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Leadership Development Interventions, Job Satisfaction, and Leadership Effectiveness as Determinants of Organisational Performance in Saudi Transportation Sector

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Abstract

Organisational performance has always been the focus of firms to measure a firm's progress and development. However, it was reported that the organizational performance in the Saudi transportation sector is still lagging and below expectations. Hence, there is a need for Saudi transportation firms to improve their performance, which raises an important question of how to improve it. It is argued that leadership development interventions (LDI) such as coaching, mentoring and performance appraisal could improve organisational performance through increased leadership effectiveness and enhanced job satisfaction. This research examines the mediating effect of leadership effectiveness and the moderating effect of job satisfaction on the relationships between LDI on the organizational performance of Saudi transportation firms. A survey-based method was used to collect the data from 385 respondents at Saudi transportation firms. Multi-stage cluster sampling technique was employed. This study revealed that leadership development interventions (LDI) significantly influenced organisational performance directly and indirectly through the mediating role of leadership effectiveness. Further, the study found that the relationships between LDI, such as coaching and performance appraisal, are moderated by job satisfaction.

Keywords: Leadership Development Interventions, Coaching, Mentoring, Performance Appraisal, Leadership Effectiveness, Job Satisfaction.

Introduction

Although Saudi Arabia's manufacturing sector made progress in the competitiveness factor assessed, supported by crude oil and its derivatives manufacturing. The international competitiveness yearbook 2022, issued by the International Institute for Management Development (IMD) in Switzerland, reveals that Saudi Arabia's economic performance

dropped between 2020 and 2021 (IMD World Competitiveness Report, 2022). The overall economic performance slipped eight notches to 32nd place in 2021, compared to 24th in 2020. The drop was due to a decline in scores in many indicators related to the service industry that measure both macro and micro-economic aspects of competitiveness. For example, the report shows that the contribution of trade to GDP decreased from 62.24m in 2021 to 51.19m. Similarly, the contribution of the telecommunication sector recorded a decrease in the growth rates for the years 2017, 2018 and 2019, with a value of 4.48%, 3.78%, and 3.28%, respectively. Thus, the overall performance of the gross domestic product in this sector continues in successive declines from 2016 to 2019, which reflects performance problems in this sector (Jeddah chamber, 2019). Aldoghan et al. (2022) also showed that Saudi Arabian telecommunication companies are suffering from significant financial losses year after year, and there is a decrease in the overall performance of Saudi Arabia's telecommunication companies. Moreover, revenue in the transportation industry has shown an annual decrease rate in 2019, 2020, and 2021 (of US$0.87bn, US$0.648bn, and US$0.48bn respectively). Saudi Arabia is weaker than other economies in two main service industries — transportation and banking and insurance — in terms of its relative percentages of total value contributed and employment generation"(International Monetary Fund, 2019). These problems with an organizational performance by the Saudi service firms sector raise an important question as to why such a situation occurs. Some scholars reported that the factors expected to affect organizational performance in Saudi should be studied, as there are few studies on organizational performance in Saudi (Altrasi, 2014; Sayyadi, 2019).

Organisational performance refers to the measure of an organisation's progress and development. It reflects an organisation's performance in achieving its goals and objectives (Koohang et al., 2017; Ribeiro et al., 2021). Organisational performance is defined as "an analysis of a company's performance as compared to goals and objectives" (Koohang et al., 2017, p. 523). Organisational performance has also been defined as "the extent of success to which the organisation reaches its aims" (Otoo et al., 2019). Organisational performance is a crucial element in determining the success of an organisation (Ohunakin & Olugbade, 2022). Many studies have highlighted that effectiveness criteria that reflect organisational performance may be divided into two main categories, including: a) financial performance (objective indicators) such as market share, return on investment, cash flow, and profitability, etc., and b) non-financial performance (subjective indicators), such as branding, customer satisfaction, employee satisfaction, and service quality, R&D, etc. (Ellinger & Ellinger, 2021; Kivipõld et al., 2021; Otoo et al., 2019). The significance of several factors on organisational performance has been highlighted in many areas. For example, literature argued that leadership is ultimately in charge of and the main driver to strengthen organisational performance (Nienaber & Svensson, 2013). This is because, optimal performance depends on a leader's ability to manage the human resources into reliable human resources (Belsito & Reutzel, 2020; Eliyana et al., 2019). As such, leadership has to be concerned with the productively level that satisfies the needs of the customers and evaluation of problems faced by the management in order to help the organisation to best direct their efforts to achieve high performance goal (Maamari & Saheb, 2018; Nienaber & Svensson, 2013). In the context of leadership development intervention, Douglas et al. (2022) recommended that to examine the influence of leadership development programs on specific financial indicators such as return on investment and cash flow, which will assist in appraising the investment in leadership development programs, especially toward the valuation of organizational

performance. Similarly, Otoo et al. (2019) argued that LDI are more effective in enhancing non-financial performance indicators.

Sayyadi (2019) claimed that effective leadership affects organisational performance, and that organisational performance is the desired goal of leadership behaviour and actions. Leadership, thus, is ultimately in charge of and the main driver of organisational performance (Nienaber & Svensson, 2013). In this context, the concern is on the ways taken by organisations to enhance leadership behaviours and their effectiveness in improving organisational performance. Douglas et al. (2022) claimed that leadership development interventions are reliable ways organisations have used to support leadership effectiveness, a process known as "leadership development", which is considered a means to improve organisational performance. Meanwhile, the role and contribution of leadership development interventions in organisational performance have narrowly been theorised and tested. There is limited evidence on the impact of training and professional development interventions on organisational performance (Ayeleke et al., 2019; Cavanaugh et al., 2022; Douglas et al., 2022).

Some scholars, such as Sayyadi (2019), stated that the role of leadership development interventions on organizational performance should be considered and studied, as they reflect reliable ways that have been used by organizations to support leadership effectiveness and then organizational performance. Scholars also have suggested several factors that affect organizational performance, which include leadership development interventions (Ayeleke et al., 2019; Lee & Lee, 2018; Maamari et al., 2022; Ribeiro et al., 2021), leadership effectiveness (Halliwell et al., 2022; Mahmood et al., 2020; Ni et al., 2019), and job satisfaction (Lee, 2018; Ohunakin & Olugbade, 2022; Ribeiro et al., 2021). However, little is known about whether these factors play the same influence in Saudi due to the lack of local studies (Al-Qahtani, 2013; Omira, 2015; Soomro et al., 2019).

