The relationship between new leadership styles and organization: An empirical investigation of transformational and transactional leadership

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by

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This Thesis is dedicated to

H.R.H. Crown Prince General Mete'b Ben Abdullah Ben Abdul Aziz,

Commandant of the King Khalid Military Academy.

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ABSTRACT

The relationship between new leadership styles and organizations. An empirical investigation of transformational and transactional leadership.

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The main aim of this research is to assess the impact of organizations upon leadership style. The leadership styles studied were Bass (1985a).

Secondary aims were to examine differences in leadership styles within organizations and the impact of leadership styles upon outcome variables.

Four organizations participated in the survey. Profit, semi-profit, semi non-profit and non-profit were represented respectively by a sample of banks, industrial corporations, telecommunications and civil service organizations. Data were gathered from all echelons, yielding a total return of 505.

Transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership and leader effectivenes were measured using Bass and Avolio's (1989) Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire. Satisfaction with supervision was measured using the Index of Organizational Reaction (Smith, 1962, 1976). Intrinsic job motivation scale (Warr, Cook and Wall, 1979) scale was used to measure employee motivation. Job related tension was measured using Job Related Tension (Khan, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek and Rosenthal, 1964).

Analyses relied mainly on Oneway Analysis of Variance. The results show clear evidence of variation of leadership style between the four organizations though mainly pertaining to examples.

It is concluded that theories of new leadership are incomplete without reference to contingency factors. The theoretical and empirical implications of the results are discussed.

".. without leadership alert and sensitive to change, we are all bogged up or lose our way".

<div align="right">Franklin D. Roosevelt</div>

Napoleon declared that an army of rabbits commanded by a lion could be better than an army of lions commanded by a rabbit.

INTRODUCTION CHAPTER

INTRODUCTION

"leadership is a word on everyone's lips. The young attack it and the old grow wistful for it. Parents have lost it and police seek it. Experts claim it and artists spurn it, while scholars want it. Philosophers reconcile it (as authority) with liberty and theologians demonstrate the compatibility with conscience. If bureaucrats pretend they have it, politicians wish they did. Everybody agrees that there is less of it than there used to be".

(Bennis and Nanus, 1985, p1)

"Major facing a crucial test of leadership" (Financial Times, 2 Nov. 92, No. 31).

What is leadership? Is it possible to define it or is it like the weather - something you can talk about but you cannot do anything about it. Is it possible to train people to be leaders or do they need to be born with it?

Leadership is difficult to define. Burns (1978) states "Leadership continues to be the the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth " p,2. Bundel (1930) regarded leadership as 'The art of including others to do what one wants them to do'. Tead (1935) defined it as 'The activity of influencing people to cooperate toward some goal which they come to find desirable'. According to Truman (1958, p.139 cited in Bass, 1990(a)) 'A leader is a man who has the ability to get other people to do what they don't want to do, and like it'.

Leaders are said to be different from ordinary managers. They focus up on to the articulation of mission, direction setting, vision, and strategic thinking. Managers concentrate on the administrative functions of achieving the goals, administering policies and procedures, and monitoring and controlling (Krantz, 1990, p.188). Leaders empower organizational members, whereas managers create compliance.

Old leadership sometimes referred to as transactional leadership focuses upon exchanging process between leaders and followers. This pattern of leadership has dominated leadership research since World War II. Transactional leadership focuses upon bargaining and implicit contract between the leader and follower. It is concerned with short problem solving and decision making. Therefore, it has been considered as more associated with management than leadership (Bryman, 1992).

What is needed, in Burn's terms, is not old style transactional leadership, but a new transformational leadership. Transactional leaders were "fine for earlier eras of expanding markets and non-existent competition" (Tichy and Devanna, 1990, pXII). In contrast to transactional, transformational leadership is about change and innovation, inspiring extraordinary achievements and exceeding all expectable limits.

The topic of this research is Bass's (1985a) transformational leadership theory. The theory is described in detail in this thesis.

The primary aim of the present study was to investigate the impact of organization upon leadership styles. A further aim was to examine the relationship between leadership styles and outcome variables such as employee motivation, leader effectiveness, job related tension and satisfaction with the leader.

The study breaks fairly new ground in that it is concerned with so called 'new leadership' styles and is based upon Bass's concepts of transformational and transactional leadership style. Both forms of leadership are described in detail later

in this thesis. Suffice it here to note that transformational leadership is an inspirational construct concerned with charisma, vision and the like. Transactional leadership is more concerned with traditional management. It is an instrumental construct based on the idea of rewards for effort.

Briefly the study concludes that leadership styles do vary according to whether an organization is a commercial profit-making venture or a non-profit making bureaucracy or somewhere in between those extremes. There is also evidence to suggest that employee motivation, satisfaction with the leader and effectiveness are similarly related. Interestingly, leadership styles do not vary by organization level suggesting that leadership styles 'cascade' from one level to another - perhaps because it is the nature of the organization's basic goal which sets the style.

STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

Chapter one of the thesis sets this research in context. It contains a description of old and new leadership theory and detailed discussion of the distinction between various leadership styles of interest here. Chapter two is devoted to an examination of empirical studies concerning new leadership. The research aims and hypothesis are outlined in chapter three. Chapters four and five describe the research design and methodology. The results of the study are outlined in chapter six. Chapter seven contains the discussion and conclusions. This chapter focuses upon discussing the results pertaining to the model and the conclusions drawn. The practical implications of the study are also discussed and some suggestions for further research are made.

CHAPTER ONE

CHAPTER ONE

NEW LEADERSHIP THEORY

INTRODUCTION

The phenomenon of leadership is probably the most extensively researched social process known to behaviourial science. This is because it is believed that leadership plays a crucial role in organizations, and it has a direct influence on group process and outcomes.

The Meaning of Leadership

The term 'leadership' has been used since the beginning of the 19th century (Bass, 1981). Leadership is an old concept and it is a universal phenomenon. According to Smith and Krueger (1933, cited in Stogdill, 1974) it occurs universally among all people regardless of culture.

Bass (1990a) argued that the definition of leadership should depend on the purposes to be served by the definition. "Leadership has been seen as the focus of group processes, as a personality attribute, as the art of inducing compliance, as an exercise of influence, as a particular kind of act..." (p11).

Researchers in social science tend to emphasize three main elements in the definition of leadership influence, group and goal. Bryman (1992) defined leadership in terms of a process of social influence, whereby a leader steers members of a group towards a goal. (p.2).

Leadership in a complex organization is defined as the ability to identify,problems

and finding and carrying out a high quality solution with full commitment of

organization members (Kolb, 1982, cited in Bryman, 1992). The significance of this

definition will become apparent later.

LEADERSHIP APPROACHES

There are four approaches to studying leadership. The trait approach emphasizes the

personal qualities of leader. The style approach or leader behaviour approach is

concerned with identifying the kind of leader behaviour that enhances the

effectiveness of subordinates. The contingency approach concerns the impact of

situational factors upon leaders and followers. Finally, there is the new leadership

approach which emphasizes the leadership vision and charisma. Each of these is

described in more detail below.

The Trait Approach

The trait approach focuses upon leadership personal qualities. This approach is based

on the assumption that leaders could be identified by specific traits or characteristics.

The aim of the trait approach then was to identify the personal attributes of leaders

which differentiated them from non-leaders. In other words researchers asked

themselves what kind of personal qualities make some leaders.

There are three broad types of trait which have been addressed by the literature.

First, physical elements such as height, weight, appearance and age. Second, ability

characteristics such as intelligence, scholarship and knowledge, knowing how to get

things done, and fluency of speech. Third, other personality features such as self-confidence, inter-personal sensitivity and emotional control.

Hundreds of trait studies were carried out during the 1930s and 1940s but according to Stogdill (1974) the massive research effort failed to find any traits that would guarantee leadership success. Failure of the trait approach has been attributed to the following reasons: First, providing only a list of traits and skills found to be productive, did not help in understanding leadership. Secondly, trait approach failed to tell what these leaders actually do in performing their day to day leadership tasks. Thirdly, measurement used by researchers in this approach did not include psychological scaling (Smith and Peterson, 1990).

The Behaviourial Approach

The behaviour approach focuses on the style or the behaviour of the leader rather than on his traits or qualities. It concentrates on what leaders actually do on the job. From a series of studies which has been conducted at Ohio State University, it was concluded that major dimensions of leaders' behaviour involved two factors - consideration and initiation.

Consideration refers to the extent to which the leader shows consideration to followers. This means the group leader listens to the group members, shows concern for their welfare, is friendly and approachable, expresses appreciation for good work, treats subordinates as equals, increases subordinates' work and maintains their self-esteem, reduces inter-personal conflict and put subordinates' suggestions into

operation.

Initiation refers to task related behaviour, as initiating activity in the group, organizing it, coordinating tasks, defining the problem for the group and the way the work is to be done. The initiation of structure includes such leadership behaviour as planning activities, facilitating goal achievements, providing feedback for the group, maintaining standards and meeting deadlines, deciding in detail what should be done, and how establishing clear channels of communication, organizing work tightly, structuring the work context, provide a clear-cut definition of role responsibility.

A number of problems have been identified in the behaviourial approach. Firstly, inconsistent finding, that is, the magnitude and direction of correlation between consideration and initiating styles and various outcome measures were highly variable. Also, some correlations failed to reach statistical significance (Korman, 1966). Secondly, Absence of situational analysis behaviourial approach studies failed to include in their research situational variables, that is, including variables which moderate the relationship between leader behaviour and various outcomes (Korman, 1966). Thirdly, Measurement problem, for example, consideration measure seems to be affected by leniency affect. Rating of leaders found to be contaminated by subordinates implicit theory (Bryman, 1992). Finally, the problem of causality, that is, does the style of leader influence various outcomes or does the leader adjust his/her style in response to group performance.

The Contingency Approach

The contingency approach focuses upon the impact of the situation in determining the leader's style. Fiedler (1967) argued that leadership performance depends on both the organization and the leader. He suggested that situational variables have a moderate effect on the relation between leadership style and effectiveness. Fiedler (1967) said:

> Leadership performance depends then as much on the organization as it depends upon the leader's own attributes. Except perhaps for an unusual case, it is simply not meaningful to speak of an effective leader or of an ineffective leader; we can only speak of a leader who tends to be effective in one situation and ineffective in another (p261).

The contingency approach emphasizes the importance of contextual factors, such as the leader's authority and discretion. It suggests that the effectiveness of leader behaviour is dependent upon the situation. This means that the leaders' style will be effective in some situations but not in others. In other words, the contingency approach assumes there will be no universally appropriate styles of leadership for all situations.

Contingencies refer to factors such as the nature of the work performed by the leader, the subordinates' attributes, and the nature of the external environment. Some patterns of leadership are more appropriate to particular types of situation. For example, stressful situations require a pattern of leadership different from that appropriate to calm and steady situations.

The contingency approach like the behaviourial approach has many problems similar

to those identified in the behaviourial approach such inconsistent finding, causality problem and measurement problems. The exception is that it has not the problem of situation.

The New Leadership Approach

By 1980 it was clear to researchers that none of the old approaches were leading anywhere. Most of the old leadership approaches have many problems, such as inconsistent findings, measurement problems, and the problem of causality. These problems led to general doubt about leadership theory and research and stimulated fresh thinking which led to a new approach. The new leadership approach contains features of old leadership but with a new emphasis on transformational leadership and charisma.

Charisma, briefly, is having a power to inspire. Most literature focuses upon charismatic leadership in the context of religious and political organizations. New leadership writers have focused on transformational leadership for which charismatic leadership is considered a base and a main component (Bass, 1985(a,b); Bryman, 1992).

Transformational leadership refers to the process of influencing the organization members to change their attitude, assumptions and building commitment for organization mission, strategies and objectives. In transformational leadership the leader's influence is to empower followers to participate in the process of transforming the organization (Yukl, 1989).

The main medium of transformation is the leaders charisma. Personal charisma refers to: "a divinely inspired gift and is somehow unique and larger than life (Weber, 1947). Followers not only trust and respect the leader, but they also idolize or worship the leader as a superhuman hero or spiritual figure (Bass, 1985(a), cited in Yukl, 1989, p269).

THE EMERGENCE OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

Old leadership which has been discussed in the previous section in terms of approaches can be called transactional leadership. Transactional leadership focuses upon exchanging process between leaders and followers. This pattern of leadership has dominated leadership research since World War II. Transactional leadership focuses upon bargaining and implicit contract between the leader and follower. It is also concerned with a set of activities involving short problem solving and decision making. Therefore, it has been considered as more associated with management than leadership (Bryman, 1992).

Burns on Transforming Leadership

The first departure from traditional leadership was made by a political scientist, Burns (1978). According to Burns, the relationship between most political leaders and followers is transactional. That is exchanging one thing for another: jobs for votes, or subsidies for campaign contributions (Burns, 1978).

Burns (1978) suggested that transactional leadership has limited impact because of its failure to raise aspirations of leaders and followers.

According to Burns in transactional leadership there is implicit contrast between the leader and follower. Although leadership takes place, it does not bind "leader and follower together in mutual and continuing pursuit of higher purpose" (1987, p20).

This contrasts with transforming leadership in which the transformational leader not only recognizes and exploits an existing need or demand of a potential follower, but also looks for potential motives in followers in order to satisfy higher needs. This led to a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that "converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents" (Burns, 1978, p20).

It is clear that the aim of transforming leadership is aspiration of both the leader and the led, engaging the follower as a whole person and addressing higher order needs of followers. This will lead to mutual stimulation between the leader and the follower.

Bernard Bass and Transformational Leadership

The most elaborate exposition of new leadership theory belongs to Bernard Bass (1985a). Bass (1985a) applied Burns' (1978) distinction between transformational and transactional leaders to organizational management. Bass defined the transactional leader as :

1. recognises what his or her followers want to get from their work and tries to see that followers get what they desire if their performance warrants it;

2. exchanges rewards and promises of reward for appropriate levels of effort and

3.   responds to the self-interests of followers as long as they are getting the job done.

(Bass, 1990(a), p.233)

On the other hand transformational leaders motivate subordinates to do more than is expected. They are characterized by: (Burns, 1978 and Bass 1985a)

1.   raising the level of awareness of followers about the importance of achieving valued outcomes, a vision, and the required strategy;

2.   getting followers to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the team, organization or larger collectivity and

3.   expanding followers' portfolio of needs by raising their awareness to improve themselves and what they are attempting to accomplish.

Differences Between Burns and Bass on the Transformational Model

There are some important differences between Burns and Bass's transformational leadership. First, Burns (1978) suggested that the two styles of leadership are at opposite ends of the same leadership continuum : that is the leader cannot be transactional and transformational at the same time, but could be either one of them, while Bass proposed that both transactional and transformational leadership can be displayed by the same leader, e.g. Bass recognized that the same leader may use both types of the process at different times in different situations. Bass sees transformational leadership as a higher order second leadership which is needed in addition to transactional leadership.

Burns suggested the actions are transformational if society benefits from them. Bass sees transformational leadership as not necessarily beneficial, for example, Hitler was

negatively transformational. Bass focuses on the individual personality while Burns

placed emphasis on the leader follower relationship. Another difference between

Burns and Bass is that Bass outlined the components of the two types of leadership,

specifying their content more than Burns.

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP PROCESS

Transformational leadership occurs when leaders raise the interests of their followers,

when the leader succeeds in generating awareness and acceptance of the objectives

of the group, inspiring their followers to look beyond their own self interest for the

good of the group. It is hypothesized to have greater impact than transactional

leadership, and is assumed to be responsible for performance beyond contractual

expectation (Bass,1985(a,b))

Characteristics of Transformational Leaders

The transformational leader helps the individual, team and organization to change and

develop through recognizing and determining a need for change and directing

followers to move to achieve a higher level of performance (Yammarino and Bass,

1990(a))

> Transformational leaders change followers' perceptions by reversing
> what they see as figure and background. Changes in perspective can
> vary widely from one context to another, or from task to task, but in
> general will be characterized by a fundamental shift in the assumptions
> followers previously used to solve a particular problem.
>
> (Bass, 1990(a), p.235)

Transformational leaders do not, normally, accept the present state, and they search

for new ways of doing things. They stimulate their followers, asking them to reconsider their old ideas and develop new ones, to question the rules and procedures of the organization. They are risk takers, encouraging their followers to take maximum advantage of opportunities, and achieve more difficult goals. Transformational leaders help their subordinates to become self actualizers, self regulators and self controllers moving gradually from concerns for existence to concerns for achievement and growth (Waldman, et al., 1990; Bass, 1985(a)).

Tichy and Devanna (1986), attempted to list the characteristics of transformational leaders as follows:

- self identification as a change agent
- a belief in people
- value driven
- lifelong learners
- ability to deal with complexity, ambiguity, and uncertainty
- visionaries.

(pp271-280)

Examples of Transformational Leaders

There are many examples of transformational leaders. Mahatma Gandhi asked his followers to sacrifice their own interests for India's Independence. John F. Kennedy said "Ask not what your country can do for you - ask what you can do for your country". Lee Iacocca is said to have succeeded in saving the Chrysler Corporation from bankruptcy by convincing employees of the need for sacrifice and extra effort, and by creating a vision of success and mobilizing a large group of key employees to support that vision. Ross Perot created the $2.5 billion E.D.S. organization from his vision, initiative and quasi- military management. He epitomized consideration, a transformational factor, when he rescued two of his employees who were trapped

in Iran in 1979.

Transformational Leadership Factors

Transformational leadership consists of four factors, namely charisma, or charismatic, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.

Charisma (Idealized Influence)

Charisma is the main factor and the most important component in the large concept of transformational leadership. Factor analyses of items designed to assess transformational leadership have produced a charismatic factor that consistently accounts for over 60% of the common variance in those items (Bass, 1985(a); Hater and Bass, 1988).

What is Charisma?

Charisma, according to the Oxford English Dictionary (1984), is the power to inspire devotion and enthusiasm. Charisma meaning literally "a gift of grace" is used by Weber to characterize self appointed leaders who are followed by distressed followers who need to follow them because they believe that they are extraordinarily qualified (Gerth and Mills, 1991, p52). Charisma is defined by Weber as follows:

> The term 'charisma' will be applied to a certain quality of an individual personality by virtue of which he is considered extraordinary and treated as endowed with supernatural, superhuman, or at least specifically exceptional power qualities. These are such as not to be accessible to the ordinary person, but are regarded as of divine origin or as exemplary, and on the basis of them the individual concerned is treated as a 'leader'.
>
> (cited in Bryman, 1992, p.24)

Characteristics of Charismatic Leaders

Charismatic leaders inspire in their followers unquestioning loyalty and devotion without regard to the follower's own self interest. Such leaders can transform the established order (Bass, 1985(a)), and instill pride, faith and respect. They have a gift for seeing what is really important and a sense of mission (a vision) which is effectively articulated (Avolio and Bass, 1988).

Charismatic leaders are highly motivated to influence their followers. Their followers trust their judgements and have faith in them. It has been noted that individuals who are under charismatic leadership are highly productive.

Charismatic leaders have a universal trait which is self-confidence and self-esteem, strong convictions and behaviour out of the ordinary. According to Zalenik (1983), charisma is one of the elements separating ordinary managers from true leaders in organizational settings.

Charismatic leaders impress their followers in order to support their image of competence in the subordinate's eyes, to increase the follower's compliance and faith in them.

> Charismatic leaders are transformational in that they, themselves, have much to do with the further arousal and articulation of such feeling of need among followers. Charismatic leaders have insight into the needs, values and hopes of their followers. They have the ability to build on these needs, values and hopes through dramatic and persuasive words and actions.
>
> (Bass, 1985(a), p.46)

The charismatic leader can be a successful leader but may fail in transforming organizations. Transforming organizations depend on how their charisma combines with other transformational factors, for example, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation in specific leaders (Bass 1985a, p39).

Charisma depends on the followers of the leader as well as leaders. It is a two-way process between the leader and his followers. A leader is seen as charismatic if his or her followers, have trust and confidence in him or her with extraordinary value and personal power (Bass, 1985(a)). For example, charismatic leaders are likely to be seen when followers have highly dependable personalities, less pride in themselves, are less self-confident, and not highly educated. Charismatic leaders are likely to be resisted by highly educated, independent and self-reinforcing followers (Bass, 1985(a)).

Charisma depends also on the situation. It is more likely to be seen in times of stress and transition, when people need a hero, or a saviour who appears in times of great distress. Bass (1985a) argued that charismatic leadership is not likely to be seen in the already old, highly structured, successful organizations but rather in those old ones that are failing or in new ones that are struggling to survive.

Charisma and Organizations

Charisma is widely distributed in complex organizations and it is not limited to world class leaders. It can be found in industrial, educational, governmental and military leaders. However, charismatic leadership is more likely to be found in political and

religious organizations than in business or industrial organizations (Bass, 1985(a)). Hollander (1978) suggested that charismatic leadership is less likely to emerge in any continuing complex organization because of the close contact between superior and subordinate, which prevents the maintenance of the magical properties of charisma.

Oberg (1972) argued that charismatic leadership is most likely to occur at the top because of its involvement in decisions, and those decisions are most likely to occur at the apex of an organization. In contrast Bass (1985a) argued that charisma can occur in varying amounts and degrees all through complex organizations. Weber suggested that charisma is opposed to all institutional routine, for example, bureaucracy (Gerth and Mills, 1991, p52).

Inspirational Motivation

Inspirational motivation is the second factor of the transformational leadership defined as providing symbols and simplified emotional appeals to increase awareness and understanding of mutually desired goals (Bass,1993).

Characteristics of Inspirational Leaders

Inspirational leaders make extensive use of symbols to draw attention to their leadership. These symbols represent information, and provide a simplified message that can have inspirational meaning. The confusing ideas and the difficulty in understanding can be made through symbols to facilitate communications between the leader and the followers (Bass 1985a).

According to Bass (1985a,b), inspirational leaders arouse and increase motivation among followers. This inspiration, will transform the follower's level of motivation beyond expectations using emotional supports and appeals. Subordinates can also be inspired by means of intellectual stimulation, which emphasizes logic and analysis.

An inspirational leader stimulates enthusiasm among subordinates, says things to build their confidence in their ability to achieve group objectives (Yukl and van Fleet, 1982).

According to Yukl (1981), confidence building in followers is the major element in being an inspirational leader. Confidence and belief in the course are important for followers aspiration. For example, in the battlefield the most encouraging is the soldier's confidence in his leadership, in his peers, in his equipment and in himself. This confidence should be maintained all the time. Substantial reliability and truth in the confidence - building messages is very important, otherwise credibility of the leader will be in danger (Bass, 1985(a)).

The combination of confidence in the individual's capabilities and belief in the correctness of the cause will lead to extra effort and success (Bass, 1985(a)). For example, in organizations, people who believe they are working for the best organization with the best products and resources are most likely to be committed, loyal and exert extra effort. Another example from history. The Arabs in the seventh century, believing in Islam and Jihad and the correctness of the cause defeated the heavily armed forces sent against them, in a number of countries

stretching from Spain to India (Bass, 1985a). In fact, the Arabs believed that the wars were holy and just. The cause was to spread Islam. These factors motivated them to succeed and defeat their enemies.

Although the inspirational appeal is an important one in motivation it is believed that it can only succeed when followers do not have the fundamental beliefs and values, such as patriotism, obedience to authority, commitment and loyalty to the organization. For example, the American soldier in Vietnam in 1965 was said to be inspired by his leadership for the cause of the war. While in 1970 he was apparently strongly resistant to the same appeal (Bass, 1985(a)).

Intellectual Stimulation

The third factor of transformational leadership is intellectual stimulation of followers' ideas, attitudes and values.

Intellectual stimulation is defined as one who provides ideas that result in rethinking of old ways, and enables followers to look at problems from many angles and resolve problems that were at a standstill, and as one who promotes intelligence, rationality and careful problem solving (Avolio and Bass, 1988; Bass, 1993)

Bass (1985a,b) divided intellectual stimulation into two components, the intellectual component which has been discussed earlier and the symbols and images component. Through these symbols and images, the transformational leaders can send clear, rather than ambiguous, messages to their subordinates: Symbols can provide a great

simplified message that can have inspirational meaning (Bass, 1990(a)). For instance, Gandhi's spinning wheel symbolized Indian self reliance and the demand for Indian independence. Likewise, the 13 stars and stripes in the American flag signal the federation of the original 13 sovereign states - the United States. According to Bass (1985a): "The intellectual contribution of transformational leader is seen in the leader's creation, interpretation, and elaboration of symbols" (p.108).

Intellectual stimulation occurs through the introduction of new ideas as well as the re-thinking of traditional methods. It occurs when subordinates question their own beliefs, assumptions and values and also, when appropriate, their leader's values and beliefs, when they think it might be outdated or not appropriate for solving current problems facing the organization (Schermerhorn, et al, 1988).

Quinn and Hall (1983) suggested that leaders can provide intellectual stimulation in four different ways depending on their own personal preferences for rationality, existentialism, empiricism, or idealism.

Charismatic Leadership and Intellectual Stimulation

There are important differences between charismatic leadership and intellectual stimulation, While there is a blind, unquestioning trust and obedience in the case of the charismatic leader-follower relationship, intellectual stimulation leadership encourages the independence and the autonomy of subordinates (Bass, 1985(a)).

Individualized Consideration

The fourth component of transformational leadership is individualized consideration.

For individualized consideration the leader delegates projects to stimulate and create

learning experiences, pay personal attention to the followers needs - especially those

who seem neglected - coach, advises and treats each follower with respect and as an

individual (Avolio and Bass, 1988; Bass, 1990(a)).

According to Bass (1985a):

> Individualized consideration takes many forms. Expression of
> appreciation, for example, doing a good job and also pointing out
> weaknesses of subordinates constructively. Moreover, they can assign
> special projects that will utilize subordinate self-confidence, and special
> talents, and provide opportunities for learning.
>
> (p82)

Characteristics of Individualized Consideration

Individualized consideration leaders concentrate on knowing their followers indepth,

diagnosing the needs and the capabilities of individuals, treating followers on a one

to one basis, giving personal attention to neglected members.

Once followers' needs have been identified, individualized consideration leaders focus

on developing follow-through coaching, teaching, and feedback, encouraging them

to take greater responsibilities. Moreover, individualized consideration leaders act

as a counsellor or a teacher for those followers who need help to overcome problems

or to grow and develop. They delegate assignments to provide learning opportunities

and stimulate learning experience.

Individualized consideration is a very important factor in transformational leadership

and probably it is the key distinguishing characteristic of transformational leadership

from transactional leadership (Bass, 1985(a)).

Characteristics of Intellectual Stimulating Leaders

Intellectually stimulating leaders encourage followers to develop their own

capabilities, to identify, understand and solve future problems.

Followers of intellectually stimulating leaders can operate without the leader's direct

involvement in the problem solving process. They can also become more effective

problem solvers, and more innovative in analyzing problems and the strategies they

use to resolve them.

Through intellectual stimulation the status quo can be questioned and new creative

methods for organization development can be examined.

TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP PROCESS

Transactional leadership occurs when there is an exchange or a transaction between

the leader and a follower. The leader explains what is required of the followers, and

what reward they will receive if they do what is required (Bass, 1985(a)). This

model has dominated leadership research in the last four decades. According to Bass

(1985a):

> The transactional leader pursues a cost-benefit, economic exchange to
> meet subordinate's current material and psychic needs in return for
> contracted services rendered by the subordinate.

Transactional Leaders' Characteristics

The transactional leader recognizes the subordinate's needs and desires, clarifying how these needs and desires will be met in exchange for enactment of the subordinate's work role. The transactional leader will focus on what is efficient, can work and has no risk in their transactions with their followers. Transactional leaders are both positive and negative in rewards in dealing with followers, e.g. promotion, pay increases and advancement for employees who perform well, and penalties for employees who do not do a good job. However, the effectiveness of transactional leadership depends on whether the leader has control of the rewards or penalties and whether employees are motivated by the promise of the reward and the avoidance of the penalties. In many organizations, the leader has little to say regarding pay increases and promotions, which depend on seniority and qualifications.

