80% of the Jordanian macroeconomic is currently based on service- providing organisations (DOS, 2014). Service-based economy rapidly grew in the 2000s when a good number of service organisations or suppliers emerged in different sectors and worked in competition with one another. Customers / citizens in Jordan now have a wider range of choices due to the recent regulations and privatization in the Kingdom, the increasing expansion and prevalence of globalisation and the marketplace becoming bigger and more international (Bani-Ismail, 2012). Whilst, such services still were provided by the governmental bodies.

Forming 13.6% of GDP in 2011 (DOS, 2011) and employing 27.3% of the total Jordanian workforce (DOS, 2014). Whereas in 2012, the growth of GDP was 2.7, in 2013- and in spite of the political instability in the region- the real growth of GDP was 3.1%. As for the level of inflation, which had been 4.7 in 2012 (CBJ, 2013) it was still in the acceptable range of 5.6 in
2013 when measured by the Consumer Price Index (CPI). The inflation rate decreased to reach 2.7% in 2014 (DOS, 2014). The reason for the improvement of Jordan’s public finance is the government’s commitment to its programs of reforms, both national and economic. For its part, fiscal deficit which was 8.3% of GDP in 2012 (CBJ, 2013), declined by 2.8% points to reach 5.5 of GDP in 2014.

2.6.3 Social Context

The nature of the public sector in Jordan can be best understood by being aware that the current administrative structures are the product of the past century and that both colonial and local cultural factors contributed to this production (Salem and Jarrar, 2009; Salem and Jarrar, 2010). For instance, the public sector was, in most cases, prevailed by patronage networks because of formal and informal systems in addition to the social and tribal institutional norms (Halima, 2008; Rugh, 2007).

The Jordanian society is based on the family and on the belief that family’s good reputation guarantees the high position and honour of all its members, regardless personal achievement; therefore, any person’s loyalty is to the family and this loyalty outweighs all other obligations (Nyrop, 1980: 82). Hofstede (1984) mentions this cultural element known as ‘collectivism’ referring to an inclination to a social structure that is knit closely where family members, who form a collectively, have reciprocal favours and allegiance. Yet, as contended by Jreisat (1989), these social values, attitudes and traditions which have allowed the family to subject the individual are in the process of being replaced nowadays though education, modern life standards and urbanisation.
Moreover, Islam, with Prophet Mohammed (PBUH) as a messenger and the Quran as guidance, is the main religion of the majority of Jordan’s population. Therefore, Islam is one of the most influential factors which contributed to founding and shaping the current system of values in Jordan (Ali, 1987). Like many other faiths, the influence of Islam is represented by the spiritual principles which it associates with work practices like working hard and with Itqan (the highest level of quality), having self-responsibility and self-control, being cooperative and accountable and maintaining transparency, honesty, trust and integrity (Melhem, 2003). Other values which Islam associates with work are Shura (participation) and justice (Abbasi, 2010).

In Islam, to be committed and dedicated to work is part of one’s righteousness. In Islam also, it is mandatory on any capable individual to make ample efforts to their work (Drawish, 2001). Even service quality is stressed in Islam which commands all Muslims to perfect their work and produce the best quality and this is what Itqan means (Hammoudeh, 2012). Hence, Islamic values are not meant to improve and regulate social life only, but also to encourage life fulfilment. Therefore, business motives are among the highest concerns of Islam which has a powerful role in all governmental and economic activities. Consequently, one can assume that people sticking to such principles are potentially prone to be more devoted to their organisations and having higher job satisfaction levels (Melhem, 2003).

To sum this section up, it can be re-emphasised that the social context of Jordan poses risks as well as offers opportunities which impact public administration’s ability to reach the desired end. Nonetheless, even though the predominant values of collectively in the Jordanian context cause some challenges due to the mere familial loyalty at the expense of other obligations, they can nature some positive aspects like collaboration, teamwork etc.
2.6.4 Technological Context

All government activities based on information both decisions and process of all governments. In the last decade, attention was centered on the information technologies used in what is known as the ‘electronic government’ (Schönberger and Lazer, 2007). Computerisation became ubiquitous in all fields whether in business or in citizens’ lives over the last two decades. In the early 1990s, networked hardware and software became not only accessible but also affordable paving the way for the emergence of the Internet which enables computers all around the world to be connected to the global information structure (Schönberger and Lazer, 2007).

Schönberger and Lazer, (2007) emphasise that such developments along with the drastic decrease of the expenses of telecommunication both in internal and external organisations have made government capable of the electronic delivery of their services. For its part, Jordan’s government realised the greatly significant role of information communication technology (ICT) which is very important as an economic sector as it stands alone and supports other public and private sectors. The Jordanian government, therefore, made great efforts to support the development of the sector of IT resorting to a multi-layered plan with the aim of fostering the domestic and international progress of the sector of in Jordan in addition to supporting the spread of IT usage in all the social strata of Jordan (MoICT, 2012).

Jordan’s government in 2007 approved a policy statement which achieved many objectives. The ICT committee achieved the following: a review of markets was completed with the aim detecting dominance cases and regulatory decisions were issued in order to dominance effects. Other achievements are the following: the increase of the number of telecommunications and postal licenses and adopting a new system of integrated licensing. In addition wireless operators
stated competition due to receiving frequency bands, and new internet providers were introduced to the market. The availability of certain frequency bands to be used through open general licensing, the fast increase of the use of mobile telephony, the remarkable growth of internet penetration, including broadband and the Information System Crime Law were all benefits of the 2007 policy statement. Moreover, the committee depends on the improvement of its transparency and process making its decisions and also achieved a better quality of its web sites and IT services (MoICT, 2013).

Jordan’s government began posting all government-related information such as laws, rules, regulations, official documents, forms, statistics and economic data online on its website making them accessible to the public who no longer need to physically travel to governmental offices most which are located in Amman (MoICT, 2013). Also, the government has made every effort to improve its international relations in terms of business by encouraging foreign ICT investments in the Kingdom (Kanaan, 2009). Thus, as many writers agree (e.g. Abu-Samaha and Abdel-Samad, 2007, Kanaan, 2009), by starting and developing its e-government projects, Jordan’s has had the aim of enhancing the government vision with the following points of focus:

1. Improving the quality of service delivery and increasing speed of interaction among government, citizens and business as well as among other governmental unities and departments.

2. Using new contact modes for providing public sector information and service in way which can improve the government responsiveness to customer needs.

3. Increasing the government’s transparency by increasing the public’s accessibility to services and public participation.
4. Time and money saving which can be achieved by raising the level of proficiency in governmental processing partly through resorting common technology standards and polices in addition to the contribution of financial reforms within the public originations.

2.6.5 Educational Context

The educational system in Jordan has progressed dramatically. To reach a developed human capital, Jordan started almost from nothing in the 1920s, but later a comprehensive, high quality system was forged. Education became accessible to Jordanian even in poor and distant parts of the Kingdom. Since it was decided that a school should be stablished and built in any village and for any community containing 10 or more school-going children. Until the age of 15, all children of Jordan are offered free compulsory public education in primary and secondary schools. Consequently, the rate of children’s school exceeded 95% (Tawissi, 2008). Jordan’s policy of prioritising spending on basic education to than on higher education has achieved the goal of raising the number of students’ enrolment and has increased the level of literacy among Jordanians (Tawissi, 2008).

Jordan’s quantitative and qualitative development in education was significant over the past five decades during which great successes were achieved in school buildings, student enrolments and illiteracy levels reduction, especially among women (the percentage of illiterate population deteriorated from 68.2% in 1961 to 4% in 2015 (DOS, 2015). Due to the Jordanian leadership’s awareness of and action according to the necessity of preparing a competitive human capital to respond to future challenges, Jordan’s educational record is impressive according to international criteria (Twaissi, 2008). So in terms of the level of education, Jordan is the best among Arab countries and among the best developing world (Abu-Orabi, 2012).
Jordan’s educational system achieves gender equality and, for this achievement, it was classified eighteenth in the world by UNESCO. As for the budget allocated to education in Jordan, it is follows: 11% of the total of the government is dedicated to the ministry of Education and 20.5% of the government’s budget is spent on education in general (DOS, 2014). Consequently, Jordan is recognised as a country with a highly-educated population. For example, whereas in Islamic countries there is an average of 500 researchers per a million people, in Jordan the average is: 2000 researchers per a million people (Abu-Orabi, 2012).

Jordan’s qualitative achievements in education include the following: the comprehensive restructuring of curricula especially in the field of information technology in order for Jordan to cope with development process, developing instruction quality and supervising education (DOS, 2008). However, despite the progress Jordan has achieved in education systems, there are still some problems like in the case of Jordan’s higher education systems, such as academic brain drain, lack of funding and nepotism (Wasta) (Aladwan, 2014). In this respect, Jordanian government wants to provide a high quality university education to guarantee better chances for the coming generations to both in Jordan and aboard. In brief, education is central and influential factors in the process of developing the Jordanian public administration which requires employees with high skills and qualifications who can respond to the emergent ‘excellence journey’ and who can achieve an effective service delivery.

2.7 Administrative Development in Jordan

Since 1970s several initiatives have been launched to improve the public administration departments in Jordan (Jreisat, 1988; Adwan and Ellayan, 1986; Durra, 1991). As Durra (1991) highlights, these attempts were a reaction to the internal and external difficulties encountered by
political leadership in their efforts to achieve the modernisation of administration practices and process. In addition, Durra (1991) argues that what was required for public administration’s revival was the decrease of bureaucracy in governmental organisations.

In Jordan’s case, public administration has always been an essential means to achieve the socio-economic development. Public administration has many roles starting from maintaining security to the direct delivery of services to citizens (Jreisat, 2009). The reform of Jordan’s public sector started three decades ago, and the goal was the development of the public administration system, so that it better meets customers’ needs and interests leading thereby to more productive and successful governance. The Jordanian leadership has been aware that public administration reforms and development have always been a condition of economic, social and political progress to be achieved. Hence, improving administration has ever been the main item in every Jordanian Prime Minister’s political agenda since the 1960s (Jreisat, 1989).

The head of state and Prime Ministers constantly demand studies for certain challenges that face the Jordan’s public administration, so that recommendations can be offered and decisions can be made to enhance public administration (Jreisat, 1989). In the 1970s, many national committees were appointed to discuss and recommend changes in administration. With great publicity and national attention, the Royal Committee for Administration Development stated its duties after the 1984 royal decree. Headed by the Prime Minister, this committee’s members are ministers, technocrats and academicians. Its duties are: providing a comprehensive analysis and evaluation of the administration systems and suggesting solutions for development and changes (A Jreisat, 1989; Al-Farhan and Alsokkar, 2002).
After the Royal Committee announced its recommendations, public administration’s part is presenting development projects and action plans for implementing these recommendations. Changes started with every governmental organisation having the Organisation and Methods (O&M) department the role of which is developing organisational structures, procedures, services processes and methods of work. The O&M Departments make efforts to be up to its creating new organisational charts, restructuring the work flow, achieving the red tape reduction, eliminating responsibilities duplication and proposing actions to further the administration improvement objectives (Adwan and Ellayan, 1986: 41). Table 2.1 illustrates the history of administrative development and reform in Jordan.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>The initiative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1984</td>
<td>The royal committee for administrative development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1989</td>
<td>Public administration development project 1989-1992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>Ministry of administrative development 1994-2002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1997</td>
<td>King Hussein Prize for Administrative Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1999</td>
<td>The committee of public sector reform (Phase 1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>Modernize and develop public sector program (phase1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2002</td>
<td>King Abdullah II Award for Excellence in Government performance &amp; transparency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2004</td>
<td>Public sector reform program 2004-2009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>National Agenda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>Regionalization program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>King Abdullah Center for Excellence (KACE)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006</td>
<td>Ministry of Public sector development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>Government Re-structuring Project (HRM)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2015</td>
<td>National Integrity Project (NIP)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: the author

The establishment of ministry of administrative development, which has a prominent role in reforming administration, came in 1994. The Jordanian council of administrative reform insisted and kept working on policy formulation and development planning regards the systems of civil service (Massadeh, 1999). It was not until the 2000s that the public sector shifted from the phase
of administrative reform to incessant progress and institutional development. Simultaneously, Jordan’s government concentrated on the idea of quality which has been a priority since 1970s, specifically the year 1972 which witnessed the government’s establishment of a quality unit responsible for the Ministry of Industry and Trade’s standards and specifications. This unit is Jordan’s first official governmental origination concerned with issues of quality (Twaissi 2008). The first of this unit’s arrangement was focusing on production and design related specifications.

In 1995, Jordan’s Standards and Metrology Organisation (JSMO) became the main assisting body for the Jordanian government to monitor quality and determine product standards and specifications. Later, JSMO turned into an independent body increasing developments until it became internationally recognised in terms of quality certification, standards and criteria (JSMO, 2014). JSMO’s top priority was enhancing Jordan’s economy and the means to this was ensuring national products quality be defining the proper specifications and standards which would enable Jordanian products to be competitive in the markets of Jordan and of the world (Standards and Metrology Law, 2000- article: 4). Further, it aimed at establishing a measurement systems and maintaining quality by depending on global practices.

Since 1996, the King and the government’s directions have placed service delivery improvement as the top priority. Therefore, the wide-ranging strategy of development covered the following three arenas: public sector restructuring, service development and policies for improving human resources. consequently, in order to implement the government’s service development strategy, bylaws were formulated for improving governmental service efficiency and competence, excellence and taking customer satisfaction as the basis for the re-evaluation of the service delivered and their delivery methods. The Jordanian government emphasized taking selected
international experiences and successful practices which have directly led to developing both customer perceptions and customer relationships with government (MOPSD, 2012).

As a result, King Hussein announced his prize for administrative development in 1997 and it was this prize which launched the journey of TQM and organisational excellence in the Kingdom’s public sector. The aim of this prize was the encouragement and acceleration of administration improvement in Jordan’s governmental departments. Besides, the prize was meant to encourage employees and stimulate competition among them for a better performance and a high quality of public services delivery (Civil Service Bureau, 1999).

Later, King Abdullah II’s award for Excellence in Government Performance and Transparency (KAA), announced in 2002, triggered the shift to qualitative phase of Jordan’s public sector excellence. Nationally speaking, KAA is the highest award for excellence in the public sector (KACE, 2012). The target of this award was improving the public sector role in serving all Jordanian communities and serving the investment community as well by raising awareness of TQM and performance excellence. Another goal of this award was underscoring the public sector’s outstanding exertions and hard work as well as shedding light on its achievements and successes in the field of the development of its system and public services (KACE, 2015).

The award aims not only at an outstanding change and improvement of the government and public organizations’ services for Jordanian citizens and investors, but also at encouraging positive competitiveness among governmental organisations. This can be accomplished by raising awareness of excellence in performance, novelty and quality and embedding the culture of quality and excellence which is one of the three bases for the best practice in the world (KACE, 2014). In order to reach the phase of achieving the best for the interest of Jordanians and both
local and foreign investors, KAA strives to support the exchange of experiences of excellence in performance among the governmental organisations by encouraging each of them to share stories of their successes in the field of administration practices (KACE, 2012). Thus, KAA shows the Jordanian leadership’s appreciation and respect for all the government departments, institutions and employees that are distinguished in performance, productivity, services, projects, programmes and work methods (KACE, 2012).

Many governmental bodies in Jordan have made a remarkable progress in taking initiatives. According to KACE (2012), 70% of Jordan’s public organisations, governmental departments and ministries have the ISO certification and 60% have systems to deal with ‘customer voice’. In addition, all the public organisations have strategic plans which include specific visions, missions and SMART goals. KAA’s assessment of the public sector projects is done resorting to various approaches such as: suggestion systems, procedures of complaint, quality circles/teams, the managerial audition of quality, the use of key performance indicators (KPIs), mystery shopping, customer satisfaction survey, re-engineering projects, continuous improvement teams, etc. in order to evaluate the degree of improvement and progress of governmental organisations performance, the KAA provides a reference guide and a list of standards and this plays a great part in the development of the public sector and raises its performance level (KACE, 2012). After establishing the TQM culture in the public sector, KACE has moved to focus on other issues like service quality and government innovation. Thus, KACE announced two new awards: ‘Excellent Service Award (ESA)’ and the ‘Government Innovation Award (GIA)’. ESA seeks finding the practical framework raising governmental organisations’ services level (KACE, 2014). Its aim is creating and implanting the culture of TQM in performance in government organisations by encouraging these organisations through the competition for the award to achieve efficacy and
excellence in delivering services to all citizens equally. Moreover, in order to better the quality of services and to achieve a high degree of customer satisfaction ESA concerned with developing mechanisms and systems that are proper for dealing with the ‘voice of customers’ inter alia, these mechanisms include: dealing with complaints and suggestions, measuring levels of customer satisfaction, and activating communication channels. As regards GIA, it has the goal of inspiring governmental organisations to depend on innovation as their chosen mechanism, so that they can excellently implement their processes and deliver their services. It is also meant to create an atmosphere of support and encouragement which helps employees to invest their abilities and initiatives and discover and use their talents and skills (KACE, 2014). In brief, Jordan’s reforms of the public sector were achieved depending on the following six motivators which were consolidated by applying TQM and excellence models (see Table 2.2).

**Table 2.2 Excellence motivators in Jordanian public sector**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Excellence Pillars</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Results oriented</td>
<td>Where the key standard of the process of developing policy and organisations and identifying procedures dependent on the achievement of the results (Nashash, 2013: 36).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transparency</td>
<td>Where there is a need for providing effective mechanisms for public accountability assurance on the government policies and performance (Nashash, 2013: 36).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decentralisation</td>
<td>Where the authority for achieving the results must be transferred to the lower executing levels and where this transfer happens with the condition of complete authorization and providing the required administrative authorities to effectively deploy the needed resources (Nashash, 2013: 36).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational performance</td>
<td>The development of the performance of public sector organisations a new which parallels the policies and programmes of the national agenda policies and this can be achieved through the following: policy and decision making, governmental organisations restructuring, performance management and service delivery, adapting technology, procedures simplification and finally – HRM and financial resources dimension (Jreisat, 2009).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborative management</td>
<td>Jordan’s administration systems should maintain their traditional command and control structures as well as processes in a manner that facilitates collaborative management which is necessary for meeting their responsibilities committing to their policies according to the new context (Jreisat, 2009: 46).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The optional utilisation of financial resources</td>
<td>When the achievement of results can be done in the best way that costs the best value for both customers and taxpayers, all governmental practices and processes should depend on the optional use of the financial resources (Nashash, 2013: 36).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.8 Sample Organisations in this Study and their services

The author selected the sample organisations or cases from a very specific vein of public service: government entities. Government organisations offer services of various types. The following sections briefly described each of those services according to each organisation that was part of this research.

2.8.1 Jordanian Customs (JC)

A sector that is rapidly changing in Jordan is international trade with its growing progressively more global in nature, with new logistical systems for transporting people and goods and exchanging information with good speed (Edvardsson and Enquist, 2006). Established in 1923, the Jordanian customs (JC) as a governmental organisation, has had a more customer based-role. During the recent years, JC has made changes by successfully implementing many projects for improving its services and increasing accountability and efficiency. Examples of JC’s projects are: re-engineering projects, QM projects, computerisation projects, etc. JC’s responsibility is delivering services to different types of customers like citizens, traders, investors, companies, and governmental agencies. The JC Law (2010) divides its services into services of temporary entry, exemptions, secretariats, guarantees, car-stay extensions, re-fees, permits, fees and differences. The majority of customs services were provided directly for customers, usually, these required direct contact between service employees and customers.

2.8.2 The Ministry of Industry and Trade (MoIT)

MoIT was established in 1975 (MoIT, 2015). As for its services, four main services groups which are those to trademarks™, patents, industrial designs and drawings, and called post registration. Post registration which extensive correspondence between service providers and customers cover
many areas like the public announcement of a trader registration, notification of trademark license to use, notification of cancellation of a license agreement of TM, modifying TM renewing, changing the owner’s name or the owners address and the notification of cancelling a TM registration (MOIT, 2014).

2.8.3 The Drivers and Vehicle Licensing Department (DVLD)

The history of the DVLD goes back to 1926 and this organisation is a public service which performs under the umbrella of the Public Security Department (PSD). With the increase of customers’ needs and in order to properly meet their expectations, the DVLD inaugurated 20 offices during the period ranging from 1990 to 2006, covering thereby the needs of all parts of Jordan. Like other Jordanian public sector organisations, the DVLD developed the quality of the delivery of its services through many projects like decentralisation, automation, quality system, procedure simplification and others and most important is maintaining of human capital. Responding to the needs of citizens, insurance companies, governmental bodies, and car training companies and others is the main duty of the DVLD. The major services of the DVLD are in two areas. First, in relation to drivers, the DVLD is responsible for drivers’ licensing including: testing applicants for new driving licenses and issuing and renewing expired driving licenses. Second, regarding vehicles, the DVLD presents services in vehicle registration and licensing which include: running a technical examination of the vehicles, registration and renewal the vehicles (DVLD, 2014).

2.8.4 Department of Land and Survey (DLS)

It was under the Ottoman Land Law in 1857 that the DLS started historically. Again, by implementing several projects like the ones related to procedure re-engineering which started in
the 2000s, e-government, knowledge management, and strategic planning over the past decades, the DLS has enhanced its performance and workplace environment. The current DLS Bylaw No (80: 1999) defines the DLS services as follows: surveying services, registration the lands and properties. However, these services require direct contact between employees and customers / citizens. In addition, DLS provides indirect services such as maintaining the records of lands and properties.

2.8.5 Social Security Corporation (SSC)

The Jordanian Social Security Corporation (SSC) was established in 1978 due to Jordan developing both economically and socially. The SSC has been able to increase its excellence in performance through its investment in its human resources, creating strategic plans to expand the scope of its services, incessant developmental projects in automation, social responsibility and quality management like the ISO 9000. In addition, the SSC delivers pension-related services including: early retirement pension, unemployment insurance service, maternity insurance service, work injury pension, registration and opening new subscriptions for firms, optional affiliation services and others (SSC, 2014). However, all these services require direct contact between employees and customers.

2.8.6 Income and Sales tax Department (ISTD)

The ISTD is an amalgamation of the income tax department (ITD) and the general sales tax department (GSTD) which were merged in the ISTD in 2004. Through the – ITD was established in 1951, tax legislation continued to be amended repeatedly in order for legislation to be developed, keeping pace with the economic and social changes and filling the gaps which are discovered during application (ISTD, 2015). The modernisation of ISTD started in the 1990s and continued
with a number of projects like e-government, e-paying, financial reform, restructuring and quality management projects. The different services of the ISTD delivered to individuals and organisations in both private and public sectors. As for the tax services and sales tax services.

2.8.7 Greater Amman Municipality (GAM)

The first city council was established in 1909, and in 1987 this city council became Greater Amman Municipality (GAM). Later, GAM started to be gradually developed in terms of administration by implementing various quality projects in organisational structure development; using new HR systems, decentralisation and TQM systems. GAM’s provide several kinds of services such as constructional, social, economic and cultural services. However, this research mainly concentrates on the direct services that involve interaction between service employees and customers. In addition, among GAM’s responsibilities are: providing an initial approval of construction blueprints, occupancy permit renewal, issuing new vocational licenses (within and outside organisational region), vocational licenses renewal, traffic-related or noisy vocations licenses and transferring ownership (commercial/industrial) (GAM, 2010).

2.8.8 Ministry of Labor (MOL)

Historically, the duties of the MLO formed part of those of the Ministry of Social Affairs. The year 1960 witnessed the foundation of the first department concerned with the law of labour (21, 1960). Later, the government’s duties as well as business activities increased in Jordan; therefore, the establishment of the MOL became a necessity and it materialised in 1976 (MOL, Annual Report, 2012). Similar to what the above discussed organisations did, with the desire for increasing its administrative efficiency, the MOL resorted to many projects in: the efficiency of management, e-employment development, MIS, education and training. The four groups of the services which the
MOL delivers to customers are: labour recruitment services, legal services, inspection services and employment and training services (MOL, 2015). Among its services, there are 46 direct examples of which are: recruitment for foreign workforce and issuing and renewing work permits.

2.8.9 Civil Status and Passport Department (CSPD)

It was in 1929 when a law was passed to regulate issuing passports. At first, the Passport Department was one of the Jordan Arab Army’s responsibilities, and it was commanded by an army officer. However, at later stages, the Passport Department was not related to the army anymore as the new body that took this responsibility was the Ministry of the Interior. It was not until 1977 that his department became independent under the name: The Civil Status Department (CSPD, Website, 2015) and in 1988, passport services were added to this department which since then has been known as the Civil Status and Passport Department (CSPD). The CSPD is accountable for delivering more than 100 direct services for the public, classified into four categories: civil certificates services, family book services, personal ID services and passport services (CSPD, services Guide Book, 2015).

2.8.10 Central Traffic Department (CTD)

Traffic in Jordan was first organised and regulated in 1926 when a department was established for that purpose under the Jordan Arab Army’s command. Traffic administration adjoined the Public Security Directorate (PSD) in 1946. Since then, the PSD has been modified on several occasions in terms of the legal and administrative structure. The Central Traffic Department was established in 1990 and started delivering a variety of services to the public, with most of them directly delivered and some indirectly, and they cover four categories: licensing, traffic violations, occupation licenses and accidents (CTD, 2015).
2.9. Chapter Summary

This chapter aimed to provide a holistic overview of the Jordanian context. The chapter has also presented information about public administration in Jordan, the focus of this research study. In addition, it has presented a detailed account of the kinds of services which Jordan’s governmental organisations deliver. It has been illustrated in this chapter that since the early stages of its establishment, in particular since the mid-1950s until now, public administration has been changing rapidly and constantly. The increasing demand for modernisation and an impartial and successful delivery of government services have been caused by the gradual waning of the tribal system, the educational quality improvement and Jordanian citizens’ shift of focus to public issues (Jreisat, 1989). In conclusion, we can argue that public administration in Jordan is abreast of both opportunities and challenges and that it might be able to achieve efficiency given the surrounding environment which impacts it. Having considered the Jordanian context, the next chapter reviews the general, but relevant, literature on TQM.
3.1 Introduction

Due to dynamic external developments, there have been dramatic changes to the processes of public sector organisations as well as their procedures and systems over the last twenty years. These transformations allow, inter alia, communication to be speedier and information to be obtained more easily due to the technological advances, in addition to the collateral changes in citizen or stakeholder expectations (Aladwan and Forrester, 2016). What also has contributed to the changes is the desire for benefiting from the experiences of private sector industries resulting in public organisations adopting TQM and the numerous forms of excellence models of management (Porter and Tanner, 2004: 3). As far as service and quality conformance in Jordanian public sector organisations are related and with the aim of improving their processes, services and reputation, these organisations have introduced new methods and systems like ISO 9000 quality systems and EFQM excellence models (Aladwan and Forrester, 2016). Moreover, that TQM can be said to have contributed vitally to both enhancing the development theory and exploring the way several theories of management can combine to harmoniously work for the advantage of organisational excellence.

On the macro level, the TQM approach is not as contentious currently as it has been previously and it has grown universally acceptable that embracing this approach can help organisations to attain and improve competitive advantages. In this regard, Zairi (2013: 675) argues that by dominating the world’s economy for more than fifty years, Japan is one of the best examples. He also contends that by reclaiming its competitive position through its encouragement of using TQM
thinking in governmental services and the public sector rather than only in the private sector, the USA is also one of the best examples (Zairi, 2013: 675).

Yet, without engaging people, employees and customers, the aims of the TQM theory cannot be achieved. Therefore, it is not surprising to witness the increasing attention on the part of HR and ergonomics scholars and practitioners to the possibility of the fruitful combination of human factors and TQM (Drury, 1997; Taveira et al., 2003). Indirectly, good service and quality provision stem from TQM and its associated employee attitudes toward the work and their organisations. This chapter places the TQM system in its wider organisational context with a particular focus on the public sector. It is worth assessing TQM’s stages and historical perspective. The chapter analyses the TQM literature more profoundly covering its concepts and critical factors, and drawing upon the main writers’ contributions in the area of quality. TQM theory in public administration is considered and reflected.

3.2 The Concept of TQM

The acronym TQM has become an expansively used one in the field of management studies and a very popular word in the transformation of the public management practices. Both quality practitioners and managers have widely approved of TQM as a change philosophy for organisational improvement (Talib et al., 2010; Arumugam et al., 2009). TQM was first developed by American statisticians between the 1920s and 1940s, most notably Deming, who built upon Walter Shewhart’s initial work on statistical process control. Deming’s philosophy and approaches, however, were adopted more enthusiastically in post-World War II Japan than in his native country, the USA (Magd and Curry, 2003).
TQM is a demanding and complex concept making it not possible for a few paragraphs to comprehensively summarise it (Swiss, 1992: 357). It has been defined as an organisation’s way of life when this organisation resorts to improving constantly in devotion to customer satisfaction (Lammermeyr, 1991: 175). However, in simple terms, TQM is a logical improvement to the traditional way of business. It has been argued to be a proven strategy that guarantees survival while encountering the world-class competition. Transforming a whole organisation’s behaviour as well as culture is only achievable through altering managerial procedures and managers’ actions (Besterfield et al., 1995: 1).

The best way to comprehend the TQM concept is to divide it into its three main words as follows: Total is equivalent to ‘made up of the whole’, Quality refers to the excellence degree of a product or service and Management with its main functions identified here as: planning, training, leading and controlling (Besterfield et al., 1995). In a similar vein, Oakland (2003) argues that TQM should be viewed as a holistic approach to the application and increase of organisational efficiency and effectiveness through the functions of management and to understanding each individual’s participation and every activity at every organisational level. TQM is regarded as an important philosophy of management and a collection of principles and practices not only addressing quality management but also the management of quality that supports organisations in their exertions for improving quality and satisfying customers and employees (Deming, 1986; Smadi and Al-Khawaldeh, 2006).

For the American Federal Quality Institute, TQM is “strategic, integrated management systems for achieving customer satisfaction, it involves all employees and managers and uses quantitative methods to improve consciously an organisations process” (Harrison and Stupak, 1993: 417).
From people perspective, TQM can be defined as a business style contingent on the management’s as well as employees’ talents and aptitudes in availing and providing products and services of a high quality and enhancing them unceasingly (Noe, 2002: 462). Ku (2010) asserts this idea by defining TQM as stakeholders’ satisfaction achievable through enacting effective policies, programmes and strategies and competently employing human and other kinds of resources. Accordingly, TQM’s major goals are considered to be the enhancement of both employees’ motivation and loyalty to the organisation.

Almost all the definitions of TQM refer to its two sides: the soft and the hard (Fotopoulos and Psomas, 2009: 151). TQM’s soft side is related to some managerial practices like organisational leadership, empowerment, commitment, training, excellence culture and employees’ involvement. Hence, TQM can be regarded as compatible with assigned responsibility, open management styles and improved employee autonomy (Wilkinson et al., 1992; Lashley, 1997). The “hard” side, for its part, covers technical concepts that include, statistical control and quality tools. This approach, as stressed by Wilkinson et al. (1992), results in increasing systemisation and decreasing the role of employees’ discretion. Nonetheless, the influence of this approach and analogous initiatives on the perceptions of customers is less (Tilston, 1989).

Maybe this back to human nature of service organisations (Psychogios, 2003). More specifically, the hard sides of TQM have a positive impact on people. However, it does not address human-related issues within the service organisations in any depth (Psychogios, 2003). For example, Smith and Lewis (1989) think that these technical initiatives positively impact quality and argue that this most probably occurs as part of a wider change in the culture of the organisation. In practice, TQM currently tends to be an incorporation of the hard and soft sides. Whilst
simultaneously viewing all employees of the organisation as parts of one team, this approach depends on balancing TQM’s scientific approach (Lashley, 1997).

Gronroos (1984) highlights the significance of issues related to employees, including: customer-employee relationships as well as employee attitudes, relationships, personality and appearance, for the achievement of quality outcomes in service organisations (Psychogios, 2003). Apart from general, often elusive hypotheses about human resources, TQM’s soft side is largely overlooked by the technical literature. Despite the issues above, in the current business world, the technical approach to TQM is the most commonly adopted. Yet, the approach has a major problem which is its “failure to contextualise fully the analysis or recommendations concerning QM in public services” (McCabe et al., 1988: 397).

Moreover, with the technical approach, no organisational problems are identified and no explanation is provided of why and how quality initiatives fail in addressing such problems (McCabe et al., 1988: 397). In other words, TQM’s technical literature often fails to see or it neglects any problems connected with organisational politics, conflict situations, power, employee satisfaction or resistance to management control, affecting in practice the successful implementation of management vicissitudes (Psychogios, 2003).

Concerning the contingency approach to TQM, it concentrates on the human sides of organisational life (Psychogios, 2003). In this approach, TQM is dealt with from a perspective that is less idealistic and more pragmatic, avoiding the argument that TQM is a new refined method for work identification and exploitation or a panacea model universally applicable (Psychogios, 2003). According to the contingency approach, the application of TQM and the influence of this application are dependent on the organisational context. By resorting to this approach, judging
TQM implementation as negative or positive is also avoided as this varies with different contexts whether individual or organisational (Psychogios, 2003). The contingency literature on TQM can be further classified into the pragmatic and the re-organisation of control perspectives the two of which are interconnected.

Basically, the pragmatic perspective is advocated by numerous theorists including (see for example, Hill and Wilkinson 1995). Depending on this perspective, TQM is thought to show some potential of improving performance and upgrading industrial democracy which, in turn, contributes to a better product and service quality since it does not disregard the organisation’s social factors (Hill, 1995). However, important implications for every organisation’s employees are found in TQM’s message prescribing that all functions and employees should take part in the development process and that a quality culture plus quality systems are required for the organisation to guarantee this collective participation (Hill, 1995). Moreover, Hill (1995) vies that the individuals governing corporations seem to be much more resolute to achieve success with this most recent development than they were ever previously.

Specifically, in the context of government services, TQM is a strategy of organisational change aiming at realising objectives of productivity and quality by deploying process enhancement methods and without extra resources (Milakovich, 1991). Furthermore, the focus points of TQM are: customer satisfaction, examining the relationships between current management processes, the improvement of internal communications and meeting all customers’ valid demands both internally and externally (Milakovich 1991). Quality, in the TQM theory, indicates whatever is valuable for both the customer and the public service organisation. As a final word, TQM has become greatly people oriented and so has offered implications for research on organisational
behaviour. Finally, though the academic attention to TQM has increased, research on TQM’s behavioural aspects in the public sector is unsystematic and relatively insufficient (Wickamaratne, 2013).

3.3 TQM: An Evaluation Perspective

Quality as practice is not new a concept. For example, quality practices were implemented by many ancient civilisations, as by the artefacts and built structures that remain today. A case in point is the quality that was evident back in the Xia Dynasty of the 21st century BC in ancient China (Kemenade, 2014). Quality was mentioned in the Qur’an more than 1400 years ago and the Arabic equivalent for it is *Itqan* which means the highest level of quality. The theory and practice of modern day TQM has its origins at the threshold of last century. Since then, TQM has passed into the quality control, continuous improvement and the commitment paradigms (Kemenade, 2010) which will be explained in the following sections.

3.3.1 The Quality Control (CQ) Paradigm

Emerging during the industrial revolution, specifically during the 1920s, this paradigm had the main characteristics concentrating on the end product. Later, mass production became more widespread and this made the inspection of every single product too costly. Then, maintaining the required level of quality grew harder as this necessitated the rise of employee numbers and an increase of the complexity of work. This revealed the urgency of enhancing QC within organisations using statistical sampling techniques. Initially, QC relied on strict rules and

---

5 The notion of classifying the paradigms into control, continuous and commitment is based on the work of Kemenade (2014).
hierarchical structures, procedures and processes that were routine and bureaucratic. Thus, QM was viewed as necessary, but time consuming and costly (Kemenade, 2014). Later, in London around 1946, British standards established the forerunner of what is now known as ISO (International Standards Organisation), standards with the aim of enhancing quality assurance (QA). After it had been viewed as inspection and control, the concept of quality, at this stage, witnessed the shift to processes management. In terms of quality assurance, many organisations dedicated themselves to establishing QA systems for the aims of problem prevention and improving procedures and processes (Dale, 1994). Over the years, there has been a notable increase in the number of public organisations registering to the standards. As for ISO 9000, it can be defined as a chain of standards concerned with quality management systems which can be adopted for external QA purposes (Singh and Mansour-Nahra, 2006).

When considering the human perspective, and based on McGregor’s Theory X, employees have a low maturity level, do not take responsibility or even lazy (McGregor, 1960). Theory X tended to dominate management thinking, making thereby quality leadership and directing both task oriented and centralised. The style of leadership was directive or autocratic with a limited scope for wider participation (Hersey and Blanchard, 1993). In such control systems, above all other attributes, quality managers were required to have statistical / measurement knowledge and skills (Kemenade, 2014).

3.3.2 The Continuous Improvement (CI) Paradigm

The control paradigm gradually transformed into a paradigm of CI giving more importance to customer satisfaction than to making good products. Therefore, the priority of quality management under this paradigm is meeting the increase in the expectations and needs of customers. Kemenade
(2010) suggests that this paradigm is characterised by productivity as well as entrepreneurship. Moreover, the organisation is viewed as a system.Incrementally, there is a shift from mechanistic organisations to organic ones. For example, an organisation can be regarded as a social entity and an open system where several factors including norms, shared values, systems, structures, skills, strategies, management styles and above all people are in continuous interaction (Athos and Pascale, 1986). The quality concept shifted from “conformance to product and process requirement” (Crosby, 1979) to “fitness for purpose or fitness to use” (Juran, 1998) and this caused more attention to be paid to the customer in service and manufacturing firms equally. Two main tools of CI were developed under this paradigm, the first of which is the Deming Cycle including four PDCA (Plan, Do, Check, and Act) (Deming, 1986). This tool was then developed to be deployed in RADAR, an excellence self-assessment model (EFQM, 2015) which was widely used in the public sector.\(^6\) The second tool is the kaizen approach with its people-oriented focus. Accordingly, it is the responsibility of all the organisation’s employees including top management and employees of all operational levels to participate in the process of continuous improvement (Berger, 1997).

From the human perspective, it is assumed that the vision of men more akin to McGregor’s Theory Y (McGregor, 1960), where employees like their jobs (Kemenade, 2014), seek responsibility, are creative and can exercise self-direction (Kini and Hobson, 2002). Further, though focusing more on human relationships, the leadership of quality and excellence is still task oriented. As for the style of leadership, it has transformed into a more coaching and selling type (Hersey and

---

\(^6\) **RADAR**: R: Results, A: Approach, D: Deploy, A: Assess, R: Refine
It is acknowledged that quality managers need to have interpersonal, social, communication and other soft skills.

### 3.3.3 The Commitment Paradigm

The relationship between this paradigm and the previous one is complementary. Many theorists agree that continuous improvement is not attainable without employees’ commitment to the satisfaction of customer expectations and needs. For Deming (1986), as one example, quality is achieving customer satisfaction that exceeds all expectations. It is from this belief that the high importance of employees originates. The translation of the Japanese term ‘kaizen’ has been changed by Imai (1986) from continuous improvement to “everyone, everyday, everywhere” improvement (EEEI) implying that without the considerable attention to employees, an organisation will not be able to enhance its systems, quality and service. In short, the focus on people is the major feature of this paradigm where the goal of TQM is to achieve what surpasses customer expectations, so that the quality and excellence of the service provided becomes exceptional (Kemenade, 2014).

Quality is defined as delighting the customer. For example, in the public sector, the Dubai Programme for Excellence now aims to delight the citizens - customers, exceeding basic customer satisfaction. For example, the last update for the Shiekh Mohammad Bin Rashed Award for Government Excellence, added new criteria that focus on the happiness of both employees and customers. In another example, the King Abdullah Award in Jordan gave more weight for employee satisfaction in its model. These modifications reflect several issues such as the increased recognition of the importance of employees in governmental organisations and the need to pay more attention to people as a main motivator for excellence in the public sector.
In the commitment paradigm, the organisations need to be flatter in structure, decentralised, and empowered. Under this paradigm, the organisation requires competences in socialisation; that is, the ability to be involved in and to maintain external relationships with customers and stakeholders and the capability of stimulating employees (Kemenade, 2014), giving them the feelings of satisfaction, elevation and happiness. As far as the human perspective is related, this paradigm can be seen as adopting Theory Z (Ouchi, 1981) in its view of people. Accordingly, what organisations are required to do is supporting employees and facilitating their jobs. In this paradigm, quality leadership is relationship oriented. The style of leadership is participative (Hersey and Blanchard, 1993), the process of decision making is consensual (Ouchi, 1981) and the soft personal skills, self-management and self-consciousness are the characteristics that must be available in managers (Kemenade, 2014).

Finally, I can say that the above paradigms are linked and complementary. Diagram (3.1) summarises these paradigms. Also, we can conclude that there is a systematic change toward the caring of people when we move from the control stage to the continuous improvement and commitment stages. More specifically, being people-oriented is considered as a main characteristic for the last stage of TQM. Other issues that can be concluded from the above discussion include the existence of a complementary relationship between the soft and hard sides of TQM. For example, merely applying hard concepts is not enough to achieve the goals of TQM as there is a high necessity to consider and incorporate the human factor.

Figure 3.1 Theory C (Control, Continuous Improvement and Commitment)
3.3.4 TQM and Organisational Excellence

As implied in Theory C, TQM and excellence are considered as the latest paradigms in the quality journey. In terms of meaning, excellence and quality were originally used interchangeably in public sector contexts (Mansour and Jakka, 2013). Excellence is defined in the Oxford English Dictionary (OED, 2012) as the quality of being outstanding or extremely good. Moreover, there are various connotations suggested by ‘excellence’ which are related to quality, greatness, superiority, mastery and accomplishment (Aladwan and Forrester, 2016). As described by EFQM, organisational excellence denotes exceptional practices in both the management of the organisation and result achievement, on the basis of the following eight principal concepts: customer focus, results orientation, leadership, purposeconstancy, management by processes and facts, the development and involvement of people, continuous learning, innovation and improvement (Gupta, 2013).

Since TQM is a system of management applicable in any organisation, it is possible for every organisation to form an opinion of different adoption levels (Hansson, 2003). TQM levels, as argued by Dale (1999), are only behaviours and characteristics displayed by organisations in connection with TQM which means that the levels of TQM should not necessarily be the stages of the journey the organisation passes. The levels described by Lascelles and Dale (1991) are meant to help organisations to recognise their weakness points and address them, as one step within the process of continuous organisational improvement. It is the fifth level, with which this research is concerned, that determines the successful application of TQM and the ‘Award Winners’. At this point, the nature of quality enhancement becomes holistic when public organisations would have reached the required level in their TQM maturity by meeting the award winning standards in terms of the nature of their cultures, relationships, trust, capabilities, values and employee participation.
(Hansson, 2003; Dale, 1999). In my research, all organisations selected have won Jordan’s quality award (King Abdullah Award, KAA) more than once. KAA was developed in order to sustain efforts towards organisational excellence among public sector organisations. So, the KAA award criteria follow the major constitutes of TQM making it essential for organisations to undergo an effective programme of quality improvement for the award to be conferred on them (Aladwan and Forrester, 2016; Hendrick and Singhal, 1996).

**Figure 3.2 Levels of TQM adoption**

With some subtle alteration, the organisational excellence (OE) model adopted in the Jordanian public sector is partly based on the EFQM model. The excellence pyramid of the Jordanian model contains three levels (See Figure 3.3). The higher level has the final aim of entrenching a culture of excellence in public sector organisations by enhancing the quality and excellence values and granting employees the opportunity to participate in implanting these values. When regarding the dealings with both customers and stakeholders, adopting these values is the vital point of reference. Concerning the second level of the pyramid, it is concerned with making operations based on a
focus on customers, results and transparency. The final level, for its part, comprises of enablers of people, leadership, processes, services, finance and strategy (Aladwan and Forrester, 2016).

Figure 3.3 The Jordanian Excellence Pyramid

Many scholars (e.g. Hughes and Halsall, 2002; Tari et al., 2007; Mann et al., 2011; Brown, 2013) believe that performance and competitive advantage are affected by the success of OE application. For example, Oakland and Tanner (2008) argue that OE and the associated TQM models are beneficial to organisations. Saunders et al. (2008) as well as Aladwan and Forrester (2016) identify the following reasons to move towards what these various authors identify as OE:

1. It offers a robust approach useful for spotting the organisation’s points of weakness and strength.
2. It guides organisations while setting continuous improvement plans.
3. It contributes to the individual and institutional performance improvement.
4. It allows organisations to develop and be world class.

5. It enables organisations to measure and self-assess their performance.

6. It educates employees and raises their awareness concerning successful organisations’ characteristics.

7. It allows managers to co-ordinate many quality initiatives.

8. It assists the organisation to draw comparisons with other organisations in the same business.

**Figure 3.4 Organisational Excellence Principles in the Jordanian Public Sector**

3.4 TQM Theory and Early Pioneers

Theory is a very important concept for researchers and practitioners equally due to its role in providing the general framework needed for analysing research problems and determining the relationships connecting the constructs, variables and concepts (Dale et al., 2001). On face value, TQM might be thought a complete theory, but this is not actually the case. Building a theory demands following certain steps and, ostensibly, TQM is still in the early stages of this kind of development (Dale et al., 2001). In brief, the TQM theory is still ‘incomplete’. Despite the wide
variety of applications depending on TQM principles around the world, TQM as a theory has received little attention in terms of research (Dean and Brown, 1994). In this regard, Dale (1992) contends that many managers and academics are growing more attentive to TQM’s significance, dedicating substantial intellectual effort and resources to its development; yet, it has not been sufficiently attended to by the leading management researchers. The following section will be a trajectory of the contributions of the pioneering theorists in management studies regarding the TQM theory. The most notable contributors to the TQM theory are American and Japanese theorists as shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1 TQM issues and pioneers’ contributions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Crosby</th>
<th>Deming</th>
<th>Juran</th>
<th>Feigenbaum</th>
<th>Ishikawa</th>
<th>Shingo</th>
<th>Taguchi</th>
<th>Ouchi</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Definition of quality</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explanation of the quality phenomenon</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership &amp; commitment issues</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>People management</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource management</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem-solving methods</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: adapted from Dale et al (2001: 445)

Table 3.2 TQM dimensions and pioneers contributions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Crosby</th>
<th>Deming</th>
<th>Juran</th>
<th>Feigenbaum</th>
<th>Ishikawa</th>
<th>Shingo</th>
<th>Taguchi</th>
<th>Ouchi</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Top management support</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customer relationship</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplier relationship</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee attitudes and behaviour</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Product design process</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality data and reporting/role of quality department</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Benchmarking</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: adapted from Dale et al (2001: 445)

As Table 3.2 illustrates, on the one hand, aside from benchmarking, the American pioneers covered several TQM dimensions; they not only centred their attention on the technical side, but also concentrated on HR issues. On the other hand, for the Japanese pioneers, products and processes, rather than human issues, were the centre of attention. Scrutinising a range of their studies shows that the experts have done little to empirically test their views – philosophy, thoughts and ideas –
for the quality of management and improvement (Dale et al., 2001). In addition, despite the fact that TQM pioneers’ methodologies have proved to be considerably helpful to organisations while applying TQM, success has not been the result every time these methods have been used (Dale et al., 2001). Thus, what the TQM pioneers have offered is a range of frameworks for developing TQM and many paradigms / approaches for enhancing management and quality.

3.4.1 TQM and Management Theory

Because it hinges on various perspectives and theories of management, TQM is a multi-disciplinary theory. Unlike most management theories, where the background usually comprises of different functional disciplines which are applied to the practices in a given management area, the background of TQM is practice per se. Moreover, it is often the relationship between singular factors that underlies most management theories and approaches. In contrast, under TQM this tradition is jettisoned by regarding the organisation as a holistic system and conducting studies in or on the organisation (Dale et al., 2001). The TQM theory derives its uniqueness from two facts. First, the prominent managerial models in organisations like the Deming Prize model, EFQM and MBNQA are established based on the best practices offered by the TQM pioneers. In light of these models, researchers get the great opportunity for conducting a total analysis of institutional performance giving the proper attention to causes, enablers and results (Dale et al., 2001). The second point that gives TQM its uniqueness is the availability of a great deal of detailed case descriptions which have, in some examples, been accumulated over years (15 years in the case of KAA) describing the award winners and even, though infrequently, the award runners-up. Since examining such case studies leads to identifying the best practices, theories of management can be greatly strengthened by utilising the knowledge which these case studies offer (Dale et al.,
2001). Up to this date, studies have been mainly concerned with results – e.g. the fact that a given organisation won an award – rather than describing the manner of and reasons for objectively choosing the winning organisations. Most organisational theories address the question of what activities are needed for the organisation’s performance improvement, but only very little research has been concerned with the way to best implement such activities and the proper sequence of their occurrence. Addressing this last overlooked issue, along with the question of when organisations are ready for what types of changes, requires consulting the body of evidence collected under the TQM umbrella. In summary, the TQM theory which is a multi-perspective theory involving the functional and technical aspects of organisations has contributed to validating the appropriateness of management theories in many contexts including the public and private sectors.

### Table 3.3 TQM contribution for management theories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Theory originator</th>
<th>Descriptions</th>
<th>TQM contribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Max Weber</td>
<td>Theory of social and economic organisation.</td>
<td>Leadership, empowerment and performance management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frederick Taylor</td>
<td>Scientific management theory</td>
<td>Management by facts, tools and techniques of TQM and problem solving.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Henri Fayol</td>
<td>Planning and organisation</td>
<td>Business process management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elton Mayo</td>
<td>Hawthorne studies</td>
<td>Employee motivation and satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Douglas McGregor</td>
<td>The human side of enterprise</td>
<td>Employee motivation, empowerment, involvement and participation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peter Drucker</td>
<td>Decentralisation, management leading, and focus on results.</td>
<td>Leadership, goal deployment and process focus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John Adair</td>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>Leadership and commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Henry Mintzberg</td>
<td>Leadership strategic planning and management</td>
<td>Leadership vision, mission, and policy deployment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charles Handy</td>
<td>Internal culture</td>
<td>Culture, values and communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Meredith Belbin</td>
<td>Team Characteristics</td>
<td>Team dynamics and teamwork</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


### 3.4.2 TQM in Public Administration (PA)

Public administration, in many senses, is the most appropriate context for introducing TQM. Historically, it is in public services more than in business firms that bureaucratic administrative structures are possibly to exist. In business firms, financial and competitive burdens are alleviated
against the increase of bureaucracy and employees are constantly reminded of organisational goals for the continued existence of the business and the importance for the paying customers. Contrary to business firms, public administration lacks the clarity of missions and aims and does not always prioritise customer/citizen needs and expectations (Bendell et al., 1994). Additionally, when public administration has delivered the service to the public (citizens), the service has always been provided by an authority for its subject rather than by a supplier for a customer. The belligerent nature of public administration may not be deliberate but still public employees have often viewed themselves mainly as state agents for an official purpose instead of public servants responsible for delivering a given service to customers/citizens (Bendell et al., 1994).

After all, public administration is traditionally a monopoly. Historically, the ingrained notion of pricing services realistically against the background of alternatives offered by the market did not exist. Besides, public administrators rather than customers owned the disciplinary power, and the customer/citizen’s inability to withdraw their custom was encountered by the public administrator’s ability to reject facilitating it. Therefore, it can be argued that the TQM movement was more urgently needed in the public administration organisations than it was in the private firms. Against this background, systematic and robust studies in the area of TQM in the public sector are clearly and urgently needed, especially in the developing countries where such studies are extremely rare.

Having scanned the existent literature on TQM, both the availability of a plethora of research results within the context of the private sector industries and the scarcity of empirical research and TQM studies in the public administration context are obvious now (Mohamed, 2013; Stringham, 2004). As mentioned before, historically, TQM application in the public sector is still debatable.
with some authors supporting it and stressing that TQM is applicable concept in the public sectors and others supporting the opposite argument (see for example, Swiss, 1992; Brown, 2013; Halachmi, 2005; Tizard, 2012; Vakalopoulou et al., 2013; Asif et al., 2009; Van der Wiele and Brown, 2002; Rago, 1994; Alqudah, 2006).

The fundamental question, therefore, is: Does TQM theory work in the public sector organisations or not? There is no specific answer for the above question in the literature. The question that is more frequently addressed in the literature is whether the mechanisms and methods that are essentially based on business and manufacturing are applicable to the delivery of government services (Stringham, 2004). Cohen and Eimike (1994), for example, find that there is a problem in the adaptation of the methods used in the production of goods to the quality of management services which public sector organisations provide. They argue that through continuously improving the operating procedures and processes, the leveraging of the human capital of the organisation will be more effective which will in turn enhance governmental performance. Some writers (e.g. Rago, 1994; Swiss, 1992) respond to such an argument by emphasising any attempt to directly apply TQM in the public sector as a grave mistake. An underlying issue is whether users of public services are the same as the customers of private sector firms. The juxtaposition of these two views delineates the forum within which the applicability of TQM as well as its effectiveness in the public sector will be now discussed.

Several researchers in the area of TQM in the public sector often describe the TQM-type system as promising much and eventually delivering too little. Some researchers (e.g. Aladwan and Forrester, 2016; Stringham, 2004) believe that only when having been adapted substantially to suit the unique characteristics or context of the public sector, TQM has played a critical role in
transforming public sector organisations. Stringham (2004) proposes other conditions for the success of TQM including the focus on inputs and processes more than results, the focus on people and the human element and top management’s support and commitment. As Swiss (1992) argues, government services are evaluated by public service users normally not only on the basis of the results, but also the behaviour of services providers. Swiss (1992) well-constructed argument draws the attention to the issue of identifying the public as customers which is challenging, difficult and politically debatable in numerous cases. Others considered the uniqueness of the ‘public customer’ so problematic an issue that presents a major and substantive challenge to TQM application (Hyde, 1995).

Recently, however, negative propositions about TQM in the public sector have been challenged and attitudes have been changed. It is now more widely accepted that public sector organisations are able to apply TQM with sensible adaption and the literature provides several TQM success stories from around the world (see for example, Fei and Rainy, 2003; West et al., 1994; Berman and West, 1995; Selen and Schepers, 2001; Zeitz, 1996). For example, since the year 2000, several public agencies in Jordan have adopted one or more quality systems. Now, the majority of Jordanian public organisations have applied TQM as an umbrella for managing and assuring the quality of its activities.

3.4.3 TQM and the Bureaucracy Theory

Traditional public administration enforces theories of bureaucracy. Hazlett and Hill (2000) indicate that traditionalists oppose to TQM application in governmental organisations due to their belief that public administration requires the elements of law, equity, public interest and due process as the bases of management. The argument is that it is profoundly different in nature to private
business activities. However, despite the view that TQM and traditional public administration are contradictory, the two have common areas, which will be discussed below.

A criticism of TQM, is that it can itself create new forms of mechanistic control and bureaucratic solutions. From a critical perspective, it is also argued that TQM is an endeavour to generate new forms of control, both political and managerial (Tuckman, 1995; Kirkpatrick and Lucio, 1995). Top down political control or/and the application of administrative control are both congruent with bureaucracy tenets (Vinni, 2007). TQM and public bureaucracy have the mission of developing a stable standardised set of procedures as common goals when managing and leading the organisation to progress. These characteristics coincide especially when we consider TQM, quality management tools and management systems.

As a quality management system, TQM’s ideal is akin to the technical effectiveness of traditional bureaucracies; therefore, it can be defined as resorting to Weber’s terms like friction reduction, knowledge of the files, speed, precision and material costs. TQM also functions as examining product or service characteristics such as speed and quality and this encompasses accuracy through employees who are dedicated and aware of the specification and standards in a way that protects the smooth running of service delivery (Vinni, 2007).

As in a Weberian bureaucracy, expert training is one of the presupposed elements in the context of public administration (Weber, 1978). TQM stresses training as essential for the effective management of quality. In order to understand the systems and achieve the mastery of tools, this training is demanded and will guarantee that all employees perform their jobs to the best possible efficacy (the quest for unambiguity). However, there are differences from the bureaucracy theory like employees’ duty of specialising and consequently learning from repetitively performing the
same set of activities well. Jobs, in bureaucratic organisations, are designed to be tasks which are well-defined and regulated, but small, and which are described to employees (Weber, 1978). Similarly, this characteristic can be found in organisations adopting quality management and systems due to the necessity of employees’ understanding of the part they take in the whole operation and awareness of the way they affect the organisation’s performance (Vinni, 2007).

However, the characteristic which underlies both public organisations and TQM is ensuring conformity including performance management using different key performance indicators (KPIs) like assurance, accuracy and speed and making sure of clearly defining both responsibility and authority. In this case, it is predictable to staff to encounter systems of procedural control in place (Dale, 1999). As outlined by Weber (1978), ensuring the continuousness of activity is another task of quality management procedures. Organising tasks in a regulated manner is equivalent to planning activities systematically, leading in turn to quality assurance and TQM as systems management. It is useful here to differentiate between TQM as quality management and TQM as systems management. TQM as quality management is typically at work in manufacturing organisations and therefor relies on statistical tools which are not usually deployed in public service organisations.

