

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

FACULTY OF SOUTHAMPTON BUSINESS SCHOOL

MANAGEMENT

Volume 1 of 1

**The Impact of Transformational Leadership and Work
Attitude on Job Performance: The Case of Kuwait's
Banking Sector**

by

Mohammed Ebraheem Alnughaimish

Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

October 2018

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

ABSTRACT

FACULTY OF BUSINESS AND LAW

MANAGEMENT

Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

The Impact of Transformational Leadership and Work Attitudes on Job Performance: The Case of Kuwait's Banking Sector

Mohammed Ebraheem Alnughaimish

Despite the vast amount of research that has been conducted on transformational leadership in a Western context, little is known about this topic in Middle Eastern settings. This lack is significant when one considers the vast disparity between the economies of developing countries (i.e. Kuwait) and the developed nations which have managed to transform the performance of their countries. In exploring the extant literature on transformational leadership and performance, comprehensive broad and narrow systematic reviews were conducted. These involved a review of established review papers (28 from the general literature) and specific empirical studies conducted in the Gulf States (19 studies in total). From these reviews, a number of gaps were identified. Firstly, the literature is found to revolve primarily around self-reporting leaders' styles and there is a lack of research that explores the dyadic relationship using self- and peer-reporting. Secondly, although the broad literature review supports the influence of transformational leadership on employees' performance, there was a gap in the research that examines job performance in the Gulf region in relation to leadership style. Hence, this quantitative research aims to understand the impact of transformational leadership, and its four sub-dimensions – idealised influence (II), inspirational motivation (IM), individualised consideration (IC) and intellectual stimulation (IS) – on employees' job performance. This study set out to answer the following questions within the context of Kuwait: i) to what extent does overall subordinates' reporting their leaders' transformational leadership (TL) style affect the followers' job performance? ii) What is the impact of each of the four sub-dimensions of TL on followers' job performance? Finally, iii) To what extent do the four sub-dimensions of TL affect employee work attitude (EWA) of subordinates such as job satisfaction (JS), affective commitment (AC) and turnover intention (TO)?

The research questions are explored using a survey instrument based on established scales. The survey was distributed to 850 managers and their direct subordinates, resulting in a total of 420 participants (210 leaders and 210 followers). The research design entailed the leaders providing answers that indicated the presence of their TL and the performance of their direct reports, whilst follower responses related not only to the leader's TL but also their EWA, comprising JS, AC and TO. The data were analysed using a range of inferential statistical tests including structural equation modelling (SEM). Results of the SEM analysis showed that, contrary to the findings in the literature in a Western setting, the subordinates' job performance in a Gulf State context is not impacted by EWA or by the composite measure of TL. However, an interesting contribution arises when TL is "unpacked" to explore the impact of its four sub-dimensions (II, IM, IC and IS), in which cultural differences were found. That is, II, IM and IC are positively related to job performance, whereas IS negatively influences JP. Moreover, the research reveals that the subordinates' model fit of TL (employees reporting their leaders' TL style) and JP are stronger than the model fit of leaders' self-reported TL style. In addition to this, it was found that leaders tended to rate themselves higher than their subordinates did in terms of TL. Potential explanations of the findings are discussed in relation to the extant literature. From the study, it was concluded that the factors that influence workers in developed countries apply with some disparity in the developing nations such as those in the Middle East context (i.e. Kuwait). Finally, the study's contributions, implications and directions for future research are discussed.

Keywords: leadership, transformational leadership, employee work attitude, job satisfaction, affective commitment, turnover intention, job performance, Middle East and the Gulf States.

Table of Contents

Table of Contents	i
List of Tables	v
List of Figures	7
DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP	9
Acknowledgements	11
Definitions and Abbreviations	13
Chapter 1: General Introduction	15
1.1 Introduction	15
1.2 Research Objectives	17
1.3 Research Questions	17
1.4 Organisation of Study	18
Chapter 2: Literature Review	21
2.1 Introduction	21
2.2 Leadership and Evolution	21
2.2.1 Leadership definition	21
2.2.2 Brief Evolution of leadership	23
2.2.3 Description of the Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM)	34
2.2.4 Validity of Full Range Leadership Model	39
2.3 Broader Systematic Review of Meta-Analyses	43
2.3.1 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria	43
2.3.2 Brief Summary of the Table	45
2.3.3 Transformational Leadership Results and Dimensions	45
2.4 Narrow Systematic Review of Gulf States	58
2.4.1 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria	59
2.4.2 Summary of the Table	60
2.4.3 Critical Analyses of Narrow Systematic Review	61
2.4.4 Conclusion of Narrow Systematic Review	78
2.5 Conclusion from the Literature	78
2.5.1 Employee Work Attitude (EWA)	78