Transactional leaders motivate their employees through positive and aversive contingent reinforcement.

> Contingent positive reinforcement reward if agreed upon performance is achieved, reinforces the effort to maintain the desired speed and accuracy of employee performance. Contingent aversive reinforcement is a manager's reaction to an employee's failure to achieve the agreed-upon performance. The manager's reaction signals the need to halt the decline in speed or accuracy of the employee's performance, to modify or change the employee's behaviour. It signals the need for a reclarification of what needs to be done and how.
>
> (Bass, 1985(a), p.122)

The Transactional Leadership Factors

Transactional leadership consists of two factors, namely contingent reward and management by exception.

Contingent Reward

Contingent Reward is defined as an exchange of rewards for effort and levels of performance agreed between supervisor and employee . (Bass, 1985(a)). Contingent Reward is an interaction process between leader and subordinate that concentrates on an exchange. For example, a leader provides subordinates appropriate rewards for meeting agreed objectives. Contingent reward involves identifying subordinates needs and facilitating the achievement of agreed objectives and then linked both to what the leader expects to accomplish and to rewards for the subordinates if objectives are met (Bass and Avolio, 1993).

Contingent reward takes two forms - praise for work well done and recommendation for pay increases, bonuses and promotion (Sims, 1977). Bass (1985a,b) added 'commendations for meritorious effort including public recognition and honours for outstanding service'. Contingent punishment may also take several forms, from calling someone's attention to his failure to meeting standards, to fines, suspension without pay or discharge. The positive contingent reward has been observed to elevate performance and effectiveness of subordinates.

Characteristics of Contingent Reward Leaders

The leader who is contingent reward "contracts exchange of rewards for effort, promises reward for good performance, recognizes accomplishments." Telling the follower what to do if he/she wants to be rewarded for his/her effort and arranges that the follower gets what he wants in exchange for achieving objectives (Bass,

1985(a), p121).

Management by Exception

Management by Exception is defined as intervening only if standards are not met or if something goes wrong. Only when things go wrong will the leader intervene to make some correction. Leaders may remain passive until problems emerge that need correcting, or they may arrange to more actively monitor the performance of followers so as to intervene when followers make mistakes. Generally, the modes of reinforcement are correction criticism, negative feedback, and negative contingent reinforcement, rather than the positive reinforcement used with contingent reward leadership, Punishment and discipline are likely to be evidence of management-by-exception. (Bass, 1985(a); Bass, 1990(a); Bass and Avolio,1993).

In this approach the leader takes action and intervenes only when failures and deviations occur and objective is not being met. Management by exception can be described by the popular adage 'If it ain't broken, don't fix it' (Bass, 1985(a)).

> When procedures and standards of task accomplished are not met. It can be illustrated by 'As long as the old ways work, he/she is satisfied with my performance' and as long as things are going all right, he/she does not try to change anything.
>
> (Bass, 1985(a), p.138)

In later writing, this dimension of transactional leadership has been split into two modes: active management by exception and passive management by exception. (For example Yammarino and Bass, 1990a; Bass, 1990(b)). In active management by exception, managers set up standard procedures for subordinates' performance, search

for deviation and pitfalls, take corrective action, if the standards are not being met. It can be illustrated by "would reprimand me if my work was below standard" (Hater and Bass, 1988). In passive management by exception, the manager asks no more than what is essential to get the work done (Hater and Bass, 1988). It can be illustrated by "Shows he/she is a firm believer in 'if it ain't broken, don't fix it' . The difference between the two forms is that in the former the leader searches out deviations, whereas in the latter form deviations and pitfalls must arise and the leader must be informed about them before he/she takes action.

Characteristics of Leaders Who Manage by Exception

Leaders who practise management by exception will support followers' efforts to comply with defined standards to avoid negative consequences for failure. (Bass, 1985(a)). Such leaders intervene only when failures or breakdowns occur. The manager is alert for deviation and provides the subordinates with negative feedback evolving punishment when needed.

According to several researchers, for example (Bass, 1985(a)), management by exception was seen as counter-productive and had no effect on performance and satisfaction, while contingent reward did enhance subordinates' satisfaction. On the other hand, Al-Gattan (1985) found out that subordinates of supervisors who practise management by exception might be satisfied if they are in a low-scope job and the subordinates had little need for growth. This issue is discussed in the next chapter.

Does Transformational Leadership Replace Transactional Leadership?

The transformational leader does not replace transactional leadership. It increases transactional leadership in achieving the goals of the leader, subordinates, team and organization. Leaders could be transactional and transformational at the same time; it depends on the situation. There are different leadership styles appropriate to different situations and problems. In some situations the time is suitable for transformation, while in another situation being transformational may not be appropriate (Bass, 1985(a); Bass, 1990(a); Bass and Avolio, 1993).

LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP PROCESS

Laissez-Faire leadership denotes an aloof and uninvolved leader who withdraws when needed and is reluctant to take a responsible stand. (Bass and Avolio, 1993). With laissez-faire (avoiding) leadership, there are generally neither transactions nor agreements with followers. Decisions are often delayed; feedback, rewards, and involvement are absent; and there is no attempt to motivate followers or to recognize and satisfy their needs.

Characteristics of Laissez-faire Leaders

Laissez-faire leadership describes passive leaders who are unwilling to influence subordinates or give directions, or who abdicate responsibilities and avoid making decisions. Laissez-faire leaders give group members complete freedom of action. They provide the group with material, they do not participate except to answer questions. Laissez-faire leadership indicates an absence of leadership.

According to Bass (1990a), laissez-faire leaders have no confidence in their own

ability to supervise, they bury themselves in paperwork, leave too much responsibility

with subordinates, set no clear goals and do not help their group to make decisions.

The subordinates under laissez-faire leadership will be left to their own devices and

proceed as they think best.

Bass (1981) noted that the laissez-faire leader:

> ... does nothing unless asked by colleagues and even then may
> procrastinate or fail to respond. The laissez-faire leader will be non-
> active or reactive rather than proactive. ... The laissez-faire leader
> may work alongside subordinates or withdraw into paperwork.
> Decision will be avoided rather than shared.
>
> (pp397-398)

It is clear that laissez-faire leaders are inactive. They do not like to accept

responsibilities, give direction, provide support, concern about productivity.

MANAGEMENT BY EXCEPTION, LAISSEZ-FAIRE AND DELEGATION

Delegation may be confused with management by exception and laissez-faire.

Delegation is used to develop followers. Leaders delegate responsibilities to

followers and follow up with reclassification, encouragement, praise and reward for

successful efforts.

Leaders who manage by exception stay alert for deviation and will take appropriate

corrective action when it occurs.

> The laissez-faire leader is likely to absent himself or withdraw when
> faced with deviations from expectations, while the manager by
> exception remains alert to such deviations and will take suitable
> corrective actions when they occur.
>
> (Bass, 1985(a), pp138-139)

It is clear that leaders who delegate, outline the problem that needs to be solved and

the standard that must be met, which does not occur in laissez-faire leadership.

> A leader who delegates still remains responsible for follow up as to whether the delegation has been accepted and the requisite activities have been carried out. Delegation of decision-making implies that the decision-making is lowered to a lower hierarchical level closer to where the decision will be implemented.
>
> (Bass, 1981, pp235-236)

It is also clear that laissez-faire leaders do not search for deviation from standard and intervene when they are found as the leader who manages by exception.

A summary of the differences between the three leadership styles is introduced in Figure 1.1.

Transformational Leaders	Transactional Leaders	Laissez-Faire Leaders
◆ Do not accept partial solutions or accept the status quo.	◆ Focus on what clearly works, doing what seems to be most efficient and free from risk.	◆ Passive leader. Avoids making decisions.
◆ Are more likely to be seeking new ways, taking maximum advantages of opportunities despite the higher risk.	◆ Are reactive in their thinking.	◆ Inactive, withdrawn when needed.
◆ Are more creative, novel and innovative in their ideology.	◆ May be equally bright but their focus is on how to best keep the system running for which they are responsible.	◆ Do not attempt to motivate followers or satisfy their needs.
◆ Are able to deal with complexity, ambiguity and uncertainty.		

FIGURE 1.1

A SUMMARY OF THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN TRANSFORMATIONAL, TRANSACTIONAL AND LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP

(Bass, 1985(a)(b); Bass, 1990(a); Bass and Avolio, 1993; Tichy and Devanna, 1986,1990)

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The languague of Bass's concept of a transformational leader is attractive. Words like 'charisma', 'stimulation' and 'vision' accord with much of the 'excellence' literature which is itself heavily transformational (Peters & Waterman, 1982). The first question which must concern us is whether transformational leadership is possible in ordinary organizations producing goods and services day in day out. Much of the literature focuses upon political figureheads and exceptional leaders of mega corporations, such as Lee Iacocca. What of the shop floor supervisor? What opportunity does he/she have of stimulating vision and the exercise of intellect?

Even if transformational leadership is to be found empirically does it apply equally in all organizations? Does it apply in all organizational levels? How would Lee Iacocca have fared if he had been head of the British Civil Service or a similar bureacracy?

Acoording to Russell (1970) and Etzioni (1965), organizations have an important role to play in classification of power: power viewed as a structural phenomenon. The organization provides the mechanism through which it is exercised. Power is represented in role formalization, division of labour a hierarchial structure and so forth.

Russell (1970) clasified power by the type of organization involved. The types of power form the basis of grouping. For example, the army and police are classified as organizations which exercise coercive power. Economic organizations are

categorized as using inducement power while schools, churches and political parties are classified as organizations relying on persuasion.(Drummond, 1989).

Etzioni (1975) classifies organizations into three types according to the form of power used to control lower members of these organizations. For Etzioni, power styles are coercive, utilitarian and normative.

Power is defined as "An actor's ability to induce or influence another actor to carry out his directive or any other norm he supports" (Etzioni, 1975, p4).

Leadership is defined as "A particular type of power relationship characterized by a group member's perception that another group member has the right to prescribe behaviour patterns for the former regarding his activity as a member of a particular group". Janda (1960) cited in Bass (1990a, p15).

Clearly from the previous definitions there is a link between leadership and power. Etzioni identified different forms of powers used in different types of organizations. For Etzioni (1975) and Russell (1970) organizations serve as a criterion for classification of power.

Since there is a link between power and leadership and organizations serve as a criterion for classification of power. The question to be asked is do organizations serve as a criterion of leadership style?

Is leadership style in bureaucratic organizations where structure, rules, job description and job specifications are similar to leadership style in profit organizations where change and innovation are preferable? Surely it is a small step from power to leadership.

The issue becomes all the more pertinent when one considers the burgeoning literature concering the impact of followers upon leaders' style. If the leader is responsible for a group of convicts we can surely expect a different approach than being responsible for a group of enthusiastic volunteers.

Much theorizing and research on leadership has been conducted in America and other western countries. It is by no means clear that such concepts are relevant to other cultures.

Before discussing the relevance of concept, we need to understand what is culture first. Culture has been defined as "agreed ways of interpreting signs, symbols, artefacts and actions" (Geertz, 1973). (No doubt that leadership is a universal phenomenon). As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, leadership occurs among all people everywhere regardless of culture. However, culture, in my opinion, is a main factor and it should be taken into account in methods used for studying leadership and in interpreting findings. For example, what is considered counter productive in America and Western countries may not be the case in Eastern countries. Another example is the leadership style needed in third world countries where rapid change and need for transforming is preferable.

In Saudi Arabia management by exception may be acceptable. Subordinates may be satisfied with this pattern of leadership. It has its roots in Saudi culture and Islamic teaching where followers respect and obey their superiors and accept being corrected. In Western culture maybe this style of leadership is not accepted.

In conclusion it is difficult to see how leadership styles can be divorced from the context in which leadership is exercised. The need is to develop a theory of leadership which both embraces new concepts and is capable of predicting the conditions under which the various types of leadership are likely to be found and to be effective. This thesis does not claim to have made such a contribution, merely to have explored whether such an approach is potentially fruitful.

CHAPTER TWO

CHAPTER TWO

NEW LEADERSHIP: THE EMPIRICAL LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to review the research concerning Bass's leadership styles. These studies are mainly involved with the impact of transformational leadership upon motivational and quasi-motivational factors such as satisfaction, extra effort and leader effectiveness. Broadly speaking transformational leadership is consistently related in a highly positive fashion with these variables. Correlations, moreover, are substantial, r's typically range from 0.60 to 0.85. Transactional leadership is also positively correlated with these variables but more weakly than transformational leadership. Further, this chapter will review research concerning the relationship between leadership style and job related tension, organization type and organization level.

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND OUTCOME VARIABLES

Transformational leadership is consistently and strongly correlated with motivational variables such as satisfaction, motivation, and extra effort.

The results of an extensive survey of over 1500 general managers, leaders of technical teams, governmental and educational administrators, showed that subordinates of leaders or managers who have been described as being more transformational, would be more satisfied with their leadership and judged the units

led by those leaders as highly effective, in comparison with transactional leaders.

Subordinates were also found to exert a lot of effort for such transformational leaders.

If leaders were only transactional, the organizations were seen to be less effective,

particularly when leaders practise passive management by exception. Extra effort of

subordinates was found to be less for transactional leaders (Bass and Avolio, 1989).

Transformational leaders appear to generate more effort from their subordinates than

those whose style is mainly transactional.

LEADERSHIP STYLES AND EMPLOYEE SATISFACTION

Satisfaction with supervision is consistently associated with transformational

leadership. Satisfaction also correlates consistently with transactional leadership.

Subordinates of transformational leaders would be more satisfied comparing them

with subordinates of transactional leaders (Bass, 1985 a,b,; Bass 1990a,b; Yammarino

and Bass 1990). Charismatic and intellectually stimulated leaders appear to be far

more satisfying to work with than those who merely practised the transactions of

contingent reward (Bass 1985a; Bass 1990a). A number of qualitative explorations

have also been indicated. For instance, a sample of business undergraduates was

asked to read one or more biographies about world class leaders, and then asked to

complete the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire imagining that they were

immediate subordinates of the leader. The leaders included figures such as Martin

Luther King, several American Presidents and business leaders such as Lee Iacocca.

Bass observed that, in general, so called 'World Class' leaders scored higher on the

transformational than on the transactional scales. Furthermore transformational

leadership correlated more highly with satisfaction with the leader, than did

transactional leadership. The relationship between leadership styles and satisfaction has been consistently observed in a subsequent series of studies (Bass, 1985a).

Singer (1985) carried out a study of 38 New Zealand company managers using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. He found out that transformational factors were more highly correlated than transactional factors, with perceived effectiveness and job satisfaction. Seltzer and Bass (1987) reported that transformational leadership factors of charisma, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation add substantially to the effects of initiation and consideration on subordinates' satisfaction and effectiveness. They conceived initiation and consideration as primarily transactional in nature.

Bass (1990a) compared transactional leadership with transformational leadership. He concluded that managers who behave transformationally are more likely to be seen by their colleagues and employees as satisfying leaders.

Yammarino and Bass (1990) carried out a study of 793 senior subordinates of 186 U.S. Navy officers on active duty using Multifactor Leadership Questionnaires. They found that transformational leadership, as compared to transactional or laissez-faire leadership, was more strongly related to subordinates' satisfaction with the focal officers and the officers' effectiveness.

LEADERSHIP STYLES AND EXTRA EFFORT

Extra effort is also consistently associated with transformational leadership than with transactional leadership. Subordinates of transformational leaders, however, exert more effort than subordinates of transactional leaders. (Bass, 1985a,b,; Bass 1990a; Yammarino and Bass 1990).

Correlations between transformational and extra effort typically range from 0.24 to 0.88. Correlations between transactional leadership and extra effort typically range from 0.22 to 0.76. Correlations between contingent reward and extra effort typically range from 0.04 to 0.76. Correlation between management by exception and extra effort typically range from -0.42 to 0.25 (Bass and Avolio, 1989).

Bass (1990a) compared transactional leadership with transformational leadership. He concluded that transformational leaders cause employees to exert extra effort. Yammarino and Bass (1990) observed that transformational leadership, as compared to transactional or laissez-faire leadership, was more strongly related to subordinates' extra effort.

IMPACT OF LEADERSHIP UPON BYSTANDERS

Most of the research attention has focused upon the leader/subordinate relationship. The impact of leadership styles on bystanders has so far been the subject of relatively limited attention. The evidence suggests that leaders who behave transformationally are more likely to be seen by their colleagues as satisfying and effective (Bass, 1990a). This is broadly consistent with other studies of peer group relations which

suggest that the commitment of one's colleagues is potentially more important than

the supervisor's commitment in determining an employees loyalty and attachment to

the organization (Vancouver, 1992).

LEADERSHIP STYLES AND EFFECTIVENESS

Organizational effectiveness is an elusive concept. Successive writers have defined

effectiveness to mean goal achievement (e.g., Etzioni, 1965; Hall, 1977). Within the

leadership, literature effectiveness has been used loosely but is generally synonymous

with the idea of goal achievement. Does one measure survival, profitability, and long

term potential, for example, as indicators of effectiveness or attempt a more holistic

approach? The issue is compounded by the almost infinite number of variables which

may impact upon effectiveness, however defined, and their interactions. Obviously

in order to conduct research it is necessary to simplify. Accordingly successive

studies have revealed little difference between the Transformational Leadership sub-

scales with the exceptions of charismatic and individualized consideration. The

former generally accounts for the largest proportion of variance and the latter the

second largest proportion (Bass, 1985a). Clearly this suggests that charisma is an

extremely important determinant of transformational leadership. In fact, it is possible

that charisma may largely define transformational leadership.

Consistent with measures of satisfaction, transactional leadership is much more

weakly correlated with effectiveness. Whereas r's for contingent rewards average

0.40, correlations between management by exception and effectiveness were

negligible (Bass, 1990a). Again this suggests that management by exception is at best

uninspiring and at worst counter-productive. For instance, Onnen (1987) observed that Methodist ministers scoring high on transformational scales experienced greater growth in church membership and higher attendance at services than their more transactionally orientated colleagues. Similarly, Bass (1985a) found out from his research with army officers that three transformational factors were more highly correlated with perceived unit effectiveness than did the two transactional factors.

Similarly, numerous studies have shown a systematic association between leadership styles and perceived leader effectiveness. For example, perceived effectiveness of the leader correlated between 0.60 and 0.80 with the leader's scores of transformational leadership. Conversely, the correlation between leader effectiveness and measures of contingent reward has been near to 0.40 on average. The correlation between leader effectiveness and management by exception was closer to zero (Bass and Avolio 1989).

Leadership Style and Outcomes Using Objective Criteria

Most of the previous findings were based mainly on subordinates' judgement of both leader's styles and the outcomes. Subordinates of the leader evaluate the leader's style and the outcomes, such as satisfaction with the leader and effectiveness of the organization.

The following studies used independently collecting criteria such as superior evaluation of the performance of target leaders and standard financial measures of organizational success and objective performance data .This approach was used to

overcome the weakness of the previous study when subordinates were the only source for evaluating leaders' simultaneously Hater and Bass (1988) used this approach, and found out that leaders who were described as transformational rather than transactional, were judged to have much higher leadership potential by their supervisors.

Similarly Bass and Yammarino (1988) used two sources, one by subordinates to evaluate their leader style and the other by the superior of the target leader to evaluate target performance and recommendations for early promotion. They found that the correlation was as high as 0.38 between being seen as transformational in the eyes of subordinates and the recommendation for early promotion received from the superiors of target leaders. Transactional correlations with superiors' favourable appraisals were lower. Laissez-faire leadership correlation was contra-indicated.

Avolio, Waldman and Einstein (1988) examined the degree to which transformational and transactional leadership related to team performance. Group effectiveness was operationalized by using a standard financial business ratio (e.g. return on assets). A positive relationship was observed between team performances, and transformational leadership. Laissez-faire leadership was found to be negatively correlated with performance.

LEADERSHIP STYLE AND STRESS

Before proceeding to describe the research, it may be useful to define stress. Stress is basically an alarm/arousal reaction which occurs in response to a threat which the

individual feels unable to cope with. For example, a driver who applies the brakes of a car in response to an emergency, experiences alarm which arouses the bodies physiological coping mechanisms to a high and unsustainable level. If stress is prolonged, exhaustion results as the body becomes unable to respond. Although the precise link between stress and illness is unclear, stress appears to harm the bodies immune system - rather like AIDS. What is certain, however, is that occupational stress is a major source of illnesses including heart failure, cancer, depression and suicide (Cooper and Payne, 1991).

There are many factors associated with stress, such as shift working, noise, danger, role ambiguity, role overload and role underload. Although leaders are supposed to help in stressful situations, the evidence so far suggests that leadership may be the cause, rather than the improvement of stressful conditions (Bass 1990). Leaders sometime contribute to stress. For example when political leaders manufacture crises to enhance their power.

The relationship between stress and leadership factors is relatively under-investigated (Seltzer, 1988). The aspect of stress which has received most attention is burnout. Burnout means where an individual feels he/she has accomplished little and is pessimistic about prospects for future accomplishment (Vecchio, 1991).

The evidence is that stress occurs when superiors are interfering, meddling and dictatorial, and when subordinates express ambiguity and disorganized management Bass (1985).

The evidence indicates that transformational leadership is conducive to reduced stress levels. For example Seltzer, Numerof and Bass (1987) examined burnout and stress symptoms such as headaches, fatigue, irritability, loss of appetite, with a sample of MBA students engaged in full time work. The authors concluded that 14% of the variance in the reported symptoms and 34% of the variance in the feeling of burnout could be attributed to the lack of transformational leadership and contingent reward, and frequent practice of management by exception. Important differences exist however on the transformational subscales. Employees who work for charismatic and individually considerate leaders reported less stress, but that stress varied when subordinates were working under more intellectually stimulating leaders. Contingent rewards were associated with less stress and management by exception with more stress.

Clearly, intellectual stimulation creates a challenge, and stress presumably results from feelings of inadequacy, whereas consideration reduces challenge and positively supports the individual. Transformational leadership requires a mix of transformational factors. For example, using intellectual stimulation increased burnout and stress should be balanced by using individualized consideration, therefore using full range of leadership is needed and is a more effective strategy than using any one in isolation (Bass, 1990a).

Harsh leaders, that is those who continuously exhort subordinates with phrases such as "work more quickly", "Work accurately", "You could do more" and "Hurry up, we have not much time left", appear to engender high levels of stress (Misumi,

1985).

Research which has examined 'old' leadership styles (Bryman, 1992) and stress suggest that task orientated leaders cause greater stress than those who are more person orientated (Seltzer and Numerof 1988). For example Seltzer and Numerof (1988) studied a sample of 256 MBA students who were working full time in different organizations. They completed a questionnaire asking whether their immediate supervisor showed initiation or consideration and also completed a burnout questionnaire. They found that correlation between initiation and burnout was only - -0.15, whereas the correlation between burnout and consideration was -0.55, suggesting that considerate supervisors reduce the sense of burnout.

The pattern is by no means consistent, however, as certain studies have failed to identify such a relationship For example, Mazur and Lynch (1989) found no relationship between principals' leadership style and teacher burnout. Likewise, studies of principals' leadership and teacher burnout e.g. Chapman (1983); Cook (1983). Similarly Herman (1983) compared two groups of teachers. One group had a principal who was relatively warm and considerate towards his or her staff. The other group had a principal who was relatively inconsiderate. Results showed no significant difference in burnout scores between the two groups.

Other studies suggest that lower stress correlates with scoring high on both initiation and consideration scales. For example Numerof and Seltzer (1986); Lee (1983); Numerof and Seltzer (1986) showed that a supervisor who scored very highly in both

initiation and consideration, was associated with lower burn-out among subordinates.

It was further observed that the teachers who worked under high consideration, high structure principals experienced lower role stress, higher job satisfaction and job performance than teachers under other styles (Lee 1983).

LEADERSHIP STYLE AND ORGANIZATION TYPE

The contingency approach to leadership has long recognized the importance of the situation in determining the leader's style. Fiedler (1967) argued that leadership performance depends on both the organization and the leader. He suggested that situational variables have a moderate effect on the relation between leadership style and effectiveness. Fiedler (1967) said:

> leadership performance depends then as much on the organization as it depends upon the leader's own attributes. Except perhaps for an unusual case, it is simply not meaningful to speak of an effective leader or of an ineffective leader; we can only speak of a leader who tends to be effective in one situation and ineffective in another (p.261).

McGregor (1966), for example, argues that organization structure and policy set restrictions upon a leader's style. When one adds to this the nature of the task, it becomes clear that leadership cannot be studied effectively in isolation. For example, an army commander under fire cannot deal with the situation by holding a group discussion.

Etzioni (1961, 1965, 1975) has suggested that leadership styles relate systematically to an organizations compliance structure. He suggested that different dynamics of leadership would be more at play in utilitarian organizations than in normative

organizations. Rossel (1970) argued that the emergence of instrumental and expressive leadership determined by the functional goals of organizations, rather than attributed to personality characteristics of managers and supervisors. Particular situational factors neutralize the effects of leadership style. For example, a company which is tightly structural and has a clear role definition and plans for the future may neutralize the initiating structure style (Bryman, 1986). There are however only a handful of studies which have directly examined the relationship between leadership style and organization type. The evidence so far suggests that the different type of organization, for example, military, business, public sector organizations, university, have different leadership styles (Etzioni, 1968, 1975; Roberts, 1986; Rossel, 1970).

Organization Strategy

It has been noted that differences in company strategy and practice can make a difference in the manager's activities. For instance, Herbert and Deresky (1987) observed that general managers engaged in different activities, depending on their company's particular strategy. If the strategy was to develop the company, the most important activity to the general manager was person orientated development work. If the company's strategy was lowering costs and improving their product, the chief function of the general manager was production task oriented, e.g. engineering and research and development.

Voluntary Organizations

Pearce (1982) concluded that leaders of the voluntary organizations differ systematically from those in organizations where employees are paid to work.

Leaders in voluntary organizations depended much more on their followers than did the leaders in the employing organizations which, in turn, affected the style of the leader. Leaders in voluntary organizations are unlikely to exhibit a directive or controlling method because of a fear of losing volunteers who are more likely to work when they wanted.

Profit-making and Non Profit-making Organizations

It has been noted that special characteristics of an organization can make a difference in the manager's activities; for instance, managers in the public sector will deal with and concentrate on different matters than their counterparts in profit sector organizations. The main function of a public agency is to serve the public whether the function of the profit sector organization is profit making. Leaders of public organizations are affected by the political system, regulation, rules of bureaucrats. The public sector agency differs from the profit firm in its lack of dependence on the market, and different legal and formal restrictions (Lachman, 1985; Solomon, 1986; Drummond, 1989).

Farrow, Valenzi and Bass (1980) compared the perceptions of managers in 250 profit-making and 95 non profit-making U.S. firms and agencies about their environment, organization, task, work group and leadership styles. They found that profit sector managers, in comparison with public sector managers, saw themselves as being more active as leaders, more directive, negotiative, consultative and delegative.

Chitayat and Venezia (1984) however, observed that senior officials of non-business

organizations tend to employ more of the direction style and less of the participation style of leadership than business executives.

Dragon (1979) observed that the directors and supervisors of a public library tended to be higher in initiating structure and lower in consideration compared with their counterparts in many other types of organizations. This is consistent with Etzioni's theory that public organizations place greater emphasis upon social control (Etzioni, 1975).

New Leadership Styles and Organization

Research which has examined 'new' leadership styles (Bryman, 1992) and organization suggests that profit sector organizations are more likely to have charismatic style of leadership compared with public sector organizations. Leadership styles may vary according to whether the organization is a public or private one. For example, Roberts (1986), found that the charismatic and the inspirational style of leadership were more likely to be seen in the administrators from the profit university than in the administrators from the counterpart public university.