These applications in the public sector are harmonious with the rhetoric of quality management that implies viewing TQM as a quality management system that is both comprehensive and formal aiming at improving conformity and uniformity in accordance with quality assurance and planning (Dale, 1999: 9). According to Weber, bureaucracy is of a rational character having its own predominating rules, means-ends calculus and a matter-of-factness; therefore, there have been ‘revolutionary’ outcomes wherever it has risen and expanded (Weber, 1978: 1404). Rational
organisations’ characteristics as outlined by Weber are consistent with TQM as systems management because as regards TQM application, rationality covers characteristics like good administrative resources, processes, structures, procedures and responsibilities (Yong and Wilkinson, 2001).

What distinguishes TQM as systems management is the ability of substituting employees with maintaining the continuity and this is attributed to the extensive regulation. A guiding framework exists for guaranteeing the consistent use and practice of the same information, skills, methods and controls (Vinni, 2007). Employees can evaluate their work and improvement depending on a reference system based on documented procedures, specifications, work instructions as well as methods related to all the organisation’s functions and aspects (Yong and Wilkinson, 2001). Actually, this is congruent with the management which hinges on general rules and written documents that can be learnt but are approximately exhaustive and stable at the same time (Weber, 1978).

As the above comparison indicates, there are many points of analogy between TQM as systems management and Weber’s bureaucracy. However, by primarily emphasising quantitative tools, TQM as quality management is less important due to the indirect nature of the connections (Vinni, 2007). Bureaucracy also shares some characteristics with some other soft versions of TQM such as the TQM as a people management paradigm. In contrast, TQM as re-engineering, which is intended to reorder Weber’s mechanistic organisation with leaner systems, only shares a very few characteristics with bureaucracy. The difference somewhat erodes when ‘radicalism’ – the chief principles of the business re-engineering processes – is disregarded (Vinni, 2007). Their common approach to employees’ culture or ethos, which is unconditional commitment to certain values, is
the one specific aspect which brings Weber’s bureaucracy and TQM as people management together, specifically when considering public sector organisations. In other words, in public offices, it is public employees’ moral obligation to abide by their supervisors’ orders in the most proficient manner (Vinni, 2007). Another element presupposed by TQM as people management is that employees should commit to the organisation’s value unconditionally. To make an organisation’s employees have identical values, TQM changes their mind-set, ensuring thereby their commitment to organisational goals. The common aim of the two approaches is achieving control in its managerial and political aspects. When considering control in terms of coercion, in this sense, TQM is not a traditional type of control; rather, its subtlety derives from its endeavour to achieve a consequence on employees’ part (McCabe et al., 1998).

Table 3.4 TQM and Bureaucracy: a different forms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Weber’s Bureaucracy</th>
<th>Forms of TQM</th>
<th>Fixed official jurisdictional areas</th>
<th>Principles of hierarchy</th>
<th>Management based on written documents</th>
<th>Thorough/expert training</th>
<th>Use of full capacity of the official</th>
<th>General stable, exhaustive rules</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TQM as quality management</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TQM as systems management</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TQM as people management</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TQM as new management paradigm</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TQM as re-engineering</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✗</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✗</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: adapted from Vinni (2007: 118). Note: yes ✓ no ✗

However, TQM and bureaucracy are the same? Further to the above-presented argument and regarding culture-related issues, TQM and bureaucracy have the aim of achieving a strong positive culture. The key point of difference between the bureaucracy and TQM is that values, as the object of change, are different to politicians from what they are to bureaucrats or to entrepreneurs. It is the type of responsibility which is the point of difference, determining indeed the divergent demands for these positions (Weber, 1978). For instance, what is essential for officials is keeping
a distance from any struggle for power, but this is not the case for politicians and entrepreneurs for whom struggling for personal power, along with its consequent personal responsibility, is the core (Weber, 1978). As for TQM, it endeavours to make the concept of customer the heart of every activity. In public administration, where some argue that the citizens are the customers, Bendell et al. (1994), suggest that since traditional bureaucracy has always tended to disregard citizens-customers, the place ripe for implementing TQM is public administration.

What is problematic here is the probable conflict between public employees’ ethos and those of the entrepreneur, promoted by supporters of TQM in the public administration context (du Gay, 1994: 670). However, contemplating the ethics of conviction – ethics of responsibility, typically a requisite choice among a variety of values – is excluded by the imperatives of management; this is reduced in managerial mentality that prescriptively abides by rationalisation (Samier, 2001).

Consequently, vagueness underlies the wavering between two goals: customer-oriented service delivery and accountability to the public as a whole (Vinni, 2007). In the context of public administration, this point appears to be the weakest and most controversial part of TQM application. There are many other challenges like, inter alia, target setting, performance measuring, employees’ mind-set changing; this reveals the importance one essential matter which is the clarity of the leaders’ message [top managers and politicians] regarding the organisation’s mission and the way this mission might direct employees’ actions in varied environments (Vinni, 2007). So, what can be learnt from the analysis presented above? What is TQM’s role as a management theory in government institutions? Comparing traditional public administration, known as bureaucracy, with TQM in relation to NPM leads to the following conclusion:
Concentrating on processes, depending on written rules, clearly defining rights and obligations and so on are the common points between the hard dimension of TQM and bureaucracy. It is TQM as systems management that is the most congruent with Weberian bureaucracy; whereas, TQM as people management and TQM as a new paradigm share less common characteristics with traditional public administration. The keystones of both TQM as systems management and bureaucracy are the following: Therefore, it sounds reasonable that it might be less difficult for bureaucratic organisations, even the ones with a great extent of ‘publicness’, than for other systems based on New Public Management to adopt some TQM versions (Vinni, 2007).

NPM provided TQM with the legitimacy for application in the public sector. The purposes of both ideologies are the following: bettering public services quality, empowering employees, satisfying the customer, improving the performance of the organisation and individuals and demonstrating a commitment to constant improvement (Vinni, 2007: 112; Pollitt, 2000; Hood, 1991). Dunleavy et al., (2006) define NPM as an amalgamation of downsizing and fragmenting large bureaucracies, competition between public agencies and private firms and among public agencies themselves and motivating on extra economic lines (Dunleavy et al., 2006). Kelly (1994) suggests that in governmental organisations, NPM endeavours to provide mechanisms that are more proficient in service delivery and in achieving a rise in the levels of organisational performance; this is due to NPM being grounded in rational and public choice theories and having TQM elements. In light of the above discussion, the adoption / adaptation of TQM in the public sector is not a minor decision, but a major undertaking in organisational change and transition. The shift from a process of traditional bureaucracy to one of customer orientation poses many challenges, but also grants opportunities to governmental organisations (Ho, 2011).
What brings NPM and classical TQM together is their stress on managerial aptitudes and skills especially the following: substantiating the change from policy expertise to a belief in a managerial knowledge that is universally effective, skill sets, pay for performance and leadership skills (Samier, 2001). It might be predictable that the soft TQM dimensions are easier to be applied in organisations with a lower ‘publicness’ level (Vinni, 2007). Nevertheless, as Samier (2001) points out, care should be taken considering the potential risks coming from the confidence in skill sets and universally effective managerial knowledge. It can be argued that a universally effective managerial knowledge and skill sets, including the various TQM critical factors, do not exist. This concern especially organisations with a high degree of publicness, reveals the reasons for the need to modify TQM to be proper for use in various kinds of organisations (Vinni, 2007).

In sum, an alternative to administrative analysis and judgment does not exist (Sitkin et al., 1994). However, because it is a multi-factor concept offering diverse operationalisation ways, the adoption of TQM demands to be understood more inclusively. For example, adapting a specific kind of approach to the requisites of task and context is what improves the effectiveness of TQM (Sitkin et al., 1994). TQM as it is now is still a developing concept and this highlights the need for further research (Vinni, 2007). It is expected that rather than a fixed set of principles, a series of
choices, both strategic and operational, will comprise the future models of TQM; these choices can be considered by managers while planning and implementing TQM (Silvestro, 2001).

3.5 TQM: Critical Factors in Public Administration

It could be questioned whether TQM is a path to long-term success or just a fad. Indeed, Anjard (1995) emphasises that TQM must not be seen as a “magic pill” that solves all public organisations’ problems. Instead, it should be regarded as having numerous critical factors and it should be acknowledged that its introduction takes substantial time and commitment from top management and this involves seeking constant improvement through extensive training. As an approach, TQM is multi-dimensional and is designed for quality enhancement by improving continuously and satisfying the customer (Talib et al., 2011). The effective implementation of TQM can have a good foundation if this holistic perspective is built upon.

The critical factors (CFs) of TQM are “the factors and processes that have a direct impact on the organisational success.” (Khannan et al., 2011: 126). For some scholars, the programme failure of TQM is what causes the lack of identification of its critical factors. In this respect, Chin et al. (2004) consider that effectively determining the critical factors is what directly leads to TQM’s success as mentioned before. The critical factors are classified into ‘soft’ and ‘hard’ ones with the ‘soft’ encompassing participation, empowerment and training, and the ‘hard’ including hard continuous improvement, measurement, statistical process control (SPC) and information systems and analysis (Zalkh-Vouzas and Psychogios, 2007). Talib et al. (2011), in their study of 50 critical factors, conclude that these factors are vital for enhancing the quality of service and customer satisfaction. An extensive review and piloting were undertaken for the purposes of this current doctoral study with six factors chosen as independent variables, namely:
1. Top Management Commitment and Support (TMCS);
2. Focus on Customer (FC);
3. Continuous Improvement (CI);
4. Employee Participation (EP);
5. Employee Training (ET); and

The reasons for choosing these factors as independent variables were as follows:

Firstly, as the Jordanian public organisations adopted these factors, their selection gives reliability to the model built from the study and the related hypotheses. The TQM model developed in the current research takes into account the functional and technical dimensions. It also acknowledges that TQM implementation requires a balanced approach that manages all the enabler elements in the model in order to enhance the results (Bou-Llusar et al., 2009). Secondly, studying both the soft and hard factors together can make a contribution to knowledge, both in developing countries and specifically in the public sector. In the next section, the discussion and argumentation in relation to the critical factors of TQM will be presented in turn.

3.5.1 Top Management Commitment and Support (TMCS)

According to the TQM philosophy, supporting opportunities of collaboration as well as attracting the best talent to them are not sufficient on the part of managers who should act as collaborators themselves to exemplify good commitment (Ibarra and Hansen, 2013). It is through senior managers’ acceptance of responsibility and committing themselves and their organisations to an awareness of quality that the journey of TQM starts. Further, to ensure the survival of the quality process at every stage, rather than at the beginning, of the TQM process, senior managers’
commitment must be continuously demonstrated. More specifically, this commitment comprises of the readiness to offer TQM the needed resources for investing in people and programmes development and the inclination to perform current investment for the sake of gaining future benefits (Kelly, 1994). Also, TMCS involves an explicit and compelling vision for the future, a vision which also offers a strategic leadership (Tsang and Antony, 2001). It is contended here that commitment to TQM is the preparedness for modifying the managerial culture and style in which the organisation operates; this also implies making changes to the management philosophy or establishing new manager-subordinate relationships (Islam and Mustapha, 2008).

Thus, TMCS in public administration reflects significant transformation in the administrative thoughts and styles towards the recognition of people in order to achieve the goals of quality. Furthermore, with TQM in the public sector, organisations convert the roles of the manager from overseer and commander to new roles that represent leadership and direction for continuous improvement, customer focus, training and the encouragement of employees, so that their competences develop and they align to their organisation by being helped to understand the goals of the organisation (AL-Hawajreh et al., 2011). To summarise the above-presented argument, when leadership realises and understands employees’ needs and directs them accordingly, the result will be employees’ high commitment to quality improvement and the organisation’s outcomes. This supports the argument that the most substantial factor for the success of TQM is TMCS. The significance of TCMS stems from the management’s aptitude to support all endeavours to achieve improvement by providing resources (Mahour, 2006; Sakthivel, 2007; Vorria and Bohoris, 2009; Albacete-Saez, 2011; Talib et al., 2011). Public leaders should be personally committed to service quality by tackling any issues at every opportunity with the purpose of encouraging others’ communication with customers and employees. Effective communication is the chief attribute of
a leader, an attribute enabling them to display this commitment (Lewis, 1989). Moreover, Berry et al. (1989) emphasise the importance of leaders’ at all organisational levels, whether they are heroes, directors of service quality, service drivers or middle managers, who can be regarded as the main link of communication between employees and planners. Thus, it can be maintained that only if organisations make the necessary resources available to them, employees would be able to provide outstanding services. It can also be considered that these resources are the internal service quality profoundly influencing external service quality (Back et al., 2010).

The above discussion noted that TMCS is oriented to support employees. However, two key questions are: “What is the relationship between TMCS and employees?” And “How does TMCS work in practice?” Managers who commit themselves to their organisations and adhere to policies such as service quality are the ones who contribute to better performance (Lages and Piercy, 2012). For example, to help employees to develop new skills and aptitudes, managers directly instruct them, assign challenging tasks to them, provide the tools assisting them to deal well with their jobs and support them to resolve problems rather than give them the answers (Lankau and Scandura, 2002).

Develin and Hand (1993) contend that senior management is greatly accountable in terms of realising and satisfying customers’ demands and needs through collaboration with employees. In order to increase organisational effectiveness, managers replace the focus on systems, methods and procedures with requiring all qualitative and quantitative information about employees and customers (Doherty and Horne, 2002). TMCS is needed for facilitating good interaction with customers for their needs to be satisfied since quality improvement is interconnected with the transfer of some senior management powers to the operational level (Laohavichien et al., 2011).
TCMS is also necessary for the removal of barriers separating the layers within a public management organisation structure, which can in turn maximise customer satisfaction (Turkilmaz et al., 2011).

Theoretically, through his leadership model, Lakshman (2006) stresses that enhancing performance and achieving strategic goals requires supporting TQM initiatives by the leader’s characteristics, ideas and behaviour. Influencing employees’ behaviour to drive them to deliver services of the highest quality, achieving thereby the organisational goals, happens only through the TMCS (Das et al., 2011; Irfan et al., 2009; Gottschall, 2007). Nowadays, governmental leaders should be capable of benefiting from ideas, equipment, people and all sorts of resources to realise public organisations’ strategic goals (Ibarra and Hansen, 2013). For this to happen, these leaders need to reinvent their talent strategies and establish robust relations outside and inside their organisations. If they want to achieve the effective collaboration of all the different players, leaders must discern the suitable moments for influencing rather than using coercive authority to make further steps forwards, stopping unrewarding discussions, squashing politicking and for making final calls (Ibarra and Hansen, 2013).

In summary, the theoretical strands regarding the effect of top management on the improvement of public service are three. The first one emphasises the difference among managers in terms of the aptitude to accomplish performance improvements (Petrovsky, 2010). The conceptual framework presented by Boyne and Dahya (2002) illustrates that the succession of top managers and the organisation’s top administrative leaders has its own effects on performance. In other words, top managers’ motives, opportunities and means impact the performance and enhancement of public service (Petrovsky, 2010). For example, the great importance of the means stems from
the fact that top managers need the resources ready to hand in order to influence the performance and quality of public service. Additionally, public sector top managers must not be fully restrained (Rainey and Stinbauer, 1999).

Secondly, the degree to which top managers support and empower employees from other levels also has an effect on service quality. Schneider and White (2004) and Melhem (2004) argue that improving service quality can be affected through incentives, recognition and motives. Thirdly, top managers’ characteristics also affect service delivery. Many studies investigate whether these characteristics really influence public service performance and how they do that (e.g. Hill, 2005; Avellandea, 2008; Meier and O’Toole, 2002). In this regard, some scholars agree that a manager with a high level of inherent or acquired skill is more aware of how to be influential within the organisations he leads; consequently, the organisation led by this manager will be of a better performance than other organisations led by less talented leaders (Cheung and To, 2010; Newman, 2001; Natalisa and Subroto, 2003; Ashill et al., 2006). Javidan and Waldman (2003) test top managers’ capability of enticing initiative from their employees, which is a vital element while endeavouring to enhance services and their performance.

3.5.2 Focus on Customer (FC)

In the mid-1950s, Drucker stated in his book “Practice of Management” that creating the customer is the only valid way to define the business purpose. For TQM also, whether in the public or the private sector, an ultimate target is the customer (Jabnoun, 2000; Korunka et al., 2007). The question is: Who are public customers? Flynn (2007) says the people who receive the direct or indirect public service are the customers of the public sector. Recently, public administration organisations have started to increase the attention to the customer for the following purposes:
enhancing the government service quality and the cooperation between governmental bodies, developing organisational structures that are effective, opening many channels of communication for customers and benchmarking excellence in the private sector (Ha and Lee, 2010). Furthermore, customer focus is beneficial in the public sector in terms of increasing customer satisfaction (CS), reputation improvement and cost reduction (Cook, 2002).

Technically, customer focus can be viewed as an organisation’s ability to keep satisfying the needs and expectations of the customer in a timely manner (Ooi et al., 2009, Yi Sit et al., 2009). Timeliness is a crucial element as relates to satisfying customers’ demands and delivering high-quality services (Ku, 2010). Moreover, a definition of customer focus can be the personal focus of employees on delivering high-quality services to customers (Dienhart and Gregoire, 1993). The aspects distinguishing the employees who are highly customer-focused are: the active interaction with customers, the joy of delivering the service to customers and the self-satisfaction with the self’s performance in a way that increases customer satisfaction (Dienhart and Gregoire, 1993). Customer satisfaction is one of the most significant quality standards, principally as regards service quality. Hence, effectively implementing TQM requires more concentration on the customer with management systems that deal with and endeavour to resolve customer problems and complaints (Khanna et al. 2011).

The organisations which give priority to customers making customer needs at the centre of all decisions are actually the successful organisations. Ooi et al. (2009) and Develin & Hand (1993) believe that it is with the top managers that accountability for caring for customers starts; top managers also must primarily focus on employees, their needs and the removal of any obstacles employees encounter before understanding and dealing with the customers’ needs.
Focusing on customers requires the recording and analysing of their expectations and this process of data collection and analysis is one of the organisation’s tasks that ensure the continuous improvement of quality (Caemmerer and Wilson, 2010). Crosby (1989) emphasises that satisfying customers requires an understanding of their needs. A high-quality and award-winning organisation is the one that nurtures a strong customer focus recognising customers’ needs and measuring their satisfaction. These factors are rendered as the foundations of successful TQM application and achieving quality improvement (Zairi, 1994). The four pillars supporting the achievement of vital changes are: customer identifying, actively reaching out to customers, obtaining the customer’s feedback and acting upon it, focusing employees on customer service (Carr and Littman, 1990).

For example, service employees can discover the customers’ expectations which have not been satisfied from the customer feedback (Bettencourt, 1997). In addition, by giving constructive feedback with the aim of service quality improvement, customers provide service employees with a control of the service, proving thereby employees’ ability to meet customer needs and expectations (Bee-Leng and Sweeney, 2009). Dahlgaard et al. (2013), in their so-called P4 model, assert that the relationship between employees’ morale and customer focus is mutual. Empirical research is needed as regards this conceptual model for exploring the relationship between customer focus and employee satisfaction in private and public sector contexts.

3.5.3 Continuous Improvement (CI)

It is now not sufficient for public organisations to provide services to reasonable and stable standards. Because the organisational environment is changing rapidly, public organisations must now pursue improvement opportunities (Hansson, 2003). As Deming puts it, continuous improvement (CI) is a philosophy that can be seen as an improvement initiative with the ability of
increasing success and reducing failures (Bhuiyan and Baghel, 2005). Kumar et al. (2008) proved that by addressing familiar and unfamiliar problems encountered by operational processes, improvement is an unending exertion. Moreover, CI as a concept was derived from the Japanese notion of kaizen which can be translated into ‘change for the better’; so, kaizen management is founded on incremental change that builds up a constant learning and quality awareness culture (Armstrong, 2009). CI is an intricate concept involving a balance between the technical side and the human one that are accessible to organisations, particularly in the public sector (Jurburg et al., 2015).

The gap in the literature relates to the manner in which CI contributes to the human side, e.g. employee satisfaction. Service quality improvement in the public sector is an issue which raises questions demanding theoretical and practical answers (Hartley and Skelcher, 2008). As noted by Akdere (2009). Since CI is a goal sought by all organisations in the contemporary world for maintaining a competitive position, its vitality is not confined to TQM, but also to all managerial processes (Williams, 2003).

CI is actually of two kinds; the first has the aim of improving the organisation’s efficiency and the work conditions for employees through simplifying internal processes and procedures, to mention one example, and the aim of the second is delivering better services and products. CI is a systematic and planned process (Crosby, 1982; Dahlgaard et al., 2002). All the members of the organisation who participate in this process should understand the improvement measures and be aware of what they are expected to offer. Furthermore, as argued by Crosby, everyone should be able to use the same data, and, as concerns statements, they must be based on facts and this should be accompanied by deploying scientific methods to resolve problems (Pekar, 1995; Oakland, 2003).
Recently, methodologies have been spurned by CI in order to achieve its goals: six sigma, lean manufacturing, Balance scorecard (BSC) and process re-engineering. For the aim of improving quality and the organisational environment for people, numerous public organisations resort to combined methodologies like reengineering and process simplification (Bhuiyan and Baghel, 2005). In the public sector, BSC is a very recurrently used methodology. It emerged in the 1990s introduced by Kaplan and Norton who aimed at overcoming the exaggerated emphasis on measures of financial resources and achieving the equipoise of four performance perspectives: customer, internal management processes, learning and growth and financial indicators (Kaplan and Norton, 1996). Accordingly, what BSC achieves is better reflecting and clarifying the organisation’s strategy as well as bringing it to ordinary employees. It is when employees understand the organisation’s strategies including TQM and CI that they become capable of contributing to achieving the overall aim (Niven, 2008; Bhuiyan and Baghel, 2005).

The three levels of BSC are: individual, organisational and group. On the level of the individual, the target of BSC is improving the employee’s performance and satisfaction (Kaplan and Bower, 1999). It is worth mentioning that several public organisations in the Arab countries have used BSC such as the Ministry of Trade and Industry in Jordan and the Ministry of the Interior in UAE and have made good progress in its application.

Doherty and Horne (2002) believe that CI can be realised if all organisational levels take part in it and if employees, systems and management interact. In addition, improvement result maximisation requires an improvement policy that applies explicitly to all employees and an encouragement of employee participation (Al-Olayyan, 2011). In comparison to leadership and education, CI is used by a total of 86% of managers as a major employee satisfaction motivator according to the
estimation of the American Society for Quality Control (2015). CI is grounded on employee performance measurement and employee motivation and feedback which aid employees to increase their capability to do their tasks and to become more satisfied with their work (Kumar et al., 2008). As a result, the extensive review of the literature performed in this study has demonstrated the positive effect of CI on organisational performance (Samat et al., 2006; Ooi et al., 2010, 2011; Yan and Makinde, 2011; Karahan and Tetik, 2012).

Some scholars (e.g. Caffyn, 1999) suggested ‘CI capability’ which is the term referring to an organisation’s capability of getting the strategic advantage through allowing a significant number of its employees to participate in innovation. However, this proposes that: a) employees must show their understanding of the goals of the organisation, b) developing and monitoring the enabling mechanisms such as training which are meant to encourage participation in CI, c) being actively committed to and leading CI are proved by managers at every level and d) self-experience as well as that of others, whether negative or positive, should be a learning source for employees (Caffyn, 1999; Bhuiyan and Baghel, 2005; Singh and Singh, 2015). It is obvious now that employee satisfaction is logically grounded on CI when adopted in an organisation, but ‘how and why?’ is not really clear.

Bhuyan et al. (2006) consider CI to be a creative methodology able to move the organisation towards achieving world-class performance and competitive excellence both in processes and quality. However, the outcomes of implementing CI projects successfully are intangible such as enhancing life quality and communication and making duties and roles clear to service employees (Suzuki, 1994) in addition to participation rates improvement (Carannante et al., 1996; Carannante, 1995) and enriching employee proposals (Singh and Singh, 2015; Karia and Asaari, 2006). In
conclusion, to deliver high-quality services, a service organisation should take into account the human factors of CI as well as the technical issues. Furthermore, despite the great importance of the projects of improvement for enhancing product or service quality, such enhancement is unattainable without people (Sim and Rogers, 2009). Finally, it is unfortunate that there is no strong evidence, specifically in the public sector, of the connection between CI, service quality and employee satisfaction.

3.5.4 Employee Participation (EP)

Employees’ participation (EP) is a dynamic variable that reflects the interest in the human side, or what is labelled as the participative revolution (Peterson and Post, 1974), a revolution which has significantly contributed to employees’ freedom, morale, organisational democracy and quality improvement (Dale and Cooper, 1992). Moreover, the philosophy of employee participation was intended to support the people within organisations, so that they can decide and be problem-solvers within the limits of their organisational level (Pace, 1989). Possible definitions of EP are the following: a work dialogue mechanism involving employees, granting them the opportunity of exchanging ideas and information and improving their job conditions (Binyaseen, 2010), or an arrangement guaranteeing a chance for employees to impact managerial decisions and participate in performance improvement (Amin et al., 2014; Abdulkadir et al., 2012; Osman et al., 2011; Sun et al., 2000; Lawler et al., 1995; Thamizhamani and Hasan, 2010).

The concept of internal motivation-participation in making decisions and all organisational activities occupies the centre of TQM. Regarding people as the most important aspect defining the improvement of quality and productivity is increasingly turning into the common axiom of good management (Sun et al., 2000; Ross, 1994). Now, what role does employee participation play in
public sector organisations? The core of the perception of quality in governmental service organisations is employees’ accomplishment of their tasks right first, followed by the inexorable improvement of processes and inputs, which only employees know well. This underscores the vitality of employee participation in improvement activities that are continuous (Swiss, 1992). The collaboration of employees and supervisors should be free from the fear that punishment will be the outcome of every discovered mistake. Communication barriers separating organisational levels and employees of the same level should be shattered by using flat rather than centralised structures (Swiss, 1992).

In a similar vein, Yager (1981) contends that other benefits of EP are: generating ideas and encouraging valuable suggestions which may result in organisational objectives achievement. For example, quality circles represent a tool of EP that is useful in augmenting employee motivation (Rafeli, 1985). The purpose of resorting to quality circles is engaging employees to encourage them to express opinions and give suggestions regarding quality-related problems. Some scholars such as Shelby and Werner (1980) and Rafeli (1985) contend that in administrative procedures and processes, quality circles are the ultimate EP form. Zemke (1980) considers these circles to be the employees’ arena for contributing in matters of which they are more well-informed than others.

Participative leadership is the condition for effectively adopting the participative approach in public administration. This kind of leadership is expected to permit employees to input and control, to an extent, their responsibilities and roles (Clark et al., 2009). For their part, Hartline et al. (2000) argue that employees are inclined to be more satisfied with their work and show a greater degree of commitment when they share the organisation’s same key values. Generally, the previous literature (see for example, Bass, 1981; Spector, 1986; Clark et al., 2009) recommended the resort
to a participative leadership style if employee satisfaction is to be improved. One of the strategies for developing employee motivation in public service is engaging employees in processes of decision making (Brewer et al., 2000; Kim, 2002) in addition to the communication quality, morals and commitment (Bhatti and Qureshi, 2007; Nazeri et al., 2011; Ooi et al., 2011; Dolatabadi and Safa, 2010).

All activities related to quality like preparation, implementation and evaluation are areas where managers should look to involve employees, so that a high EP level is guaranteed. It has been argued by Baidoun (2004) that, when the prerequisite of active participation is not met, it is not possible to undertake quality management principally because TQM is based on the aptitudes of employees. If the organisation uses the TQM concept, every organisational member must understand the requirements of work as relates to quality; only then employees’ role in quality improvement can increase and develop (Dale and Cooper, 1992). Employees will be under the pressure of the demanding characteristic of their jobs in areas like skill, accuracy, load and responsibility and this happens even if, under TQM, there is an enhanced level of EP in decision making (Taveira et al., 2003). In this respect, one should bear in mind that EP principles are not alien to the public sector in Arab countries because Arab culture is based on Islam which, inter alia, inspires a culture of participation (Shura7).

Interestingly, researchers in several Arab countries (see for example, Melhem, 2004; Ali et al., 1997) agree that Jordanian managers who had been following autocratic styles, were supported to deploy decision-making styles that are participative and consultative (Dahhan, 1988, was the exception to this). This proves the environment and culture in Jordan to be appropriate for

---

7 Shura is an Arabic word that means a serious and effective participation in making a decision, not merely a ceremonial procedure (Osman, 2001).
conducting the research borrowing the construct that originated in Western and American contexts, including the major aspects of EP in the public sector. Several further studies (Al-Busaeedi, 2007; Abu-Qudiri, 2003; Drawish, 1998) in the context of Arab countries concluded that about 84% (on average) of those demonstrating a participative style of decision making had college and graduate educational levels, 90% were aged 26 years or over and 60% were top and middle managers. This illustrates the open-mindedness of Jordanian, young, highly educated, middle and top managers who are inclined to adopt a participative decision-making style allowing subordinates to participate in the decision-making process (Melhem, 2003). Accordingly, viewing EP as a crucial TQM factor in the public sector is indispensable. This reveals that the gap in the literature is connected to the role played by EP in ES and SQ in the public sector.

3.5.5 Employee Training (ET)

Since it is regarded as the primary way of developing adequate human resources, in number and excellence, employee training (ET) has recently become a major investment in human resources in public organisations (Iqbal and Khan, 2011; Vermeulen and Crous, 2000). The targets of training are equipping employees with the necessary information and skills, both administrative and technical, so that they perform efficiently and effectively. This will have a positive effect on the work and performance of the organisation (Khanfar, 2011; Islam et al., 2015). Therefore, many international awards for quality like EFQM, the Malcolm Baldrige and the Jordan Quality Award, concentrate on training. By emphasising training, such awards give a high rank to any organisation the distinction of which has stemmed from its success in offering its employees the formal quality training (Rawabdeh, 2008; Suleiman and Steven, 1998).
Thus, to maintain a competitive position, an organisation needs to provide their employees with the pertinent skills which help them to be creative and which contribute to their accomplishment and excellence in delivering services (Al-Nuseirat and Biygautane, 2014; Islam et al., 2015). Training in governmental organisations is described in The UN Handbook of Training (1966:15) as instructing in an art, an occupation, or a profession entailing drill, coaching, or disciplining which can develop the mental and physical powers. As far as civil service is concerned, training refers to a reciprocal process in which a body of knowledge and the relevant working methods are taught and learned. Depending on each organisation’s needs and strategic priorities, the aims of employee training vary from one organisation to another. For instance, for some scholars the principal goal of ET in the public sector is enhancing the following: the level of individuals’ self-awareness, individual skills in one or many expertise areas, employees’ incentive to perform well and efficiently deliver public services (Wexely and Latham, 1995; Al-Nuseirat and Biygautane, 2014b).

The aims of ET must be characterised by specificity and orientation towards service employees because if ET is too general or unplanned, then it will have negative effects on employees’ ability to deal with customers. Random training may cause the deterioration of employee motivation and of confidence and the increase of uncertainty (Chiang et al., 2014: 404; Cabrera and Cabrera, 2005). Furthermore, some organisations find in training a way of motivating employees, considering it helpful in creating an environment which improves innovation and pushes towards achieving the organisation’s objectives including employee performance improvement (Oakland, 2003; Trukilmaz et al., 2011; Noe, 2008). ET is not confined to employees, but also includes managers for the aim of improving the provision of error-free services (Noe, 2008; Salheldin, 2009; Dale and Cooper, 1992).
It is necessary to continually train employees in knowledge, technical and interactive skills and process for service quality to improve (Normann, 1984; Wilson et al., 2012). However, it is clarified in the service literature that employees’ capability of responding to customers during service delivery is, to a great extent, a function of their knowledge and control (Bowen and Lawler, 1995; Melhem 2003). For instance, Bitner et al. (1990) assert that it is the knowledge of the service concept, delivery systems and operation and of the standards of the system that prepares service employees to tell the customers about things that occurred and things that can be done, and about the reasons for satisfying or unsatisfying their needs. Employees with a better knowledge will then be more content and will consequently deliver the service in a friendly manner (Yip, 2000), with marginal mistakes and faster time (Al-Nuseirat and Biygautane, 2014). This, in turn, will enhance employee motivation (Sahinidis and Bouris, 2008; Rowden and Conine, 2005; Tsi et al., 2007), self-confidence and self-efficacy (Khannan et al., 2011), the experience and relationships of, and between, employees and managers (Paauw, 2004; Cairncross et al., 2008; Dysvik and Kuvaas, 2008), services and meeting the requirements (Gonzalez and Gullen, 2002; Irfan et al., 2009; Iqbal and Khan, 2011).

What training offers also is a common language which enables employees to deliver services and deal with quality-related problems in a systematic manner (Jung and Hang, 2008; Vermeulen and Crous, 2000). Within an Arab context, Al-Refai (2012) conducted a study where 95% of the participants stated that it was training that made their performance better and led them to love their job more. Yet, training alone is not enough for service improvement or the success of TQM in spite of its various benefits and its role in enhancing employee performance and quality. There has to be a strategic link to the employees’ needs and to their job requirements (Suleiman and Steven, 1998; Chang et al., 2010). So, what sort of training is needed for ensuring the influence on the
efficiency of employees’ behaviour in the public sector? It is most important and essential that ET in the public sector should be focused on the organisational individuals who deliver the public service directly to the customer/citizen. As argued by Desimone et al. (2002), programmes of quality training concentrate on changing the attitudes of employees. It can be added that programmes of quality training must be constant, so that the changes in the workplace are met (Vermeulen and Crous, 2000: 62). As a final word, despite the assumptions, only a few empirical studies have investigated whether a relationship between training providence and individual tendencies, in relation to motivation, performance and satisfaction, exists, especially within the contexts of the public sector and the developing countries (Dysvik and Kuvaas, 2008; Sahinidis and Bouris, 2008).

3.5.6 The Management Information System (MIS)

Management Information System (MIS) refers to a “set of interrelated components that collect (input) manipulates 'process', store, and disseminate 'output' data and information and provide a corrective reaction (feedback mechanism) to meet an objective.” (Stair and Reynolds 2009:8). The role of Information Technology (IT) is facilitating cross-functional technological solutions and also enabling developments of the business process within a public or private organisation. The aim of such developments is safeguarding operation and employee efficacy and effectiveness (Ku, 2010; Bharati and Berg, 2003). Regarding customer focus, operations and continuous improvement, IT has contributed to reformulating TQM’s function (McAdam and Henderson, 2004).
The literature on TQM offers many examples proving that organisations have depended on MIS about quality-related information regarding collecting, storing, analysing, and finally delivering the resulting knowledge to the right people at the proper time (Daghfous and Barkhi, 2009). Information systems support both internal and external flows of information. In addition to the increased deployment of bottom-up data collecting techniques, the internal flow involves passing on the information concerning actual problem sources and the outcomes of ensuring improvement activities to the employees who are responsible for the work (Daghfous and Barkhi, 2009; Ittner and Larcker, 1995). Thus, for tasks to be accomplished, the availability of information is the indispensable condition (Randolph, 1995; Drucker, 1988; Aladwan, 2006). For example, information achieves the following: empowering employees, so that their ability to achieve customer satisfaction is increased and making employees in more control of their work (Berry, 1995).

However, the pertinent information about the service should be circulated by information systems to all the members of the organisation. One might wonder why Berry states this and whether it means that employees who are in contact with customers should obtain information related to the ideas and expectations of the customer they serve. Contact employees should obtain the information even if in different forms, like training sessions, from those available to senior managers. A golden opportunity might be missed if managers presume that employees of lower organisational levels do not need or are not interested in information relevant to organisational service performance (Berry, 1995).

Moreover, rather than only being a data-collection system, an information system must also be a communication system enabling the manager-employees’ interaction (Berry, 1995). The
information distributed to employees must have good characteristics. More specifically, MIS can support the characteristics of production information. The availability of such characteristics is essential because they facilitate the rapid response to customers’ needs. Besides, TQM’s strategy is enriched by MIS which contributes to quality cost reduction and to improving the data quality and internal processes (Mjema et al., 2005). Mithas et al. (2011) clarify further by explaining that the main function of information management is the enhancement of the following areas: organisational performance, customer management and operations management. It is also indicated that the Baldrige Award winners need IS in order to be able to apply quality models. In the context of the Pakistani public sector, research has revealed that IS primarily supports customer care and contributes to achieving employees’ autonomy (Arif and Ilyas, 2011). Though Jung and Hong (2008) conclude that IS contributes to enhancing the employee-customer relationship, the question of how this relationship works is still confusing.

As for process variability, it can be minimised by effective information management and good process management through providing an outline to be used by all employees while performing their jobs (Mithas et al., 2011; Davenport, 2000; Ku, 2010: 1090). In addition, the use of IS affects service provision factors indirectly (Bharati and Berg, 2005). For customer service representatives to be more emphatic and responsive, the information offered by IS should be characterised by timeliness and relevancy (Bharati and Berg, 2005). Deploying MIS increasingly in governmental organisations promises more collaborative and less centralised approaches. It is on the basis of the high possibility of sharing knowledge and cross-agency information – intrinsic in an information systems – that this promise is chiefly based (Salem and Jarrar, 2009). Not sufficiently covered by the literature, the final point to be mentioned here is MIS being fundamental to the TQM process and quality improvement (Light, 2004). Another point that has not been profoundly addressed by
the literature is the relationship between MIS and employee satisfaction particularly in the public sector.

3.6 Chapter Summary

TQM is a managerial philosophy aiming to involve everybody to provide the service in quality manner. TQM has critical factors which serve to develop people in organisations, as well as work conditions, communication and work relationships. The TQM literature reveals that there is a gap in the knowledge about TQM implementation in public administration. There is very little in the literature in terms of the good explanation of the relationships between TQM and employee satisfaction in the public sector. The next chapter will present an analysis of previous research on employee satisfaction and its theories.
CHAPTER FOUR

SERVICE EMPLOYEES SATISFACTION

4.1 Introduction

In a context that is changing rapidly with organisations’ need to be learner, faster and better-quality services providers in addition to offering a greater degree of efficiency and effectiveness, the central elements are employees who are both active and satisfied (Bowen and Lawler, 1995). As a result, a shift has occurred from the measurement of satisfaction at the individual and organisational level to considerations based on the market for industries, firms, economic and national sectors, from products to services and from the private to the public sector (Fosam, 1998). Concerning most TQM public organisations, what is essential is employee satisfaction measurement. This is principally pertinent in positions of direct contact between the customer and the employee (Jamieson and Richards, 1996). Ironically, managerial leaders realised that the distinctive source of competitive advantage are the people after they displaced employees implementing strategies of business improvement based upon downsizing and after the less productivity of other competitive plans was proved (Pfeffer, 1994).

In the public sector context, governmental agencies with a focus on employee satisfaction and associated attitudes are privileged with the availability of the necessary research and analytical tools (Kearney, 2012). Although not all problems have been solved, the possibility of designing and conducting research, which can greatly guide management, and, more specifically, elucidate the part employee satisfaction takes in government service quality improvement in the Jordanian
public sector, does exist. This chapter aims to provide a better understanding of the employee satisfaction literature which includes concepts, theories, models and critical factors or facets.

4.2 The Employee Satisfaction (ES) Concept

Employee satisfaction as a term does not have a fixed ultimate definition. In terms of origin, the root of the word ‘satisfaction’ is found in the Latin word ‘satisfacere’, which precisely means ‘to do’ (facere) ‘enough’ (satis); thus, ‘to satisfy’ acquired the meaning: ‘to do enough to meet a demand or need’ (Jonsson, 2012: 139). The American Heritage Dictionary defines ‘satisfaction’ in two ways; the first is gratifying a need or desire and the second is the content, appetite or pleasure stemming from this gratification (cited in Jonsson, 2012: 139).

Employee satisfaction is also defined in Webster’s English Dictionary (1987) as the degree of a job’s success in fulfilling a demand or need, or in functioning as an enjoyment means or source. The extent of an individual’s content with their job is another definition offered by West and Berman (2009: 329). Hoppock (1935) indicates the physical, mental and environmental dimensions of satisfaction comprise employee satisfaction, the degree of which can be measured by discussing employees about the extent of their satisfaction. Locke (1969: 307) defines employee satisfaction as “the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job”. Another aspect that is interconnected with employee satisfaction is employees’ achievement of their work values (Locke and Henne, 1986: 21). Hence, Employees’ general job-related preferences, attitudes and feelings are all aspects of employee satisfaction (Chen, 2008; Williams and Podsakoff, 1989).
Satisfaction is described by some researchers (e.g. Porter et al; 1975, Oshagbemi, 2013; Price, 2001; Dogan, 2009) as a feeling for a job which is defined by figuring out the difference between the valued outcome received by a service employee and the outcome amount the employee perceives and should get. Spector (1997:37) indicates that the general feeling about one’s job or the associated set of stances about concerning certain characteristics of the experience or job defines satisfaction. Lofquist and Dawis (1969: 53) note that satisfaction is a “function of the correspondence between the reinforcement system of the work environment and the individual’s needs”; here the elements of the work environment include the supervision style, operating conditions, communication, and co-workers and nature of work.

The above-mentioned definitions reveal that in defining employee satisfaction, Behavioural theorists have concentrated on employees’ feelings as a foremost element. However, there are operational factors which impact employee satisfaction such as communication satisfaction, operating conditions and co-workers.

4.3 The Theories of Employee Satisfaction

There is no one ideal theory that provides a full explanation of service employee satisfaction. The impact of the interaction of individual and contextual factors on employee satisfaction has been the focus of recent research, but there has been little effort concerning identifying what the possible implications these theories offer in the case of governmental organisations (Wright, 2001). The grounds of employee satisfaction have been the concern of many theories. These theories can be discussed under three classifications: 1) situational theories based on hypothesising that the nature of the employee’s job or other environmental aspects can be the source of ES. 2) dispositional approaches with their assumption that ES is entrenched in the
employee’s personological mould and 3) interactive theories advocating that ES is a consequence of the interaction between personality and the situation (Judge et al., 2001: 28). The following sections, discuss employee satisfaction theories so as to explain the factors that affect service employees satisfaction.

4.3.1 Maslow’s Need Theory

In their paper entitled “Understanding customer delight and outrage”, Schneider and Bowen (1999: 37) argue that “employees are people first and customers second”. The satisfaction of their essential needs of life at a more basic and compelling level than that of having their expectations as customers met is what customers endeavour to get (Schneider and Bowen, 1999). Hence, improving employee satisfaction requires service organisations’ understanding of those needs with giving a high priority to employees (Ahmad, 2009).

Maslow’s hierarchy of needs encompasses an understanding of both customers and employees. Maslow’s theory “model” (see Figure 4.1) is rendered as one of the most broadly referred to as relates to satisfaction theories. Ascending from the lowest need to the highest one is how Maslow’s model hierarchically orders human needs (Palmer, 2005). For Maslow, once a set of needs is met, this kind of needs stops to be a motivator; in this case, the following levels of needs prevail as motivators (Maslow, 1954; Borkowski, 2005; Huber, 2006). Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory suggests that people are ‘wanting’ beings who continuously have extra wants and it is what they already have that determines what they want (Tikkanen, 2009). Maslow additionally advocates that needs are classified into five categories which explain the largest part of human behaviour and his hierarchy ordered them from the most immature and primitive – based on the behaviour stimulated by them – to the most mature and civilised (Eyal and Roth,
People’s normal tendency, according to this theory, is realising and being motivated by each of these needs in an ascending manner (Ahmad, 2009). These needs are people’s fundamental needs which commonly emerge as arranged by Maslow; thus, the hierarchy can be considered universal, though relatively rather than wholly (Schutz, et al., 2010). Yet, Maslow does observe that the cultural difference causes variations in individuals’ motivational desires and that is why the fixed order of the hierarchy should not necessarily be maintained (Ahmad, 2009). The order raises some expectations at the expense of others like some individuals preferring self-esteem to love or employees being motivated by communication more than by promotion, or even the contrary (Eyal and Roth, 2011).

**Figure 4.1 Hierarchy of Needs pyramid**

Maslow’s basic factors are applicable in all contexts and this includes the TQM culture (Grover et al., 2006). Crucial factors encompassing: job security, working conditions, communication and good human relations contribute to employee satisfaction. Applying TQM effectively is what leads to the existence of such factors (Grover et al., 2006). When the management supports its employees and stimulates them, the natural result will be satisfying these employees. Without achieving this, organisations depending on TQM will be unable to accomplish their aims, e.g.
increasing service quality. One of the things that the management needs to do for training employees to be self-organised is allowing employees at all levels to take part in making decisions. It is more probable that the results expected from a quality department can be achieved by a motivated group of employees (Grover et al., 2006).

The model displays the customers’ needs and expectations as empathy which is one aspect of service and a value for customers. This PhD study’s researcher met several customers in the field work who said: “We don’t care about the physical service, we are looking for respect, politeness, friendship and collaboration”. This proves that the empathic behaviour is one of the customers’ social needs. Self-esteem that is a source of the customer’s delight is another case in point; the opportunity is there for service organisations to delight the customer by improving and upholding customers’ feelings of self-esteem. The key to this lies in the organisation’s ability to increase the customers’ self-worth through the acknowledgement of the importance, viewpoint and rights of customers (Schneider and Bowen, 1999: 37).

There are still some issues to be addressed concerning Maslow’s (1954) theory in the work situation despite his theory’s eminence. For example, it is not only through the work situation that people’s needs, particularly the highest-level ones, are necessarily met, but also through other life aspects. In addition, uncertainty surrounds the estimation of the time separating lower-level needs satisfaction and the higher-level needs emergence. An additional issue related to Maslow’s model is its being “less useful in offering perceptions about reactions containing more emotional strength, than that of satisfaction or dissatisfaction, on the part of both employees and customers” (Schneider and Bowen, 1999:37). Furthermore, individual dissimilarities indicate that employees ascribe different values to the same need. It has been observed that more than one need can be
satisfied by one reward sometimes; for instance, all the needs in the hierarchy may be satisfied by a promotion or a higher salary (Abu-Orabi, 2012). It is not likely for the motivating factors to be identical for employees of the same hierarchical level. Maslow’s justified this by explaining that originally he did not intend the applicability of his hierarchy of needs only to the work situation (Iyad, 2011). However, Maslow’s theory of satisfaction at work is still widespread. This theory has, for the last fifty years, significantly affected management approaches to satisfaction and designing organisations to satisfy employees’ needs (Mullins, 2009).

4.3.2 The Two-Factor Theory

As a continuation to Maslow’s theory, the two-factor theory was established by Herzberg, Mausner and Synderman (1959), after they had tested the performance-employee relationship. Their conclusion was that the set of conditions resulting in employee satisfaction is different from that leading to customer satisfaction (Schneider and George, 2011). Different factors determine satisfaction /dissatisfaction though both can possibly be viewed as two extremes on one continuum (Gill et al., 2010). Hence, dealing with them as two factors may be more productive (Furnham, 2005). Chelladurai (2006) argues that Herzberg’s most prominent conclusion is that all motivators are related to the work content as hygiene factors are to the context in which the work is performed (Fitzgerald and Schutte, 2010).

Challenging, making the work interesting and personally rewarding are motivating factors on which organisations need to concentrate for enhancing employee satisfaction (Spector, 1997). Employee satisfaction has two dimensions. The first covers motivator factors, the determinants of employee satisfaction including work, independence, responsibility, achievement, recognition and advancement, all pertinent to the content of the job (Borkowski, 2005; Suliman and Al-Sabri,
The second covers the hygiene factors, the determinants of employee satisfaction relevant to the context of the job and these are: the nature of the work, salary, administrative policies, interpersonal relations, supervision, and working conditions (Heathfield, 2009). Borkowski (2005) suggests that Herzberg’s usage of "hygiene" reaches in its scope factors that are essential for preventing dissatisfaction though such factors do not themselves achieve satisfaction (Swedaan, 2009). The following factors motivate employees to work well and be satisfied with their jobs: (1) being given rewards, internal and external (Herzberg et al., 1959) and (2) feeling a sense of autonomy, personal growth, completion and achievement (He et al., 2010). Performing the job itself be an internal reward for employees, especially if the job assigns a sense of meaningfulness and responsibility to service employees (Gibson et al., 2006).

For frontline employees, in the service context, service will be of high quality when they have done well in satisfying customers. Employees are intrinsically rewarded and satisfied when the work is enjoyable and challenging and also when they receive recognition from the management and supervisors through feedback (He et al., 2010). Herzberg’s motivators offered in the original study still represent an essential part of the culture of quality-oriented organisations which are successful (Utley et al., 1997). Contribution opportunities arise when triggering the collective potential of the organisation’s members granting every one of them the chance to be involved via several innovative paths (Utley et al., 1997). Delivering service with quality may be one of such creative paths. In conclusion, Herzberg’s motivators more probably exist with greater prominence in organisations which succeed in their implementation of quality management (Utley et al., 1997: 12).
The two-factor theory has been criticised by numerous theorists; for example, Borkowski (2005) argues that while one factor can be one person’s motivator, it can simultaneously be another person’s reason for dissatisfaction. Another point that is criticised is Herzberg classifying salary/pay as a “dissatisfier”, leading some critics to conclude that Herzberg does not value money as a motivator (Talal, 2011). However, Herzberg means that if the employees’ salaries do not satisfy their expectations, the result will be dissatisfaction. Moreover, Jex (2002) adds another problem which is the fact that it is assumption that is the basis of the conclusion that all employees have identical needs they seek in their work.

4.3.3 The McClelland’s Needs Theory

McClelland (1961) asserts that many needs, such as one’s values, are dictated by one’s culture, but needs are divided into three types which are: the need for achievement, the need for affiliation and the need for power; each of these needs explains most of any person’s observed behaviour. According to this theory, at certain stages of one’s career, any of the three needs can have a greater influence on one’s perception of reality than that of the other two (Halachmi and Van der Krogt, 2005).

Thus, for example, the employee whose motivator is the need for power will view in any situation a chance to gain, exercise or challenge power. Practically, power stems from various sources like education and training, leadership support, empowerment, knowledge and information. In the same situations, employees whose need for achievement is the prevalent one would detect opportunities for receiving feedback on their performance and problem solving as relates to work (Halachmi and Van der Krogt, 2005). Within the scope of enhancing productivity by adopting TQM, this theory offers management many remarkable applications. For example,
with TQM, employees are allowed to offer proposals and introduce changes that may enhance motivation, performance and satisfaction; this empowerment helps employees to have the means for meeting needs for affiliation and achievement (Ibid, p. 481). Service employees are social entities; each employee is inclined to be devoted to the group and sociable as well. Consequently, it is a positive impact that affiliation is expected to have on employee satisfaction and on the attitudes and perceptions of other people (Hsu and Wang, 2008). In service organisations, the TQM process as well as the endeavours to instil employee participation enables service employees to affect not only their own job situation but also on how others perform. For some service employees this may provide an opportunity to exercise power over others (Condrey, 2005). In summary, TQM organisations can provide service employees with various opportunities in order to satisfy them, including participation, achievement, and self-efficacy.

4.3.4 The Social Exchange Theory (SET)

The developing employee-customer interaction in service organisations makes the exchange process in service encounters dynamic (Sierra and McQuitty, 2005). The social exchanges that employees, in public service organisations may have are those with four kinds of groups: co-workers, supervisors, managers and customers. In light of the principles of the SET theory, employees develop an implicit obligation to respond to desirable attitudes and behaviour if they are supported and able to access the required resources (Blau, 1964; Chiang et al., 2014; Eisenberger et al., 1997). It has been explained by the previous literature that HR practices which are employees- centered – employee training and skills and performance rewards – prepare positive work climates, quality relationships and effective commitment (Wright and Kehoe, 2008; Sun et al., 2013). Social exchange, in specific, is prompted when one side of the
relationship grants a benefit to another and the recipient responds. Then, a mutual obligation between the two sides is instigated if this social interchange is followed by a succession of additional exchanges of benefits (Morrow et al., 2011). Hence, each side owns something which is valued by the other (Lawler, 2001). Emotions, in the service sector affect the way in which the sides of the relationship think of and feel about their relationship and shared activity. As emotions stemming from social exchanges influence social relations, a relationship with a service employee or a service encounter, whether successful or not will either positively or negatively affect a customer’s opinion of the whole service organisation (Sierra and McQuitty, 2005: 393).

More specifically, it can be argued that treating employees fairly motivates them to reciprocate this by responding kindly and reporting positive reactions to the work environment. The SET theory suggests that employees will also be motivated to excellently serve the customers when long-standing relationships with valued customers exist (Blau, 1964, Brown and Lam, 2008: 246). It is likely that such valued customers, for their part, will view the service employees’ performance as competent technically, emphatic and responsive (Brown and Lam, 2008: 246).

There are two reasons for the desirability and importance of paying attention to the customer-employee exchange and workers’ interchange among themselves. The first is the fact that good service quality requires the public organisations employees’ team work rather than the public servants’ independent work (Ma and Qu, 2011: 682). It is during the service provision process that many exchanges among service employees (co-workers) take place. The second reason is that offering service to citizens is the public servants’ foremost function. However, citizens are actively engaged in the service process rather than being just passive customers (Sierra and McQuitty, 2005). Despite the clarity of the SET application in the discipline of psychology, in
the social sciences, the effect of this theory has not yet been extensively empirically tested; as
the literature shows, there is a gap regarding the service employee-customer interaction, as a
social exchange (Sierra and McQuitty, 2005).

4.3.5 The Job Characteristics Model (JCM)

Some theorists agreed that enriching the job is the only method that ends in increasing personal
outcomes and employee performance (Faturochman, 1997). Seeking a description of the
connection between job characteristics and individual attitudes to work, Hackman and Oldham
(1976) introduced the Job Characteristics Model (JCM). According to this model, jobs containing
innately motivating characteristics achieve higher levels of employee satisfaction and other
positive results like lower withdrawal and improved performance (Judge et al., 2001). Later, the
JCM began to centre on five primary characteristics of a job (see Table 4.1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Characteristics</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Task identity</td>
<td>degree to which one can see one’s work from beginning to end</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task significance</td>
<td>degree to which one’s work is seen as important and significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task variety</td>
<td>extent to which job allows employees to do different tasks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>degree to which employees have control and discretion for how to conduct their job</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback</td>
<td>degree to which the work itself provides feedback for how the employee is performing the job</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Hackman and Lawler (1971)

Accordingly, with these core characteristics, there is a greater possibility for the job to achieve
employee motivation and satisfaction. The three psychological states which result from these job
characteristics are: the experienced meaningfulness of the work, responsibility for outcomes and
knowledge of outcomes which lead to other results (Hackman and Lawler, 1971, Judge et al., 2001). (See Figure 4.2) Faturochman (1997) argues that the effectiveness of work may include product and service quality and quantity as illustrated in Figure 4.2.

**Figure 4.2 Job Characteristics Model (JCM)**

![Job Characteristics Model (JCM)](image)

Source: Hackman and Oldham (1980, p. 90)

For employees to achieve the moderation of the job characteristics-psychological states relationship and the psychological states-outcomes relationship, they need three important factors (Hackman and Oldham, 1980) which are: co-workers, supervision, the context of work (pay, job security) and the aptitudes and knowledge to perform the required work (Faturochman, 1997). Employees’ dissatisfaction, unhappiness and the eventual frustration are caused by a lack in their knowledge and skills development (Faturochman, 1997). Employees’ performance cannot be optimum when one or more contextual factors are dissatisfying (Kulik et al., 1987;
O’Brien 1982). At least three of the several job design applications are related to TQM. The establishment of customer relationships demands employees’ direct interaction and accountability for managing relationships with customers, both externally and internally (Waldman, 1994).

Despite continuous improvement being designed to boost productivity and quality (Dahlgaard et al., 1998), developing processes more to achieve employee requirements increases satisfaction resulting in further productivity and quality improvement (Eskildsen and Dahlgaard, 2000: 1083). Important TQM factors like empowerment, training, participation and recognition directly cover task significant factors that are JCM components (Eskildsen and Dahlgaard, 2000). In brief, the essentiality of employee satisfaction for TQM success has been emphasised in service organisations (Steininger, 1994; Kini and Hobson, 2002).

Finally, Table 4.2 summaries the relationship between employee satisfaction theories and TQM initiatives and principles. After discussing employee satisfaction theories and the various arguments, it can be said that there is no specific theory capable of providing a full explanation of the nature of employee satisfaction in service organisations.
Table 4.2 The Link between the TQM theory and Employee Satisfaction (ES) theories

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Process theories</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>TQM assignments for employees that involve completing a whole identifiable task from the beginning to the end.</td>
<td>▲</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Employees input concerning incentives for TQM participation.</td>
<td>▲ ▲</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Provide quality training for managers and employees.</td>
<td>▲ ▲</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Clearly communicated benefits of TQM initiatives for individual employees.</td>
<td>▲ ▲</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>An effective system to monitor the progress of TQM.</td>
<td>▲</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Equitable distribution of incentives based on relative contributions.</td>
<td>▲</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>TQM assignments for employees that autonomously choose how to do the job.</td>
<td>▲</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Empowerment of employees in making TQM decisions.</td>
<td>▲ ▲ ▲</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>TQM assignments for employees require a variety of skills and abilities.</td>
<td>▲</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Clear communication of performance expectations for everyone involved.</td>
<td>▲ ▲</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Employees input into decisions to being TQM initiatives.</td>
<td>▲ ▲</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>An emphasis on TQM initiatives as essential for organisations to survive.</td>
<td>▲ ▲</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Organisational commitment to employee morale and well-being.</td>
<td>▲</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Consultation with employees prior to commitment to TQM initiatives.</td>
<td>▲ ▲</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Goal setting to establish specific performance objectives for TQM.</td>
<td>▲</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Kini and Hobson (2002, p. 610).