Literature Review

Leadership development interventions have been considered in the literature as an important dimension in explaining organisational context. For example, past studies have affirmed that leadership development interventions are positively associated with leadership learning (Ni et al., 2019), knowledge management (Sayyadi, 2019), organisational citizenship behaviour (Maamari et al., 2022), team-level performance (Lee, Lyubovnikova, et al., 2019; Lee, 2018), reduction of deviant behaviour (Wahyono et al., 2021), and work engagement (Lee, Idris, et al., 2019). However, empirical evidence on the relationship between leadership development interventions and organisational performance is lacking in the current literature. Thus, there is insufficient evidence on whether leadership development interventions have led to advancement that fills the growing need for leaders (Ayeleke et al., 2019; Kivipõld et al., 2021; Lee, Lyubovnikova, et al., 2019). From one hand, there is agreement on the importance of leadership development interventions in the organisational context, and there have been many efforts to identify and conceptualise those interventions; however, there is no agreement on what constitutes leadership development interventions. Scholars conceptualise leadership professional development in different ways, and few empirical studies have investigated professional leadership development (Cavanaugh et al., 2022; Daniëls et al., 2019; Douglas et al., 2022). Scholars have provided different sets of leadership development interventions in an organisational context, making it difficult to determine the relationship between leadership development interventions and organisational performance (Douglas et al., 2022).

On the other hand, the role and contribution of leadership development interventions in organisational performance have narrowly been theorised and tested. There is limited evidence on the impact of training and professional development interventions on organisational performance (Ayeleke et al., 2019; Cavanaugh et al., 2022; Douglas et al., 2022). Maamari et al. (2022) noted a gap in theories on the effects of leadership development interventions on performance. More specifically, studies on leadership development interventions and performance are still not widespread, and research on this area is still underdeveloped (Ellinger & Ellinger, 2021; McCarthy & Milner, 2020). Thus, scholars encourage new studies to be carried out to examine the various human resource interventions (e.g., supervisor/ leader's coaching, mentoring, and performance appraisal) as drivers of performance (Memon & Ghani, 2021) to establish the causality between leadership development interventions such as coaching, mentoring, and performance appraisal to achieve organisational performance, which is still scarce (Ayeleke et al., 2019; Lee, Lyubovnikova, et al., 2019; Maamari et al., 2022; Ribeiro et al., 2021; Tanskanen et al., 2018; Vito, 2018; Ye et al., 2019).

Some studies confirmed the positive association between leadership development interventions and organisational performance (Cavanaugh et al., 2022; Douglas et al., 2022; Sayyadi, 2019). However, other studies argued that leadership interventions do not guarantees an improvement of organisational performance as the success of leadership depends on the leaders' ability to enhance and motivate employees and manage them into reliable human resources (Cavanaugh et al., 2022; Eliyana et al., 2019). In other words, leadership development interventions lead to enhanced leadership effectiveness which will then improve organisational performance (Douglas et al., 2022; Lee, 2018). For example, (Ayeleke et al., 2019) found that leaders who participated in several leadership development interventions experienced an improvement in their competencies such as communication and management skills, leadership capability, and relations and networking skills, and such improvements had a positive influence on team performance and organisational performance. Accordingly, understanding the mediating role of leadership effectiveness is imperative in understanding the mechanism between leadership development interventions and organisational performance. However, the mechanism by which leadership development interventions impact organisational performance is mainly unexplained in the literature (Lee, 2018; Mahmood et al., 2020; Ribeiro et al., 2021).

Given that a number of individual level factors can moderate the impacts of leadership development interventions on organisational performance, it is important to examine the moderating effects of individual variables such as job satisfaction on the relationship between leadership development interventions on organisational performance (Lee, 2018; Ohunakin & Olugbade, 2022; Ribeiro et al., 2021). Current literature lacks explanations on the conditions under which firms can maximise the effect of leadership development interventions on organisational performance (Lee, Lyubovnikova, et al., 2019; Wahyono et al., 2021). These conditions can be explained by considering the moderating role of individual level factors such as job satisfaction, which is an important research area (Lee, 2018; Ohunakin & Olugbade, 2022; Vito, 2018). Up to now, the extent of the impact of job satisfaction on leadership development interventions and organisational performance remains unclear (Kammerhoff et al., 2019; Ribeiro et al., 2021). Personal characteristics (e.g., job satisfaction) might also be examined as potential moderators of leadership development intervention impact on promoting and improving organisational performance (Ribeiro et al., 2021).

Underlying theories

Social learning theory (SLT) is based on the idea of motivating people to act by non-coercive means (Michael, 1993). Social learning theory seeks to motivate an individual's self-efficacy towards a positive performance. Self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief that he or she can perform well in a specific domain. Thus, a person who has high effectiveness in leadership will do better in this domain. In the context of leadership development, a leader has to develop a sense of having real influence on others. Thus, developing leadership skills is the basis of any interventions of leadership development (Turner & Baker, 2018). On the contrary, leaders who lack skills will hesitate to apply knowledge that they have learned, and hence apply it ineffectively (Michael, 1993). According to the social learning theory, interventions of leadership development will be most valuable to develop young leaders' skills due to the greater potential for forming the behaviours of young leaders and the lesser need to repair negative past experiences (Rachmawati & Lantu, 2014).

Training transfer theory is based on the notion that the success of training /development interventions depends on their use in specific work contexts and the extent of their application in the workplace after the training/development interventions (Muduli & Raval, 2018). Thus, scholars have argued that training and development interventions are of little value to organisations unless they are transferred in some way to performance (Sahoo & Mishra, 2019).

This process, i.e., using the knowledge and skills learned from the training/ development interventions, is called learning transfer or transfer of learning or training transfer or transfer of training (Sahoo & Mishra, 2019; Shen & Tang, 2018; Sitzmann & Weinhardt, 2019). It is argued that when leaders can apply the newly learned skills and knowledge to their work, and this practice becomes consistent over a period of time, it could be considered that the training is transferred to the workplace. Past research has found that training transfer is positively related to performance (Iqbal & Dastgeer, 2007). Thus, the extent to which the leadership skills learned are transferred to the work contexts and the extent of their actual application in improving organisational performance is an indicator of leadership development success (Ni et al., 2019; Sahoo & Mishra, 2019).

Identification of Leadership Development Interventions, Leadership Effectiveness and Job Satisfaction

Leadership trainings or professional development strategies indicate "the interventions which take into consideration management and leadership needs, and which are implemented using flexible, multiple training techniques within the context of work environment that are more likely to produce better outcomes" (Ayeleke et al., 2019, p. 19). Leadership development intervention is a powerful developmental intervention [that can change] to change leaders' behaviour (Halliwell et al., 2022). Organisational leadership development is defined as "planned and systematic efforts to improve the quality of leadership" (Amagoh, 2009, p. 990). LDI include (i) formal training programmes, and (ii) informal training/learning opportunities (Ayeleke et al., 2019; Vito, 2018). Formal training interventions are defined as "planned learning activities to achieve work-related competencies" (Vito, 2018, p. 3) while informal learning/training opportunities are defined as "employee-initiated on-the-job learning activities such as mentoring, coaching, and performance appraisal" (Vito, 2018, p. 3). Vito (2018) categorised LDI as formal (i.e., off-site training) and informal (i.e., 360° feedback and coaching, networking, mentoring, and action learning). A similar conceptualization has also

been adopted by Ayeleke et al. (2019) who claimed that leadership professional development interventions consisted of mentoring, coaching, action-based learning, performance appraisal, 360° feedback, and self-development projects. Lee (2018) conceptualised LDI as a set of three dimensions that include coaching, mentoring, and HRD planning. An identical conceptualization is also presented by Priest et al. (2018) and Bureau and Lawhead (2018) who claimed that mentoring, coaching, and advising are parts of LDI. Formal training interventions emphasize on delivering specific knowledge and skills as the most common interventions; however, informal training/learning interventions may be more valuable and comprise the important part of leadership development (Bureau & Lawhead, 2018; Priest et al., 2018; Vito, 2018). In order to properly assess how each intervention might be utilised to increase leaders' effectiveness and how together, it impacts organisational performance, Douglas et al. (2022) claimed that consideration of such three distinct informal developmental interventions are necessary. Thus, this study focuses on informal LDI as a means to leadership development. Ayeleke et al. (2019) based on a mixed-methods systematic review, mentioned that informal professional development interventions (i.e., coaching, mentoring, and performance appraisal) have been reported to be essential and act as key ingredients in building leadership capability. This conceptualization is consistent with the purpose of this study that informal LDI comprise a set of three distinct interventions which include coaching, mentoring, and performance appraisal that interact collectively to enhance leadership effectiveness and subsequently, organisational performance. This study regards LDI as a set of three interventions: coaching, mentoring, and performance appraisal.