Bryce (1989) studied 326 managers (66 first level and 66 second level) from 14 Japanese companies. These companies represented a wide cross-section of Japanese business firms. They included utilities, manufacturing, banking, communication and trade organizations. These companies ranged in size from 320 employees to over 291,000 employees. Results showed that there was a major difference in leadership style, transformational transactional and laissez-faire between different companies,

which attributed to the difference in policy and structure and mission of these organizations

LEADERSHIP STYLE AND ORGANIZATION LEVEL

Does the leadership style at one organizational level differ from the level below, or does the style of leadership cascade from one organizational level to another? The evidence suggests that the relation is complex if indeed there is a relationship. (Bass,1985a). For Bass (1985a) transformational leadership was widely distributed and can be found at different levels of organization, such as top management, middle and even lower management.

Etzioni (1971) however suggests otherwise. He argues that there is a relationship. For Etzioni, personnel in lower levels are instrumental performers, middle managers' concern for decision about means and charismatic restricted to the top levels.

Evidence Against Cascading

There is some empirical evidence that would suggest that there is a significant difference in relationship between leader style and the organizational level. For example Heller and Kuki (1969) studied senior managers, first- and second-line supervisors and student leaders from 16 organizations. They found a significant difference in relationship between leader style and the organizational level. The higher the leader was in the authority hierarchy, the less centralized was his decision-making.

Jago and Vroom (1977) investigated the relationship between the hierarchical levels of management personnel and the individual differences in their leadership styles. They were seeking to determine whether leader behaviour varied with organizational level. The main difference was that managers at higher levels appeared to be more participative than those at lower levels. Jago and Vroom suggested that observed differences might be attributed to the of differential role played by managers at the strategic apex.

Blankenship and Miles (1968) have argued that the hierarchical position is the most important determinant of the leader's decision working behaviour. They concluded that if a manager had a position at or near the top, his decision was different from what it was if he were a lower level manager. That is, managers at a higher level exhibit greater reliance on followers and less on centralized decision-making.

Evidence For Cascading

There is also some empirical evidence that would suggest that subordinates tend to emulate their immediate superior's style, whether that style is directive or participative. For example Hammer and Turk (1985) found that the more pressure top management placed on supervisors, the more punitively they would behave towards their subordinates.

Burns (1978) argued that participative leaders have participative subordinates. Participation cascades from leaders to followers and the leaders become models to be imitated by their immediate followers. Tichy and Ulrich (1984) however suggest

otherwise; that top management's vision of change required the lower level manager to adopt the style of leadership which helps in implementing top management vision, rather than modelling their superiors.

Bowers and Seashore (1966) found out that the leader behaviour pattern exhibited by subordinates of a supervisor in an insurance agency was a reflection of leader behaviour exhibited by top managers.

Similarly, Stogdill (1955) concluded that participatory leadership at lower levels in an organization depended on its being practised at a higher level. Similarly, Ouchi and Maguire (1975) observed that the method of control used by subordinates for dealing with their respective subordinates tended to be the same method of control used by their superiors.

Katz, Maccoby and Morse (1950) noted that supervisors in an insurance firm tended to model their bosses. Coercive when the boss was coercive and participative when the boss was participative. However, modelling depended very much on the interaction between a manager and his superior. Kern and Bahr (1974), observed that supervisors who interacted a lot with their superiors, used them as a model. But such modelling did not occur when the interaction was less frequent. Sometimes the subordinates unconsciously adopt the boss's expression of speech and characteristics, and those of his manager in doing things.

New Leadership Styles and Organization Level

Research which has examined 'new' leadership styles (Bryman, 1992) supports the idea of cascading from one level to the level below, that is the amount of transformational and transactional leadership behaviour noticed at one organizational level tended to be seen at the next lower level in other words the leader styles of supervisors were similar to their superiors leadership style: For example Bass, Waldman, Avolio and Bebb (1987) collected self-rated and subordinate-rated leadership descriptions of second line managers, their first line supervisors and their subordinates in New Zealand in order to examine whether transformational and transactional leadership shown at one hierarchical level of management were reflective of that displayed at the next lower level. They concluded that a cascading effect of leadership behaviour had emerged. The amount of transformational and transactional leadership behaviour noticed at one organizational level tended to be seen at the next lower level.

Similarly Bass and Avolio, 1990 observed that transformational leadership appeared to be widely distributed at all hierarchical levels of profit-making, non profit-making and military organizations, at the top management as well as among supervisory positions. Modelling for transactional leadership occurs when a manager's boss rewards the manager for performance. Some of those rewards make it easy for the manager to reward his own subordinates in turn. Disciplinary action by the boss may require the same thing by the manager towards the subordinates. If superior practice management by exception means being loose with the manager, maybe the manager feels a similar freedom and does the same with his subordinates.

Bass (1985) studied 45 professionals and managers from New Zealand at different organizational levels. Bass expected to see more transformational and less transactional leadership at higher organizational levels. The results were more complex. Slightly more charismatic leaders were seen at higher levels. Slightly more individualized consideration and management-by-exception were seen at lower levels. In general, Bass concluded that the hierarchical level had a complex association with transformational and transactional factors.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

There is clearly considerable evidence to support the idea of a link between leadership styles and measures of motivation, effectiveness and satisfaction. However, the evidence is almost entirely correlational. The weakness of correlational research is that although it may suggest causal relations, it cannot determine this for certain nor is it possible to determine the direction of causality (Sekaran, 1984). In particular, a correlation between two variables may simply mask the presence of a third variable which is the cause of the other two! This means that we cannot be certain that leadership impacts positively upon employees.

The Impact of Organizations

Another issue arising from this review concerns the nature of theoretical frameworks. Studies so far have been mainly concerned with testing and retesting relations between leadership and outcomes. One glaring omission is the potential impact of the organization upon both the leader's style and the subordinate's orientation to the organization.

There is considerable evidence to suggest that the organization can affect both. Etzioni (1975), for example, suggests that leadership styles may be conditioned by the compliance structure of the organization. So called profit making or utilitarian organizations tend to be instrumental in their approach and employees respond with moderate degrees of motivation and involvement. So called non-profit normative organizations tend to utilize more expressive leadership styles (Rossel, 1970, 1971) and members typically respond with high involvement and high levels of motivation. There is, moreover, empirical evidence to support Etzioni's propositions (Drummond, 1993).

There are similarities between Etzioni's concept of symbolic and expressive power and Bass's concept of transformational leadership. Further, Bass's concept of transactional leadership is consonant with Etzioni's instrumental leadership.

Although the correspondence is far from exact, there are sufficient similarities to suggest that different types of organizations may encourage or be conducive to different leadership styles. For example, it seems possible that the military will use a very different style from a college or university but may be similar to that found in the police and other uniformed services. Clearly then, a major area of work remains to be explored.

Organization Level

The evidence suggests that the relationship is complex if indeed there is a relationship. (Bass, 1985a).

Intuitively it seems likely that leaders at the strategic apex will adopt very different styles from, say, a shop floor supervisor. Much may however depend upon the nature of the organization, for instance in the church leadership styles seem likely to be fairly homogenous at all levels.

Of course, studies have modelled as a one-way transaction or transformation without taking into account the influence of the subordinate upon the leader's style. Yet the evidence is of a two way and mutually influential interaction between parties (Kipnis and Schmidt, 1988).

It may be that the dual interaction is also partly a product of the situation and, therefore, likely to vary between different types of organization. Conceivably then, organization type is the key.

Outcome Variables

Previous studies have focused mainly upon the relationship between leadership styles and satisfaction with supervision, leader effectiveness and extra effort.

Bass appears to regard extra effort as the equivalent of motivation. Whilst willingness to exert effort is potentially a dimension of motivation, this approach seems partial not least because extra effort is measured upon a three item scale (Bass and Avolio). When one considers the dimension of motivation identified by Maslow and Hertzberg, it becomes clear that adequate treatment of the subject demands consideration of a wide set of needs and aspirations.

A major cost to organizations is stress. For instance, American industry is believed to lose in absence and fatalities resulting from stress related illness. Further, it is now becoming apparent that employers may be legally liable for the effects of occupational stress. Although stress has been the subject of considerable research (for example, Seltzer and Numerof, (1988) the relationship between leadership styles and stress is, relatively speaking, under-explored. For instance, Seltzer and Numerof (1988) has argued strongly that future research should look at the behaviour of supervisors and investigate the relationship between burn-out and leadership behaviour.

In summary then, although leadership is one of the most intensively researched subjects in the field of organization studies, there is clearly ample room for further development. In particular, the relationship between leadership styles and organization appears to offer a fruitful field of enquiry. This idea is elaborated in the next chapter.

CHAPTER THREE

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH AIMS DESIGN AND HYPOTHESES

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to develop the research model and hypotheses for testing it. Before proceeding to do so however, it is necessary to define the research problem. The rationale for the approach to the study is set out in more detail later. Briefly, the research problem was to address the following questions:

- What is the relationship (if any) between leadership style and organization type?

- What is the relationship (if any) between leadership style and organizational level ?

- What relationship exists between leadership style and employee motivation, job related tension, leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader?

THE NEED FOR RESEARCH

Leadership in Different Organizations

The previous review of literature makes little mention of contingencies with respect to new leadership. Old leadership theory stresses the importance of the situation in determining the leader's style. A weakness of existing knowledge is that new leadership fails to take account of the leader's situation whereas contingency approaches make little reference to the leader's personal style or characteristics.

Whereas there was a high level of consistency in the results that have been found in the new leadership studies. Such findings suggest that the correlation between

transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership and outcome is situationally contingent in that different organizations here yielded different findings (Bryman, 1992).

Whilst it would be too ambitious a task to attempt to develop a unified theory which seeks to integrate all of these variables, it may be possible to make progress by developing a simplified approach which attempts to *link leader style with level of bureaucratic formality in organizations. This is the first research aim.* *

The rationale for this approach is as follows. The main factor defining transformational leadership is charisma. Charisma is restricted by bureaucratic formality. Weber suggested that charisma is opposed to all institutional routine, and bureaucracy by its very nature is heavily routinized (Gerth and Mills, 1991). Therefore, relatively speaking, we would expect to see less transformational leadership in highly bureaucratic organizations where formal structure, rules and regulations, predominate. On the other hand, we would expect to see transformational leadership where change, innovation, new ideas encouraged because, change by its very nature is transformational. It was noted earlier in this thesis that > evidence shows that power is systematically related to organization type (Drummond, 1993). Power and leadership style as defined by Bass are sufficiently close to suggest that leadership styles will vary systematically according to organization type.

Predicted Relationships Between Leadership Style and Organization Type

Predicted relations between transformational, transactional, laisser-faire leadership and organization type may be summarised as follows:

(1) **Transformational leadership** - is expected to be highest in the profit organization and decrease towards the non-profit organization.

(2) **Transactional leadership** - is expected to be highest in the profit organization and decrease towards the non-profit organization.

(3) **Laisser-faire leadership** - is expected to be lowest in the profit organization, increasing towards the non-profit organization.

The predictions pertaining to variations of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire between organizations are summarised in Figure 3.1.

Organization	Trans-formational	Trans-actional	Laissez-faire
1. Profit	4	4	1
2. Semi-profit	3	3	2
3. Semi-Non profit	2	2	3
4. Non profit	1	1	4

Figure 3.1Predicted relation of research variables between organizations

The forgoing predictions are derived from Etzioni's (1975) theory of organizations. Etzioni predicts that organizations vary systematically in the means used to control their members. Etzioni implies that the more instrumental the organization, the greater the reliance upon transactional styles of leadership and the less reliance upon transformational styles.

In the Saudi Arabian context, non-profit public bureacracies function in a fairly instrumental fashion. They are against change and innovation, they stick to rules, procedures and routines. Instead of being a means to an end, bureacracy is an end by itself. Managers tend to be old, long serving, promoted on the basis of loyalty and long service rather than any form of merit system or performance appraisal. There is little encouragement or scope for the exercise of transformational leadership.

Conversely profit organizations are interested in achieving a surplus. Rules are therefore only a means to an end. Innovation is encouraged as is potentially profitable change. Most of the managers are young, university educated and trained in management techniques including leadership. There is considerable encouragement and scope for the exercise of transformational leadership as all the conditions are conducive to charisma, intellectual stimulation and so on.

It is expected, therefore, that transformational leadership will be highest in profit making organizations relative to non-profit making bureacracies. The latter are likely to place greater reliance upon transactional leadership as relationships are rule governed.

Etzioni further proposes that organizations vary according to the extent of formality. In other words, organizations which are part bureacratic, part profit making may place more reliance on transformational leadership than purely bureaucracy organizations but less than organizations purely concerned with making profit. They may rely more on transactional than purely profit organizations but less so than purely bureacratic organizations.

Leadership Within Organizations

The preceding review of the literature has said little about hierarchical differences within organizations. It is unclear whether leadership styles vary with seniority (Bass, 1985a).

Theoretical and empirical evidence exists suggest subordinates tend to *emulate* their immediate superior's style, whether that style is directive or participative, for example, Hammer and Turk (1985) and *Burns (1978)*.

According to these studies leader behaviour patterns exhibited by subordinates of a supervisor are a reflection of leader behaviour exhibited by top managers, in other words, there is sufficient evidence for leadership style cascading from one level to the level below, for example, the amount of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership behaviour noticed at one organizational level tended to be seen at the next lower level, for example, Bass, Waldman, Avolio and Bebb (1987), likewise Drummond (1993) demonstrated this point with respect to power and organizational level. The sufficient evidence encourages us to expect that there is *no relationship*

between leadership style and organization level. This is the second research aim.

Predicted relationship between leadership style and organizational level.

Predicted relationships between transformational, transactional, laisser-faire leadership and organizational level may be summarised as follows:

(1) *Transformational leadership* - is expected to be consistent throughout the organization.

(2) *Transactional leadership* - is expected to be consistent throughout the organization.

(3) *Laisser-faire leadership* - is expected to be consistent throughout the organization.

The predictions pertaining to these predictions concerning transformational, transactional and laissez-faire within organizations are summarized in Figure 3.2.

Organizational level	Trans-formational	Trans-actional	Laissez-faire
1. Top Managers	1	1	1
2. Middle Managers	1	1	1
3. Lower Managers	1	1	1

Figure 3.2

Predicted relations of research variables within organizations

Leadership Outcomes in Different Organizations

Bass suggests that transformational leaders are more effective in comparison with transactional and laissez-faire leaders. According to Bass, individuals working under transformational leaders will be highly motivated and satisfied with the leader in comparison with individuals working under a transactional leader or individuals working under a laissez-faire leader. Conversely, individuals working under transformational leaders are expected to report lower level of job related tension than do employees under other forms of leadership (Bass 1985, 1990; Bass and Avolio 1989; Hater and Bass 1990).

Most transformational leadership studies have employed correlation and research design, so the direction of causality is unclear Bryman (1992). For instance, does transformational leadership cause the effectiveness or does effectiveness lead to transformational leadership? Indeed, is there a causal relationship at all? Correlational research cannot allow for the possibility of exogenous or multiple causes.

To make progress we can hypothesize that if outcome variables, e.g., motivation and satisfaction with the leader affected by the leader's style, *then we would expect significant differences in these variables between organizations according to the predominant leadership pattern. This is the third research aim.*

It is proposed that transformational leaders are more effective than transactional or laissez-faire leaders, in that they stimulate greater motivated employee satisfaction and

less low job related tension employee in comparison with transactional and laissez-faire leaders. Since it is predicted that transformational leaders are most likely to be found in profit organizations as distinct from more bureaucratic forms. We would expect satisfaction with the leader, employee motivation, leader effectiveness to be highest in profit organizations and decrease towards the non-profit, more bureaucratic, organizations. Conversely job related tension is expected to be highest in non-profit organizations and decrease towards profit organizations.

Predicted Relations Between Outcome Variables and Organization Type 7[1]

The predicted relations between satisfaction with leader, employee motivation, job related tension, leader effectiveness and organization type may be summarized as follows:

(1) *Satisfaction with the leader* - is expected to be highest in the profit organization and decrease towards the non-profit organization.

(2) *Employee motivation* - is expected to be highest in the profit organization and decrease towards the non-profit organization.

(3) *Job related tension* - is expected to be lowest in the profit organization, increasing towards the non-profit organization.

(4) *Leader effectiveness* - is expected to be highest in the profit organization and decrease towards the non-profit organization.

The foregoing predictions are summarized in Figure 3.3.

Organization	Satisfaction with supervision	Motivation	Job Related Tension	Effectiveness
1. Profit	4	4	1	4
2. Semi-profit	3	3	2	3
3. Semi Non-profit	2	2	3	2
4. Non-profit	1	1	4	1

Figure 3.3

Predicted relations of research variables between organization

Leadership Style and Outcome Variables

Although transformational leadership is expected to have more impact upon outcome variables than transactional leadership. It is, nevertheless, expected that both forms of leadership will possibly correlate with employee motivation, leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader and negatively with job related tension.

Previous research suggests, however, that the correlations pertaining to transactional leadership will be substantially lower than those observed between transformational leadership and outcome variables. Conversely, the correlation between transactional,

transformational leadership and job related tension are expected to be lower in transformational than in transactional leadership.

As regards laissez-faire leadership, previous research suggests that the correlations will be substantially lower than those observed between transformational, transactional leadership and outcome variables. Conversely, the correlation between laissez-faire leadership and job related tension is expected to be higher than both transformational and transactional correlations.

In view of Bass's theory of transformational leadership plus evidence in the literature *the relationship between new leadership and outcome variables needs to be explored. This is the fourth research aim.* The following predictions are expected.

Predicted Relationships Between Leadership Style and Outcome Variables

The predicted relationship between leadership style, satisfaction with the leader employee motivation job related tension and leader effectiveness may be summarized as follows:

1)   *Transformational Leadership-* transformational leadership is expected to be positively related to satisfaction with the leader employee motivation and leader effectiveness. It is expected to be negatively related to job related tension.

2)   *Transactional Leadership-* transactional leadership is expected to be positively related to satisfaction with the leader, employee motivation and leader

effectiveness. It is expected to be negatively related to job related tension.

3) *Laissez-faire Leadership-* laissez-faire leadership is expected to be negatively related to satisfaction with the leader employee motivation and leader effectiveness. It is expected to be positively related to job related tension.

4) *Leadership Style Correlations* - the correlation between transformational leadership and satisfaction with the leader, employee motivation and leader effectiveness is expected to be higher than transactional correlations. Conversely, the correlation between transformational leadership and job related tension is expected to be lower than transactional correlations.

The foregoing predictions are summarized in figure 3.4.

	Transformational	Transactional	Laissez-faire
Satisfaction	3	2	1
Motivation	3	2	1
Tension	1	2	3
Effectiveness	3	2	1

Figure 3.4

Predicted relations between independent and dependent variables

RESEARCH VARIABLES OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS

The research variables concerning leadership are defined in accordance with Bass's

(1985a) own definition as follows:

Transformational Leadership

Refers to that which elevates subordinate performance above beyond normal

expectations (Bass, 1985a). Transformational leadership consists of the following

factors:

1. *Charisma (charismatic)*

Has a vision and a sense of mission. Gain respect, trust, and confidence. Acquires

strong individual identification from followers.

2. *Inspirational Motivation*

Gives pep talks, increases optimism and enthusiasm, and communicates his or her

vision with fluency and confidence.

3. *Intellectual Stimulation*

Actively encourages a new look at old methods, fosters creativity, and stresses the use

of intelligence. Provokes rethinking and reexamination of assumptions and contexts

on which previous assessments of possibilities, capabilities, strategies, and goals were

based.

4.   *Individualised Consideration*

Gives personal attention to all members, making each individual feel valued and each individual's contribution important. Coaches, advises, and provides positive feedback in ways easiest for each group member to accept, understand, and to use for personal development.

Transactional Leadership

Refers to that which causes subordinate performance through a cost-benefit, economic exchange process. Transactional leadership consists of the following factors:

1.   *Contingent Reward*

As an exchange of rewards for effort and specific levels of performance agreed between supervisor and employee.

2.   *Management by Exception*

Intervenes only if standards are not met or if something goes wrong.

Laissez-Faire Leadership

Indecisive, uninvolved, refer to leader who withdraws when needed reluctant to take a responsible stand.   Believes the best leadership is the least leadership.

Outcome Variables

Outcome variables are defined in accordance with the empirical literature as follows:

Employee Motivation

Employee motivation is defined as the degree to which a person wants to work well in his or her job in order to achieve personal satisfaction as distinct from "extrinsic" satisfaction arising from factors such as additional pay or good working conditions (Warr, Cook and Wall, 1979).

Satisfaction with the leader

The term satisfaction with the leader in this study refers to measures of the degree to which employees are happy and comfortable (satisfied with the leadership style under which they work) (Smith, 1962, 1976).

Leader effectiveness

The effective leader who develops a good relationship with followers successfully influences them to maintain a focus on goals (Bass,1981).

Job-related tension (stress)

A pattern of emotional states and physiological reactions occurring in situations where individuals perceive threats to their important goals that they feel unable to meet (Baron and Greenberg, 1990).

Organization Level

A person's position within the formal organization hierarchy classified in accordance with Mintburg's (1979) (see chapter four).

CONTROL VARIABLES

A number of variables are included in the study to act as control. These variables are sex, age, social status, type of organization, full experience, experience with present organization, experience in managerial position, number of people reporting to supervisor.

RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

From the foregoing predictions the following research hypotheses were derived:

1. **Leadership style varies systematically by organization type.**

   Transformational leadership varies systematically by organization type.

   Transactional leadership varies systematically by organization type.

   Laissez-faire leadership varies systematically by organization type.

2. **There is no relationship between leadership style and organization level.**

   There is no relationship between transformational leadership and organizational level.

   There is no relationship between transactional leadership and organizational level.

   There is no relationship between laissez-faire leadership and organizational level.

3.   **Outcome variables vary systematically by organization type.**

Satisfaction with leader varies systematically by organization type.

Employee motivation varies systematically by organization type.

Job related tension varies systematically by organization type.

Leader effectiveness varies systematically by organization type.

4.   **Leadership style and outcome variables (employee motivation, leader effectiveness, job related tension, and satisfaction with the leader) are related.**

Transformational leadership

Dimensions of transformational leadership are positively related to satisfaction with leader.

Dimensions of transformational leadership are positively related to employee motivation.

Dimensions of transformational leadership are negatively related to job related tension.

Dimensions of transformational leadership are positively related to leader effectiveness.

Transactional leadership

Dimensions of transactional leadership are positively related to satisfaction with leader.

Dimensions of transactional leadership are positively related to employee motivation.

Dimensions of transactional leadership are negatively   related to job related tension

Dimensions of transactional leadership are positively related to leader effectiveness

Laissez-faire leadership

Laissez-faire leadership is negatively related to satisfaction with the leader.

Laissez-faire leadership is negatively related to employee motivation.

Laissez-faire leadership is positively related to job related tension.

Laissez-faire leadership is negatively related to leader effectiveness.

SUMMARY

This chapter describes the research design which is summarized in figure 3.5. From

an overview of the literature a model was derived proposing systematic variations in

leadership style and various outcome variables between organizations. The basic

hypothesis underlying the whole research design is that transformational leadership

is thought most likely to occur in the least bureaucratic organizations and can be

found in all organizational levels. It is expected that bureaucratic organizations will

exhibit in transformational leadership.

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┌─────────────────────────────┐
│   LEADERSHIP FACTORS        │
│   Leadership styles         │
│   Transformational          │
│   Transactional             │
│   Laissez-faire             │
│                             │
└─────────────────────────────┘

┌─────────────────────────────┐
│   CONTINGENCY FACTORS       │
│   Work setting attributes   │
│   Formal bureacracy         │
│   Task                      │
│   Primary work group        │
│   Subordinates attributes   │
│   Authoritarianism          │
│ Internal-external oriantation ability │
└─────────────────────────────┘
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OUTCOME VARIABLES

Satisfaction with the leader

Employee motivation

Job related tension

Leader effectiveness

Figure 3.5

Sammary of Relationship between New
Leadership styles and Contingency Factors

CHAPTER FOUR

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

INTRODUCTION

The primary aim of the research was to investigate the impact of organization upon leadership styles. A further aim was to examine the relationship between leadership styles and outcome variables such as motivation, satisfaction with supervision and job related tension.

Since it was hypothesized that leadership styles would vary according to whether an organization was purely profit making, non-profit making or semi-profit making, the research design required good examples of each type.

The rationale for choice is explained in more detail later. Briefly four types of organizations participated in the research as shown in figure 4.1

Organization Type	Organization Researched
Profit	Bank
Semi-Profit	Industrial Corporation
Semi non-profit	Telecommunications Organization
Non-profit	Civil Service

Figure 4.1
Participating Organizations in the Research

A further consideration in the choice of organizations was the need for statistical comparisons at three levels. This meant that only large organizations could be considered.

SAUDI ARABIA CONTEXT

INTRODUCTION

This Section presents some background information concerning Saudi Arabia, its location, population, economy and social-cultural values. This Section introduces the reader to the country and may be helpful for the reader to understand something of the cultural and geographical context of the research.

LOCATION AND GEOGRAPHY

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia encompasses about four-fifths of the Arabian peninsula. Saudi Arabia is bordered on the north by Jordan, Iraq and Kuwait, on the east by the Arabian Gulf, Bahrain, Qatar and the United Arab Emirates, on the south by Oman and Yemen and on the west by the Red Sea (Al Farsy, 1990, p1) (see the Country Map in Figure 4.2). The Kingdom was formally founded in 1932 by His Majesty King Abdul Aziz Bin Abdul Rahman Al-Saud. Saudi Arabia occupies 2,240,000 square kilometres (865,000 square miles).

Geographically, Saudi Arabia is divided into four major regions, Najed, Hijaz, Asir and Al-Hasa. Major cities of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia are:

1.   *Riyadh*, the capital city of Saudi Arabia. It is a modern city popular in its architecture, broad highways, and its international airport. It is a seat of

government and a very important commercial centre.

2. *The Holy City of Makkah*, where prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him) was born. Makkah is the holiest city on earth to Muslims. The world muslims turn to the Holy City five times a day to pray, and make a pilgrimage to it once in their life when it is possible.

3. *Jiddah* is located on the Red Sea, and is a very important seaport and airport for pilgrims visiting the Holy City of Makkah. Jiddah boasts some of the most beautiful examples of modern architecture in the world (Al-Farsy, 1990).

4. *Jubail and Yanbu* The importance of these two cities, is that they provide the basis for the Kingdom's program to develop hydrocarbon-based and energy intensive industries. The objective of massive investment is to gain access to the world's petrochemical market and reduce the Kingdom's dependency on oil revenues (Al-Farsy, 1990).

CLIMATE

The climate of Saudi Arabia in general,is dry and hot in summer and cold in winter. Variations of climate occur between the coast and the interior, the interior is hot for much of the year, from June through to August. The temperature often reaches over 100 degrees fahrenheit in the peak of summer. In winter the temperature is generally mild by day but cold at night, sometimes falling to below freezing on the mountains. The coastal areas are cooler with temperatures seldom going above 80 degrees fahrenheit with high humidity. Rain in Saudi Arabia is irregular ranging from 6 inches per year to 20 inches in a year in the Southern region.

POPULATION

Saudi Arabia has a population of 16,929,294 of this 12,304,835 were Saudi and 4,624,459 non Saudi living in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. 50.4% of the Saudi were male compared to 70.4% of the non-Saudi (Ministry of Finance, 1992).

EDUCATION

Education in Saudi Arabia started only in 1949-50 with the personal support of Prince Faisal and the encouragement of Prince Fahad bin Abdul Aziz, who was the first Minister of Education, and is now the King. (Al-Farsy, 1990).

The Education policy in Saudi Arabia focuses on (1) allocating education to candidates most likely to benefit from it (2) equity in opening opportunities for education impartially to various groups and (3) free choice of Educational Careers to maximize motivation and flexibility (Al-Farsy, 1990).