2.5.2	Job Satisfaction	78
2.5.3	Affective Commitment (EWA).....	79
2.5.4	Turnover Intention (EWA).....	79
2.5.5	Cultural Issues	80
2.6	Literature Gaps	81
2.6.1	Research Questions.....	83
2.7	Hypotheses	83
2.7.1	Model 1 (Figure 2.4).....	83
2.7.2	Model 2 (Figure 2.5).....	85
2.7.3	Research Model	88
2.8	Research Context.....	89
2.9	Conclusion.....	90
Chapter 3:	Methodology.....	93
3.1	Introduction.....	93
3.2	Research Philosophies.....	93
3.2.1	Assumptions on the Nature of Social Science Research	93
3.2.2	Ontological Assumptions	94
3.2.3	Epistemological Assumptions.....	94
3.2.4	Methodological Approaches	97
3.2.5	Choices of Current Study.....	97
3.2.6	Cross-sectional Surveys.....	98
3.2.7	Adapted Methodological Approach	98
3.3	Research Design.....	98
3.3.1	Research questions	99
3.3.2	Research Variables	99
3.3.3	Data Collection.....	101
3.3.4	Data Analysis (processing).....	101
3.3.5	The Research Framework.....	101
3.3.6	The Empirical Research Model.....	101
3.4	Instrumentation.....	102
3.4.1	Independent Variable – Transformational Leadership	102

3.4.2	Dependent variable – Job Performance.....	103
3.4.3	Mediator Variables – Employee Work Attitude (EWA)	104
3.4.4	Control Variables.....	106
3.4.5	Questionnaires Structure	107
3.4.6	The Pilot	110
3.5	Sampling	111
3.5.1	Location.....	112
3.5.2	Sample Size	112
3.5.3	Sample Characteristics	113
3.6	Procedure.....	113
3.6.1	Data Collection	113
3.6.2	Questionnaires Procedure	114
3.6.3	Data Analysis	115
3.7	Conclusion.....	116
Chapter 4:	Results.....	117
4.1	Introduction	117
4.2	Pre-analysis Data Treatment (Assessment of Data Quality)	118
4.2.1	Determination of Useable Data	118
4.2.2	Reversed Coding.....	118
4.2.3	Missing Data.....	118
4.2.4	Normality Test.....	118
4.3	Biographical Data	118
4.3.1	Leader Demographics	119
4.3.2	Subordinates’ Demographics	121
4.4	Structural Equation Model (SEM)	123
4.4.1	Justification for using SEM	123
4.4.2	Measurement Model	124
4.4.3	Structural Model	128
4.5	Transformational Leadership Assessment Alignment.....	137
4.5.1	Further Significant Results (non-hypothesised)	139

4.6	Conclusion.....	141
Chapter 5:	Discussion.....	143
5.1	Introduction.....	143
5.2	Research Context.....	143
5.2.1	Research Questions and Hypotheses.....	143
5.3	Summary of Findings.....	144
5.3.1	Biographical Variables.....	144
5.3.2	Relationships among Variables.....	145
5.3.3	Non-hypothesised Significant Findings.....	154
5.4	Conclusion.....	155
Chapter 6:	Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations.....	157
6.1	Introduction.....	157
6.2	Key Findings and Conclusions.....	157
6.3	Limitations of the Study.....	158
6.4	Future Research.....	159
6.5	Contributions of the Research.....	161
6.5.1	Practical Implications Contribution.....	164
6.6	Conclusion.....	166
	Bibliography.....	169
	Appendix A.....	189
	Appendix B.....	195