4.4 Employee Satisfaction Facets

Any job part giving a satisfaction/dissatisfaction feeling is a facet of employee satisfaction (Spector, 1997). Organisations can benefit from such facets if they aim at determining dissatisfaction areas in their endeavours to improve (Spector, 1997: 3). There are no limits for employees in terms of full satisfaction which may differ from one employee to another. In this

---

8 [CT: content theories which include: [Maslow’s Needs Theory; McClelland’s Theory of Needs; McGregor’s Theory X & Theory Y and Ouchi’s Theory Z] [EX: Expectancy Theory, BM: Behavioural Modification or Reinforcement Theory, GS: Goal Setting Theory, EQ: Equity Theory, JC: Job Characteristics Model or Theory].
respect, augmenting employee satisfaction relies on, among other aspects, good working conditions and relationships with colleagues, high salary, and career developments. One should bear in mind, while analysing employee satisfaction, that any facet which may greatly satisfy one employee may be meaningless or less important to another. Further, Schneider et al. (1992: 53) contend that employee satisfaction is about things that people have the chance to obtain rather than only what they have. Yet, the largest part of the literature in this respect focuses on how employees evaluate their current state without a view to their feeling about what they could get either presently or well ahead (ibid, p. 53). The employee satisfaction construct used in this research based on the scale was developed by Spector (1997). This scale encompasses ten facets that reflect the big picture of the ES construct. The focus in this chapter is only on the facets which support the conceptual framework for the current study. The following sections discuss these facets.

4.4.1 The Nature of the job

The nature of the job is the most highly pertinent facet to employee satisfaction (Hackman and Oldham, 1980; Spector, 1997). The definition of a job is effort exertion and knowledge and skills usage for achieving a goal (for example, the main aim for public organisations is providing services that meet customers/citizens’ needs). Individually speaking, making money is what most people aim to obtain from work. Nonetheless, they also seek other kinds of satisfaction like a sense of achievement, performing something meaningful, the chance of using and developing aptitudes, recognition, the chance to use and improve abilities and to exercise power, championship and social position (Armstrong, 2006). According to the interviews in this study conducted with employees in the public sector of Jordan it was found that staff considered the job itself as a motivator to them, more so than salary.
Most employees are desirous for intellectual challenges in their work, preferring getting the opportunity of using their aptitudes and being given many tasks, freedom and feedback on the degree of their performance excellence. However, such characteristics are available only in mentally challenging jobs. On the one hand, jobs that offer too little challenge lead to boredom. On the other hand, jobs with overload and excessive challenge lead to feelings of failing and frustration (Fincham and Rhodes, 1999). The elements that increase employees’ productivity are: having interesting jobs, having pride in their jobs and being recognised for their work (Lenka et al., 2010: 91). Hence, it can be said that balance and flexibility are required when designing jobs in the public sector. For example, the job must include clear and specific steps and key processes with a given margin of freedom for employees to act within.

Employees’ motivation can last for a long time if the job is meaningful and satisfying and if they have some control over the job (Broadwell, 1990). The job offers satisfaction and pleasure to the employee if it contains reasonable challenge. In short, employee satisfaction level is impacted by the nature of the job (Spector, 1997; Smith et al., 1969; Alshitri, 2013). It has been suggested that employees’ involvement, satisfaction and commitment to the organisation and customers increases while the possibility of their leaving the organisation decreases only when the organisation gives them challenging and exciting jobs (Tutuncu and Kozak, 2007, Igbaria, 1991). However, some of the TQM factors, like information systems, may impact the nature of the job (William and Ephraim, 2003), continuous improvement (Tatsapaugh, 1994) and training (Broadwell, 1990).

The areas that can significantly be changed by TQM are: the job design and employees’ required new behaviour, responsibilities and roles (Victor et al., 2000). Implementing TQM efficiently prescribes a paradigm shift or drastic change in the design of jobs or roles (Munroe- Faure and
The typology of work can be seen as having four categories (see Figure 4.3). For example, March and Simon (1958) distinguish programmed jobs from non-programmed ones.

![Figure 4.3 Typologies of job](image)

Victor and Boynton (1998) have added ‘systematic innovation’ work, which combines the characteristics of programmed and non-programmed jobs, as a third type. The fourth type is ‘continuous improvement’ (Tushman, 1979). The outputs and goals of such a public job are programmed and well defined; however, this kind of job demands altering the means of performing it (Victor et al., 2000). Any alterations in organisational approaches, structure, culture and technologies may lead to changes in the nature of the job and employees’ behaviour. A significant relationship between responsiveness, faster innovation rates and positive changes in the nature of work has been argued to lead to supervision reduction as well as productivity and motivation satisfaction increase (Bridges, 1995; Howard, 1995; Rifkin, 1995; Frese, 2000; Worrell, 2004).

Changing in public sector organisations which apply TQM means that there are few fully programmed or non-programmed jobs, but work is mixed between the two. Thus, the nature of jobs is not static and routine, but affected by continuous improvement. Furthermore, the literature found that the job of work under TQM is dualistic, a combination of standardised and continuous improvement (Lawler, 1986) or mechanistic and organic (Victor, 2000). Moreover, Public
institutions that apply quality systems are committed to make the public jobs and tasks simplified and easier to enhance the service responsiveness and reliability. Other scholars (e.g. Lillrank and Kano, 1989; Victor, 2000:105) contend that while performing the job, employees fluctuate between abiding by strict rules (programmed tasks) and rewriting these rules creatively to achieve gains in reliability, speed efficiency and quality.

4.4.2 Supervision

The literature on employee satisfaction illustrates a close relation between supervisors and employees. Attention has been paid to this relationship in service organisations (Locke 1976; Spector, 1997, 1999; Gwinner et al., 1998; Berry, 1995). However, some authors (e.g. Kohli, 1985; Spector, 1997; Jeon and Choi, 2012: 336; Worrell, 2004) argue that employee satisfaction is importantly affected by supervisory styles and behaviours. Being understanding and friendly, praising the employee for good performance, listening to employees’ viewpoints and showing personal interest in them are all characteristics enabling an immediate supervisor to increase employee satisfaction (Robinson et al., 2010).

Employee-supervisor positive interactions make employees more satisfied in their work (Bruce and Blackburn, 1992; Vroom, 1982). Interacting positively is based on successful communication, useful feedback and a focus on quality rather than quantity (Schroffel, 1999; Netemeyer et al., 1997). One can explain the service employee-supervisor relationship drawing on Schneider et al. (1992: 57) who says: “there are two ways to explain the supervision behaviour: supervisors assess employees’ performance with ratings that may affect employees’ future opportunities and assign work that can influence the opportunities with which employees are presented.” However, the opportunities should encompass the following: dealing with subordinates respectfully, permitting
them to think independently and satisfying employees’ needs on the personal and functional levels (Locke, 1976). Supervisors who stimulate their employees to express their own concerns, facilitate employees’ skills and abilities improvement and provide positive feedback are described as supportive (London et al., 1999; Kim, 2002).

Because service delivery hinges on human interaction, the critical role is played by employees. Besides, positive interactions are vital for employees and supervisors equally. Supervisors capable of guiding employees to perform optimally are always needed (Lenka et al., 2010). Thus, the supervision quality also plays a role in improving service performance and achieving employee satisfaction (Burke, 2001). The supervisors’ contribution is the creation of a work environment benefiting employees and leading to a high-quality service delivery. (Lenka et al., 2010).

Theoretically, the supervisor-subordinate relationship is partially founded on functional attraction theory. Functional attraction denotes the degree to which subordinates think that their supervisor is aiding them to attain the valued results from their job (Schneider et al., 1992: 57). For example, service employees’ confidence and positivity while dealing with customers will increase if these employees realise that they are being well directed and treated by their supervisors. Here, it can be contended that good supervision not only aims to enhance the relationship between employees and supervisors but also to achieve individual and organisational goals which may include improving public service and enhancing customer satisfaction, as well as improving citizens’ perception-image of the public organisation. This idea can be partially supported by the path goal theory, where employee satisfaction is highly correlated to supervision support (Evans, 1970; Brown and Peterson, 1993). This indicates that through supervisors providing fluid paths for employees and
aiding them to accomplish their career aims, employee fulfilment and satisfaction can be augmented (Churchill et al., 1993; Ilies and Scott, 2006).

In addition to representing the procedures, policies and actions of the management, what supervisors can do is influencing, educating, coaching and developing employees (Hsu and Wang, 2008). Good supervisor-employee relationships make employees view their organisations as offering greater supportiveness, autonomy and decision-making freedom (Hsu and Wang, 2008). In contrast, service employees’ ability to deliver high-quality service to customers can be negatively affected by the deficiency of supervisory support (Chiang et al., 2014). For example, having greater flexibility concerning dealing with the demands of customer service, employees cultivate a sense of possession over the outcome of the service and this eventually stimulates them to achieve a better overall performance and service quality (Chiang et al., 2014).

The current research found significant improvement in the relationship between service employees and their supervisors. This improvement is due to several changes: 1) the transformation of the administrative philosophy in the public sector and leadership style which has shifted from role-bound relationships to relationships based on collaboration and participation; 2) the high attention paid to public employees as a result of applying TQM. Actually, very limited consideration has been given to the relationship between service employees and their supervisors especially in public service organisations.

4.4.3 Co-workers

Both Theory Z (Ouchi, 1982) and Theory Y (McGregor, 1960) concentrate on the healthy relationships among employees, supervisors and managers. Because of the positive impacts it has on the workplace, an increasing attention has been recently paid to co-workers’ support. It has
been concluded that it contributes to work stress reduction, human relations enhancement and performance improvement in addition to its role in an increasing employee satisfaction (Bateman, 2009; Joiner, 2007). The importance of co-workers in service delivery stems from the fact that the service is heterogeneous. This means that the service has numerous requirements entailing cooperation among employees by information and knowledge sharing for the sake of serving customers (Chowdhury and Endres, 2010).

A definition of co-worker satisfaction can be the collaboration and co-ordination depending on flows of organisational information in order to guarantee information sharing among the coordinating employees (Salem and Jarrar, 2010). Thus, in service organisations good relationships among employees are highly desirable. This relationship implies that employees help one another in their tasks, jobs and duties, need to share experience and knowledge and provide support, social and human, and encouragement (Zhou and George, 2001). Furthermore, what is reflected by co-worker relationships is the degree of organisations’ or their members’ social supportiveness and competence in completing tasks (Spector, 1985; Alshitri, 2013). Things that can be done by co-workers encompass orienting new employees though this is not mandated, assisting others who are absent, or aiding those who are pressured by excessive workload (Kim et al., 2009b).

One individual cannot perform to the optimum levels on their own. Yet, one person can thwart performing to the optimum levels without realising that they are doing so (Blazey, 2008). When considering the construct ‘prosocial service behaviour’, this cooperation is regarded as a vital component (Bettencourt and Brown, 1997; Bellou and Andronikidis, 2008). In this regard, we can borrow a quotation from one interviewee in the current research who said that “one hand cannot clap”. This denotes that collaboration among employees is extremely important to achieve the
tasks and to provide the government services. As evident through the interviews, there is a strong relationship between co-workers in the public sector. This reflects a positive change in the public sector which was previously driven by bureaucracy, a theory which characterised government organisations by a lack of cooperation among the employees. Another observation from the current research is that the Jordanian public employees’ culture is based on ALZAMALEH (cooperation values). These values must be invested in a systematic manner to promote cooperation among the public staff in order to provide services and satisfy the public customers.

Joiner (2007) argues that between organisational performance and TQM practices, co-worker support functions as a moderating variable. It is co-workers’ cooperation that is the basis of TQM organisations’ success (Ebrahimi et al., 2014). Tangible benefits and money are not the only things that people obtain from work as most employees seek fulfilment of the need for social interaction as well. Therefore, it is not surprising that employee satisfaction can increase as a result of having supportive and friendly co-workers. What people require by pursuing warm, friendly and cooperative relationships with others is not just immediate benefit, but also future benefit, typical social support, at times of need (La Rocco et al., 1980, Schneider et al., 1992).

Another advantage of co-workers is that their beneficial feedback assists the employee to improve in the job (Zhou and George, 2001). It also enables employees to improve the learning process among them, increase their responsiveness to new job requirements and focus on their jobs (Utman, 1997, Zhou and George, 2001). Some scholars (Amabile, 1988; Zhou and George, 2001; Love and Dustin, 2014) add that cooperation and co-workers are the key to novelty in terms of new service and product creation and administrative processes improvement. In contrast, co-
workers’ personal conflicts cause a work environment that is uncomfortable in addition to low productivity (Rajendra et al. 2014; Kim and Yun, 2014).

The relational coordination theory (see Thompson, 1967) is an interaction process which is based on mutual reinforcement between relationships and communication that is meant to achieve the integration of tasks. According to this theory, essential to the coordination process are the three following relationship types: mutual respect, shared goals and shared knowledge (Gittell, 2002). For example, shared knowledge upturns co-workers’ coordination. The question now is: How does this theory work? It is argued here that this theory does not provide a clear explanation of co-workers’ role in services provision. It focuses on the importance of knowledge as one of the main pillars of collaboration, but how is knowledge generated through the co-workers? This needs more explanation. According to the results of the current research, knowledge dissemination needs an effective communication plan and an efficient methodology which enables the development of tacit knowledge. Transmitting knowledge between co-workers requires several factors such as encouraging employee participation, simplifying governmental organisational structures and nurturing the knowledge exchange culture among employees.

In a similar way, one can argue that as job resources, co-workers are influential in facilitating employees’ accomplishment of work goals, increasing personal growth and reducing job demands (Bakker et al., 2004; Ng and Sorensen, 2008). Specifically, when they share aptitudes pertinent to tasks, co-workers become work-related resources and this ends in augmenting employee satisfaction and performance (Chiaburu and Harrison, 2008). As for knowledge, it is classified into tacit and explicit (Polanyi, 2009). Tacit knowledge particularly requires frequent interactions between co-workers (Nonaka, 1994).
In light of the analysis of the qualitative data conducted for this thesis, the sample organisations offered communication plans in order to exchange knowledge and enhance collaboration among employees. However, some organisations conducted periodic meetings to transfer the knowledge and experiences from the senior staff to their colleagues. Several benefits could be gained from these meetings such as enhancing collaboration, empowering frontline employees to serve the public and improving the ability of employees to respond to citizens’ requirements.

The workplace will become a climate that is good for service, making employees better positioned to show a high service performance level when these employees see their co-workers as supportive (Yang, 2008). Furthermore, the service behaviour itself will become positive when friendly relationships exist among co-workers (Tsai, 2001). Though the literature on TQM and quality points to the importance of co-worker support, these conclusions lack the empirical testing (Montes et al., 2003; Joiner, 2007; Subramony and Pugh, 2015). More specifically, No solid theory addresses the relationship between service quality and co-worker satisfaction, especially in the public sector and there is no accurate analysis of the part played by co-worker satisfaction in availing service quality dimensions like reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy.

### 4.4.4 Communication Satisfaction

The basis of all management activities is communication. For instance, 75% or more of service employees’ time at work is spent on some communication forms (Carriere and Bourque, 2009). Acquiring and communicating information are essential and vital. For example, Managers are liable to be more effective in boosting employees’ satisfaction and commitment when they can express and communicate their vision of the development and other aspects of the organisation.
clearly (Lee and Wen-Jung 2005; Carriere and Bourque, 2009). The important impact of communication on employee satisfaction appears when communicating customers’ feedback results as well as their commentary on services and giving recognition to employees whose service satisfied the customer (Back et al., 2011). It is worth mentioning that the TQM literature focuses on organisational communication. Thus, the questions are: “What is the role of individual communication (between employees and their supervisors) in service quality?” And “What is the impact of TQM on enhancing individual communication?” These questions open the door in the public sector literature to bridge the gap in the TQM literature. However, to answer these questions, the meaning of communication satisfaction will be firstly discussed.

The inherent satisfaction of a person after their successful communication with someone (an employee, supervisor or manager) or after someone’s successful communication with the person is what communication satisfaction indicates (Thayer, 1986). Several factors play their roles in communication satisfaction including subordinate communication, co-workers communication, supervisory communication, organisational integration and personal feedback (Clampitt and Girard, 1993). Communication satisfaction also involves tools and skills which are used for organisational goals achievement like service quality enhancement (Al-Dmour et al., 2012; Oakland, 2003). At an individual level, Melhem (2003) define the communication as the extent of information sharing between employees and their supervisors in order to serve customers and meet their expectations. Moreover, when employees and supervisors share information, any occurring customer problems can be resolved (Grönroos, 2000) and performance can be improved (Pfeffer and Veiga, 1999).
The following three functions are served by communication satisfaction: (a) controlling the behaviour of employees; (b) nurturing motivation by explaining to employees what should be done, forming specific objectives, providing feedback on processes towards goals and buttressing favoured behaviour which are all motivators and entail communication and (c) decision making facilitation (Robbins and Juge, 2007). However, it is really essential for any two-way communication with employees, particularly the face-to-face one, to be founded on a feeling of being esteemed and on trust (Oakland, 2003).

Accuracy, truthfulness and clarity are the three prerequisites that must be available in the source of communication in addition to the shortness and recognisability of the communication channel. As for the characteristics required in the message, they are the following: supportiveness, honesty, expressiveness and containing valuable information to assist employees to interact, with efficiency and effectiveness, with external and internal customers. Confusion concerning the requirements for both customers and employees can be reduced by better communication (Kumar et al., 2011) which also leads to improving the functional dimensions of quality (Sharma and Patterson, 1999).

It is indicated by Back et al. (2011) that by concerning themselves with communication satisfaction, supervisors will be able to improve employees’ perception of internal service quality (Back et al., 2011; Mount and Back, 1999).

Supervisors and managers are the responsible parties for communicating as well as elucidating and explaining to subordinates plans, job tasks, policies and objectives (Back et al., 2011). Goal clarity is one of the vital elements as regards communication. This element’s importance stems from its role in individual performance increasing (Emmanuel et al., 2008). Because employees’ actions related to certain organisational objectives can lead to organisational performance improvement,
an amalgamation of clear well-specified aims is highly important (Boswell et al.; 2006). The literature shows that meeting the communication needs positively impacts the work performed around these interactions (Sias et al., 2002; Jablin, 1985; Fay, 2011).

Service employees will be able to address customers and answer their queries in a fast, correct and effective way if good communication exists in the work climate (Moorman et al., 1993; Melhem, 2004). Service can contribute to accomplishing the overall organisational aim when employees realise and understand their duties, tasks and objectives (Niven, 2008; Bhuiyan and Baghel, 2005). Concerning its benefits to the customer, effective communication facilitates addressing customers’ problems and complaints that they encounter while evaluating services (Moorman et al., 1993). Finally, theoretically, Matthies-Baraibar et al. (2014) highlight that organisations which have improved through deploying quality models (e.g. EFQM) have developed employees who are contented with internal communication.

### 4.4.5 Operating Conditions

“Operating conditions” can be defined as the level of employees’ satisfaction with procedures, rules and internal processes (Spector, 1997). The role of supportive working conditions is crucial in motivating service employees and increasing their satisfaction. The conditions which employees wish to find in their work atmosphere to be both comfortable and personally safe, so that doing their jobs is made smoother (Robbins, et al., 2010). Workload is normally the main component of operating conditions. Workload is a requirement imposed by the job on the employee (Spector, 1985). There are two workload main kinds, the first of which is the qualitative workload, which is the physical or mental exertion demanded by job tasks or the difficulty level. The quantitative
workload is the second kind which is related to how much work an employee must do (Spector 1997; Liu and Liu, 2014).

A connection between high workload and job dissatisfaction has been detected by many studies (e.g. Liu and Liu, 2014; Spector, 1997; Jex, 2002). Logically, a reverse relationship exists between workload and service delivery speed (Diwas and Terwiesch, 2009). Thus, the time needed for completing service transactions increases when workload is high. Besides, the time and attention that should be dedicated to caring for customers decrease with excessive workload (Blegen et al., 1998) which also increases mistakes in the delivered services (Landrigan et al., 2004; Needleman et al., 2002). Blegen et al. (1998) conclude that all the personnel’s time dedicated to customer care is directly connected with the levels of workload, customer complaints and the simplicity/complexity of service procedures.

The literature generally illustrates that service employees’ readiness to serve customers is determined by the organisational environment (Bienstock et al., 2003; Raub, 2008). Operating conditions constitute the element which is more important than all other organisational climate factors such as administrative structure. For instance, high levels of complexity, centralisation and formalisation affect service employee satisfaction negatively. Excessive bureaucracy also negatively influences a service employee’s capability of responding to customer needs (Adler and Borys, 1996) and, as argued by Raub (2008) and Laschinger et al. (2001), keeping negative bureaucracy to a minimum makes employees helpful.

Victor et al. (2000) note that a good TQM application enables employees to react effectively to unpredictable issues related to critical cues in the environment, so that problems can be resolved. Thus, since applications of TQM can improve the process related to service employees’
experiences of work and improvement level, these employees may not perceive work excess (Liu and Liu, 2014). In brief, employees’ satisfaction and, consequently, their high commitment to service quality often increase with the rise of the clarity of tasks and job procedures (Schwepker and Hartline 2005).

4.4.6 Promotion

The function of promotion, as one of the job satisfaction facets, is the evaluation of how insights about the future can impact employee satisfaction (Spector 1997). Studies have found that employees whose attitudes to their jobs and organisations are negative are the ones who receive and expect only few chances for promotion (Schneider, 1992; Kanter, 1977, Kipnis, 1964; Larson, 1982). Promotions can be used by organisations to reward employees who are highly productive and whose incentive to endeavour more increases as a result. However, it is only if employees highly value promotion, as a motivation, that promotions can be an effective in stimulating more effort (Kosteas, 2011).

In the public sector, promotion may be valued greatly by employees due to its role in increasing job benefits, employees valuing it as an acknowledgement of good performance, or the ego boost caused by it (Kosteas, 2011). Moreover, employees may enjoy having extra authority over co-workers, which is collateral to a promotion (Kosteas, 2011). De Souza (2002) concludes that managers and employees who get promoted are more content with the chances of promotion and their future promotional expectations rise. Therefore, many TQM organisations resort to promotion for motivating public servants. Moreover, promotional opportunities have been augmented in organisations with organisational excellence models or TQM (Blazey, 2013).
Finally, despite the number of studies on job satisfaction, there is still a gap in the area of promotion and the part it plays in service quality and job satisfaction.

4.4.7 Pay Satisfaction

Pay satisfaction is an issue of financial and psychological adequacy (Taylor and Vest, 1992). It is classified into the absolute pay satisfaction and the relative one. Employees determine whether they are salaried fairly by assessing the relative and absolute amounts they are paid (Taylor and Vest, 1992). There are many reasons that make pay increasingly important as a tool of management. Firstly, because service production has grown increasingly multifaceted and refined, managers should make use of the human capital, creativity and skills of employees who are better than anyone regarding the local knowledge of the job in terms of what can be done and what cannot. This is not always obvious and apparent to their supervising managers. Secondly, in many organisations, the number of layers of supervisors and managers has decreased due to flattening the hierarchal structures (Taylor and Vest, 1992). Thirdly, increasing the speed of organisational and technological transformations and novelties reaches the degree that lowers the levels of decision making within organisations (McKenzie and Lee, 1998). In such cases, managers are required to figure out methods for enticing employees to exploit their human capital, information and skills in order to accomplish organisational goals (ibid, p. 5). Once found, incentives should be effectively deployed by managers in order for them to better serve the customers.

The importance of pay is so high and has led to developing specific models of ‘just’ pay satisfaction and this importance is stressed by many scholars like Lawler (1971) and Heneman and Schwab (1985). For instance, Lawler (1971) proposes that pay satisfaction is the inconsistency between employees’ actual salary and the salary feel they should get. In addition, what is achieved
by salary is self-esteem (Brockner, 1988) and the chance to obtain anything that can be bought by money (Lawler, 1971). That one’s salary is fair is more important than the pay itself as a source of satisfaction. Most employees are not bothered if the salary of people in other jobs is higher than theirs (Spector, 1997); however, it often is a source of concern if people in the same job get a higher salary (Stringer et al., 2011; Spector, 1997). According to the Equity Theory, employees’ conclusions concerning salary equity are grounded on comparing their salaries to others’, like co-workers, or on additional parallels with others such as the organisation or job (Adams, 1965; Stringer et al., 2011; Noe et al., 2006).

Employee satisfaction is affected by the pay process more than by the actual pay levels (Spector, 1997). Pride and Ferrel (2006) argue that one of the benefits of good compensation is stimulating employees to properly treat customers. Another possibility is using pay plans to generate good employee conduct as is done in some service organisations. It facilitates energising and controlling the employees (Al-Dmour et al., 2012). Some scholars contend that the pay-for-performance plans benefit from the re-enforcement theory advocating that pay should be associated with performance, which means rewarding employees upon their achievement of pre-defined targets (Stringer et al., 2011; Heneman, 1992). The types of employers’ approaches to payment are based on focusing on any of the following three elements: performance, service or skills. Focusing on performance means the emphasis on adaptation, setting targets, changing and the close relationship between employees’ payment and their achievement (Torrington and Hall, 1998). For its part, concentrating on service involves open-ended measures as regards employment continuity, annual reviews and scales of incremental pay (Stringer et al., 2011). As for the focus on skills, it involves devoting higher pay levels for employees with superior or rarer skills (Torrington and Hall, 1998).
One of the consequences of the low degrees of pay satisfaction, in governmental and business activities, has been the increase of corrupt practices. This, in turn, causes poor performance and prejudicial treatment of customers (Omar and Ogenyi, 2006; Scarpello and Jones, 1996). Thus, for raising the level of pay satisfaction and for positive results, the ideal and most effective solution is developing a pay-for-performance compensation system (Omar and Ogenyi, 2006). In conclusion, the rationale behind rewarding employees is making them realise that the key to getting rewarded is their success in delivering quality service (Schneider and Bowen, 1995).

4.5 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, employee satisfaction theories, critical factors, facets and models have been discussed. The service literature confirms that employees are key elements to achieve organisational success. Although organisations have systems and tools to achieve customer satisfaction through the provision of service, people (employees) are the cornerstone to achieve this. Accordingly, no comprehensive model exists which can fully explain employee satisfaction, especially in public sector organisations which apply TQM. The next chapter will discuss service quality and its concepts and models, in order to complete the literature review and produce the conceptual framework for the research undertaken in this study.
CHAPTER FIVE
SERVICE QUALITY IN PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

5.1 Introduction

The subject of customer service in the public sector has recently become increasingly popular, as evidenced by the growing body of theory and the attention it is receiving in practice. At the macro level, governments promise the public of delivering services with high quality, a new assurance from governments that want to be seen as responsive, effective and efficient (Gore, 1993). To this aim, public organisations have sought to adopt principles and methods from the private sector like TQM and business excellence models (Dimitriades and Maroudas, 2007). This shift is represented by the New Public Management (NPM) movement, with its promotion of anticipating, understanding and meeting customers’ and stakeholders’ expectations and needs (Kontogeorgos et al., 2014).

The literature on service quality has for a long time centred on the importance of employees, especially those who directly interact with customers. Employees’ role in providing service and improving its quality varies noticeably from one service context to another. The employee-customer interaction is principally significant in the context of governmental service. Yet, most studies on service quality, in this context, are limited to the topic of applying TQM techniques within the environment of a “service factory” as described by many authors (Maister, 1983; Dotchin and Oakland, 1994; Schmenner, 1986). An environment like this entails the following: emphasis on the tangibles, the desirability of service standardisation and the feasibility of control against specifications. Consequently, the challenge posed by the high level of employee-customer interaction and by intangibility has been comparatively disregarded.
Service quality research has not covered the governmental service sector to the extent it has studied private firms and businesses (Edvardsson and Enquist, 2006). In addition, as Bowen (2016) and Subramony and Pugh (2015) conclude, service has become a central issue in marketing, but is still at the earliest stages in management. Therefore, a study (such as this doctoral project) can contribute to knowledge by exploring the impact of TQM as a management system on service employees and delivery in the public sector. This chapter discusses service quality; its concepts, dimensions, models, in addition to employees’ role in service delivery. The chapter also presents the conceptual framework which contains the relationship connecting TQM, employee satisfaction and service quality.

5.2 The Service Quality Concept

During the last twenty years, quality in public service organisations has been a hot topic of debate (Edvardsson and Enquist, 2006). In this regard, many definitions of services, quality and service quality will be presented respectively. Schneider (1973) observes that psychologists, for over forty years, have not known whether the influence of the formal organisation on its members extends beyond the organisation. After forty years, the emphasis on service intangible and experience qualities led to the definition of services as applications of proficiencies for another party’s advantage (Subramony and Pugh, 2015; Vargo and Lusch, 2004). This definition answers Schneider’s (1973) question by stressing that the impact of formal service organisations goes beyond them through employees, policies and practices like TQM, culture and others.

More specifically, services refer to “the application of specialised competence ‘knowledge and skills’ through deeds, processes and performances for the benefit of another entity or the entity itself.” (Lovelock, 1991:13). Schneider and Bowen (1985:5) define service as any economic
activity that does not yield a physical product, that is generally consumed at the instant of its production and whose added value is one of the customer’s intangible concerns like convenience, amusement, timeliness and comfort.

Concerning quality, its definition based on two aspects: conforming to objectives and specifications and responding to customers’ expectations and needs (Juran and Gruyner, 1980; Crosby, 1982). Deans and Evans (1994) add that quality aims at even surpassing customer expectations not only meeting their needs. As for service quality, it is the organisation’s capability to meet customers’ needs and expectations (Parasuraman et al., 1988; Flynn, 2007). Service quality is used interchangeably with service excellence by most organisations (Ramesook- Munhurrun et al., 2010). Service excellence is a cluster of circumstances, situations, conducts and attitudes which the customer perceives while interacting with a service employee (Abed Latif, 2011). The two dimensions of service quality are: the mechanistic quality involving an objective side or a characteristic of a thing or event and the humanistic quality which is a relative issue based on the people’s personal response to objects (Melhem, 2003).

In terms of measurement in the literature, SERVQUAL is the tool of conceptualising and measuring the concept of quality. This scale chiefly depended on customers’ perceived quality (Parasuraman et al., 1988: 15). Perceived quality, as Zeithaml (1987) defines it, is the customer’s judgment about the general superiority/excellence of an entity. Because it is a kind of attitude, not identical with satisfaction but related to it, and results from comparing expectations with the perceptions of performance, perceived quality is different from objective quality (Garvin, 1983; Parasuraman et al., 1988). Hence, service quality describes service employees’ behaviour – like
adaptive and creative service provision – when interacting with customers to respond to their needs (Aryee et al., 2013).

5.3 Service Quality as a Culture in the Public Sector

To improve their reputation and competitive position, many public organisations strived to establish a service excellence culture. Culture is a typical set of rules and assumptions which directs employees’ behaviour and outlooks (Robbins, 1992). There is a correlation between culture and performance in theory (Deal and Kennedy, 1983; Tichy, 1982). However, this piece of research proposes that all organisational members share the responsibility for service quality. Establishing a service quality culture in the public sector reveals a positive change in government organisational culture. One example is when a service-orientated programme ushers a culture more powerful than the bureaucratic one which relies on inflexible rules and procedures (Heskett and Kotter, 1992). This is attributed to the fact that service culture is usually invisible and entirely dependent on assumptions and values (Tompkins and Cheney, 1985). The important role in spreading this culture in general, particularly service quality, is played by senior managers (Schein, 1985). Moreover, a robust customer orientation culture can be facilitated through the psychological and physical closeness between service employees and public customers (Goodale et al., 1997).

In Jordan’s public organisations, many senior leaders concerted their efforts to establish and improve the quality and excellence culture which has, historically, been based on cultural Islamic heritage. In fact, quality is stressed in the Qur’an revealed 1400 years ago. In this regard, one interviewee (a TQM manager] said that “as a theory, quality should become the main principle for future public organisations in Jordan”. Thus, what is needed is adapting many Islamic values and
habits then using them in the public sector just as Japanese Management based the quality culture in the public sector on *Confucius* values like love, loyalty and collaboration.

### 5.4 Government Services: an Overview

There are two paradigms in relation to the continuous pursuit of service quality; the first is centred on the service organisation underlain by the desire to compete and survive in the international context. The second concentrates on the customer, and involves a desire for services with better quality (Agus et al., 2007). The reasons for service quality moving to the forefront of public administration management are: the increased concentration on revenue, the pressure of increasing citizen needs and expectations and the escalating competition between governmental organisations and business firms which deliver the same services (Agus et al., 2007). It is justifiable that the largest body of service literature has concentrated on service quality in business firms since government originations encounter numerous challenges when applying principles of public service quality (Buckley, 2003). These challenges can be summarised as follows (Kearsery and Varey (1998) :

1. Multiple, non-financial, conflicting and ambiguous goals.
2. Lack of agreement on means-end.
3. Contextual turbulence.
4. Immeasurable outputs.
5. Problematic in customer definition.
6. Effects of administration intervention unknown.
Although the private and the public sectors share the belief in the importance of service quality and customer satisfaction, they depart from each other in many respects (Zeppou and Stoirakou, 2003; Walmsley, 1990; Agus et al., 2007). In terms of operating in different contexts, government originations operate in a context characterised by the monopoly of some services, resource constraints, and delivering services free of charge and citizens’ increasing needs and expectations (Robinson, 2003). Dale et al. (2000) argue that the government sector has, as part of modernising public services and value-for-money initiatives, undergone drastic changes that improved vision, mission, core values and performance which are backed up with legislation. These initiatives are usually presented under the quality umbrella and emplaced to convince the government that the body in question is serious about quality (Dale et al., 2000).

Recently, the administrative environment and the concomitant pressure for reforming the public sector have caused a significant pressure from external and internal sources on public organisations (Chatzoglou et al., 2013). Government bodies are required to demonstrate their competence in performance improvement and goal achievement. The well-known recommendation in this regard is applying private sector service systems (Chatzoglou et al., 2013). Deploying private sector managerial philosophies and practices in the public sector is known as “managerialism” (Uhr, 1990). The success “managerialism” in increasing the efficiency and effectiveness of government organisations is conditional on organisations’ readiness to introduce many substantial reforms to their culture and systems (Dixon et al. 1998; Yasin et al., 2001).

In brief, government services are necessary for people protection, community development and law and order implementation. Since the appearance of the first forms of government, governmental services have emerged and their reach, complexity and efficiency have developed
over time (Dubai Government Summit, 2015). Furthermore, governments’ optimal aim is the maximisation of service quality and citizens’ satisfaction. The two aspects are indicators used in evaluating the success of the organisation (Dubai Government Summit, 2015).

5.5 Service Characteristics in Public Administration

Government service has four characteristics: intangibility, inseparability, heterogeneity and perishability. Unlike goods/objects, government services are performances which cannot be realised by the senses like tasting, touching, or seeing (Schneider and White, 2004; Zeithaml et al., 1985). Bateson (1979) argues that the basic element of goods/services disparity is intangibility from which all other differences stem. Schneider and White (2004) support Bateson’s argument by highlighting that services yield more psychological than physical experiences. However, intangibility is not the sole characteristic of all services some of which contain tangible elements and, as stressed by Schneider and White (2004), services are arranged on an intangibility continuum.

The second characteristic is the Inseparability of production and consumption, the two elements by which most services are characterised (Zeithaml et al., 1985; Berry, 1983; Bell, 1981). This means that a pure service is produced and consumed during a delivery experience and therefore it cannot be separated from this experience and stored aside to be used later at another place (Schneider and White, 2004: 7). In other words, unlike goods which are produced, sold and then consumed, services are simultaneously sold, produced and consumed (Regan, 1963; Zeithaml et al., 1985). Since, in most cases, the customer witnesses the production of the service, inseparability “forces the customer an intimate contact with the service production process” (Carmen and
In short, inseparability nature for public service may be lead to social exchange between service employees and customer/citizens (Sierra and McQuitty, 2005).

Concerning heterogeneity, it is related to the possibility of high variability in government service performance (Zeithaml et al., 1985). Service essence and quality differ from a customer to another, an employee to another and from day to another. For example, a problem with behaviour consistency might occur when various employees deal with one customer (Langeard et al; 1981). In public service organisations, heterogeneity is obvious and it can pose several challenges; for instance, being a relative issue, heterogeneity increases the difficulty of measuring the service. The human interaction element in producing and delivering a service makes the service heterogeneous (Schneider and White, 2004). Heterogeneity, then, is caused by the diversity of customers’ needs and the different ways whereby employees meet such needs at different times (Schneider and White, 2004). Heterogeneity demands a government organisation to highly care for its employees by providing: good communication, simplified procedures, training, incentives and empowerment. Becser (2007) argues that despite any strict supervision, employees’ performance and satisfaction do not maintain the same level all the time and that if a service is provided by many employees, its quality relies on their total skills.

The final characteristic, perishability is the non-possibility of storing the service for later usage (Bessom and Jackson, 1975; Zeithaml et al., 1985). The inability of service storing leads to the difficulty encountered by service businesses in the supply and demand synchronisation (Zeithaml et al., 1985). In addition, the level of demand also fluctuates between too much and too little. The literature suggests that each of the four above-discussed characteristics poses specific challenges for service employees (see Table 5.1). Regarding the difficulties caused by perishability, they can
be overcome by improving the organisation’s processes and procedures and by training its employees to deliver high-quality services with standards like assurance and reliability.

Table 5.1 Characteristics of service and their challenges

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Service characteristics</th>
<th>The challenges</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intangibility</td>
<td>1. service can not be stored.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. can not protect services through patents.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. can not readily display or communication services.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. service costs are difficult to calculate.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inseparability</td>
<td>5. customers involved in service production.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. other customers involved in service production.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. centralised mass production of service difficult.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heterogeneity</td>
<td>8. standardisation and quality control difficult to achieve.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perishability</td>
<td>9. service can not be inventoried.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Zeithamal et al., (1985: 35)

5.6 Service Categorisation and Classification

Service classification is mechanism powerful in comprehending the service nature (Hunt, 1976), aiding managers to understand customer behaviour and needs better (Lovelock, 1983). As stressed earlier in this chapter, services vary depending on intangibility, inseparability, heterogeneity and perishability levels (Lovelock, 1983). Yet, marketing theorists have concerted efforts for service and goods classification (Lovelock, 1983). For example, at the beginning of the 1980s, Lovelock (1983) launched a service classification project and his goal was assisting marketers to design programmes of strategic marketing. Lovelock’s model depends on the following two dimensions in service classification: a) the direct recipient of the service and (b) the nature of the service act. With regard to the first dimension, Lovelock emphasises that customers may be things or people (see Table 5.2).
Chase and Aquilano (1977) and Chase (1978) inform us that the level of customer contact depends on three service types: pure, mixed and quasi-manufacturing services (see Figure 5.1). Most importantly, the level of contact is not the same in all the government services (Chase, 1978; Chase et al., 1984), which explains why government services are not all identical. Job design and the nature of work, in addition to service procedures and processes, all contribute to the differences among services.

Table 5.2 Understanding the nature of the service act

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What is the nature of the service act?</th>
<th>People</th>
<th>Things</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tangible</td>
<td>Services directed at peoples bodies</td>
<td>Health Care</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Passenger transportations</td>
<td>Restaurants</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Beauty salons</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intangible</td>
<td>Services directed at people’s minds</td>
<td>Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Broadcasting</td>
<td>Information services</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Theatres and Museums</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Lovelock (1983: 12)

Schneider and White (2004) mention some delivery features are essential for a high-contact service more so than for low-contact services. They also observe that issues of capacity can be almost controllable, and so forth. Chase and Tansik (1983: 1042) found their thoughts related to customer contact issues in many clear propositions when the service on which one concentrates is characterised by high contact. Government services in this thesis are regarded as ‘mixed services’ though many kinds of government services involve a direct employee-customer/citizen contact. Because the level of service employee-customer interaction in the public sector ranges between medium and high, as in Figure 5.1, employees’ roles in delivering services is extremely important. The left side of the figure show more freedom in the interaction with employees.
It is essential for the purposes of this thesis to discuss the importance of service classifications in order for the researcher to set the stage for the employee’s vital role of the in the provision and quality of services, specifically those depending more on the service employee-customer interaction (Melhem, 2003). Customer orientation and satisfaction are central to this emphasis on employees’ role as advanced by Kelly (1990), who stresses organisations need to develop a customer-oriented culture to achieve customer satisfaction. Customer orientation is based on satisfying customers’ demands depending on individual relationships between employees and
customers (Saxe and Weitz, 1982). Both soft and hard data are essential for anticipating customer expectations and achieving customer satisfaction. The hard data encompasses quantifiable issues like reliability and performance (Gilmore and Moreland, 2000), which are tangible and can be measured easily. The soft data deals with the qualitative aspects of customer expectations and relations; measuring and managing this kind of data are more difficult, which makes measuring service quality based on them also difficult.

5.7 The Dimensions of Service Quality

As mentioned before, there are two dimensions of service quality which are: tangible/quantitative and intangible/psychological factors (Melham, 2003) (see Figure 5.2).

Figure 5.2 Dimensions of Service Quality (Examples)

An exploratory study by Parasurman et al. (1985) ended with listing the criteria which customers use to assess service quality and which are covered by the following overlapping dimensions:
tangibles, courtesy, responsiveness, reliability, credibility, competence, access, security, communication and understanding the customer). This list revolves around delivery issues and this is the interesting point about it. Later, Parasuraman et al. (1988: 23) modified the list to focus on five major constructs: tangibility, reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy as will be discussed in the following sections.

5.7.1 Tangibility

Tangibles are factors like equipment, physical facilities, communication materials and personnel’s appearance (Berry and Zeithaml, 1991). More specifically, tangibility includes elements like features [extras], performance [core product primary characteristics], conformance [performance and specifications matching] and aesthetics [exterior design, task, smell and touch] (Parasuraman et al., 1988). Moreover, service quality tangible dimensions significantly influence its intangible ones; it is emphasised that overall impact of tangibility on perceived SQ is significantly greater than direct effect, which suggests that intangibility factors have an intermediate role in tangibility (Reimer and Kuehn, 2005). Some early pioneers (e.g. Gronroos, 1990; Parasuraman et al., 1988; Cornin and Taylor; 1992) argued that the role of service quality intangible perspectives in customer satisfaction is more vital than that of tangible ones. This means that the service employee-customer behavioural interaction reveals the significance of soft dimensions in service quality.

Gummesson (1992) advanced a typology of service dimensions that concentrates more on the tangible aspects of service than the Gronroos typology (1990) and SERVQUAL. Gummesson (1992) proposes that evaluating service delivery involves three elements: service, tangibles and software or information technology. Parasuraman and his colleagues (1991), for their part, conclude that people are inclined to view tangibles as the least significant among the SERVQUAL
dimensions. However, further evidence demonstrates that tangibility is important than it thought sometimes.

In this research, tangibility was excluded from the research model since it is not suitable for the conceptual model. For example, the influence of employee satisfaction on tangible factors cannot be measured though the opposite is right. In other words, the circumstances surrounding service delivery can affect people’s perception of and feelings concerning the service and organisation (Zeithaml and Bitner, 2000). In her study of ‘servicescape’, Bitner (1992) centred her attention on the significance of tangibles, the physical facilities surrounding the service delivery. Tangibility is absolutely not an insignificant element of service which can affect customers’ reactions to the process of service delivery (Schneider and White, 2004), an element over which employees have little or no control (Pantouvaski and Bouranta, 2013). Following sections will discuss the dimensions of service quality.

5.7.2 Reliability

Practically, reliability is perceived by customers as the most important aspect of service quality (Bowen and Lawler, 2006). As Grönroos (1990) argues, reliability means service employees’ capability of delivering the promised service accurately, dependably and consistently. Reliability as such depends on discovering whether service employees’ output is congruent with what they are supposed to deliver – whether it just meets or rather exceeds customer expectations. To ensure service reliability, public organisations should answer the following questions: does the organisation always provide the same level of service, or does each encounter produce a dramatically different quality level? The question posed by Grönroos (1990) is: do customers know that they can count on the service provider, its employees and its systems in concentrating on the
customer’s best interest? (See Parasuraman et al., 1985; Chase and Bowen, 1991). The recent definition of reliability is the ability of an item to achieve a demanded function under given circumstances and for a specified time period (TL9000 Handbook, 2014). Another definition of reliability is an application’s capability of processing service requests correctly within a maximum acceptable time (Bauer and Adams, 2014). Since service reliability relies on probability it is difficult to for many people to deal with it mathematically and apprehend it (Bauer and Adams, 2014).

In public service organisations, we can argue that the service reliability is an interactive rather than a ‘deterministic concept which means that customers are affected by many variables while perceiving and assessing the service reliability. This also entails that reliability does not have a fixed meaning due to customers’ different values, needs, perceptions and expectations. In short, being a social construct, reliability is determined by both organisational and human factors like internal communication, operating conditions, employee motivation and satisfaction, collaboration, supervisors support, training and others. Based on Herzberg’s conceptual framework, reliability is related to the ‘hygiene factors’; customers expect how the service should be, but it is observing the process and employees’ performance that establishes a real motivation to recurrently use the service (Lashley, 1997).

Consequently, failing to deliver reliable services will generally denote the failure of organisations /employees (Hoffman and Bateson, 1997). For example, service employees’ dissatisfaction, feelings of stress and being pressured to faster take the organisation to a better future will make them perform worse and commit mistakes, which can cause production to deteriorate (Selby, 2007). On the contrary, training employees to delight in the present moment and exploit their free
breathing space even when doing their jobs will grant them a clear mind, refreshment, creativity, energy, reliability, accuracy and friendliness (Selby, 2007). Measuring service reliability requires key performance indicators ‘KPIs’ (Figure 5.3) like free errors and employees’ capability of solving the customer complaints and problems, etc. Besides, service employees have the following responsibilities: reducing variability in public services and addressing customer complaints and taking corrective actions, while simultaneously maintaining respect, politeness and friendliness (Van der Heijden et al., 2013; Liao, 2007). Reducing governmental service unpredictability and variability requires a margin of freedom to be given to employees directly interacting with customers (Gowan et al., 2001). Furthermore, service employees need empowerment and a high-level freedom to make decisions, which enables them to correct mistakes and resolve problems related to delivered services (Gowan et al., 2001; Sellers, 1990). Concerning the factors impacting reliability, the conceptual model presented by Street et al. (2009) divides these factors into direct and indirect. The direct factors encompass trust, motivation, and the information exchange among employees. The indirect ones include information systems, training and managers’ support. Nevertheless, the relationships among these factors still need to be empirically tested.

Figure 5.3 the relationship between KPIs and Service reliability measurement

Source: Adapted from Bauer and Adams (2014: 12).
5.7.3 Responsiveness

Historically, for the public sector to be responsive, the governmental executive agents must, in consistency with the public interest as identified in each case, meet citizens’ demands in the democratic society (McCamy, 1954: 30). Openness and responsiveness are expected to be the characteristics of governmental organisations and their leaders (Rainey, 2009). However, there are two kinds of the government’s responsiveness, the first of which is to citizens’ needs and the second is to the government’s interest (Saltzstein, 1992). Public organisations are requested to respond to citizens’ needs helpfully, flexibly and reasonably (Rainey, 2009). Accordingly, one can argue that one of the governmental organisations’ high interests is meeting citizens’ needs.

Public organisations have recently given due weight to the role of responsiveness in achieving customer satisfaction (Vigoda, 2002). This has led to customers of excellence organisations realisation that organisations not only listen to them but also can and are pleased to respond to customers’ service-related reasonable demands (Johnston and Clark, 2008). Thus, customers of public services do not hear mechanistic responses like ‘I’m sorry, we don’t do that’, because service employees are encouraged to attempt to satisfy customers, though within reasonable margins (Johnston and Clark, 2008). Referring to the willingness to deliver prompt services and to be of help to customers (Zairi, 2012), in government service organisations, responsiveness means the commitment to a constant service provision and all employees’ initiatives in service delivery (Lai, 2006; Almahamid, 2014). Hence, the three characteristics which represent responsiveness in public organisations are: willingness, completeness and timeliness (Buyukozkan et al., 2011; Palumbo, 2013).
Concerning the element of time, the customer’s waiting time until the service is delivered is one of the most important criteria in evaluating service responsiveness. Too long waiting time affects customers’ expectations and perceptions related to the service (Palumbo et al., 2013). As argued by Vigoda (2002), the pillars of responsiveness are the employee’s accuracy and speed while addressing a customer’s demand for information or action. Whereas accuracy is the degree to which the employee’s response satisfies the customer’s need, speed is the time passing between the customer’s request and the employee’s response (Vigoda, 2002: 529). Furthermore, if public organisations stick to providing services quickly, citizens’ trust increases (OECD, 2013).

Some recommendations have been made for service responsiveness improvement. First, customers’ problems need to be acknowledged; when customers’ concerns are attended, the organisation shows it is seriously interested in the customers’ welfare, regardless whoever is responsible for the mistake. Second, taking responsibility by predicting what mistakes customers might make and preparing solutions for such cases. Third, resolving any problem without making the customer feel embarrassed about it (Hoffman and Bateson, 1997). Speaking of errors, one can mention the recovery concept, the fifth dimension in Gronroos model, also present in the SURVQUAL dimension of responsiveness, with a focus on responding to customer problems and complaints. According to this concept, if the organisation recovers well, the customer will remember the failure of the service encounter positively (Bitner et al., 1990). For these recommendations to be at work, collaboration between the organisation and its employees is essential. Also, responsiveness is conditional on the balance among quality practices and employees quality (Kaplan and Norton, 1996).
In this thesis, the researcher found that responsiveness, a critical factor for service quality, is determined by many indicators: the nature of the job and the internal processes; the time required for completing the service or transaction; and customer focus. Other indicators include working conditions, supervision style, communication satisfaction, training and participation. In other words, an employee who is educated, well trained, motivated, empowered and satisfied is more likely to demonstrate a high level of responsiveness to customers.

5.7.4 Assurance

Assurance is a popular construct in public sector organisations many of which have implemented quality management systems depending on ISO 9000 over the last 20 years. Assurance is employees’ courtesy, knowledge and aptitude to inspire trust (Schneider and White, 2004). As a characteristic of service quality, assurance stems from customers’ feeling of freedom from doubt, risk and danger (Parasuraman et al., 1985). For example, the issue of records when they are thought of as paper substitutes for customers (Chas and Brown, 1991). The question to be asked here is: does the organisation provide employees with all the skills which are required for a professional service delivery? (Hoffman and Bateson, 1997). Achieving assurance requires both creditable people and courtesy which is the way in which a service employee interacts with the customers and their possessions. Accordingly, courtesy is based on personal merits like kindness, friendliness, politeness and caring for customers’ properties (Schneider and White, 2004; Hoffman and Bateson, 1997). Chowdhary and Prakash (2007) stress the high importance of assurance when the targets of services are individual customers demanding substantial employee-customer contact. They also contend that employees’ positive interaction with customers augments the assurance significance. According to practitioners, there are five enablers that play a role in service assurance in government organisations (see Figure 6.4).
The first is *transparency* which demands internal and external open communications. The second is *responsibility* which entails a high attention when dealing with customer complaints taking into account the focus on customers, a TQM critical factor. *Customer experience* is third enabler which requires standards of service quality encompassing relevancy, honesty, acceptability and the reliability of experience. As for the fourth enabler, *empowerment*, it involves the delegation of powers, training and shifting responsibility from supervisors/managers to service employees who are in direct interaction with customers. Finally, *recognition* entails that public organisations’ relationships with their employees and with their external customers should be maintained.

**Figure 5.4 Enablers of service assurance in the public sector organisations**

- **Good intentions**
  - Communicate openly with customers and provide them with clear information about government policies, decisions, requirements and results.

- **Transparency**
  - When customer exposed for bad experience, the organisation must be take responsibility at both levels individually and institutionally.

- **Responsibility**
  - Provide [acceptable, relevant, honest, and reliable experience], regardless of the method or way which used to provide this experience.

- **Customer experiences**
  - Train, empower, delegate the employees to take decisions and provide the government services in order to gain customer trust.

- **Empowerment**
  - Reward and recognise the behaviour which builds bridge of trust between government and customers or citizens.

- **Recognition**
  - Employees Efficiency

Source: Adapted from Dubai Government Summit (2014).
5.7.5 Empathy

Psychotherapists have had an interest in empathy for many years, but recently this interest has emerged and gradually increased in the broader field of business and service management (Tait, 2008) and the result has been viewing empathetic behaviour as a vital work aspect in the public sector (Sloan, 2014; Hsieh and Guy, 2009). However, the empathy concept is simultaneously important and challengeable. Tripp (2013:58) stressed “no empathy no service”. Although empathy is a key factor for service quality, it “is the launching pad for new ideas about how you might be of greater service”. The greatest challenge that service organisations encounters nowadays is learning ways to achieve emotional involvement that is perceived as genuine by each citizen (Selby, 2007).

There are many meanings of the term empathy. For example, for psychologists, empathy is a cognitive process involving playing other people’s roles and viewing the world from others’ perspectives (Dymond, 1950: 15). It means being capable of identifying and understanding others’ feelings, situation, motives (Martinuzz and Freeman, 2009) and other people’s concerns (Gloeman, 1998, 2011). Further, empathy is the aptitude of treating others depending on their emotional reactions. Hoffman (2008: 440) defines empathy as an emotional state prompted by that of another person where one is expected to feel the other’s situation and emotions. Hence, empathy is the art of imagining oneself in another person’s situation to understand their emotional state and perspectives and behaving in light of this understanding (Baron-Cohen, 2011).

Operationally, empathy is an amalgamation communication, access and understanding customers’ expectations and needs (Parasuraman et al., 1988; Schneider and White, 2004) and requires the emotional connection between customers and employees (Rajendra et al., 2014). Addressing the
empathy concept, theorists attempt to answer the questions of whether employees understand other people’s motives, even if people have different backgrounds, and whether employees are sensitive to others’ needs (Goleman and Boyatzis, 2013). There are three levels of empathy: personal, interpersonal and organisational. Empathy at the personal level is impacted by self-variables pertinent to service employees like trust, incentives and promotion. It is affected by collaboration and co-workers at the interpersonal level, and by information, leadership style, employee participation, and customer orientation at the organisational level (Miyashiro, 2011).

Traditional psychological approaches to customer satisfaction improvement are founded on theories which attempt to make use of customers’ credulity for the evocation of a positive emotional experience. Therefore, public organisations employees need training in the area of manipulating customers’ emotions in the required directions (Selby, 2007; Goleman and Boyatzis, 2013). Research shows that many organisations have realised that empathetic frontline employees, who feel customers’ emotions and respond accordingly, are needed (Entel et al., 2007). It has also been found that only the organisations which adopt an ethos of institutional-wide empathy in terms of values and practices have recognised customer service as a maintainable competitive merit (Entel et al., 2007).

To aid our understanding of employees’ and management’s role in empathy, the Empathy Engine (EE) was adopted (see Entel et al., 2007; Krznaric, 2014) as a collection of kinds of behaviour and processes for the purpose of actuating empathy (Entel et al., 2007) (see Figure 5.5). The four motivators comprising EE: senior managers, the management, employees and customers. The vital role which top managers’ play, through their decisions and values, is uniting the organisation for the focus on empathy with customers and customer service (Entel et al, 2007; Hojat, 2007). Above
all, managers prioritise caring for their employees, so that employees can focus on caring for customers (Entel et al., 2007). Managers along with service employees and supervisors endeavour to collectively imagine themselves in their customers’ situation, so that they better serve customers (Dal Santo et al., 2014). Moreover, as Collins (2001) argues, empathy is affected by some characteristics required in the leader like self-awareness, support and humility. Thus, a condition of organisations’ high performance is its dependence on managers/supervisors with self-awareness and other characteristics enabling them to connect with others (Bassett, 1992: 210).

**Figure 5.5 The Empathy Engine (EE)**

![Figure 5.5 The Empathy Engine (EE)](image)

Source: Adapted from Entel (2007:15).

Furthermore, there are implicit dimensions of EE like TQM which is the license to practice. For TQM to succeed, modern public organisations need to be well prepared with systematic processes which determine organisations’ consistent and reliable quality, value chain, standards of promising customers and trustworthiness while meeting customers’ demands regularly, speedily and emphatically (Zairi, 2012). The TQM system stimulates employees to adjust to and realise customers’ emotions (Hanson, 2007). It can be argued that empathy is a participatory, rather than manipulative, technique; this means that service employees need an inner shift from negative to positive moods, so that they develop genuine friendliness and helpfulness. Interestingly, the
findings of our research contribute to knowledge by developing the empathy engine / theory, adding new motivators which impact the empathy engine in the public sector as shown in Figure (5.6).