Since the establishment of the Kingdom, educational development was received great concern and full support from the Saudi Government. Schools are established at a regular and speedy rate. Education is free to all. Education in Saudi Arabia includes different stages from Kindergarten to University, in addition to technical education and vocational training.
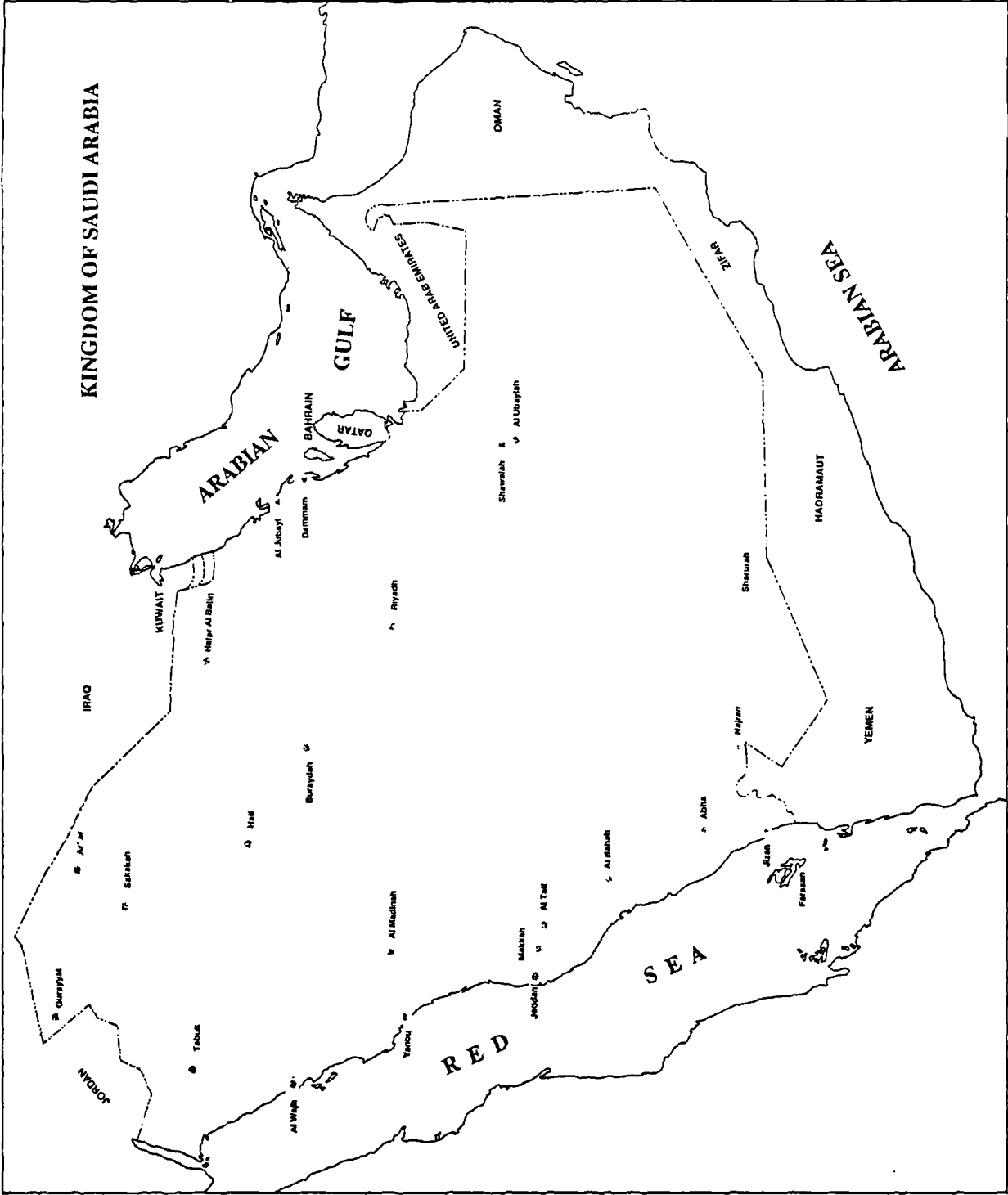
Figure 4.2

Country Map

Kindergarten is an elective stage for children aged 4-6 years, primary education is intended for children from 6-12 years. Intermediate education for the 12-15 age group and the secondary education for the ages of 15-18 years. Higher Education is provided in the Universities or University level Colleges.

The Kingdom commitment to the education is clear from its massive investment in all level of education.

Higher Education

Higher education follows secondary education and is provided by Universities or University level Colleges. In Saudi Arabi there are seven Universities located in different parts of the country. The enrolment of these Universities increases each year, for example, it increased from 8,000 to 48,000 between 1970 and 1980,and during 1980 and 1989 the total higher education enrolment grew to over 100,000 students (Al-Farsy, 1990).

SAUDI ARABIA'S ECONOMY

oil was first discovered in Saudi Arabia in 1932. Before that date the country had no integrated national economy. Economic revenue depended very much on pilgrims visiting Holy places (Makka and Medina) every year.

Oil was discovered in commercial quantities in 1938, but it was interrupted by the world war II. However since the end of the world war II oil has been the major source of revenue for the country.

Saudi Arabia's National Resources

The main natural resource of Saudi Arabia is oil, which was first discovered in 1938. Saudi Arabia has roughly 25% of the world's proven oil reserves. By the 1970s the country had become one of the major producers and the largest exporter of oil (Nyrop, 1984).

Saudi Arabia tried not to concentrate on oil production as its only resource, it began wide programs in industry and agriculture. It became the world's largest exporter of petrochemicals (Ministry of Planning, 1990).

The Kingdom's oil wealth was utilized to finance the country's ambitious development program. The welfare of the Saudi citizens was the primary concern of the five year development plans. The first plan was in 1970-1975, the second was in 1975-1980, the third in 1980-1985, the fourth in 1985-1990 and the fifth plan started in 1990.

Achievements of the first four development plans are as follows:

- ◆ Diversifying the economy and reducing dependency on oil.
- ◆ Raising the living standard and improving the quality of life.
- ◆ Maintaining economic and social stability.
- ◆ Regional development.
- ◆ Strengthening the role of the profit sector in the economy.
- ◆ Developing and completing the physical infrastructure.
- ◆ Developing human resources.

(Ministry of Planning, 1990, pp7-10).

The fourth development plan is different from the previous plans. Revenue was less than that available to the Government during the Third Development Plan. Therefore, a more realistic approach had to be adopted in financing projects (Al-Farsy, 1990). However, the major objectives of the fourth plan were to:

- ◆ Continue structural change in the economy to diversify the economic base and reduce dependence on crude oil as the main source of national income;

- ◆ Encourage the rapid development of the private sector as the principal mechanism for achieving economic diversification;

- ◆ Improve the economic efficiency of the Government sector;

- ◆ Complete the infrastructure projects necessary to achieve long term economic and social development goals;

- ◆ Further develop the Kingdom's human resources

(Al-Farsy, 1990, p17).

SAUDI ARABIA: SOCIAL - CULTURAL VALUES

The Social value system in Saudi Arabia is based on three major sub-systems : (1) religion (2) the family (3) tradition:

(1) Religion

The religion of Saudi Arabia is Islam. The Country is the birth of Islam, the total population of Saudi Arabia are Muslims. Islam religion is not only a religion but it is a way of life. Therefore, it has its impact on the society of Saudi Arabia. Islam is considered to be the source of political legitimacy, the judicial system, and the

moral code of the society (Al-Awaji, 1971).

According to Nyrop (1984) religion is the most single factor in Saudi Arabian culture. "Islam permeates every aspect of a Muslims' life, also permeates every aspect of Saudi Arabian state" (Al Farsy, 1990, p24). Islam in Saudi Arabia has a special importance, not only because it is the formal religion for the country but also is the frame of reference for political and social issues.

(2)   The Family

All social relations in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia are tied to the family consideration directly or indirectly and family obligation has priorities over all others (Lipsky, 1959). According to Nyrop (1984) Saudi Society differs from western and eastern societies for that the family unit is considered the main social structure for loyalty. Thus, the role of the Saudi family differs from the role of family in the west where individuals have more freedom and are free from any obligations towards the family. Therefore, the family ties in Saudi Arabia have an important role to play in affecting the individual. This ranges from marriage decisions to consultation in very important matters. Thus, social values and norms in Saudi culture play a crucial role in shaping the Saudi manager behaviour.

SAUDI POLITICAL SYSTEMS

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia was founded in 1932 by HM King Abdul Aziz Bin Abdul Rahman Al-Saud after many years of tribal wars. The role of the house of Saud rested on Islamic law. The constitution of the Kingdom is the Holy Quran which is suitable to be the constitution where the whole population are Muslims.

The council of Ministers (Majler Al-Wuzara) was established in 1953 as the natural political outcome of Abdul Aziz Bin Saud's final consolidation of power and unity over the young kingdom (Al-Farsy, 1990). The council of ministers consists of all active ministers and advisers. The Saudi Cabinet consists of twenty ministers. (See Figure 4.3).

The Council of Ministers is responsible for a number of matters, within the country and abroad such as approving the annual budget and authorizing treaties and agreements with international states.

SAUDI ARABIAN CULTURE AND LEADERSHIP

In the next section we will look to the Saudi Arabian manager behaviour. Saudi Arabian managers share more similarities with other Arab managers. Therefore, what affects Arabian managers applies to the Saudi manager. Behaviour is believed to be affected by two factors the social and the religious. Regarding social factors, the exeuctive role in the community and organization has been found to be congruent with society's paternalistic and family nature (Muna, 1980).

King's
Diwan

President:
HM The King

First Deputy
President
HRH Crown
Prince

Council
Cabinet

HRH Second
Deputy Pres.

Military
Section

Bureau of the
Presidency of
the Council of
Ministers

Secretariat
General of
the Council
of Ministers

Experts
Division

Agency for
Technical
Cooperation

Royal
Commission
for Jubail
& Yanbu

Ports
Authority

Post, Telegraphs
and Telephones

Planning

Health

Petroleum
& Mineral
Resources

Justice

Municipal
& Rural
Affairs

Interior

Industry
& Electricity

Labor &
Social
Affairs

Agriculture

Ministers
without
portfolio (2)

Pilgrimage &
Endowments

Housing
& Public
Works

Finance &
National
Economy

Foreign
Affairs

Communications

Commerce

Information

Higher
Education

Defense &
Aviation

Education

Figure 4.3

The Saudi Council of Ministers

Source: Al-Farsy, 1990, p49

The evidence is that Arab leader's style is to be affected by the social structure, norms, values and expectations of its people for example (Muna, 1980; Badawy 1980). Friendship and family relatives are the predominant factors that influence managers' behaviour (MEIRC, 1989). Arab Managers, especially the top executive, by virtue of his position in the organization, considers himself as the head of a family and sees employees as family members. The influence of society, is reflected in the Arab manager' style, where management of conflict, and inter personal relation is very clear (Muna, 1980).

Arab managers like to do business with familiar faces and they are affected by the personal touch. They focus on personal contact rather than procedure (Badawy, 1980).

Furthermore, finding from a number of the studies concerning the affect of culture on managerial behaviour suggests mid-eastern managerial styles is authoritarian with authority focused at the top (Muna, 1980). It was also observed that mideastern managers defend centralization of authority and close supervision of their employees.

The second factor in affecting Arab managerial behaviour is Islam. Islam plays a very crucial role in the Arab Society in general and Saudi Arabia society in particular. Isalm is the main religion in the Arab world. Saudi Arabians are 100% Muslims. Islam is not only a religion but also a way of life, because of that it has a very strong impact on the Arabian managerial behaviour. Islam is considered to be the frame of reference for most of the behaviour.

There are a number of studies, reflecting the influence Islam has on the managerial behaviour, for example, Muna (1980) found out that Arabian business executives, indicated that "consultation" is encouraged by Islam through the Holy Quran and the sayings of Prophet Mohammed. There is empirical evidence suggesting that a consultative decision-making style was the preferred style of the Arab business executive (Muna, 1980).

In spite of the similarities between all Arab managerial behaviour, Arab people differ from country to country (Badawy, 1980). Saudi managers have been found to be reluctant to take risks in daily decision making. There is also dislike of innovation in their behaviour, because they are afraid to make mistakes that may harm them or their immediate supervisors (Al-Nimir, 1981).

Saudi bureaucracy has suffered, in particular, from traditional attitudes among its managers which has led to low performance. However, consultation and participation is common in Saudi culture, for example Abdul-Wahab (1979) in his study, of decision making in Saudi Arabia, observed that the manager usually consults many members when making a decision, consults both his superior and subordinates, and also he may refer to his colleagues. Similarly Ali and Swiercs (1986) concluded that employees in Saudi Arabia are more satisfied with participative managers than autocratic managers. Their studies reflect the effect of culture on managerial leadership style (see Table 4.1).

It is clear from the previous discussion that culture has its impact on leadership

behaviour, however, this varies from one organization to another depending on the

type of organization and also depending on the nature of task performed and

subordinate's attributes. This clearly suggests that leadership is contingent, which is

the central feature of this thesis.

TABLE 4.1

SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN SAUDI ARABIAN AND NORTH AMERICAN MANAGERS

Predominant Characteristics	Saudi Arabian	North American
Decision style	Consulutative	Participative
Value systems	Outer-directed (tribalistic, conformist, socio-centric)	Inner-directed (ego-centric, manipulative, existentialist)
Authority delegation	Low	High
Organizational design	Flat, vague authoritative relationships, centralized authority	Tall, relatively decentralized with clear relationships
Staffing	Highly subjective selection depends on personal contacts, nepotism, regionalism, and family name	Relatively objective standards developed and qualifications and experience considered
Performance evaluation and control	Informal, absence of systematic controls and established criteria	Formal criteria, for example, cost reduction, quality control
Planning	Undeveloped, not highly regarded	Well developed, highly regarded

Adapted from Ali and Swiercs (1986, p148)

DESCRIPTION OF THE PARTICIPANT ORGANIZATIONS

The Profit Organization (The Saudi British Bank)

The Saudi British Bank is a Saudi joint stock company and was established on 21

January 1978. The Bank formally commenced activities on 1 July 1978 with the

taking over of operations of the British Bank of the Middle East in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

The Bank operates as a commercial bank and has a network of 50 branches in Saudi Arabia and a representative office in London. The bank consists of 4,000,000 shares, 60% of shares owned by Saudi shareholders and 40% owned by the British Bank of the Middle East.

The total number of staff members is 1046, the overall Saudi staff percentage is 53%. The bank places considerable emphasis on improving the quality and productivity of staff in order to meet the required standard and introduce better customer service. In order to achieve objectives, the bank focuses on implementing a well planned staff development policy for recruitment and selection. Appropriate training programmes have been arranged for staff to improve their performance and to ensure continued career progression.

The Saudi British Bank uses a business development plan and up to date technology. For example, the bank makes extensive use of computers and data communications. This advanced technology is essential for developing services to customers and for the management of the bank's operations. Moreover, the bank has developed a computer system which supports VISA and Mastercard to provide 24 hour automatic verification and authorization of transactions generated by card holders anywhere in the world. The bank continued to invest in the Electronic Securities Information system for trading on the local share market, since it is popular with local investors

and profitable to the bank.

The Saudi British bank continued to increase its growth and profitability, for example, net income for 1991 was SAR 250.5 million compared to 192.1 million reported in 1990, which represents a growth of 30.4%.

The Semi-profit Organization (Saudi Basic Industries Corporation (SABIC))

Saudi Basic Industries Corporation (SABIC) was established in 1976. It is a joint stock company. It has been acclaimed as one of the most rapid and coherent industrialization developments of the 20th century (SABIC Annual Report, 1991).

SABIC has been the stimulus for Saudi Arabian industrial growth over the past decade, and has become a major company in the petrochemical industry.

SABIC's modern, high-tech industries add a great value to Saudi Arabia's hydrocarbon and mineral resources, by using the methane and ethane gases associated with crude oil as fuel to produce over 12 million tons annually of petrochemicals, plastics, resins, fertilizers, and steel.

In 1983 SABIC established marketing companies in order to build a product supply and service bridge from Saudi Arabia to supply customers in more than 70 countries worldwide. SABIC has its place as a new leader in global petrochemicals and plastics industries. It is a partner in three world-class regional petrochemicals and aluminium industries, which facilitate utilizing advanced technologies and acquiring experience.

SABIC's partners from the United States are EXXON, Mobil, Shell, Hoechst-Celanese and Texas. Far Eastern partners include consortia led by Mitsubishi from Japan, the Taiwan Fertilizer Company of the Republic of Taiwan and Lucky Gold Star of South Korea.

SABIC employs approximately 10,000 employees from 42 different countries. Of these, 62 percent are Saudi nationals. The human factor is one of the primary concerns in SABIC strategy investment. Thus SABIC has a policy of attracting, developing and training qualified Saudi staff to grow with the company and preparing them to take on increasing leadership responsibilities.

To achieve these objectives SABIC has just completed the construction of a SAR 100 million SABIC industrial complex for research and development. The work of the new research and development complex will contribute to the high standard products quality which SABIC places great emphasis on.

The Semi Non-profit Organization (Saudi Arabia's Telecommunications)

Saudi Arabia's Telecommunications was established in 1977. It is one of the most advanced telecommunications systems in the world. The capacity of the telephone network exchange exceeds 1,300,000 lines, and both analogue and digital exchanges are computer controlled.

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia qualified to be "the gateway to the world", because of its modern facilities of telecommunications network along with its strategic position

and religious importance among the Islamic world. Saudi Telecommunications has seven international exchanges, four for telephone and three for telex communications.

The modern, highly reliable telecommunications network was called for to meet the growing demand for both local and international telecommunications. Saudi Telecommunications serves 340 cities, towns and villages in the Kingdom.

International telecommunications also developed in terms of capacity and services. Saudi Arabia's international telecommunications comprises of a variety of satellite systems, territorial systems, submarine cables and coastal radio systems, as well as international exchanges.

To achieve such ambitious objectives, telecommunications invest in training and development of Saudi nationals to obtain the technical, administrative and management skills necessary to operate a world class telecommunications network. To achieve the objective two telecommunications training institutes in Riyadh and Jeddah have been established. Moreover, arrangements for international scholarships have been made.

The Non-profit Organization (The Civil Service Bureau)

The main function of the Civil Service Bureau is to plan civil manpower for the Saudi Government and to ensure that the competence of civil servants matches what is required for implementing the development plans.

The Civil Service Bureau emerged 60 years ago as a small section consisting of 10 clerks in the Ministry of Finance and National Economy. The need for establishing new regulations and bylaws for developing recruitment led to expanding it to face these challenges in the Civil Service field.

More responsibilities and duties were delegated to the Civil Service Bureau which led to connecting it to the Cabinet for a period of 6 years. Later on the Administrative Reform Committee issued very wide duties and responsibilities to the Bureau which started as a new department organization, and was considered as an independent department having the right to suggest and issue the employees regulations and bylaws.

Now the Civil Service Bureau is responsible for the ruling and supervision of the Civil Service in Saudi Arabia and responsible for planning and organizing the Civil Service's affairs in the public sector. The Civil Service Bureau is responsible to the Civil Service Board, which was established in Riyadh in 1975. The Board is chaired by the King and the President of the Bureau is a permanent member of it.

The Civil Service Bureau organization consists of the following main sections:

1. The General Consultative department and branches, which are under the direct responsibility of the President.

2. The Supervisory and Executive departments, which are supervised and directed by the Vice-President for Executive Affairs.

3. General departments under the supervision of the Vice-President for Service

Development. These departments are concerned with research studies and development.

4.   The Department of Administrative Services supervised and controlled by the Director General of Administrative and Financial Affairs.

Functions and Responsibilities

1.   To carry out and prepare the studies and researches pertaining to the Civil Service Development and improvements, especially in the field of classification, salaries, allowance, compensations and bonuses.

2.   To offer the counselling and technical sides and the appropriate opinions relating to the Civil Service affairs and other specialisations and directed from the Civil Service Board in accordance with the laws, bylaws, regulations and decisions of the Board.

3.   The suggestion of laws and bylaws concerning the Civil Service and submit them to the Civil Service Board.

4.   The classification of jobs, and suggestions on salaries, allowances, and studying the jobs that are requested by other governmental departments in compliance with classification regulations.

5.   Layout rules and standards that govern recruitment policy in the Kingdom which is based on a system of merit and abilities.

6.   Study complaints raised by employees or those submitted by other governmental departments.

7.   Other duties and fields of responsibilities.

The Civil Service Bureau cooperates with the governmental departments in fulfilling the laws, bylaws, and regulations of the Civil Service in order to maintain the best possible results and to enhance productivity. It also regulates the processing of employees' records so as to achieve complete information about each employee.

Some of the Important Achievements of the Civil Service Bureau in the Last Few Years

1.   Executive regulations of the Civil Service.

2.   Employees' training regulations.

3.   Non-Saudi recruitment regulations.

4.   Non-cadre regulations.

5.   Performance evaluation regulations.

6.   Daily basis salary workers' regulations.

7.   Regulations for charging with additional duties.

8.   Medical reports regulations.

9.   Diplomatic representation regulations.

10.   Personal fitness regulations for occupying public jobs.

11.   High ranks appointment regulations.

The Bureau has issued several pamphlets, circulars, directories, and guides to help personnel researchers and specialists in fulfilling their duties and responsibilities.

DEFINING ORGANIZATION LEVELS

One of the research aims was to explore the possibility of systematic relations

between leadership style and effective responses within organizations. The definition of organization levels was guided by the theoretical models of Mintzberg (1979).

Mintzberg's model consists of three levels: operating core, middle level and strategic apex.

The Operating Core

The operating core of the organization encompasses those members - the operators - who perform the basic work related to the production of products and services (Mintzberg, 1979, p24). It should be explained that in Saudi Arabia, the term 'lower manager' is equivalent to first line supervisor. Although this group does not comprise the complete operating core, they are sufficiently close to so called 'hands on' level to justify being classified in this category.

Middle Management

Middle management includes all members of the organization not at the strategic apex or in the operating core. They perform all the managerial roles of the chief executive, but in the context of managing their units. Like the top managers they are concerned with formulating the strategy for their units (Mintzberg, 1979). In the present study the groups classified as middle managers carry out the functions identified by Mintzberg. They are typically responsible for seven or eight lower managers and act as the link between the lower echelons and the strategic apex. A particular responsibility is planning and execution of decisions.

The Strategic Apex

The strategic apexes are charged with overall responsibility for the organization. They are top level managers whose concerns are global. They are charged with ensuring that an organization serves its mission in an effective way, and also that it serves the needs of those people who control or otherwise have power over the organization (Mintzberg, 1979). In the present study the groups classified as top managers carry out the functions identified by Mintzberg. They are typically responsible for ensuring that an organization serves its mission in an effective way.

SURVEY ADMINISTRATION

A stratified random sampling technique was employed. Full details are contained in Appendix Two. Briefly, the aim in sampling was to obtain at least thirty respondents in each cell for the purpose of statistical analysis though it was recognized this would not be possible amongst senior management. Otherwise the aim was to seek samples as large as possible (Roscoe, 1975; Emory, 1980).

A letter of introduction from [HRH General Mete'b Ben Abdullah Ben Abdulaziz] Commandant of the King Khalid Military Academy was sent to the chief executive of each of the four organizations, encouraging them to participate in the study (see Appendix 3).

The researcher met the chief executive of each of the four organizations and introduced himself and the purpose of the study to seek cooperation. The purpose of this meeting was to obtain background information about the organization including

its culture, strategy and problems and also to discuss the mechanics of research. All Chief Executives participated with the utmost willingness.

The respondents were selected at random according to their job level, that is, a number was assigned to each name in the staff list of each stratum and a sample was drawn from it. Respondents were asked to describe their immediate superiors, to judge how often their superiors had displayed the behaviour described in the questionnaire.

A covering letter explaining the purpose of the survey and a guarantee of confidentiality signed by their manager and the researcher were included.

When the questionnaires were completed, they were collected by the researcher. The following table (4.1) shows the number of respondents and the number of questionnaires that were distributed for each organization.

TABLE 4.2

THE STRATIFIED SAMPLE

	Profit organization	Semi-profit organization	Semi-non profit organizations	Non profit organizations	Total
Top management	22/37 60%	39/45 86%	41/55 80%	23/32 72%	125/169
Middle management	33/38 87%	64/88 73%	54/72 75%	43/50 86%	194/248
Lower management	29/40 73%	65/90 72%	63/89 70%	29/40 73%	186/259
Total	**84/115**	**168/223**	**158/216**	**95/122**	**Grand Total 505/676**

Key: Number of respondents/number of questionnaires distributed

SUMMARY

The research problem dictated the research design. The research problem required investigating leadership style in different organizations to see whether these organizations vary systematically, plus examining any differences within them. In addition, to examine the relationship between leadership style and outcome variables.

Profit, semi-profit, semi non-profit and non-profit organizations were represented by the Saudi British bank, SABIC, Saudi Telecommunications and the Civil Service Bureau respectively.

The sampling strategy used in this research sought to eliminate sample bias and reduce sample error. A stratified random sampling technique was employed using a probability technique.

CHAPTER FIVE

CHAPTER FIVE

MEASUREMENT OF RESEARCH VARIABLES

INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the instruments used to measure the research variables and the rationale for choice of those measures. Briefly, since the design was fundamentally concerned with Bass's theory and concepts of leadership it was clearly appropriate to utilize Bass's measures in order to provide a point of comparison. The other research variables, that is, satisfaction, motivation and job related tension were also measured using psychometric instruments.

LEADERSHIP STYLES

Leadership styles were identified using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Bass and Avolio (1989). The scale is protected by copyright and therefore it is not possible to reproduce it here. However, sample items of each leadership style are reproduced in Appendix 1.

The scale has satisfactory psychometric properties. Reliability coefficients typically range from 0.77 through 0.95. As regards validity, the four transformational leadership scales correlated 0.73 on average with each other and 0.55 with contingent reward and -0.02 with management by exception. Management by exception correlated 0.20 with contingent reward and 0.25 with laissez-faire. Transformational leadership and laissez-faire leadership are negatively correlated. Correlations range from -0.47 to 0.56. Transactional leadership is negatively correlated with laissez-

faire leadership, correlation ranges from -0.28 to 0.25 (Bass and Avolio, 1989).

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is defined as aiming to elevate performance beyond contractual expectations (Bass, 1985a). Broadly, speaking transformational leaders recognize existing followers needs and tends to go further, seeking to arouse and satisfy higher needs.

Dimensions of Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is measured on four sub-scales. Each is described briefly below:

(1) Charismatic: (10 items)

Charismatic is defined as inspiring a sense of mission. The scale items attempt to tap the leader's success in gaining trust and confidence. For example, "Has my trust in his or her ability to overcome any obstacle."

(2) Inspirational Motivation: (7 items)

Inspirational motivation is defined as providing symbols and simplified emotional appeals to increase awareness and understanding of mutually desired goals. The scale items attempt to tap the leader's ability to give pep talks, increase optimism and enthusiasm, and communicate his or her vision with fluency and confidence. For example, "Uses symbols and image to focus our efforts".

(3) Intellectual Stimulation: (10 items)

Intellectual Stimulation is defined as encouraging a new look at old methods, and stressing the use of intelligence. The scale items attempt to tap the leaders success in encouraging and supporting followers to question their own way of doing things, questioning their own values, beliefs, and expectations, thinking on their own, addressing challenges, and considering creative ways to develop themselves. For example, "Enables me to think about problems in new ways."

(4) Individualized Consideration: (10 items)

Individualized Consideration is defined as giving personal attention to all members, making each individual feel valued and that each individual's contribution is important. The scale items attempt to tap the leader's success in treating followers differently but equally on a one-to-one basis, and also the leader's success in providing the advice, feedback and training needed for individual development. For example, "Coaches me if I need it".

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is defined as an exchange whereby the leader introduces economic and psychological rewards for performance (Bass, 1985a).

Dimensions of Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is measured on two sub-scales. Each sub-scale is described below.

(1) Contingent Reward: (10 items)

Contingent Reward is defined as an exchange of rewards for effort and specific levels of performance agreed between supervisor and employee. The scale items attempt to tap the leader's success in providing appropriate rewards when followers meet agreed objectives. For example, "Makes sure there is a close agreement between what he or she expects me to do and what I can get from him or her for my efforts".

(2) Management by Exception: (10 items)

Management by Exception is defined as intervening only if standards are not met or if something goes wrong. The scale items attempt to tap the leader's success in intervening when followers make mistakes, giving negative feedback, and negative contingent reinforcement. For example, "Takes action only when a mistake has occurred".