Leadership effectiveness refers to "a leader's success in influencing followers towards achieving organisational objectives" (Amagoh, 2009, p. 994). Leadership effectiveness is an evolutionary process of interconnected events and responses to events (Amagoh, 2009). Leadership effectiveness evolves over time. Leaders start from different initial levels of effectiveness in their 'developmental trajectory', and the way in which they develop as leaders is different based on their differences in the initial effectiveness level, and leaders enter into any developmental experience in their career that might make them more or less effective as leaders (Day & Sin, 2011; Madanchian & Taherdoost, 2019). Leadership effectiveness assists leaders in applying their learnings in the workplace; thus, they are likely to experience small leadership successes or "performance accomplishments" (Halliwell et al., 2022).

Job satisfaction has become a major concern for many organisations that aim to remain competitive in today's challenging and rapidly changing organisational environment (e.g., Lee, 2018; Wei, 2022). Job satisfaction is defined as "the degree to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs" (Wulandari et al., 2015, p. 105). It is argued that employees with a greater level of job satisfaction are more likely to transfer the learned knowledge and skills into their workplace and improve their performance compared to the less satisfied trainees (Islam & Ahmed, 2019; Wahyono et al., 2021). Thus, at the organisational level, satisfied employees essentially contribute to the effectiveness of the organisation and the ultimate long-term success, while dissatisfied employees provide little help for organisational success (Adriano & Callaghan, 2022; Wahyono et al., 2021).

Hypotheses Development

The effect of leadership development interventions on organisational performance

Coaching focuses on a short-term leadership development process such as developing leaders' skill to direct daily objectives/tasks of an organisation (Hastings & Kane, 2018;

Tanskanen et al., 2018). Traynor (2018) mentioned that coaching can inspire and motivate leader, put new standards towards excellence in organisational performance, and coaching takes on the role of a counsellor to correct unsatisfactory performance. Hastings and Kane (2018) classified the expected organisational outcomes of coaching as: (i) Knowledge transfer and skills enhancement; (ii) enhanced motivation to lead and improve organisational performance; and (iii) increased cognitive flexibility to work within complex and changing organisational circumstances. Studies by Bureau and Lawhead (2018) and Vito (2018) argued that coaching played a critical function that can enhance leadership development by helping leaders to identify, apply, and enhance leadership behaviours and use their influence to lead others towards a better organisational performance. A study by Halliwell et al. (2022) showed that leadership coaching positively enhanced emotional intelligence, leadership effectiveness, and leadership behaviour, which all in turn led to improved organisational performance. Similarly, Ribeiro et al. (2021) found that managers' coaching skills had a positive impact on individual performance and commitment. Ni et al. (2019) found that high-quality interventions such as coaching intervention could provide leadership knowledge and the required skills for leadership developmental opportunities, which would then improve organisational performance. Their result is consistent with other scholars who argue that informal development interventions such as coaching is more valuable and comprise the important part of organisational outcomes (Bureau & Lawhead, 2018; Priest et al., 2018; Vito, 2018). Similarly, Guthrie and Meriwether (2018) argued that coaching is a viable tool associated with a myriad of positive organisational outcomes. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H1: There is a significant positive relationship between coaching and perceived organisational performance.

While coaching strongly focuses on individualized, agile leadership development process, mentoring is associated with general, long-term development of a leader (Cavanaugh et al., 2022; Hastings & Kane, 2018). Mentoring intervention is an important intervention for leadership development in achieving organisational performance because it is more likely to be effectively achieved in the work setting than in traditional training classroom settings (Aldulaimi, 2018; Ellinger & Ellinger, 2021). Mentoring creates a chance for leaders to talk about their organisational problems and challenges, and helps leaders form strategies and steps for making progress in organisational performance (Priest et al., 2018). Thus, mentoring could encourage leaders to aspire and assume new organisational improvements (Joo et al., 2018).
Ni et al. (2019) found that a high-quality intervention such as mentoring could give leadership knowledge and essential skills for leadership developing opportunities; thus, it would increase organisational performance. This finding is in line with the findings of other researchers who also found that mentoring, as an informal development intervention, is more valuable and plays a significant role in organisational performance (Bureau & Lawhead, 2018; Priest et al., 2018; Vito, 2018). Similarly, Le Comte and McClelland (2017) found that the majority of firms that participated in their study experienced an increase in their organisational performance as a result of a mentoring. Therefore, it is hypothesized that:

H2: There is a significant positive relationship between mentoring and perceived organisational performance.

Performance appraisal is an organised and standardized assessment of a leaders' performance on their allocated responsibilities in order to enhance motivation and self-confidence to achieve the organizational objectives (Chughtai, 2018; Kivipõld et al., 2021). Thus, performance appraisal should be guided by the performance management policy, and performance of leaders should be assessed based on quantifiable standards. They should also be given feedback on their performance and be advised on ways to achieve organisational goals (Amin et al., 2014; Belsito & Reutzel, 2020). Specifically, performance appraisal identifies the gap between the actual performance of leaders and the standard performance guided by organisational objectives (Kivipõld et al., 2021). Memon and Ghani (2021) found that performance appraisal had a strong and positive impact on organisational performance as it helped organisations to identify and improve/solve operational performance problems by bringing potential problems to management's attention and suggesting means to save cost and solve other issues. Kivipõld et al. (2021) found that organisational effectiveness depended on the design of a performance appraisal system. Belsito and Reutzel (2020) found that employees' satisfaction with performance appraisal enhanced the level of trust they had in their leaders, and thus this increased SMEs performance. Lee, Idris, et al. (2019) found that performance appraisal of leaders is a pivotal behaviour that helped organisations to create and sustain a competitive advantage, which is the only reliable way to achieve superior organisational performance. Therefore, it is hypothesized that

H3: There is a significant positive relationship between performance appraisal and perceived organisational performance.