**Figure 5.6 Empathy Engine in the Jordanian Public Sector**

This shows empathy as a process involving particular steps or requirements as shown in Figure 5.7. The first step is *preparation* which entails ignoring any worries, judgments or stress before encountering the customer because they can spoil the encounter; employees need to focus on positive heart-chantered emotions. The second step is *the moment of encounter* when the employee meets a customer; at this moment, the employee should offer a relaxed space by greeting in an honest, friendly and non-judgmental way (Selby, 2007). *Empathic communication* is the third step which involves talking about business; the employee at this moment should preserve the aim of serving the customers and truly satisfying their needs (Selby, 2007). When service employees generate a ‘pleasant’ emotional atmosphere, they can ensure customers’ confidence in being well cared for. The final step is *processing*, involving a pause following the encounter for the employee to reflect on it and to determine the way of following it up. This achieves employees’ re-experiencing of the encounter’s positive elements and concentrating on customers’ demands to satisfy them in the future (Selby, 2007: 6-7).
Figure 5.7 The Empathy Process

Source: designed by author based on Selby (2007).

Aligning and integrating organisational requirements, like applications of TQM, with employees’ needs are necessary for improving service empathy (Zairi, 2012). In other words, a radical approach is required for the creation of an emotional connection or service empathy (Miyashiro, 2011). Accordingly, it is not enough for organisations to improve their quality approaches and concentrate on service provision with some customisation factors only (Zairi, 2012). However, what is required is an inclusive model taking into consideration the integrated factors which have both hard and soft sides like employee satisfaction and TQM. However, although the significant of empathic behaviour in the service organisations (Wilder et al., 2014); still there is gap in theory especially in the public sector context.

5.8 Service Quality Models

This thesis has involved continued research on defining, modelling, simulating, scaling and measuring, collecting data and analysing these data. The researcher found 19 service quality models in different contexts, all of which applied in business firms. The key service models supporting the researcher’s argument and research objectives have been selected. What most service quality models have in common is related to service dimensions; for example, each ensuing
development of service quality models has been an endeavour at defining the five dimensions of the service quality structure more accurately or at correcting the insufficient consideration of customer’s expectations, perception and satisfaction (Chaipooirutana, 2008). These models will be discussed in the following sections.

5.8.1 The Technical and Functional Quality Model (Nordic Model)

In order to explain service quality, Grönroos (1984) introduced one of the early measures of service quality by applying a classical customer satisfaction/dissatisfaction model. According to this model, the three factors modelling a quality service framework are: functional quality, technical quality and image (see Figure 5.5). Technical quality is associated with what is received by customers after interacting with a service organisation as essential for evaluating service quality (Grönroos, 1984: 38). Functional quality, referred to as expressive performance by Swan and Comb (1976), relates to the service process factors pertinent to the way services are delivered (Grönroos, 1991). However, since services are produced during the customer-employee interaction, the technical quality perspective does not count for the total quality which customers think they have obtained (Grönroos, 1984). As for image, Lehtinen and Lehtinen (1982) and, later, Grönroos (1990) highlighted the vitality of corporate image in the service quality experience.

Customers normally involve in each encounter their previous experience and general perception of the service organisation because they often recurrently interact with the same organisation (Kang and James, 2004; Grönroos, 2001). Therefore, a public organisation’s asset will be a satisfactory and well-known image that impacts a customer’s opinions of the organisation’s operations and communication. Image in the current research is the public organisation’s reputation. Accordingly, if customers hold a positive image of any service employee, his/her slight
errors will be absolved; however, if this image is negative, the customer will regard an employee’s mistake as a grave one (Kang and James, 2004). There are many factors contributing to the formation of the image in the public sector encompassing responsibility and reliability (Fomburn, 1996), as well as good service and trust (Luoma-aho, 2008). Grönroos (1990) lists six criteria for experienced service quality all chiefly associated with functional instead of technical issues. Grönroos’s criteria (1990) are akin to those included in the SERVQUAL typology; for instance, the reliability element is common between both of them. Besides, the trust element and employees’ knowledge required for quality service delivery are represented in Grönroos’s reputation/credibility and in the SERVQUAL assurance dimensions, one finds professionalism/skills. Another common point is the Grönroos behaviour and attitudes dimension which is congruent with caring for customers that is found in the empathy dimension of SERVQUAL (Schneider and White, 2004).

**Figure 5.8 Nordic Service Quality Model**

![Nordic Service Quality Model](image)

Source: Adapted from Grönroos (1984: 40)

---

9 *Itqan* is the Arabic word which was mentioned in the Qur’an meaning the highest level of quality.
5.8.2 SERVQUAL and SERVPERF

Depending on the Grönroos model, the combined results of the functional and technical quality factors may not be enough for identifying customers’ perceptions since both factors combine into the corporate image (Chaipoopiratana, 2008). Expanding on the work of Grönroos, Parasuraman et al. (1988) interviewed focus groups and the result was that customers’ expectations were the bases of evaluating service quality; that is, assessment depended on the discrepancy between their perceptions of the service transaction they experienced and their expectations of how it should have been. Consequently, SERVQUAL embraced what is known as the “gap model approach” which measures service quality as the five discrepancies between expectations and perceptions (Schneider and White, 2004) (see Figure 5.9 and Table 5.4).

Table 5.4 Model Gaps and Definitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Gaps</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G1</td>
<td>the gap between customer perceptions and management perceptions of those expectations will have an impact on the customer evaluation of service quality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G2</td>
<td>the gap between management perceptions of customer expectations and the firm’s service quality specifications will affect service quality from the customer viewpoints.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G3</td>
<td>the gap between service quality specifications and actual service delivery will affect service quality from the customer standpoint.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G4</td>
<td>the gap between actual service delivery and external communications about the service will impact service quality from a customer standpoint.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G5</td>
<td>the quality that a customer perceives in a service is a function of the magnitude and direction of the gap between expected service and perceived service.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Adapted from Parasuraman et al. (1988)

SERVQUAL is also known as the Gap Model and SERVPERF is known as service performance only.
There have been many points of criticism in relation to this model and its measurement scale (SERVQUAL). For example, the ten SERVQUAL elements advanced by Parasuraman et al., (1985) have not been supported and administering expectation items has been believed as unnecessary by most studies (Ramseook-Munhurrun et al., 2010; Carman 1990; Babakus and Boller, 1992). Some theorists stated that what performance achieves is only improving customers’ perception of service quality and that customers’ expectations are excluded from this concept (see, Schneider and White, 2004). The gap model is incapable of fully explaining all the critical elements impacting service quality. For example, SERVQUAL does not cover crucial factors like customer focus, operating conditions and co-workers. Moreover, the focus of SERVQUAL is on the process of service delivery and it does not tackle the outcomes of the service encounter (Kang and James, 2004; Grönroos, 1990; Mangold and Babakus, 1991).

Positively responding to the challenges facing SERVQUAL, Cronin and Taylor (1992) advanced the SERVPERF model which evaluates service quality solely depending on performance. Empirically, they discovered that SERVPERF works better than other service quality scales and is able to yield more precise service quality scores than SERVQUAL (Cronin and Taylor, 1992; Ramseook-Munhurrun et al., 2010). The SERVPERF model has been designed for investigating and measuring service quality and its link to purchase intentions and customer satisfaction. Cronin and Taylor (1992) compared the computed difference scores with perceptions and inferred that perceptions are a better service quality indicator. Cronin and Taylor (1992) also found that SERVQUAL causes confusion between attitude and satisfaction. Besides, according to Cronin and Taylor (1992), it is possible to conceptualise service quality as akin to an attitude and operationalise it by the adequacy-importance model. Thus, service quality can be determined by performance rather than performance expectation (Seth et al., 2005).
As Boulding et al. (1993) contend, only perceptions related to performance affect the perceived quality directly. This conclusion convincingly attests to the superiority of this scale, SERVPERF (Jain and Gupta, 2004). The current study measures service quality from customers’ perspectives without comparing them with employees’ views. The reasons for choosing this way of measuring are: 1) the study does not aim at exploring the service gap and 2) bias may be the outcome of relying on employees in assessing the service quality.

Figure 5.9 Gap service model

Source: Adapted from Parasuraman et al. (1988).
5.8.3 The Service Profit Chain Model (SPC)

Like all organisational activities, arguments supporting quality movement are interconnected with profits. At the beginning of the 1990s, Heskett and his colleagues presented a conceptual model for the aim of clarifying the connections among the following variables: customer satisfaction, job satisfaction, loyalty, revenue growth and profitability (see Figure 5.10). It is on concepts dominant in the TQM and service quality literature that the Service Profit Chain (SPC) is based (Silvestro and Cross, 2000: 245). Pioneers of TQM claim that the ownership of the process impacts job satisfaction which ends in better productivity, organisational performance (Deming, 1986; Ishikawa, 1985). Further, this model is established on the so-called ‘satisfaction mirror’ implying that outcomes of business success stem from employee satisfaction (Silvestro and Cross, 2000).

SPC concentrates on the organisation’s internal functioning; that is, all that happens within the organisation in relation to the workplace design and employees which facilitate the organisation’s functioning and customer satisfaction (Heskett et al., 1997). Focusing on internal organisational functioning, the SPC underscores that service quality delivery does not simply occur independently. Rather, it requires endeavours to support and aid employees in striving to deliver service quality (Schneider and White, 2004). In other words, organisations are supposed to equip their employees with the needed tools and resources for the goal of service provision with efficiency and effectiveness (Schneider et al., 1998; Burke et al., 1996). An organisation’s management should significantly satisfy its employees if the management’s aim is providing high-quality service (Reynoso and Moores, 1995). Moreover, excellent service provision is also conditional on employees being well supported by others within the organisation (Grönroos, 1990).
However, internal service and work facilitation are not enough for external service quality delivery though they are necessary. SPC has been used by hundreds of scholars in the literature on marketing, but it has not yet been covered well to be able to investigate the impact of employee satisfaction on service quality in different arenas like the public sector. In fact, SPC was designed for business companies whose goal is profitability, but one should bear in mind that the public sector has different goals and different kind of customers’ nature.

**Figure 5.10 the Service Profit Chain Model**

![Service Profit Chain Model Diagram](image)

Source: Adapted from Heskett et al., (1994, p. 166)

Conceptualising SPC relationships has so far been based on some anecdotal evidence from particular samples in business firms; yet, as clear in Figure 5.10, SPC implies that internal quality determines job satisfaction without revealing which internal quality factors exactly cause job satisfaction (Melhem, 2003). Nevertheless, this model has launched an unrelenting debate over the viability of the chain or some of its links and is still enticing empirical and conceptual research in various contexts. While Schlesinger and Zornitsky (1991) empirically are proponents of the link between customer satisfaction and employees’ aptitudes, Loveman (1998) renders the SPC series of the theorised connections among employees, customers and outcomes as dubious. Loveman (1998) actually argues that such connections have not been tested thoroughly depending on data...
which cover all SPC elements. As for Silvestro and Cross (2000), they assert that SPC has not scrutinised any organisation in terms of all the relationships in the SPC/chain. Such studies disregard many factors (e.g. Silvestro and Cross, 2000; Melhem, 2003) like the lack of TQM critical factors – employee training and participation, management information systems etc. For instance, Silversto and Cross (2000) admit that usually employees should work harder; they are supervised more firmly; it is more likely to pick up on mistakes and the stress of the workplace is high. Such an environment noticeably lacks the consideration of human elements like collaboration, good supervision, recognition and involvement which are essential when dealing with citizens/customers.

It is possible to partially adjust SPC to be deployed in the public sector. In this regard, Davis (2006: 166) highlights that the ultimate goal of the public sector is still the same, chiefly delivering services to the public. For achieving the public business goal, quality improvement, SPC can provide a concrete and beneficial guide that directs the public business (Davis, 2006). Modifying and improving the SPC model to suit public organisations will be a unique contribution to the explanation of the role of service employee satisfaction in service quality in the public sector.

5.9 Customer Satisfaction or Service Quality?

Service quality and customer satisfaction were used interchangeably in different cases and studies. Both of them (SQ and CS) focus on customers’ experience with an organisation. Yet, Schneider and White (2004) are convinced of the benefit of dealing with them as conceptually different, though, in practice, they are often used interchangeably. For their part, Boulding et al. (1993) and Oliver (1993) amalgamate both concepts suggesting that perceived service quality precedes satisfaction. In brief, customer satisfaction is a final effective and cognitive response to a service

Satisfaction is the level of a customer’s feeling as a consequence of comparing the perceived product with their previous expectations (Kotler et al., 1996). In the private sector, retaining the customer is the service provider’s top aim (Vanniarajan and Gurunathan, 2009). However, public organisations’ goal is delivering services with high quality without concentrating on customer retention since most public services are monopolised and citizens have limited choices of where to obtain these services. In Jordan, for instance, civil, passport and customs services are still monopolised.

Thus, what is more popular in public administration is service quality. This is attributed to customers’ divergent needs and expectations and public organisations’ inability to deliver services meeting all the different needs. Accordingly, public organisations usually deliver standardised services conforming to specified principles (Zeitz, 1996). For example, specific procedures govern the passport services, but the Passport Department can improve these services to meet the specifications of the service quality. Government services are continuously endeavouring to define customers’ needs and monitor their perceptions of delivered services (Wisniewski and Donnelly, 1996: 357). Government organisations may occasionally make presumptions about what the customer views as important. Nonetheless, they may later realise that what is valuable for customers is rather different (Farquhar, 1993).
5.10 Conceptual Framework and Hypotheses Development

5.10.1 Preface

The researcher proposes both direct and indirect impacts in this conceptual framework. It is proposed that TQM’s impact acts more directly on ES, but indirectly on SQ. Therefore, ES can be used as the moderator variable between TQM and SQ, and, to establish the hypotheses connecting ES and SQ in the public sector, the public employee-customer interaction was used as the basis. Concerning this employee-customer relationship, the three prevalent models suggested in the literature are: the Service-Profit Chain Model (see Haskett et al., 1994) as discussed in section [5.8.3]; the Service Climate Model (see Schneider 1990) and the emotional contagion theory (Hatfield et al., 1993). These models are all supported by the Boundary Spanning Theory (see Thompson, 1967).

The Service Climate Model is grounded on the priority of providing employees with a high internal service quality even before delivering the service to the customers. Thus, the equation on which the service climate model is based is the following: high internal service quality leads to high external service quality. Hence, an organisation’s tone and climate are represented by the activities which are related to internal SQ revolving around employees like the SQ they receive from others and co-workers’ aptitude of high SQ delivery (Schneider et al., 2005). The Emotional Contagion Theory is based on interacting individuals’ inclination to reach emotional convergence (Wangenheim et al., 2007); that is, the belief that an observer’s emotional state changes in response to the emotions shown by another (Wangenheim et al., 2007). Observers, in this case, can be citizens or customers. This theory has been resorted to by marketing researchers (e.g. Paugh, 2001, Wangenheim et al., 2007; Homburg and Stock, 2004) who wanted to investigate the employee-
customer relationship. The discussion of both direct and indirect relationships connecting TQM, ES and SQ will be presented in the following sections.

5.10.2 Direct Effects

5.10.2.1 TQM and Employee Satisfaction

Employees represent the pillars of organisations, particularly service organisations; this entails the necessity of diagnosing as well as analysing the impact of organisational changes introduced by TQM on employees (Mohrman et al., 1995; Sila, 2007). Until the time of writing this thesis, this ES-TQM relationship has been interpreted in three ways: unclear, positive (Ooi et al. 2008; Karia and Asaari, 2006; Boselie and Wiele, 2002; Jun et al., 2006; Ku, 2010), or negative. TQM has become part of jobs which employees should achieve in a TQM context as expected from them (Lawler, 1994, Jacqueline and Coyle-Shapiro, 2002). The aim of TQM is improving employee-related aspects like work responsibilities, attitudes and behaviour (Jacqueline and Coyle-Shapiro, 2002; Varkey et al., 2008; Venkateshwarlu et al., 2011). For example, it can be argued that TQM is more welcome and entices a positive attitude from operational level service employees because such employees are less empowered and they expect TQM to engender more empowerment, job enrichment (Hunt, 1992; Deming, 1986; and Zeitz, 1996), task orientation, clarity, innovation (Taveira et al., 2003) and employee efficiency (Batt and Moynihan, 2006).

ES is regarded as ‘human quality’ and, as maintained by Dahlgaard et al. (2002: 25), because human quality is all about people’s role in TQM implementation, both employees and customers have the same importance. For example, without employees’ satisfaction and confidence, organisational goals like enhancing performance and quality is not achievable (George and Weimerskirch, 1998). Organisations that implement TQM enthuse their employees to improve and
succeed and the final result will be the enhancement of employees’ performance and output (Van Horn, 1997). The five factors related to ES, as advocated by the Lashley (1999) model and Harmon et al. (2003), are: empowerment, autonomy, training, delegation as well as quality circles. Some scholars additionally highlight that organisational commitment and training lead to ES and empowerment (Dale and Bishop, 2003; Jun et al., 2006). Moreover, Khan (2003) proved that good investment in TQM also contributes to employees’ motivation and quality improvement. Eventually, employees’ motivation, involvement and effort will increase when they experience these phenomena in their organisation (Liu and Liu, 2014; Rodriguez-Anton and Alonso-Almeida, 2011).

5.10.2.2 Employee Satisfaction and Service Quality

Historically, the literature has presented a clear definition of the ES-organisational performance relationship (Vroom, 1964; Brayfield and Crockett, 1955); however, the points of attention of such early works were manufacturing tasks and individual performance level. At later stages, research shifted the attention to the connection between customer satisfaction and employee satisfaction in private organisations (e.g. Heskett et al., 1994; Nebeker et al., 2001; Schneider and Bowen, 1985, Tornow and Wiley, 1991; Tompkins et al., 1992), while the public sector was still overlooked by researchers.

Concerning the public sector, the literature underscores the vitality of employees and more specifically their motivation for success in service organisations (Lovelock, 1994; Hays and Hill, 2001:337). Research focused on exploring and explaining the employee-service delivery relationship was based on the Boundary Spanning Theory (e.g. Thompson, 1967; Bennis, 1970; Schneider et al., 1980; and Schneider and Bowen, 1985; Katz and Kahn, 1978; Aldrich and Herker, 1977; Goodale, and Koerner, 1997; Schlesinger and Heskett, 1991). This theory is underlain by
the belief that service organisations are open systems the greatly permeable boundaries of which allow not only employees but also customers to perceive organisational practice (Keller et al; 1976; Schneider 1980; Schneider and Bowen, 1985). In short, operating systems are not possible without employees (Lammermeyr, 1991), and there is a service employees-customer correlation (Schneider and Bowen, 1980). Thus, any prolonged employee dissatisfaction will end in this dissatisfaction being transferred to employees’ attitude to customers (Goovaerts et al., 2008). However, employees’ positive attitudes to and feelings about their organisation will lead them to demonstrate the same attitudes and feelings when encountering customers (Melham, 2004). When employees believe in the importance of their job to the organisation, Kurtz and Clow (1998) add, they will be inclined to offer harder work and better performance. For example, service employees’ productivity rises when they are ascribed more responsibility and authority (Lashley, 2001).

Accurate realisation of the needs of customers well equips service employees to transfer the pertinent information to co-workers through sharing ideas, making suggestions and finding solutions for enhancing service (Lages and Piercy, 2012; Bettencourt and Brown, 2003). For example, sharing solutions to problems with co-workers and encouraging them to contribute with suggestions and ideas improve the services (Lages and Piercy, 2012). Employees can work freely to achieve the organisation’s goal of serving customers when these employees feel that their organisation facilitates performance, improves, satisfaction, motivation and career opportunities. Some practitioners have recommended using a number of indicators in the area of service provision like information precision, meeting customers’ needs and expectations, procedure clarity and employee tact (Binter et al., 1994; Brown, 2007; Cassia and Magno, 2011). Houcutt and Stone (1998) notes that another indicator is the employee-customer integration which is required for
training frontline employees, with these employees fully authorised to deal with customers. It has been proved that employee dissatisfaction was the cause of 45% of service failures. On the contrary, employee satisfaction has been proved to be the reason for the employee’s success in listening to others, demonstrating the awareness of and care for others’ feelings and needs and having emotional control (Motowidlo, 1984).

Employees who transfer satisfaction feelings to customers and they are the organisation’s watchful members attentive to customers’ changing expectations (Morris, 1996). Hence, these employees are the ones who enable organisational strategies to succeed in providing value to customers and increasing their organisation’s competitiveness (Ibid, p15-16). In contrast, as illustrated by Mendes (1996), 65% of customer service problems arise as a result of employees’ indifference or being unhelpful. In essence, then, organisations effectively managing employees, who are its internal customers, show the same positive behaviour in dealing with external customers (Bellou and Andronikidis, 2008). In other words, as advocated by the reciprocity notion, supervisors’ fair treatment of employees leads to employees’ success in high-quality service delivery to customers (Jeon and Choi, 2012). Feeling they are treated fairly makes employees satisfied and, consequently, they perform better and become more willing to deliver services to customers with high quality (Jeon and Choi, 2012).

5.10.3 Indirect and mediation effects

5.10.3.1 ES as mediator variable between TQM and SQ

TQM in public organisations is not sufficient for achieving the changes required for significantly improving service quality; these organisations also need involved, motivated and satisfied employees. Many studies discussed direct relationships among TQM factors, performance, and
quality and the existing literature presents evidence of intricate cross relationships among TMQ factors (Nair, 2006: 951). Numerous TQM factors indirectly impact performance through impacting other factors such as employees’ motivation. However, up to now, researchers do not have a generally agreed upon opinion regarding the nature of TQM factors indirect and interactive relations (Nair, 2006: 951). Furthermore, there still is a limited knowledge concerning the methodological as well as theoretical and contextual impacts, like employee satisfaction, which moderate the relationship.

Such studies emphasise the impossibility of realising and sustaining customer satisfaction if employee satisfaction is not maintained (Vilares and Coelho, 2003, Heskett et al., 1997, Rucci et al., 1998). Therefore, the aim of organisations’ support for service employees is facilitating reading customers’ needs and improving service (Lages and Piercy, 2012). This highlights the urgent need for good relationships between management and frontline employees. All these links in the chain need to be right before it can do its job or provide service. Similarly, public organisations require all parts to be strongly connected and to play their roles well for achieving quality service (Skelcher, 1992: 103).

5.10.3.2 TQM and Service Quality

Improving quality, of process and service, is primarily TQM’s principal aim and focus (Ishikawa, 1972; Crosby, 1979; Deming, 1982; Juran, 1988; Lam et al., 2012; Samat, 2006). The ways emphasised by TQM for achieving customers’ delight and satisfaction are novelty and continuous improvement. The strong connection between TQM and SQ is attributed to the fact that TQM implementation is meant to guarantee the organisation’s ability to meet customers’ needs and expectations (Lam et al., 2012: 287). The success of TQM is determined by the degree of
employees’ and organisations’ willingness to change and to whether they assess their success in action and decisions by depending on customer satisfaction and service quality as key performance indicators (KPI) (Sila, 2007; Madu and Kuei, 1993). Many organisations which adopted TQM encouraged employees to actively participate in the TQM process in attempts to attain the organisations’ aims (in our case is service quality). For example, such organisations based the evaluation of employee performance on indicators related to customer care (Wilkinson et al., 1993). Customer results are considered by most TQM models, like EFQM, KAA, as a major TQM goal (Sila, 2007). In fact, the KAA model for quality in the public sector assigns to the customer results measure 175 out of 1000 points of the overall scores and this is the highest percentage among all the model’s other criteria (KACE, 2015). Practically, many studies highlighted a positive relationship between TQM practices and customer results (e.g. Sila, 2007; Lam et al., 2012; Kongolo and Dalmini, 2014; Brown and Lam, 2008; Parzinger and Nath, 2000; Grandzol, 1998; Samat et al., 2006; Ooi et al., 2011; Dhar, 2015). Yet, what still needs resolving in the literature is the question of how these relationships work.

5.10.4 Development of the hypotheses

As demonstrated in the literature review, a debate regarding the feasibility and significance of TQM and ES exertions has risen due to the accumulated large body of anecdotal and case study evidence. Consequently, more systematic and empirical research is required in different contexts to explore what conditions and circumstances make these programmes effective in the public sector service delivery process. Thus, the aim of this piece of research is examining how TQM and ES affect service quality and whether these conditions are effective in Jordanian public organisations for enhancing and maintaining customers’ perception of government service quality.
The hypothesis underlying this thesis is that in the public sector TQM positively impacts ES while the latter positively affects service quality dimensions and acts as a mediator between TQM and SQ. Accordingly, this research propose the following hypotheses:

H1: There is direct impact of TQM on employee satisfaction in Jordanian public service organisations.

H2: There is indirect impact of TQM on reliability as a critical factor of service quality in Jordanian public service organisations.

H3: There is indirect impact of TQM on responsiveness as a critical factor of service quality in Jordanian public service organisations.

H4: There is indirect impact of TQM on assurance as a critical factor of service quality in Jordanian public service organisations.

H5: There is indirect impact of TQM on empathy as a critical factor of service quality in Jordanian public service organisations.

H6: There is direct impact of employee satisfaction on reliability as a critical factor of service quality in Jordanian public service organisations.

H7: There is direct impact of employee satisfaction on responsiveness as a critical factor of service quality in Jordanian public service organisations.

H8: There is direct impact of employee satisfaction on assurance as a critical factor of service quality in Jordanian public service organisations.
H9: There is direct impact of employee satisfaction on empathy as a critical factor of service quality in Jordanian public service organisations.

**Figure 5.11 The Proposed Study Model**
5.11 Chapter summary

Service is not static, but rather dynamic requiring several players [human and non-human] as well as specific roles for the purpose of organisational outcome maximisation (Bowen, 2016). Thus, service employees can be either enablers or complementary, but, in general, their role is critical in service provision. However, employees’ role demands further empirical research for developing an understanding of the service theory in different contexts like the public sector. This chapter has elaborated on service quality along with its models, concepts and dimensions. The service models and dimensions which have been widely applied in business firms have been discussed – in restaurants, banks, hotels, fast food companies, etc. Yet, the chapter has demonstrated that no one model can present a complete image that explains the employee satisfaction-service quality relationship in the public sector. Finally, the chapter has presented the conceptual framework combining and linking TQM, employee satisfaction and service quality. The next chapter moves on to detail the research design and methodology.
CHAPTER SIX
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapters (1-5) discussed the background and context of this research. Theoretical arguments, including TQM, employee satisfaction and service quality were also discussed in order to understand the relationships between these variables. As mentioned before, this research aims to understand the trilogy relationship between TQM, ES and SQ. Thus, this chapter identifies this study’s main research methods while exploring the impact of TQM and ES on SQ in the Jordanian public sector organisations. The research design adopted a combination of methods: quantitative and qualitative. More specifically, three data sources were used: survey (questionnaires), semi-structured interviews and KAA Reports. For obtaining quantitative data on the relationship between the research variables TQM, ES and SQ, the survey was deployed. As for the semi-structured interviews and KAA Assessment Reports, they were used to support, validate and explain the quantitative data and results. Moreover, this chapter explains this study’s methodological issues related to the research design, research philosophy, methods and data sources and analysis.

6.2 The Research Process

Essentially, research is a systematic process and the process of this thesis was completed passing several phases as illustrated in Table 6.1.
### Table 6.1 Research Process

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Phase</th>
<th>Activities</th>
<th>Chapters related</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Literature review</td>
<td>The author scanned the literature and previous studies that relate to the topic of the thesis. The literature is presented over three chapters: TQM, ES and SQ.</td>
<td>3,4 and 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Research design and methodology</td>
<td>It is a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches (mixed methodology).</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Data collection (Quantitative)</td>
<td>A questionnaire survey involving 500 employees in public administration organisations in Jordan, and 1000 customers who received direct services from these organisations.</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Data collection (Qualitative)</td>
<td>Semi-structured interviews with 30 managers, supervisors and service employees and 30 semi-structured interviews with customers, plus 20 assessment reports (10 KAA Award reports and 10 Excellent Service Award reports).</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Data analysis (Quantitative)</td>
<td>Analysis of the questionnaire: using the Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), Multiple Regression, Pearson Correlation, Factor Analysis using SPSS, version 21 and Amos SPSS, version 21.</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Data analysis (Qualitative)</td>
<td>Content analysis and thematic analysis were used to analyse the semi-structured interviews and the assessment reports respectively.</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>Presenting and discussing the findings of the statistical model (the impact of TQM and ES on SQ in the Jordanian public sector organisations). Qualitative data also used to support the quantitative data and its results.</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Model contribution, implication and conclusion</td>
<td>Generalising the theoretical model, explaining the contribution to TQM, service theory and employee satisfaction theory in the public sector.</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: The Author

### 6.3 Research philosophy

The means of observing a phenomenon and the assumptions made about it constitute the research philosophy. A specific philosophical approach, identifying research methodology and data collection methods and specifying the research questions, underpins all scholarly research (Guba

---

11 The survey and the interviews were conducted in parallel time.
and Lincoln, 1994). Public administration research can draw on several philosophical paradigms, each of which can be a basis for explaining a research phenomenon. The following sections explain the most important paradigms in this regard, so that the philosophy which most suits this research can be determined.

6.3.1 Ontology and epistemology

The two fundamental constructs used in social science research are ontology and epistemology. Guba and Lincoln (1994) say that a researcher can formulate the research process in terms of clarity, precision and effectiveness by identifying their own paradigm that is the researcher’s constitution or guide. Philosophically speaking, ontology refers to the reality surrounding us and, as a research philosophy, it can be defined as the knowledge or study of what exists. Ontology entails meticulous differentiation between the observing subject and the observed object (Dietz, 2006). For example, Ontology, therefore, covers questions such as: Do public sector organisations’ real performance or service quality exist autonomously disregarding any perspective on it? Or is it a “construct” that is only contingent on the observer? (Talbot, 2010: 54).

Epistemology entails one’s method of acquiring knowledge and it provides a notion of what counts as acceptable knowledge among practical studies (Bryman, 2001). Epistemology is concerned with gaining knowledge of what can be regarded as a new phenomenon in order to develop a new theory of discovered knowledge (Gilbert, 1993). Epistemology, accordingly, is about how we cognise reality. Thus, even if a “real” reality exists, how does it become represented in human cognition and science? Is reality cognised subjectively depending on our own experiences and presumptions? Or do we know it “objectively” or “scientifically” (Talbot, 2010:54)? Applying this to the research on public organisations, if a real and actual level of TQM, performance or service quality exists,
how can the knowledge about them be acquired without complementary subjective factors affecting our understanding? (Burrell and Morgan, 1979; Dietz, 2006; Healy and Perry, 2000). For example, the qualitative data sources such as interviews and KAA Reports were used as a complementary sources for the quantitative data in order to enhance the validity of this research.

6.3.2 Interpretivism VS positivism

Two main philosophies are useful in understanding the social phenomenon in the public administration context: positivism and interpretivism, each of which deals with research issues from different perspectives (Al-Habil, 2011). The positivist philosophy supports the following principles applied in the public sector: rationality, efficiency, scientific management, formalisation and specialisation. Positivism relies on empirical methods and deploys quantitative methods and analysis extensively (Fox and Miller, 1998). Positivist thinkers identify the eight principles of the positivist philosophy as follows: causality, value freedom, independency, operationalisation implication, hypotactic-deduction, generalisation, reductionism and cross sectional analysis (Mill, 2013; Keat and Urry, 1975; Coleman and Briggs, 2007; Amaratunga et al., 2002).

Interpretivism, for its part, is based on the conviction that objective reality does not exist. Administrators and researchers depending on this philosophy are convinced that reality is socially constructed (Al-Habil, 2011), and, contrary to the perspective of the positivist philosophy, reality is not external to the researcher (Al-Habil, 2011: 950). For interpretivism, reality is controlled by the researcher’s and the observed subject’s lived experiences and practices, values, norms, culture and social context. The aim of interpretivism is achieving an adequate understanding of the events and this is achievable only provided that the researcher views the phenomena contextually (Abeysekera, 2010).
The debate between the supporters of positivism and those of interpretivism involving the critiques and the advantages and disadvantages of both has led to reaching a compromise (Giddens, 1990). Giddens (2004) further argues that debunking the extremes of both approaches and redefining problems have resulted in including the good aspects of both opinions. Since the extreme of either approach poses the risk of either moving towards an unknown destination or pure, hard and rigid dimension, a compromise between the two approaches might be beneficial for knowledge.

However, this research aims to measure the levels of TQM and employee satisfaction (hereafter signified by “ES”) in Jordan’s public sector organisations, examining the impact of TQM on ES and that of ES on service quality (SQ); then comprehending these causal relationships and gaining a better understanding of the public sector context. The research adopts both quantitative and qualitative approaches complementarily and is reliant upon an amalgamation of the positivist and interpretivist philosophies. Pragmatism, as emphasised by Copleston (1994), is the closest theoretical orientation allowing for the combined view used in this research. The following sections explain pragmatism and its role in this research and justify the resort to the mixed methods.

### 6.3.3 Pragmatism

Morgan (2007: 70) argued that “Pragmatism approach is not new to the social sciences; it has been agreed on pragmatism as a general belief of system for the social sciences”. Pragmatism offers good justification combining quantitative and qualitative approaches (Morgan, 2007). The pragmatic approach presents an alternative thought with its stress on the three features: abduction-intersubjectivity-transferability in certain research pieces (Morgan, 2007). Pragmatism is a wide and open study area which contains a great deal of diversity (Garrison, 2000). Bridging contrasting
paradigms, focusing on practical challenges and using multiple theories and perspectives of multiple actors are what pragmatism allows researchers to achieve with the purpose of reaching solutions for practical problems and challenges (Goldkuhl, 2012; Morgan, 2007). Rescher (2000: 175) argues that “a pragmatism that cares not just for the efficiency of means but for their appropriateness, which is a matter of combining a whole range of evaluative factors not efficiency and effectiveness alone but also their broader normative nature”. Pragmatism shows how research methods can be productively mixed (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004: 16; Hoshmand, 2003).

As contended by Shields (1996), pragmatists repudiate the theory versus practice dualism explaining that both practical and theoretical dimensions are indispensable for interpreting the context. A social phenomenon is not merely an objective reality that can be tackled quantitatively and understood relying on positivism; rather, social actors’ actions and experiences participate in constructing and shaping it. Consequently, pragmatic researchers resort to a combination of positivism and interpretivism. Furthermore, pragmatism’s stress on the pluralism of data sources is underlain by the belief that using multiple data sources achieves a better understanding of the investigated phenomenon (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). Researchers can, in many cases, merge insights (qualitative and quantitative) and procedures from both approaches which might offer more feasible solutions and a greater final result (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

6.3.4 Pragmatism and public administration

Shields (2008) stresses the connection between pragmatism and public administration. It is daily that public service employees deal with the customers using various programmes and systems for supporting the public and solving problems. As a field, public administration concentrates on tools and techniques used by service employees to provide the public with practical support. With
respect to this research, TQM application with its impact on ES and SQ is contingent upon the context. Just as public sector service employees have different ambitions and expectations from those of the private sector employees. These differences necessitate the researcher to resort to a philosophical approach that allows the use of different analytical lenses, methods and data sources. It is pragmatism that helps the researcher analyse the different aspects of the multifaceted phenomena through recognising the causal relationships and understanding the reasons behind them. Therefore, to better understand the relationship between TQM and ES within the public sector, this research adopted a pragmatic stance and involved two consecutive stages. Firstly, the current research model was developed and the questionnaires were designed to test this model based on the existing TQM and service models as well as ES scales. The quantitative findings revealed statistically significant causal relationships between the variables. Secondly, to explain the emergence of and the reasons for these causal relationships, the researcher conducted a set of semi-structured interviews with staff and customers and resorted to a qualitative content analysis of Excellence Assessment Reports (in this case, the KAA reports). The following section discusses the different methods of data collection, analysis and validity in addition to reliability considerations and thoroughly explains each method used in relation to this study.

6.4 Data Collection methods

Usually, researchers have three options: the quantitative approach of collecting data depending on pre-decided tools such as questionnaires which provide statistical data; the qualitative approach of information gathering from words or observations (Silverman, 2001); or mixing between them. The following section elaborates on the data collection methods used for this research.
6.4.1 Mixed methods

Proponents of mixed-method research stress that mixed methods can achieve more inclusive research purposes than does each of the quantitative and qualitative research on its own (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2004; Newman et al., 2003). To clarify this study’s approach and empirical means, it is necessary for the researcher to discuss the differences between the qualitative and quantitative methods. The quantification and measurement of relationships among variables require the quantitative research which is based on numbers (Nettleton and Taylor, 1990). Conversely, a detailed and in-depth analysis of a phenomenon requires the qualitative research which depends on words and texts expressing this phenomenon (Bryman, 2001). Moreover, the qualitative research is needed when a phenomenon when less information is available making numbers undependable for generating a theory of this phenomenon, or when the phenomenon has exist in different context (Van-Mannen, 1979). In our case, we are focus on the public sector organisations in Jordan.

Discussing the idea of the combination of both the quantitative and qualitative research has progressively been taken by an approach that is formalised, especially ostensive in discussing and propagating integration typologies (Bryman, 2006:98). However, labelling mixed-method research types with names has certain benefits such as: giving the research a sense of rigor and enlightening others about what researchers intend to do or have done. In this research, the researcher triangulates the data sources and connect them logically for a better understanding of the present research phenomenon and for a consolidation of his research robustness and validity (Creswell et al., 2003). The following paragraphs explain triangulation and how it functions in research.
Initially, triangulation means studying one issue depending on three sources that are different and independent (Decrop, 1999); it was introduced by Campbell and Fiske (1959) as an equivalent for ‘convergent validation’ in the multi-method/multi-trait matrix presentation. Thereupon, scholars strived for designing valid and objective pieces of research that were also sensitive to whatever makes their validity and reliability, whether internal or external, at stake (Maxwell and Loomis, 2003, Denzin, 2010; Guba and Lincoln, 2005).

Triangulation can be achieved in four ways by the amalgamation either of data sources, methods, theories or investigators (Denzin, 1978; Henderson, 1991) and the advantages are: complementarity, the enhancement of the prominent findings, initiations, development and expansion (Salehi and Golafshani, 2010). This research depends on complementarity. The researcher achieved this by collecting the quantitative data to check if a significant relationship exists among the study’s variables, and then using qualitative data including interviews and KAA reports. Some theorists believe that the mixed-method approach is useful for researchers in developing a theoretical framework, so that the validation of the quantitative results can be achieved with the aid of the information obtained from the qualitative stage (Madey, 1982, Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2004). (See figure 6.1).

However, the rationale behind using the mixed methodology is the researcher’s desire to address the research problem comprehensively (Morse, 2003). Choosing the mixed methodology for this research is interconnected with issues such as: the research questions, research environment and the large amount of literature concerned with the private sector firms. Because this study’s research phenomenon was not clear in the public sector, the researcher needed to consider it from many perspectives. Using the mixed-methodology research can lead the researcher to a better
knowledge of the phenomenon under discussion and by combining the merits of each method
reliable results can be attained (Creswell et al., 2004 and Driscoll et al., 2007). Figure 6.2 shows
the application of the mixed methodology in the current research.

Figure 6.1 The Triangulation & Complementarity Process

Figure 6.2 The Application of Mixed Methodology

12 The survey and the interviews were conducted in parallel time.
The following sections will discuss the specific data collection methods were used in this research.

6.4.2 Questionnaires

To collect the quantitative data for this research, the self-administered questionnaire was chosen. The purpose of the questionnaire was explained to each respondent clearly; then, the respondent was left alone to complete the questionnaire and finally the researcher collected it after completion. The questionnaire allows the researcher to assess and present essential explanations (but not the interpretation of questions) and achieve a degree of personal contact; its advantages as a data collection method are: accurate sampling, a high rate of responses and a minimised bias on the researcher’s part (Oppenheim, 1992). The self-administrated questionnaire was chosen for this research also due to its convenience for the respondents who could complete the questionnaire whenever they wanted at the speed they chose (Bryman and Bell, 2011: 232). Moreover, the questionnaire suited the large sample size which encompasses ten of Jordan’s public sector organisations along with the conditions of these organisations’ geographical dispersion. In addition, numerous of the managerial studies conducted in the context of Arab countries proved that the self-administered questionnaire is more effective, particularly in terms of response rate.

6.4.2.1 Questionnaire design and Development

Three aspects were taken into my account to construct a well-designed questionnaire: the wording of the questions, planning issues as relates to the way of categorising the variables, scaling them and coding them after receiving the response and the general presentation of the
questionnaire (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010: 198). The three aspects are essential as they can diminish bias, help the researcher to achieve the research goal and facilitate data collection.

### 6.4.2.2 Questionnaire wording and layout

According to Sekaran and Bougie (2010: 198) and Zikmound (2000), five principles must be considered as regards wording: the appropriateness of the content of the questions, the way of wording the questions and the degree of language sophistication, question type and form, the questions order and the personal data the respondents yield. In this study, in order to enhance the wording of his questionnaire, the researcher relied on certain strategies outlined by De Vaus (2002) and Oppenheim (1992) such as:

1. The avoidance of complexity and the use of simple words instead for respondents to readily understand them;
2. Abandoning leading and loaded questions as much as possible in order to diminish bias in question wording;
3. Eliminating ambiguity as much as possible by dismissing any double-barrelled items which might lead to bias by addressing two issues simultaneously;
4. Avoiding any items based on assumptions.

The types of questions are also determined by the nature of the tapped variable and this is associated with the content and objective of the question. For example, a concept like ES necessitates questions which touch on its facets (Lazarsfeld, 1935; Payne, 1951 cited in Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). There is a consensus among scholars and practitioners (Cohen et al., 2007; Oppenheim, 1992; Saunders et al.; 2009; De Vaus, 2002) that the layout of the question is vital
when considering the questionnaire design. Due to the importance of the layout, the researcher tried to use an attractive and neat layout and is easy to follow. Zikmund (2000) argues that in the case of the self-administered questionnaire, effort and money expended to enhance the attractiveness and quality of the questionnaire and to motivate participation in it increase the response rate. Experts recommend the following guidelines for the questionnaire design: avoiding overloading, leaving decent margins, separating any solidly printed blocks with white spaces and minimising the inescapable columns of numerous boxes (Ibid: 326). In addition, the researcher followed the recommendations of Sekaran and Bougie (2010) and Oppenheim (2000) which are:

1. He ordered the questions starting from the general to the more specific ones making the questionnaire as easy as possible for the respondents;

2. The researcher handed out two covering letters to each respondent: the first was in English provided by the research supervisor and the second was in Arabic provided by the research sponsor, Yarmouk University in Jordan. The covering letter allowed me to achieve the following purposes:

   - Elucidating the study’s objective.
   - Inspiring participants to take part in the study.
   - Gaining access to the chosen organisations.
   - Reassuring all participants that the data provided by them would be dealt with as highly confidential.
6.4.2.3 The translation of the questionnaires

When the questionnaire is designed for non-English speakers, the researcher can resort to a translation instrument for the questionnaire (Change, 1999: 316). As stated by Zikmund (2000:331), factors related to culture and language must be taken seriously when designing of the questionnaire, especially that business research is taking place worldwide nowadays. Even though English is a popular language in Jordan, the researcher chose that his questionnaire should be translated into Arabic for the best of the participants’ convenience and comprehension. Another reason for the translation is the fact that the measures used in this study were originally created in western and American contexts where the managerial and cultural terminologies are utterly different from those of Jordan. By deciding to have the questionnaire translated, the researcher also intended to raise the level of its readability among respondents as recommended by Bates and Khasawneh (2005). In addition, the researcher wanted the translation to increase the chances of his questionnaire operating in Jordan’s culture in a manner similar to that where it was originated (Velada et al., 2009).

As far as questionnaire translation mechanisms are concerned, there are four of them: direct translation, back-translation, parallel translation and mixed translation (Saunders et al., 2009: 385). For the aims of this study, the researcher selected the parallel translation as it guarantees the good wording of the questionnaire in the target language enabling the researcher to compare items to each other simultaneously. The final drafts of the translated questionnaires were sent to the Translation Department at Yarmouk University [in Jordan], for the translation to be checked by two professors who are experts in Arabic and English. However, this process aimed to produce a translation as precise as possible. Then, an expert in Arabic edited the final Arabic version of
the questionnaires to guarantee its clarity. Finally, corrections and suggestions were considered and the final questionnaires were ready to be handed out to the participants.

6.4.2.4 The content of the questionnaire

Eventually, the research had two questionnaires to depend on. The respondents of the first questionnaire were the employees and the data collected from them covered two categories: basic information like gender, education and experience, and information related to the research through questions that are required in order to measure TQM application level and to explore ES level (see Table 6.2). As for the second questionnaire, its respondents were customers and it covered two areas. The first area included basic data about the customers including gender, education, experience etc., and the second included information about the SQ level in governmental organisations from the customers’ viewpoints.

Table 6.2 Contents of Questionnaires

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Questionnaire / scale</th>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Items no</th>
<th>code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employees Questionnaire</strong></td>
<td>TQM Scale</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Top management commitment and support</td>
<td>1-7</td>
<td>T</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Customer focus</td>
<td>8-14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Continuous Improvement</td>
<td>15-21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employee participation</td>
<td>22-27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employee Training</td>
<td>28-34</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Management Information systems</td>
<td>35-42</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>42</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ES Scale</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>E</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Operation conditions</td>
<td>6-8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Co-workers</td>
<td>9-12</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Nature of work</td>
<td>13-16</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>17-22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Customers Questionnaire</strong></td>
<td>Service Quality Scale</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reliability</td>
<td>1-4</td>
<td>S</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Responsiveness</td>
<td>5-9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assurance</td>
<td>10-13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>14-18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.4.2.5 Piloting the questionnaires

Piloting is a test study which is a way for the researcher to check whether the chosen method (e.g. a questionnaire) is sufficiently clear and user-oriented for the participants. The researcher can even study only one case in the pilot to predict the meaningfulness of the study and the degree of the applicability of the method in the given research. Before the final administration of the questionnaire, a rigorous evaluation of the questionnaire as a whole and (every question in it) is required. There were two phases of piloting the questionnaires in this study. First, draft questionnaires were checked by sixteen experts, eight based in the UK and eight based in Jordan, all of whom were well-experienced in this research area. Nine of these experts suggested some modifications in the wording of items, scales and measurement, the content of the questions, design and layout. The suggestions were used as input in order to design the second version of the questionnaires. In the second phase, the researcher interviewed ten employees in order to detect any ambiguities in the questions. Eventually, none of the recommendations or comments was neglected; they were all taken into consideration while designing and finalising the employees’ questionnaire. Concerning the customers’ questionnaire, the researcher conducted five quick interviews with customers and then repeated the same steps he followed when piloting the employees’ questionnaire to ensure the reliability and validity of the questionnaire.

Sticking to the recommendations of Fowler (1993), another aspect of this study’s questionnaire needed testing, that was its length. Many researchers (e.g. Childers and Ferrell, 1979; Kanuk and Berenson, 1975; and Jepson et al., 2005) agree that the longer the questionnaire the lower the response. The length of the questionnaire is not only determined by the number of questions and statements, but also the number of pages and the page size (Childers and Ferrell, 1979). Consequently, the researcher used several techniques for decreasing the length of the
questionnaire as follows: the questionnaires were printed double-sided; respondents were provided with clear instructions; the number of statements was visible for each page; and an appropriate paper size as well as font size and format were used. The researcher abided by the recommendations of many researchers (e.g. Lietz, 2010; Dillman, 2007; Oppenheim, 1992) who maintained that the number of words for an effective question should be between [16] to [20] words.

Other characteristics that the self-administered questionnaire should have are the ideal completion time of fifteen minutes (Koponen, 2012: 96) and using an introduction of medium length before every group of questions addressing the same theme can improve the quality of data according to Andrews (1984) cited in Lietz (2010: 251). Therefore, the researcher asked ten employees and ten customers to complete the questionnaires relevant to them for him to estimate the time duration needed for completing them. On average, the employees’ questionnaire took 11 minutes and the customers’ questionnaire took 6 minutes to complete. This remains within the recommended length of time for filling a questionnaire according to the best practices which suggest that the time for filling must not exceed 30 minutes (Sekaran and Bougie, 2015).

### 6.5 Measurement and Scales

Conducting research depending on multi scales helps the researcher to tackle the complexity of the concept, create more valid measures, increase reliability and achieve more accuracy (De Vaus, 1999). This study’s researcher deployed a five-point Likert scale which can lead to good results according to Elmore and Biggs (1975) and Sekaran and Bougie (2010), who also stress that the measurement’s accuracy level does not rise by increasing the scale points to 7 or 9. Scholars like Fink (2003), Lietz (2010), Dawes (2008) and Brace (2004) note that it is most
common for researchers to use of the five-point scale which can be simply rescaled to smoothly make comparisons. The Likert scale employed in the current study ranged from [always 5] to [rarely 1].

6.5.1 Scales and operational definitions

Three main scales were used in the current research:

6.5.1.1 The TQM scale

Because there is no agreement on a specific scale for measuring the TQM construct, the researcher developed his scale by relying on the review of the existing TQM literature (see for example, Samson and Terziovski, 1999; Oakland, 2003; Saraph et al., 1989; Kakkar and Narag, 2007; Bayraktar et al., 2008). The TQM scale also was developed and adapted to fit within the public organisation context. For example, in the pilot stage, conducting 10 interviews with subject matters with expertise, such as TQM managers and strategic planning managers in the sample organisations, helped to identify the critical factors for TQM. All recommendations and suggestions were taken from this pilot study to develop the TQM scale. Finally, the six factors that are essential for the TQM scales are: TMCS, FC, CI, EP, ET and MIS. The total of items is 42.
Table 6.3 The operational definitions for the TQM scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>TQM variables</th>
<th>Operational definition</th>
<th>Supported references</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Top Management Commitment and Support (TMCS)</td>
<td>“TMCS refers to the degree of which top management sets up TQM objectives and strategies, provide and allocates necessary resources, contributes in quality improvement efforts, and evaluate TQM implementation and performance.”</td>
<td>Saraph et al. 1989, Mustafa and Bon (2012: 11029); Fotopoulos &amp; Psomas (2009).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Focus on customer (FC)</td>
<td>“FC is process aims to develop strategies and methods to build and maintain the relationship with the customers and meet their requirements or expectations.”</td>
<td>Morgan and Murgatroyd (1999), Cook (2008)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Continuous improvement (CI)</td>
<td>“CI is set of systems, means, and activities aims to enhance the processes, procedures, in order to enhance the workflow, and motivate the employees and enhance the quality.”</td>
<td>Oakland (2003), Zairi (2012), Fotopoulos &amp; Psomas (2009).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Employee Participation (EP)</td>
<td>“EP refers to allow the employee to participate in activities that relate with the quality and performance and decision making.”</td>
<td>Cotton, 1993; Fotopoulos &amp; Psomas (2009).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Employee Training (ET)</td>
<td>“ET refers to Provide the employees with information, Knowledge, skills, abilities and behaviours in order to enhance their performance and to enable them to enhance the service provision.”</td>
<td>Noe, 2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Management Information System (MIS)</td>
<td>“MIS refers to using information systems to provide the people of information that support them in decision making and providing services.”</td>
<td>Laudon and Laudon (2011)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6.3 illustrates the operational definitions for the TQM variables. For further clarification about questionnaire development see (Appendix 2).

6.5.1.2 The employee satisfaction scale

Two approaches are usually resorted to for measuring ES: the global approach (overall) and the facet approach. The global approach is directly concerned with the employees’ overall feelings as regards their job (Snipes et al., 2005). The researcher is also advised to ask the respondents to use a single response combining in it their reactions to many aspects of the job (Snipes et al., 2005: 1331). The facet scale, for its part, covers each main area within the general satisfaction domain. At the operational level, many facets, which vary from one scale to another, are included in the ES scale. The researcher resorted to the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), which is multidimensional, (Spector, 1985; 1997), and which was developed for service organisations. The researcher developed JSS, introduced some modifications to it and then used it. This survey depends on nine subscales which are: pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent...
rewards, co-workers, operating conditions, nature of work and communication. It is the use of this survey which will be this study’s contribution; however, very little research has been done as regards the impact of certain facets on the quality of customer service (Snipes et al., 2005).

The researcher’s modification of this survey was the exclusion of four subscales from the original copy of the JSS since they did not suit the conceptual framework or the research model in addition to their not being supported by the literature. Then, the final scales and operational definitions were provided (see Table 6.4). The items of the questionnaire of this study were divided into positively keyed items and negatively keyed ones. For example, if the items are not reversed, the majority of respondents will have middle scores as they will be inclined to agree with half of the items and disagree with the other half due to wording them in opposite directions (Spector, 1997)

For a reversal of scoring, the response to negatively keyed items must be from 5 to 1 not from 1 to 5 presenting, for instance, the response [always] as [1] and [rarely] as [5]. For further clarification about Employee satisfaction Scale see (Appendix 3).

Table 6.4 Employee satisfaction scale - operational definitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Employee satisfaction variables</th>
<th>Operational definition</th>
<th>Supported references</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>Satisfaction with the person’s immediate supervisor.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Operating conditions</td>
<td>Satisfaction with rules and procedures.</td>
<td>Spector 1985 and 1997</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Nature of work</td>
<td>Satisfaction with the type of work done.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Co-workers</td>
<td>Satisfaction with co-workers.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>Satisfaction with communication within organisation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6.5.1.3 The service quality scale

Four popular variables were used to measure the service quality in the public sector organisations, these are: reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy (Parasuraman et al.; 1991). The researcher, however, dismissed tangibility from the original scale as it did not conform to his conceptual framework. For example, employee satisfaction has no justifiable impact on tangibility as a sub-variable in the service quality scale (see Table 6.6). For further clarification about the development of SQ Scale see (Appendix 4).

Table 6.5 Service quality scale’s operational definitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Service Quality Variables</th>
<th>Operational definition</th>
<th>Supported references</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Reliability</td>
<td>The ability to perform promised service dependably and accurately.</td>
<td>Parasuraman et al., 1988</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Responsiveness</td>
<td>Refers to willingness to help customers and prompt service.</td>
<td>Parasuraman et al., 1990; Schneider and White, 2004.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Assurance</td>
<td>[Combination of items designed originally to assess competence, courtesy, credibility and security] it means “knowledge and courtesy of employees and their ability to inspire trust and confidence.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>[Combination of items designed originally to assess access, communication and understanding the customers] it means, “caring, individualised attention the organisation provides its customers.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.6 Population and sample

The entirety of people, events or things in which the researcher is interested and which he wants to be the topic of his research is called ‘population’ (Sekaran and Bougie 2010). From this population, the researcher identifies the set of the potential participants in his study and this is known as sample (Lavrakas, 1998). There is no ideal way for choosing the sample. In this study the researcher preferred to follow the recommendations of Churchill (1999) in population and sample selection as the following sections demonstrate.
6.6.1 Defining the population

The researcher is required to depend on the elements of content, extent and time in defining the population (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 2000). The population of this study is defined as follows:

1. Frontline employees, supervisors and line managers working in Jordanian public organisations and in direct contact with customers;
2. Customers or citizens who directly received services from public organisations in Jordan;
3. Jordanian Public organisations applying TQM or excellence models and directly delivering services to the public.

Choosing frontline employees (service employees) to be in the sample is attributed to their being affected by TQM practices directly and their being the most suitable in their capacity to assess the effectiveness of these practices (Karatepe et al., 2004; Babakus et al., 2003). In addition, frontline employees affect the SQ level directly due to their direct interaction with customers. As for choosing customers as well in this study’s sample, it is due to the fact that the employees’ evaluation of the SQ level might be biased. It is customers who are the recipients of the services; therefore, their evaluation of the quality of services they receive tends to be more authentic.

6.6.2 Identifying the sampling frame

Previous studies exploring the relationship between ES and customer satisfaction used different kinds of sampling frames with some scholars (e.g. Schneider et al., 1980, 1998) extracting data from one organisation and other scholars (e.g., Hartline and Ferrell, 1996; Brown and Lam, 2008) using data obtained from many organisations. Scholars whose studies involved multiple organisations agree that a larger amount of customer comments would mean a more inclusive
experience with the providers of the service (Brown and Lam, 2008). They also stress that the advantages of relying on a larger sample per analysis unit are: less sampling errors and more dependable measurement; consequently, the correlations should be stronger (Brown and Lam, 2008). Based on this, the researcher collected the data from multiple public service organisations in Jordan for this research.

The characteristics of the population determine the sampling frame whereby the researcher draws the representative sample. In most cases, researchers in the social sciences encounter difficulties in the identification of the sample frame (Pole and Lampard, 2002). There are two samples of this piece of research are: the employee sample and the customer sample.