(3) Laissez-faire: (10 items)

Laissez-Faire leadership as the term suggests, denotes an aloof and uninvolved leader who withdraws when needed and is reluctant to take a responsible stand. The scale items attempt to tap "the avoiding leadership or the absent leadership where there is no transaction nor agreements with followers" (Bass and Avolio, 1993). For example, "Doesn't tell me where he/she stands on issues".

MEASURING SATISFACTION WITH SUPERVISION

Satisfaction with supervision is defined as the extent to which employees are happy and comfortable with the leaders style. It was measured using the Index of

Organizational Reactions (Smith 1962, 1976).

The scale was chosen because of its good psychometric properties (Cronbach's alpha

= 0.90) and suitability for the research population (Dunham, Smith and Blackburn,

1977). The scale consists of six items, for example, "Do you ever have the feeling

you would be better off working under different supervision?". The whole scale is

contained in Appendix One-B.

MEASURING EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION

Employee motivation is defined as the degree to which a person wants to work well

in his or her job in order to achieve personal satisfaction as distinct from "extrinsic"

satisfaction arising from factors such as additional pay or good working conditions.

It was measured using the Intrinsic Job Motivation Scale (Warr, Cook and Wall,

1979).

The scale was chosen because of its good psychometric properties and suitability for

the research population. The scale has a reported reliability coefficient of 0.82

(Cook, Hepworth, Wall and Warr, 1981).

The scale consists of six items, for example, "I take pride in doing my job as well

as I can". The whole scale is contained in Appendix 1A.

MEASURING JOB-RELATED TENSION

Job related tension is more commonly known as stress. Stress is defined as a pattern

of emotional states and physiological reactions which occur where individuals feel

threatened in some way and are unable to cope (Baron and Greenberg, 1990). It was

measured using the Job Related Tension Scale (Khan, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and

Rosenthal 1964).

The scale was chosen because of its good psychometric properties and suitability for

the research population (Mackinnon 1978). Reliability alphas are consistently around

the 0.87 level (Cook, Hepworth, Wall and Warr, 1981).

The scale consists of 15 items, for example, "Feeling that you have too little authority

to carry out the responsibilities assigned to you". The whole scale is contained in

Appendix 1C.

MEASURING LEADER EFFECTIVENESS

Leader effectiveness is defined as the development of good relations with followers

(Bass,1981), and the ability to influence followers. It was measured using the

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass and Avolio 1989). The scale was chosen

because of its relationship to Bass's work and therefore provided a point of

comparison.

There is satisfactory evidence of its good psychometric properties. The scale consists

of four items, for example, "How effective is the leader in meeting the requirements

of the organization?". This scale is also protected by copyright.

TESTING THE MEASURES

Informal Pre-testing

Pre-testing of research measures is desirable in all circumstances (Sekeran 1984, Nachmias, 1992). Pre-testing methodology such as this, according to Sudman, 1976 (cited in Bass, 1990a), evaluates both the survey instrument and the collection method to be used when a full survey is employed. The results of the survey instrument pre-test were used to revise and refine the final instrument and evaluate collection procedures. It is particularly important where the measure is to be introduced to respondents living and working in a different culture from those for whom the measure was originally designed.

The following procedure was adopted:

Stage 1

The questionnaire was first tested with friends as respondents. The purpose of the specific exercise was explained to each respondent. The researcher remained with them as they completed the questionnaire and discussed it afterwards. As a result of this exercise some idiosyncrasies were identified and eliminated. For example, a number of minor changes were made to improve the format of the document and to clarify the meaning of questions. Certain items were identified as problematic and therefore amended by the researcher. Such amendments were not thought likely to harm the integrity of the scale (Cook, Hepworth, Wall and Warr, 1981).

The items concerned were as follows:

(1)   "Doesn't contact me if I don't contact him or her."

Amended to read: "Doesn't communicate with me if I don't communicate with him or her".

(2)   Question 79 which asks about primary education was moved to part one which concerns respondents general background.

(3)   Questions 77 and 78 which asks respondents about their position and the highest level existing in their organization, was modified in accordance with Saudi Arabian organizations which basically consist of top management, middle management, lower management.

Stage 2

The questionnaire was distributed to a pilot sample of twenty-two respondents. Respondents were chosen to resemble as far as possible the target research population. The aim of this exercise was to observe respondents' reactions to the questionnaire and to test reliability coefficients.

The results indicated Cronbach's alpha of over 0.80 on all items with the exception of management by exception ($r=0.07$) and laissez-faire ($r=0.25$). Such low reliability coefficients seemed surprising. Although the measures have not as far as is known been previously used in a Saudi Arabian context, it seemed unlikely that the problem was a cultural one in view of the high reliability levels achieved on the other measuring scales.

The researcher asked respondents to repeat the exercise. The results were virtually identical to those observed on the first exercise. Discussion with respondents suggested that a translation fault may have confounded the exercise. Accordingly the questionnaire was translated from English to Arabic and then from Arabic back into English. The purpose of this procedure was to ensure that the Arabic version was a faithful reproduction of the original. The services of a professional translator were employed in this exercise.

Stage 3

A formal pilot study was then carried out in one research organization as a full pre-test. The organization was the Saudi Basic Industries Corporation, as an example of a semi-profit organization. The purpose of this exercise was to emulate, as far as possible, the main study. A stratified random sampling procedure was used to select respondents.

All measures met the reliability criterion $r=0.60$ or higher. No further amendments were necessary. The final version of the questionnaire is shown in Appendix 1 subject to copy restrictions mentioned earlier.

SUMMARY

This chapter has described how leadership and satisfaction with the leader, motivation of employee and job related tension, and leader effectiveness were measured. The measures consisted of psychometric scales which were translated into Arabic and pilot tested. In the next chapter the results of the research are presented.

CHAPTER SIX

CHAPTER SIX

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

INTRODUCTION

This chapter contains the results of the research. The major purposes of the study were to answer the following questions:

♦ What is the relationship (if any) between leadership style and organization type?

♦ What is the relationship (if any) between leadership style and organizational level ?

♦ What relationship exists between leadership style and employee motivation, job related tension, leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader?

Data were analyzed by one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Duncan's *a posteriori* test. Basically ANOVA assesses whether observed differences between groups are statistically significant. The Duncan test identifies the specific groups between which the differences lie. For a full description of the technique please see Appendix Five. Details of the preliminary data analysis including tests of reliability, means and standard deviation of the main study variables are contained in Appendices Seven and Eight. All variables meet the required criteria for reliability, that is r = 0.60 or higher.

TESTING HYPOTHESES LINKING LEADERSHIP STYLE BY ORGANIZATION

Table 6.1 shows a one way ANOVA of leadership styles by organization. The most striking feature of the data meaning transformational and transactional leadership styles is the consistency of differences between the non-profit organization and the other research organizations all of which are in the hypothesized direction. That is, both forms of leadership are significantly lower in the non-profit making organization.

Table 6.1
ONE WAY ANOVA OF TRANSFORMATIONAL, TRANSACTIONAL AND LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATIONS

Organization (N=)	Trans-formational	Trans-actual	Laissez-faire
1. Profit (84)	2.5	2.3	1.7
2. Semi-profit (168)	2.4	2.3	2.2
3. Semi-Non profit (158)	2.4	2.2	1.7
4. Non profit (95)	2.1	1.9	1.7
F Ratio	2.86*	7.28*	28.55*
Duncan Test	1>2 1>3 1>4* 2>3 2>4* 3>4*	1<2 1>3 1>4* 2>3* 2>4* 3>4*	1<2* 1>3 1<4 2>3* 2>4* 3<4

* $P < .05$

The relationship between laissez-faire leadership and organizations differs from the

previous two styles in that it is significantly higher in the semi-profit than in any of the other three research organizations.

In order to ascertain whether the data might be concealing inconsistencies, or a further significant relationship, a separate analysis was performed for each level. These did not reveal anything new but for the sake of completeness are contained in Appendices Thirteen to Fifteen-B.

TESTING HYPOTHESES LINKING DIMENSIONS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION

Table 6.1A shows one way ANOVA of the various dimensions of transformational leadership by organization. With exception, the observed differences are generally as expected, and similar to those observed in transformational leadership. The exception is that there are no significant differences between organizations in intellectual stimulation. The results of charismatic leadership are similar to those observed generally in transformational leadership. The exception is that there is no significant difference between non-profit organizations and both semi-profit and semi non-profit organizations. There is a significant difference between a profit making organization and a semi-profit organization which was not observed in transformational leadership generally.

Table 6.1A

ONE WAY ANOVA OF DIMENSIONS OF
TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATIONS

Organization (N=)	Charis-matic	Inspirational Motivation	Intellectual Stimulation	Individualized Consideration
1. Profit (84)	2.7	2.6	2.4	2.5
2. Semi-profit (168)	2.5	2.4	2.3	2.4
3. Semi Non-profit (158)	2.5	2.4	2.3	2.4
4. Non-profit (95)	2.4	2.2	2.2	2.0
F Ratio	2.59*	3.13*	.95	4.73*
Duncan Test	1>2* 1>3 1>4* 2<3 2>4 3>4	1>2 1>3 1>4* 2<3 2>4 3>4*	1>2 1>3 1>4 2>3 2>4 3>4	1>2 1>3 1>4* 2>3 2>4* 3>4*

* $P < .05$

The results for inspirational motivation are similar to those observed in transformational leadership generally. The exception is that there is no significant difference between a non-profit organization and a semi-profit organization. There is, however, a significant difference between a non-profit organization and both profit making and semi non-profit making organizations on this dimension.

The results concerning intellectual stimulation are different from those observed in

transformational leadership generally in that none of the differences is significant. The results of individual consideration are similar to those observed in transformational leadership generally.

TESTING HYPOTHESES LINKING DIMENSIONS OF TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION

Table 6.1B shows one way ANOVA of dimensions of transactional leadership. With one exception observed differences are as expected and similar to those observed in transactional leadership generally. The results concerning contingent reward leadership are similar to those observed in transactional leadership. The exception is, there were no significant differences between semi-profit and semi non-profit organizations which were observed in transactional leadership generally. The results for management by exception are similar to those observed in transactional leadership. The exception is that there is no significant difference between semi non-profit and non-profit organizations and also between semi-profit and semi non-profit organizations which were both observed in transactional leadership generally.

Table 6.1B

ONE WAY ANOVA OF DIMENSIONS OF
TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION

Organization (N=)	Contingent Reward	Management by exception
1. Profit (84)	2.2	2.3
2. Semi-profit (168)	2.3	2.4
3. Semi Non-profit (158)	2.2	2.2
4. Non-profit (95)	1.7	2.1
F Ratio	7.00*	5.14*
Duncan Test	1<2 1>3 1>4* 2<3 2>4* 3>4*	1<2 1>3 1>4* 2>3 2>4* 3>4

* $P < .05$

TESTING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OUTCOME VARIABLES AND ORGANIZATION TYPE

Table 6.2 shows the relationship between outcome variables and organization type. With a few exceptions, observed differences are as expected.

Satisfaction with supervision is significantly higher in profit organizations than in the other organizations. The exception is that there is no difference in satisfaction levels between profit and semi-non-profit. Further, no other comparisons are significant.

Table 6.2

ONE WAY ANOVA OF OUTCOME
VARIABLES BY ORGANIZATION

Organization (N=)	Satisfaction with supervision	Motivation	Job Related Tension	Effectiveness
1. Profit (84)	3.6	6.1	2.3	2.8
2. Semi-profit (168)	3.2	5.6	2.4	2.5
3. Semi Non-profit (158)	3.4	5.9	2.4	2.6
4. Non-profit (95)	3.3	6.0	2.4	2.4
F Ratio	6.06*	10.25*	.68	3.25*
Duncan Test	1>2* 1>3 1>4* 2<3* 2<4 3>4	1>2* 1>3 1>4 2<3* 2<4* 3<4	1<2 1<3 1<4 2>3 2<4	1>2* 1>3 1>4* 2<3 2>4 3>4

* = P<.05

The results for motivation display a partial pattern of systematic variation. Motivation is significantly higher in the profit organizations than the semi-profit organizations. It is lower however in the semi -profit than the semi non-profit and the non-profit organization.

Leader effectiveness is significantly higher in the profit organization than in any of the other three research organizations. The exception is that there is no difference in leader effectiveness between profit and semi-non-profit. Further, no other comparisons are significant.

Tension levels between organizations are in the predicted direction but none of the comparisons are significant.

TESTING HYPOTHESES LINKING LEADERSHIP STYLE TO ORGANIZATION LEVEL

Table 6.3 shows a one way ANOVA of leadership styles by organization level.

The data do not reveal any significant differences in all levels. In order to ascertain whether the data might be concealing inconsistencies or further significant relationships, a sub-analysis was performed for each organization stratum. These did not reveal anything new but for the sake of completeness are contained in Appendices Sixteen to Nineteen-B.

Table 6.3

ONE WAY ANOVA OF TRANSFORMATIONAL TRANSACTIONAL AND LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION LEVEL

Organizational level (N=)	Trans-formational	Trans-actional	Laissez-faire
1. Lower Manager (186)	2.5	2.3	1.9
2.Middle Manager (194)	2.4	2.2	1.9
3. Top Manager (125)	2.3	2.1	1.8
F Ratio	.99	.91	.53
Duncan Test	1>2 1>3 2>3	1>2 1>3 2>3	1<2 1>3 2>3

TESTING HYPOTHESES LINKING DIMENSIONS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP TO ORGANIZATION LEVEL

Table 6.3A shows one way ANOVA of the various dimensions of transformational leadership by organization level. With one exception, the observed differences are generally as expected, and similar to those observed in transformational leadership. The exception is that there are significant differences between organization levels in individualized consideration. The results of charismatic leadership are similar to those observed generally in transformational leadership.

The results for inspirational motivation are similar to those observed in transformational leadership generally.

Table 6.3A

ONE WAY ANOVA OF DIMENSIONS OF
TRANSFORMATIONAL, LEADERSHIP
BY ORGANIZATION LEVEL

	Charis-matic	Inspirational Motivation	Intellectual Stimulation	Individualized Consideration
1. Lower Manager (186)	2.6	2.4	2.4	2.5
2. Middle Manager (194)	2.5	2.4	2.3	2.3
3. Top Manager (125)	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.2
F Ratio	1.21	.21	.80	2.83*
Duncan Test	1>2 1>3 2>3	1>2 1>3 2>3	1>2 1>3 2<3	1>2 1>3* 2>3

The results concerning intellectual stimulation are similar to those observed in transformational leadership generally. The result of individual consideration is different from those observed in transformational leadership, in that there are significant differences between lower managers and top managers in individualized consideration.

TESTING HYPOTHESES LINKING DIMENSIONS OF TRANSACTIONAL

LEADERSHIP TO ORGANIZATION LEVEL

Table 6.3B shows one way ANOVA of dimensions of transactional leadership.

Observed differences are as expected and similar to those observed in transactional

leadership generally. The results concerning contingent reward leadership are similar

to those observed in transactional leadership generally. The results for management

by exception are also similar to those observed in transactional leadership generally.

Table 6.3B

ONE WAY ANOVA OF DIMENSIONS OF TRANSACTIONAL, LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION LEVEL

Organizational level (N=)	Contingent Reward	Management by Exception
1. Lower Manager (186)	2.2	2.3
2. Middle Manager (194)	2.1	2.3
3. Top Manager (125)	2.1	2.2
F Ratio	1.38	.19
Duncan Test	1>2 1>3 2>3	1<2 1>3 2>3

TESTING THE CORRELATION BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE AND OUTCOME VARIABLES

Table 6.4 shows the correlation analysis between leadership style and outcome

variables (satisfaction, motivation, leader effectiveness and job related tension). The magnitude and direction of correlation coefficients is broadly in accordance with predictions. Transformational leadership is strongly and positively correlated with employee satisfaction and leader effectiveness r's respectively are 0.67, 0.75. Transformational leadership and employee motivation are positively but weakly correlated r = 0.21.Transformational leadership is weakly and negatively correlated with job related tension, the correlation coefficient being 0.22.

Transactional leadership is moderately and positively correlated with employee satisfaction and leader effectiveness, r's respectively are 0.56, 0.59. Transactional leadership and employee motivation are positively but weakly correlated r = 0.18. Transactional is weakly and negatively correlated with job related tension, the correlation coefficient being 0.16.

No significant correlation exists between laissez-faire leadership and employee motivation, leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader. Laissez-faire is weakly and positively correlated with job related tension, the correlation coefficient being 0.12

The differences in magnitude between correlations are as predicted. Correlations between transformational leadership and outcome variables are slightly higher than those for transactional leadership. The exception is the correlation with job related tension.

In order to ascertain whether the data might be concealing inconsistencies or further

significant relationships, a sub-analysis was performed for each organization stratum.

These did not reveal anything new but for the sake of completeness are contained in

Appendices Nine to Twelve-B.

Table 6.4

PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE AND OUTCOME VARIABLES

	TRANS-FORMATIONAL	TRANS-ACTIONAL	LAISSEZ-FAIRE
SATISFACTION	.67***	.56***	.01
MOTIVATION	.21***	.18**	-.08
TENSION	-.22***	-.16**	.12*
EFFECTIVENESS	.75***	.59***	-.06

Note: N=505
***   P<.001
**   P<.01
*   P<.05

TESTING THE CORRELATION BETWEEN DIMENSIONS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND OUTCOME VARIABLES

Table 6.4A shows the correlational analysis between dimensions of transformational

leadership and outcome variables. The magnitude and direction of correlation

coefficients is broadly in accordance with predictions and similar to those observed

in transformational leadership generally. Charismatic leadership is strongly and

positively correlated with employee satisfaction and leader effectiveness, r's respectively are 0.70, 0.74. Charismatic leadership and employee motivation are positively but weakly correlated, r = 0.25. Charismatic is weakly and negatively correlated with job related tension, the correlation coefficient is of 0.23 .

Inspirational motivation leadership is moderately and positively correlated with employee satisfaction with leadership and strongly and positively correlated with leader effectiveness r's respectively are 0.64, 0.72. Inspirational motivation and employee motivation are positively but weakly correlated, r = 0.20. Inspirational motivation leadership is weakly and negatively correlated with job related tension, the correlation coefficient is of 0.21.

Intellectual stimulation is moderately and positively correlated with satisfaction with leadership and strongly and positively correlated with leader effectiveness r's respectively are 0.60, 0.70. Intellectual stimulation leadership and employee motivation is positively but weakly correlated, r= 0.18. Intellectual stimulation is weakly and negatively correlated with employee job related tension, the correlation coefficient is of 0.16.

Individualized consideration leadership is moderately and positively correlated with satisfaction with leadership and strongly and positively correlated with leader effectiveness, r's respectively are 0.63, 0.71. Individualized consideration leadership and employee motivation are positively but weakly correlated r = 0.19.Individualized consideration leadership is weakly and negatively correlated with job related tension

the correlation coefficient being 0.25

As expected the correlation between charismatic leadership and outcome variables are slightly higher than other transformational dimensions.

Table 6.4A

PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION BETWEEN DIMENSIONS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND OUTCOME VARIABLES

	Charis-matic	Inspirational Motivation	Intellectual Stimulation	Individualized Consideration
SATISFACTION	.70***	.64***	.60***	.63***
MOTIVATION	.25***	.20***	.18**	.19**
TENSION	-.23***	-.21***	-.16**	-.25***
EFFECTIVENESS	.74***	.72***	.70***	.71***

Note: N=505

***   P<.001
**   P<.01
*   P<.05

TESTING THE CORRELATION BETWEEN DIMENSIONS OF TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND OUTCOME VARIABLES

Table 6.4B shows the correlation analysis between dimensions of transactional leadership style and outcome variables. The magnitude and direction of correlation coefficients is broadly in accordance with predictions and similar to those observed in transactional leadership generally. Contingent reward leadership is moderately and positively correlated with employee satisfaction with the leader and leader effectiveness, r's respectively are 0.57, 0.62. Contingent reward leadership and motivation are positively but weakly correlated, r = 0.13.

Contingent reward leadership and job-related tension are negatively but weakly correlated, r = 0.25.

Management by exception is weakly and positively correlated with employee satisfaction with the leader and leader effectiveness, r's respectively are 0.44, 0.53. Management by exception and employee motivation are positively but weakly correlated, r = 0.22.

There is no correlation between management by exception and job- related tension.

The magnitude of correlations between contingent reward and outcome variables is slightly higher than those for management by exception. The exception is the correlation with job related tension.

Table 6.4B

PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATION BETWEEN DIMENSIONS OF TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND OUTCOME VARIABLES

	Contingent Reward	Management by Exception
SATISFACTION	.57***	.44***
MOTIVATION	.13*	.22***
TENSION	-.25***	.00
EFFECTIVENESS	.62***	.43***

Note: N=505

***   P<.001
**   P<.01
*   P<.05

SUMMARY

In this chapter the research hypotheses were tested using a one way analysis of variance (ANOVA), Duncan's *a posteriori* test was used to identify systematic differences in leadership styles, principally between organizations but also within them. ANOVA was used to identify any differences in leadership styles in organizations level. ANOVA was used to identify the relationship between outcome variables and organization type. A correlational analysis was employed to

examine the relationship between leadership styles and outcome variables.

The main analysis revealed that, with exceptions, transformational and transactional leadership are significantly lower in the non-profit organizations than any of the other three research organizations. Laissez-faire leadership is significantly higher in the semi-profit organizations than in any of the other three research organizations. The analysis also revealed no significant differences in leadership at all levels.

The correlational analysis revealed that dimensions of both transformational leadership and transactional leadership were positively related to employee motivation, leader effectiveness and satisfaction with leader, and negatively related to job related tension but transactional leadership correlations were lower than transformational correlations in outcome variables except in job related tension which were higher.

Laissez-faire leadership was positively related to job related tension. There was almost no significant relationship between laissez-faire leadership and motivational variables.

These results are discussed in the next chapter, and conclusions drawn.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CHAPTER SEVEN

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

INTRODUCTION

Taking an overall view of the results it is clear that they form a pattern. The most conclusive evidence is that the both forms of leadership, transformational and transactional, are significantly lower in the non-profit making organization. The second most conclusive evidence is that the data reveal no significant differences in leadership styles between organization levels.

Before discussing the reasons for support and non support of the research hypotheses, it is necessary to be clear about the limitations of the study in order to view the findings in context. This research is limited by the number of organizations studied, sample sizes and selection, and the measures employed. The study focuses upon only one example of each type of organization (profit, semi-profit, semi non-profit and non-profit), all located within one narrow geographical area (Riyadh the capital of Saudi Arabia).

It must also be acknowledged that sample sizes for lower and top managers for non-profit organizations are fairly small. Measurement of employee motivation and satisfaction with the leader have not been employed before for the testing of this theory.

TESTING HYPOTHESES LINKING LEADERSHIP STYLE BY ORGANIZATION

According to Bass (1985a) transformational leadership is less likely to be seen in state agencies where bureaucracy, rules, procedure and change often occur as a consequence of political trade-offs among powerful coalitions. He said, do not look for charismatic leadership in the already old, highly structured organizations.

It was hypothesised that leadership style would vary systematically by organization type. The results support this hypotheses in so far as the level of transformational and transactional leadership in the non-profit organization is significantly lower than the other research organizations. The results for laissez-faire too are partly as predicted.

Clearly then, this study suggests that new leadership is partly contingent. The most significant feature of the data is the comparative lack of transformational leadership in the bureaucracy. This suggests that such organizations rely on rules and regulations rather than inspiration or even transactional leadership initiatives. It should be noted that transactional leadership is also significantly lower. The implications of the findings are discussed later in the chapter.

The data do not, however, support the idea that transformational leadership is more highly pronounced in a profit organization rather than semi-profit or semi-non profit organizations. This may suggest that high levels of transformational leadership are only found in exceptional organizations with very personalised leadership styles. The most probable explanation is that these organizations are too similar for there to be

much variation between them. These groups are all profit-oriented to some extent and they use modern techniques of management. They are more open to transformation compared to other organizations and ready to change to meet changeable situations in a turbulent world. The rules and procedures are flexible. New ideas, new products will be encouraged. Unlike bureaucratic organizations where rules, procedure, political interference makes changes difficult.

As regards laissez faire leadership, the results are somewhat contradictory to predictions in that it is significantly higher in the semi-profit organization than any of the others. This again clearly suggests the influence of contingencies though it is difficult to explain why this relationship should occur. It is possible that laissez-faire is an effective form of leadership in certain organizations depending on the type. Depending upon the task performed leadership may be appropriate for for semi-profit organization since it is an industrial corporation working in the field of petro chemical having many engineers. Meltzer (1956) reported that scientists are most productive when they have freedom to control their research activities. Similarly, Pelz and Andrews (1966) found that most effective scientists were self-directed and valued freedom.

Another possibility may be the structure of this organization with many subordinates reporting to a designated supervisor. Having too many people to supervise reduces the effectiveness of the supervisor. There is another explanation on the choice of subordinates. If a laissez-faire leader has highly competent subordinates then effectiveness and great achievement is possible without significant intervention from

the leader. If the leader has incompetent, irresponsible subordinates then the result will be disastrous (Bass, 90a, 548).

TESTING HYPOTHESES LINKING DIMENSIONS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION

Results for transformational leadership subscale are consistent with the overall pattern. The exception is intellectual stimulation where differences are in the hypothesized direction but failed to reach a significant level.

This suggests three possibilities. Firstly, what is intellectual stimulation? Intellectual stimulation, as mentioned in chapter one, occurs through introducing new ideas as well as rethinking of traditional methods, questioning belief values and trying to introduce new ways of solving problems. Through this factor of transformational leadership, subordinates encouraged to be independent and autonomous. This factor may be discouraged in a conservative society like Saudi Arabia.

Another possibility is that charisma, for it to succeed, may require suspension of intellectual stimulation. Charisma depends on blind, unquestioning trust (Bass, 1985a). Intellectual stimulation can mean questioning received wisdom.

TESTING HYPOTHESES LINKING DIMENSIONS OF TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION

Results for transactional leadership subscales are consistent with the overall pattern.

The exception is that observation applies particularly more to contingent reward than management by exception . In the case of the contingent reward the comparison between the semi-non profit organization and the non-profit organization is significant whereas in the case of the management by exception it is not.

This suggests that both transformational and transactional are contingent but that the relationship is most in evidence where contrasts between organizations are pronounced. Also, it suggests that contingent reward sub-factor is close to transformational factors.

TESTING THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN OUTCOME VARIABLES AND ORGANIZATION TYPE

It was hypothesised that outcome variables would vary systematically by organization type. With exception, the results support this hypotheses in so far as the level of satisfaction with supervision, employee motivation and leader effectiveness in the profit organization is significantly higher than the other research organizations. The results for job related tension are in the predicted direction but failed to reach a significant difference.

Clearly then, this study suggests that satisfaction with the leader employee motivation and leader effectiveness are affected by the leader's style because results show differences in these variables according to the predominant leadership style. It is clear that satisfaction, motivation and effectiveness are higher in the profit organization where transformational leadership is predominant. This consists with

(Singer, 1986, 1990; Kuhnert and Lewis, 1987).

As regards job related tension the results are as predicted, but failed to reach significant differences. This may be because of the sample size or similarity between organizations, or possibly job related tension is not affected by organization type.

TESTING HYPOTHESES LINKING LEADERSHIP STYLE TO ORGANIZATION LEVEL

It was hypothesized that would be no relationship between leadership style and organization level. The results support this hypothesis in so far as the level of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership do not vary significantly by organization level.

Clearly then, this study suggests that new leadership supports the concept of cascading leadership styles is potentially valid. This suggests subordinates tend to model their behaviour on that of their superior. This suggests that senior level leaders play an important part in determining the effective climate of the organization.