List of Tables

Table 2.1 Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM)	36
Table 2.2 Full Range Leadership Theory’s Constructs and Descriptions	36
Table 2.3 Summary of Broader Literature - Results of Meta-analyses and Reviews Published ..	44
Table 2.4 TL and Dimensions Found in Broader Meta-Analysis and Systematic Review	45
Table 2.5 Mixed-Effects Regression Analysis Predicting MLQ Scores in Schwartz, Hofstede and Wealth.....	51
Table 2.6 Summary of the Broader Literature/ Studies Found	54
Table 2.7 Narrow Systematic Review	59
Table 2.8 GCC Systematic Review Research Table	60
Table 2.9 Gulf States Studies Comparison of Reliability, Sample and Journal Rating	67
Table 2.10 Summary of narrow systematic review studies.....	76
Table 3.1 Epistemologies and ontologies in social science	95
Table 3.2 Structure of “Leader Form 1” - leaders self-reporting their TL and Peer-reporting Their Subordinates’ Job Performance	107
Table 3.3 Structure of “Subordinate Form 1” - Subordinates report their leaders’ TL Style.....	109
Table 3.4 Structure of “Subordinate Form 2” - Self-report Employee Work Attitude (EWA) ...	110
Table 3.5 Local and international banks in Kuwait.....	112
Table 4.1 Gender of leaders	119
Table 4.2 Age of leaders	119
Table 4.3 Educational qualifications of leaders.....	120
Table 4.4 Length of tenure of leaders	120

Table 4.5 Leaders’ descriptive statistics – present job and length of relationship with subordinates	121
Table 4.6 Gender of subordinates.....	121
Table 4.7 Age of subordinates.....	122
Table 4.8 Education of subordinates.....	122
Table 4.9 Length of stay of subordinates	123
Table 4.10 Confirmatory factor analysis for independent variable of transformational leadership	125
Table 4.11 Confirmatory factor analysis for dependent variables of employee work attitude (EWA)	125
Table 4.12 Goodness-of-fit of measurement model	126
Table 4.13 Descriptive statistics and correlation among variables	126
Table 4.14 Descriptive statistics and correlation among variables	127
Table 4.15 Goodness-of-fit for structural nested models	129
Table 4.16 Goodness-of-fit of measurement models.....	133
Table 4.17 Goodness-of-fit of structural models	133
Table 4.18 Goodness-of-fit of measurement model	135
Table 4.19 Goodness-of-fit for structural nested models – E and F.....	136
Table 4.20 Summary of Transformational Leadership Alignment Results	138
Table 4.21 Summary of Results from Hypotheses Testing.....	138

List of Figures

Figure 2.1 Leadership, Leader and Followers in Egyptian Hieroglyphs	23
Figure 2.2 The Historical Timeline of Leadership Development.....	24
Figure 2.3 The Structure of Systematic Reviews	42
Figure 2.4 Research Theoretical Model (1) – Transformational Leadership	88
Figure 2.5 Research Theoretical Model (2) – Four Dimensions of Transformational Leadership	89
Figure 3.1 Philosophical assumptions of positivism	96
Figure 4.1 Diagram of the Data Treatment	117
Figure 4.2 Results of Model A	134
Figure 4.3 Plot of the Interaction between nationalities (moderator), TL and JP	140

DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I,.....

declare that this thesis and the work presented in it are my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

The Impact of Transformational Leadership and Work Attitude on Job Performance: The Case of Kuwait's Banking Sector

I confirm that:

1. This work was done wholly or mainly while in candidature for a research degree at this University;
2. Where any part of this thesis has previously been submitted for a degree or any other qualification at this University or any other institution, this has been clearly stated;
3. Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed;
4. Where I have quoted from the work of others, the source is always given. With the exception of such quotations, this thesis is entirely my own work;
5. I have acknowledged all main sources of help;
6. Where the thesis is based on work done by myself jointly with others, I have made clear exactly what was done by others and what I have contributed myself;

Signed:

Date:

Acknowledgements

All praise and thanks to Allah the Lord of the universe.