6.6.2.1 Employees sample

This sample was identified from each organisation’s HR database which contains accurate data about the numbers of employees, especially those whose job is based on direct interaction with customers in the ten public organisations in Jordan. As far as the sample size is concerned, Hair et al. (2013) advice that researchers should bear in mind the impact of the sample size on the statistical test as the sample size can cause the test to be either sensitive at small sample sizes or excessively sensitive at very large sample sizes. Concerning factor analysis, Hair et al. (2013) contend that the researcher would not analyse a sample on the basis of factors if it comprises of less than 50 observations and the approximate rule is that the observations should be at least five times as many as the variables to be analysed. For conducting a factor analysis, the researcher needs a minimum of 400 cases.

Thus, according to the criteria discussed previously in this chapter, the selected sample included 10 organisations which are located in Amman. Table 6.6 illustrates the number of employees
who have direct contact with customers. The sample represented more than 25% of the overall population, a percentage that has been recommended by many researchers (e.g. Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). For the employee survey, the sample consisted of 500 employees and supervisors or line managers; for the customer survey the sample consisted of 1000 customers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code</th>
<th>The organisation</th>
<th>Number of frontline employees in centre</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Jordanian customs</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Ministry of Industry and Trade</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>The Drivers and Vehicle Licensing Department</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Department of Land and Survey</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Social Security Corporation</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>Income and Sales tax Department</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>Civil Status &amp; Passport Department</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>Greater Amman Municipality</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>Ministry of Labor</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>Central Traffic Department</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>500</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6.6.2.2 Customers Sample

The customer sampling strategy was purposive rather than probabilistic or random. As explained by (Saunders et al., London, 2004) “Sampling techniques provide a range of methods that enable you to reduce the amount of data you need to collect”. Purposive sampling means that participants in a survey are selected in a non-random way. This means some members of the research population have no chance of being selected as participants in the research. Also it is not possible to accurately determine the probability of research subject selection. Purposive sampling involves the selection of subjects on the basis of assumptions regarding the research population. These assumptions become the criteria for research subject selection. As the subjects are selected on a non-random basis, it is not possible to estimate sampling errors. Purposive sampling methods
include convenience sampling, judgment sampling, quota sampling and snowball sampling (Chaudhuri and Stenger, 2005). Research subjects are usually chosen on the basis of specific characteristics when the research requires an exploration of specific perspectives or consultation with specific people, groups or information (Guijt and Woodhill, 2002). This research adopted a non-random sampling method in the choice of sample for cross-sectional analysis. This was because the researcher wished to target the customers who directly received the public services. A limitation of this strategy is that only some of the organisations approached agreed to take part in the research and, within these organisations, only a proportion of customers volunteered to participate in this study. This may have generated some sample selection bias in the findings as the research only accessed those customers who were willing to participate. There was limited possibility of self-bias in the sampling method, as all completed questionnaires and interviews were included in the study. This is because, initially, the researcher intended to collect a significantly large number of questionnaires and interviews.

The nature of the data required from customers of Jordanian public organisations needed to be in a form conducive to exploring the level of service quality and identify the role of service employees in providing the public services. However it was difficult – in fact infeasible - to gather data from public customers in a dynamic way. Thus, the best option for the researcher was to contact customers as they left the public organisation and request them to complete the questionnaires. Some customers refused to fill the questionnaire or to agree to be interviewed claiming they were in a hurry or very busy. Other customers agreed and were given a choice of venue close to the public organisations to fill in the questionnaires comfortably and to conduct the interviews in quiet.

In summary, several conditions were adopted by the researcher in order to collect the data from customers and to choose the customers sample:
1. They had agreed to participate in the survey.

2. They had received direct service by frontline employees.

6.6. 3 Response Rate

Response rate is the number of the participants who do respond to the researcher (Fowler, 1993: 7). It is imperative that a researcher who uses a questionnaire obtains a reasonable response rate (Oliver, 1997: 93). In this respect, the researcher is supposed to be supportive as much as possible to the respondents by taking a number of steps. Response rates are affected by the research topic, questionnaire length, the nature of the sample and the researcher’s care during the survey implementation as well as other related factors (De Vaus, 200). The techniques used to increase the response rate by the researcher were as follows:

1. The researcher provided a covering letter containing clear instructions which were very carefully worded and brief. In this regard, Hair et al. (2006) and Bryman and Bell (2011) emphasise that a proper covering letter is a significant aspect of a good questionnaire as such a letter increases participants’ readiness to complete and return the questionnaire on time (p. 450);

2. He gave the respondents a comfortable time frame to complete and return the questionnaire;

3. He invited for participation in the study giving information about the study, its aim and its significance for the participants and their organisation beforehand (Oppenheim, 2000: 104, Bryman and Bell, 2011: 234);
4. Confidentiality: it was confirmed that all the data obtained from the questionnaires would be treated as confidential and that they would only be accessed by the researcher for the purposes of the research. Besides, the researcher made arrangements to guarantee that no information related to a recognisable person or organisation would be published without their consent (Oppenheim, 2000: 104).

As mentioned before, this study depended on two questionnaires. In total, 500 employee questionnaires were distributed to the employees by the researcher himself, of which 420 were returned completed and valid for a statistical analysis making the response rate 84%. Moreover, 1000 questionnaires were distributed to customers and the usable responses returned were 821 questionnaires making the response rate 82.1%. This rate is regarded as very good when comparing it to the response rates of other studies on TQM and SQ within the context of the public sector (e.g. Haddad and Judeh, 2015). The following formula is a common way of response rate calculation (De Vaus, 2002):

\[
\text{Response rate} = \frac{\text{Number returned}}{N \text{ in sample} - (\text{Ineligible} + \text{Unreachable})} \times 100\%
\]

a) The employee sample response rate

\[
\text{Response rate} = \frac{420}{500 - (22 + 58)} \times 100\% = 84\%
\]

b) The customer sample response rate

\[
\text{Response rate} = \frac{821}{1000 - (44 + 135)} \times 100\% = 82.1\%
\]

6.7 Semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interview is the second source of data in this study. As for the structure of the interview, it can either be informal and unstructured or highly formalised and structured with
standardised questions for each respondent. Yet, there is also an in-between structure that is the semi-structured interview (Saunders et al., 2009). In the semi-structured interview, the researcher would want to cover a group of themes and questions that may vary from one interview to another. The semi-structured interview allows the interviewer to omit some questions in certain interviews according to the given organisational context and to change the questions order depending on the conversation flow. Moreover, this type of interview gives the interviewer the flexibility of adding questions in case the research questions and objectives require more elaboration based on the nature of events in certain organisations (Saunders et al., 2009), including public administration organisations.

The face-to-face semi-structured interview was chosen as the best interview type for this study because this type enables the researcher to adapt the questions as necessary, eliminate doubts and ensure that responses are understood correctly by question repeating or rephrasing. Above all, the interviewer in this type of interview has the advantage of observing the respondent’s non-verbal signs since the respondent may express discomfort, stress or any problem by the unconscious body and face gestures like frowning, nervous tapping and other signs (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010: 193). The interviews conducted for the purposes of this study were very useful; the interviewees had similar experiences which enriched the interviewer’s observations regarding the research topic (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 2000).

The face-to-face semi-structured interview, in addition to the survey, was also recommended by many Arab researchers as a powerful method of data collection (Alrashed, 1996; Albahussein, 2000, Melhem, 2003), stressing this method to be more productive in Arab public organisations because managers prefer speaking to filling a questionnaire. This study’s researcher found the
semi-structured interview to be the most flexible among the qualitative methods and the most effective in terms of reaching the required people (Leedy and Ormrod, 2001). Moreover, the researcher used the interviews he conducted for validating and explaining the data obtained from the questionnaires because the semi-structured interview is highly recommended as a more effective means of findings validation than the questionnaire (Wass and Wells, 1994). The researcher depended on two interview sets in this study. First employees, supervisors and line managers were interviewed to discuss the TQM impact on employee satisfaction and employees’ role in service quality. Second, customers were also interviewed in order for the interviewer to assess the service quality level and to explore service employees’ role in service quality.

6.8 KAA Reports

The KAA Reports issued by The King Abdullah II Center for Excellence (KACE) formed the third data collection source of this research. The researcher used two types of KAA reports: TQM reports and service quality (EAPS) reports. Depending on both the content analysis and the thematic analysis, the researcher analysed 20 reports, one report for each organisation. The EAPS reports were classified into enablers and results. Whereas the enablers contained several criteria such as: public service quality, customer voice, communication, etc., the results included SQ results and customer voice results. The researcher used EAPS reports for the explanation and validation of the data collected from the customer questionnaires concerning the SQ level (see Table 6.7).

---

13 KAA refers to The King Abdullah II Award for Excellence in Government Performance and Transparency, EAPS refers to the Excellence Award in Public service.
6.9 Reliability and Validity

Determining a measure’s properties, to reassure the researcher that the measure is functioning properly, is one of the ways whereby measurement error can be minimised (Field, 2009: 11). The following sections discuss reliability and validity respectively.

6.9.1 Reliability

Reliability is concerned with issues related to the consistency of measures (Bryman and Bell, 2011). In other words, it reveals the level of the measures’ freedom from errors or bias ensuring by this the measurement consistency all the time in the instrument (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). Checking on the reliability of the measure involves three factors: stability, internal reliability and
inter-observer consistency. Reliability helps in assessing the goodness of scale or instrument (Bryman and Bell, 2011: 158). Churchill et al. (1974) argue that a high correlation is necessary when drawing the items from the same conceptual domain. They also contend that errors can occur in selecting the sample of the items or instruments if the internal consistency of the measure is lacking which will lead to imprecise and defective measurements (Churchill et al., 1974: 257).

In this study, the researcher used Cronbach’s alpha to test the internal consistency and estimate the scale’s overall reliability. The reliability of the scale is established because alpha estimates the proportion of the total variance not due to error (Field, 2013; Oppenheim, 1992). According to the criterion of Hair et al. (1998), the minimum acceptable alpha coefficient is 60% and according to that of Nunnally (1978), it is 50%.

6.9.2 Validity

Validity is a good indicator of the quality of the instrument. It is the extent of the instrument’s achievement of its function for which it was created and the degree of the truth of the conclusions obtained from an experiment (Hair et al., 2006: 698). In order to test the goodness of a measure, researchers have always chosen from a variety of validity test kinds and used a variety of terms as well. Sekaran and Bougie (2010: 158) mention the three categories of validity tests: content validity, criterion-related validity as well as construct validity.

6.9.2.1 Content validity

Content validity and face validity are used interchangeably. Whereas content validity is accountable for ensuring that the measure contains a group of items which are proper and representative and which tap the concept, face validity, according to McDaniel and Gates (1999),
is the extent of the measurement’s achievement of its expected function. In this study, the researcher followed the specific steps for increasing content validity or face validity:

1. Questionnaires were sent to 16 experts in British and Jordanian universities. The experts suggested changes related to rewording, incorporating items and reviewing the translation of the questionnaires. The researcher carefully considered the experts’ recommendation motivated by his desire to improve the questionnaires;

2. He clearly identified what the study needed to measure and also clearly defined the research problem and objectives;

3. The researcher pretested the employee questionnaire by 10 employees and the customer questionnaire pretested by 10 customers. He asked the respondents to mention any comments and reveal any difficulties in comprehending any question. Accordingly, the respondents asserted that the questionnaires were acceptable subject to some suggestions and minor modifications.

6.9.2.2 Construct validity

Construct validity is about whether the measuring instrument reflects the concept as theorised (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). It is used to explore the degree to which the results that the measure has yielded fit the theories which underlay the designed test (Ibid: 160). McDaniel and Gates (1999) describe construct validity as the degree of the measuring instrument’s success in representing and logically connecting the phenomenon under discussion via the relevant theory.

This type of validity is categorised into convergent validity and discriminate validity. Convergent validity is based on the high correlation between the scores reached by measuring the same concept using two different instruments. Discriminate validity, however, is established when, based on theory, the scores yielded after measuring two variables, the non-correlation of which has been previously predicted, prove their empirical non-correlation (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010: 160).
It is noteworthy that construct validity is conditional on the presence of both convergent validity and discriminate validity (McDaniel and Gates, 1999; Bryman and Bell, 2011; Bagozzi, 1996; Parasuraman, 2006). For the purposes of this study, the researcher measured construct validity only though in previous studies most of the subscales and items were validated. The researcher tested each construct’s convergent validity and conducted a factor analysis that covered three dimensions: TQM, ES and SQ. The outcome of the factor analysis was the following: for each construct, the item loading exceeded 0.7.

6.9.3 The validity of the semi-structured interviews

Easterby-Smith (1991) highlights that the validity of the semi-structured interview is judged according to the degree of the researcher’s success in fully accessing the interviewees’ knowledge and meanings. Saunders et al. (2010) believe the semi-structured interview validity to be very high due to the flexibility it offers. This high validity can be attributed to the fact that the nature of the interviewer-interviewee interaction makes clarifying the questions to the interviewee possible and facilitates probing the meaning which enables tackling the topic from different angles. Furthermore, the validity of the semi-structured interview can be established by paying attention to the respondent’s non-verbal signs observable while answering a question, especially when the issue is sensitive (Gordon, 1975; and Barribal and While, 1994).

In the piloting stage, the researcher interviewed employees and customers but these interviews were not included in the main research. These piloting interviews were beneficial for the researcher in properly constructing the questions and removing some questions which turned out to be not useful given the specified research objectives. Besides, the piloting interviews reassured the researcher about the good flow in the way of question asking. The researcher’s desire for
encouraging the participants and obtaining the required data from them necessitated a good preparation for the interviews. First, the researcher established trust and a strong relationship with every interviewee by visiting their offices to explain the study’s importance for the Jordanian public sector. During such visits, the participants were offered the covering letters from the University of Birmingham and Yarmouk University and were given the advantage of choosing the interview’s time and place. Using a clear introduction before asking the questions granted the participants the chance to prepare the answers, and confirming the confidentiality of the collected data reassured them. In addition, the researcher recorded all interviews and wrote down all his notes. Finally, the researcher conducted the interviews in Arabic which is his and the interviewees’ native language and this was intended to contribute to the elements of validity and clarity by enabling the interviewees to express whatever they wanted smoothly.

Easterby-Smith et al. (2002) believe that the reliability of the semi-structured interview can be confirmed if different interviewers conducted the same interview and obtained similar information. Concerning the reliability of the interviews conducted for this study, especially the interviews with the employees, the researcher listed to the interviewees the objective and the general ideas of the interview before conducting it. This gave the interviewees the time to think about the requested information and allowed them to gather some organisational documents supporting their opinions (Saunders et al., 2003). By this, the researcher wanted to increase validity and reliability.

6.10 Data Analysis

As mentioned before, to achieve the objectives of this research, quantitative and qualitative approaches were adopted. While the questionnaire was a main method of data collection, the
semi-structured interview and the KAA reports were the supportive sources. As for the statistical methods of data analysis, the following sections offer the details.

### 6.10.1 The quantitative data analysis

Usually, there are two types of statistical analysis in the social sciences. These are descriptive statistics and inferential statistics. However, the researcher used the descriptive analysis technique to describe the characteristics of the samples and, consequently, summarise the respondents’ demographic characteristics by resorting to the means, frequencies and standard deviations (SD) of the responses.

The second statistical technique used in this study is *Pearson’s Correlation Coefficient* which is concerned with the relationship between two interval variables in terms of direction and strength (Cohen and Cohen, 1983). As stressed by Bryman and Cramer (2001), based on Pearson’s rank correlation analysis, ranging between -1 and +1, a perfect correlation between two variables is either -1 or +1. If the coefficient is +1, the two variables are correlated perfectly positively; thus, when one of them increases, the other increases proportionally. Conversely, the -1 coefficient reveals a perfect negative relationship according to which if one variable increases, the other decreases proportionally (Field, 2013). However, if the coefficient is zero, then there is no linear relationship between the two variables which means that one of the variables remains as it is even if the other changes (Field, 2013). The 0.01 and 0.05 values are indicative of a relationship that is regarded significant statistically (Bryman and Cramer, 2001). In brief, the benefit of Pearson’s correlation technique is that it determines the direction as well as format of the relationship between the independent variables and/or the relationship between the independent and the moderator variables.
Another statistical technique which the researcher used is factor analysis that can detect any redundancy in a series of correlated variables/factors (Briggs and Cheek, 1986: 107). For example, in the case of TQM questionnaire items, each factor is comprised of items which correlate with each other much more than they correlate with items external to that factor. Factor analysis is also used for estimating the levels of both construct validity and criterion validity of the scales.

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM\textsuperscript{15}), which is a multivariate statistical technique, is a major method for analysing the proposed model. As suggested by Jarratt (2000) SEM is a technique that is beneficial in specifying the relationships, whether direct or indirect, between the variables (dependent, independent and moderating). The two types of models are: the measurement model and the structural model (Haier et al., 1998). The function of the measurement model is defining the constructs that will be used by the mode and assigning the items observed to one another (Liao et al., 2011). However, the structural model defines the causal relationship between these constructs (Gefen et al., 2000).

Another very important reason for the researcher’s decision to use SEM is it is a tool that encompasses a variety of techniques, which could be explicated more comprehensibly by its central concepts and unique example. SEM does not merely handle one simple or manifold linear regression, but rather a system of regression equations (Nachtingall et al., 2003). Because this study’s model can be compared to a chain, SEM is the most appropriate technique as it deals, in an interactive way, with the variables as one package. Using SEM provides researchers such as Kearney (2012) and Bagozzi and Yi (2012) with a comprehensive means for the evaluation and

\textsuperscript{15} SEM based on AMOS V21.
adjustment of the theoretical relationships between independent and dependent variables. Finally, SEM was chosen due to its ability to simultaneously support latent variables with multiple indicators, mediating effects, causality hypotheses as well as dependent variables that are correlated (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

Figure 6.3 The structural and the measurement models

Source: the author

6.10.2 Qualitative data analysis (QDA)

Inter alia, the sequential mixed analysis (SMA) is one of the numerous methods of analysing mixed qualitative data. The researcher chose SMA because it deploys several approaches to data collection, analysis and interface in sequential stages (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 1998). The researcher who uses SMA can achieve the increase of the validity of data and a deep comprehension of the survey responses (Driscoll et al., 2007). In this study, the researcher gathered the quantitative data using the self-administered questionnaires. This was followed by analysing, classifying, and assembling the qualitative data extracted from the semi-structured
interviews and the KAA Reports. The next step was comparing these data with the results obtained from the quantitative data. The researcher then resorted to a thematic analysis (TA) to analyse the data gained from the interviews. During the thematic analysis, the researcher tries to detect and trace all common themes recurring in the interviews or the data existing in documents (DeSantis and Noel-Ugarriza, 2000). It is worth mentioning that there are no clear-cut borders separating between content analysis and thematic analysis; rather, they are used in a transposable manner and even their similarities and dissimilarities are unclear (Sandelowski and Leeman, 2012; Vaismoradi et al., 2013). Due to this interchangeability of the content analysis and thematic analysis, the researcher used both of them as complementary tools for analysing the qualitative data of this study. Finally, the three methods of describing the qualitative data are: continuous text, text matrices and further exploration and analysis of data and revealing these results. For the purposes of this research, the researcher used the continuous text method in order to describe the qualitative analysis findings.

The researcher followed specific steps to write the interview transcripts (see Figure 6.4) first, he listened to each recorded interview and transcribed each participant’s responses on a separate sheet of paper. This step took much of the researcher’s time due to the process of carefully listening to the digital recorder, transcribing the responses as well as data reading and re-reading several times (Drever, 2003) in order for the researcher to pinpoint the topic area related to the research objective. Then, he re-wrote each response, so all answers to every particular question were assembled together. Afterwards, the researcher divided each set of relevant data obtained from the responses into different categories. He described the responses in light of the categories and used quotes for illustration.
6.11 Ethical Considerations

The researcher followed the ethical guidelines that appointed by the University of Birmingham. In the same vein, the researcher was taken all the necessary approvals and permission from the university sponsoring this research (Yarmouk University) and public sector organisations (researched organisations) in Jordan. In this section, the ethical approval is divided into three areas:

- **Questionnaires**: the participants who take part in this research are anonymous. With this in mind, each questionnaire prepared with a unique ID, so as to ensure identification of a particular questionnaire within the sample, but will neither contain participants’ names or initials. As the questionnaire contains information with regard to respondents’ age and gender, there is a marginal probability that respondents’ identities can be inferred, particularly if the respondents are known to any (non-) participant who might obtain copies of the questionnaires. Later, in any publications based on the questionnaire data, results
will be reported as descriptive summaries of the sample and not on an individual level. Hence it will be impossible to infer participants’ identities.

- **Interviews**: in addition to the measures considered in this study, respondents allocated pseudonyms in any discussion of interview data. In addition, any information which may reveal the identity of the participant (e.g., the mentioning a particular address or place of work by the respondent) will be excluded from public discussion. Furthermore, the research used coding system for the interviews quotations where there no names, no work place or address.

- **KAA Reports**: KAA reports are third source of data for this research. The names of organisations were removed after taking the permission (from the King Abdullah II centre for excellence- the owner of KAA reports) to use the data.

### 6.12 Fieldwork process

The data collection process for this research was conducted between March 2013 and July 2013. Fieldwork commenced with the researcher visiting the Ministry of Public Sector Development and the King Abdullah Centre for Excellence to obtain a list of the Jordanian public organisations which were applying TQM and won the KAA Award. Then, I conduct several visits for the target organisations. However, these visits help me to understand the research context and provide myself for participants, book appointments for handing out the questionnaires and identify the candidates’ of interviews (employees). The researcher distributed and collected the questionnaires in person which motivated the respondents and established rapport with them; this also facilitated the process of clarifying any ambiguities related to the questionnaire.
employee questionnaires were handed out to employees who were in direct contact with customers and delivered public services directly to them in ten public organisations. 1000 customer questionnaires were distributed to those who received direct services from these organisations.

In the second stage of data collection, the researcher conducted semi-structured interviews with employees chosen from the organisations under discussion (e.g. frontline employees, supervisors, line managers and other managers like TQM managers, HR managers and services improvement managers). The interviewees were given the privilege of choosing the interview time and place suitable for them and, for the employees’ convenience, most of the interviews were conducted in the managers’ offices. In addition, as part of the research, the researcher provided each interviewee with a covering letter explaining the aims of the interview and asking for their cooperation. The interviewees were interviewed individually and each interview took about 45 minutes. The interviewees spoke in depth about the issues related to TQM and employee satisfaction in the Jordanian public sector organisations such as:

1. The level of TQM in the Jordanian public sector organisations.
2. The most important TQM factors that has an effect on employee satisfaction.
3. The role of TQM in employee satisfaction.
4. The roles of service employees when they provide their service to customers.

The researcher conducted 30 interviews with customers. The interviews, each of which took about 20 to 25 minutes, were conducted individually. The customers were asked open-ended questions regarding their assessment of service quality and their satisfaction with it including the following elements: responsiveness, empathy, assurance and reliability. The interviews also
probed customers’ opinions as regards the role of the service employee in the quality of service. The researcher randomly selected the customers as informants and approached them when they agreed to an interview. Some of the chosen customers were busy and some of them could not be interviewed. The customer interviews were conducted inside the organisation when appropriate unless the atmosphere of the organisation did not allow for an uninterrupted interview or was overcrowded for example, in which case the interview took place in a nearby rest area. All employee and customer interviews were conducted in Arabic. Finally, in order to remember the minutest details, the researcher wrote down his notes in addition to using the digital recording of each whole interview, but, of course, he asked each interviewee whether or not they permit the interview to be digital-recorded to which all interviewees consented except three.

Generally, with all the support and cooperation of all the respondents, the fieldwork for this study was really successful and productive. Nonetheless, the researcher did encounter some challenges and difficulties. The main obstacle was the inconvenience caused to the researcher due to having to repeat his visits to the organisations to achieve his goals and the waiting times that he had to endure despite booking appointments in advance. When they were fully busy, some managers and supervisors were not able to be committed to the appointments specified for their interviews and some others cancelled their appointments repeatedly. Another challenge was the cost of the fieldwork as the sponsoring Yarmouk University, did not cover the data collection or the fieldwork expenses. Therefore, and due to the geographical distance between the sample organisations, both the cost and time added extra burden on the researcher. Furthermore, since the data sources and documents – interviews, KAA reports – were in Arabic, the researcher made extra effort and spent more time to translate them into English. Above all, the researcher himself underwent some health problems that affected his performance in the fieldwork process.
6.12 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the philosophical and methodological issues for this doctoral study. The methodology was based on multiple methods and data sources which include: self-administered questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and KAA Reports. The chapter has described the pilot study conducted prior to the distribution of the final versions of the employee questionnaire and the customer questionnaire. It has also recounted the preparation of the questionnaire starting from a number of drafts, receiving feedback from experts in TQM, ES and SQ and ending with making modifications accordingly. The design and layout, question types and format, contents of the final version of the questionnaire as well as the population, sample and the procedures of managing the questionnaire have been presented and validated. Finally, the chapter has offered a logical description and discussion of the statistical methods used in this research to achieve its objectives. The next chapter will now present the detailed analysis of data in this study.
CHAPTER SEVEN
DATA ANALYSIS

7.1 Introduction

This chapter reports structured analysis of survey questionnaires carried out in the Jordanian public sector organisations. As mentioned in the methodology chapter there are two samples. The first is the employees’ sample which includes 420 [84%] questionnaires distributed to employees who are in direct contact with customers. The second sample is the customer sample which comprised 821 [82.1%] questionnaires distributed to customers who directly received the public service from 10 Jordanian public sector organisations. The discussion of participants’ demographic characteristics provides clear understanding of the nature of service employees and helps prepare the reader for a better comprehension of the analysis in general. More specifically, the chapter will present and discuss the following: 1) the level of TQM, employee satisfaction and service quality; 2) the reliability and validity results; 3) the results pertaining to the fit of the model; and 4) testing the structural model and hypotheses.

7.2 Sample Characteristics

It is essential to describe the relationship between a sample and its population. In this regard, what is required is describing the common characteristics between the sample and its parent population (Oppenheim, 1992). Accordingly, the characteristics of employees who took part in this study are described in this section.
7.2.1 Employees Sample

This sample includes several groups including service employees, supervisors and line managers who have direct contact with customers in the Jordanian public organisations. In total, 420 [84%] valid questionnaires were completed and returned by staff. As mentioned in the methodology chapter, the demographic section (see 6.4.2.4) in the questionnaire included data on gender, age, job level, educational attainment, and work experience and income level. The following sections present and discuss these characteristics in detail.

7.2.1.1 Gender

Table 7.1 Frequency Distribution by Gender of respondents (Employees)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>68%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.1 shows that 68% of 420 employees in the sample were male while 32% were female. This reflects the overall composition of employees in the Jordanian public sector. The reason for this imbalance is that in Jordanian culture women are not traditionally encouraged to work in such sectors, although it is worth noting that the proportion of females educated to a high level is in higher than the same figure for males (Civil Bureau: Jordan, 2013). Moreover, there are historical and societal reasons for this gender imbalance. Firstly, the nature of Jordanian citizen is conservative and people live in a religious society where traditionally women are not expected to work in male-dominated organisations (Ghazi Bin Muhammad, 1999). Secondly, women tend to accept more traditional feminised work such as teaching and nursing. This is probably due to the fact that in these occupations women are likely to have less contact with males, consistent with Islamic traditions (Melham, 2003).
7.2.1.2 Age

Table 7.2 Frequency Distribution by Age of respondents (Employees)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20- less than 30</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30- less than 40</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40- less than 50</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 50 years</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of age, 53% of the population of the study was biased towards the middle age groups as shown in Table (7.2). Young and older employees were fewer in number (21% and 3% respectively in the 20-30 years and over 50 years age groups). This suggests service providers were predominantly from the middle age group between 30-40 years. Experienced employees in the older age group tend to be promoted to perform managerial and administrative jobs within these government organisations, with less contact with the customers. These sample age profile reflects the population as a whole for government organisations in Jordan from where the sample was selected: over 70% of public staff in Jordan are under the age of 40 (DOS, 2014; Shepp, 2013).

7.2.1.3 Marital Status

Table 7.3 Frequency Distribution by marital status (Employees)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td>309</td>
<td>73%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The sample demonstrates that while 26% of the participants were single, 73% of them were married as shown in Table (7.3). This result is logical, as half of the respondents were over the age of thirty. This age is very seen as suitable for marriage in Jordan as shown by the Department
of Statistics ‘DOS’ (2012) where the mean age at first marriage for a Jordanian male is 30 years old and 26 a woman. Moreover, the habits of Arabian and Islam traditions encourage marriage.

7.2.1.4 Job level

Table 7.4 Frequency Distribution by Job Title (Employees)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Title</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Line manager</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head of Unit</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisors</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service employee</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>420</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.4 shows that 70% of 420 respondents were operational service employees, 17% were supervisors, 6% were heads of unit, and 5% were line managers. Because they are the target group and are in direct contact with customers, with marginal managerial and administrative responsibilities, service employees form the highest percentage of the sample. Managers account for only 5% as they are not in direct contact with customers; rather their job requires spending most of their time in directing work and supervising employees. Nevertheless, there are cases, demanding specific decisions and resolution, when supervisors need to deal with customers. In most cases the number of employees has increased in the operational level while the number decreasing incrementally as we head towards the top of the organisational structure. 2% of the sample preferred not to mention their job titles, perhaps due to security reasons and for the desire to remain anonymous.
7.2.1.5 Educational Attainment

Table 7.5 Frequency Distribution of Educational Attainment (employees)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational Attainment</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High school (Tawjihi)*</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma (2 years)</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master’s</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PhD (Doctoral Degree)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.5 shows results related to the level of education of service providers in Jordanian government organisations with 77% of them holding a bachelor’s degree or a two-year college diploma. In fact, the influxes of university or college graduates each year was higher than the available job opportunities. So, government organisations in Jordan do not face the problem of the non-availability of candidate staff; rather, these organisations sometimes reject postgraduate degree holders’ application preferring applicants with higher-grade profiles. Accordingly, the level of education is less significant than possessing the ‘right’ skills or knowledge in such jobs. Though they have good degrees, graduate students might lack the adequate skills, work experience and training required for the job. Employees with a high-school (Tawjihi) or lower level of education formed only 10% of the sample while only 11% of the sample held higher postgraduate degrees (MA and Ph.D.).

Employees who possess higher degrees normally either work in academic institutions such as universities or are looking for direct entry to administrative or leadership positions in the government. These results indicate that employees are generally well-educated in the Jordanian public sector and employers’ value, and have an interest in, educational qualifications for their

---

16 *Tawjihi is an Arabic word that refers to the general secondary examination in Jordan.
employees and managers. Overall, the level of educational attainment amongst respondents in this research is considered a strong factor for reputation and competitive advantage in government organisations. As more service employees possess a higher level of education, the more one can notice a flexible staff capable of effectively handling the work and of understanding the problems and demands of customers (Melhem, 2003).

7.2.1.6 Work Experience

Table 7.6 Frequency of Distribution Length of Work Experience (Employees)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work experience</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1- less than 5 years</td>
<td>101</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5- less than 10 years</td>
<td>175</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10- less than 15 years</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 15 years</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>420</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As illustrated in Table (7.6), 42% of 420 respondents had between 5 and 10 years’ experience, while 24 % had between 1 and less than 5 years, 18 % had between 10 and 15years and 17% more than 15 years. Moreover, the majority of employees their job experience ranged from 5 to 10 years. This result consistent with the age table [see 7.2] result, where the majority of employees in the sample age ranged between 30 and 40 years. Finally, this result also indicates that was good experiences for employees who enrich their abilities and knowledge in the workplace. Usually, experience played a crucial role in service provision and this experience helps to satisfy the customers’ needs or complaints with good manner.
7.2.1.7 Income level (in Jordanian Dinars. JD)

Table 7.7 Frequency Distribution by income (Employees)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Monthly Income (JD)</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>200- less than 400</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400- less than 600</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>600- less than 800</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>800- less than 1000</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 1000</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>420</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (7.7) shows that 40% of the 420 employees were income ranged between 400 and 600 JD\textsuperscript{17} per month, 26% earned between 200 and 400- JD, 19% between 600 and 800-JD, 10% between 800 and less than 1000 JD, whereas 5% of them earned over 1000-JD. This result matches the overall average salaries in the public sector in Jordan of between approximately 400 and 600-JD (DOS, 2014). In this regard, the employees who work in public sector receive generally higher salaries than employees who work in private firms in Jordan. This result is unique in the public sector context because [historically] the private sector pay more than public sector.

7.3 Quantitative data analysis (descriptive statistics)

As part of the survey, the levels of TQM adoption, employee satisfaction and service quality were addressed. Respondents were asked to measure and score all factors on the survey on five-point Likert scale. As well as using data from the survey questionnaire, qualitative data [interviews and KAA reports] were used to validate and support the quantitative results. Overall, the level of TQM, employee satisfaction and service quality is high. These results allowed the research to build the measurement model and structural model on valid and reliable base.

\textsuperscript{17} Jordanian Dinar equal Sterling Pound.
7.3.1 Evaluate the level of TQM in the Jordanian public sector

The researcher designed the questionnaire based on the six TQM factors discussed in Chapter 3. These factors include: top management commitment and support (TMCS); focus on customer (FC); continuous improvement (CI); employee participation (EP); employee training (ET); and management information systems (MIS). Accordingly, the level of TQM was measured by a set of items [n42] constructed on five point Likert scales (1= never, 2= rarely, 3= sometimes, 4= often, 5= always). The respondents [employees’ sample] were asked to answer what extent they agreed with disagreed with the given statements. The midpoint of the scale is (3)\(^{18}\) therefore, a mean above 3 shows general agreement with a statement while a mean below 3 shows overall disagreement.

7.3.1.1 Top Management Commitment and Support (TMCS)

Table 7.8 Means and Percentages for TMCS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Agreement Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>T1</strong> In your organisation, top managers are visibly and explicitly committed to quality.</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>T2</strong> There is an inclination of top management to allocate sufficient resources and time for TQM efforts.</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>T3</strong> Our top management provides encouragement and motivation to employees to give suggestions for quality improvement.</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>77%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>T4</strong> Top management has a key focus on monitoring progress with respect to all quality efforts.</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>T5</strong> Management regularly spends time “in the field” or “on the floor” with customers and frontline employees.</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>77%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>T6</strong> Managers praise the employee when he/she performs good quality work.</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>T7</strong> Our top management helps other organisational levels to identify quality objectives.</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>77%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[TMCS Average = 3.90] [Percentage = 78%]

\(^{18}\) The average \([1+5 = 6] \div 2 = 3\)
As shown in Table (7.8) statement (T1) indicates that the senior public managers are committed to quality principle tacitly and explicitly recorded the top element rank with the highest mean of (4.08) which shows that senior managers are seen as being highly committed and aware about the need of TQM in Jordanian public organisations. Top management focuses on monitoring progress with respect to all quality efforts (mean 3.89: T4). Furthermore, managers praise the employees who produce good quality work (mean 3.89: T6). Top managers were committed to support TQM efforts in terms of time, training, and financial resources (mean 3.88: T2). Supporting is not limited to providing logistic resources, but top managers committed to motivate their employees to provide suggestions and ideas that would maintain continuous improvement (mean 3.86: T3).

Senior managers help the other organisational levels [service employees and supervisors who considered as key persons to provide the public services for customers] to identify the quality objectives (mean 3.86: T7). This indicates that top managers have substantial responsibilities to teach and educate their employees in the middle and operational levels. Furthermore, the senior managers not only support the employees to achieve the quality objectives, but worked on rooting and consolidating the quality and excellence culture. In our case, Jordanian public managers considered a good role model. For example, they spent a part of their time field or on the floor with employees in order to help service employees in solving the customer problems and complaints (mean 3.85: T5). This action would be expected to increase the motivation both customers and employees. The overall mean of (3.90) indicates the respondents’ agreement with statements in relation to the TMCS. When we asked for more clarification about TMCS the participants answered:
In our organisation, top management commitment and support is a fact. Now, senior managers use positive power to support the activities of quality. For example, the top leadership dedicated its authority to support the quality projects, and establishment a new department called “customs TQM”. This department contributes to motivating the employees and supports them by training” [3, SEI, 28]

In this regard, one quality manager said that:

“In motivating employees and increasing their satisfaction are not easy. But our leadership was able to have a clear vision, establish excellence values and solve the most of the obstacles that face our employees. To be honest with you, without top managers’ support and commitment, we cannot have any step forward.” [7, MEI, 50]

Moreover, the following quotes which extracted from the KAA Reports to support and validate the TMCS results.

“The senior managers in sample organisations adopted the open-door policy to identify the needs of customers and citizens and receive their complaints. Also, they have encouraged the establishment of a services guide and distributed it for frontline employees to enhance their understanding of the service procedures and processes. Moreover, the senior managers adopted continuous improvement as an organisational policy to increase the motivation of workers and to enhance citizens’ satisfaction.” [KAA Reports]

“The senior leadership is committed to TQM and quality. The leaders of public organisations tried to create a strong ground for establishing the TQM systems, and they have particular visions that include quality values. Moreover, the leaders allocated specific items in the annual budget to support TQM activities such as training, CI and R&D and continuous improvement. In addition, senior managers spent some time with the frontline employees to serve the citizens-customers.” [KAA Reports]

In this regard, the literature (see section 3.5.1) suggests that a culture of quality must be starts from top management to enhance the employee commitment toward quality. However, in our case, the quality culture includes several core values [e.g. continuous improvement, transparency,
collaboration, customer focus, investment in people and employee satisfaction]. It’s worth mentioning that the above values were established through participation of all employees. Also these values were adopted and supported by senior managers as we found in KAA Reports (see Table 7.9).

From Table 7.9, it can be concluded that employee satisfaction, focus on customer, training, and participation have become the core value for top managers in the Jordanian public sector organisations. This reflects a positive transformation in excellence theory and practice in the public sector towards focusing on both soft and hard perspectives. Also, this result reflects the importance of employee satisfaction in achieving customer satisfaction and presents the logical justification for public organisations when they focus on ‘people’ to achieve the TQM objectives which include providing government services with high quality. Furthermore, these values reflect the support of political and administrative leadership in the Jordanian public sector towards quality and excellence (further discussion will be provided in chapter 8).

Table 7.9 Core values in the public sector organisations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Core Values/Organisation</th>
<th>Employee satisfaction</th>
<th>Participation</th>
<th>Collaboration</th>
<th>CI</th>
<th>Teamwork</th>
<th>Transparency</th>
<th>Customer focus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Key Note: [100 % of organisations consider employee satisfaction as a core value, 50% of organisations considered] [100 % of employees participated in set the core values].

225
7.3.1.2 Focus on Customer

Table 7.10 Means and Percentage for Focus on Customer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Agreement Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T8 Our organisation has developed strategies to build and maintain customer relationship.</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T9 Our organisation has effective means to determine the customer expectations and their needs.</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T10 Our organisation has effectively communicated customer expectations to the frontline employees.</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T11 We openly share information with the customer.</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T12 Customers are encouraged to provide feedback.</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T13 Our organisation collects extensive complaint information from the customers.</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T14 All employees believe that delivering high quality service to customers is their responsibility.</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[FC Average = 4.08] [Percentage = 82%]

Table 7.10 shows the sample organisations see themselves as giving high consideration for customers. They collect information on customers’ complaints and investigate customers’ opinions and attitudes concerning the services received, as shown by the mean for statement T13 (4.20). Moreover, the government organisations openly share information with customers - citizens (T11: 4.17). They develop strategies to build and maintain customer relationships (mean 4.11: T8). However, public organisations have effective means to determine their customer expectations and their needs (mean 4.07: T7). The majority of frontline employees believe that delivering high quality service to customers is their responsibility (mean 4.06: T14). They see themselves as having delivered and effectively communicated customer expectations to employees (mean 4.05: T10). Management encourage the customers to provide their feedback, (mean 4.02).

The Jordanian public organisations are not content with only receiving feedback from the customers or citizens, but they motivate their customers and public to provide their information and ideas in order to raise the level of work and to enhance its quality. Customers’ feedback will
be useful in recognizing the potential enhancement opportunities and to know the strength points in order to improve them. Finally, the overall mean of (4.08) indicates the respondents’ agreement in general to the statements in relation customer focus. The following quotations confirmed the above results, indicating a perceived high level of focus on customer in the Jordanian public organisations.

“All organisations use systematic methodologies to identify the needs and expectations of customers. For example, all organisations have clear communication mechanisms to collect the feedback from customers-citizens, and they have specific actions to correct deviations in the service provided. Quarterly, the organisations distribute questionnaires to determine customer needs and suggestions to develop the public service. Moreover, all institutions conduct regular meetings with customers and carry out site visits to the service offices. Then, all feedbacks are delivered to employees who are in a direct contact with external customers.” [KAA Reports]

Several methodologies and strategies were adopted by Jordanian public organisations to focus on customer/citizens. For example, all organisations adopted ‘customer voice methodology’ which aimed to manage the relationship with customers and enhance their satisfaction. This result is unique because it reflects a positive change in administrative culture in the Jordanian public sector. Historically, the following statement can describe the relationship between public employee and citizens- customers in the developing countries:

“The public employee has an authority over the citizens-customers and is not a servant to them”

Recently, the above perspective has changed. Here, I remembered the speech of Sheikh Mohammad Bin Rashid (Dubai Governor) when said “the government is not an authority on people, but it is the key tool for enhancing the citizens’ satisfaction”. In same meaning, King Abdullah II [in the Administrative Leaders Conference, 2015] said that “citizens are the first priority for us”. However, customer satisfaction has become a critical indicator for governmental
success and reputation in the Jordanian public sector. In this regard Denhardt and Denhardt (2000: 553) argued that:

“Serve, rather than steer, an increasingly important role of the public servant to help citizens articulate and meet their shared interests, rather than to attempt to control or steer society in new directions” (2000: 553).

In this context, Jordanian public organisations activate specific communication channels to contact with customers in order to identify their needs and expectations. Then, managers and supervisors pass on these expectations to service employees. However, the external communication methodology aimed to ensure the flow of information smoothly form customers to employees. In this concern, Melhem (2004) sees that information is the key element in enhancing the performance of frontline employees and to provide services. Jordanian Public organisations able to develop the responsibility spirit in its employees and to embrace a basic slogan of customer serving distinctively and from the first time. We can notice that clearly when we analysis the elements of vision and core values.

As example, the slogan of the Jordan Customs Department (Excellency in performance, quality in services). Customer care and concern are public organisations’ values that all of the concerned institutions believe in. For instance, the mission of the Central Traffic Department has focused on the satisfaction of service recipients and to treat all customers equally, transparently and accountably. So KAA Reports confirmed that values and visions were fully applied in the Jordanian public sector organisations and well-firmed.
### 7.3.1.3 Continuous Improvement

**Table 7.11 Mean and Percentages for Continuous Improvement**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Agreement Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T15 The organisation has an effective system for improving those processes identified as needing improvement.</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T16 The organisation has an effective means to evaluate the improvement processes itself.</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T17 Our managers communicate the results of improvement activities and initiatives effectively to their subordinates.</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T18 The organisation always delivers the latest technology for enhancing the application of TQM.</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T19 The organisation’s management gives great importance to research and development for the design and development of its services.</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T20 Teams such as quality circles, cross functional are used as the main tool for solving quality problems and decision making.</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T21 The results of organisational research contribute to decision making for continuous improvement.</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[CI Average = 3.94] [Percentage = 79%]

Table (7.11) indicates that the level of continuous improvement application in the Jordanian public organisations is seen by respondents as “high”. These public organisations have effective systems for internal processes improvement (mean 4: T15). All organisations were applying quality systems e.g. ISO 9000 or its wider family of standards. All organisations were also attempting to use technology to enhance the application of TQM and to facilitate service provision for customers (mean 3.98 T: 18). Moreover, these organisations give attention to research and development (R&D) to design and develop their service processes and simplify their procedures (mean of 3.98: T19). These organisations have an effective means and tools to assess the CI processes including the development of procedures; improvement of the organisational environment (mean 3.93: T16).

All organisations used the results of its own organisational research as an input to make improvement decisions (mean 3.93: T21). Several ways were used to study the quality problems such as: teamwork, cross functional teams, and quality circles (mean 3.91: T20). The managers communicate results of improvement activities effectively to their subordinates [service employees] (mean 3.89: T17) this action will help to update the employees also enhance their
motivation towards the woks and enhance their commitment to quality. The overall mean of this variable (CI) was (3.94) which indicate there is agreement with the statements regarding CI in the sample public organisations. So when we asked for clarification, the informants answered:

“All organisations used specific methodologies so-called ‘services and processes improvement methodology’ to identify the processes and services that need improvement. Such a matrix was used to determine these processes to resolve the negative overlapping between procedures and processes. Moreover, the organisations depend on specific inputs to improve its processes and procedures such as employee suggestions, customers’ feedback and customer satisfaction surveys. To take advantage of the opinions of stakeholders, the ‘quality and excellence committee’ encourage the employees and citizens to provide their comments and suggestions that relate to improving the services”. [KAA Reports]

“We used the ‘processes management approach’ to simplify the service procedures and fundamental processes. Our managers allow the employees to participate in all improvement activities, and they encourage them to transfer their knowledge to their colleagues especially in the service development”. [25, SEI, 39]

“We design our processes through specific procedures or steps. All processes are reviewed by all administrative units; moreover, the needs and expectations of employees and customers are considered as a primary input or KPIs to assess the effectiveness of operations and service procedures, so our management seeks to achieve a ‘flexible overlap’ between their processes”. [12, MEI, 41]

In our case, all Jordanian public organisations have specialised units - departments that aims to improve the government services and improve the service procedures and processes. At the same time, these departments responsible about employee training on any changes / upgrading in the services. The public organisations have supportive organisational structure which facilitate the continuous improvement activities. For example, the structures became more flat and less complex. This means organisational structures allow to establish CI teams such as quality circles, functional teams which include qualified members who came from different levels in an organisation.
As mentioned in the Table (7.9) CI is considered as a ‘core strategic value’ in public organisations. As well as all strategic visions focused on making qualitative leap in CI especially in the HR practices and service procedures. Moreover, CI became ‘institutional culture’ and systematic work. For example, all Jordanian public organisations apply specific methodologies for CI such as RADAR Methodology, the Deming Cycle, the Cause-Effect Diagram, Fishbone approach and DMAIC\(^\text{19}\). These tools help the organisation to manage and identify the areas which need improvement. Also, not only that but the organisations have been reviewed and measure CI process in order to identify the possible deviation an implementation process.

Also, the Jordanian public organisations allowed its employees to involve and participate in CI. However, the involvement process take several formats such as the employees participate in designing of procedures and processes, and others were participated in motion and time studies. The third group train their colleagues on the new procedures in order to reduce resistance for change. Thus, the interviewees asserted that the employee is cornerstone in CI processes where it is difficult to give the optimisation process to fruition without [collaboration of co-workers], [employee satisfaction] and [open communication].

\(^{19}\text{D: Define, M: Measure, A: Analysis, I: Improve, C: Control.}\)
7.3.1.4 Employee Participation

Table 7.12 Mean and Percentage for Employee Participation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Agreement Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T22 The organisation listens to the opinions of employees in order to benefit</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>from their experiences.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T23 Employees are involved in decision making that relates to quality and</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>76%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>continuous improvement.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T24 The powers of decision making are delegated by management to front line</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>employees in varying degrees.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T25 The organisation always encourages me to offer ideas about workplace</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>improvement.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T26 Employees participate in developing and simplifying the procedures related</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to their job.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T27 Employees share knowledge and their experiences openly.</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>79%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[EP Average = 3.92] [Percentage = 78%]

Table (7.12) indicates that there is good participation level in the Jordanian public organisations. To activate the participation principle in the public organisations, the managers always encourage their subordinates to provide their ideas in order to improve the workplace (mean 4.10. T: 25). However, the powers and authorities of managers and supervisors delegated to service employees (mean 3.93. T: 24). It is worth mentioning that this results is unique in the Jordanian public sector context because it reflects positive transformation in leadership and supervision style where the centralisation was dominated for many times. So service employees have participated in developing and simplifying the procedures related to their jobs (mean 390. T: 26). The employees have an opportunity to share their knowledge and experiences together in order to increase their skills and capabilities (mean 3.93. T: 27).

Managers and supervisors listen to the opinions which provided by their employees in order to benefit from their experiences (mean 3.90: T22). In addition, the service employees have been involved to make decision that relates to quality and continuous improvement (mean 3.78: T23). Finally, the overall mean is (3.92) which indicates that the respondents agree with the statements.
in relation to the employees’ participation in the case organisations. When asked for more explanations, participants answered:

“We adopt the participation strategy as an integral part of TQM. So, participation is the very crucial element in our organisation and as the Arab proverb says: ‘one hand cannot clap’. Now, we allow our employees to participate in most activities such as job development, service improvement, solving problems, and we involve them in an annual administrative review”. [23, 7, MEI, 52]

Accordingly, we can conclude that the employee participation in the Jordanian public sector based on two pillars are trust and collaboration. So these pillars are preconditioned requests to motivate service employees.

“Participation is a very important issue in public organisations. Now, we involve our employees in most decisions such as process improvement, training, etc. Also, we empower them through involving them in quality activities and decision making in general.” [20, MEI, 34]

In our case, managers give genuine opportunities for employees to provide their suggestions about how to improve the quality and their jobs. However, the participatory process does not stop on this limit! Managers delegate their powers, responsibilities and authorities to their subordinates in order to empower them ‘psychologically and functionally’ so as to enhance their response to customers and provide quality public services. Indeed, this result is not common in the public sector where managers often command orders to employees and require from them to implement these demands (don’t ask, just do it).

Also this result reflects good level of freedom which given to Jordanian public employees in government which has not exist before! Furthermore, this result reflects positive transformation in management of TQM from traditional approach which depends on few experts in an organisation (in top management) who are responsible for CI to participative approach which mean everybody
in an organisation responsible about the CI. However, KAA Reports indicate that there is systematic implementation for “employee participation methodologies” in all Jordanian public organisations.

Moreover, all Jordanian public organisations are encouraged its employees to provide their opinions and suggestions to enhance their jobs, workplace, communication channels and organisational structures. For example, all Jordanian public organisations have clear mechanisms to receive initiatives of employees such as [Knowledge Pool in Land and survey Department], [E-suggestions box in Customs department], [Knowledge Corner in the Ministry of Industry and Trade]. At the individual level each employee responsible and involved in improve his/her job and its processes and procedures. However to encourage the employees participation all organisations have established “Internal Excellence Awards” that aim to enhance the competition between the employees in order to enhance quality (both service quality, quality of work and motivation).

The Jordanian public organisations in this research generally allowed their employees to disseminate their tacit knowledge and experiences to other colleagues, especially those at the operational level. More specifically, long-experience employees worked to document their tacit knowledge and publish it depending on “the methodology of knowledge assets management”. Thus, functional and work experiences are not restricted to their owners, but are available for sharing with all employees. Definitely, the sharing of experiences enhances employee morale and satisfaction, skills and collaboration, and ‘co-workers spirit’ among employees.
7.3.1.5 Employee Training

Table 7.13 Mean and Percentage for Employee Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Agreement Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T28 Those who are on the interface with the customer receive special training</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(listening, complaint resolution, negotiation, teamwork, quality awareness,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and the like).</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T29 Every employee receives personal skill training that enhances his/her</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>76%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ability to deliver high quality service.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T30 Employees are involved in the evaluation and improvement of their training</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>76%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>programme.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T31 Employees are encouraged to accept training and education within the</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>76%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>organisation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T32 The training offered through the organisation is an effective way to</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>76%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>change the behaviour of employees.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T33 The training has helped me to understand what is expected of me in my</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>76%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>day to day job activities.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T34 The training provides me with all skills, knowledge, and abilities which</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>76%</td>
<td>Medium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I needed.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[ET Average = 3.88] [Percentage = 77.5%]

Table (7.13) shows a good level of employee training in the Jordanian public sector organisations. Employees on the front line receive training in such as quality topics such as listening skills, quality awareness, and problem solving skills (mean 3.96. T: 28). Every service employee, it appears, receives personal skills training that enhance their ability to deliver high quality services (mean 3.91. T: 29). Employees were involved in an evaluation and improvement of their training programmes (mean 3.89 T: 30). Service employees asserted that training which provided enable them to understand their job tasks, activities and requirements (mean 380. T: 33). Employees confirmed that the training provided them with all knowledge, skills, information and capabilities needed to perform their tasks and jobs (mean 3.79. T: 34). Finally, the overall mean of 3.86 indicates respondents’ agreement to the statements in relation with the employee training as a critical element for the TQM in the sample public sector. When we asked for explanations, the participants answered:
“In our organisation, employee training is considered as the central part of changing the management programmes, so we apply internal training to provide the employees with practical exercises about their tasks/jobs. Thus, this action enhances the motivation of our staff and their drive. However, managers love training in theory and practice because it increases employees’ experiences and improves their performance”. [16, MEI, 39]

“Training in general and quality training, in particular, is the priority for our organisation. The management allocates financial resources to support training activities, so the majority of the staff has received training in quality subjects”. [25, MEI, 37]

“There is a high awareness of TQM principles in our organisation, especially in departments and divisions that have a direct contact with the public. Every new employee has received training in customer care, job procedures and service processes. So, we train our staff because we focus on citizens. We use training as a tool to empower our staff to perform their jobs”. [1, SEI, 37]

The KAA reports support the above interviewees’ quotations as discussed below. Employee training is considered one of the pillars for applying TQM in Jordanian public sector. For example, all service employees received specialised training in the one or more quality subjects such as: TQM, excellence models like KAA and EFQM, listening skills, solve problem skills, negotiation skills, team building skills, empathic service …etc. It is worth mentioning the positive transformation in the types of training programmes as opposed to traditional programmes which focused on general topics to specialised topics which focus on the behavioural and skills dimensions in order to empower the service employees to provide the public services.

Now, the training process in the Jordanian public sector became more planned and customer- and employee oriented. The Jordanian public organisations allowed employees to assess their training needs and evaluate the training programs were provided. In addition, the needs assessment and training design is based on the identification of skills and knowledge gaps and customer/citizens’
feedback. These organisations see training as an effective tool to change the attitudes of employees and to enhance their satisfaction.

The KAA Reports confirmed that training in the Jordanian public organisations has applied systematically. All organisations have methodologies to manage the training process. These methodologies have different names (e.g. training and development methodology, training and needs assessment methodology). 50% of the Jordanian public organisations have merged the training methodology with CI methodology. Thus, training is a critical factor for the implementation TQM and CI. 30% of Jordanian public organisations have merged between training methodology and customer voice system. This means two things: [1] training is oriented to improve the skills and qualifications of service employees and [2] training aims to improve the ability of employees to deal effectively with customer requirements.

7.3.1.6 Management Information Systems (MISs)

Table 7.14 Mean and Percentage for Management information system

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Agreement Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T35 The organisation has an accurate database that provides information</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>on customers and internal operations.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T36 The organisation has a timely database that provides information on</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>customers and internal operations.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T37 Our MIS helps in collecting information that is pertinent to the</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>improvement effort.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T38 Our MIS helps in analysing data that is used to support quality</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>improvement.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T39 Our MIS enables the employees to access needed.</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T40 The organisation evaluates and improves its information by using</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management information system.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T41 Our MIS are used at all levels to support all activities and operations.</td>
<td>4.10</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T42 The organisation updates their information systems on an on-going basis.</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[MIS Average = 4.07] [Percentage = 81%]
As shown in Table 7.14, there is high level of MIS application in the Jordanian public organisations. The item (T35) is a highest ranked (mean 4.16), which refers to organisations which have an accurate database that provides information about the customers and internal operations. All organisations update their information systems on an on-going basis (mean 4.13, T42). The MIS services provided for all organisational levels in order to support and enhance the operations and activities with the organisation (mean 4.10, T41). All organisations have a timely database that provides information on customers and internal operations (mean 4.09, T: 36).

In addition MIS helps in collecting information that is pertinent to the improvement effort (mean 4.06, T37). MIS helps to analyse data used to support quality improvement (mean 4.04, T38). Jordanian public organisations tend to evaluate and improve its information using MIS (mean 4.03, T40). MISs enable service employees to access needed data (mean 4.00, T38). Finally, the overall mean is (4.07) which indicates that respondents highly agree with statements in relation with MIS being a critical element of TQM application in the Jordanian public sector. When we asked for more explanation, the participants answered:

“As you know, MIS include several components: hardware, software and people. In our organisation, MIS is easy to use, reliable and regularly updated to keep the staff current with changing decision-making needs and customer expectations. MIS produce good characteristics of information that are accessible, timely, updated, reliable and accurate. From the personal view, I can say that the information system is crucial in our organisation to help and motivate our staff and to meet customer needs.” [11, MEI, 45]

The KAA reports showed that the average of employees’ satisfaction about these MIS around 84.3%; this result is consistent with MIS results (see Table 7.14).
"Information systems have a real application in our organisation. MIS are not used to provide the employees with accurate data only, but considered interactive tools to support them to make decisions and to serve customers". [4, SEI, 43]

“All current organisations have advanced information systems. Also, all organisations have an intranet, internet and extranet which facilitate work, communication and service transactions. However, each employee has a personal computer and the software needed”. [KAA Reports]

Now, why is MIS a crucial element in supporting TQM in the Jordanian public organisations? Simply, MIS is cross with most TQM practices and activities. Interestingly, in this study, MIS impact both technical and social issues. For example, implementing TQM will lead to an MIS design that satisfies customer expectations and needs and combines all aspects, technical and behavioural (Barata and Cunha, 2015). Moreover, MIS is viewed as TQM’s life blood. Thus, new information systems are regarded as motivators for achieving excellent results (Spencer and Duclos, 1998). In our case, the MIS supports TQM through facilitating the tasks and service climate and through motivating the service employees in the Jordanian public organisations.