TESTING HYPOTHESES LINKING DIMENSIONS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP TO ORGANIZATION LEVEL

There is one exception to this pattern, however. Individualized consideration is significantly higher amongst lower managers. Further, the findings here are consistent with Bass (1985) who found that lower managers exhibit slightly more individualized consideration compared with top management. This may be explained by the fact that since junior managers are in greater contact with staff, they function

as intermediaries between the lower echelons and senior management. Such closeness can make it difficult for junior managers to rely solely upon their authority. The results suggest that day to day relations involve an element of negotiation. This is interesting because Saudi Arabian culture *appears* more authoritarian than western cultures. These results suggest that what may seem like a relationship of authority and subordination actually masks a more complex reality. This is consistent with the literature on inter-personal power which suggests that human interaction is reciprocal - there is no such thing as absolute power or absolute submission (Simmel, 1950; Heider, 1959).

TESTING HYPOTHESES LINKING DIMENSIONS OF TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP TO ORGANIZATION LEVEL

With regards to transactional leadership subscales the results show no significant difference between levels. This suggests that cascading applied to both contingent reward and management by exception. These findings are consistent with the literature, for example, Hammer and Turk (1985) and Bass, Waldman, Avolio and Bebb (1987).

TESTING THE CORRELATION BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE AND OUTCOME VARIABLES

It was hypothesized that there is a significant relation between leadership style and outcome variables (satisfaction, motivation, leader effectiveness and job related tension). The result supports this hypothesis. Clearly the direction of correlation coefficients is broadly in accordance with predictions. Both transformational and transactional leadership are positively correlated with satisfaction with the leader,

employee motivation and leader effectiveness, and negatively correlated with job related tension.

Results show clear evidence that correlations between transformational leadership and outcome variables are slightly higher than those for transactional leadership. The exception is that the correlation with job related tension was lower.

The study suggests that transformational leadership has more impact on various organizational outcomes than transactional leadership. It is also clear that job related tension associated with transformational leadership is less than that associated with transactional leadership. However, both transformational and transactional leadership related negatively to job related tension.

It was hypothesised that laissez-faire leadership is positively related to job related tension and negatively related to satisfaction with the leader, employee motivation, and leader effectiveness. Results support the hypothesis for job related tension in that there is a positive relation between laissez-faire leadership and level of job related tension employee experience.

As regard to the correlation between laissez-faire leadership and satisfaction with the leader, employee motivation and leader effectiveness results do not support the hypothesis that laissez-faire leadership is negatively related to these variables. Pegren (1963, cit4ed in Bass, 1990a) noted that laissez-faire leadership was associated with lower task motivations and lower satisfaction with superiors. However, there are a

number of explanations. Firstly, satisfaction with the leader does not depend only on the leader, but also on the personality of subordinates, for example, if individual needs are low and he or she is not being pushed by his or her leader, he may be satisfied with his leader. Another possibility may be that the task performed has an effect on satisfaction with the leader and being motivated to do the job.

TESTING THE CORRELATION BETWEEN DIMENSIONS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND OUTCOME VARIABLES

As regard to the dimensions of transformational leadership the result support this hypothesis. It is clear that the magnitude and direction of correlation coefficients is broadly as predicted. It is clear that charismatic leadership, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration are positively related with satisfaction with leader employee, employee motivation and leader effectiveness. It is also clear that transformational leadership subscales are related negatively, to job related tension.

Clearly this study suggests the positive relation between transformational dimensions and satisfaction, employee motivation and leader effectiveness and negativly related with job related tension. This is consistent with Avolio, Waldman and Yammarino, 1990; Bass and Yokochi, 1991; Bass, 1985b, 1990b.

It is also clear that the correlation between charismatic leadership and outcome variables are slightly higher than other transformational dimensions, with the exception of job related tension.

TESTING THE CORRELATION BETWEEN DIMENSIONS OF TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND OUTCOME VARIABLES

It was hypothesized that dimensions of transactional leadership are positively related to satisfaction with the leader employee motivation, leader effectiveness, and negatively related to job related tension. The results support the hypothesis in that contingent reward leadership is positively correlated with satisfaction with the leader employee motivation and leader effectiveness and negatively correlated with job-related tension.

As regards to management by exception, the results are partly as predicted. Management by exception is positively correlated with satisfaction with the leader employee motivation and leader effectiveness, but there is no relationship between management by exception and job-related tension.

It is clear that the magnitude of correlations between contingent reward and outcome variables is slightly higher than those for management by exception. The exception is the correlation with job related tension which failed to reach a significant relationship.

It is clear from the results that management by exception is related to satisfaction and motivation and effectiveness. In fact, the correlations between management by exception and motivation are slightly higher than contingent reward correlation. This is contrary to expectations. According to the literature, Management by exception is seen as having no effect on performance and satisfaction. Before trying to explain the possibilities for interpreting these results it is necessary to remind the reader what

we mean by management by exception. Management by exception briefly means intervening only when failure occurs. The manager is alert for deviation and provides subordinates with negative feedback when needed.

One possible explanation centres on individual needs. For example, when the individual has a high need for achievement that is blocked by management by exception or laissez-faire behaviour. Satisfaction may be depressed. However, if the individual needs are low and he or she is not being pushed by his or her leader, he may be satisfied with his leader. Al-Gattan (1985) found out that subordinates of supervisors who practise management by exception might be satisfied if they are in a low-scope job and the subordinates had little need for growth.

Another explanation for management by exception may be affected by the culture. According to Al Salloum (1986), the Saudi management pattern depends on management by exception. Subordinates respect managers and accept correction from supervisors. This has its roots in Islamic teaching. Subordinates must respect and obey their superiors.

Another explanation may be that the management practice in Saudi Arabia is typically based on theory x assumptions, whereby the leader's role provides negative feed back when needed. Managers in Saudi Arabia intervene only when something goes wrong because they are afraid to make mistakes that may harm them or their immediate supervisors (Alnimer 1981).

CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this final section to state how the study has helped resolve the original problem and what contribution to knowledge it has made.

The key research objective of this thesis was to examine the viability of linking new leadership with contingency aspects of leadership in order to see whether it might be possible to develop a more complex model of leadership.

This study has contributed three main things. Firstly, it has provided evidence in support of the relationship between leadership style and the level of bureaucratic formality of organizations.

Secondly, it has established a possible causal link between leadership style and satisfaction with the leader, employee motivation, job related tension and leader effectiveness.

Thirdly, it suggests that transformational leadership has more impact on satisfaction with the leader, employee motivation and leader effectiveness. It also suggests that transformational leadership may produce lower job related tension in comparison with other patterns of leadership.

Overall then, it is concluded that there is a relationship between leadership style and organization. Further, broadly speaking this relationship extends to the outcome variables. What are the implications of these findings?

First, and least important, this study provides additional evidence to substantiate previous studies which have concluded that there is a relationship between leadership style and satisfaction with the leader employee motivation, leader effectiveness and job related tension. The findings here, moreover, are based on a somewhat stronger methodology than previous studies which are mainly correlational.

Secondly, the study also explored whether job related tension can be added as a new variable to a new leadership. In order to identify whether job related tension is related to leadership style. The evidence supports this hypothesis in that the job related tension is related negatively to both transformational and transactional leadership and positively related to laissez-faire leadership.

Third, the study supports previously held ideas that transformational leadership has a stronger impact upon outcome variables than transactional leadership. We still cannot exclude, however, the possibility that the key variable in the chain of causality is the organization. It is possible that the organization determines the leader's style and sets limits on motivation and so forth. Leadership and motivation and job related tension may be reciprocally but causally related.

Fourth, this study provides evidence in that leadership style cascades from one hierarchical level to the level below, giving clear evidence that leaders' behaviour is usually modelled by their subordinates.

Practical Implications

The implications for practice are as follows:

1. Training and development

♦ Leaders could be trained to improve their behaviour and skills to exhibit effective transformational and transactional leadership.

♦ Since there is no significant difference between the organizational levels, this has implications in training. If we just train top managers to be transformational leaders, their behaviour will be emulated by their subordinates.

2. Recruitment and selection

♦ These findings may also enhance our ability to select effective leaders for managerial positions, such selection could be based on completion of a survey measure similar to the one used in the research.

3. Counselling and promotion

♦ Completion of the survey could be used to identify leadership style, transformational, transactional and Laissez-faire and used for counselling, promotion and transfer. Identifying transformational leaders who have vision, confidence and determination can help in solving organizational structure and improve productivity.

4. Productivity and communications

Job related tension, without a doubt has an impact on the productivity of people working in organizations. The result of the study shows that job related tension is related to leadership style. Transformational and transactional leadership are

negatively related to job related tension. Laissez-faire leadership is positively related

to job related tension. Through understanding these relations hopefully we can move

forward to improve the organizational productivity.

Furthermore this study provides information concerning the leadership styles in Saudi

Arabia organizations in all levels, top management, middle management, and lower

management in different types of organizations. This information helps in

understanding other nations, and facilitates communication and mutual understanding

in the world of business.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study has opened up several new directions for further study. Clearly it is

important to determine the sequence of variables in the chain of causality. Future

studies might usefully adopt multi-variate designs and regression analysis.

Regression analyses, however, are limited by the number of variables in the study

framework. It may useful to seek to broaden frameworks by adopting qualitative

methods which are more capable of uncovering the subtleties and interactions of

variables, particularly affective states.

The present study suggests that culture may not have much impact upon leadership.

Although this is consistent with previous studies regarding the universality of

transformational leadership (Bass, 1991) cultural differences can be extremely subtle

and it is possible that questionnaire methodology is insensitive to the various shades

of meaning in organizations. Indeed, within the literature on organizational studies cultural differences have been observed between different groups working on the same factory floor (Ackroyed and Crowdy, 1990). Surely, then, there are still grounds for examining possible cultural differences between nations. This is another argument for qualitative studies.

To assess frequently and continuously both leadership (transformational, transactional and laissez-faire) and the outcomes for the same individuals longitudinal design is needed, in order to specify the causal nature of the relationship between leadership style and outcomes.

A Final Note

Bass's new concepts of leadership were intended to open up a new field of enquiry in an area which has reached an impasse. The present study suggests, however, that progress may depend upon linking 'old' and 'new' ideas. At the very least it is hoped that this study has demonstrated the need to research leadership styles in their broader context. It will be interesting to see what progress has been made by the end of the decade.

APPENDIX 1

THE STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE (ENGLISH -ARABIC)

APPENDIX ONE

MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE (MLQ) (Sample Items)

The respondent has to decide how well each item applies to the individual being described on a five-point scale: not at all; once in a while; sometimes; fairly often; frequently. Sample items are as follows:

Transformational Leadership

♦ Charisma (10 items) - The person I am rating has my trust in his or her ability to overcome any obstacle.

♦ Inspiration (7 items) - Has avision that spurs me on.

♦ Intellectual stimulation (10 items) - The person I am rating enables me to think about old problems in new ways.

♦ Individualized consideration (10 items) - The person I am rating coaches me if I need it.

Transactional Leadership

♦ Contingent reward (10 items) - The person I am rating makes sure there is close agreement between what he or she expects me to do and what I can get from him or her for my effort.

♦ Management-by-exception (10 items) - The person I am rating takes action only when a mistake has occurred.

Non-Leadership

♦ Laissez-faire (10 items) - The person I am rating doesn't tell me where he/she

stands on issues.

APPENDIX 1A

INTRENSIC JOB MOTIVATION
WARR, COOK AND WALL (1979)

3: Intrinsic Job Motivation

Think about your present job: please indicate on the following scale how strongly you agree or disagree with each comment.

Use this key for the seven possible responses to motivation items 1 - 6

1.	2.	3.	4.
No, I strongly disagree	No, I disagree quite a lot	No, I disagree just a little	I'm not sure about this

5.	6.	7.
Yes, I agree just a little	Yes, I agree quite a lot	Yes, strongly agree

1. I feel a sense of personal satisfaction when I do this job. ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7

2. My opinion of myself goes down when I do this job badly. ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7

3. I take pride in doing my job as well as I can. ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7

4. I feel unhappy when my work is not up to my usual standard. ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7

5. I like to look back on the day's work with a sense of a job well done. ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7

6. I try to think of ways of doing my job effectively. ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5 ☐6 ☐7

APPENDIX 1B
SATISFACTION WITH SUPERVISION
SUBSCALE OF INDEX ORGANIZATIONAL REACTION
SMITH (1962, 1972).

4: Satisfaction with supervision

The next set of items deals with various aspects of your satisfaction with supervision. I would like you to tell me how satisfied or dissatisfied you feel.

1. Do you ever have the feeling you would be better off working under different supervision? (rate overall supervision)

    1. I almost always feel this way.

    2. I frequently feel this way.

    3. I occasionally feel this way.

    4. I seldom feel this way.

    5. I never feel this way.

2. How do you feel about the supervision you receive? (Rate overall supervision)

    1. I am very dissatisfied.

    2. I am somewhat dissatisfied.

    3. I am only moderately satisfied.

    4. I am well satisfied.

    5. I am extremely satisfied.

3. How does the way you are treated by those who supervise you influence your overall attitude toward your job? (Rate overall supervision)

    1. It has a very unfavourable influence.

    2. It has a slightly unfavourable influence.

    3. It has no real effect.

    4. It has a favourable influence.

    5. It has a very favourable influence.

4. How much do the efforts of those who supervise you add to the success of your organisation? (Rate overall supervision)

1. Almost nothing.

2. Very little.

3. Only a little.

4. Quite a bit.

5. A very great deal.

5. The people who supervise me have: (rate overal supervision)

1. Many more bad traits than good ones.

2. More bad traits than good ones.

3. About the same number of good traits as bad ones.

4. More good traits than bad ones.

6. The supervision I receive is the kind that: (rate overall supervision)

1. Greatly discourages me from giving extra effort.

2. Tends to discourage me from givingh extra effort.

3. Has little influence on me.

4. Encourages me to give extra effort.

5. Greatly encourages me to give extra effort.

APPENDIX 1C

JOB RELATED TENSION
KHAN, WOLFE, QUINN, SNOEK AND ROSENTHAL (1964)

5: Job Related Tension

All of us occasionally feel bothered by certain kinds of things in our work. I would like you to tell me how frequently you feel bothered by each of them.

1	2	3	4	5
Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Rather Often	Nearly all times

1. Feeling that you have too little authority to carry out the responsibilities assigned to you. ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5

2. Being unclear on just what the scope and responsibilities of your job are. ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5

3. Not knowing what opportunities for advancement or promotion exist for you. ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5

4. Feeling that you have too heavy a workload, one that you can't possibly finish during an ordinary working day. ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5

5. Thinking that you'll not be able to satisfy the conflicting demands of various people over you. ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5

6. Feeling that you're not fully qualified to handle your job. ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5

7. Not knowing what your supervisor thinks of you, how he evaluates your performance. ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5

8. The fact that you can't get information needed to carry out your job. ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5

9. Having to decide things that affect the lives of individuals, people you know. ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5

10. Feeling that you may not be accepted by the people you work with. ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5

11. Feeling unable to influence you immediate superiors decisions and actions which affect you. ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5

12. Not knowing just what the people you work with expect of you. ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5

13. Thinking that the amount of work you have to do may interfere with how well it is done. ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5

14. Feeling that you have to do things in your job that are against your better judgement. ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5

15. Feeling that your job tends to be impose on time with your family. ☐1 ☐2 ☐3 ☐4 ☐5

Thank you for your co-operation.

APPENDIX 1D

THE STUDY QUESTIONNAIRE (ARABIC)

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

المكــــــرم ....

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته ٠٠ وبعد:

أقوم حاليا بإجراء بحث للحصول على درجة الدكتوراة، ومن ضمن متطلبات البحث اجراء دراسة ميدانية عن أساليب القيادة الإدارية في المملكة.

وحيث وقع الاختيار عليكم ضمن عينات البحث لمعرفة مرئياتكم حول هذا الموضوع فإنني أرجو التكرم بملء بيانات الاستبيان المرفق والاجابة على التساؤلات الواردة فيه بموضوعية ودقة، لما في ذلك من اهمية وخاصة فيما يتعلق بالتوصيات التي ستبنى على رأيكم، والتي بإذن الله سوف يكون لها أكبر الأثر في تحقيق الاهداف العامة للبحث.

كما أود أن أؤكد لكم أن البيانات الواردة في هذا الاستبيان ستُستخدم فقط لاغراض البحث العلمي، لذا توخينا عدم طلب ذكر الاسماء، شاكرين حسن تعاونكم. ونرجو من الله عز وجل أن يهدينا وأياكم سواء السبيل.

وتفضلوا بقبول اطيب تحياتنا ،،

فياض باني العنزي

الاستبيان

يتكون هذا الاستبيان من خمسة أجزاء : يشتمل الجزء الأول على بيانات عامه ويشتمل الجزء الثاني على أسئلة عن إسلوب قائدك ، بينما يشتمل الجزء الثالث على أسئلة عن الحافز والدافع للموظف ، أما الجزء الرابع فيشتمل علي أسئله عن مدى رضاك عن قائدك أو مديرك ، في حين يشتمل الجزء الخامس على أسئلة عن التوتر والاجهاد .

الجزء الأول – بيـــانات عامـة :

نرجو الإشاره بعلامه (✓) أمام الاجابه التي تناسبك :

١) الجنس	☐ ذكـر	☐ انثى

٢) العمر	☐ ١٨-٢٩ سنة	☐ ٣٠-٣٩ سنة
	☐ ٤٠-٤٩ سنة	☐ ٥٠ سنة فاكثر

٣) حالتك الاجتماعية	☐ أعزب	☐ متزوج

٤) الدائرة التي تعمل فيها	☐ حكومية	☐ تعليمية
	☐ مؤسسة عامة	☐ مؤسسة خاصة
	☐ أخـــرى	

٥) عدد سنوات (الخدمة) خبرتك الكاملة	☐ أقل من ٥ سنوات	☐ من ٥ – ١٠سنوات
	☐ من ١٠ – ١٥ سنة	☐ من ١٥ – ٢٠سنة
	☐ اكثر من ٢٠ سنة	

٦) عدد سنواتك التي عملتها مع دائرتك الحالية	☐ أقل من ٥ سنوات	☐ من ٥-١٠ سنوات
	☐ من ١٠-١٥ سنة	☐ من ١٥ – ٢٠سنة
	☐ اكثر من ٢٠ سنة	

٧) عدد سنواتك في وظيفة إدارة أو اشرافية	☐ أقل من ٥ سنوات	☐ من ٥-١٠ سنوات
	☐ من ١٠-١٥سنه	☐ من ١٥ – ٢٠سنة
	☐ اكثر من ٢٠ سنة	

٨) ما هو عدد الموظفين الذين تشرف عليهم اشرافا مباشراً	☐ اقل من ٥ موظفين	☐ من ٥-١٠ موظف
	☐ من ١٠ – ١٥ موظف	☐ من ١٥ – ٢٠ موظف
	☐ اكثر من ٢٠ موظف	

٩) مستوى تعليمك (ضع علامة « ✓ » أمام أعلى تعليم حصلت عليه)

☐ ابتدائي   ☐ متوسط

☐ ثانوي   ☐ جامعي

☐ دراسات عليا

١٠) عدد الأسابيع التي قضيتها في التدرب على فن الاشراف والقيادة في الخمس سنوات الماضية

☐ من ١-٤ أسابيع   ☐ من ٤-٨ أسابيع

☐ ٨ - ١٢ اسبوع   ☐ اكثر من ١٢ اسبوع

١١) ان خلفيتي التعليمية تشتمل على:

(ضع علامة على كل ما ينطبق على تعليمك)

☐ علوم،هندسة،فني   ☐ علوم اجتماعية أو انسانية

☐ ادارة اعمـــال   ☐ مهني (قانون، مجال الصحة، خدمات عامة)

☐ أية خلفيات تعليمية أخرى

الجــــزء الثاني

رأيك في الاسلوب القيادي لرئيسك الذي تقوم بتقويمه تقويما موضوعيا:

تعليمـــات :

هذا الجزء يقدم لك وصفا تفصيليا للاسلوب القيادي الذي يتبعه مديرك أو رئيسك في العمل، وهو يتناول هذا الاسلوب من زوايا عدة كثيرة قد تجد بعضها لا ينطبق على الأوضاع القائمة بالفعل وفي مثل هذه الحالة يمكنك ترك السؤال بلا اجابة؟

أما اذا رأيت أن موضوع السؤال (وصف المشرف أو المدير/ الرئيس) يتناول وصفا لموقف موجود في علاقتك به فيمكن اختيار أحد الاجابات الموجودة أمام كل سؤال بما يعبر عن وصفك الموضوعي الدقيق له مثال ذلك:

الشخص الذي تقوم بوصف أسلوبه القيادي (رئيسك) شخص يمكنك مناقشة مشاكلك الخاصة معه دون تحفظ:

يمكنك الاجابة عن ذلك بأحد الاجابات التالية:

دائمـــا – اذا كان ذلك يحدث دائما .

غالبــا – اذا كان ذلك يحدث في أغلب الأوقات .

احيانا – اذا كان ذلك يحدث في بعض الاحيان ولا يحدث في بعضها الآخر .

نــادرا – اذا كان ذلك لا يحدث الا مصادفة ولا يتكرر .

أبـــدا – اذا كان ذلك لا يحدث ابدا .

الجزء الثاني من الاستبيان والذي يشمل الأسئلة   من ١-٧٠ خاضع لحقوق الطبع والمحفوظة

فعالية عالية	فعالية فوق المتوسطة	فعالية متوسطة	فعالية محدودة	لا فعالية بالمرة	مستوى الفعاليــة / مواقف (أسئلة الاستبيان)	مسلسل
					الفعالية العامة للقائد وللجماعة التي يرأسها (أو يقودها) لأداء المهام .	٧١-
					مامدى فعاليته في تمثيل الجماعة التي يرأسها أمام السلطات الادارية الأعلى .	٧٢-
					مامدى فعاليته في تلبية احتياجات العمل للجماعة التي يقودها (أو يرأسها) .	٧٣-
					مامدى فعاليته في تلبية متطلبات منظمة العمل .	٧٤-
راض تماما	راض على نحو ما	بين بين لا راض ولا غير راض	غير راض نحو ما	غير راض مطلقا	مستوى الرضــى / مواقف (أسئلة الاستبيان)	مسلسل
					ما مدى رضاك الشخصي عن القدرات القيادية لرئيسك (الذي تقيمه الآن في هذه اللحظة) بوجه عام.	٧٥-
					من ناحية عامة، ما مدى رضاك عن اسلوب القيادة الذي يستخدمه القائد (الذي تقومه)للعمل على انجاز عمل المجموعة .	٧٦-

٧٧- موقعي في الدائرة الي عمل فيها هو:-
☐ مشرف (مراقب)
☐ مدير إدارة (رئيس قسم أو شعبة)
☐ مدير عام إدارة (رئيس مصلحة أو وكيل وزارة)

٧٨- من ضمن الخيارات أدناه، ما هو أعلى مستوى إداري يوجد في دائرتك
☐ مشرف (مراقب)
☐ مدير إدارة (رئيس قسم أو شعبة)
☐ مدير عام إدارة (رئيس مصلحة أو وكيل وزارة)

٧٩- الى أي حد تعتبر هذا الاستبيان وسيلة دقيقة لتقويم أسلوب قيادة الشخص الذي تقوم الآن بتقويمه؟
☐ وسيلة غير مناسبة بالمرة
☐ وسيلة غير مناسبة
☐ وسيلة مناسبة لحد ما
☐ وسيلة مناسبة
☐ وسيلة مناسبة جدا

٣- الدوافع (الحوافز) الفعلية لأداء العمل:

فكر في وظيفتك الحالية: وعلى المقياس التالي يرجى توضيح درجة موافقتك أو عدم موافقتك على كل مفردة .

نعم، أوافق بقوة	نعم، أوافق كثيراً	نعم، أوافق قليلا	غير متأكد	لا، لا أوافق قليلا	لا، لا أوافق كثيرا	لا، لا أوافق بقوة	التقديــــر مواقف (أسـئلة الاسـتبيان)	م
							أشعر باحساس من الرضى الشخصي عند القيام بعملي.	١-
							تتدنى وجهة نظري عن نفسي عندما أؤدي عملي أداءً سيئا .	٢-
							أشعر بالفخر عندما أودي عملي على احسن وجه استطيع .	٣-
							أشعر بعدم السعادة عندما لايرقى عملي الى مستواه المعتاد.	٤-
							أحب أن أنظرالى عمل اليوم الذي أديته بإحساس على أنه تم على خير وجه.	٥-
							أحاول أن أفكر في الطرق التي تمكني من أداء عملي بفعالية .	٦-

٤- الرضى عن الاشراف:

تتناول مجموعة المفردات التالية الجوانب المتعددة لاحساسك بالرضى عن الاشراف المرجو منك ان تخبرني عن مدى شعورك بالرضى أو عدم الرضى. (ضع علامة (✓) امام الاجابة المناسبة) .

١- هل حدث أن شعرت بأنك تفضل العمل تحت اشراف شخص غير مشرفك الحالي:

(تقويم الاشراف العام) :

☐ لااحس بهذا الاحساس مطلقا

☐ نادرا مااحس بهذا الاحساس

☐ احيانا احس بهذا الاحساس

☐ اشعر بهذا الاحساس غالبا

☐ تقريبا احس بهذا الاحساس

٢- ما مدى رضاك عن الاشراف الحالي؟ (تقويم الاشراف العام) .

غير راض تماما ☐

غير راض نسبيا ☐

راض نسبيا ☐

راض تماما ☐

راض للغاية ☐

٣- ما مدى تأثير معاملة رؤسائك على موقفك العام تجاه عملك ؟ (تقويم الاشراف العام)

لها تأثير سلبي جدا ☐

لها تأثير سلبي بسيط ☐

ليس لها أي تأثير حقيقي ☐

لها تأثير ايجابي ☐

لها تأثير ايجابي جدا ☐

٤- ما هو أثر المجهودات التي يقوم بها رؤساؤك على نجاح منظمة العمل:
(تقويم الاشراف العام) .

لا تأثير مطلقا ☐

تأثير قليل للغاية ☐

تأثير قليل على نحو ما ☐

تأثير فعال نسبيا ☐

تأثير فعال للغاية ☐

٥- يتصف الاشخاص الذين يشرفون علىّ بـ (تقويم الاشراف العام).

عدد كبير من الصفات غير الحميدة أكبر بكثير من تلك الحميده . ☐

صفات غير حميدة كثيرة أكثر من تلك الحميدة . ☐

تتساوى صفاتهم غير الحميدة مع الحميدة . ☐

صفات حميدة أكثر من تلك غير الحميدة . ☐

عدد كبير من الصفات الحميدة أكبر بكثير من تلك غير الحميدة . ☐

٦- إن اسلوب الاشراف الذي أتلقاه هو من النوع الذي : (تقويم الاشراف العام) .

يحبطني كثيرا عن بذل أي مجهود اضافي ☐

يميل الى احباطي عن بذل اي مجهود اضافي ☐

له تأثير ضئيل علىّ ☐

يشجعني على بذل مجهود اضافي ☐

يشجعني كثيرا على بذل مجهود اضافي ☐

٥- التوترات المتصلة بالعمل:

نشعر جميعا بالضيق من بعض الأمور التي تواجهنا في عملنا أود أن تخبرني عن مدى مضايقة الاشياء التالية لك:

في كل الاحيان تقريبا	كثيرا الى حد ما	احيانا	نادرا	ابدا	التقديــــر مواقف (اسـئلة الاسـتبيان)	مسلسل
					تحس بأن لك سلطات أقل مما يجب لتحمل المسئولية الملقاة على عاتقك .	١-
					أن مجال مسئوليات عملك غير واضحة	٢-
					لا تعرف ما هي فرص التقدم أو الترفيع المتاحة لك.	٣-
					تحس بأنه يقع على عاتقك حملا ثقيلا من العمل، أي لا تستطيع الانتهاء منه أثناء الدوام العادي.	٤-
					الاعتقاد بأنك لن تستطيع إرضاء المطالب المتضاربة لمجموعة من رؤسائك	٥-
					تحس بأنك غير مؤهل حقيقة لتولي هذه الوظيفة .	٦-
					لا تدري ما هو رأي المشرف عليك ولا كيف يقوم أدائك.	٧-
					لا تستطيع أن تحصل على المعلومات التي تحتاجها لانجاز عملك .	٨-
					أن عليك أن تتخذ القرارات التي تؤثر على حياة أفراد أنت تعرفهم .	٩-
					تحس بأنك شخص غير مرغوب من قبل الاشخاص الذين تعمل معهم .	١٠-
					تحس بأنك لا تستطيع التأثير على قرارات المشرف عليك مباشرة والتي بدورها تؤثر عليك .	١١-
					لا تدري ماذا يتوقع منك الناس الذين تعمل معهم .	١٢-
					تعتقد بأن كمية العمل الذي ينبغي عليك القيام بها، قد تتدخل في جودة أداء هذا العمل .	١٣-
					تعتقد بأن عليك أن تقوم بعمل أشياء في عملك ضد اجتهاداتك وآرائك الصائبة .	١٤-
					تحس بأن عملك يميل الى التطفل على وقتك الخاص بعائلتك.	١٥-

ملحوظة: اذا كان لديك مرئيات أو اضافات يرجى ايرادها فيما يلي: ....