Leadership Effectiveness as a Mediator between leadership development interventions and organisational performance

Organisations have used professional development interventions as a means to improve and enhance a leader's effectiveness, and this process is known as 'leadership development' (Day & Dragoni, 2015; Kivipõld et al., 2021). This is because LDI focused on expanding the capacity of leaders to be effective in their leadership roles (Day & Dragoni, 2015). Leadership effectiveness is a behavioural means to facilitate task performance of followers, put it differently, leadership behaviours is important for successful completion of project (work) goals (Kragt & Guenter, 2018; Mahmood et al., 2020). Thus, leadership effectiveness can be considered as a mediator towards improved performance. Based on the training transfer theory, Hastings and Kane (2018) claimed that LDI such as coaching and mentoring could help leaders transfer what they had learned from leadership development activities to improve daily activities. Similarly, Bureau and Lawhead (2018) argued that LDI such as coaching, mentoring, and performance appraisal play critical functions in improving leadership effectiveness in various aspects such as critical thinking, reflective thinking, effective reasoning, realistic self-appraisal, building meaningful relationships, interdependence, collaboration, understanding and appreciation of cultural and human differences, social responsibility, and communicating effectively, which are all important drivers in improving performance.

A study by Halliwell et al (2022) found that coaching positively enhances emotional intelligence, leadership self-efficacy (effectiveness), and leadership behaviour. Another study by Kivipõld et al (2021) found that improvement in leadership effectiveness depended on LDI such as the design of a performance appraisal system. Guthrie and Meriwether (2018) found that LDI such as coaching and mentoring were important to align leadership development

objectives with a performance assessment plan and to evaluate the shortage in the leadership effectiveness. Similarly, Aldulaimi (2018) in a qualitative case study found positive evidence that showed LDI could enhance leadership effectiveness. Meanwhile, Mahmood et al. (2020) found that leadership effectiveness has a significant impact on organisational performance. Sayyadi (2019) found that effective leaders could contribute positively to the effectiveness of knowledge management as a driver of organisational performance. Anning-Dorson et al. (2017) found that product innovation and leadership effectiveness were positively related to organisational development (i.e., financial and non-financial performances). Furthermore, leadership effectiveness enhanced the strategic fit between a firm's strategy and business environment to achieve better organisational performance. Therefore, it is hypothesized that

H4: Leadership effectiveness mediate the relationship between coaching and perceived organisational performance.
H5: Leadership effectiveness mediate the relationship between mentoring and perceived organisational performance.
H6: Leadership effectiveness mediate the relationship between performance appraisal and perceived organisational performance.

Job satisfaction as a moderator between leadership development interventions and organisational performance

Lee and Lee (2018) mentioned that job satisfaction increase commitment, and enhance organisational performance. Ren and Chadee (2017) stated that job satisfaction enhance self-efficacy, lead to strengthen organisational performance. Given that that employees' job satisfaction is linked to leadership behaviour (e.g., Wahyono et al., 2021; Wulandari et al., 2015), Wahyono et al. (2021) mentioned that excellent organisational performance can be attained as the result of job satisfaction at the individual, group, and organisational levels. In this context, according to the training transfer theory, when employees have a greater level of job satisfaction, they are more likely to transfer the learned knowledge and skills from leaders/trainers or supervisors into their workplace compared to the less satisfied employees, and they are more motivated to use their personal development to generate new ideas at work which will then have a positive effect on organisational performance (Islam & Ahmed, 2019). In the same vein, the social learning theory explains that trainees with high level of satisfaction have high motivations to craft satisfactory and productive work experience; thus, they will be more satisfied with leadership's instructions. At the organisational level, satisfied employees contribute essentially to the effectiveness of the organisation and the ultimate long-term performance by comply and commitment to leaders' instructions; on the contrary, dissatisfied employees provide little help for organisational success (Wahyono et al., 2021).
In the literature review's micro-view, a number of earlier studies revealed the important relationship between job satisfaction and performance. For example, Kammerhoff et al. (2019) found that leadership was positively connected with job satisfaction and job satisfaction strengthen organisational performance positively. Similarly, Wahyono et al. (2021) found that leadership development intervention impact positively on commitment to change and results in "improved performance' through the moderating role of job satisfaction. Islam and Ahmed (2019) found that highly satisfied employees have high intention to work with their leaders who coach or mentor them to enhance their skills and knowledge, and they became motivated to share the acquired knowledge to improve performance. Shen and Tang (2018) found that job satisfaction strengthened the effect on

organisational performance. Chhabra (2018) found that satisfied employees react more favourably towards organisational efforts aimed at demonstrating care and support, thus strengthen organisational performance. In the same vein, some studies have confirmed a positive relationship between LDI and job satisfaction. For example, Wahyono et al. (2021) found a positive, strengthening effect between job satisfaction and leadership. Similarly, Koohang et al. (2017) found that effective LDI influenced both job satisfaction and strengthen organisational performance. The study of Matsuo (2022), found that perceived LDI such as supervisory support were strengthen by job satisfaction. Similarly, Frye et al. (2020) found that LDI significantly enhanced employee job satisfaction, which in turn, strengthen employee commitment and organisational performance. Therefore, it is hypothesizes that

H7: Job satisfaction moderate the relationship between coaching and perceived organisational performance.
H8: Job satisfaction moderate the relationship between mentoring and perceived organisational performance.
H9: Job satisfaction moderate the relationship between performance appraisal and perceived organisational performance

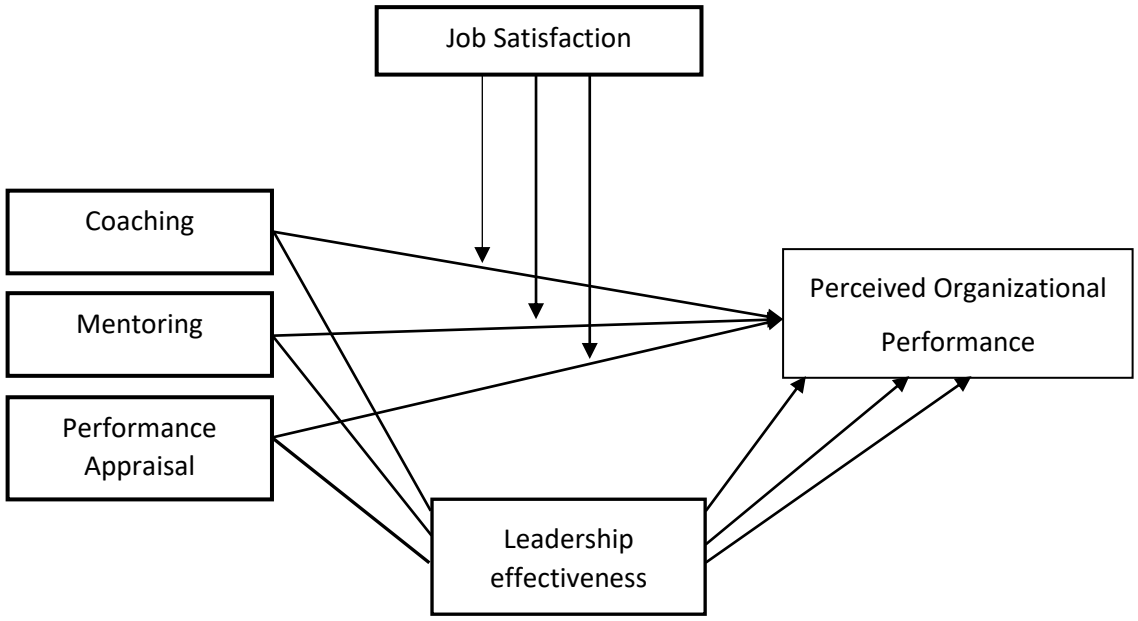

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework

Methodology

Population and Sampling

Most current research on leadership development interventions has been conducted in the context of developed countries (Soomro et al., 2019). It is argued that considering the factors that predict effective leadership in the context of developing countries would contribute to the generalizability of the training transfer theory and theoretical models by providing evidence relating to the relationships between leadership development interventions, leadership effectiveness, and organisational performance (Soomro et al., 2019). Saudi was chosen as the research field for this study. This study was conducted on the Saudi services firms' sector, specifically the transportation sector. The targeted population were the service