In summary Table 7.15 presents the total mean, ranges and ranking for TQM and its variables. Accordingly, it was noted that there is no significant difference between the levels of application for each of the sub-factors. ‘Focus on the customer’ is ranked most highly and MIS second, while employee training came in with the lowest rank (77%). Overall, all critical factors have a significant contribution to TQM application in the public sector organisation. These results are unique especially compared with other studies that show that poorness in TQM application in the public sector in different countries (e.g. Alqudah, 2006; Brown, 2013; Halachmi, 2005; Hughes
and Halsall, 2002; Tizard, 2012; Vakalopoulos et al., 2013; Van der Wiele and Brown, 2002; Asif et al., 2009; Jreisat, 2009).

### Table 7.15 Total Descriptive results for TQM construct

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>N. items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Top management commitment and support</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Focus on customer</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Continuous improvement</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Employee participation</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Employee training</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>77.5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Management information system</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall [TQM]</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Figure 7.1 Level of TQM in Jordanian Public Organisations

- TMCS: 0.78
- Customer Focus: 0.82
- Continuous Improvement: 0.79
- Employee Participation: 0.78
- Employee Training: 0.78
- MIS: 0.81

### 7.4 Evaluating the level of employees’ satisfaction in the Jordanian public sector

The researcher built his questionnaire on the five employee satisfaction constructs that have been discussed in Chapter 4. These elements include: supervision, operating conditions, co-workers, nature of work and communication (items from S1 to S22). The level of “employee satisfaction” were measured by a set of items that is constructed on five-points Likert scale (1= never, 2= rarely, 3= sometimes, 4= often, 5= always), as mentioned in the employee satisfaction scale.
7.4.1 Employees Satisfaction facets

The respondents were asked to state, using a five-point Likert scale, their agreement or disagreement with a set of given statements concerning facets of employee satisfaction. The following sections will present and discuss the levels of employee satisfaction according to the five factors as mentioned above.

7.4.1.1 Supervision

Table 7.16 Mean and percentage for supervision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Satisfaction Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E1 I am encouraged to solve problem public problems on my own.</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E2 My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E3 My supervisor is fair to me.</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E4 My supervisor shows high interest in the feelings of subordinates.</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E5 I like working for my supervisor.</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (7.16) indicates a generally excellent supervisor-employee relationship in the Jordanian public sector organisations sampled. Service employees in the Jordanian public sector are generally encouraged by their supervisors to solve customer problems and complaints (mean 4.23, E1). The majority of service employees in the Jordanian public sector organisations reported that they enjoy working with their supervisors and managers (mean 4.20, E5).

“There is enough supervision here. Our institution now works towards improving the employee’s performance through training and sharing the knowledge among employees, but in my own opinion, this will never achieved without trust and proper supervision. As you know, in government organisations, everything is written. However, we try to deal with the spirit of the law, not the law as it is; so, our employees have real freedom especially those who are in contact with citizens” [2, SEI, 28]
The majority of employees asserted that their supervisors are competent in their jobs of work with a mean of 4.19 (E2). This means supervisors do help their employees in performing their jobs effectively and efficiently.

“Historically, our staff used to face several challenges regarding contacting their supervisors; there is a supervisor phobia. Nowadays, we see them through transparent glass and we sit with them in the same office. The age of closed offices has gone and we work now as a team to achieve our objectives and to serve our customers. Take me as an example as I am speaking with you freely, without any permission from him. [19, MEI, 29]

“My supervisor is an expert in my job. As you know, my job is based on estimation, my supervisor’s support helps me to make decisions and provide our services. At the same time, he is watching me from afar. If he feels I face a problem in completing any transaction, he supports me without embarrassment”. [22, SEI, 25]

Supervisors appear to pay high attention to the feelings of subordinates (mean 4.15: E4). Moreover, employees asserted that they received fairer treatment from their supervisors (mean 4.12, E3). In this regard the KAA reports and interviews confirmed the above results.

“Service employees received excellent treatment from their supervisors and managers. One KAA assessor said that ‘respect is the continual approach in this organisation’. In other words, supervisors show compliance and recognition for employees”. [KAA Reports]

Finally, the overall mean of (4.17) indicates the respondents’ high agreement to the statements in relation to the supervision as a critical element of employee satisfaction in the Jordanian public sector. In summary, we can say that good supervision not only aims to enhance the relationship between workers and supervisors but also to achieve individual and organisational goals that may include improving public service and increasing customer satisfaction, as well as improving
citizens’ perception-image of the public organisation. This idea can partially support the path-goal theory\(^{20}\), where employee satisfaction highly correlated with supervision support (Evans, 1970; Brown and Peterson, 1993).

### 7.4.1.2 Operating Conditions

**Table 7.17 Mean and percentage for operating conditions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Satisfaction Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E6 Our organisation’s rules and procedures enable me to accomplish my job effectively.</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E7 My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by bureaucracy or routine*</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>97%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E8 I have too much to do at work*</td>
<td>4.87</td>
<td>97%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Operating conditions Average = 4.57 ] [Percentage = 91% ]

* Reverses question

Table (7.17) indicates employees in the Jordanian public organisations are satisfied with operating conditions in the public sector organisations. The statement (E8) was the highest ranking with a mean (4.87) indicating a perception of work overload, especially for those who provide their services directly for the customers. Customer contact as well as employees’ responsiveness and flexibility are influenced by workload. For instance, under the pressure of workload, service employees will have only a limited time left for interpersonal interaction with customers and thus will have a little chance to improve the relationships and speed collateral to service delivery (Melhem, 2003).

\(^{20}\) Goal-path theory based on specifying a leader’s style or behaviour that best fits the employees and work environment in order to achieve a goal (see, House and Mitchell, 1974).
“There are many initiatives were used to reduce the workload such as ‘one stop shop’ ‘decentralisation project’ and ‘computerisation’. All these actions enhance the operating conditions in the public sector organisations. Plus, the organisations worked to enrich and enlarge its jobs and motivate the service employees to be faster” [KAA Reports].

Bureaucracy and negative routine is seen as minimal in terms of centralisation, formalisation and complexity (mean 4.84: E7). The majority of Jordanian service employees see the organisational rules and procedures as facilitating the accomplishment of their tasks and duties effectively (mean 3.99: E6). Finally, the overall mean of (4.57) indicates the respondents’ high agreement to the statements in relation with the operating conditions (as a critical element for employee satisfaction) in the Jordanian public sector.

“We endeavored to increase our employees’ motivation and satisfaction by alleviating their overload, so that they can effectively respond to customers. Several actions were taken to achieve this like increasing service frontline employees’ number, improving service processes and procedures, encouraging cooperation among colleagues and maintaining their relationships. The consequence of such actions will be more emphatic behaviour on the part of employees who will also deliver our services with minimal mistakes”. [27, MEI, 45]

7.4.1.3 Co-workers

Table 7.18 Mean and percentage for co-workers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Satisfaction Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E9 I like working with my co-workers.</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>86%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E10 I help my colleague when he/she workload is high</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E11 I enjoy working with my co-workers.</td>
<td>4.14</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E12 There is too much bickering and fighting at work*</td>
<td>4.84</td>
<td>97%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Reveres question

As illustrated in Table (7.18) there is excellent relationship between co-workers in the Jordanian public sector organisations, with little by way of bickering and arguing between the employees in
the workplace (mean 4.84, E12). Co-workers have good relationships between themselves and they enjoy working together (mean 4.30 E9). There is high collaboration between co-workers in order to achieve the required work [e.g. services provision] (mean 4.17: E10). The majority of co-workers look for the work with their colleagues as an enjoyable thing (mean 4.14: E11). When we asked for more explanation, the participants answered:

“We live as a family. So, all colleagues respect one another. Our organisation has action plans to increase the collaboration among us, so our supervisors have a vital role in bridging the gaps among employees. I consider my colleagues like brothers or sisters”. [28, 16, SEI, 33]

“To achieve the service quickly and empathically, we need co-operation and collaboration among all service employees. Also, we need proper supervision or maintaining the good relationship between employees and their supervisor(s)”. [17, SEI, 30]

In addition the above results were supported by KAA reports:

“The majority of sample organisations exercised such practices to enhance the relationship among its employees such as establishing social teams, social clubs” and ‘Knowledge Pool’”. Moreover, the managers support in building healthy relationships between service employees to exchange their knowledge, ideas and the experiences to achieve the required tasks on time. Indeed, service employees are supportive and helpful”. [KAA Reports]

The average mean of the whole section is (4.36), which indicates an overall high agreement with the “co-workers” statements, so the collaboration between the service employees is high. Collaboration among co-workers is considered as a useful behaviour for those who have direct contact with customers (Bellou and Androrikidis, 2008). However, to provide high service quality, high cooperation between employees and their organisations is required (Azzolini and Shillaber, 1993). Creating high service quality in Jordanian public organisations requires a high collaboration among co-workers. This is due to the nature of the service that depends on the interaction among
the employees in order to perform the required tasks. In our case, co-workers’ satisfaction is considered as a precondition to improve the dimension of service quality and enhance the overall employee satisfaction.

7.4.1.4 Nature of work

Table 7.19 Mean and percentage for nature of work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Satisfaction Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E13  I feel my job has an important contribution to the organisation’s performance.</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E14  I enjoy undertakes the tasks require from me.</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E15  I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E16  My job is enjoyable.</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Nature of work Average = 4.28 ] [Percentage = 86%]

Table 7.19 illustrates that service employees are generally satisfied with the nature of work in the Jordanian public organisations. They feel a sense of pride in doing their jobs (mean 4.38, E15). The majority of employees enjoy fulfilling their required tasks and specific duties (mean 4.33: E17).

“I like my job which gives me a high satisfaction level, especially when I am able to handle different tasks at different times. However, the most enjoyable part is dealing with the public because this kind of task offers me more freedom and flexibility”. [8, SEI, 32]

Employees believe their jobs have important contributions to the organisational performance and public service (mean 4.21, E13). Moreover, the service employees consider their job as intrinsically enjoyable (mean 4.19: E16). Finally, the average mean of the whole section is (4.28), which indicates an overall high agreement with the “nature of the work” statements. When we asked for more explanation, staff interviewees answered:
“As you know, service employees are imperative in government organisations. Thus, all employees contribute to achieving the organisational goals significantly. Therefore, we make the public jobs as accessible and enjoyable as possible”. [21, MEI, 36]

Interestingly, vast majority of interviewees considered the job itself as a motivator to them more so than salary. Hence, it can be said that balance and flexibility are required when designing jobs in the public sector. For example, the job must include clear and specific steps and key processes with a given margin of freedom for employees to act within.

7.4.1.5 Communication

Table 7.20 Mean and percentage for communication

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Satisfaction Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E17 Communications seem good in this organisation.</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E18 The goals of this organisation are clear to me.</td>
<td>4.12</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E19 I often feel I do not know what is going on in my organisation*.</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>96%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E20 Work assignments are fully explained.</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E21 My supervisor encourages me to speak out.</td>
<td>4.0</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E22 I get all the necessary information to do my job in serving the public.</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Communication Average = 4.22 ] [Percentage = 84%]

* Reveres question

Table 7.20 shows that service employees are mostly highly satisfied with internal communication in their Jordanian public sector organisations. The employees believe they know what is going in their organisations. This means communication channels are open (mean 4.81: E19). Furthermore, service employees receive a good quantity of information needed in order to service their public customers (mean 4.22, E22).
“All organisations apply communication plans and methodologies to facilitate the communication process among organisation members. Communication is considered a strength point in public institutions. For example, the average of employee satisfaction with internal communication is around 85%, approximately and this percentage is consistent with the quantitative results mentioned above”. [KAA Reports]

The employees believe that the objectives of Jordanian public organisations are clear and understandable (mean 4.12: E18). Service employees asserted that work assignments, tasks and duties were most often fully explained (mean 4.11: E20). Overall, the communication process in the Jordanian public organisations is seems good (mean 4.08: E17). Supervisors and line managers encourage their employees to speak out (mean 4.0, E21). Finally, the mean average of the whole section is (4.28), which indicates overall high agreement on the ‘communication scale’. When asked for more explanation staff interviewees answered:

“Our open communication strategy allows us to update our employees about any changes in the services provided. We train our staff on the right and best ways in dealing and communicating with citizens-customers as well as informing them of the updated / new services. These actions came as a planned result for TQM and Excellence applications in our organisation.” [26, MEI, 43]

“Usually, my supervisor informs my colleagues and me of the vital issues that occur around us. For example, he tells us about the new projects like continuous improvement and customer satisfaction results. I appreciate this because it enables me to be more familiar with any issue especially if related to customers”. [18, 16, SEI, 28]

“We deliver different kinds of public services all the time and we update our services regularly. Consequently, we first communicate these services to our employees and then we want them to participate with us in communicating them to citizens or customers. We also hold meetings with our service employees every month to provide them with all the information they need and we encourage them to ask if they have any more queries or questions”. [29, MEI, 49]
As final word, the good communication satisfaction in the Jordanian public sector reflects several things: 1. communication satisfaction is preconditioned to improve the service employee satisfaction. 2. Communication satisfaction is vital to improve the service climate. 3. High communication satisfaction reflect the transformation in bureaucratic structure and supervision leadership or style. In our case, there are two communication types: communication between employees and supervisors and communication among co-workers themselves. Thus, several factors play their roles in the communication satisfaction such as personal feedback, sharing knowledge, supervisory communication and co-workers’ communication (Clampitt and Girard, 1993). In this study, communication satisfaction includes skills and clear massages that are used to enhance the achievement of organisational goals such as improving governmental service quality.

As a summary, Table 7.21 presents the total mean, ranges and ranking for employee satisfaction scales and its facets. Accordingly, it was noted that there is no substantial difference between the levels of employee satisfaction for each of the facets. ‘Operating conditions’ is recorded as a highest level and ‘Co-workers’ ranked second. Despite all the ES facets are critical to achieve high service quality and satisfy the customers, we noted dominated the ‘operating conditions’ and ‘co-workers’ respectively. This may be due to the employees realising the clear difference in operating conditions after the application the TQM. More specifically, TQM contributed to reduce the level of complexity and negative routine and bureaucracy which employees suffered from them for long time periods.
Table 7.21 Total Descriptive results for employee satisfaction Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>N. items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Supervision</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Operating conditions</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>91%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Co-workers</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.36</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Nature of work</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.28</td>
<td>86%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Communication</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall [Employee Satisfaction]</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The rise in employee satisfaction with co-workers came as a logical consequence because collaboration with and respect for others are part of the social values which contribute to establishing the organisational values in public sector organisations. For example, most employees give priority to collaboration values and co-workers over other facets. This finding is consistent with the Social Exchange Theory, which encourages the creation of positive interaction among co-workers for achieving the organisational goals in the Jordanian public organisations. In the cases studied in this thesis, the optimal goal is achieving high service quality.
17.5 Customers Survey Results

This section presents the characteristics of the customers who participated in this research. The author provides the descriptive statistics for government service quality as mentioned in the methodology chapter. 1000 questionnaires were distributed and 821 were returned (82.1% response rate). The following sections present the demographic characteristics for customers in the survey and we will present general information such as specific questions about the service infrastructure for these public organisations.

7.5.1 Characteristics of Customers Sample

7.5.1.1 Gender

Table 7.22 Frequency Distribution by Gender of respondents (Customers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>598</td>
<td>73%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>223</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>821</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.22 shows that 73% of 821 customers were male while 27% were female. According to my observation when I conducted the fieldwork visits, the majority of customers are male. In the Jordanian context males usually help females with their transactions in public service organisations. I met many customers who came to complete transactions or services for relatives (e.g. wife, sisters, and parents). As implied above, this reflects the nature of Jordanian society and factors such as the composition of the research sample itself and the wider the nature of Jordanian values including collaboration, kindness and help, especially to family members.
7.5.1.2 Age

Table 7.23 Frequency Distribution by Age (Customers)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 20 years</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-30 years</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40 years</td>
<td>296</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50 years</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 50 years</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>821</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As illustrated in Table 7.23, 72% of the sample of 821 were aged between 20 and 40 years. 18% were aged between 41 and 50 years, and 6.8% were over 50 years. This result indicates the reality of population composition for Jordanian society where increasing the proportion of young people “58% of the total population are youths in Jordan” (DOS, 2014).

7.5.1.3 Did the fare represent good value for the service you obtained?

Table 7.24 Frequency Distribution by fare

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The answer</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>456</td>
<td>56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>821</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.24 shows that, 56% of 821 customers answered yes “the fare represent good value for the service their obtained”, while 44% answered “no”. 44% is a significant percentage. This may be due to economic conditions and financial challenges facing citizens in recent times and the high living costs in Jordan, especially in the capital Amman. There is some dispersion in answers. This may be due to the level of fares. For example some services demand only low fares, whilst others commanded high fares for them to remain viable. When asked about the level of fares, one customer answered:
“Still, the government fees are high! For example, I paid 20 Lyra [JD] to renew my passport! I believe that this amount is too much!” [5, CUI, 59].

In contrast, another customer met in The Drivers and Vehicle Licensing Department (DVLD) said:

“The fees are acceptable and equivalent to the service”. [6, CUI, 42].

To answer “why are the fares high?” one can argue the attitudes of customers toward fares is based on their incomes. Some persons consider 20 JD as a fee to renew a Passport as acceptable, while others consider this amount is very high and too expensive! On macro level, it worth mentioning that the fees and taxes are the main financial sources for Jordanian government or treasury.

7.5.1.4 What is your assessment for the infrastructure in the current organisation?
7.5.1.4.1 Service guide or service instructions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The answer</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>291</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>389</td>
<td>47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasonable</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>821</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As illustrated in Table 7.25, 47% of customer respondents believe service instructions are good, 35% “excellent”, 12% “reasonable”, and 6% answered “poor”. The majority of customers believed that service guidelines and instructions were clear and understandable. It is worth mentioning that, since 2007, the Ministry of Public Sector Development in Jordan has established a ‘special regulation system’ known as the ‘public service improvement system’ to organise the service provision in government bodies. This system obliges governmental agencies to announce their service procedures and instructions in clear manner. The sample organisations are therefore committed to disseminate its regulations and service instructions electronically and manually.
7.5.1.4.2 Car Parking

Table 7.26 Frequency of Distribution by Car Parking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The answer</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasonable</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>370</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>821</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (7.26) shows that 45% of customers believe that car parking is poor, 23% “good”, 18% “reasonable”, 14% “excellent”. Approximately half of customers believed car parking is not acceptable. When the sites where visited it was observed that the number of parking spaces were not enough considering the volume of customers needing to park their cars. Not only Jordanian public organisations are responsible for this problem, but the causes come from other factors such as the majority of government buildings being rented (not owned) by the government. Plus, there is a more general problem of overcrowding and urbanisation.

7.5.1.4.3 Ordering system

Table 7.27 Frequency of Distribution by Ordering System

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The answer</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>391</td>
<td>48%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>263</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasonable</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>821</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.27 indicates that 48% of customers believe the ordering system is excellent, 32% “good”, 11% “reasonable”, 9% “poor”. Therefore, from this, the majority of respondents believe the automated ordering system is either excellent or good. However, the ordering system serves different issues: 1) it helps to organise the customer queue; 2) it contributes to decrease the workload on service employees; and 3) it helps to improve transparency and fairness for citizens and customers.
7.5.1.4.4 Waiting Rooms / Halls

Table 7.28 Frequency of Distribution by Waiting Rooms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The answer</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>327</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasonable</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>821</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 7.28 40% of customers in the sample believe waiting rooms are excellent, 36% “good”, 14% “reasonable”, 10% “poor”. Overall, 77% of customers are satisfied with the tangible service environment (halls and rooms). This indicates a perceived comfortable physical environment. According to personal observation organisations have modern infrastructure including waiting rooms with plenty of space, comfortable seats, rest rooms, prayer rooms, IT facilitates, elevators, special paths for disabled customers and citizens. The tangible infrastructure is very important for service provision. In this regard, White and Schneider (2000) found that the tangible facilities of service did play a substantial role in effecting customer attitudes and behaviours. Bitner (1992) also focused on the importance of tangibles in her work on Servicescape - the physical facilitates where service is delivery.

7.5.1.4.5 Location of Public Service Office

Table 7.29 Frequency of Distribution by location of public service office

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The answer</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Convenient</td>
<td>668</td>
<td>81%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inconvenient</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't know</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>821</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Initially, all Jordanian public sector organisations established special offices to serve customers so-called ‘public service customer offices’. Table 7.29 indicates that 81% of respondent customers believe the location of the public service office is “convenient”, 11% “inconvenient”, and 8% answered “I don’t know”. The majority of respondents believe that the location of public service office is convenient and accessible. However, this result reflects the attention of government bodies to design their buildings in line with needs of customers to facilitate the provision of governmental services.

7.6 Evaluating the level of services quality in the Jordanian public sector:

7.6.1 Service Quality Factors

As mentioned in operational definitions section in Chapter 6, the service quality scale is divided into four sub-scales: reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy. The following sections present the results of the descriptive analysis. Customers were once more asked to state on a five Likert scale their agreement or disagreement with the given statements concerning dimensions of service quality.

7.6.1.1 Service Reliability

Table 7.30 Mean and percentage for Reliability

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Agreement Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1 When you have a problem, the organisation shows a sincere interest in solving it.</td>
<td>4.03</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2 The organisation performs the service right the first time.</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3 The organisation provides its services at the time promised.</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4 The organisation performs error – free services.</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Reliability Average = 4.16] [Percentage = 83%]
Table 7.30 presents the perception that service reliability is regarded as high in the Jordanian public sector organisations in this research. Customers confirmed they received services in the right manner and right first time (mean 4.25: S2). Moreover, customers asserted that services received were generally performed free of errors (mean 4.19: S4). The majority of sample organisations provide services at the time promised and without delay (mean 4.16: S3). When we asked for more clarifications the informants (customers) answered:

“I am a trader. The customer office released my goods within two days and I am very grateful to the staff members as they are always cooperative and accurate. So, I appreciate the efforts of managers who improve the work procedures and who launched new tools like 'ASYCUDA world system' which facilitates the tasks for both employees and traders. The service is very fast, the customs procedures are easier and the worker is big extravaganza”. [11, CUI, 55]

The majority of customers confirmed that problems were solved quickly and that they were met with good attention from frontline employees (mean 4.03: S1).

“I have a scholarship from the government to continue my study in the USA; thus, my sponsor requires a financial guarantee of 60,000 JD. I came here to do this transaction. Unfortunately, the estimator valued my land as worth of 58,000 JD. This is a problem because I cannot meet the financial requirement. When I explained the problem for the estimator, he was very helpful, understood my problem and helped me to be with consistent with law”. [25, CUI, 31]

Finally, the mean average of 4.16 indicates an overall high agreement with the “reliability” statements.
“To be honest with you, the staff members are more precise and professional and they have a real ability to deal with several types of citizens. In my opinion, this is due to several reasons; for example, the employees have become more qualified and well trained”. [1, CUI, 27]

“The service is reliable. Have a look and you will see that there are not any mistakes. There are several factors behind this and one of most important factors is the people who are the actual wealth of this institution”. [15, CUI, 43]

7.6.1.2 Service Responsiveness

Table 7.31 Mean and Percentage for Responsiveness

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Agreement Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S5 The organisation provides services to the customer quickly.</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S6 The staff of the organisation informs you exactly when services will be performed.</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S7 The staff of the organisation gives your prompt services.</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S8 The staff of the organisation is always willing to help.</td>
<td>4.27</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S9 The staff readily responds to customers' requests.</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As illustrated in Table 7.31 the customers are satisfied overall with responsiveness dimensions in the Jordanian public organisations. The customers asserted that service employees who contact with them readily respond to requests (mean 4.39: S9). The customers confirmed that frontline employees are normally willing to help them (mean 4.27: S8). Employees provide prompt services for customers (mean 4.19: S7). Moreover, frontline employees provide the public services speedily (mean 4.08: S5). The employees tend to inform the customers exactly when services will be performed (mean 4.00, S6). Finally, the mean of the whole section is (4.19), which indicates overall a high agreement with the “responsiveness” statements. It is worth mentioning that
Jordanian public organisations are ranked first among Arab government organisations in terms of service responsiveness (see Dubai Government Summit, 2015). From a personal view, the high service responsiveness in the Jordanian context came as a result of human resources (i.e. employees) who are educated, motivated, and satisfied. Although the ‘oil countries’ (e.g. UAE, Saudi Arabia) have good infrastructure and tangible facilities in their public organisations, the Jordanian public organisations provide a good response and service for customers and citizens. For more explanation the KAA analysis in this study provided the following:

“The KAA Reports indicate that all organisations provide their services with excellent quality in general maintaining the responsiveness element in particular. Also, reports show that organisations provide their services quickly and that frontline employees can respond to customer needs and expectations actively; for example, several corporations announce to customers that if they don’t receive the required service within one hour, please see the top manager directly. Thus, employees demonstrate high responsiveness to customers’ needs and solve their problems.”

Moreover, when we asked for more clarifications, the customers answered:

“I deal with this department intensively; employees are fast in providing service and the problem is most of the time with citizens who, for example, might not have all the documents required for completing the transactions. So, employees are well-trained and motivated and they are ready to respond quickly”. [14, CUI, 40]

“This department announces the estimated time for each service or transaction. The employees here are committed to serving us within the time frame and without delays. To answer your question: yes, I am satisfied with employees who are fast in service delivery”. [23, CUI, 44]
7.6.1.3 Service Assurance

Table 7.32 Mean and percentage for Assurance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Agreement Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S10 Behaviour of staffs instils confidence in customers.</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S11 You feel safe in your transaction with the current organisation.</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S12 The staffs of the organisation are consistently courteous.</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S13 Staff has the sufficient knowledge to answer your questions.</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Assurance Average = 4.39] [Percentage = 88%]

Table 7.32 indicates customers are satisfied with the level of assurance in the Jordanian public sector. The respondents confirmed that employees of organisations are consistently courteous (mean 4.44: S12). The customers feel safe in their transactions with current service employees (mean of 4.42: S11). Moreover, the behaviour of employees instils confidence in customers (mean 4.35: S10). Customers asserted that service employees have sufficient knowledge to answer customer questions and queries (mean 4.35: S13). Finally, the mean average of the whole section is 4.39, which indicates an overall high agreement with the service assurance in public sector organisations. The qualitative analysis confirmed the level of service assurance in government services as high. The following quotations are provided to support the above findings:

“Around 90% of organisations provide their public services with high assurance. Mystery shoppers mentioned that the frontline employees are very polite and courteous, and they behave confidentially” [KAA Reports].

“Indeed, I deal with this organisation for a long time. I did not feel that my transactions were a threat. Most employees are trustworthy and able to be up to trust and responsibility; they can answer all inquiries. I believe that they are knowledgeable persons”. [8, CUI, 44]

260
7.6.1.4 Service Empathy

Table 7.33 Mean and percentage for Empathy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Agreement Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S14 The organisation staff gives you personal attention.</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>86%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S15 Staff has customers’ best interest in mind.</td>
<td>4.26</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S16 Staff understands your specific needs or requirements.</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>86%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S17 The staff devotes all their time to service the customers.</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S18 The waiting time to get the service is appropriate.</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

[Empathy Average = 4.24] [Percentage = 85%]

As illustrated in Table 7.33, customers are satisfied with levels of empathy in Jordanian public organisations. The customers in the survey confirmed they received good treatment and personal attention during contact with service employees (mean 4.31: S14). Customers asserted that service employees understand their needs and requirements (mean 4.30: S16). Statement (S15) indicates that the service employee generally has their customers’ best interests in mind (mean 4.26). It is worth noting that eye contact is a very important factor for empathy in Jordan. A Jordanian proverb states that “eyes are spoons of talking”. This means employee eye-contact is highly desirable.

The literature (See for example, Pugh, 2001; Tasi and Huang, 2002) suggests that eye contact is a crucial element to improve the empathic behaviour between employees and customers. Moreover, customers confirmed that the employees devote substantial amounts of time to serve them (mean 4.20: S17). The customers confirmed that the waiting time to receive service is minimal and normally acceptable (mean 4.11: S18). The mean of the whole section (4.24) indicates overall a high agreement with the “empathy” statements. Qualitatively, the KAA Reports and customer
interviews confirmed the excellent level of service empathy in the public organisations as indicated in the following:

“When I reached the gate of this organisation, I met a gentle employee who said to me: ‘we have a special car designed to pick up the elderly’. They gave me a lift to the public service office. I felt the staff’s great empathy with their smiles which did not leave their lips’. [3, CUI, 33]

“I would like to thank those people who are the unknown soldiers; they devoted their time to serve us, they have the good knowledge to answer all questions and, to be honest with you, they are experts”. [21, CUI, 61]

“Empathy is a most important issue to me. As a female, I am interested in the kind treatment and respect. Here, the staff ‘both males and females’ consider our needs. I am a psychologist and I understand what you mean by empathy, so I believe that the empathic behaviour here is a natural result of the proper treatment received by employees”. [16, CUI, 36]

The summary Table 7.34 presents the total mean scores and range of responses regarding service quality and its multiple variables. All service quality dimensions score high. The ‘assurance’ dimension is the highest (88%), while the lowest variable is ‘reliability’ (83%). It is worth mentioning that these results are unique in the public administration literature, because the public organisations have paid attention to the intangible (social) dimensions of service quality. For example, a high level of service empathy reflects the ability of public offices (service employees) to understand the feelings, attitudes and experiences of public customers. Theoretically, this result reflects the feasibility of applying empathy theories like contagion theory and emotional theory. Also, the above results reflect the improvement of the relationships between public employees and public customers which was negative for many decades.
Table 7.34 Total Descriptive results for service quality construct

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>N. items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Reliability</td>
<td>821</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>83%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Responsiveness</td>
<td>821</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Assurance</td>
<td>821</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Empathy</td>
<td>821</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall [Service Quality]</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td></td>
<td>86%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Overall the KAA reports support the above results. For example, the average service quality or level in the public sector reached 82.19%). This percentage is very close to the quantitative findings from the survey.

The service literature (see, for example, Wisniewski, 2001; Smith et al., 2007; Rodríguez, 2009; Kakouris and Meliou, 2011; El-Enezi, 2012; Cid-Lopez et al., 2015) shows that compared with other service quality dimensions, reliability is always the highest and empathy always the lowest. Interestingly, we found that service assurance and service empathy score high with (88%) and (85%) respectively. These results refer to several issues in the Jordanian public sector context such as increasing citizens’ expectation of the functional dimensions in public services. Another issue is the positive transformation in the Jordanian public sector from the mechanistic to the organic
approach in service management with the latter paying high attention to the emotional and functional perspectives in the services provided. The above results can also be justified from a cultural perspective. For example, Arab culture which is prevalent in Jordanian concentrates on human and social values like empathy and assurance as the above results show (see figure 7.4). According to the customer interviews conducted in this study, the soft dimensions like empathy are more critical for customers than the hard aspects with regard to service quality. Despite these results, the balance between functional and technical dimensions is highly required in Jordanian public sector organisations to ensure the quality of government services. Table 7.35 shows that the score for service quality dimensions according to KAA reports.

Table 7.35 level of government service quality in the Jordanian public sector (KAA Reports)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>The Organisation</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
<th>Responsiveness</th>
<th>Assurance</th>
<th>Empathy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Jordanian Customs (JC)</td>
<td>81.9%</td>
<td>83.2%</td>
<td>82.6%</td>
<td>86.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The Ministry of Industry and Trade (MOIT)</td>
<td>84.8%</td>
<td>84.1%</td>
<td>84.3%</td>
<td>86.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>The drivers and vehicle licensing department (DVLD).</td>
<td>80.3%</td>
<td>82.1%</td>
<td>81.2%</td>
<td>82.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Department of Land and Survey (DLS)</td>
<td>82.6%</td>
<td>82.7%</td>
<td>80.9%</td>
<td>83.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Social Security Corporation (SSC)</td>
<td>84%</td>
<td>84.3%</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>85.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Income and sales tax Department (ISTD)</td>
<td>79.2%</td>
<td>77.6%</td>
<td>80.7%</td>
<td>80.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Greater Amman Municipality (GAM)</td>
<td>78.9%</td>
<td>78.3%</td>
<td>80.3%</td>
<td>81.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Ministry of Labor (MOL)</td>
<td>80.4%</td>
<td>80.1%</td>
<td>81.4%</td>
<td>82.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Civil Status and Passport Department (CSPD)</td>
<td>83.2%</td>
<td>83.2%</td>
<td>84.4%</td>
<td>86.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Central Traffic Department (CTD)</td>
<td>77.8%</td>
<td>81.1%</td>
<td>80.3%</td>
<td>80.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Average</strong></td>
<td><strong>81.3%</strong></td>
<td><strong>81.67%</strong></td>
<td><strong>82.11</strong></td>
<td><strong>83.66%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Service Quality Average [82.19%]
To validate and support the quantitative results, the remarks of mystery shoppers mentioned in the KAA reports were also analysed and classified. Table 7.35 describes the behaviour of service employees when they provide public services in Jordanian public organisations (the sample). Table 7.36 shows that the remarks of mystery shoppers support and confirm the results of the survey in this research (service quality scale). For example, accuracy (no1) and collaboration (no3) may reflect ‘reliability’ as the critical factor for service quality. Trust and transparency can be reflected in the assurance dimension. It is worth noting that empathy is in found among the mystery shoppers’ remarks. Help and speed reflect service responsiveness in public sector organisations. In addition, caring and politeness support the level of empathy as a main characteristic of service quality in the Jordanian public organisations. Transparency should also be added as a key indicator in measuring government service quality.
Table 7.36 Service Quality Characteristics [Mystery Shoppers’ Remarks] in the Jordanian public sector

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Accuracy</td>
<td>Politeness</td>
<td>Collaboration</td>
<td>Speed</td>
<td>Caring</td>
<td>Help</td>
<td>Fairness</td>
<td>Quality</td>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>Transparency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>G</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>J</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>___</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>___</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Percentage %</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>90%</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.7 Reliability and validity analysis

7.7.1 Reliability

As mentioned in the methodology Chapter 6, reliability is fundamentally concerned with issues of consistency of measures. Reliability refers to consistency of a measure of a concept (Bryman and Bell 2011:158). It indicates the extent to which it is without bias or error free and hence ensures consistent measurement across times in the instrument (Sekaran and Bougie, 2010). The reliability of every measure was tested after the final data collection. A correlation matrix was used to examine the internal consistency using Cronbach Coefficient Alpha criteria of 0.70 and above (Nunnally, 1978); which is based on average correlation of items within a test if the items are standardised (Coakes, 2010). The alpha coefficient could not be applied for any scale with less than three items as, according to Peter (1979), Cronbach’s Alpha has a positive relationship to the number of items in the scale. Therefore, it will be very low for scales that include less than three items. All constructs reported above the desired score of 0.70.
Table 7.37 Reliability statistics (TQM, ES, and SQ)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The constructs</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Alpha value</th>
<th>Total Alpha</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total Quality Management</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 TCMS</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>91.7</td>
<td>91.8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 Focus on customer</td>
<td></td>
<td>92.8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Continuous improvement</td>
<td></td>
<td>93.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Employee participation</td>
<td></td>
<td>91.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Employee training</td>
<td></td>
<td>93.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Management information systems</td>
<td></td>
<td>95.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Employee Satisfaction</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Supervision</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>92.5</td>
<td>85.9</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Operating conditions</td>
<td></td>
<td>86.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Co-workers</td>
<td></td>
<td>88.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Nature of work</td>
<td></td>
<td>82.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Communication</td>
<td></td>
<td>85.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Service Quality</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Reliability</td>
<td>821</td>
<td>83.5</td>
<td>87.6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 Responsiveness</td>
<td></td>
<td>86.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 Assurance</td>
<td></td>
<td>87.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 Empathy</td>
<td></td>
<td>87.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: SPSS output

Table 7.37 illustrates that the reliability coefficients for the items in this research instrument showed satisfactory levels, supporting the argument that the questionnaires were reliable and internally consistent.

7.7.2 Validity

As mentioned in the Chapter 6, the author used various methods and techniques to increase the validity of instruments. This section presents the results of factor analysis which used to test the measurement models in terms of criterion validity. Factor analysis is very important to describe the variability among of correlated and observed variables (Bartholomew et al., 2008). To describe validity issues, measurement models were tested as shown in the following sections.
7.7.2.1 Measurement models

In this study there are three measurement models: TQM model, ES model and SQ model. To identify the appropriate measurement model (statistically) for the data a maximum likelihood confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to evaluate the psychometric prosperities of the measurement models. The primary interest of this section was to test whether the measurement models had acceptable fit which means how well the models describe the sample data or not. Prior to test the full structural model, a series of CFA’s were achieved separately to assess individual parameters estimates. After the assessment of each scale individually and the elimination of the items of questions had large residuals and / or wanted to load on other constructs. The outcomes of this analysis resulted in the exclusion of five items (see Table 7.38). Other constructs and items in all measurement models had significant loading factors greater than .70 and were retained. Unidimensionality and convergent validity were established on the constructs individually and the results of measurement models were provided.

Table 7.38 Excluded items and loadings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Scale</th>
<th>The Items</th>
<th>Loadings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TQM</td>
<td>Employees are involved in the evaluation and improvement of their training program.</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ES</td>
<td>I like paper work?</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I like my supervisor</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence people I work with.</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SQ</td>
<td>The organisation is dependable</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: AMOS Output.
The modifications of TQM, ES and SQ scales were provided according to pilot study and also based on the suggestions and comments of referees (see Appendices 2, 3 and 4). Indeed, there are several reasons to remove some items, and phrasing another items. For example, five items were removed from the final version of questionnaire because the loading did not meet the factor analysis requirements (see Table 7.36). Another reason may be due to cultural disparities caused by differences between the environments of work in the Jordanian public organisations compared with the private sector.

Originally, all the current scales were used in the private firms. Definitely the American and European cultural context differ from Arabian culture, including Jordanian culture. These situations require the researcher to modify and adapt the scale to fit the current research contexts. The modification of original scales were supported by the literature (see for example, Lai, 2015 and Clark, 2009). The possible justification for different results is, therefore, that this research has been conducted in Jordan with its own cultural nuances, where respondents are not acquainted with such dimensions. For example, the item ‘I like my supervisor’ [JSS Scale: Spector, 1997] was modified. The word ‘like’ in Arabic means ‘love’, so the pilot study was conducted the majority of respondents disagreed with this term, especially females because socially the term ‘love’ is not acceptable. This example reflects the role of social culture as a condition to build valid scale in the different contexts.

As illustrated in Table 7.40, the overall regression is significant, all the variables has significant contribution to TQM construct, these variables (TMCS, FC, CI, EP, ET and MIS) explained 73% of the variation in TQM. However, Table 7.40 illustrate that there is a significant relationship
between all dimensions of TQM (p<.001). These variables have a positive impact on the overall TQM and the size of its standardised coefficients (Beta) suggests that all are similarly important.

Table 7.39 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) results (TQM)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The constructs</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Factor loading</th>
<th>T-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Top Management Commitment and Support</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>12.301</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus on Customer</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>13.660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuous Improvement</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>12.558</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee Participation</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>12.913</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management Information System</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>12.759</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>88</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>88</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>87</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Amos output

Table 7.40 Regression of TQM Scale and its variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The variables</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Top management commitment and support</td>
<td>.770</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus on customer</td>
<td>.830</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuous improvement</td>
<td>.740</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee Participation</td>
<td>.680</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee Training</td>
<td>.550</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management information systems</td>
<td>.810</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 7.41 Confirmatory Factor Analysis results (Employee Satisfaction)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Factor Loading</th>
<th>T-Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E1</td>
<td>88</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E2</td>
<td>90</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E3</td>
<td>92</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E4</td>
<td>86</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E5</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>11.7692</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operating Condition</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E6</td>
<td>91</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E7</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>24.1170</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E8</td>
<td>95</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-workers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E9</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>16.1873</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E10</td>
<td>95</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E11</td>
<td>84</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E12</td>
<td>90</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature of work</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E13</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>12.9240</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E14</td>
<td>88</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E15</td>
<td>93</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E16</td>
<td>89</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E17</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>16.7724</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E18</td>
<td>87</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E19</td>
<td>89</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E20</td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E21</td>
<td>84</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E22</td>
<td>83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.42 indicates that the overall regression is significant, all variables have a significant contribution to employee satisfaction scale, and that these variables (supervision, operating conditions, co-workers, nature of work, and communication) explain 61% percent of the variation in employee satisfaction. Table 7.42 illustrates a significant relationship between all dimensions of employee satisfaction (p<.001). These variables have a positive impact on overall employee satisfaction and the size of its standardised coefficients (Beta) suggests that all are similarly important.
Table 7.42 Regression of Employee satisfaction and its variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The variables</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td>.650</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operating Conditions</td>
<td>.650</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-workers</td>
<td>.660</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature of Work</td>
<td>.570</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>.740</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.43 Confirmatory Factor Analysis results (Service Quality)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>FC</th>
<th>Reliability T-value</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>FC</th>
<th>Responsiveness t-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>18.6580</td>
<td>S5</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>21.1488</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
<td>S6</td>
<td>89</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>18.6580</td>
<td>S7</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>21.1488</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>80</td>
<td></td>
<td>S8</td>
<td>82</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S9</td>
<td>80</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Reliability</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S10</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>21.8489</td>
<td>S14</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>21.4074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S11</td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
<td>S15</td>
<td>87</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S12</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>21.8489</td>
<td>S16</td>
<td>83</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S13</td>
<td>82</td>
<td></td>
<td>S17</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>21.4074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Assurance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S18</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: FC refers to factor loading

As illustrated in Table 7.44, overall regression is significant, all the variables have a significant contribution to the service quality construct, and that these variables (reliability, responsiveness, assurance, and empathy) explain 56% percent of the variation in service quality. Table 7.44 further illustrates a significant relationship between all dimensions of service quality (p<.001). These variables positively influence overall TQM and the size of its standardised coefficients (Beta) highlights again the approximate importance of all of them.
### Table 7.44 Regression of service quality and its variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The variables</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reliability</td>
<td>.560</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsiveness</td>
<td>.460</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assurance</td>
<td>.612</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>.590</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 7.7.3 Correlation analysis

After measuring and confirming the model’s validity, correlation was analysed for the aim of exploring the strength of the relationship connecting the variables. Ranging from (-1.00) to (+1.00), correlation coefficients demonstrate the strength of a positive or inverse relationship between two variables. A positive correlation ranges from (0) to (+1.00) (Fielding and Gilbert, 2000). This indicates the increase of one variable leads to the increase of another and vice versa. The correlation coefficient amount is important. Both large negative and positive values show a strong relationship between two variables. As for values that are closer to or smaller than zero, they imply poor relationships. Zero is a value which demonstrates the absence of a relationship (total randomness or scatter). The following sections discuss the correlation among the independent, dependent and moderating variables.

#### 7.7.3.1 Independent variables relationships

Table 7.45 shows the correlation between independent variables for the TQM scale which include: TMCS, FC, CI, EP, ET and MIS. Sirkin (1999) stated that relatively few correlation coefficients in research are as high as 0.7, 0.8 and 0.9; rather they tend to be in the 0.2 to 0.5 or 0.6 range.
this study all correlations between the TQM variables are significant. The highest correlation was found between CI and FC (continuous improvement and focus on customer respectively) with coefficients of .785 and .704 respectively.

Table 7.45 Correlations between the TQM variables (N= 420)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TQM Variables</th>
<th>TMCS</th>
<th>FC</th>
<th>CI</th>
<th>EP</th>
<th>ET</th>
<th>MIS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TMCS</td>
<td></td>
<td>704**</td>
<td>745**</td>
<td>685**</td>
<td>540**</td>
<td>561**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FC</td>
<td>704**</td>
<td></td>
<td>785**</td>
<td>584**</td>
<td>422**</td>
<td>606**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CI</td>
<td>745**</td>
<td>785**</td>
<td></td>
<td>661**</td>
<td>542**</td>
<td>616**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EP</td>
<td>685**</td>
<td>584**</td>
<td>661**</td>
<td></td>
<td>626**</td>
<td>554**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ET</td>
<td>450**</td>
<td>422**</td>
<td>542**</td>
<td>626**</td>
<td></td>
<td>498**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MIS</td>
<td>561**</td>
<td>606**</td>
<td>616**</td>
<td>554**</td>
<td>498**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level [2-tailed].

7.7.3.2 Mediation variables relationships

Table 7.46 indicates significant relationships between the mediation variables (i.e. supervision, operating conditions, co-workers, nature of work, and communication). The highest correlation exists between nature of work and co-workers (68.5%). These results are logical; for example, one would expect collaboration between co-working service employees to lead to reductions in workload /overload and enhance the nature of work.

Table 7.46 Correlations between the employee satisfaction variables (N=420)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ES Variables</th>
<th>Supervision</th>
<th>Operating conditions</th>
<th>Co-workers</th>
<th>Nature of work</th>
<th>Communication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supervision</td>
<td></td>
<td>407**</td>
<td>512**</td>
<td>527**</td>
<td>567**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operating conditions</td>
<td>407**</td>
<td></td>
<td>480**</td>
<td>355**</td>
<td>500**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Co-workers</td>
<td>512**</td>
<td>480**</td>
<td></td>
<td>685**</td>
<td>554**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature of work</td>
<td>527**</td>
<td>355**</td>
<td>685**</td>
<td></td>
<td>618**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>567**</td>
<td>500**</td>
<td>554**</td>
<td>618**</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.7.3.3 Dependent variables relationships

The correlations in the following Table 7.47 between dependent variables indicate significant relationships between the variables of reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy. These
correlations serve as a function to measure service quality. The highest correlation was between assurance and empathy (70.6%), whereas empathy-reliability (57.9%) had the lowest correlation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SQ Variables</th>
<th>Reliability</th>
<th>Responsiveness</th>
<th>Assurance</th>
<th>Empathy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reliability</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>631**</td>
<td>628**</td>
<td>579**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsiveness</td>
<td>631**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>660**</td>
<td>666**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assurance</td>
<td>628**</td>
<td>660**</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>706**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Empathy</td>
<td>579**</td>
<td>666**</td>
<td>706**</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7.7.4 Model fit- goodness analysis

In Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) establishes whether the model overall is acceptable. After the acceptability of the model is established, one must figure out if some specific paths are important (Moss, 2009). To assess to what extent the model fits the data, there are many fit criteria. Disciplines offer various criteria, and it is not exactly clear which measures should be used (Kearney, 2012). There are two ways of thinking about model fit according to Schumacker and Lomax (2004): fit of individual parameters of the model and a global test of fit for the entire model. Hooper et al., (2008) suggested using the Chi-square statistic [$\chi^2$], degree of freedom [df], P-value, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation [RMSEA] and Standardised Root Mean Square Residual [SRMR] for global fit indices. However, the main criteria for fit are the Chi-square and RMSEA (Schumacker and Lomax, 2004). The Chi-square test assesses the overall model fit.

According to Ullman (2007), a ‘good fitting model’ may be indicated when the ratio of the $\chi^2$ to the degree of freedom is less than [3]. Schreiber et al. (2006) highlighted the general criterion for an acceptable model fit is two or three times. As for RMSEM, it is regarded as an informative fit indexes effective tool (Kearney, 2012, Homburg et al., 2011). The good or acceptable level of fit is still not agreed upon, but generally the good levels would be .05 and below, and the acceptable
ones would be from .05 to .08 (Byrne, 2001; Homburg and Stock, 2004). In the past, the fit indexes for examining SEM were the goodness of fit (GFI) and adjusted goodness of fit (AGFI) (Byrne, 2001). Recently in the TQM and service quality literature writers are using the normative-fit index (NFI) and the comparative–fit index (CFI) to present the fit of their data (Kearney (2012) Bodouva (2009) NFI was an index which offered an incremental development of the fit of proposed model from a baseline model (Bodouva, 2009). To explore how well the model fits the sample data, the fit indices were used. The results of the model fit are illustrated in Table 7.48. According to the tests, the model showed a good fit to the sample data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Goodness of fit statistics</th>
<th>Structural model without mediation (1)</th>
<th>Structural model after mediation (2)</th>
<th>Recommended values to meet the goodness requirements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>χ² / df</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>&lt; 3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td>0.053</td>
<td>&lt; 0.08 (MacCallum et al., 1996).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>93.3</td>
<td>97.1</td>
<td>0.90 or greater (Hooper et al., 2008).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PNFI</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>&lt; 0.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PGFI</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>&lt; 0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P</td>
<td>000</td>
<td>000</td>
<td>[<em>p &lt; 0.1.] [</em>* p &lt; 0.05] [*** p&lt;0.001]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 7.48 Chi-Square (χ²) is 1.78, so the acceptable ratio for (χ²) is less than 3.0. The RMSEA value for structural model is 0.053. According to MacCallum et al. (1996), the structural model is considered a good-fit if RMSEA is less than 0.08. CFI for the structural model is 94.1 which reflects a well-fitting model (Hooper et al., 2008). PNFI for the structural model is 0.78. PGFI for structural model is [0.69]. In summary, all the above statistics indicate that the research model is good fit and valid to produce the logical relationships between the research variables (TQM, employee satisfaction and service quality).
7.8 Structural Model Testing

As mentioned in the Chapter one the general idea for this thesis was based on diagnoses and explaining the impact of TQM and employee satisfaction on service quality in the Jordanian public sector organisations. TQM has been divided to seven sub-variables, namely: TMCS, FC, CI, EP, ET and MIS. The employee satisfaction (ES) variable was divided into five sub-variables (supervision, operating conditions, co-workers, nature of work, and communication). The final variable, service quality (SQ), comprises four variables (reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy). The final version of the questionnaires was based upon the results of factor analysis. Figure 7.5 illustrates the proposed research model, developed using literature review and analysis., This section provide details of statistical testing of the hypotheses in order to answer the research questions and to provide brief discussion about the impact of TQM and ES on SQ using Structural Equation Modelling (SEM).

Figure 7.5 The Research Model
7.8.1 Structural Model 1 without the mediation effect of employee satisfaction

To establish the mediation equation Baron and Kenny (1985:1177) proposed three preconditions. First, the independent variable should impact on the mediation variable (TQM on employee satisfaction). Second, the independent variable should effect the dependent variable (TQM and service quality). Third, mediation must impact on the dependent variable (employee satisfaction on service quality). Testing of the current structural model passed through two stages. Stage one, testing the model without the mediation variable (employee satisfaction) is shown in Figure 7.6.

The following statistics were produced using multiple regressions. There is significant relationship between TQM and reliability ($\beta = .27$, $R^2 = 310$). There is also significant relationship between TQM and responsiveness ($\beta = .26$, $R^2 = 291$), as well as TQM and assurance ($\beta = .19$, $R^2 = 264$). Finally, a significant relationship exists between TQM and Empathy ($\beta = .18$, $R^2 = 232$).

Figure 7.6 The path model [TQM and SQ) without mediation
7.8.2 Structural Model 2 (with mediation effect of Employee Satisfaction)

In the second stage of testing the researcher entered employee satisfaction to the model as a moderating variable. Overall, the second round of testing with mediation supports the research argument that the employee satisfaction played a moderator role between TQM and service quality in the Jordanian public sector. The research then addressed the question “does employee satisfaction mediate the TQM- SQ relationship?” To answer this question SEM was used to explore the relationships between TQM, ES and SQ after ES was entered as a mediator variable.

The previous literature proposed the possibility the impact of TQM on service quality can be influenced by the level of employee satisfaction (see for example, Jun et al., 2006). However, it is worth mentioned that the relationship between variable became stronger after mediation. Comparing with results of model 1, the structural model 2 [with mediation] has been improved in terms of strong of paths correlations and goodness of fit. More specifically, the RMSEA of Model 2 is (0.53), indicate a good fit. Moreover, Chi-square also improved [decreased from 2.31 to 1.78]. Also, all other fit indicators such as CFI, PNFI, and PGFI have been enhanced. This suggest that tested model (2) a better fit than model (1). The following section shows the SEM results that reflects the direct and indirect relationship between TQM, ES and SQ in structural model.

7.8.2.1 Direct Effects

7.8.2.2 TQM  Employee Satisfaction

The first part of the structural model deals with the relationship between TQM and employee satisfaction. More specifically, Hypothesis [H1] proposed direct impact of TQM on employee satisfaction in the Jordanian public service organisations. As illustrated in Table 7.49 there is a
significant impact of TQM on employee satisfaction $[\beta=460] R^2$ for employee satisfaction $[680]$ (p<.001). This means TQM could predict 68% of the total variance (or change) in employee satisfaction factor. This result ends the debate about the relationship between TQM and employee satisfaction in public sector organisations. Theoretically, it is not known how TQM affects employee satisfaction and what the nature of this effect is, especially in the public sector which is different in terms of objectives and context. Furthermore, theorists split into two groups with the first arguing that the relationship between TQM and ES is not clear, while another group describes the relationship as positive. However, this study supports the second group that suggests the positive impact of TQM on employee satisfaction in the Jordanian public sector organisations.

7.8.2 Employee satisfaction and Service quality dimensions

7.8.2.1 Employee Satisfaction $\longrightarrow$ service reliability

Hypothesis [H2] proposed direct impact of employee satisfaction on reliability in the Jordanian public service organisations. Our analysis reveals a significant (direct) impact of employee satisfaction on service reliability $[\beta=414] R^2 [570]$ (p<.001). This means employee satisfaction could predict 57% of the total variance (or change) in reliability factor. Reliability came at the fourth rank in terms of influence. This result is logic, because the nature of reliability more tangible comparing with other service quality dimension like empathy, assurance and responsiveness. Although that employee satisfaction could explain 57% of variance in the reliability. Although the original theorists consider the employee satisfaction concept as an emotional status, there are other operational facets (employee satisfaction facets) which contribute to shaping the perceptions of public customers regarding service reliability. Practically, the high level of service reliability came
as an interaction between employee satisfaction facets that include: operating conditions, communication satisfaction, co-workers, nature of work and supervision.

7.8.2.2 Employee Satisfaction \(\rightarrow\) Service responsiveness

Hypothesis \([H3]\) proposed direct impact of employee satisfaction on responsiveness in the Jordanian public service organisations. As illustrated in Table 7.49 we found significant (direct) impact of employee satisfaction on service responsiveness \([\beta=521] \ R^2 [631] (p<.001)\). This means employee satisfaction could predict 63.1% of the total variance (or change) in service responsiveness. However, public service employees have contribution to improve the service responsiveness in the public sector organisations. Interestingly, the meg-study was presented in the Dubai Government Summit in 2015 indicate that the Jordanian public sector is more responsive toward the customers’ needs comparing with Arab countries. Usually, the service responsiveness measured based on three indicators are: willingness, completeness and timeliness (Palumbo, 2013). Thus, the above results illustrate that Jordanian public employees have the willingness to provide proper services, delivering the service in the specific time without delay.

7.8.2.3 Employee Satisfaction \(\rightarrow\) Service assurance

Hypothesis \([H4]\) proposed direct impact of employee satisfaction on assurance in the Jordanian public service organisations. This hypothesis was supported current analysis. However we found positive and direct impact of employee satisfaction on assurance \([\beta=429] \ R^2 [516] (p<.001)\). This means employee satisfaction could predict 51.6% of the total variance (or change) in service assurance factor.
7.8.2.4 Employee Satisfaction \(\rightarrow\) service Empathy

Hypothesis [H5] proposed direct impact of employee satisfaction on empathy in the Jordanian public service organisations. There is direct impact of employee satisfaction on empathy as a critical factor of service quality \([\beta=538] R^2 710 (p<.001)\). This means employee satisfaction could predict 71% of the total variance (or change) in empathy factor. The literature concentrates on the role of service employees in shaping customers’ perceptions of service provision (see for example, Schneider et al., 1998). However, the results of this hypothesis suggested a unilateral relationship between employee satisfaction and service empathy.

7.8.3 Indirect Effects [TQM and SQ dimensions]

As we mentioned before, the employee satisfaction as served as a moderator between employee satisfaction and service quality dimension. We also noted that the impact and correlations have been enhanced after insert employee satisfaction for the final structural model (2). The following sections will present the result of structural paths for TQM and service quality dimensions.