....

....

شكراً لتفضلكم بالاجابة ..

يرجى وضع الاستبيان في ظرف مغلق

APPENDIX TWO

SAMPLING TECHNIQUE AND STRATEGY FOR ORGANIZATIONS

This Appendix describes general sampling theory technique of stratified sampling and how it was applied to sample the profit, semi-profit, semi non-profit and the non-profit organization.

Sampling Theory

It is almost practically impossible for researchers to collect data from the entire population of interest, especially when the population is so large, for example, involving several thousands and also sampling some times leads to more reliable results (Sekaran, 1984). The purpose of sampling is to draw a subset or subgroup that is as representative of the population as possible in order to draw inferences reliably about the characteristics of the population (Sekaran, 1984).

Validity of a sample depends upon two constrictions, accuracy and precision, or in other words the sample should be unbiased and have less sampling error. Unbias results from failure to obtain a truly random subset. Sampling error results from random differences between the study sample and the population at large.

Sample bias can be eliminated by using truly random sampling (when it is possible), sampling error can be controlled by the use of large sample sizes or by stratification (Kerlinger, 1973).

Applying Stratified Sampling

The unit of stratification in each case was organization level, the aim being to ensure the sampling of lower, middle and senior levels in accordance with the models of Mintzberg (1979). The population of each stratum was identified with the assistance of top manager of each organization in accordance with the following criteria:

The Operating Core

The operating core of the organization encompasses those members - the operators, who perform the basic work related to the production of products and services (Mintzberg, 1979, p24). In this study designated as the lower managers.

Middle Management

Middle management includes all members of the organization not at the strategic apex or in the operating core. They perform all the managerial roles of the chief executive, but in the context of managing their units. Like the top managers they are concerned with formulating the strategy for their units (Mintzberg, 1979). In this study middle managers are considered to be the second organizational level.

The Strategic Apex

The strategic apexes are charged with overall responsibility for the organization, they are top level managers whose concerns are global, they are charged with ensuring that an organization serves its mission in an effective way, and also that it serves the needs of those people who control or otherwise have power over the organization (Mintzberg, 1979). In this study the top managers of the organization were

designated as the third level.

Sampling procedures varied for each organization and for each group of staff. Figure A.2.1 shows the approximate number of staff in each stratum and numbers and percentage sampled.

	Profit organizations	Semi-profit organizations	Semi non-profit organizations	Non-profit organizations	Total
Top management	n = 37 ss = 37 % = 100%	n = 45 ss = 40 % = 89%	n = 46 ss = 41 % = 89%	n = 32 ss = 32 % = 100%	n = 160 ss = 150 % = 93%
Middle management	n = 38 ss = 38 % = 100	n = 122 ss = 64 % = 52%	n = 134 ss = 65 % = 48%	n = 70 ss = 50 % = 71%	n = 364 ss = 217 % = 60%
Lower management	n = 40 ss = 40 % = 100%	n = 130 ss = 65 % = 50%	n = 150 ss = 65 % = 43%	n = 72 ss = 50 % = 69%	n = 392 ss = 220 % = 56%

n = number of staff in each stratum
ss = sample size
% = percentage of population

FIGURE A.2.1

APPROXIMATE NUMBERS IN EACH ORGANIZATION AND
NUMBERS AND PERCENTAGES SAMPLED

The Profit Organization Middle and Lower Strata

The staff list contained 38 names in middle management and 40 lower management. A questionnaire was sent to the whole of middle and lower management because of their small numbers. There were 33 questionnaires returned (87% response rate) from middle management and 29 questionnaires returned (73% response rate)from lower management.

The Semi-profit Organization Middle and Lower Strata

The staff list contained 122 names, each was assigned a number and 88 were drawn at random. It was hoped this would giviea sample size of around forty, and ensuring representation of ten percent of the population at least. There were 64 questionnaires returned (73% response rate).

The same procedure was applied to lower management level. The staff list contained 130 names from which 90 were drawn randomly. There were 65 questionnaires returned (72% response rate).

The Semi Non-profit Organization Middle and Lower Strata

The staff list contained 134 names, each was assigned a number and 72 were drawn at random. It was hoped this would give a sample size of around forty, and ensuring representation of ten percent of the population at least. There were 54 questionnaires returned 75% response rate).

The same procedure was applied to lower management level. The staff list contained 150 names from which 89 were drawn randomly. There were 63 questionnaires returned (70%) response rate

The Non-profit Organization Middle and Lower Strata

The staff list contained 70 names, each was assigned a number and 50 were drawn at random. It was hoped this would give a sample size of around forty, and ensuring representation of ten percent of the population at least. There were 43 questionnaires returned (86% response rate).

The same procedure was applied to lower management level. The staff list contained 72 names from which 50 were drawn randomly. There were 29 questionnaires returned (73%) response rate.

بسم الله الرحمن الرحيم

المملكة العربية السعودية

الحرس الوطني

كلية الملك خالد العسكرية

سعادة/ وكيل وزارة   الموقر

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته ... وبعد

الرائد فياض بن باني العنزي أحد منسوبي الكلية – يقوم حالياً بإجراء بحث للحصول على درجة الدكتوراه في الإدارة العامة، ولما كانت الدراسة الميدانية المتعلقة بأساليب القيادة الإدارية هي أحدى بنود هذا البحث وبالنظر الى أن مرؤوسيكم من بين من وقع عليهم الاختيار لمعرفة مرئياتهم حول هذا الموضوع الحيوي.

لذا فإنه سوف يسعدنا أن تتفضلوا بالتوجيه باستيفاء بيانات الاستبيان المرفق بموضوعية، خاصة وأنه سوف تستنبط – تأسيساً على هذه المشاركة – توصيات – نرجو أن يكون لها أكبر الأثر في تحقيق الاهداف المرجوه .

وتقبلوا تحياتنا ،،

لواء ركن
متعب بن عبد الله بن عبد العزيز
قائد كلية الملك خالد العسكرية

APPENDIX FOUR
TEXT OF LETTER ACCOMPANYING QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Sir

I am an officer in the Saudi Arabian National Guard. I am a lecturer in King Khalid Military Academy. At the moment, I am a Ph.D. student at The University of Liverpool, UK undertaking a research project.

I would like to seek your cooperation in answering the questions on the attached questionnaires.

I emphasise strongly here that the information obtained will be used in the stricted confidence, and therefore, your name is not required.

The information you provide will contribute to an important study and the results could be of considerable interest to both managers and employees.

Please take the few minutes necessary to complete the survey questionnaire and return it in a sealed envelope to the person who gave it to you.

Yours sincerely

Major, Fayyadh Al-Anazi

APPENDIX FIVE

DESCRIPTION OF ANALYTICAL TECHNIQUES EMPLOYED AND PRELIMINARY DATA ANALYSES

CHOICE OF ANALYTICAL TECHNIQUE

The research problem, the number of variables and the level of data determine the choice of analytical techniques. The research problem was to test differences between group means on a series of single variables. One way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) is an appropriate analysis technique and it can be used for testing the hypothesis that two or more independent samples were drawn from populations having the same mean. One way analysis of variance is one of the more popular and powerful statistical tests. It lends itself to a wide variety of research problems (Roscoe, 1975).

Here, one way analysis of variance is the appropriate analytical technique for comparing the means of more than two groups. Since the research hypotheses implied comparisons between leadership style and outcomes between organizations and sub-groups within each organization. One way ANOVA was used to determine the significant difference.

Correlational Analysis

Correlational analysis is appropriate for measuring the strength of a relation between variables (Anastasi, 1990). It was used to ascertain the strength of the relationship between the various leadership styles and outcomes.

The most common is the Pearson's product moment, which was used in this study. This correlation coefficient takes into account not only theperson's position in the group but also the amount of his deviation above or below the group mean (Anastasi, 1990).

RESPONSE TO THE SURVEY

Five hundred and five usable questionnaires were returned yielding the following sample sizes:

(1)   Profit organization - 85.

(2)   Semi-profit organization - 168.

(3)   Semi non-profit organization - 158.

(4)   Non-profit organization 95.

The response rate for all the samples was nearly 75%.

DATA ANALYSIS

All analysis has been done by computer using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

These were obtained for each of the four research organizations. All respondents were male. Ages ranged from eighteen to more than fifty, the median and the mode range between 30 to 39 years, 70% of respondents in profit organizations fell between 30 to 39 years, 89% of them below aged 40 years.

Nearly eighty of the respondents in each organization were married. The most

frequent full work experiences (the mode) in all organizations were similar, ranging

from ten to fifteen years, except in the semi-bureaucratic organization the mode for

experience ranged from five to ten years, with almost all respondents under fifteen

years experience. Respondents in all organizations have the most similar frequent

experience in their present organizations. The mode was less than five years. Nearly

all respondents in all organizations have experience in their present organization less

than fifteen years except the profit organization which has some respondents, 18%

have experience in their present organization for more than fifteen years.

The most frequent years spent in supervisory positions in all organizations was less

than five years, most of the respondents in all organizations have less than five

employees under their direct supervision.

Fifty-three percent of the semi-profit organizations were educated to degree level,

compared with 2% in profit organizations and 21% in the semi non-profit, 53% in

non-profit organizations, 15% of respondents in the semi-profit possessed post-

graduate educational qualifications compared with 7% in profit, and 6% in the semi-

non-profit and 11% in non-profit organizations.

Most of the organizations were similar in the most frequent weeks spent in leadership

training. The mode was between one to four weeks, except in the semi-profit

organization where the mode was more than twelve weeks. Twenty-seven percent

of the semi-profite organization respondents have an engineering education background, compared with 6% in profit, and 36% in semi non-profit and 28% in non-profit organizations. Twenty-one percent of respondents of the semi non-profit have a business administration education background compared with 50% in profit and 30% in semi non-profit and 20% in non-profit organizations.

RELIABLE ESTIMATES

Although the researcher using a well validated measure which had been reported in the literature, Cronbach's Alpha was computed for each of the measurement scales for each organization to make sure that the measures had sufficient interim consistency reliability. All were above 0.60 which is the generally accepted minimum level of reliability.

TABLE A.5.1

INTERCORRELATION BETWEEN LEADERSHIP VARIABLES

Charismatic	Inspirational Motivation	Intellectual Stimulation	Individualized Consideration	Contingent Reward	Management by Exception	Laissez-Faire
1	.93***	.88***	.90***	.81***	.63***	.07
2		.89***	.89***	.82***	.63***	.11*
3			.89***	.83***	.71***	.19***
4				.88***	.64***	.10*
5					.68***	.25***
6						.53
7						

*** P<.001
** P<.01
* P<.05

TABLE A.5.2

INTERCORRELATION BETWEEN OUTCOME VARIABLES

	Satisfaction with Supervision	Employee Motivation	Job Related Tension	Effectiveness
1		.3484***	-.3151***	.6476***
2			-.1106*	.1965***
3				-.3349***
4				

*** P < .001
** P < .01
* P < .05

APPENDIX SIX

CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS WITHIN SUBSAMPLES PROFIT ORGANIZATION

	lower.m		middle.m		top.m		all levels	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Sex	29	100	33	100	21	100	83	100
male	29	100	33	100	21	100	83	100
female	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Age	29	100	33	100	22	100	84	100
18-29	7	24.1	6	18.2	3	13.6	16	19.0
30-39	20	69.0	23	69.7	16	72.7	59	70.2
40-49	2	6.9	3	9.1	3	13.6	8	9.5
50-or more	0	0.0	1	3.0			1	1.2
Social. Status	29	100	33	100	22	100	84	100
Single	8	27.6	5	15.2	1	4.5	14	16.7
Married	21	72.4	28	84.8	21	95.5	70	83.3
Full Experience less than	28	100	33	100	22	100	83	100
5 years	7	25.0	5	15.2	3	13.6	15	18.1
5-10 "	9	32.1	11	33.3	6	27.3	26	31.3
10-15 "	7	25.0	12	36.4	8	36.4	27	32.5
15-20 "	4	14.3	4	12.1	3	13.6	11	13.3
more than 20	1	3.6	1	3.0	2	9.1	4	
Experience in present org. less than	29	100	33	100	22	100	84	100
5 years	16	55.2	13	39.4	11	50.0	40	47.6
5-10 "	8	27.6	15	45.5	6	27.3	29	34.5
10-15 "	5	17.2	2	6.1	4	18.2	11	13.1
15-20 "	0	0.0	3	9.1	1	4.5	4	4.8
more than 20	0	0.0			0	0.0		
Experience in supervisory position less than	26	100	29	100	22	100	77	100
5 years	14	53.8	14	48.3	6	27.3	34	44.2
5-10 "	6	23.1	11	37.9	10	45.5	27	35.1
10-15 "	4	15.4	4	13.8	5	22.7	13	16.9
15-20 "	2	7.7			1	4.5	3	3.9
more than 20							0	

APPENDIX SIX-A

CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS WITHIN SUBSAMPLES PROFIT ORGANIZATION

	lower.m n	lower.m %	middle.m n	middle.m %	top.m n	top.m %	all levels n	all levels %
Number of Subordinates	24	100	27	100	22	100	73	100
less than 5	12	50.0	17	63.0	7	31.8	36	49.3
5-10	9	37.5	10	37.0	7	31.8	26	35.6
10-15	1	4.2			2	9.1	3	4.1
15-20	1	4.2			1	4.5	2	2.7
more than 20	1	4.2			5	22.7	6	8.2
Level of Education	29	100	33	100	22	100	84	100
Elementary	1	3.4	1	3.0	1	4.5	3	3.6
Intermediate	0	0.0	2	6.1	2	9.1	4	4.8
Secondary	17	58.6	9	27.3	6	27.3	32	38.1
Graduate	10	34.5	19	57.6	12	54.5	41	48.8
Postgraduate	1	3.4	2	6.1	1	4.5	4	4.8
Leadership/ Training	25	100	24	100	22	100	71	100
1-4 weeks	11	44.0	11	45.8	8	36.4	30	42.3
4-8 "	7	28.0	4	16.7	4	18.2	15	21.1
8-12 "	4	16.0	2	8.3	2	9.1	8	11.3
more than 12	3	12.0	7	29.2	8	36.4	18	25.4
Primary Education	23	100	30	100	21	100	74	100
-science, engineering, technical	1	4.3	3	10.0	1	4.8	5	6.8
-social science	3	13.0	3	10.0	2	9.5	8	10.8
-business	16	69.6	15	50.0	8	38.1	39	52.7
-professional	0	0	2	6.7	2	9.5	4	5.4
-other	3	13.0	7	23.3	8	38.1	18	24.3

APPENDIX SIX-B

CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS WITHIN
SUB SAMPLES
SEMI-PROFIT ORGANIZATION

	lower.m		middle.m		top.m		all levels	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Sex	65	100	63	100	39	100	167	100
male	65	100	63	100	39	100	167	100
female	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Age	65	100	64	100	39	100	168	100
18-29	19	29.2	8	12.5	8	20.5	35	20.8
30-39	33	50.8	36	56.3	11	28.2	80	47.6
40-49	9	13.8	20	31.3	18	46.2	47	28.0
50-or more	4	6.2	0	0.0	2	5.1	6	3.6
Social.	62	100	62	100	38	100	162	100
Status								
Single	11	17.7	8	12.9	10	26.3	29	17.9
Married	51	82.3	54	87.1	28	73.7	133	82.1
Full	65	100	64	100	39	100	168	100
Experience								
less than								
5 years	9	13.8	14	21.9	6	15.4	29	17.3
5-10 "	26	40.0	26	40.6	6	15.4	58	34.5
10-15 "	23	35.4	16	25.0	21	53.8	60	35.7
15-20 "	4	6.2	8	12.5	4	10.3	16	9.5
more than 20	3	4.6			2	5.1	5	3.0
Experience in	65	100	64	100	38	100	167	100
present org.								
less than								
5 years	30	46.2	30	46.9	15	39.5	75	44.9
5-10 "	25	38.5	18	28.1	8	21.1	51	30.5
10-15 "	9	13.8	16	25.0	13	34.2	38	22.8
15-20 "	1	1.5	0	0.0	2	5.3	3	1.8
more than 20								
Experience in	53	100	63	100	39	100	155	100
supervisory								
position								
less than								
5 years	34	64.2	43	68.3	19	48.7	96	61.9
5-10 "	13	24.5	15	23.8	10	25.6	38	24.5
10-15 "	6	11.3	5	7.9	8	20.5	19	12.3
15-20 "					2	5.1	2	1.3
more than 20								

APPENDIX SIX-C

CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS WITHIN
SUBSAMPLES
SEMI-PROFIT ORGANIZATION

	lower.m n	lower.m %	middle.m n	middle.m %	top.m n	top.m %	all levels n	all levels %
Number of Subordinates	43	100	59	100	38	100	140	100
less than 5	22	51.2	33	55.9	6	15.8	61	43.6
5-10	11	25.6	14	23.7	11	28.9	36	25.7
10-15	5	11.6	10	16.9	11	28.9'	26	18.6
15-20	3	7.0	2	3.4	6	15.8	11	7.9
more than 20	2	4.7			4	10.5	6	4.3
Level of Education	65	100	64	100	39	100	168	100
Elementary	0	0.0	1	1.6	0	0.0	1	.6
Intermediate	1	1.5	2	3.1	0	0.0	3	1.8
Secondary	29	44.6	17	26.6	4	10.3	50	29.8
Graduate	28	43.1	40	62.5	21	53.8	89	53.0
Postgraduate	7	10.8	4	6.3	14	35.9	25	14.9
Leadership/ Training	42	100	55	100	36	100	133	100
1-4 weeks	11	26.2	24	43.6	1	2.8	36	27.1
4-8 "	4	9.5	7	12.7	4	11.1	15	11.3
8-12 "	11	26.2	8	14.5	9	25.0	28	21.1
more than 12	16	38.1	16	29.1	21	58.3	53	39.8
					1	2.8	1	.8
Primary Education	58	100	60	100	39	100	157	100
-science, engineering, technical	13	22.4	23	38.3	14	35.9	50	31.8
-social science	5	28.6	11	18.3	2	5.1	18	11.5
-business	20	34.5	17	28.3	16	41.0	53	33.8
-professional	5	8.6	4	6.7	4	10.3	13	8.3
-other	15	25.9	5	8.3	3	7.7	23	14.6

APPENDIX SIX-D

CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS WITHIN SUBSAMPLES
SEMI NON-PROFIT ORGANIZATION

	lower.m n	lower.m %	middle.m n	middle.m %	top.m n	top.m %	all levels n	all levels %
Sex	61	100	51	100	39	100	151	100
male	61	100	51	100	39	100	151	100
female	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Age	62	100	54	100	41	100	157	100
18-29	31	50.0	16	29.6	10	24.4	57	36.3
30-39	28	45.2	34	63.0	24	58.5	86	54.8
40-49	2	3.2	2	3.7	6	14.6	10	6.4
50-or more	1	1.6	2	3.7	1	2.4	4	2.5
Social. Status	62	100	53	100	41	100	156	100
Single	14	22.6	12	22.6	6	14.6	32	20.5
Married	48	77.4	41	77.4	35	85.4	124	79.5
Full Experience	62	100	53	100	41	100	156	100
less than 5 years	26	41.9	17	32.1	8	19.5	51	32.7
5-10 "	24	38.7	19	35.8	16	39.0	59	37.8
10-15 "	7	11.3	11	20.8	8	19.5	26	16.7
15-20 "	3	4.8	2	3.8	5	12.2	10	6.4
more than 20	2	3.2	4	7.5	4	9.8	10	6.4
Experience in present org.	62	100	52	100	41	100	155	100
less than 5 years	39	62.9	23	44.2	17	41.5	79	51.0
5-10 "	17	27.4	22	42.3	18	43.9	57	36.8
10-15 "	4	6.5	6	11.5	6	14.6	16	10.3
15-20 "	1	1.6	0	0.0			1	.6
more than 20	1	1.6	1	1.9			2	1.3
Experience in supervisory position	54	100	50	100	39	100	143	100
less than 5 years	36	66.7	26	52.0	12	30.8	74	51.7
5-10 "	14	25.9	15	30.0	19	48.7	48	33.6
10-15 "	3	5.6	7	14.0	5	12.8	15	10.5
15-20 "	1	1.9	1	2.0	2	5.1	4	2.8
more than 20			1	2.0	1	2.6	2	1.4

APPENDIX SIX-E

CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS WITHIN SUBSAMPLES
SEMI NON-PROFIT ORGANIZATION

	lower.m n	lower.m %	middle.m n	middle.m %	top.m n	top.m %	all levels n	all levels %
Number of Subordinates	48	100	47	100	38	100	133	100
less than 5	27	56.3	19	40.4	7	18.4	53	39.8
5-10	11	22.9	9	19.1	11	28.9	31	23.3
10-15	5	10.4	8	17.0	3	7.9	16	12.0
15-20	3	6.3	1	2.1	2	5.3	6	4.5
more than 20	2	4.2	10	21.3	15	39.5	27	20.3
Level of Education	61	100	52	100	41	100	154	100
Elementary	1	1.6	0	0.0	1	2.4	2	1.3
Intermediate	2	3.3	2	3.8	0	0.0	4	2.6
Secondary	25	41.0	8	15.4	7	17.1	40	26.0
Graduate	31	50.8	40	76.9	28	68.3	99	64.3
Postgraduate	2	3.3	2	3.8	5	12.2	9	5.8
Leadership/ Training	45	100	45	100	36	100	126	100
1-4 weeks	23	51.1	16	35.6	15	41.7	54	42.9
4-8 "	10	22.2	9	20.0	8	22.2	27	21.4
8-12 "	5	11.1	9	20.0	4	11.1	18	14.3
more than 12	7	15.6	11	24.4	9	25.0	27	21.4
Primary Education	55	100	47	100	36	100	138	100
-science, engineering, technical	22	40.0	9	19.1	18	50.0	49	35.5
-social science	11	20.0	10	21.3	2	5.6	23	16.7
-business	11	20.0	18	38.3	13	36.1	42	30.4
-professional	2	3.6	4	8.5	3	8.3	9	6.5
-other	9	16.4	6	12.8			15	10.9

APPENDIX SIX-F

CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS WITHIN SUBSAMPLES
NON-PROFIT ORGANIZATION

	lower.m n	lower.m %	middle.m n	middle.m %	top.m n	top.m %	all levels n	all levels %
Sex	27	100	43	100	23	100	93	100
male	27	100	42	97.7	23	100	93	100
female	0	0	1	2.3			0	0
Age	29	100	43	100	23	100	95	100
18-29	9	31	12	27.9	7	30.4	28	29.5
30-39	12	41.4	22	51.2	11	47.8	45	47.4
40-49	6	21.7	8	18.6	4	17.4	18	18.9
50-or more	2	6.9	1	2.3	1	4.3	4	4.2
Social. **Status**	29	100	43	100	23	100	95	100
Single	5	17.2	8	18.6	2	8.7	15	15.8
Married	24	18.8	35	81.4	21	91.3	80	84.2
Full **Experience** **less than**	29	100	43	100	23	100	95	100
5 years	5	17.2	8	18.6	4	17.4	17	17.9
5-10 "	10	34.5	10	23.3	6	26.1	26	27.4
10-15 "	6	20.7	14	32.6	6	26.1	26	27.4
15-20 "	5	17.2	8	18.6	4	17.4	17	17.9
more than 20	3	10.3	3	7.0	3	13	9	9.5
Experience **in present** **org.** **less than**	29	100	43	100	22	100	94	100
5 years	13	44.8	17	39.5	7	31.8	37	39.4
5-10 "	7	24.1	13	30.2	5	22.7	25	26.6
10-15 "	5	17.2	10	23.3	5	22.7	20	21.3
15-20 "	3	10.3	2	4.7	4	18.2	9	9.6
more than 20	1	3.4	1	2.3	1	4.5	3	3.2
Experience **in** **supervisory** **position** **less than**	24	100	27	100	19	100	70	100
5 years	13	54.2	13	48.1	8	42.1	34	48.6
5-10 "	6	25.0	7	25.9	7	36.8	20	28.6
10-15 "	4	16.7	4	14.8	3	15.8	11	15.7
15-20 " more than 20	1	4.2	3	11.1	1	5.3	5	7.1

APPENDIX SIX-G

CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS WITHIN SUBSAMPLES
NON-PROFIT ORGANIZATION

	lower.m		middle.m		top.m		all levels	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
Number of								
Subordinates	48	100	47	100	38	100	133	100
less than 5	27	56.3	19	40.4	7	18.4	53	39.8
5-10	11	22.9	9	19.1	11	28.9	31	23.3
10-15	5	10.4	8	17.0	3	7.9	16	12.0
15-20	3	6.3	1	2.1	2	5.3	6	4.5
more than 20	2	4.2	10	21.3	15	39.5	27	20.3
Level of								
Education	61	100	52	100	41	100	154	100
Elementary	1	1.6	0	0.0	1	2.4	2	1.3
Intermediate	2	3.3	2	3.8	0	0.0	4	2.6
Secondary	25	41.0	8	15.4	7	17.1	40	26.0
Graduate	31	50.8	40	76.9	28	68.3	99	64.3
Postgraduate	2	3.3	2	3.8	5	12.2	9	5.8
Leadership/								
Training	45	100	45	100	36	100	126	100
1-4 weeks	23	51.1	16	35.6	15	41.7	54	42.9
4-8 "	10	22.2	9	20.0	8	22.2	27	21.4
8-12 "	5	11.1	9	20.0	4	11.1	18	14.3
more than 12	7	15.6	11	24.4	9	25.0	27	21.4
Primary								
Education	55	100	47	100	36	100	138	100
-science, engineering, technical	22	40.0	9	19.1	18	50.0	49	35.5
-social science	11	20.0	10	21.3	2	5.6	23	16.7
-business	11	20.0	18	38.3	13	36.1	42	30.4
-professional	2	3.6	4	8.5	3	8.3	9	6.5
-other	9	16.4	6	12.8			15	10.9

APPENDIX SEVEN

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF MEASUREMENT VARIABLES
(By Organization)

	Profit (N = 84)	Semi-profit (N = 168)	Semi-non Profit (N = 158)	Non-profit (N = 95)
a) Transformational				
mean	2.55	2.41	2.40	2.13
standard deviation	.87	.61	.85	.93
a) Transactional				
mean	2.27	2.33	2.15	1.89
standard deviation	.73	.59	.64	.68
a) Laissez-faire				
mean	1.74	2.21	1.69	1.75
standard deviation	.52	.59	.49	.49
b) Satisfaction with supervision	3.56	3.19	3.40	3.28
mean	.74	.64	.65	.61
standard deviation				
c) Motivation				
mean	6.14	5.55	5.89	6.04
standard deviation	.92	.96	.86	.80
b) Job related tension				
mean	2.28	2.39	2.38	2.42
standard deviation	.68	.69	.65	.53
a) Effectiveness				
mean	2.81	2.54	2.62	2.38
standard deviation	.95	.73	.96	.98

a)   The means for leadership style rest on a five point scale, with 0 denoting very low and 4 denoting very high on the variables.

b)   The means for leadership style rest on a five point scale, with 1 denoting very low and 5 denoting very high on the variables.

c)   The means for leadership style rest on a five point scale, with 1 denoting very low and 7 denoting very high on the variables.