firms. All measures used in this study reflect the employees at the transportation firm as the unit of analysis. The targeted sample frame for this study was drawn from the list of transportation firms operating in Saudi Arabia.

According to the General Authority for Statistics (GAS, 2021), the total number of employees in various economic activities in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is 8,190,170. According to the figures, 83% work in three regions: the central, Makkah, and Eastern regions. These three regions are considered the largest economically in Saudi Arabia. A list of services firms from the database of Chambers of Commerce in the three regions was used as a sample frame for services firms in Saudi Arabia. Probability sampling using multi stages cluster sampling technique was used in this study. Multistage cluster sampling is preferred when a wide area and a large population size make it impossible to develop a sample frame for the subjects. In this type of sampling, the population was divided into smaller groups known as clusters.

Each region was considered a cluster for sampling selection in the first stage of the study. The services firms listed in the Chambers of Commerce database located in the three regions (i.e., the Central region, the Makkah region, and the Eastern region) were used in this study to develop the sampling frame. According to the database, the total number of employees in the services firms in the three regions is 4,835,030. According to the Chambers of Commerce in the Central region, the large services firms (called excellent firms in Saudi) are firms with sales turnover exceeding SR50 million or full-time employees exceeding 249 workers. Using sales turnover and the number of employees as the criteria to choose the firms for the survey, the total number of employees in large firms in the three regions is 1,595,560.

The second stage involved selecting one city from the clustered regions. The simple random sampling method was used to choose the city. The sample random sampling was utilised by listing all the cities in all three clustered regions and then randomly selecting one city to represent every region. The city of Riyadh was chosen to represent the Riyadh region; the city of Makkah was selected to represent the Makkah region, and the city of Dammam was chosen to represent the Eastern region.

In the third stage, all transportation firms were listed to select one service type from the list. This selection allowed data to be collected from a more homogenous group than the population as a whole, which in turn, supports the validity of the results (Sekaran & Bougie, 2016). The transportation firms from this list were then chosen randomly to represent the three regions.

In the fourth stage, simple random sampling was used to choose one transportation firm representing each city in each clustered region. Hafil firm was selected to represent the Riyadh region; Sadr firm was chosen to represent the Makkah region, and Munalwalah was firm selected to represent the Eastern region. Table 1. shows the number of employees in the three firms.

Table 1
Number of employees in the selected firms

Region	**Selected firms**	**Total employees in the firm**
Riyadh Region	Hafil	490
Makkah Region	Sadr	321
Eastern region	Munalwalah	284
Total		1095

Table 1. shows the number of employees in the three firms, which stands at 1095 (Hafil firm = 490, Sadr firm = 321, and Munalwalah firm = 284). Using the Sproull formula to calculate the response rate, the final sample size from each firm is as follows: (Hafil firm = 172, Sadr firm = 113, and Munalwalah firm = 100), and the total was 385 employees.

Research instrument

A five-section questionnaire was developed for data collection. Section A comprises twenty-six items. Eleven items measure coaching, these items have adopted from the study of Arnold et al. (2000). Eight measure mentoring; these items have adopted from the studies of Joo et al. (2018); Traynor (2018). Seven measure performance appraisals, these items have adopted from the study of Amin et al. (2014). Similarly, Section B is composed of eight items that measure leadership effectiveness, these items have adopted from the study of Day and Sin (2011); Traynor (2018). Section C is composed of eight items related to measuring organisational performance, these items have adopted from the studies of (Anning-Dorson et al., 2017); Amin et al. (2014). While Section D is composed of seven items that measure job satisfaction, these items have adopted from the studies of Islam and Ahmed (2019); Ren and Chadee (2017); and Chen (2016). Finally, Section E is on the respondent profile. The questionnaire items were designed using a closed response approach. Respondents were asked to select a specific option to state their level of agreement or disagreement with/on the statements given. Each statement is anchored on a 5-point Likert scale, where 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree (Sekaran, 2003). To encourage respondents to complete the questionnaire items, brief sentences and simple words were used in the questionnaire. A cover letter was also attached to explain the study's objectives and assure the respondents that the information provided would be used only for academic and research purposes.

Data Analysis and Results

Respondent Profile

In terms of age, 31.95% of respondents were in the age group between 21-30, 24.41% of respondents were in the age group between 31-40, 22.43% of respondents were in the age group 51 and above, while 21.30% of respondents were in the age group 41 -50. In terms of gender, 62.86% of the respondents were male and 37.14% were female. Furthermore, 35.32% of the respondents hold high school certificate or below, Diploma (21.04%), Bachelor's degree (24.68%), master's degree (6.49%), PhD (2.08%), and others (10.39%). In terms of job status, 86.49% of respondents were full-time employees, while 13.51% of respondents were part-time employees. In terms of job title, 65.97% of respondents were employees, 20% were supervisors, and 14.03% were under the group "others". In terms of work experience in this company, (37.14%) of respondents had experienced between 11 - 15 years, (26.75%) of respondents had experienced between 6 - 10 years, (15.84%) of respondents had experienced less than 5 years, (15.06%) of respondents had experienced between 16 - 20 years, while (5.21%) of respondents had experienced more than 21 years.

It can be noted here that generally the respondents cover both male and female, and cover the age groups between 20-50 and above years, thus give a good indicator about generalizing the research finding to the employees at Saudi transportation firms. Most of the respondents were educated. Most of the respondents (86.49%) were full-time employees. Furthermore, most of the respondents have long years in work exceeding 5 years at least in their current job (84%) and most of the respondent also have experience in other works exceeded 5 years at least (72%). The intended respondents were thus a good fit for this study. This indicates

that the respondents are qualified since they possess the necessary expertise for this study to be conducted. As per Noman and Basiruddin (2021) recommendations, this increases the validity of the data collected because the responses were within their domain of expertise.

Assessment of The Measurement Model

The content validity was ensured through the evaluation process by a group of four academics experts in Malaysia and a group of 4 employees at Saudi services firms were used to assess the preliminary whole questionnaire. Additionally, factor loading of the items was used, as advised by Hair et al. (2006) to confirm that each item could assess a certain construct. Table 2 demonstrates that all of the items' loadings were highly loaded and that the factor loading of the items surpassed the advised value of 0.70.