7.8.3.1 TQM \(\rightarrow\) service Reliability

Hypothesis [H6] proposed indirect impact of TQM on reliability in the Jordanian public service organisations. \([\beta=380] [R2 420] (p<.001)\). This means TQM could predict 42% of the total variance (or change) in reliability. In our case, service reliability is an interactive rather than a ‘deterministic’ concept which means that customers are affected by many variables while perceiving and assessing service reliability. For example, the tangible and intangible dimensions have a positive impact on service reliability. More specifically, training as a critical factor of TQM improves the ability of service employees to provide reliable services. Another example is the ability of MIS to decrease errors in public services.
7.8.3.2 TQM → Service Responsiveness

Hypothesis [H7] proposed indirect impact of TQM on responsiveness in the Jordanian public service organisations. [β=410] [R² 529] (p<.001). This means TQM could predict 52.9% of the total variance (or change) in responsiveness. This result reflects the role of TQM in service responsiveness. However, TQM and service responsiveness cannot be divorced (Youssef et al., 1996). This result reflects the role of TQM in service responsiveness. In our case, employee satisfaction mediated between TQM practices and service responsiveness. The previous literature suggests that the linkage between TQM and responsiveness depends on some factors such as speed in developing new services (Youssef et al., 1996).

7.8.3.3 TQM → service Assurance

Hypothesis [H8] proposed indirect impact of TQM on assurance in the Jordanian public service organisations. [β=391] [R² 520] (p<.001). This means TQM could predict 52% of the total variance (or change) in assurance. Indirectly, several TQM factors lead to improving the service assurance in the Jordanian public sector organisations. Indirectly, several TQM factors lead to improving service assurance in the Jordanian public sector organisations. These factors are, TMCS, CI, FC, ET, EP and MIS. Citizens’/customers’ confidence in their services or transactions is considered as the main objective of the TQM system in organisations.

7.8.3.4 TQM → service Empathy

Hypothesis [H9] proposed indirect impact of TQM on empathy in the Jordanian public service organisations. [β=369] [R² 591] (p<.001). This means TQM could predict 59.1% of the total variance (or change) in empathy. This result is unique because it refers to several meanings such as empathy as a psychological concept governed by soft and hard factors. In our case, both the soft
and hard dimensions of TQM have a significant impact on service empathy in the Jordanian public sector organisations.

The current results indicate that increased levels of application of TQM, as defined at the start of this study, lead to high levels of employee satisfaction. Dimensions or levels of service quality are then influenced positively by the level of satisfaction of service employees. The results indicate that the relationship between TQM and service quality is mediated by employee satisfaction. Here, the hypotheses can be integrated to form a group of structural equations. For example, the effect of employee satisfaction as mediator variable was not clearly tested in the previous literature. Also, TQM had a great effect on empathy as a critical factor for service quality.

Theoretically and methodologically, these results are unique and add a significant contribution for previous literature and frameworks (for further details see chapters 8 and 9). Our findings here show that employee satisfaction plays a mediator role between TQM and service quality in the public sector organisations.

The theoretical rational for an investigation into the link between TQM, employee satisfaction and customer perception for service quality is also reinforced by such studies (e.g. Lam et al., 2012; Ooi et al. 2008; Karia and Asaari, 2006; Boselie and Wiele, 2002; Jun et al., 2006; Ku, 2010).
Table 7.49 Final Model Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hypothesis</th>
<th>Path relationships</th>
<th>Path Coefficient (β)</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>Significance (P)</th>
<th>Proposed effect</th>
<th>Hypothesis status</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>H1</td>
<td>TQM → ES</td>
<td>460</td>
<td>680</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2</td>
<td>ES → Reliability</td>
<td>414</td>
<td>570</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3</td>
<td>ES → Responsiveness</td>
<td>521</td>
<td>630</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4</td>
<td>ES → Assurance</td>
<td>429</td>
<td>516</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5</td>
<td>ES → Empathy</td>
<td>538</td>
<td>710</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6</td>
<td>TQM ← Reliability</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Mediation</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H7</td>
<td>TQM ← Responsiveness</td>
<td>410</td>
<td>478</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Mediation</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H8</td>
<td>TQM ← Assurance</td>
<td>391</td>
<td>520</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Mediation</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H9</td>
<td>TQM ← Empathy</td>
<td>369</td>
<td>533</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>Mediation</td>
<td>Accepted</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 7.7 Final Model Results (TQM, ES and Service Quality)

7.9 The roles of employees in delivering public services

Theories have often approached employees’ role in service delivery from the perspective of emotional labor (Paugh and Subramony, 2016). Our analysis revealed that service employees in
Jordanian public sector organisations play four roles when they deliver public services. The mediator role ranked first (54%), enabler (46%), collaborator (41%) and complementary (32%) (See figure 7.10). However, these results asserted one idea: an employee has a critical role as a mediator between the management system (e.g. TQM) and service delivery. Further clarification and discussion will be presented in section 8.5 of Chapter 8.

**Figure 7.8 the roles of Jordanian employees in delivering public services (n 420)**

Finally, Table 7.50 summarise the key results in this project.
### Table 7.50 The summary of results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ker Results</th>
<th>Research Question</th>
<th>Literature review and theoretical contribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There is high level of TQM in the public sector organisations.</td>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>Link: Ch. 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is high level of employee satisfaction in the public sector organisations.</td>
<td>Q2</td>
<td>Link: Ch. 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is high level of service quality in the public sector organisations.</td>
<td>Q3</td>
<td>Link: Ch. 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TQM has positive impact on employee satisfaction in the public sector organisations (direct impact).</td>
<td>Q4 (H1)</td>
<td>Link: Ch5 section: 5.10.2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TQM has positive impact on service quality dimensions in the public sector organisations (indirect impact).</td>
<td>Q5</td>
<td>Link: ch5 section: 5.10.3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The service employees play four roles when they deliver the public services: mediator, enabler, and collaborator and complementary.</td>
<td>Q6</td>
<td>Ch8 section: section: 8.5.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assurance and empathy are the highest levels compared to other service quality dimensions (88%) and (85%) respectively.</td>
<td>Q3</td>
<td>Link: Ch5 section: 5.7.4 &amp; 5.7.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus on customer and MIS are the highest levels compared to other TQM critical factors (82%) and (81%) respectively.</td>
<td>Q1</td>
<td>Chapter 3 sections: 3.5.3 &amp; 3.5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Operating conditions and co-workers are the highest levels compared to other employee satisfaction facets in the Jordanian public sector organisations, (91%) and (89%) respectively.</td>
<td>Q2</td>
<td>Chapter 4 sections: 4.4.5 &amp; 4.4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee satisfaction explained 71% in the variance of empathy</td>
<td>H5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee satisfaction explained 63% in the variance of responsiveness</td>
<td>H3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee satisfaction explained 51.6% in the variance of assurance</td>
<td>H4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employee satisfaction explained 57% in the variance of reliability</td>
<td>H2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TQM explained 53.3% in the variance of empathy</td>
<td>H9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TQM explained 47.8% in the variance of responsiveness</td>
<td>H7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TQM explained 52% in the variance of assurance</td>
<td>H8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TQM explained 42% in the variance of reliability</td>
<td>H6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 7.10 Chapter summary

This chapter has provided descriptive information about the samples of both employees and customers who participated in this study. The overall assessment of all path analysis and SEM illustrate that the TQM constructs are significantly associated with employee satisfaction and service quality dimensions in the Jordanian public sector organisations. Hence, all relationships in the model showed as significant and all hypotheses were supported. Reliability and validity were tested and discussed. To explain and validate the relationships illustrated in the research model, qualitative data extracted from interviews and KAA reports were provided. In conclusion, there is an indirect relationship between TQM and service quality, and employee satisfaction plays a
crucial role as a moderating variable between TQM and service quality. Moreover, service employees play four roles when they deliver the public services: the mediator, enabler, collaborator and complementary roles. The next chapter will provide further detailed analysis and discussion of both qualitative and quantitative data.
CHAPTER EIGHT
FURTHER FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

8.1 Introduction

In this research project, the hypotheses and questions were addressed by an empirical study based on three data sources/methods, providing data triangulation to explore the theory established for this study. As mentioned in Chapter 6, the research was based on quantitative and qualitative data. Qualitative data such as KAA reports were used to support and validate the results of the structural model and the results of interviews. Interviews were conducted with both employees and customers to gain additional perspectives regarding the relationships under investigation such as internal TQM, employee satisfaction and external issue like service quality.

The interviews tackled the perceptions of the interviewees, imploring their accounts of their experiences in specific Jordanian public organisations which form an essential part of the public service sector. While the employees’ sample focused on experiences inside the organisation, the customers/citizens’ sample dealt with experiences outside the organisation. The content of KAA reports provided insight into such relationships and the levels of TQM application and service quality. This chapter will provide further findings and clarifications to explain the interaction among TQM, ES and SQ.

8.2 Interviewee characteristics

As mentioned in the methodology chapter (6), interviews were conducted with 30 staff members working in ten Jordanian public organisations, including managers, supervisors, heads of divisions and frontline employees, and with 30 customers who received public services directly from these
organisations. The respondents belonged to a range of different employees and customers. As for customers, they were ordinary citizens undertaking transactions (routine or non-routine) with the given public organisation. The objective of these interviews was to seek from the customers perceptions of the quality of services performed by employees. Regarding employees, the researcher examined their aptitude and behaviours during the delivery of public services in order to understand the role of employees as moderators between TQM and service quality in public sector organisations.

The researcher used customer interviews as a means to explore service quality and validate as well as elucidate the ES role in SQ. The researcher’s decision to interview staff members was based on the fact that they had a direct contact with customers/citizens. For example, aside from their managerial duties in the organisation, managers, to a degree, tackle customer complaints. By covering the various employment ranks, the researcher wanted the interviews to help in developing a deeper knowledge of the relationships investigated in the research and discovering the precise relationships nature and pattern. Tables 8.1 and 8.2 provides the profiles of employee and customer interviewees respectively. Table 8.3 summarises the characteristics of public customers and public employees in the Jordanian public sector organisations in this study.
Table 8.1 Interviewees’ profiles [employees]21

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Position</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>position</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>**</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>**</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: [33% females and 67% males].

Table 8.2 Interviewees’ profiles [customers]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>No</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: [33% females and 67% males].

21 (*service employee) (** Head of customer service office or equivalent) (*** Managers e.g. Line managers, TQM managers, Service Improvement Managers, Strategy & Performance Managers, IT Managers, Institutional Development Managers). [27% females and 73% males]. [11 managers (37%), 6 head of division (20%), 13 employees (43%)].
Table 8.3 Interviewees Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Interviewees (informants)</th>
<th>Characteristics / description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The customer</td>
<td>Usually, the customers in the public sector organisations are citizens who received the direct services and they have direct contact with public service employees. In addition, the customers list includes also investors, traders.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>The Service employee</td>
<td>These are employees working at the frontline desk and are in charge of public service delivery to customers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Managers / supervisors</td>
<td>Along with their administrative duties, managers/supervisors deal with customer-related responsibilities as well.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Other managers</td>
<td>This is including TQM managers, HR managers, strategic planning managers, IT managers, service improvement managers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.3 The Structural relationships (TQM, ES and SQ)

In this part, the quantitative and qualitative results will be discussed in order to enhance the understanding of the relationship among TQM, employee satisfaction and service quality in the Jordanian public sector organisations. As mentioned before, the structural model includes three main variables: TQM, considered as the independent variable; employee satisfaction as a mediator variable; and service quality as the dependent variable and divided into four dimensions [reliability, responsiveness, assurance and empathy]. As mentioned in Chapter 7, all coefficient paths among the TQM, ES and SQ dimensions are significant. More specifically, there is a direct impact of TQM on employee satisfaction, while TQM indirectly impacts the dimensions of service quality. However, the structural model (TQM and SQ) is mediated by employee satisfaction. Employee satisfaction could predicate 57% in variance of reliability, 63% in responsiveness, 51.6% in assurance and 71% in empathy; whereas, TQM explained 68% in change or variance in employee satisfaction. Having then introduced employee satisfaction as a mediator variable, the structural model results were improved. Hence, TQM explained 42% in variance of reliability, 41% in responsiveness, 39.1% in assurance and 36.9% in empathy. These results support the argument that employee satisfaction plays a mediating role between TQM and SQ in the Jordanian
public service organisations in this study. The following sections discuss the empirical and theoretical underpinnings for TQM, ES and SQ relationships in the Jordanian public sector context.

8.3.1 TMCS → Employee Satisfaction → Service Quality

The literature reveals a lack of top management commitment as a major challenge for TQM implementation in public sector organisations especially in the developing countries. In contrast, this research found a high level of top management commitment and support for quality in general and service quality in particular. These results confirmed that TMCS is a critical factor and preconditioned element to the application of TQM and to the enhancement of employee satisfaction. This result is unique and it reflects a positive transformation in the TQM theory in the public sector. TMCS in the public sector does not mean only the conviction of quality thought or principles, but TMCS means a change in the political willingness and a waiver of powers and authorities for people who are working in the operational levels. In fact, the success in improving both employee satisfaction and public service quality is grounded on the contribution of managers who are committed to quality objectives and who are recognised supporters of the need to meet employees’ and public customers’ expectations. Employees’ expectations include good communication, good supervision and collaboration, while customers’ expectations encompass high responsiveness, error-free services and effective and empathetic treatment of customers.

In our case, employee satisfaction played a moderator role between the TMCS and service quality dimensions. However, the question arises: how does TMCS affect employee satisfaction and how does employee satisfaction play a moderator role between TQM and service quality? First of all, public service managers became supportive and empowered leaders, and this leadership has a
major impact on employee motivation and their satisfaction. The following quotation provides clarification for the above questions:

“In the current organisations, TMCS includes but is not limited to setting boundary conditions and relevant goals, and then delegating decision making to the lowest possible levels, using work teams for planning and processes improvement, and creating a family-friendly work environment. Leaders motivate people, provide training for managers and employees, and encourage the development of self-directed work teams, delegate authority and decision making downward, empower people to focus on achieving the mission and vision, provide open communication in all directions and measure and improve employees’ well-being. Hence, the above issues lead to staff satisfaction and motivation”. [Blazey, 2008: 55]

In light of the above quotation, TMCS played a critical role in preparing the service climate for service employees. In the case of this research, employee satisfaction is considered as a good indicator for a positive service climate in Jordanian public organisations. If the service climate is positive and supportive, the customer perceptions of service quality dimensions will be enhanced as well. More specifically, TMCS enhances communication, improves working conditions and reduces negative or redundant bureaucracy. For example, reducing bureaucracy and the complexity of procedures leads to improvement in the employees’ responsiveness to customer needs and enhances service quality dimensions. The following relationship provides more clarification:

| Low bureaucracy | simple procedures and fast communication | minimum errors in public service + improved empathic behaviour. |

Qualitative data provides more explanation and clarification. One of the findings was that role models are represented by the top managers who create, build and sustain quality and excellence culture. For instance, Jordanian managers involved in quality activities spent a lot of time to help other managers/supervisors and employees to provide the public service in a good manner, provide
an interactive and encouraging environment for innovation and make the job simpler and more meaningful. In this regard, Forrester (2000) and Chung and To (2010) argued that TMCS is not only adopted for the purpose of TQM application, but is intended to provide continuous encouragement for employees to study their work procedures and simplify the nature of their work/tasks in order to improve their response to customers. In the case of this research, the Jordanian top managers adopted clear visions that included a commitment to TQM and quality. Interestingly, the strategic visions (established by top managers themselves) obtained employee satisfaction as a core value in these visions. TMCS means providing an opportunity for employees to forward their suggestions of how to develop their tasks and jobs. In sum, this opportunity is considered as good practice for service employees who want to treat their customers’ needs in a good manner and improve the dimensions of service quality. For example, if a manager/supervisor treats their subordinates fairly, employees will treat their customers/citizens fairly as well (Grönroos, 1983b). Moreover, managers’ commitment refers to changes in employee attitudes towards their jobs and organisational effectiveness (Kim et al., 2009).

Theoretically, what can be learnt from these results? Firstly, the commitment of managers means focusing on employees and customers. Secondly, top managers delegate their authority and responsibilities to managers, supervisors and service employees who work in the frontline. Thirdly, top managers engage employees fully and promote organisational and individual learning at all levels. Fourthly, top managers ensure that knowledge is shared within the organisation in order to avoid the duplication of effort and in order to enhance employees’ abilities to serve the citizens/customers with high levels of reliability, assurance, responsiveness and empathy. Fifthly, top managers spend time in the frontline of public organisations in order to motivate employees to understand and solve customers’ complaints and to respond quickly to customers. Figure 8.1 uses
Graph theory to summarise the trilogy relationship among the dimensions of TMCS, ES and SQ in the Jordanian public sector organisations\textsuperscript{22}. TMCS is not only leaders’ commitment towards quality, but includes practical actions to improve employees’ performance and motivation and enhance their satisfaction. Moreover, TMCS includes the recognition of employees and supervisors at the operational levels. The role of TMCS is sending signals to the frontline and motivating the public organisation in its entirety (Grover et al., 2006). This means that top managers should take specific actions and not only set the quality policy. For example, in the case under discussion in this thesis, all top managers established new recognition programmes or systems to motivate their subordinates and to maximise the organisational outcomes including improvement in the dimensions of service quality. The existing literature (e.g. Carrier and Bourque, 2009; Cohen, 1993; Batman and Strasser, 1984) supports this relationship between organisational commitment and job satisfaction.

In light of the theoretical graph (Figure 8.1), it is evident that TMCS, employee satisfaction and service quality are interrelated and their relationships are often complex. Thus, quality and employee leadership towards maximising organisational outcomes (high service quality) is not a simple process, as mentioned in the literature. For example, Deming (1986) and Waldman (1993) argued that the leadership process starts with building a conducive organisational culture. Similarly, we can argue that the TMCS process is grounded in the prevailing leadership styles and values of public managers. Interestingly, the top managers in this study of Jordanian organisations exercised leadership directions or styles which included transformational and transactional styles, which in turn have had a positive contribution on employees’ motivation, satisfaction and moral.

\textsuperscript{22} Graph theory is a new approach in the social studies to build the logical relationships between the variables and it aims to quantify the intangibles through a systematic approach (Grover et al., 2006).
Setting and deploying clear vision to define the future on an organisation.

Setting and deploying the core values that guide everyone in the public organisation.

Praising the supervisors, service employees and line managers when they perform good quality work.

Providing all resources and supporting the service employees and supervisors to perform their jobs (providing public services).

Creating good service climate and building role model e.g. spending some times with frontline employees to service the customers/citizens.

Participating, Personally, in leadership development and improve the service procedures and jobs.

Use different methods to achieve the quality goals and to enhance the employee satisfaction about their jobs such as: training, participation, continuous improvement...etc.

Employee satisfaction has been increased in following aspects/facets:

- Good supervision
- More collaboration between co-workers [ZAMALA]
- Good communication
- Easier public job
- Good operating conditions

The level of government service quality is high

1. The government service is reliable: the service employees deliver the public services with minimal errors.

2. High service responsiveness: the service employees deliver the services to customers quickly, the public employees always are willing to help and they are readily respond to customers or citizens requests.

3. High assurance in government services: the behaviours of service employees instills confidence in customers/citizens. customers feel safe when they receive the public services, service employees are polite and courteous and they have good knowledge to answer the customer questions or enquiries.

4. High service empathy: public service employees became more empathic, they devote their times to serve the citizens, they pay high attention for customers [eye contact], waiting time to achieve the transaction or to get the service is short, public employees became able to understand the feelings and emotions of customers; and they able to meet the customer needs and requirements.

The current findings improve our understanding of the Leader-Member-Exchange Theory ‘LMX’ (see Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995) in the Jordanian public sector organisations. LMX argues that the relationship between leader (e.g. senior managers and supervisors) and individuals (service employees) will be positive if their exchange rate is high. In our case, the relationship between managers and employees seems like a ‘chain’. For example, managers’ commitment to quality leads to enhancement of employees’ satisfaction. In turn, employee satisfaction has a major contribution to service quality dimensions including responsiveness, assurance, reliability and
empathy (improvement of service quality is considered a main goal for senior managers). In the current findings, Jordanian managers follow several supportive steps to enhance employee satisfaction such as providing the resources, awareness and self-commitment to quality. In short, understanding the relationship among the TMCS, ES and SQ dimensions from graph theory provides a novel contribution to understanding these relationships dynamically and systematically. Especially, very few attempts have been made to provide a systematic theoretical approach to understanding the role of TMCS in employee satisfaction and service quality. This study fills this gap.

8.3.2 Focus on customer ——> employee satisfaction ——> service quality

The public organisations in this study have made good progress in establishing the ‘customer focus’ concept. For example, our findings show that the level of ‘focus on customer’ (82%) ranked first, ahead of all other TQM factors. This result reflects public organisations’ care and concern for its customers/citizens. This result also reflects the closeness between private organisations and public organisations, with both paying high attention to customers. This result concurs with New Public Management Theory (see Gruening, 2001; Andrews and Van de Walleb, 2013) which focuses on the customer /citizen as a main input to improve the competitive advantage for Jordanian public sector organisations. All the current organisations adopted methodologies that relate to ‘the voice of the customer’. These methodologies improved the service climate and enhanced employees’ satisfaction. More specifically, the focus on the customer as the strategy in public organisations improved several aspects related to service employees such as meeting customer requirements and providing reliable, empathic and assured services.
It is worth mentioning that the Jordanian public sector organisations in this study applied a new concept called ‘internal marketing’. However, before delivering the service to customers, a successful organisation needs initially to sell the job to its service employees (Sasser, 1976). This idea confirmed that the employee must play a moderator role between customer focus and service quality. Indeed, authors such as Rosenbluth and Peters (1992) and Ewing and Caruana (1999) contended that employees’ needs must be prioritised over customers’ needs since it is only when employees are satisfied, customers’ needs can be met. For example, customer orientation and internal marketing have an impact on employees’ roles and responsibilities in the form of employee satisfaction. In other words, the employee satisfaction level increases when they become aware of customer orientation and its connection to their duties and roles (Salem, 2013).

The Jordanian public sector organisations in this study gathered information and feedback about customers; then this feedback was used as a main input to improve the public job and service processes. For example, ‘customer focus’ included specific plans for internal communication which aimed to supply the service employee with all the information and knowledge about how to do their jobs, how to deal with customers and how to provide service with high quality. These actions (focus on customer) enhance employee satisfaction in different aspects such as the nature of work, supervision, co-workers and communication. This result answered the theoretical question posed by Dahlgaard et al. (2013) concerning the relationship between ‘customer focus’ and employee satisfaction. For example, this study has found that the ‘focus on customer’ enhances collaboration among co-workers. Also, by giving employees the chance to obtain feedback on their performance, the ‘focus on customer’ motivates employees to improve their former performance (Linka et al., 2010; Schneider et al., 1998). The following quotation provides a contribution to answer the above question:
In our case, customer focus leads to a better understanding of customer needs and expectations, which in turn can be translated into internal requirements, customer satisfaction measurements and actions being taken for further improvement, and, subsequently, into TQM practices and the focus on customer which will lead to a higher quality of performance through more effective service employees (Ooi et al., 2008). In addition, the KAA reports showed that many of customers’ problems were solved by service employees themselves. However, in this case, employee satisfaction has increased because employees have gained the opportunity to make decisions and respond more quickly to the customer and, consequently, provide a higher service quality.

“Usually, we obtain from our customers two feedback types: direct and indirect. The feedback may be related to either public satisfaction/dissatisfaction or to suggestions. All feedbacks are directly viewed by employees and supervisors who, in turn, establish good relationships with customers, the thing which also improves our morale and satisfaction.” [9, SEI, 29]

In our case, the ‘customer focus’ as a system improves employee satisfaction in several facets such as communication, enhancing job procedures and preventing repeated errors in the future. Thus, the enhancement of job procedures leads to high service reliability. In this regard one interviewee said:
In this study, ‘customer focus’ was intended to achieve two objectives in the Jordanian public sector organisations. The first objective is improving the organisational performance through providing high service quality. The second is improving employees’ satisfaction. The last result is unique in the literature because usually ‘customer focus’ leads to customer satisfaction, but in our case, the focus on the customer leads to improvement in employee satisfaction and dimensions of service quality. The focus on the customer creates a common language among the employees and urges them to collaborate with each other to achieve customers’ expectations and needs. However, ‘customer focus’ in bureaucratic organisations reflects a systematic change in the organisational model and culture, towards adaptation to the needs and expectations of citizens /customers.

Qualitative analysis shows that ‘customer focus’ not only leads to improving employee satisfaction and service quality but also to enhancing the value chain for the Jordanian public sector organisations. Also in our case, ‘customer focus’ is considered part of service employees’ attitudes. This notion is consistent with the previous literature (e.g. Subramony et al., 2004; Johnson, 1996). Theoretically, our results support the relationship between customer orientation and customer perceptions of service quality (Gazzoli et al., 2013). Customer orientation is governed by several factors such as skills, self-perceived decision making authority and motivation (Henning-Thurau, 2004). However, to achieve the ‘focus on customer’ strategy or goals [improving service quality], managers must pay attention to three elements that relate to the ‘individual’. These elements are:
willingness to serve, helpful behaviour and knowledge (Gazzoli et al., 2013) or experience. In our case, improving the service quality and willingness to serve the customers in the Jordanian public sector organisations is governed by employee satisfaction factors. In our case, ‘customer focus’ is governed by employee satisfaction facets which include: nature of work, communication, co-workers, operating conditions and supervision. ‘Customer focus’ helps to unify goals, improve the content of work and enhance the willingness of employees to increase the level of service quality dimensions. These results support the service climate theory (Schneider et al., 1998).

**8.3.3 Continuous improvement → employee satisfaction → service quality**

The main goal of continuous improvement (as a critical factor of TQM) is not only achieving results or winning any quality award, but it also aims to motivate employees. CI turned into an essential part of the organisational work and a systematic methodology aiming at assessing the result of employees and organisations such as performance and customer satisfaction (Araujo and Sampaio, 2014). In our case, we found a high level of continuous improvement in Jordanian public sector organisations and we found an interactive relationship among CI, ES and SQ dimensions.

In our case, CI includes several actions such as re-designing the workplace to ensure the smoothness of service provision, establishing the “one stop shop” and applying the comprehensive employee method23, improving the processes, procedures and the operating conditions ...etc. The results indicated that all sample organisations (Jordanian public sector organisations) have applied certain methodologies for CI; these methodologies achieved its goals including: simplifying the procedures, enhancing communication satisfaction and improving employees’ satisfaction and the

---

23 The Comprehensive Employee Method [CEM] is one of the continuous tools that aimed to qualify the frontline employees to do many transactions at same time.
nature of public jobs and service operations. For example, the improvement of organisational structures leads to reducing the hierarchy and the levels of centralisation, formalisation and complexity. Also, CI enhances the employee-supervisor relationships and allows transmitting the information among co-workers and enhancing their collaboration. Moreover, the ‘one stop shop’ as the main result for CI reduced the workload. Low workload means that employees have extra time to understand the customers’ needs, listen to them carefully and give them more attention and concern (empathy). In this regard, Wang and Groth, (2014) argued that employees’ positive attitudes to their jobs lead to improving their emotional side when they contact with customers.

Thus, CI as enabler has a positive impact on people results which include high satisfaction and motivation. These results are consistent with the comparative works in this field (e.g. Bhuiyan and Baghel, 2005; Liu and Lui, 2014; Jurburg et al., 2015; Singh and Singh, 2012; Ismyrlis and Moschidis, 2015; Arasli and Baradarani, 2014). It is worth mentioning that the qualitative analysis indicated that all sample organisations applied ISO 9001:2008 which helped them to standardise / unify and standardise the procedures and enhance the employee understanding of it. 8 out of 10 organisations used Kaizen Methodology. Moreover, the majority of interviewees asserted that Kaizen helps to improve their jobs and satisfaction. As a result, CI has an indirect impact on the service quality dimensions and on the employee satisfaction facets. The following quotation leads to a better understanding of these relations:

“Before, our procedures were very long and complicated; we were suffering from them (let alone customer or citizens). For example, to get your passport or renew it, you needed more than two weeks! Now, you can get any civil or passport service during less than half of hour! The reason behind this is continuous improvement and re-engineering. Now, I can tell you that these procedures (he means CI and re-engineering) delight our employees, reduce the workload and improve the operating conditions and the nature of the public function. Thus, all of them improve our services of which we are proud now!” [30, SEI, 49]
The customers interviewed for this study confirmed the above result. One of them said:

“The service is very fast and the procedures are very simple and clear. I got my service from one window and one employee. Employees are respectful and ethical and they have changed our perception of the public service. If I compare between the past services and the current ones, definitely the difference is apparent!” [4, CUI, 62]

Standardising the job to a high level entails work activities being prevailed by clear rules, procedures and processes. Consequently, to attain the goals of the service, employees can stick to the standard operating procedures. In other words, contact-employees’ job performance can be evaluated as high, according to the criteria of a service-oriented organisation, by simply following the rules and menus of the service while delivering it to customers (Hsieh and Hsieh, 2001: 151). Furthermore, sticking to the standardised procedures achieves service contact-employees’ job satisfaction (Hsieh and Hsieh, 2001: 151).

Theoretically, there is no agreement about the role of CI in employee satisfaction and service quality. For example, the pioneer theorists (see Parasuraman et al., 1985) argued that high job standardisation creates problems for employees, while Hsieh and Hsieh (2001) concluded that standardising jobs ends in high quality. However, this relationship is viewed and dealt with in a different way in the current study which led to a proposed ‘intermediate position’. Service procedures should be clear and specific, whilst at the same time they must be flexible to enable employees to deal freely with customers, especially in uncertain situations or where unanticipated problems arise. Service procedures are not artificial but should be based on the human interaction among employees in order to deliver the services. So, the intermediate approach [between mechanistic and organic] is imperative to achieve the service quality dimensions. Standardisation (a mechanistic approach) is useful to improve reliability and assurance, while an organic less standardised approach is useful to achieve interactive features of service quality such as empathy.
and responsiveness. Service reliability is not only influenced by technical issues such as job standardisation, as is widely mentioned in the literature, but also by other factors; a combination of mechanistic and organic factors. For example, service reliability is influenced by knowledge and experience including training and participation, TMCS, communication and co-workers’ support.

**Figure 8.2 Nature of work and service quality in public sector**

8.3.4 Employee Participation → Employee Satisfaction → Service Quality

Participation is considered a strategic tool for sharing knowledge, experiences and information among the employees (Amin et al., 2014; Binyaseen, 2010). Participation provides great opportunities for service employees to improve their abilities, knowledge, skills (Cheung and To, 2010) and experiences. Historically, Herzberg (1966) stated what recognition and participation achieve is satisfying employees’ need for self-actualisation and inspiring them to work hard. In our case, employee participation enhances employees’ satisfaction and service quality dimensions and it has taken several forms such as participation in CI and decision making. Participation allows employees to improve their jobs, procedures, processes and communication. This result is unique in the public sector because it reflects a positive movement from an autocratic culture to a democratic and supportive culture. Jordanian public employees are now more involved in quality
improvement activities than previously. By way of illustration, one TQM manager stated the following:

“Participation has made public employees closer to the organisation’s goals and jobs; it has made our staff more collaborative and well-connected and knowledgeable. Then, our services have been improved and made reliable”. [14, SEI, 51]

In the research the customers were asked about service quality; one interviewee answered:

“I deal with this Department on a daily basis; you can say that I know a lot about this organisation. I will tell you the truth; team work and participation have become very common in this department. All the employees interact with each other like in a beehive; they share their experiences and knowledge to serve the public. I think this positive atmosphere helps to achieve our interest. Now, I trust these people and I trust their services”. [22, CUI, 51]

Conversely, employee attachment is expected to become higher when stimulating service employees share the mind-set of other employees, supervisors and managers and take part in organisational activities (Ulrich et al., 1991; Gowan et al., 2001). Participation enhances employee motivation and improves internal processes and employee satisfaction. Theoretically, these findings are supported by Alvarez-Garcia et al. (2015) and Cheung and To (2010). For example, communication satisfaction (as one facet of employee satisfaction) emerged as a natural consequence of participation. The participation methodology, when applied in current organisations, enhances employees’ autonomy in their jobs and enables them to be more responsive to customers. Participation makes public jobs clearer and enables employees to provide public services with high levels of empathy. In addition, enhancing service effectiveness is dependent on the nature of the customer-contact position which needs independence in making decisions (Hartline and Ferrell, 1996). This independence in decision making increases frontline
employees’ responsiveness to customers’ needs and, consequently, enhances service quality (Clark et al., 2009).

It was also found that participation contributes to unify job objectives. Participation is highly desirable in the public sector to enhance the clarity of objectives, decrease role ambiguity and consequently provide reliable, assured, responsive and empathic service. Participation was seen to improve employee-supervisor relationships and enhance the trust between them, leading to enhanced assurance and customers’ trustworthiness towards organisations and its employees. Customers asserted the above result when they said:

“Yes, the mutual trust is essential in our dealing. I know all employees here; I believe in them and I think they trust me as well. Do you know the proverb that says: one can’t give what he does not have? I mean that this organisation adopted several changes such as regular meetings for us to share the knowledge. Now, the employee is more empowered and as you see they are courteous”. [22, CUI, 51]

This result is very important for Jordanian public sector organisations because, for many years, there was insufficient trust between employees and customers in these organisations. Passive employee participation not only affects employees’ satisfaction in terms of their morals, but also affects organisational success (Carayon and Krash, 2000). Hence, in the current research, organisational success included providing high-quality services for public customers. Previous literature (e.g. Joiner, 2007) asserted that passive participation has an impact on organisational change through informing and updating employees and providing them with information. In the Jordanian public sector organisations, three types of participation were found: passive participation, active participation and friendship participation. It was found that passive participation alone is not sufficient; rather, employees must be engaged in the whole process (decision making, knowledge sharing, etc.).
Interestingly, this research found evidence of a new type of participation based on friendship. For example, the participation of employees in the quality circles and teams allows staff members to establish friendship. Literature defines friendship in the workplace as voluntary and amiable relationships between two employees to support each other in social and emotional issues (Jehn and Shah, 1997; Hwi-Song and Olshfski, 2008). Additionally, from the evidence obtained in this study, friendship enhanced collaboration among employees from different departments and so enhanced service quality, especially in cases of heavy workload and in solving unexpected problems. Friendship is not used only for emotional purposes, but also for achieving customers’ purposes. Employee participation based on ‘friendship’ reduces negative work attitudes including narrow self-interests (Hwi-Song and Olshfiski, 2008; Fine, 1986). Thus, participation motivates Jordanian public employees to better serve organisational goals which includes, in this case, enhancing service quality dimensions.

“I think we are talking about a vital and perhaps a hot issue. Managers and supervisors often involve their employees in decisions. We empower and engage our staff in quality activities and decision making. This participation helps our staff to deal with customers and to serve them promptly. At the same time, participation delights our staff and supervisors and enhances their knowledge and experiences”. [30, SEI, 49]

“Your subordinates will not pursue ideas for improvement if you do not and the result would be that people will not think of ways to improve. For this reason, we allow our employees to participate in our improvement project. Currently, they are more interactive and very committed to doing their jobs effectively”. [15, SEI, 30]
“If you do not allow your subordinates to be involved, this can lead to other managers following your example and failing in involving their subordinates. Without satisfying supervisors, employees cannot be satisfied because participation is a chain. When supervisors are permitted to take part in decision making, they will in turn apply this to their employees permitting them to participate, and eventually both employees and supervisors will be win!” [14, SEI, 51]

“Our staff members will not keep pace with important changes if they are not updated and if they do not learn new things. The process of learning in our organisation depends on participation and interaction with other departments and people. Participation affects all parts of the job such as supervision style, service processes and procedures, and communication. I would say: yes, participation is essential to improving job satisfaction and to delight our employees.” [7, SEI, 50]

“If you want to change the outcomes, you must change the processes which lead to these outcomes and change the people as well; hence, we train more, and we focus on the end. I mean the citizens and we do not neglect our staff. Our services are delivered with more speed and quality because our employees have become more satisfied and because we have governmental systems that support the employees and service providers in particular”. [26, SEI, 46]

All the above interviewee quotations focus on that the how employee participation, ES and SQ are connected like a chain that cannot be broken. Participation is very important to satisfy employees and, at the same time, employee satisfaction is the key to satisfying customers and providing services with high quality. It is worth mentioning that interviewees mentioned the relationship between participation and “delighting”. This means they saw a link between effective participation and employee and customer satisfaction expressed as “delight”. Recently, the Dubai Government introduced employee satisfaction into their agenda. More specifically, employee satisfaction became an enabler to satisfy customers. Thus, this transformation is consistent with our finding that public employees play enabler roles in delivering government services.
8.3.5 Employee training $\rightarrow$ employee satisfaction $\rightarrow$ service quality

Training is a necessity for contact-employees who work in service organisations. However, service employees need training in all aspects of quality in order to perform their tasks and to solve customer problems (Alvarez-Garcia et al., 2015). Generally speaking, the main result of training is the enhancement of individual performance (Chiaburu and Tekleab, 2005). The linkage between employee satisfaction and employee training stems from the idea that service employees gain confidence in providing good quality and perceive the potential for development and recognition (Jun et al., 2006). Human capital theorists consider training as a main pillar to motivate employees (see Lepak and Snell, 1999). However, other theorists recommend providing specific training rather than general training (Becker, 1976). Jordanian public sector organisations, employee training programmes tended to be oriented to satisfy employees and citizens/customers. In these examples, employee training contributed to improve employee satisfaction and dimensions of service quality (i.e. empathy, reliability, assurance and responsiveness).

As shown in the quantitative results, there exists a good level of training in the Jordanian public sector organisations (the sample), especially training-oriented ones, to improve employee performance and their motivation in the area of public service provision. Focusing on training reflects caring and maintaining the human capital as the main motivator for improving the services. This orientation reflects a transformation from the idea of ‘training as cost’ to ‘training as investment’. In this regard, one informant said:
“Training has become a real investment in our people. Training improves our employees in terms of intellectuality, skills and motivation. Also, we provide training to enhance our employees’ understanding of their processes and procedures, improve the communication with other employees and customers and, most importantly, develop their capabilities to serve the citizens in the best way” [12, SEI, 41].

To explain the role of training for employee satisfaction in the Jordanian public sector organisations, the following quotations are supportive:

“Regarding training, I can inform you that there is a continuous updating of services and their procedures. Our employees must be trained to do this and we encourage them to transfer what they learn from training courses to their colleagues. The internal training improves the staff’s ability to interact with and to serve citizens. Training enables us to make employees more empowered and their job easier.” [5, SEI, 33].

“Continuously, we ensure that service employees can deal with our citizens. Throughout the year, we conduct training courses for our employees for two reasons: firstly, to make sure they have not any gap in knowledge, information and abilities, and secondly, to make sure they can deal with our public. To be honest with you, we rely on their minds more than procedures. However, training helps us to motivate our employees and decrease the number of mistakes when they provide our services. [11, SEI, 45]

“Among the aptitudes which we have acquired from the training offered by the institution is how to look after customers and establish good relationships with them.”[4, SEI, 43].

The above results suggested relationships between training and employee attitudes and organisations and customers. These results are consistent with the literature (see for example, Sahinidis and Bouris, 2008). In this study, training has an impact on several employee satisfaction facets including improved communication and collaboration. In this regard, Tasi et al. (2007) argued that employees who are committed to training will show a high level of satisfaction and performance. Thus, the findings in this current study show that service employees in the Jordanian public sector organisations committed to internal and external training will share their experiences
with other people. As a result, employees’ satisfaction has been improved, their response to customers has been enhanced, errors in service are minimal and, consequently. They provide assured services.

“We adopted an empowerment strategy that focused on training to provide our employees with knowledge, abilities, information and skills to do their jobs. Indeed, this approach allows us to kill two birds with one stone: enhancing employees’ satisfaction and improving the service quality” [21, SEI, 36]

Customers confirmed the role of training in achieving the service quality:

“I received good quality from this institution; the staff members are well-educated and well-trained. They can deal with me; they are polite, fast and ethical”. [13, CUI, 39]

The KAA results show that the type of training courses have changed from traditional training to those that focus on building human capital. The public employees in this study received job- and task-related training. They received training in teamwork which facilitated collaboration among co-workers. Interestingly, service employees received special training on customer satisfaction and empathy. Several authors argued that employee training is vital to improve empathic behaviour (see Wieseke et al., 2012; Miyashiro, 2011). What these results demonstrate is that these public organisations have a caring aspect through their concentration on psychological training profiles, with the aim of engendering satisfying and smooth service interactions (Wieseke et al., 2012).

Moreover, the readiness of employees to help and to respond quickly to customers is dependent on operational employees’ satisfaction and training. Thus, training creates the willingness and capacity of employees to serve. Thus, the ability of employees, as a result of training, and their willingness to take the perspective of the customer play a vital role in the delivery of service quality
(Parker and Axtell, 2001). Finally, Service empathy became a key indicator to measure public employee satisfaction and their training.

8.3.6 MIS → Employee Satisfaction → Service Quality

Initially, advances in MIS have been enhanced the relationship between public employees and public customers in the Jordanian public sector organisations. Rust and Huang (2014: 3) argued that people plus IT lead to service transformation. Accordingly, the role of both employee satisfaction and MIS in improving the dimensions of service quality can be discussed. Although there has been a transformation in smart systems and robotics used in the manufacturing and some private service organisations, service employees still play a vital role in delivering public services. In the same way, Bolton et al. (2014: 264) said that “what remains to create a differentiating strategy is that is must be elevated to a uniquely human approach”. The critical analysis in this doctoral study leads us to conclude that MIS plays the role of facilitator for employees in performing their jobs. MIS enhances employee satisfaction facets such as operating conditions, the nature of work, communication and relationships with co-workers. More specifically, communication improved as a result of MIS. In addition, the supervision style became more supportive because supervisors have comprehensive information allowing the service employee to serve the customer effectively and efficiently.

Although the role of an information system is crucial in service provision, the dimensions of service quality still partially depend on the human factor (i.e. the people who are satisfied and motivated). For example, empathy cannot be achieved without employees who understand the requirements and needs of customers. Service transactions need high intervention by employees. In the findings of this study, the nature of public service depends on the providers (service
employees). In conclusion, MIS is a very complementary element for people at work to improve public service quality as clear in the following statement:

“Updating the information systems is a priority to ensure information flow smoothly to enhance the interactivity among employees and customers and to improve the nature of work, reality of communications ... If you ask any employee who has a long experience in this organisation, they will tell you about the difference between the old information system and the new one. Now, I can confirm that the majority of employees are happy with the new data systems because they enhance the communication, simplify the nature of work and make their jobs easier”. [30, SEI, 49]

Furthermore, customers confirmed the crucial role of MIS in providing high quality service:

“As you see, this organisation uses high technology to serve us. The ordering system has become computerised. I am satisfied with the staff members who have become faster, eligible and expert; they can help just through clicking on the keyboard”. [23, CUI, 44]

According to the interviews conducted for this study, IT managers confirmed that E-tracking systems help them to track the services and identify the bottlenecks in service provision. This helps to effectively distribute tasks and duties to employees and balance out their workload and simplify the nature of the job and operating conditions. MIS allows service employees to access all the information needed. In this regard, one MIS Manager said:

“Public organisations that fail to enhance the speed and accuracy of decision making do not perform well in a rapid change environment like our organisations. Without a process to access the information system and how well it responds to the needs of employees and customers, government agencies may not know they are collecting insufficient or incorrect data and information. This scenario will affect employees’ satisfaction and motivation. Thus, if employees do not have enough information about their operations and transactions they will not properly respond to customers’ needs”. [26, SEI, 43]

The KAA Reports asserted that applying MIS enhances employee satisfaction in several ways. MIS helps to improve job procedures. For example, service employees became more accurate and
speedy in their transactions. MIS also enhances supervision abilities. When asked, about the role of employees as complementary for MIS, the participants answered:

“I am satisfied with the information systems used here! We received technical support and regular maintenance from the IT Department. My PC has all the programmes and data which I need to do my work. IS has a positive impact on my job”. [17, SEI, 30]

In addition, one supervisor confirmed that service employees played a moderator’s role between MIS and service quality dimensions:

“All employees in the operational levels need accurate and comprehensive information to provide the services, make decisions and communicate. Without information systems, employees will depend on their intuition or personal judgement (especially in solving customer complaints and problems) which will lead to reducing the quality of work and service and, at the same time, will reduce employee satisfaction”. [19, SEI, 29]

MIS can therefore be considered as an enabler to improve employee satisfaction facets in Jordanian public sector organisations. More precisely, MIS improves communication and interactivity, operating conditions and the nature of work. These enhancements lead to improved work outcomes through an increase in service reliability, accuracy and responsiveness. Empathy has also been improved because MIS enhances accessibility and better manages workloads, which allows for a more planned environment where employees interact empathically with their customers.

8.4 Service quality dimensions: further discussion

The findings in this study revealed that all the service dimensions (empathy, assurance, responsiveness and reliability) are important and highly ranked for the public customers of Jordanian public sector organisations. The following sections will review and discuss each dimension respectively.
8.4.1 Service Empathy

As discussed earlier in this chapter, there is a positive linkage connecting TQM, ES and service quality dimensions in public sector organisations. Theoretically, the question was set concerning how TQM and employee satisfaction affect service empathy in public organisations. Employee satisfaction mediated between TQM and service quality. Employee satisfaction explained 71% of the variance in the empathy factor. This percentage is considered high in the service management literature. Also, TQM indirectly explains 59.1% in the variance (change) in service empathy after ES is entered as a mediating variable. Several theorists (see for example, Homans, 1961; Blau, 1964; Organ, 1977) argued that the relationship between SE and SQ stands on the social exchange theory. Though opinions regarding social exchange theory are diverse, there is a consensus that this theory presents a series of exchanges to engender unstipulated obligations (Cropanzano and Mitchell, 2005). In our study, the relationship between employee satisfaction and dimensions of service quality in the studied public sector organisations is explained by five main interactions (employee satisfaction facets): communication, nature of work, employee-supervisor relationship, co-workers and collaboration and operating conditions.

As public employees are satisfied, they appear more balanced and pleasant and this positively impacts the satisfaction level as regards the quality of the service (Homburg and Stock, 2004). In contrast, dissatisfied service employees are likely to display unpleasant empathic conduct towards customers, reducing the level of service quality in general and empathy in particular. So, the relationship among TQM, employee satisfaction and empathy is a chain. For example, employee satisfaction requires enablers such as TQM factors. At the same time, empathy depends on the interaction between employees and customers.
This idea is supported by the argument that employee satisfaction is the cornerstone in making a balance between TQM and service empathy. Thus, for employee satisfaction to influence service quality, it is not sufficient that service employees should feel satisfaction; they should also identify the particular job aspect which has caused this satisfaction in order to act in congruence with this feeling (Bagozzi, 1980; Yee et al., 2008). For example, in this doctoral study, communication satisfaction is considered as a precondition to improve empathy. In summary, empathy will likely happen if TQM is applied effectively and employee satisfaction is high.

**Figure 8.3 TQM, ES and Service Empathy Chain**

![Diagram](image)

Figure 8.3 contributes to the building of knowledge in the “Empathy Engine”. Theorists including Krznaric (2014), Zairiandshahab (2012) and Entel et al. (2007) explain the empathy chain through three enablers: management, senior management and frontline employees. The findings of this study add new motivators for the service *Empathy Chain*, namely: the nature of work, workload, communication satisfaction, co-workers, operating conditions and supervisors. In this regard, one of the service employees interviewed said:
“I cannot be empathetic with customers if I fear my supervisor and if I have a high workload”. [6, SEI, 31]

Others stated the following:

“From my personal view, to improve the service empathy and empathic behaviour, we need several actions, not just emotions. Emotions are not enough! We need training, participation, freedom, trust, supervisors’ support and, most importantly, employee satisfaction, so that we can buttress the empathic behaviour among the employees internally before achieving this externally [moved to customers]”. [24, SEI, 46]

Our results support the argument provided by Agarwal and Weill (2012) when they argued that information is the lifeblood for any organisation and it can offer a critical connection to emotions. Accordingly, MIS can provide high-quality information that can enhance the knowledge of employees and improve the collaboration among co-workers. More specifically, one supervisor said:

“All employees in the operational levels need accurate and comprehensive information to provide the services, make decisions and communicate. Without information systems, employees will depend on their intuition or personal judgment (especially in solving customer complaints and problems) which will lead to reducing the quality of work and service and, at the same time, will reduce employee satisfaction”. [19, SEI, 29]

“Information system supplies our employees all information needed, however, I can say that the information system is a strategic tool to improve the employees’ motivation. To answer your question, I provided information for my subordinates then I account them on empathy and serve the customer properly”. [20, SEI, 34]

The results of this hypothesis suggested a unilateral, rather than mutual, relationship between TQM and ES. Wieseke et al. (2012) suggested a mutual relationship between customers’ empathy and employees’ empathy. However, this proposition can be criticised because the attitudes and expectations of customers are different from employees’ needs and attitudes. In summary, the
unilateral relationship may be closer to logic. In the case of this study, there was a focus on the ‘operational facets of ES’ rather than emotions and feelings.

Operationally, empathy is not only an emotion, but it has both practical and emotional perspectives. For example, if employees have work overload, they will not find extra time to pay attention to customers. It is worth mentioning that psychologists in health care studies have concentrated on feelings and the emotional perspective of empathy. In the case of this study, the research focused on more practical motivators such as enablers to improve service empathy in the public sector. Feelings are not sufficient to produce high levels of empathic behaviour, but compensation is needed between the soft and hard perspectives. Thus, “Empathy = TQM as management system + employee satisfaction as a motivator”.

Empathy reflected softer human perspectives, which means it is based on people-related issues such as feelings and emotions. The findings of this study reveal different cultural contexts between the East and West. For example, customers in Western contexts are concerned about physical qualities such as tangibility (Kashif et al., 2016); whereas, the customers in this Jordanian case are more focused on human dimensions in service quality like empathy. Islamic and Arab societies including Jordan are society- and family-oriented (Hofstede, 2001). The social nature of Jordanian customers requires more personal attentions and they pay attention to emotional ‘empathic behaviour’ more than the collectivist behaviour which focuses on materialistic rather than socialistic aspects. Other issues such as TQM implementation are also important to forming the attitudes of public customers towards the service quality dimensions in the public sector.

At the Dubai Government Summit, 2015, many experts were asked about how the “human face” of governmental organisations can be improved. Partially, we can answer this question through
the findings of this study. In our case, Jordanian public organisations followed several steps and actions to improve the level of empathy and empathetic behaviour of its employees. These steps are related to adopting TQM critical factors that affect empathy such as employee training. For example, it was found that transformation in the types of employees training (training programmes) from general topics to those that focused on customer care and quality made a difference. In addition, internal training programmes offered in public sector organisations with their focus on the topic of empathy were productive. Empathy reflects the human aspect in government organisations. The high level of empathy reflects several issues that add new insights to understanding transformation in the Jordanian public sector organisations. These issues are:

1) Transformation from the mechanistic approach/culture to the organic, which pays more attention to both employees and customers;

2) Service employees present the human face of public services (Heracleous and Writz, 2010; Bateson et al., 2014).

Thus, frontline employees play a critical role in empathy and in shaping customers’ perceptions toward public service and organisations.

**8.4.2 Service Assurance**

The findings revealed that assurance (as the main component of government service quality) came first in the ranking of factors (88%). Interestingly, this result reflects good progress in government practices because trust had previously been decreasing in the public sector over the last two decades. Practically, some practitioners argued that to improve the level of service assurance in the public organisations, focus must be on two pillars: efficiency and motivation. In our case, the high level of service assurance came as a result of the interaction between two issues: applying
modern systems like TQM and employee satisfaction. More specifically, ES facets such as communication, the nature of work, operating conditions, co-workers and supervision contribute to building the assurance chain in the Jordanian public sector organisations. TQM factors also indirectly affect the level of service assurance. As mentioned in Chapter 5 (section 5.7.4), assurance is not a single concept, but it is a combination of credibility, competence, security and courtesy. In other words, it combines organisational and personal aspects. Thus, logically, employee satisfaction and TQM affect service assurance. Employee satisfaction could explain 51.6% in the variance of service assurance in the Jordanian public sector organisations; whilst, TQM (after ES is entered as a mediator) could explain 59.1%. Internal assurance is considered a precondition to achieve service assurance. For example, the trust among organisational members, supervisors, co-workers and managers is vital to enhance the customer/citizen’s trust in the Jordanian public sector organisations and their employees. In this regard, when asked for more clarifications, customers said:

“Of course, I trust those people who are trustworthy, educated and self-motivated. Everything is clear here; managers and employees are transparent. There are no private issues; they have the high awareness to keep our transactions strictly conditional. The procedures and communication channels allow the employees to be credible”. [6, CUI, 42]

Accordingly, assurance not only depends on employees’ attitudes or behaviours but also on other factors including training, information systems and management support. Also, behaviours of courteousness, politeness, complimentary and kindness require practical actions not only personal requirements. To demonstrate this, one can consider the following example: if employees have work overload, it is impossible to be courteous. In this respect, an interviewee said:
“To be honest with you, I cannot be polite when I have too many transactions”. [8, SEI, 32]

It can be concluded that assurance is linked to positive co-worker relations and support. Moreover, other factors such as MIS also affect assurance; for example, information systems are designed to allow service employees to keep customers’ transactions and records confidential. A customer stated the following:

“Yes, I trust this organisation; they have a confidential system. Just privileged people can see my transactions and my data, and I think those employees are trained to do that”. [24, CUI, 26]

The high level of service assurance reflects the fact that Jordanian public employees have good experience and knowledge to serve the customer and to answer their questions. This result is supported by the demographic characteristics of employees. For example, 42% out of 420 employees had between 5 and 10 years’ experience and 17% of them had more than 15 years’ experience. What can be learnt from these results? Simply, successful organisations like Jordanian public sector organisations should ensure two elements before measuring the assurance or building trust with customers/citizens:

1) Organisations must ensure that service employees are motivated and satisfied and they have a healthy environment and a trust relationship with their supervisors; and

2) Organisations must have supportive systems to include TMCS, training, effective participation, information systems, etc. In other words, public organisations need a high readiness to understand the needs and expectations of customers and meet these needs on the basis of trust, courteous, efficiency and effectiveness. Figure 8.4 illustrates the Assurance Chain in the Jordanian public
sector organisations. Listening to preferences and needs of customers through TQM along with paying attention to employees is considered an effective approach to improve service assurance in public sector organisations. However, it is not enough for public organisations to merely say “citizens/customers are the first priority for us!” They must take practical actions to enhance this assurance. In our case, service assurance is affected by five direct motivators or employee satisfaction facets which include supervision, operating conditions, co-workers, nature of work and communication. Service assurance is also affected by six indirect factors: MIS, employee training, employee participation, continuous improvement, TMCS and ‘customer focus’. Theoretically, these findings answer the question of how public employees interact and deal with public with high assurance and trust (e.g. Moynihan and Thomas, 2013).

Figure 8.4. Assurance Chain in the Jordanian public sector organisations

![Assurance Chain Diagram](image-url)
As shown in Figure 8.4, our results support the relationship between TQM, employee satisfaction and assurance "as a key factor for service quality in the Jordanian public sector organisations". For instance, there is an indirect relationship between TMCS as TQM critical factor and service assurance. Now, the question is how does this relationship work? When leadership realises and understands employees needs and direct them accordingly, the result will be a high commitment to quality improvement and organisations outcomes. Another example is the assurance behaviour between managers and their followers can be lead to enhance the trust between the service employees and their customers.

**8.4.3 Service Responsiveness**

Historically, for the public sector to be responsive, governmental executive agents must, meet citizens’ demands in a democratic society (McCamy, 1954: 30). The findings in this study revealed that service responsiveness has been influenced by direct factors (employee satisfaction) and indirect factors (TQM) in the Jordanian public sector organisations. More specifically, employee satisfaction explained 63.1% in the variance of service responsiveness while TQM explained 52.9% of variance. Empirically, in this case, service responsiveness is affected by five facets of employee satisfaction which are: operating conditions, nature of the work, co-workers, communication and supervision. For example, supervisors played a supportive and facilitative role for service employees in doing their tasks. Thus, they perform most services and transactions without comeback to their supervisors. Hence, responsiveness has been improved. Service responsiveness aims to save citizens / customers’ time (Theoharakis and Hooley, 2003). Theoretically, time is one of the most valuable customer resources and is among the most frequently cited aspects of convenience (Berry et al., 2002). Moreover, willingness to help is the
most important indicator to assess the service responsiveness in public sector organisations. To maximise ‘willingness’, several issues are vital.