APPENDIX SEVEN-A

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF MEASUREMENT VARIABLES
(LEADERSHIP STYLES SUB-SCALES)
(By Organization)

	Profit (N = 84)	Semi-profit (N = 168)	Semi-non Profit (N = 158)	Non-profit (N = 95)
a) Charismatic				
mean	2.73	2.45	2.50	2.37
standard deviation	.88	.66	.96	.94
a) Inspirational motivation				
mean	2.57	2.35	2.43	2.17
standard deviation	.90	.71	.84	.90
a) Intellectual stimulation				
mean	2.38	2.32	2.27	2.17
standard deviation	.90	.69	.82	.88
a) Individualized consideration	2.45	2.44	2.38	2.01
mean	.91	.65	.93	.99
standard deviation				
a) Contingent reward				
mean	2.21	2.28	2.16	1.72
standard deviation	.93	.72	.90	.91
a) Management by exception				
mean	2.34	2.36	2.19	2.08
standard deviation	.67	.56	.50	.57

a) The means for leadership style rest on a five point scale, with 0 denoting very low and 4 denoting very high on the variables.

b) The means for leadership style rest on a five point scale, with 1 denoting very low and 5 denoting very high on the variables.

c) The means for leadership style rest on a 5 point scale, with 1 denoting very low and 7 denoting very high on the variables.

APPENDIX SEVEN-B
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF MEASUREMENT VARIABLES
(By Organization Level)

Level (N =)	Profit (N = 84)			Semi-profit (N = 168)			Semi-non Profit (N = 158)			Non-profit (N = 95)		
	1 (29)	2 (33)	3 (22)	1 (65)	2 (64)	3 (39)	1 (63)	2 (54)	3 (41)	1 (29)	2 (43)	3 (23)
a) Transformational												
mean	2.75	2.29	2.74	2.38	2.55	2.20	2.42	2.44	2.33	2.34	2.05	2.11
standard deviation	.77	.98	.66	.72	.55	.45	.91	.83	.78	1.08	.81	1.04
a) Transactional												
mean	2.47	2.12	2.24	2.27	2.47	2.20	2.16	2.10	2.20	2.11	1.81	1.84
standard deviation	.76	.70	.71	.67	.58	.45	.70	.62	.60	.71	.55	.85
a) Laissez-faire												
mean	1.81	1.75	1.61	2.15	2.30	2.17	1.68	1.70	1.67	1.08	1.71	1.75
standard deviation	.54	.51	.44	.63	.57	.53	.38	.61	.46	.44	.42	.68
b) Satisfaction with supervision												
mean	3.69	3.42	3.60	3.34	3.36	2.66	3.47	3.20	3.58	3.32	3.27	3.26
standard deviation	.45	.98	.60	.55	.55	.63	.64	.68	.58	.56	.57	.75
c) Motivation												
mean	6.28	5.91	6.30	5.61	5.99	4.74	5.79	5.91	6.05	6.03	5.98	6.18
standard deviation	.57	1.28	.55	1.07	.57	.80	.96	.86	.68	.87	.84	.63
b) Job related tension												
mean	2.12	2.27	2.54	2.35	1.98	3.03	2.28	2.47	2.41	2.42	2.40	2.46
standard deviation	.63	.71	.65	.57	.62	.44	.72	.68	.43	.64	.50	.45
a) Effectiveness												
mean	2.99	2.55	2.97	2.47	2.79	2.35	2.77	2.45	2.62	2.39	2.26	2.60
standard deviation	.76	1.11	.87	.81	.73	.54	.96	1.04	.83	.98	.99	1.00

a) The means for leadership style rest on a five point scale, with 0 denoting very low and 4 denoting very high on the variables.
b) The means for leadership style rest on a five point scale, with 1 denoting very low and 5 denoting very high on the variables.
c) The means for leadership style rest on a five point scale, with 1 denoting very low and 7 denoting very high on the variables.

level 1 denotes lower managers   level 2 denotes middle managers   level 3 denotes top managers

APPENDIX SEVEN-C

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF MEASUREMENT VARIABLES (LEADERSHIP STYLE SUBSCALES)
(By Organization Level)

Level (N =)	Profit (N = 84)			Semi-profit (N = 168)			Semi-non Profit (N = 158)			Non-profit (N = 95)		
	1 (29)	2 (33)	3 (22)	1 (65)	2 (64)	3 (39)	1 (63)	2 (54)	3 (41)	1 (29)	2 (43)	3 (23)
a) Charismatic												
mean	2.99	2.46	2.78	2.51	2.53	2.24	2.48	2.50	2.54	2.53	2.27	2.34
standard deviation	.71	1.00	.83	.71	.66	.53	.93	.98	.99	.97	.89	1.04
a) Inspirational motivation												
mean	2.77	2.33	2.75	2.33	2.47	2.19	2.37	2.53	2.42	2.37	2.03	2.20
standard deviation	.79	1.01	.78	.85	.68	.50	.87	.82	.82	.91	.83	1.03
a) Intellectual stimulation												
mean	2.55	2.18	2.51	2.24	2.47	2.22	2.33	2.23	2.22	2.47	1.99	2.16
standard deviation	.86	.96	.80	.86	.61	.46	.84	.84	.76	.91	.79	.94
a) Individualized consideration												
mean	2.76	2.21	2.39	2.49	2.57	2.18	2.44	2.38	2.27	2.08	1.99	1.97
standard deviation	.86	.93	.88	.77	.57	.46	.93	.96	.89	1.11	.83	1.16
a) Contingent reward												
mean	2.50	2.05	2.09	2.23	2.39	2.16	2.20	2.13	2.13	1.89	1.65	1.67
standard deviation	1.01	.89	.83	.80	.75	.49	.88	.94	.90	1.11	.75	1.01
a) Management by exception												
mean	2.44	2.25	2.37	2.29	2.50	2.24	2.18	2.20	2.21	2.22	2.00	2.08
standard deviation	.68	.66	.68	.63	.53	.46	.58	.43	.45	.51	.50	.75

a) The means for leadership style rest on a five point scale, with 0 denoting very low and 4 denoting very high on the variables.

b) The means for leadership style rest on a five point scale, with 1 denoting very low and 5 denoting very high on the variables.

c) The means for leadership style rest on a five point scale, with 1 denoting very low and 7 denoting very high on the variables.

level 1 denotes lower managers   level 2 denotes middle managers   level 3 denotes top managers

APPENDIX EIGHT

RELIABILITY ESTIMATES

SCALE	ALPHA
Transformational leadership	.97
Transactional leadership	.77
Laissez-faire leadership	.67
Satisfaction with supervision	.64
Employee motivation	.79
Job related tension	.86
Leader effectiveness	.88

APPENDIX EIGHT-A

RELIABILITY ESTIMATES FOR EACH SUB-SCALE

SCALE	ALPHA
TRANSFORMATIONAL Idealized influence - subscale 10 items	.92
Inspirational motivation - subscale 7 items	.87
Intellectual stimulation - subscale 10 items	.90
Individualized consideration - subscale 10 items	.91
TRANSACTIONAL Contingent reward - subscale 10 items	.91
Management by exception - subscale 10 items	.70
LAISSEZ-FAIRE - subscale 10 items	.67

APPENDIX NINE

ORGANIZATION NO. 1

PEARSONS CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

(Profit organization)

	Transformational	Transactional	Laissez-faire
Satisfaction	.76***	.70***	.24
Motivation	.28**	.37***	.17
Tension	.08	.17	.26*
Effectiveness	.71***	.57***	.08

Note: N=84

***   P<.001

**   P<.01

*   P<.05

APPENDIX NINE-A

ORGANIZATION NO. 1

PEARSONS CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

(Profit organization)

	Charismatic	Inspirational Motivation	Intellectual Stimulation	Individualized Consideration
Satisfaction	.78***	.72***	.69***	.72***
Motivation	.29*	.25	.25	.29*
Tension	.05	.06	.17	.02
Effectiveness	.74***	.71***	.62***	.67***

Note: N=84

***   P<.001

**   P<.01

*   P<.05

APPENDIX NINE-B

ORGANIZATION NO. 1

PEARSONS CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

(Profit organization)

	Contingent Reward	Management by Exception
Satisfaction	.69***	.52***
Motivation	.25	.44***
Tension	-.01	.37**
Effectiveness	.60***	.40**

Note: N=84

***   P<.001

**   P<.01

*   P<.05

APPENDIX TEN

ORGANIZATION NO. 2

PEARSONS CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

(Semi-profit organization)

	Transformational	Transactional	Laissez-faire
Satisfaction	.53***	.49***	.34***
Motivation	.33***	.26**	.08
Tension	-.23**	-.21*	-.15
Effectiveness	.70***	.62***	.37***

Note: N=168

***   P<.001

**   P<.01

*   P<.05

APPENDIX TEN-A

ORGANIZATION NO. 2

PEARSONS CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

(Semi-profit organization)

	Charismatic	Inspirational Motivation	Intellectual Stimulation	Individualized Consideration
Satisfaction	.57***	.49***	.44***	.53***
Motivation	.36***	.26**	.26**	.36***
Tension	-.23*	-.21*	-.19	-.25**
Effectiveness	.64***	.69***	.68***	.65***

Note: N=168

*** P<.001

** P<.01

* P<.05

APPENDIX TEN-B

ORGANIZATION NO. 2

PEARSONS CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

(Semi-profit organization)

	Contingent Reward	Management by Exception
Satisfaction	.51***	.41***
Motivation	.27*	.23*
Tension	-.26**	-.12
Effectiveness	.64***	.53***

Note: N=168

***   P<.001

**   P<.01

*   P<.05

APPENDIX ELEVEN

ORGANIZATION NO. 3

PEARSONS CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

(Semi non-profit organization)

	Transformational	Transactional	Laissez-faire
Satisfaction	73.***	.60***	-.26*
Motivation	.18	.60	-.01
Tension	-.48***	-.41***	.47***
Effectiveness	.82***	.70***	-.38**

Note: N=158

***   P<.001

**   P<.01

*   P<.05

APPENDIX ELEVEN-A

ORGANIZATION NO. 3

PEARSONS CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

(Semi non-profit organization)

	Charismatic	Inspirational Motivation	Intellectual Stimulation	Individualized Consideration
Satisfaction	.70***	.69***	.74***	.67***
Motivation	.14	.19	.22	.12
Tension	-.46***	-.47***	-.45***	-.47***
Effectiveness	.79***	.77***	.81***	.81***

Note: N=158

***   P<.001

**   P<.01

*   P<.05

APPENDIX ELEVEN-B

ORGANIZATION NO. 3

PEARSONS CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

(Semi non-profit organization)

	Contingent Reward	Management by Exception
Satisfaction	.63***	.44***
Motivation	.12	.18
Tension	-.48***	-.20
Effectiveness	.73***	.51***

Note: N = 158

***   P < .001

**   P < .01

*   P < .05

APPENDIX TWELVE

ORGANIZATION NO. 4

PEARSONS CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

(Non-profit organization)

	Transformational	Transactional	Laissez-faire
Satisfaction	.72***	.62***	-.18
Motivation	.23	.34	.16
Tension	-.20	-.17	.34
Effectiveness	.69***	.48***	-.41**

Note: N=95

***   P<.001

**   P<.01

*   P<.05

APPENDIX TWELVE-A

ORGANIZATION NO. 4

PEARSONS CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

(Non-profit organization)

	Charismatic	Inspirational Motivation	Intellectual Stimulation	Individualized Consideration
Satisfaction	.73***	.68***	.63***	.71***
Motivation	.26	.17	.26	.19
Tension	-.22	-.18	-.07	-.23
Effectiveness	.69**	.64***	.69***	.65***

Note: N=95

*** P<.001

** P<.01

* P<.05

APPENDIX TWELVE-B

ORGANIZATION NO. 4

PEARSONS CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS

(Non-profit organization)

	Contingent Reward	Management by Exception
Satisfaction	.61***	.50**
Motivation	.30	.32
Tension	-.29	.02
Effectiveness	.51**	.32

Note: N=95

***   P<.001

**   P<.01

*   P<.05

APPENDIX THIRTEEN

ONE WAY ANOVA OF TRANSFORMATIONAL, TRANSACTIONAL AND LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION

(Lower Managers)

Organization (N=)	Transformational	Transactional	Laissez-faire
1. Profit (29)	2.8	2.5	1.8
2. Semi-profit (65)	2.4	2.3	2.2
3. Semi non-profit (63)	2.4	2.1	1.7
4. Non-profit (29)	2.3	2.1	1.8
F. Ratio	1.22	1.27	7.76*
Duncan Test	1>2 1>3 1>4 2<3 2>4 3>4	1>2 1>3 1>4 2>3 2>4 3>4	1<2* 1>3 1>4 2>3* 2>4* 3>4

*** $P < .001$

** $P < .01$

* $P < .05$

APPENDIX THIRTEEN-A

ONE WAY ANOVA OF DIMENSIONS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION

(Lower Managers)

Organization (N=)	Charismatic	Inspirational Motivation	Intellectual Stimulation	Individualized Consideration
1. Profit (29)	3.0	2.8	2.6	2.8
2. Semi-profit (65)	2.5	2.3	2.2	2.5
3. Semi non-profit (63)	2.5	2.3	2.3	2.4
4. Non-profit (29)	2.5	2.4	2.5	2.1
F. Ratio	2.55*	1.65	.92	2.40*
Duncan Test	1>2* 1>3* 1>4 2>3 2<4 3<4	1>2 1>3 1>4 2<3 2<4 3<4	1>2 1<3 1>4 2>3 2<4 3<4	1>2 1>3 1>4* 2>3 2>4 3>4

***   P<.001
**   P<.01
*   P<.05

APPENDIX THIRTEEN-B

ONE WAY ANOVA OF DIMENSIONS OF
TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION
(Lower Managers)

Organization (N=)	Contingent Reward	Management by Exception
1. Profit (29)	2.5	2.4
2. Semi-profit (65)	2.2	2.3
3. Semi non-profit (63)	2.2	2.2
4. Non-profit (29)	1.9	2.2
F. Ratio	1.59*	1.15
Duncan Test	1>2 1>3 1>4* 2>3 2>4 3>4	1>2 1>3 1>4 2>3 2>4 3<4

***   P<.001
**   P<.01
*   P<.05

APPENDIX FOURTEEN

ONE WAY ANOVA OF TRANSFORMATIONAL, TRANSACTIONAL AND LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION
(Middle Managers)

Organization (N=)	Transformational	Transactional	Laissez-faire
1. Profit (33)	2.3	2.1	1.7
2. Semi-profit (64)	2.6	2.5	2.3
3. Semi non-profit (54)	2.4	2.1	1.7
4. Non-profit (43)	2.1	1.8	1.7
F. Ratio	2.67*	8.51*	14.23*
Duncan Test	1<2 1<3 1>4 2>3 2>4* 3>4	1<2* 1>3 1>4 2>3* 2>4* 3>4	1<2 1>3 1>4 2>3* 2>4* 3<4

*** $P<.001$

** $P<.01$

* $P<.05$

APPENDIX FOURTEEN-A

ONE WAY ANOVA OF DIMENSIONS OF
TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION
(Middle Managers)

Organization (N=)	Charismatic	Inspirational Motivation	Intellectual Stimulation	Individualized Consideration
1. Profit (33)	2.5	2.3	2.2	2.2
2. Semi-profit (64)	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.8
3. Semi non-profit (54)	2.5	2.5	2.3	2.4
4. Non-profit (43)	2.3	2.0	2.0	2.0
F. Ratio	.69	2.8*	2.59*	3.71*
Duncan Test	1<2 1<3 1>4 2>3 2>4 3>4	1<2 1<3 1>4 2<3 2>4* 3>4*	1<2 1<3 1>4 2>3 2>4* 3>4	1<2 1<3 1>4 2>3 2>4* 3>4*

*** $P < .001$
** $P < .01$
* $P < .05$

APPENDIX FOURTEEN-B

ONE WAY ANOVA OF DIMENSIONS OF
TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION
(Middle Managers)

Organization (N=)	Contingent Reward	Management by Exception
1. Profit (33)	2.0	2.2
2. Semi-profit (64)	2.4	2.5
3. Semi non-profit (54)	2.1	2.2
4. Non-profit (43)	1.7	2.0
F. Ratio	6.62*	7.01*
Duncan Test	1<2 1<3 1>4 2>3 2>4* 3>4*	1<2* 1>3 1>4 2>3* 2>4* 3>4

***   P<.001
**   P<.01
*   P<.05

ONE WAY ANOVA OF TRANSFORMATIONAL, TRANSACTIONAL AND LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION
(Top Managers)

Organization (N=)	Transformational	Transactional	Laissez-faire
1. Profit (22)	2.7	2.2	1.6
2. Semi-profit (39)	2.2	2.2	2.2
3. Semi non-profit (41)	2.3	2.2	1.7
4. Non-profit (23)	2.1	1.8	1.8
F. Ratio	2.15*	1.60	7.10*
Duncan Test	1>2* 1>3 1>4* 2<3 2>4 3>4	1>2 1>3 1>4 2>3 2>4 3>4	1<2* 1<3 1<4 2>3* 2<4 3<4

*** $P<.001$

** $P<.01$

* $P<.05$

APPENDIX FIFTEEN-A

ONE WAY ANOVA OF DIMENSIONS OF
TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION
(Top Managers)

Organization (N=)	Charismatic	Inspirational Motivation	Intellectual Stimulation	Individualized Consideration
1. Profit (22)	2.8	2.8	2.5	2.4
2. Semi-profit (39)	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2
3. Semi non-profit (41)	2.5	2.4	2.2	2.3
4. Non-profit (23)	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.0
F. Ratio	2.03*	2.32*	.84	.88
Duncan Test	1>2* 1>3 1>4 2<3 2<4 3>4	1>2* 1>3 1>4 2<3 2<4 3>4	1>2 1>3 1>4 2<3 2>4 3>4	1>2 1>3 1>4 2<3 2>4 3>4

***   P<.001
**   P<.01
*   P<.05

APPENDIX FIFTEEN-B

ONE WAY ANOVA OF DIMENSIONS OF
TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION
(Top Managers)

Organization (N=)	Contingent Reward	Management by Exception
1. Profit (22)	2.1	2.4
2. Semi-profit (39)	2.2	2.2
3. Semi non-profit (41)	2.1	2.2
4. Non-profit (23)	1.7	2.1
F. Ratio	1.67	.80
Duncan Test	1>2 1<3 1>4 2>3 2>4 3>4	1>2 1>3 1>4 2>3 2>4 3>4

*** $P < .001$
** $P < .01$
* $P < .05$

ONE WAY ANOVA OF TRANSFORMATIONAL, TRANSACTIONAL AND LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION LEVEL

(Profit Organization)

Organizational level (N=)	Transformational	Transactional	Laissez-faire
1. Lower Manager (29)	2.8	2.5	1.8
2. Middle Manager (33)	2.3	2.1	1.7
3. Top Manager (22)	2.7	2.2	1.6
F. Ratio	2.34	1.65	.80
Duncan Test	1<2 1<3 2>3	1<2 1<3 2>3	1<2 1>3 2>3

***   P<.001
**   P<.01
*   P<.05

APPENDIX SIXTEEN-A

ONE WAY ANOVA OF DIMENSIONS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION LEVEL
(Profit Organization)

Organizational level (N=)	Charismatic	Inspirational Motivation	Intellectual Stimulation	Individualized Consideration
1. Lower Manager (29)	3.0	2.8	2.6	2.8
2. Middle Manager (33)	2.5	2.3	2.2	2.2
3. Top Manager (22)	2.8	2.8	2.5	2.4
F. Ratio	2.74*	2.09	1.55	2.87*
Duncan Test	1>2* 1>3 2<3	1>2 1>3 2<3	1>2 1>3 2<3	1>2* 1>3 2<3

***   P<.001
**   P<.01
*   P<.05

APPENDIX SIXTEEN-B

ONE WAY ANOVA OF DIMENSIONS OF TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION LEVEL
(Profit Organization)

Organization Level (N=)	Contingent Reward	Management by Exception
1. Lower Manager (29)	2.5	2.4
2. Middle Manager (33)	2.0	2.2
3. Top Manager (22)	2.1	2.4
F. Ratio	2.01	.61
Duncan Test	1>2 1>3 2<3	1>2 1<3 2<3

***   P<.001
**   P<.01
*   P<.05

APPENDIX SEVENTEEN

ONE WAY ANOVA OF TRANSFORMATIONAL, TRANSACTIONAL AND LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION LEVEL
(Semi-profit Organization)

Organizational level (N=)	Transformational	Transactional	Laissez-faire
1. Lower Manager (65)	2.4	2.3	2.2
2. Middle Manager (64)	2.6	2.5	2.3
3. Top Manager (39)	2.2	2.2	2.2
F. Ratio	3.46*	2.76*	1.01
Duncan Test	1<2 1>3 2>3*	1<2 1>3 2>3*	1<2 1<3 2>3

***   P<.001

**   P<.01

*   P<.05

APPENDIX SEVENTEEN-A

ONE WAY ANOVA OF DIMENSIONS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION LEVEL

(Semi-profit Organization)

Organizational level (N=)	Charismatic	Inspirational Motivation	Intellectual Stimulation	Individualized Consideration
1. Lower Manager (65)	2.5	2.3	2.2	2.5
2. Middle Manager (64)	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.6
3. Top Manager (39)	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.2
F. Ratio	2.61*	1.68	1.89	4.47*
Duncan Test	1<2 1>3 2>3*	1<2 1>3 2>3	1<2 1>3 2>3	1<2 1>3* 2>3*

***   P < .001

**   P < .01

*   P < .05

APPENDIX SEVENTEEN-B

ONE WAY ANOVA OF DIMENSIONS OF
TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION LEVEL
(Semi-profit Organization)

Organization Level (N=)	Contingent Reward	Management by Exception
1. Lower Manager (65)	2.2	2.3
2. Middle Manager (64)	2.4	2.5
3. Top Manager (39)	2.2	2.2
F. Ratio	1.37	3.00*
Duncan Test	1<2 1>3 2>3	1<2 1>3 2>3*

***   P<.001
**   P<.01
*   P<.05

APPENDIX EIGHTEEN

ONE WAY ANOVA OF TRANSFORMATIONAL, TRANSACTIONAL AND LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION LEVEL
(Semi Non-profit Organization)

Organizational level (N=)	Transformational	Transactional	Laissez-faire
1. Lower Manager (63)	2.4	2.2	1.7
2. Middle Manager (54)	2.4	2.1	1.7
3. Top Manager (41)	2.3	2.2	1.7
F. Ratio	.11	.21	.05
Duncan Test	1<2 1>3 2>3	1>2 1<3 2<3	1<2 1>3 2>3

*** $P<.001$
** $P<.01$
* $P<.05$

ONE WAY ANOVA OF DIMENSIONS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION LEVEL

(Semi Non-profit Organization)

Organizational level (N=)	Charismatic	Inspirational Motivation	Intellectual Stimulation	Individualized Consideration
1. Lower Manager (63)	2.5	2.4	2.3	2.4
2. Middle Manager (54)	2.5	2.5	2.2	2.4
3. Top Manager (41)	2.5	2.4	2.2	2.3
F. Ratio	.03	.45	.21	.35
Duncan Test	1<2 1<3 2<3	1<2 1<3 2>3	1>2 1>3 2>3	1>2 1>2 2>3

***   P<.001
**   P<.01
*   P<.05

APPENDIX EIGHTEEN-B

ONE WAY ANOVA OF DIMENSIONS OF TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION LEVEL
(Semi Non-profit Organization)

Organization Level (N=)	Contingent Reward	Management by Exception
1. Lower Manager (63)	2.2	2.2
2. Middle Manager (54)	2.1	2.2
3. Top Manager (41)	2.1	2.2
F. Ratio	.09	.05
Duncan Test	1>2 1>3 2<3	1<2 1<3 2<3

***   P<.001
**   P<.01
*   P<.05

APPENDIX NINETEEN

ONE WAY ANOVA OF TRANSFORMATIONAL, TRANSACTIONAL AND LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION LEVEL
(Non-profit Organization)

Organizational level (N=)	Transformational	Transactional	Laissez-faire
1. Lower Manager (29)	2.3	2.1	1.8
2. Middle Manager (43)	2.1	1.8	1.8
3. Top Manager (23)	2.1	1.8	1.8
F. Ratio	.37	1.10	.25
Duncan Test	1>2 1>3 2<3	1>2 1>3 2<3	1>2 1>3 2<3

***   P<.001
**   P<.01
*   P<.05

APPENDIX NINETEEN-A

ONE WAY ANOVA OF DIMENSIONS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION LEVEL

(Non-profit Organization)

Organizational level (N=)	Charismatic	Inspirational Motivation	Intellectual Stimulation	Individualized Consideration
1. Lower Manager (29)	2.5	2.4	2.5	2.1
2. Middle Manager (43)	2.3	2.0	2.0	2.0
3. Top Manager (23)	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.0
F. Ratio	.52	.93	1.90	.07
Duncan Test	1>2 1>3 2<3	1>2 1>3 2<3	1>2 1>3 2>3	1>2 1>3 2>3

*** $P<.001$

** $P<.01$

* $P<.05$

APPENDIX NINETEEN-B

ONE WAY ANOVA OF DIMENSIONS OF
TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP BY ORGANIZATION LEVEL
(Non-profit Organization)

Organization Level (N=)	Contingent Reward	Management by Exception
1. Lower Manager (29)	1.9	2.2
2. Middle Manager (43)	1.7	2.0
3. Top Manager (23)	1.7	2.1
F. Ratio	.42	1.02
Duncan Test	1>2 1>3 2<3	1>2 1>3 2<3

*** $P<.001$

** $P<.01$

* $P<.05$

APPENDIX TWENTY

PILOT STUDY

*CORRELATIONS BETWEEN LEADERSHIP VARIABLES
AND OUTCOME VARIABLES*

	Satisfaction with Supervision	Motivation	Job Related Tension	Effectiveness
Charismatic	.79**	.07	-.18	.74**
Inspirational Motivation	.85**	.06	-.16	.81**
Intellectual Stimulation	.94***	.25	.06	.88***
Individualized Consideration	.91***	.15	.03	.84**
Contingent Reward	.83**	.09	-.19	.84**
Management by Exception	.27	-.13	.25	.28
Laissez-faire	-.54	.16	.28	-.42

***   P < .001

**   P < .01

*   P < .05

APPENDIX TWENTY-ONE
COMPARING MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP

	Management	Leadership
Creating an agenda	**Planning and Budgeting -** establishing detailed steps and timetables for achieving needed results, and then allocating the resources necessary to make that happen.	**Establishing Direction -** developing a vision of the future, often the distant future, and strategies for producing the changes needed to achieve that vision.
Developing a human network for achieving the agenda	**Organizing and Staffing -** establishing some structure for accomplishing plan requirements, staffing that structure with individuals, delegating responsibility and authority for carrying out the plan, providing policies and procedures to help guide people, and creating methods or systems to monitor implementation.	**Aligning People -** communicating the direction by words and deeds to all those whose cooperation may be needed so as to influence the creation of teams and coalitions that understand the vision and strategies, and accept their validity.
Execution	**Controlling and Problem Solving -** monitoring results vs. plan in some detail, identifying deviations, and then planning and organizing to solve these problems.	**Motivating and Inspiring -** energizing people to overcome major political, bureaucratic, and resource barriers to change by satisfying very basic, but often unfulfilled, human needs.
Outcome	Produces a degree of predictability and order, and has the potential of consistently producing key results expected by various stakeholders (e.g., for customers, always being on time; for stockholders, being on budget).	Produces change, often to a dramatic degree, and has the potential of producing extremely useful change (e.g., new products that customers want, new approaches to labour relations that help make a firm more competitive).

Kotter, J. (1990, p6)

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