By comparing items and observed variables, Cronbach's Alpha has been used to evaluate the internal consistency of the entire scale. Item variance, which reveals item reliability, is explained by the underlying latent variable (Gotz et al., 2010). Cronbach's Alpha is generally agreed to be 0.70 (Henseler et al., 2015). However, for exploratory study, a Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of 0.6 may be adequate (Hair et al., 2010). Table 2 displays the Cronbach's Alpha values for all items ranged from 0.860 to 0.946, which was greater than the minimum threshold criterion of Hair et al. (2010) and Henseler et al. (2015).

Convergent validity denotes that the group of items should represent the same underlying variable, which is supported by the fact that they are all one-dimensional (Henseler et al., 2009). The "Average Variance Extracted" (AVE) technique, as suggested by Hair et al. (2006) and Henseler et al. (2009) was used in this study to test convergent validity. The average variance retrieved frequently from the observed items of a variable is referred to as the AVE (Hair et al., 2013). The average variance explained (AVE) for each variable in Table 2. was higher than the suggested value of 0.5 (50 percent), indicating that on average, each variable could account for more than half of the variance in its measuring items (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 2
Internal consistency and convergence validity results

Constructs	Items	F.L	CA	CR	AVE
Coaching	Coa1	0.781	0.946	0.954	0.651
	Coa10	0.829			
	Coa11	0.832			
	Coa2	0.735			
	Coa3	0.771			
	Coa4	0.826			
	Coa5	0.789			
	Coa6	0.828			
	Coa7	0.825			
	Coa8	0.806			
	Coa9	0.849			
Job Satisfaction	Job_Sat1	0.731	0.883	0.909	0.588
	Job_Sat2	0.735			
	Job_Sat3	0.767			

	Job_Sat4	0.789			
	Job_Sat5	0.762			
	Job_Sat6	0.752			
	Job_Sat7	0.827			
Leadership Effectiveness	Lea_Eff1	0.708	0.902	0.921	0.595
	Lea_Eff2	0.753			
	Lea_Eff3	0.808			
	Lea_Eff4	0.801			
	Lea_Eff5	0.720			
	Lea_Eff6	0.718			
	Lea_Eff7	0.843			
	Lea_Eff8	0.809			
Mentoring	Men1	0.884	0.901	0.922	0.628
	Men2	0.754			
	Men3	0.798			
	Men4	0.731			
	Men5	0.804			
	Men6	0.793			
	Men7	0.772			
Organizational Performance	Org_Per1	0.746	0.860	0.891	0.506
	Org_Per2	0.754			
	Org_Per3	0.722			
	Org_Per4	0.739			
	Org_Per5	0.864			
	Org_Per6	0.731			
	Org_Per7	0.736			
	Org_Per8	0.794			
Performance Appraisal	Per_App1	0.758	0.906	0.926	0.642
	Per_App2	0.761			
	Per_App3	0.805			
	Per_App4	0.752			
	Per_App5	0.866			
	Per_App6	0.902			
	Per_App7	0.752			

By measuring the heterotrait-monotrait ratio (HTMT) of the correlations, HTMT assesses the discriminant validity (Henseler et al., 2015). In particular, it compares the geometric-mean correlation between indicators within the same concept versus that between indicators across constructs. Inter-construct correlation estimates are made using HTMT values (Hair et al., 2017). Henseler et al (2015) state that the HTMT values need to be less than 0.90. The top threshold of HTMT values was less than 0.90, as shown in Table 3. As a result, the assessment of discriminant validity also confirms that the measurement model meets the HTMT criteria for acceptance.

Table 3
Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratio (HTMT)

Constructs	Coaching	Job Satisfaction	Leadership Effectiveness	Mentoring	Organizational Performance	Performance Appraisal
Coaching						
Job Satisfaction	0.435					
Leadership Effectiveness	0.395	0.501				
Mentoring	0.338	0.424	0.330			
Organizational Performance	0.519	0.853	0.593	0.498		
Performance Appraisal	0.344	0.442	0.487	0.296	0.558	

Assessment of The Structural Model

R square reflects the variance in the endogenous variable/construct(s) that is explained by the exogenous variable/construct(s) (Henseler et al., 2009). Table 4 shows the R^2 values for endogenous variables. The R^2 values were as follow: organisational performance is 0.677 and leadership effectiveness is 0.273, The R^2 values for the two endogenous variables were above 25%, which are at the substantial level, thus, demonstrates a high prediction level as recommended by (Cohen, 1988).

Table 4
R-square result

Endogenous Variables	R Square	R Square Adjusted
Leadership Effectiveness	0.273	0.267
Organizational Performance	0.677	0.670

Substantial > 0.25; Moderate > 0.12, Weak > 0.02 (Cohen & Manion 1989)

The change in R^2 value when a particular predictor construct is removed from the model is measured using effect size (Sarstedt et al., 2017). Table 5 shows that coaching, mentoring and performance appraisal have small effect on leadership effectiveness (f^2 = 0.052, 0.024, and 0.138) respectively. Furthermore, coaching, leadership effectiveness, mentoring and performance appraisal have small effect on organisational performance (f^2 = 0.046, 0.041, 0.039, and 0.044) respectively.

Table 5
F-square result

Exogenous Variables	Leadership Effectiveness	Organizational Performance
Coaching	0.052	0.046
Leadership Effectiveness		0.041
Mentoring	0.024	0.039
Performance Appraisal	0.138	0.044

Large: f2 effect size > 0.34; Medium effect > 0.14; Small: 0.0 > 0.01 (Cohen, 1988)

The structural model's predictive accuracy has been evaluated using predictive relevance (Q^2 value) (Sarstedt et al., 2017). As recommended by Stone (1974), the Q^2 value evaluation was done to observe the endogenous variable items' predictive powers. As a general rule, the model is predictively relevant if the Q^2 value for a certain endogenous variable is greater than zero, indicating that the route model's predictive accuracy is suitable for this particular construct (Sarstedt et al., 2017). Table 6 demonstrates that the structural model used in this study has strong predictive significance because all of the endogenous variables have Q^2 values greater than zero.

Table 6
Result of predictive relevance

Endogenous Variables	CCR Q^2 (=1-SSE/SSO)	CCC Q^2 (=1-SSE/SSO)
Leadership Effectiveness	0.159	0.483
Organizational Performance	0.333	0.366

CCC=Construct Cross-validated Communality, CCR=Construct Cross-validated Redundancy

Table 7 shows the path coefficient assessment results for the proposed direct relationships in the structural model. Table 4.18 shows that all direct relationships were significant. All the three supported hypotheses were significant at level p< 0.01 (exceed the standardised value 2.58), in positive sign directions. The path coefficient value (β) for the three hypotheses were between 0.125 to 0.143. The highest significant path (p=0.000) was found between coaching and organisational performance (β=0.143 or 14% and t= 3.943). The second highest significant path (p=0.001) was found between performance appraisal and organisational performance (β=0.142 or 14% and t= 3.405). The least significant relationship (p=0.001) was found between mentoring and organisational performance (β=0.125 or 13% and t=3.323).