In this study, operational employee satisfaction is highly correlated with employees’ response to customers. For example, the better planned workload enables employees to respond to customers quickly. Operating conditions and positive routines also improve responsiveness. Simultaneously, the improvement in operating conditions and the nature of work came as a result of TQM implementation. Indirectly, TQM has a positive impact on service responsiveness (moderated by employee satisfaction). For example, continuous improvement directly impacts employee satisfaction through improving service procedures and processes and this means that public tasks or jobs become easier and more enjoyable. For example, applying the ‘comprehensive employee strategy (CES)’ and the ‘one stop shop’ allowed employees to communicate and serve the customers promptly and speedily. Public employees now perform their service from A to Z. However, CES positively impacts both employees and customers. As for employees, they perform their transaction in minimal time. This means high responsiveness for customers and also saves their time. Responsiveness is governed by co-workers’ and supervisors’ support. In this regard, the interviewed customers confirmed the important role of collaboration in achieving their services:

“I deal with this organisation extensively. Its employees are supportive of each other. They devote their times to serving us! They always collaborate and respond”. [4, CUI, 62]

In light of the TQM philosophy applied in the current organisations, collaboration and communication have improved. However, good communication is considered a vital requirement to improve service responsiveness. KAA reports confirmed that there is a connection between
communication and high responsiveness. It is worth mentioning that service responsiveness in the government context does not only mean providing the public service with high speed, but also means democracy and respecting the public. In this regard, Daley (1986) considers service responsiveness as a vital tool to enhance the humanistic democratic concepts in public sector organisations.

8.4.4 Service Reliability

Theoretically, service reliability is among the most significant dimensions of SQ and, as a concept, it is dependent on two factors: dependability and accuracy or precision (see for example, Parasuraman et al., 1985). Statistically, it is when mistakes are kept to a minimum that a service can be rendered reliable. The level of service reliability in the Jordanian public sector organisations, as found by the current study, is high with a percentage of 83% which is high when considering services and organisations like government ones. Employee satisfaction explained (57%) in variance of service reliability while TQM explained (52.9%) in variance of service reliability. Accordingly, service reliability hinges on the amalgamation between TQM and ES. Unlike the previous literature (see for example, Bauer and Adams, 2014), service reliability in this study is not viewed as a deterministic or mechanistic concept; rather, it is an interactive concept grounded on both subjective and objective factors. For example, despite the vital role of employees’ attitudes, emotions and satisfaction in service reliability, the role of objective factors, like TQM factors, cannot be disregarded.

As illustrated in Figure 8.5, for improving service reliability, employee satisfaction acted as mediator. For example, employees require inclusive information and precise data if they are to decrease the errors in services. In our case, the staff interviewees confirmed their content with the
information systems deployed in their organisation. This is attributed to the fact that MIS provided them with all the tools and information they needed in order to minimise errors while delivering the services and performing the transactions. Continuous improvement facilitates doing the public job and helps employees’ to deliver reliable services:

“Staff members working here are highly accurate. They rarely commit mistakes in the transactions. I think this is attributed to the easy procedures as well as flexibility”. [2, CUI, 41]

Figure 8.5 Service Reliability Chain in the public sector organisations

Reliability further relies on internal communication. In the case under discussion in this thesis, there are short communication channels among co-workers or supervisors; therefore, there is a minimal probability of misunderstanding or errors. This finding accords with the communication theory the advocates of which stress that the longer the communication channel, the greater the likelihood of data deformation. The following excerpt supports this finding:

327
Methodologically, the interaction between soft and hard factors impacting service reliability can drive researchers to think of and develop new service reliability measurement indicators.

8.5 The roles of employees in the delivering of public services

Theorists often approach employees’ role in service provision as emotional labour (Paugh and Subramony, 2016). The role theory has been used by numerous marketing theorists to investigate the attitudes and behaviour of service employees (see Coelho et al., 2011; Walker et al., 1975). Service theorists (see e.g. Ostrom et al., 2015) have recently presented critical reviews of the service research priorities highlighting such gaps / priorities in the literature. Inter alia, they have emphasised the priority of employees’ roles in service delivery. Bowen (2016) also insisted that researchers are demanded to examine employees’ roles in the context of service. Theoretically, he classified the roles of service employees into four roles are: enabler, innovator, differentiator and coordinator. Our findings partially provide an answer to the Bowen question through providing empirical evidence from a context that has not been studied before. More specifically, our findings revealed that Jordanian public service employees play four roles when delivering services to public customers. These roles are: Mediator (54%), Enabler (46%), collaborator (41%) and Complementary (32%) (See Figures 8.6). However, these results asserted one idea that is the critical role of the employee as a mediator between the management system (such as TQM) and service delivery.
8.5.1 The Mediator Role

Methodologically, several studies used employees’ capabilities such as self-efficacy and innovation as mediator variables (see for example, Liao and Chuang, 2007; Schneider et al., 2014). Empirically, 54% out of 420 employees believe that they play a mediator role when delivering public services. Theoretically, frontline employees are considered the first contact-point with customers. In addition, employees represent the mirror of the organisation and they are considered as agents between the organisation and its customers. Although organisations have systems and technologies which reduce the role of the human factor, still employees are considered a mid-point or cornerstone between the organisation and customers in order to deliver the services. For example, employees solve customer problems and deal with their complaints on behalf of the administration. Also, the mediator’s role involves breaking the boundaries between public service organisations and customers. This idea supports the boundary spanning theory (see Tushman, 1977). For example, all the improvement policies and new systems such as the ‘customer voice system’ cannot achieve its objectives without involving service employees as mediators. However, employees translate the improvement plans into a tangible reality.

8.5.2 The Enabler Role

The interaction between employees and customers depends on the ‘empowerment concept’. This means that the empowered employee acts as an enabler to achieve the organisational goals which include delivering the public service in a good manner. However, the employee should help both the organisation and customers to perform the services. This result is consistent with Czepial et al. (1985) when they argued that for customers, employees form a chief component of the service rather than only deliverers of the service. Thus, employees represent the essential part in the whole
process. Public employees not only provide the services, but also have the function of transmitting knowledge. For example, several public services have a consultancy nature which means they require knowledgeable employees who are able to provide the tacit and explicit knowledge and information. Thus, knowledge management and training are two preconditions for improving employees’ knowledge. According to my observation in the public organisations, the majority of organisations have knowledge management systems that enable employees to deliver public services. At the same time, these systems do not work alone, but need human factors as enablers as the following statement highlights:

“As you know, we apply a customer orientation strategy. To perform this strategy effectively, our employees should be enablers; not only enablers for our Department, but also enablers for customers”. [11, SEI, 45]

This finding also supports the service climate theory. Hence, for the climate theory, the fundamental idea underlying work facilitation is that in addition to stimulating employees to deliver services, public organisations’ managers should regard employees as enablers of high-quality service provision (Schneider and White, 2004: 120). Moreover, as they enable one another, employees and supervisors or managers are also required to enable customers. Thus, employees are representatives their organisations and they influencing the public image by sharing their experiences (Weckenmann et al., 2015), in order to deliver the public service in good manner. Empirically, a revision of role descriptions of the traditional frontline, customer contact, and frontline offices versus back office employees is needed to achieve the role of enabler in service organisations (Lariviere, 2014).
8.5.3 The Collaborator Role

The organisation is a social entity which means it based on the interaction among its members to achieve its goals and to provide its services. There is an Arabic proverb that says: ‘one hand cannot clap’. This indicates that the collaboration and cooperation among co-workers is vital to service delivery, especially in bureaucratic organisations which provide mass services for mass customers. There are many forms of collaboration like sharing knowledge, altering activities and improving other employees to realise organisational objectives (Noor et al., 2015). In public services, collaboration is not only required from public employees, but customers also have a role in cooperation with government organisations and staff. Moeller et al., (2013) asserted that collaboration is essential to value creation. Thus, it can be argued that collaborating employees form the basis for maximising the value or chain of public service. As for the collaborator role, it does not only need employees’ competencies but also customers’ ones, so that the roles of coordination and collaboration are filled (Hibbert et al., 2012; Bowen, 2016). This indicates that it is necessary for customers to be educated by employees as the following quotation explains:

“We consider ourselves as educators for customers. I teach them about the updating of services. I deal with these customers daily. I care about the level of clients’ awareness to ensure they will be interactive and will respond to me smoothly. If clients understand the procedures and process, they will support us to serve them quickly. If they know what the requirements are, they will help us to maintain services without errors or, at least, with minimal errors”. [12, SEI, 41]

Although, for most private and public organisations, educating customers is a challenge, initiation is required from managers in the public sector for supporting the collaborator roles. A distinctively human approach, which is both truly emphatic and heartfelt, is reflected (internally and externally) by the collaborator role (Bowen, 2016). Some theorists (e.g. Siranni and Bitner, 2011 cited in
Bowen, 2016:6) emphasised that one-to-one human interaction can be stimulated. This entails employees’ ability to provide public services with a highly emphatic behaviour and attention to customers. In addition, these results accord with the belief that customers are the first priority (Schneider and Bowen, 1999). Of the results of a cooperative culture, one can mention service innovation improvement (Ketter, 2015) and cost reduction (Noor et al., 2015). Moreover, staff cooperation in work enables them of resource sharing and effective as well as efficient task completion (Wu et al., 2010). Finally, collaboration in the Jordanian public organisation demonstrates that the organisation cultivates a collaborative culture.

8.5.4 The Complementary Role

Externally, the idea of the role of the employee as complementary (to back office) is based on the extent to which the role of service employees conforms to customers’ needs and expectations. Internally, the complementary idea depends on dividing the job into several activities and equally assigning these activities to service employees. Each employee’s work will complement others’ efforts. The complementary role enhances the integration among frontline employees, supervisors, back office employees and managers in order to provide the service effectively and efficiently.

The following excerpt from the interviews explains this idea:

“We are complement parts for back office employees and supervisors. So, many service transactions are produced in the back offices, but are provided by us [frontline employees]”. [1, SEI, 37]

Thus, the complementary role requires special employees who are educated, well-trained and highly experienced. Probably, the best HR practices such as good selection and recruitment are highly required to enhance employees’ complementary role. The complementary role also implies that we cannot disconnect between the frontline and the back office. The back office supports the
frontline to perform the jobs and to provide the services. At the same time, frontline employees are considered as a main tool to achieve the expectations of those who are in the back offices (managers and supervisors). As illustrated in Figure 8.6, the roles tend to be mediator, enabler and collaborator respectively. Complementary is lowest ranked (32%). These results asserted the role of service employees in Jordanian public sector organisations. Also, these results reflect the positive transformation in employees’ role from the ‘dominant’ role to the ‘collaborative’ one. The team-member exchange theory (see, Blau 1964) and the collectivism orientation in Jordanian public organisations are both supported by this study’s results. Other motivators such as customers, co-workers and supervisors in addition to the employee’s conception of the way his/her role must be formed contribute to how employees understand their roles. Practically, since the organisation is a system of roles, the way in which work is performed is governed by members’ social and organisational interactions (Katz and Kahn, 1978).

Public services will be well delivered only when all service employees are well aware and knowledgeable of their roles. In this regard, Tubre and Collins (2000) stress that employees’ perceptions of their roles should impact organisational performance. Theoretically, role ambiguity and role conflict have been the two major indicators used by researchers for the measurement of employee role quality (see for example, Singh and Rhoads, 1991). On the contrary, we found high collaboration among employees (see section 7.4.1.3: Chapter 7) and found that they have all the information and data supporting their position to perform their jobs and deliver public services.

The conflicts among employees are very minimal and there is a healthy climate in the current organisations. This means that the organisations have a good environment for employees to practise their roles. As a final word, the roles of employees are interrelated and difficult to be
separated from each other. To ensure the effectiveness of service employees’ roles in service delivery, organisations should pay attention to organisational and individual considerations (training and good service climate), enhance participation and improve communication effectiveness and others. The employee’s personality is also a key factor in shaping his/her role. Moreover, the collaboration of customers is crucial in enabling employees to carry out their roles. Employee roles provide clear contributions to how services are delivered and how service operations internally work. Also, these results expand the social exchange theory by adding new roles to service employees. In short, service is an ecological system that based on service employees interaction to deliver the public services in a suitable manner.

**Figure 8.6 Matrix of Service Employees’ Roles**

![Matrix of Service Employees’ Roles]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mediator</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enabler</td>
<td>0.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaborator</td>
<td>0.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complementary</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.6 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, further findings and discussion have been presented to understand the interaction among TQM, employee satisfaction and service quality in Jordanian public sector organisations. The SEM results revealed TQM’s direct impact on employee satisfaction and indirect impact on the service quality dimensions. While, employee satisfaction has a direct impact on service quality dimensions (reliability, assurance, empathy and responsiveness). Employee satisfaction plays a
mediator role between TQM and service quality. Interestingly, service employees played four main roles in delivering the public service; these roles are: mediator, enabler, and collaborator and complementary. In addition to the empirical evidence, this research provides theoretical and practical contributions for the knowledge society. Finally, Figure 8.7 summarises the interactive relationships among TQM, employee satisfaction and service quality in public organisations. The next chapter will include the theoretical conclusion, contribution, applications, limitations and recommendations for future research.
Figure 8.7 Theoretic Graph model [TQM, ES & SQ] in the Jordanian public sector (Holistic Model)24

24 This model is holistic which include the major additionalities and contributions to my research model. For example, the researcher studied three different factors in one model, these factors are TQM, employee satisfaction and service quality.
9.1 Introduction

Theoretically, this thesis is motivated by the researcher’s desire to contribute to the knowledge in the field of public services and TQM practices. It is also stimulated by the researcher’s belief that in public administration research offering a unique experience and substantial contribution to understanding the TQM, employee satisfaction and service quality in the Jordanian public sector context. Though the organisation-customer relationship was addressed by previous studies (see, Schneider et al., 1980; Schneider and Bowen, 1985; Heskett et al., 1994), it can be said that, unlike service marketing that is well studied in established journals, analysing services as a pivotal area of public administration is still in its initial stages (Subramony and Pugh, 2015). Further, whereas several organisational studies offer distinct perceptions into many mechanisms related to employees impacting the provision of service (Ryan and Ployhart, 2003) as well as the organisational process that is able to influence customer results (Hong et al., 2013), an incorporated view covering the various critical concepts of service and causal mechanisms.

The central question that is still not resolved concerning this relationship is: what/how is the impact of TQM and employee satisfaction on government service quality in the Jordanian public sector organisations? Empirically, to answer this question, the researcher constructed the structural model and deployed mixed methods combining quantitative and qualitative sources for the exploration of the connections among model variables. As for the qualitative data, they served the aim of validating, explaining as well as supporting the SEM results. This chapter discusses the theoretical conclusion and contribution, managerial and practical implications, limitations and future research.
9.2 Empirical and Theoretical Conclusion

Theoretically, employee satisfaction as a mediator variable between TQM and service quality has been analysed in the Jordanian public sector organisations and this develops a profound understanding of the relationships which public service literature has previously neglected. However, no one theoretical model can be used to explain TQM, employee satisfaction and service quality together. The model used in this piece of research allows causal mechanisms to mediate the two-way relationship between service quality and employee satisfaction (Subramony and Pugh, 2015) in public sector organisations. In addition, the current study depends on new variables as mediators between the dimensions of TQM and service quality. The theoretical conclusion, contribution and empirical evidence will be discussed in the following sections.

Firstly: Service climate in the Jordanian public sector organisations:

Service climate can be defined the employee’s thoughts about the behaviour, procedures and practices which are expected, buttressed and rewarded as concerns customer service and service quality (Schneider et al., 1998). This study’s findings indicate that Jordanian public sector organisations are prevailed by a good service climate. This is a unique finding especially when considering bureaucratic institutions and it represents a positive theoretical and practical transformation. TQM is required to generate a positive service climate in the public sector. Previous literature demonstrated that through incentives, selection and training, the HR system plays the essential role in engendering a positive service climate. Yet, this study has revealed that service climate is impacted by combination of other soft and hard factors like focus on customer, top management commitment and support, employee participation, continuous improvement, employee training and MIS. Concerning employee satisfaction facets, they encompass proper
supervision, co-workers’ support, operating conditions, nature of work and communication satisfaction.

**Secondly: Empathy Engine Theory (EET) in the Jordanian public organisations:**

In the Jordanian public sector, employee satisfaction explained 71% of the variance in service empathy. For its part, TQM affects service empathy indirectly. This result has a contribution to the literature in general and *Engine Empathy Model* and *Emotional Contagion Theory* in particular. For example, emotional contagion theory advocates suggest that the influence of employees with positive emotions will be positive on the emotions and reactions of customers. Yet, what is found by the current study is that the emotions of employees are insufficient alone for engendering service empathy; rather, a combination of factors including the critical TQM factors and employee satisfaction facets is also required. More precisely, for Jordanian public sector organisations to offer their services more emphatically, they should achieve the balance between practical and emotional aspects. In other words, the complementarity between the elements of TQM and those of ES is highly important to improve the emphatic behaviour of employees who will, in turn, deliver services emphatically.

**Thirdly: Service Assurance Chain in Jordanian public sector organisations**

In constructing the service assurance chain in public sector organisations, one project conducted by KPMG in UAE (2015) suggested four pillars: recognition, transparency, empowerment and responsibility. In the Jordanian public sector organisations, however, assurance is determined by a cluster of factors including TQM factors and employee satisfaction aspects (supervision, co-workers, nature of work, operating conditions and communication). This result can be viewed as introductory to understand the Assurance Chain in the context Jordanian public sector. More
specifically, as a concept, service assurance hinges upon the ‘trust’ between employees and customers, the establishment of which demands numerous actions. Firstly, it is necessary to establish trust among employees themselves and this requires top management support, participation, collaboration and proper supervision, etc. Secondly, employees’ trust in their organisations should be improved and strengthened. Thus, building the Service Assurance Chain is not as simple as described in the literature; it demands many conditions and elements stemming from inside the organisation. Finally, improving service assurance in Jordanian public sector organisations requires integrating both technical and social factors.

Fourthly: Interactive features of public services in the Jordanian public sector organisations

The study revealed interactive features in Jordanian public services at high levels: empathy (85%) and assurance (88%). Again, this is a distinct finding to be added to the literature on the public sector. Thus, unlike previous research pieces, this study concentrated on the interactive, rather than the mechanical or technical, features of services with the aim of developing the theory by underlining employees’ role and that of organisational systems in the provision of public service. As such, this result accords with the expectations of customers that witnessed the shift from the material to the human aspects which service employees should show (Pugh and Subramony, 2016). However, forming customer assessments of public services and preparing the employee for the service climate requires many critical factors; HRM investment (e.g. training) and supervisors’ styles and behaviours impact employees’ service behaviour and attitudes as well as customers’ perceptions about and assessments of service quality (Hong et al., 2013).

Fifthly: The role of Jordanian public employees in delivering public services:
The employees’ role in service provision is often addressed from the perspective of emotional labour (Pugh and Subramony, 2016). The service employees’ role has witnessed a change in service practice and theory, particularly in the last two decades. This research revealed four major service employee roles during public service provision. These roles are: the mediator, enabler, complementary and collaborator. The implication of this finding is that public employees’ function shifted from the ‘gatekeeper role’ (implementation role) to that which is grounded on values like collaboration, freedom and participation. The vital role of service employees in this study is enriching public sector organisations with competitive advantage and value. Empirically, 54% are mediators, 46% are enablers, 41% are collaborators and 32% are complementary. Practically and theoretically, the explanation of these employee roles can offer empirical evidence and clear answers regarding theorists’ questions about service employees’ role in the new context that is public administration.

Sixthly: Focus on public customers in the Jordanian context

The findings revealed that customer focus, as one of TQM’s critical factors, occupied the first place at (82%). This is a unique result both theoretically and empirically because previous studies concluded that the most important element was top management support. Thus, this current finding is a positive shift from the conventional view of the customer which has prevailed for long periods in bureaucratic organisations, especially in the developing countries. It also reflects the necessity of nurturing an organisational culture focusing on the customer as one of the important factors in the Jordanian public sector organisations. In this regard, it is worth mentioning that 40% of the annual governmental budget income in Jordan comes from the fees and taxes paid by the Jordanian citizens/customers. Consequently, giving customers a special importance is a step in
the right direction towards increasing customer satisfaction and improving the organisational reputation of government organisations.

9.3 Theoretical Contribution

Van de Ven (1989: 486) argued that “good theory is practical precisely because it advances knowledge in a scientific, guide’s research toward crucial questions, and enlightens the profession of management.” This quotation is the basis for explaining the contribution of this study. By and large, many studies stressed the existence of direct relationships between TQM factors and performance. The existing literature also presents evidence that there are complex cross relationships among TQM factors (Nair, 2006). However, researchers are not on consensus concerning the nature of the interactive, though indirect, relations among TQM factors (Nair, 2006). Furthermore, there is little knowledge of the methodological and contextual impacts moderating the relationship (e.g. employee satisfaction). If the context dependency and strength of this relationship are understood, more will be known about the extent to which service quality is influenced by employee satisfaction and about the varying sizes according to different research designs and service contexts (Brown and Lam, 2008). The results of this study answer the (what and how) questions of this research and explain TQM’s effect on the dimensions of service quality. Above all, these findings clarify how employee satisfaction (as a mediator variable) impact service quality in the public sector. Epistemologically, since a significant contribution to theory is achieved through ‘knowing how’ (Wright, 2015), this study can be described as contributing to theory as explained in the following sections.

Firstly, there are two reasons for the fact that the existing TQM literature does not adequately tackle TQM, service quality and employee satisfaction. First, the focus of the previous literature
was the management perspective aiming at pinpointing main TQM practices which contribute to organisational performance in a significant way (Jun et al., 2006). Consequently, though the strategic public management of HR is also vital for TQM performance optimisation, employees’ insights regarding and satisfaction with the programmes of TQM received little attention (Ahmad and Schroder, 2003). Second, developed countries were privileged with the conventional TQM framework being based on surveys of their organisations; while, developing countries, including Jordan, have been overlooked. Thus, the extant literature will be unable to inform management overseas about particular TQM practices, which can contribute to enhancing employee satisfaction and service quality in the context of the public sector. Overall, the main contribution of this research is developing an understanding of the critical factors of TQM in a new context with utterly different environment, policies, structures, approaches, philosophies, objectives and goals. In brief, analysing TQM in the public sector leads to a thorough knowledge of the way TQM functions.

Secondly, service quality literature which concentrated on employees would apparently provide perceptions related to employees’ role in various contexts of service (Ostrom et al., 2015: 147). Partly responding to the gap in this area, Bowen (2016) tackled employees’ evolving role proposing four employee roles: enablers, e.g. employees have moderator’s roles... directions for researching the competencies necessary for these roles and of the HRM practices needed to build them are just one perspective (Ostrom et al., 2015). In light of the absence of theory-driven, systematic and empirical research on this issue, practitioners and academics are still uncertain about what roles public employees play in providing public services. That employee roles have changed is agreed on by many theorists (e.g. Bowen, 2016). Theoretically, in the context of Jordan, this study found new public employees’ roles: moderator, enabler, complementary and
collaborator. For example, as an enabler, an employee is required to help citizens-customers and deliver the public services with high quality. Service employees are also expected to improve the public organisation’s reputation and image. In such cases, the employee’s role can be enabler and commentary simultaneously. For example, this study shows that Jordanian service employees have a complementary role despite the positive indirect effect of Management information systems (MIS) on service quality. In this regard, one can refer to Parasuraman (2000) who argues that in spite of the importance of information technology, human faces are still demanded for delivering the service. Thus, as found by this research piece, the human capital is highly attended to in public sector organisations through some particular arrangements: participation, training and guaranteeing employees’ motivation and satisfaction. However, the preconditions of the enabler role are: clear objectives, enabler supervision support, collaboration, empowerment, information and communication. The case studied in this thesis demonstrated service employees who play a ‘collaborated and coordinated role’.

Thirdly, in terms of methodology, the researcher depended in this study on quantitative data (survey) as well as qualitative data (interviews and KAA reports) and this distinguishes this study from most previous studies in the same area as they relied entirely on one source of data (survey) (e.g. Brown and Lam, 2008; Wangenheim et al., 2007; Jeon and Choi, 2012; Ooi et al., 2011; Fotopoulos and Psomas, 2009; Gazzoli et al., 2013; Akdere, 2009; Bellou and Andronikidis, 2008). The reason for using the mixed-methods in this study is the need for developing a thorough understanding of the relation among the study’s variables and of the way in which this relation functions in a new context that has not been deeply examined before. For example, the advantage of KAA reports deployed as a complementary source is that it provided actual, rather than
descriptive, data. The kinds of approaches and data the researcher resorted to are greatly beneficial as they reflect customer’s perceptions ‘in real life’ (Harvey, 1998: 594).

Fourthly, because an appropriate instrument for the measurement of the level of TQM presence in a public organisation does not exist, the researcher of this study developed a scale of items that proved both suitability and validity for the public sector. This instrument will be useful and helpful for future researchers in the same area. Developing this scale, by adapting it to suit the field of public administration, on the researcher’s part is a major contribution to the field of public administration because all previous scales have been used in private firms.

Fifthly, from the Jordanian contextual perspective, this research primarily contributes both theoretically and empirically to quality in the public sector. Whereas the largest part of previous research concentrated on the employee-customer relationship in the private sector (Hotels, Banks, Restaurants, and Supermarkets), in this research, the focus shifts to the public sector in a developing country with completely different thoughts and objectives. Another departure from previous research is that this study concentrated on success stories in order to formulate the research model; while most previous studies of TQM in the public sector concentrated on failure cases (See for example, Alqudah, 2006; Brown, 2013; Halachmi, 2005; Hughes and Halsall, 2002; Tizard, 2012; Vakalopoulou et al., 2013, Van der Wiele and Brown, 2002; Asif et al., 2009). In fact, this is a new orientation in the public sector research and is an original contribution to ‘New Public Management Theory’.

Sixthly, the ‘gap model’ used by previous research enquiry to examine service quality level in the private sector (see, Parasuraman et al., 1988) is based on the comparison between employees’ and customers’ views to evaluate the service quality level. Yet, it can be argued that in most cases,
such a comparison is not completely reliable and does not represent the reality. Most researchers conclude that the fit between service quality as measured by customers and employees is poor. In other words, an actual evaluation of the level of service quality is absent. In a similar vein, the empirical study by Brown et al., (1993) found that the (P-E) leads to difference scores which are replete with psychometric problems; so, he warned against deploying these scores (Jain and Gupta, 2004). Another feature is the straightforward measurability and definability of perception (P) due to the fact that customers’ perceptions of service are experienced. As for expectation (E), it is exposed to being interpreted in manifold ways which has made researchers operationalise it differently (See for example, Grönroos, 1990; Babakus and Inhofe, 1991; Dabholkar et al., 2000; Teas, 1994).

Moreover, the validity of the (P-E) measurement framework has been criticised because of issues related to measurement and conceptualisation of expectations component of the SERVQUAL scale. For example, concerted efforts have been made by most researchers for measuring the size of the gap separating customers’ expectations and employees’ expectations. Moreover, bias might be one of the outcomes of depending on employees’ opinion for evaluating service quality. However, this research avoided bias by measuring service quality only based on customers’ perceptions. In short, this study’s methodological contribution is represented by concentrating on the actual perception, rather than just on expectations, of service quality and its dimensions. Further, the statistical measurement supported by the qualitative data reflects facts (interviews and KAA reports). As a conclusion, one can agree with Sachdev and Verma (2004: 98) that measuring relying on ‘perception alone’ is the best indicator of customers’ assessments and the interest factor

Seventhly, another contribution of the findings of this study is to emotional contagion theory and Empathy Engine Model (see Entel et al., 2007) in the public sector. Because this study introduces
these theories to the public sector, its contribution is based on their absence from previous studies of public service organisations. The result which this study reached depending on using these theories is the existence of emotional and social relationships among service employees that result in the enhancement of customers’ feelings and attitudes to public organisations; that is, good relationships among co-workers improve service quality dimensions, particularly empathy.

9.4 Managerial implications

As mentioned in chapter one, the researcher studied and consulted the literature more deeply to identify the theoretical and knowledge gaps in previous studies within the public administration. In this field, there is a lack of robust and systematic studies on administration in general and on quality in particular. This shortage is more noticeable in work that considers developing countries, such as Jordan, where public administration is notably different from practices in the West (such as the USA and developed European countries), which many of the concepts and theories of quality has been cultivated. In light of the reviewed literature, a theoretical interest amongst writers was detected when exploring the role of TQM in achieving organisational performance and administrative innovation. However there was little research interest in the achievement of TQM aims such as improving the quality of services and citizen/customer satisfaction in the Jordanian public sector. Many lessons and managerial applications have emerged from this research which can be distributed to policy makers and practitioners in the Jordanian public sector organisations. The following sections will discuss these implications.

Firstly, this research presented a role for the TQM approach to improve employee satisfaction and service quality in Jordanian public service organisations. Thus, this relationship between satisfaction and quality cross the entire Jordanian public organisations can be established.
A study conducted in Jordan (Aladwan and Forrester 2016) identified key challenges that facing Jordanian public sector organisations when implementing business excellence/TQM. These challenges includes lack of employee empowerment, lack of financial resources, and poor integration and collaboration. This doctoral study can assist poorer performing organisations in Jordan to overcome these obstacles through applying TQM factors such as employee participation and collaboration among co-workers. This will help organisations to better achieve organisational goals such as improving service quality and satisfying customers in the Jordanian public sector.

Secondly, it is recommended that Jordanian public managers and researchers should consider and comprehend the complete picture of relationships in the research model, including the components of TQM, ES and SQ. Performance objectives and final results have been the focal points for practitioners and researchers, while the role of the human factor in assuring Jordanian government service quality has largely been neglected. This research, then, will be an encouragement for public managers to pay attention to employee-related elements and study their antecedents and outcomes in the Jordanian public sector.

Thirdly, a significant implication underlies the finding that TQM has a powerful impact on employee satisfaction in the Jordanian public sector. The literature shows it is not very difficult to ensure employee satisfaction in public sector organisations. However the literature reviewed argued that the level of public employees’ satisfaction is often minimal. Thus, in the case investigated in this thesis, employee satisfaction can be enhanced by implementing TQM-based strategies. This result shows that TQM can be successfully adopted in public organisations in developing countries such as Jordan where TQM objectives of improving employee satisfaction and motivation are achievable.
Fourthly, the question that arises is: “Does every public organisation have to create employee satisfaction to achieve a high level of government service quality?” Empirically, the answer is ‘yes’. Indeed, service quality is just one of the means that leads to success in public organisations. However, in public organisations where customers-citizens find themselves in a direct encounter with the organisation, a climate of operational employee satisfaction and quality service provision can greatly improve the government organisation’s competitive advantage and enhance its reputation for high-quality service provision. There is also evidence that service delivery is not only high in customer contact, but also requires cooperation among service employees, especially those who work on the front line (Gittell, 2002). The relationships reported by the current study are powerful and the findings related to TQM, employee satisfaction and service quality are robust. It should be stressed that managers of government organisations must reflect upon their particular context and then decide where their efforts must be concentrated.

Fifthly, this research augments evidence related to top managers’ role (TMCS). According to this study’s findings, the function of senior managers is to ensure employees are satisfied and facilitating their roles in providing government services with high quality. It is essential that other public organisations in Jordan that have commenced TQM implementation should aware of the role of TMCS in improving employee motivation and customer satisfaction levels. Jordanian public managers should also realise that shared supervision or leadership increases employees’ chances of being involved in vital and much desired interactions which establish trust, (Drescher et al., 2014; De Jong and Driks, 2012). Some steps can be taken in the Jordanian public sector to make sure top managers give service providers enough scope for interacting and learning from one another’s capabilities, giving them freedom while interacting with external customers. Thus,
motivating employees, as well as increasing their interactivity with customers, happens when public organisations engender a healthy climate suitable for this.

What practically can be learnt from these results? Firstly, the commitment of managers should focus on employees and customers. Secondly, top managers delegate their authority and responsibilities to managers, supervisors and service employees who are working on the frontline. Thirdly, top managers engage employees fully and promote organisational and individual learning at all levels. Fourthly, top managers ensure that knowledge is shared within the organisation in order to avoid the duplication of effort, and to enhance employees’ abilities to serve the citizens/customers with high levels of reliability, assurance, responsiveness and empathy. Fifthly, top managers spend time in the frontline of public organisations in order to motivate employees to understand and solve customers’ complaints and to respond quickly to these.

**Sixthly,** Jordanian public organisations derive their real value from employee satisfaction. Thus, the need for senior leaders to analyse the effects of applying TQM practices on employee satisfaction is indispensable. The research model developed in this study can help public managers to pinpoint the dimensions of people-related TQM practices that can impact employee satisfaction. The model also draws management’s attention to the necessity of constantly assessing TQM implementation, ensuring it is consistent with the progress of service employees’ work life quality. As such, employees will more likely work enthusiastically to achieve better performance and high-quality service provision and this, in turn, can help them obtain a higher satisfaction level (Yue et al., 2011).

**Seventhly,** this thesis revealed that both soft (social) and hard (technical) aspects of TQM are crucial in achieving high employee satisfaction and government service quality in the Jordanian
public sector. This finding is useful for TQM managers who wish to develop their TQM strategies and plans. Accordingly, managers in Jordanian TQM organisations should achieve a balance between soft and hard factors because concentrating efforts on one or only a limited number of issues will be less productive (Bou-Llusar et al., 2009). Soft and hard perspectives are needed to have ensure the implementation of a complete TQM system, and managers must focus on both factors of performance (Curkovic et al., 2000). Otherwise, managers will end up having a cluster of practices that are incoherent and unrelated (Bou-Llusar et al., 2009). In this research the facets approach was adopted to investigate service quality. The advantage of this approach is that other researchers and managers in organisations can use it to evaluate, from the customers’ perspective, the relative importance of every dimension: assurance, reliability and empathy. Moreover, this approach helps the public managers in Jordanian to set action plans for enhancing each dimension of service quality.

**Eighthly,** emotional and empathetic behaviour is vital for Jordanian customers. This research therefore provides public managers practical advice. Firstly, the fit between the internal context and the external environment is imperative, and so is the balance between HR practices and the customers’ emotional perspective. Employees should be trained to perform their tasks with emotional intelligence and empathy (Jiang et al., 2012). Managers in the Jordanian public sector are required to identify ranges of practices with similar objectives related to emotional performance to make sure that they work in harmony, rather than in conflict (Gabriel et al., 2016). As regards HR, this study recommends specifying certain criteria, an example of which can be emotional performance, for selecting people for the frontline jobs or the operational level.
**Ninthly**, service relationships can increase the potentiality of displaying emotional flexibility. For example, Gabriel et al. (2015) contend that employees’ positive displays such as eye contact are important for customers when assessing service in terms of perceived service quality or employee friendliness during service encounters (Gabriel et al., 2016:8). In light of the current findings, theorists have maintained that Jordanian managers should align their approach to stimulating employees’ emotional displays with the mode of service delivery (Gabriel et al., 2015: 12).

**Tenthly**, another result of this study is the presence of numerous types of administrative actions which can possibly increase public employees’ satisfaction. Among these administrative actions and policies, those which elucidate role expectations and support employees both psychologically and materially are most important (Brown and Lam, 2008). Another important point is the need to promote an organisational climate where service quality is a topmost goal, and where there is support, recognition and reward for employees’ efforts in offering solutions to citizens/customers (Schneider and Bowen, 1995; Brown and Lam, 2008; Bowen, 2016; Gabriel et al., 2016).

The holistic model provided by this research can be used for comparative study of public sector organisations and other service organisations to explore the differences in TQM implementation, employee satisfaction and service quality levels. This can then ascertain whether the model has more generic application across different industries. In short, the holistic model was developed so as to identify weaknesses in previous literature (see, for example, chapter, 5 section 5.8.3). Major additions were made to the study model. As mentioned earlier, the public sector differs from the private sector in terms of aims, environment, and administrative philosophy. So, can some of the models successful in the private sector be applied in the public sector? The researcher searched for models tackling the relationship between the employee and the customer and worked on
developing a model suitable for the public sector. To do this use was made of the ‘profit chain service model’ presented by Haskett et al. (1994). Radical changes were made to this model in the research process in terms of variables. For instance, this research introduced TQM and its variables in addition to the use of employee satisfaction (ES) as an intermediary variable. Moreover, the researcher here developed measurement tools for assessing levels of employee satisfaction that better suited the nature of public sector services. Previous studies (e.g. Brown and Lam, 2009; Wangenheim et al., 2007; Jeon and Choi, 2012) focused on factors measuring job satisfaction including role ambiguity, role conflict, and self-efficacy. In contrast, the current study provides and relies upon new variables measuring employee satisfaction (ES): the nature of the job, supervision, operating conditions, communication, and co-workers. Finally, quality of the service was used as a sub-variable in place of ‘customer satisfaction’ because the latter is still debatable as to its importance in the context of the public sector, which aims at delivering the best services to citizens (as distant from ‘customers’) and where participation is less than that in the private sector especially with regards to identifying the service quality.

9.5 Limitations and Future Research

This study is not void of limitations. The following paragraphs explain the limitations and suggestions for future research.

- This study’s sample concentrated on the employees who are in direct contact with customers; thus, future research can encompass those who work in the back office. The researcher also suggests extending this study’s findings to other service settings (health service organisations, education organisations, etc.) in future research.
• Although the researcher follows the systematic sampling approach to choosing the customers who are participated in this study, sometimes, the random approach is not achieved for several reasons: 1) many customers reject to fill the questionnaires, 2) the sample frame is undecided. Thus, the approach to collect the data is not-random.

• Although the qualitative data such as semi-structured interviews aimed to validate and explain the results of the survey, both kinds of data that generated by survey and interviews were collected in parallel. On another hand, because the Ph.D. project is limited by time and deadlines, the fieldwork data were collected over a 3-4 months period, methodologically referred to as a cross-sectional process or design. Thus, it is recommended that other researchers should duplicate this study’s model by resorting to the longitudinal design (Subramony and Pugh, 2015; Walker et al., 2008). Such a design is useful for establishing the directionality of the relationships between public employees and customers while examining how any change in employee variables over time leads to changes in customer outcomes and mutatis mutandis (Subramony and Pugh, 2015; Walker et al., 2008).

• According to the qualitative data, many interviewees mentioned the relationship between employee satisfaction and organisational reputation. TQM is viewed as a precondition for organisational reputation improvement. Future research, then, can examine the role of TQM and service employees in achieving an organisational reputation. In the public sector, reputation can be defined as a public organisation’s capability of satisfying stakeholders’ needs and expectations (Luoma-aho and Makikangas, 2014: 41). In terms of identifying
outcomes and organisational reputation, management studies are still in their earliest stages (Lang et al., 2011).

- There are attempts both in the private and public sectors to construct a conceptual framework for organisational reputation, but no inclusive theoretical framework can explain the primary motivators contributing to the organisational reputation in public organisations. Accordingly, it can be argued that educated, motivated and satisfied humans are needed for achieving reputation. In sum, a future Ph.D. project can be an analysis of both TQM and human factors as motivators for organisational reputation.

- In Jordanian public organisations, while delivering services, service employees play four key roles: a collaborator, enabler, mediator and a complementary role. For future research, it is recommended to further investigate these roles and link them with other variables. Other roles, like innovator and differentiator, also require more analysing and empirical evidence in public and private organisations (see Bowen, 2016).

- This research can be considered as the first to use the KAA reports of the distinguished organisations in Jordan’s public sector for supporting the qualitative data. Hence, it is recommended that further research should be conducted relying on the analysis of these data and on other variables. Moreover, depending on these reports, comparative studies between distinguished and non-distinguished organisations can be conducted (see, Aladwan and Forrester, 2016).

- The final conclusion drawn from this study is the ability of employee satisfaction to enhance service empathy and consequently customers’ feelings towards the public organisations and their staff. A possible area recommended for future research is the impact
of citizen emotions and behaviour on employees’ emotions and satisfaction in the public sector organisations.

Table 9.1 summarise the knowledge and practical contributions.

9.6 Chapter summary

This thesis is a concerted effort and serious endeavour to bridge the gap in the theoretical and empirical literature by exploring the triangular relationship among TQM, employee satisfaction and service quality in the Jordanian public sector context. A context which has suffered from the ignorance or systematic studies for many years. In this research, the theoretical model was achieved according to the following equation (Service quality = TQM × Employee satisfaction). This chapter has presented the theoretical and empirical contributions, conclusions, limitations and future research.
### Table 9.1 Key Findings and Research Contribution

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key findings</th>
<th>Knowledge contribution (Theory)</th>
<th>Practical contributions (Managerial implications)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Soft and hard dimensions impact service empathy positively. TQM explained (59.1%) in variance of service empathy while employee satisfaction could explain (71%) in a change of service empathy.</td>
<td>Despite the significance of HR management, integrative theory dealing with the role for TQM and employee satisfaction in empathy or emotional theory is still immature (Gabriel, et al., 2016). Thus, by adding new variables to emotional theory and Empathy Engine Theory or model, our research is a contribution to both theories.</td>
<td>This study aims to guide policy makers and public managers to achieve the balance between the hard and soft dimensions in public sector organisations while implementing a TQM system and excellence models.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In Jordanian public organisations, the hard and soft TQM factors impact employee satisfaction significantly. TQM explains 68% of the employee satisfaction variance.</td>
<td>Presenting empirical evidence of new dimensions which have an influence on employee satisfaction like customer focus, MIS and TMCS.</td>
<td>This finding inspires top managers in public organisations to link the strategies of employees and customers. They are also urged to review the HR policies concerning customer expectations and demands.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A good public service climate (PSC) exists in the Jordanian public organisations. The two factors which improve the PSC are: TQM and employee satisfaction.</td>
<td>Contributing to Service Climate Theory by adding new variables that help in creating a service climate and internal service quality in the new context (public sector).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Because there is a difference between public employees’ and customers’ expectations and perceptions, the relationship between employee satisfaction and customer perceptions of service quality dimensions is described as unilateral, rather than mutual in this study.</td>
<td>The research provides a contribution to Social Exchange Theory which proposed a mutual employee-customer relationship. Chain relationship (unilateral) may be more logical in the public service context. Also, social exchange theory can explain the behaviours of employees and supervisors not only those of customers.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The public service employees play four roles when they deliver the public service. These are a mediator, enabler, and collaborator and complementary respectively.</td>
<td>The research explores new roles for public service employees, these roles help for better understanding in theory and practice. Ideally, the field of public management can contribute more in the area of public service, so that this area develops from infancy to maturity. Moreover, role theory explains that substandard employee performance may result from the dissonance between what management expects from employees and how employees perceive their jobs (Chung &amp; Schneider, 2002). In the case studied in this thesis, it is left to the service employees who have an operating philosophy to judge for themselves what institutes high-quality services (Wilder et al., 2014). These findings provide a novel contribution to role theory in public administration research.</td>
<td>This finding will help policy-makers in public service organisations to understand and classify the roles of service employees and to enhance these roles to provide the public services in an excellent manner.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The results reflect that in the Jordanian public sector, there is an actual shift from the Red Tape climate to the Green Tape one. The main characteristics of the public organisations that implemented TQM are the operational aspects of little formalisation, high collaboration, minimal routine and flat structures.</td>
<td>The study advocates replacing the Red Tape, which prevailed in public administration theory and practice for a long span, with the Green Tape which is a new notion in bureaucratic organisations. In the public sector these days, procedures and processes are more enjoyable and easier.</td>
<td>These findings recommend implementing TQM systems and concentrating on the human capital to enable the shift from the Red Tape to the Green Tape.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 9.1 Key Findings and Research Contribution (Cont.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key findings</th>
<th>Knowledge contribution (Theory)</th>
<th>Practical contributions (Managerial implications)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>TQM does not impact the service quality dimensions directly but its influence is mediated by employee satisfaction. In contrast, Several studies measure customer satisfaction directly with quality management (Lenka et al., 2010).</td>
<td>Our findings reveal that it is best to consider TQM as a gestalt and that it can be realised through soft (e.g. employee satisfaction) and hard factors all working in harmony towards service quality in public sector organisations. Thus, achieving high quality demands the integration between TQM and ES.</td>
<td>It is recommended that improving service quality in Jordanian public organisations requires public managers to integrate between the TQM strategy and employee satisfaction strategy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
References


Aladwan, S. (2014) “The negative effects of Wasta and favouritism on quality in higher education institutions: case study from Jordan”, the Fourth International Arab Conference on Quality Assurance in Higher Education (IACQA), 1-3 April, Zarqa University, Jordan.


365


Bodouva, J. (2009) “the influence of employee perceptions of the work climate on perceived service quality and the relationship with employee goal orientations, employee self-efficacy, and employee job satisfaction”, Doctoral Dissertation, Nova Southeastern University, USA.


398


Webster’s English Dictionary (1987). The Berkley Publishing Group, USA.


**Web Sites**

- Central Bank of Jordan (CBJ) www.cbj.gov.jo
- Central Traffic Department (CTD) www.ctj.gov.jo
- Department of Land and Survey www.dls.gov.jo
- Department of Statistics www.dos.gov.jo
- Drivers and Vehicle Licensing Department (DVLD) www.dvld.gov.jo
- Europe Foundation for Quality Management (EFQM) www.efqm.org
- Greater Amman Municipality (GAM) www.gammuncity.gov.jo
- Income and Sales Tax Department (ISTD) www.istd.gov.jo
- Jordan Customs (JC) www.customs.gov.jo
- Jordan Standards and Metrology Organization (JSMO) www.jsmo.gov.jo
- King Abdullah Center For Excellence (KACE) www.kace.jo
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Website</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Industry, Trade and Supply</td>
<td><a href="http://www.mit.gov.jo">www.mit.gov.jo</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Labor (MOL)</td>
<td><a href="http://www.mol.gov.jo">www.mol.gov.jo</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Public Sector Development (MOPSD)</td>
<td><a href="http://www.mopsd.gov.jo">www.mopsd.gov.jo</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OCED)</td>
<td><a href="http://www.oecd.org">www.oecd.org</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Security Corporation (SSC)</td>
<td><a href="http://www.ssc.gov.jo">www.ssc.gov.jo</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>World Bank</td>
<td><a href="http://www.worldbank.org">www.worldbank.org</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The American Society for Quality Control</td>
<td><a href="http://www.asq.org">www.asq.org</a></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix (1) Organisational Structure of Public Bodies in Jordan

Organisational Structure of Public Entities in Jordan 2015
### Appendix (2) Questionnaire Development (TQM Scale)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TQM Scale</th>
<th>Modified TQM scale</th>
<th>The source of scale modification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Top management commitment and support</td>
<td>Top management has a key focus on monitoring progress with respect to all quality efforts.</td>
<td>✓ ✓ Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Top managers are committed to quality.</td>
<td>In your organisation, top managers are visibly and explicitly committed to quality.</td>
<td>✓ ✓ Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is an inclination of top management to allocate sufficient resources and time for TQM efforts.</td>
<td>There is an inclination of top management to allocate sufficient resources and time for TQM efforts.</td>
<td>✓ ✓ Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The senior managers provide encouragement and motivation to employees to give suggestions for quality improvement.</td>
<td>Our top management provides encouragement and motivation to employees to give suggestions for quality improvement.</td>
<td>✓ ✓ Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior managers focus on monitoring progress with respect to all quality efforts.</td>
<td>Top management has a key focus on monitoring progress with respect to all quality efforts.</td>
<td>✓ ✓ Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management spends time “on the floor” with customers and frontline employees.</td>
<td>Management regularly spends time “in the field” or “on the floor” with customers and frontline employees.</td>
<td>✓ X Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managers praise the employee when he/she performs good quality work.</td>
<td>Managers praise the employee when he/she performs good quality work.</td>
<td>✓ ✓ Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The senior managers help other organisational levels to identify quality objectives.</td>
<td>Our top management helps other organisational levels to identify quality objectives.</td>
<td>✓ ✓ Modified</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Focus on customer

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TQM Scale</th>
<th>Modified TQM scale</th>
<th>The source of scale modification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>We developed strategies to maintain customer relationship.</td>
<td>Our organisation has developed strategies to build and maintain customer relationship.</td>
<td>✓ ✓ Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We have effective means to determine the customer expectations.</td>
<td>Our organisation has effective means to determine the customer expectations and their needs.</td>
<td>✓ X Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We have effectively communicated customer expectations to the work force.</td>
<td>Our organisation has effectively communicated customer expectations to the work force.</td>
<td>✓ ✓ Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>We openly share information with the customer.</td>
<td>We openly share information with the customer.</td>
<td>✓ ✓ Same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customers are encouraged to provide feedback.</td>
<td>Customers are encouraged to provide feedback.</td>
<td>✓ X Same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organisation collects information from the customers.</td>
<td>Our organisation collects extensive complaint information from the customers.</td>
<td>✓ ✓ Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All employees are responsible about the delivering high quality service.</td>
<td>All employees believe that delivering high quality service to customers is their responsibility.</td>
<td>✓ ✓ Modified</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Continuous improvement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TQM Scale</th>
<th>Modified TQM scale</th>
<th>The source of scale modification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The organisation has an effective tool for improving those processes identified as needing improvement.</td>
<td>The organisation has an effective system for improving those processes identified as needing improvement.</td>
<td>✓ ✓ Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our managers communicate the results of improvement activities and initiatives effectively to their subordinates.</td>
<td>Our managers communicate the results of improvement activities and initiatives effectively to their subordinates.</td>
<td>✓ ✓ Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our managers give performance feedback to employees to show improvement so that they could be useful in improving quality.</td>
<td>✓ ✓ Deleted</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organisation’s management always deliver the latest technology for contributing to the application of TQM and is aware of valuing updating.</td>
<td>The organisation always delivers the latest technology for enhancing the application of TQM.</td>
<td>✓ ✓ Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Continuous improvement</td>
<td>Referees</td>
<td>Piloting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>----------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organisation’s management gives great importance to research and development for the design and development of its services.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A team approach is taken such as quality circles, cross functional as used as the main tools for solving quality problems and decision making.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The results of organisational research contribute to decision making for continuous improvement.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employee participation</th>
<th>Referees</th>
<th>Piloting</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The organisation listens to the opinions of employees in order to benefit from their experiences.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees are involved in decision making that relates to quality and continuous improvement.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees, individually and as teams are recognised for quality improvement.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Deleted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The authorities and responsibilities of decision making are delegated by management to front line employees in varying degrees.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organisation encourages me to offer ideas about workplace improvement.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees participate in developing and simplifying the procedures related to their job.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees share knowledge and their experiences openly.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Same</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employee training</th>
<th>Referees</th>
<th>Piloting</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Those who are on the interface with the customer receive special training.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Every employee receives personal skill training that enhances his/her ability to deliver high quality service.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees are involved in the evaluation and improvement of their training program.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees are encouraged to accept training and education within the organisation.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The training offered through the organisation is an effective way to change the behaviour of employees.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>Same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The training has helped me to understand what is expected of me.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The training programs are open to all employees.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>Same</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Management Information systems</th>
<th>Referees</th>
<th>Piloting</th>
<th>Notes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The organisation has an accurate and timely database that provides information on customer and internal processes.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>Modified (split into two items)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organisation has a timely database that provides information on customers and internal operations.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management Information systems</td>
<td>Referees</td>
<td>Piloting</td>
<td>Notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management information system helps in collecting information that is pertinent to the improvement effort.</td>
<td>Our MIS helps in collecting information that is pertinent to the improvement effort.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management information system helps in analysing data that is used to support quality improvement.</td>
<td>Our MIS helps in analysing data that is used to support quality improvement.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management information system enables the employees to access needed.</td>
<td>Our MIS enables the employees to access needed.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The organization evaluates and improves its information by using MIS.</td>
<td>The organization evaluates and improves its information by using MIS.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Our MIS are used at all levels to support all activities and operations.</td>
<td>Our MIS are used at all levels to support all activities and operations.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your organisations uses information systems to provide high-quality data and information to employees in order to achieve high service quality.</td>
<td>The organisation updates their information systems on an on-going basis.</td>
<td>✓</td>
<td>✓</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix (3) Questionnaire Development (ES Scale)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ES Scale</th>
<th>Modified ES scale</th>
<th>The source of scale modification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Supervision</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am encouraged to solve customers’ problems on my own.</td>
<td>Referees: x, Piloting: ✓</td>
<td>New</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.</td>
<td>My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.</td>
<td>Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My supervisor is unfair to me.</td>
<td>My supervisor is fair to me.</td>
<td>Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.</td>
<td>My supervisor shows too high interest in the feelings of subordinates.</td>
<td>Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like my supervisor.</td>
<td>I like working for my supervisor</td>
<td>Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Operating conditions</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Many of our rules and procedures make a good job difficult.</td>
<td>Our organisation’s rules and procedures enable me to accomplish my job effectively.</td>
<td>Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.</td>
<td>My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked bureaucracy or routine.</td>
<td>Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have too much to do at work.</td>
<td>I have too much to do at work.</td>
<td>Same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have too much paperwork</td>
<td></td>
<td>Deleted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Co-workers</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like the people I work with.</td>
<td>I like working with my co-workers.</td>
<td>Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I help my colleague when his/her workload is high.</td>
<td>Referees: x, Piloting: ✓</td>
<td>New</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy my co-workers.</td>
<td>I enjoy working with my co-workers.</td>
<td>Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is too much bickering and fighting at work.</td>
<td>There is too much bickering and fighting at work.</td>
<td>Same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Communication</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communications seem good in this this organisation.</td>
<td>Communications seem good in this this organisation.</td>
<td>Same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The goals of this organisation are not clear to me.</td>
<td>The goals of this organisation are clear to me.</td>
<td>Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organisation.</td>
<td>I often feel I do not know what is going on with my organisation.</td>
<td>Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work assignments are not fully explained.</td>
<td>Work assignments are fully explained.</td>
<td>Modified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My supervisor encourages me to speak out.</td>
<td>Source: Melhem 2003</td>
<td>New</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I get all the necessary information to do my job in serving the public.</td>
<td></td>
<td>New</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nature of work</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.</td>
<td>I feel my job has an important contribution to the organisation’s performance.</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I enjoy undertakes the tasks require from me.</td>
<td>Referees: x, Piloting: ✓</td>
<td>New</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.</td>
<td>I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.</td>
<td>Same</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My job is enjoyable.</td>
<td>My job is enjoyable.</td>
<td>Same</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix (4) Questionnaire Development (SQ Scale)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SQ Scale</th>
<th>Modified SQ scale</th>
<th>The source of scale modification</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reliability</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When XYZ promises to do something by a certain time, it does so.</td>
<td>The organisation perform the service right the first time.</td>
<td>Referees Piloting Notes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When you have problems, XYZ is sympathetic and reassuring</td>
<td>When you have a problem, the organisation shows sincere interested in solving it.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XYZ is dependable</td>
<td></td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XYZ provides its services at the time it promises to do so.</td>
<td>The organisation delivers its services at the time promised.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XYZ keeps its records accurately.</td>
<td>The organisation performs error-free services.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Responsiveness</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You do not receive prompt service from XYZ’S employees.</td>
<td>The organisation deliver the services to the customer quickly.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XYZ does not all customers exactly when services will be performed.</td>
<td>The staff of the organisation informs you exactly when services will be performed.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees of XYZ are not always willing to help customers.</td>
<td>The staff of the organisation is always willing to help.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees of XYZ are too busy to respond to customer requests promptly.</td>
<td>The staff readily respond to customers’ requests.</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Assurance</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You can trust employees of XYZ</td>
<td>Behaviour of staff instils confidence in customers.</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You feel safe in your transactions with XYZ’S employees</td>
<td>You feel safe in your transaction with the current organisation.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees of XYZ are polite</td>
<td>The staff of the organisation are consistently courteous</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees get adequate support from XYZ to do their jobs well.</td>
<td>Staff has sufficient knowledge to answer your questions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Empathy</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XYZ does not give you individual attention</td>
<td>The organisation staff gives you personal attention.</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees of XYZ do not know what your needs are</td>
<td>Staff understands your specific needs and requirements</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XYZ does not have your best interests at heart</td>
<td>Staff has customers best interest in mind</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XYZ does not have operating hours convenient to all their customers.</td>
<td>The staff devotes all their time to service the customers.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The author based on pilot study
## Appendix (5) List of Questionnaires’ Referees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>no</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>University</th>
<th>Department</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ahmad Shyab</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>Yarmouk University</td>
<td>Public Administration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Ali Almestarehi</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>Yarmouk University</td>
<td>Public Administration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Anis Khasawneh</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>Yarmouk University</td>
<td>Public Administration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Ibrahim Rawabdeh</td>
<td>***</td>
<td>Jordan University</td>
<td>Industrial Engineering</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Kevin Gallimore</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>Manchester Metropolitan University</td>
<td>Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Mohammad Yaghi</td>
<td>**</td>
<td>Jordan University</td>
<td>Public Administration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Paul Forrester</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>Birmingham University</td>
<td>Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Rebhi Alhassan</td>
<td>**</td>
<td>Jordan University</td>
<td>Public Administration.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Samer Dahiyat</td>
<td>**</td>
<td>Jordan University</td>
<td>Business Management.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***Full Professor ** Associate Professor * Senior Lecturer or Assistant Professor
Appendix (8) the results of structural models (TQM, ES and SQ)

![Diagram of structural models with indicators and R² values]

- **Reliability**: TQM → ES, R² = 420
- **Assurance**: TQM → ES, R² = 520
- **Empathy**: TQM → ES, R² = 533
- **Responsiveness**: TQM → ES, R² = 478
(cont.) Appendix (8) the results of Structural models (TQM, ES and SQ)

![Diagram of Structural Models]

- Reliability: $R^2 = 570$, $p = 0.001$
- Assurance: $R^2 = 516$, $p = 0.001$
- Empathy: $R^2 = 710$, $p = 0.001$
- Responsiveness: $R^2 = 630$, $p = 0.001$
The End