Table 7
Path coefficient result (Direct effect)

Hypotheses	Beta/ OS	SM	SD	T	P	Decision
Coaching -> Organizational Performance	0.143	0.149	0.036	3.943	0.000**	Significant
Mentoring -> Organizational Performance	0.125	0.125	0.037	3.323	0.001**	Significant
Performance Appraisal -> Organizational Performance	0.142	0.145	0.042	3.405	0.001**	Significant

Significant: **p < 0.01, *p < 0.05

Table 8 shows that all mediating relationship were significant. The mediating paths for coaching -> leadership effectiveness -> organizational performance showed statistically significant relationship as the p=0.015 (<0.05) and their corresponding β=0.030 and t= 2.434 (exceed the standardised value 1.96). Similarly, the mediating paths for mentoring -> leadership effectiveness -> organizational performance showed statistically significant relationship as the p=0.046 (< 0.05) and their corresponding β=0.039 and t= 1.985 (exceed the standardised value 1096). The mediating path for performance appraisal -> leadership effectiveness -> organizational performance was found statistically significant as the p=0.006 (<0.01) and their corresponding β=0.047 and t= 2.778 (exceed the standardised value 2.58).

Table 8
Mediation Analysis

Hypotheses	Beta / OS	S M	SD	LL	UL	T	P	Decision	Mediation
Coaching -> Leadership Effectiveness -> Organizational Performance	0.030	0.031	0.012	0.009	0.055	2.434	0.015*	Significant	Supported
Mentoring -> Leadership Effectiveness -> Organizational Performance	0.039	0.038	0.010	0.005	0.044	1.985	0.046*	Significant	Supported
Performance Appraisal -> Leadership Effectiveness -> Organizational Performance	0.047	0.049	0.017	0.016	0.082	2.778	0.006**	Significant	Supported

Significant: **p < 0.01, *p < 0.05

Table 9 shows that two out of the three moderating relationships were supported. The moderating relationship coaching*job satisfaction -> organizational performance was statistically significant as the t-value was 2.121 which is higher than the standardised value 1.96, the p<0.034 which is less than 0.05, and the corresponding regression weight was β=0.087. Accordingly, the moderation effect for job satisfaction between coaching and organisational performance is significant, and the hypothesis H7 was supported. Table 4.20 also shows that the moderating relationship performance appraisal*job satisfaction -> organizational performance was statistically significant as the t-value was 2.057 which is higher than the standardised value 1.96, the p<0.040 which is less than 0.05, and the corresponding regression weight was β=0.086. Accordingly, the moderation effect for job satisfaction between performance appraisal and organisational performance is significant, and the hypothesis H9 was supported. Meanwhile, Table 4.20 shows that the moderating relationship mentoring*job satisfaction -> organizational performance was statistically insignificant as the t-value was 0.041 which is less than the standardised value 1.96, the p<0.967 which is higher than 0.05, and the corresponding regression weight was β=-0.002. Accordingly, the moderation effect for job satisfaction between mentoring and organisational performance is insignificant, and the hypothesis H8 was not supported.

Table 9
Path coefficient result (Moderating effect)

Hypotheses		Beta/OS	SM	SD	T	P	Decision
C*JS -> Performance	Organizational	0.087	0.086	0.041	2.121	0.034*	Significant
M*JS -> Performance	Organizational	-0.002	0.006	0.052	0.041	0.967	Not Significant
PA*JS -> Performance	Organizational	0.086	0.079	0.042	2.057	0.040*	Significant

Significant: **p < 0.01, *p < 0.05

Conclusions

This study argues that coaching is positively associated with perceived organisational performance. The results from an empirical data analysis showed that there is a significant and positive association between coaching and perceived organisational performance. Thus, hypothesis H1 is supported. Basically, the results are consistent with the social learning theory that argues that coaching is an important source of feedback and a basic principle for developing leaders which in turn impacts on organisational performance (Vito, 2018). This result is in line with Maamari et aL (2022) who found that coaching can provide a significant effect on organisational performance by creating a supportive organisational behaviour for leadership development. Their findings parallel those of Halliwell et al (2022) whose study findings showed a position association between leadership coaching and an enhanced organisational performance. The results also support the findings of Ribeiro et al (2021) who found that coaching impacts positively an individual's performance and commitment. The data analysis also showed a significant and positive association between mentoring and perceived organisational performance. Thus, hypothesis H2 was supported. This finding is consistent with social learning theory, arguing that leadership mentoring interventions could encourage leaders to aspire and assume new organisational improvements (Joo et al., 2018). This result is consistent with expectations of training transfer theory, arguing that mentoring plays a critical function in transferring leaders' knowledge, ideas, and experiences to organisational knowledge; thus, mentoring can strongly enhance organisational development (Bureau & Lawhead, 2018). This finding is parallel with that of (Cavanaugh et al., 2022). who found that mentoring led to improved job satisfaction and organisational performance. Ellinger and Ellinger (2021); Ayeleke et al (2019) also found that mentoring could improve individual competence and organisational performance. Vito (2018) found that mentoring, as an informal leadership development intervention, is more valuable in achieving positive organisational outcomes. The data analysis showed that there is a significant and positive association between performance appraisal and perceived organisational performance. Thus, hypothesis H3 was supported. This finding is consistent with social learning theory which indicates that performance appraisal can help identify the gap between the required knowledge, skills, and expected performance; this in turn can be used to design new interventions for leadership development that boosts organisational performance (Bureau & Lawhead, 2018). This is also supported by the theory of training transfer which states that a systematic performance appraisal could provide evidence of organisational performance improvement (transfer of training) to assess the efficiency of leadership development experience towards the expected organisational outcomes (Kivipõld et al., 2021).

This study argues that leadership effectiveness is a mediator between leadership development interventions (i.e., coaching, mentoring and performance appraisal) and perceived organisational performance. The empirical data analysis shows that leadership effectiveness mediates the relationship between coaching and perceived organisational performance, the relationship between mentoring and perceived organisational performance, and the relationship between performance appraisal and perceived organisational performance. Thus, hypotheses H4, H5 and H6 were supported. The current results also indicated that leadership development interventions i.e., coaching, mentoring and performance appraisal, would indirectly influence the perceived organisational performance through leadership effectiveness. Leadership development interventions as claimed by Day and Dragoni (2015) expand the capacity of leaders to be effective in their leadership roles. Leadership effectiveness in this regard can be considered as a behavioural means to facilitate task performance of followers; thus, it is an important tool for successful attainment of organisational objectives (Kragt & Guenter, 2018; Mahmood et al., 2020). These results are consistent with the training transfer theory; for instance, coaching and mentoring could help leaders transfer what they had learned from leadership development activities to improve their daily activities. Further, the leader's performance appraisal is important to plan for leadership behaviour modification to improve leadership effectiveness. Hence, there is evidence to support behaviour modification (Hastings & Kane, 2018). In short, the current study has proved that leadership effectiveness plays a major role in the relationship between coaching, mentoring, performance appraisal and perceived organisational performance.

This study argues job satisfaction is a moderator between leadership development interventions (i.e., coaching and performance appraisal) and perceived organisational performance. The results showed that job satisfaction moderated the relationship between coaching and perceived organisational performance, and the relationship between performance appraisal and perceived organisational performance. However, job satisfaction does not moderate he relationship between mentoring and perceived organisational performance. Thus, hypotheses H7 and H9 were supported at level of 0.05 of significance, while H8 was not supported. Hence, the theory of training transfer is supported, namely that highly satisfied employees are more likely to transfer their knowledge and skills f to their workplace, and they are more motivated to use their personal development to generate new ideas at work to ultimately generate a positive effect on organisational performance (Islam & Ahmed, 2019). According to the social learning theory, highly satisfied employees generally possess greater motivation to craft satisfactory and productive work experience; thus, they will be more satisfied with the leadership's instructions and guidance. At the organisational level, satisfied employees contribute essentially to the effectiveness of their organisation by complying and committing to their leaders; the inverse is true wherein dissatisfied employees contribute little for organisational success (Wahyono et al., 2021). The result implies that employees who have high level of job satisfaction often attempt to enhance and improve their skills and abilities, which eventually multiply individual performance and heighten the effectiveness of leadership on performance.

Limited studies have examined leadership effectiveness as a mediator between coaching, mentoring, performance appraisal and perceived organisational performance. The study confirmed the mediating role of leadership effectiveness between coaching, mentoring, performance appraisal, and perceived organisational performance. Hence, the study adds to the body of knowledge on the importance of leadership effectiveness as a mechanism that explains how coaching, mentoring, and performance appraisal affect perceived organisational

performance. The study also provides empirical evidence based on the social learning theory that developing leadership effectiveness is the basis for any interventions of leadership development and most valuable to develop leaders' effectiveness by transforming their behaviours (Rachmawati & Lantu, 2014; Turner & Baker, 2018). This study also supports the training transfer theory that the success of leadership development interventions depends on their use in specific work contexts and the extent of their application post-development interventions. Empirical evidence was also produced to indicate the moderating role of job satisfaction in the relationship between coaching, mentoring, performance appraisal and perceived organisational performance. The extent of the impact of job satisfaction on leadership development interventions and performance remained unclear before this study was conducted (Kammerhoff et al., 2019; Ribeiro et al., 2021). Hence, the current research filled the research gap on the role of job satisfaction as a moderator between coaching, mentoring, performance appraisal and perceived organisational performance. This study confirmed that job satisfaction can maximise the effect of leadership development interventions on organisational performance. Future research can examine the role of job satisfaction on other aspects of organisational performance. The findings point to leadership coaching intervention to successfully improve performance in the areas that is lacking. In fact, coaching could facilitate the leader's learning, leading to transformation in their behaviour. Thus, HR managers could tailor coaching developmental process in in the form of short to medium-term counselling relationship focused on sustained development and modification in the leaders' behaviour by allowing them to participate in planning and decision making for specific tasks, which together can improve organisational performance. The findings also point to the importance of leadership mentoring intervention as a long-term relationship that supports leaders in all areas of professional development and growth during their career progression. Thus, HR managers could focus on providing leaders with teaching, counselling, psychological support based on proactive leadership development that enhance their strategic response to internal problems. The current findings are useful for HR managers in that, that they can use accepted performance appraisal system to assess their leaders' performance and identify the type of development interventions needed (coaching or mentoring).

Implications for Theory and Practice

The study contributed to the body of knowledge on the importance of coaching, mentoring, performance appraisal, leadership effectiveness, job satisfaction as predictors of perceived organisational performance. Additionally, empirical evidences are provided to support the training transfer theory, namely that transfer of development interventions has a horizontal link with organisational performance. It was concluded that leadership development interventions can improve performance, but it is not a primary organisational outcome; thus, development interventions should be translated to organisational performance, and not to only emphasise learning. The results of this study also suggest that coaching, mentoring, performance appraisal are motivational mechanisms in boosting perceived organisational performance. In other words, coaching, mentoring, and performance appraisal are correlated with perceived organisational performance. This study also contributes to existing literature that on the relationship between coaching (e.g., Halliwell et al., 2022; Lee & Lee, 2018; Maamari et al., 2022; Ribeiro et al., 2021), mentoring (e.g., Cavanaugh et al., 2022; Lee & Lee, 2018), performance appraisal (e.g., Belsito & Reutzel, 2020; Memon & Ghani, 2021), and perceived organisational performance. Further, the study filled the existing research gap on

the relationship between leadership development interventions (i.e., coaching, mentoring, performance appraisal) and perceived organisational performance (e.g., Ayeleke et al., 2019; Cavanaugh et al., 2022; Douglas et al., 2022). It was also found that leaders who underwent development programmes (i.e., coaching, mentoring, performance appraisal) are more likely to achieve better organisational performance.

The findings have also significant practical implications for the managers of the sample study. Specifically, they provide a deeper understanding of how leadership development interventions i.e., coaching, mentoring and performance appraisal, could enhance the overall organisation performance of service firms. Further, coaching, mentoring and performance appraisal are found to be predictors of perceived organisational performance. It may be possible to help HR managers in the Saudi service firms and other interested parties formulate appropriate strategies and design effective interventions to ensure performance improvement by leveraging their leaders as human capital. This could help them develop proper training and development strategies to create effective development interventions to enhance organisational performance. Moreover, recognising determinants of leadership effectiveness at Saudi service firms may guide their HR managers to design effective strategies that include sustainable leadership development solutions, and help managers increase the quality of HR programmes by focusing on supporting individuals' satisfaction and their behaviour. The study in effect offered managerial insights, such as coaching, mentoring and performance appraisal, to enhance leadership and organisational performance. Hence, service firms could focus simultaneously on the three interventions of leadership development discussed in the study to benefit from their accumulated impact on organisational performance.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

First, a survey questionnaire method was used to collect data and which assessed how strongly the respondents agreed or disagreed with the statements. This approach has a number of limitations, particularly in terms of its accuracy as the respondents may have wanted to project a good image towards their leaders/supervisors' performance, rather than reflecting their true feelings or their perceptions of the quality of the leadership. Further, the respondents' feedback is limited by the provided scale and their answers restricted by the questionnaire. The leader's perspective should be considered in future research. Leaders may have their own views and opinions on the impact of coaching, mentoring and performance appraisal on organisational performance. Second, the study was based on cross-sectional design in which all variables were measured at one point in time. This type of design, however, does not factor the long-term observation of the impact of leadership development interventions on organisational performance. A longitudinal study would be a good way to assess the cause-effect relationship among the variables. This makes it possible to observe the organisational performance of firms over time and provides a clearer picture of how the factors relate to one another. The respondents of the study were employees of selected service firms in KSA. Hence, the generalisability of the findings is limited as managers, supervisors and workers were not interviewed to offer their views on factors that affect organisational performance. Only employees were surveyed on the suggested relationship. Fourth, this study has only focused on informal leadership development interventions to measure the perceived organisational performance of service firms. Formal interventions for leadership development have not been considered in this study. Future studies should extend the study framework to include formal leadership development interventions to measure

perceived organisational performance. Formal interventions may also have a strong impact on organisational performance.

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