First and foremost, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my Supervisor, Professor Malcolm Higgs for his invaluable guidance and continued support towards the completion of this thesis. This will forever be remembered and appreciated. I also would like to extend my appreciation to my supervisor Dr Mel Ashleigh for her brilliant guidance, emotional support and thorough advice during this journey. I would also like to thank my Supervisor Professor Nicholas Clarke for his insightful advice which greatly helped in shaping the systematic review section; a key foundation of the research. His professionalism will always be remembered. Generally, I would like to express my sincere appreciation to all my Supervisors for their constructive and substantive comments and advice throughout this wonderful and unforgettable journey.

I wish to express my deep gratitude to my Mother, Fatema, and Father, Ebraheem, for their continued support throughout my thesis and life. I have finally managed to make their dream come true, in attaining this PhD. Moreover, I would like thank my beloved wife, Haya and my children, Abdulaziz, Abdullah and Ghina for their unconditional love and encouragement.

Definitions and Abbreviations

AC	Affective Commitment
AMOS	Analysis of Moment Structures
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
EWA	Employee Work Attitude
FRLM	Full Range Leadership Model
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
Gulf States	Six countries located in the Arabian Gulf which are State of Kuwait, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates (UAE), Kingdom of Bahrain, Sultanate of Oman and State of Qatar.
JP	Job Performance
JS	Job Satisfaction
KSA	Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
Kuwait	The State of Kuwait
Middle East	“An extensive area of south-western Asia and northern Africa, stretching from the Mediterranean to Pakistan and including the Arabian peninsula” (Oxford Dictionary).
MLQ	Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
NS	Non-significant (statistical analysis)
S	Significant (statistical analysis)
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
TL	Transformational Leadership
TO/Too	Turnover Intention
Wasta	Is an Arabic term for social networking or a form of nepotism

Chapter 1: General Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Despite the availability of abundant literature on leadership (Stogdill, 1974 p. 129; Bass and Bass, 2008; Avolio *et al.*, 2009; Gill, 2011; Takahashi *et al.*, 2012; Northouse, 2016) there still remains the need to understand it in international and cultural settings (Lowe and Gardner, 2000; Leong and Fischer, 2011). When it comes to the case of developing nations, the need for such research increases even further. According to Takahashi *et al.* (2012), there is limited research into leadership in non-Western societies in comparison with research into Western countries, which is supported by a number of other studies such as (Yukl, 2002). This makes it important to further investigate the matter in the non-Western nations to explore leadership and its effect on performance. The reason for this is that, in spite of the uncertainty and scepticism associated with its reality and importance, leadership is still deemed a crucial factor in determining the success or failure of institutions. Bass and Bass (2008) hold that the entire range of social and political movements are in need of leaders to initiate this process. Moreover, leaders have political influence in nations; they can also transform institutions (Nguyen *et al.* (2017); Verbeke *et al.* (2016); Bass (1985) and greatly impact their followers' performance (Bass, 1995; Lowe *et al.*, 1996; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Mohamed, 2016).

In light of this, one could ask why developing nations such as Kuwait are falling significantly behind the developed countries (i.e. the UK and the USA). In fact, this wealthy Gulf State is still lagging behind the developed nations with respect to human development (Jahan, 2016), despite Kuwait's tremendous amount of wealth, enjoying 11% of the world's oil reserves and being ranked 11th on the world's list of GDPs per capita of £51,344 versus the USA which is ranked 20th with £41,334 GDP per capita in 2016. Moreover, Kuwait is ranked 51st in the Human Development Index in comparison with the UK and the USA at 16th and 10th, respectively. In addition, Kuwait is even found to lag behind its neighbouring homogeneous six Gulf States where it once used to hold a leading position in the areas of the economy, education and sports (Al-Mulhim, 2014). All this could be linked to the performance of its people and leadership. For instance, although Kuwait was the first nation in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) to introduce a constitution in 1962 (Beaugrand, 2016) and still enjoys a powerful first parliament in the Gulf States that is fully and directly elected by the people (Herb, 2002), it is still lagging behind its neighbouring countries in economy, education, sports etc. As Kuwait is ranked as the fifth most corrupt amongst the six Gulf States has fallen in the global rankings from 75 in 2016 to 85 in 2017 (worst), according to the

Chapter 1 Introduction

Corruption Perceptions Index (CPI, 2018). This is perhaps difficult to understand as the members of the Parliament have the power to remove Ministers of the government from their post according to Article 101 of the Constitution (NAK, 2018). This political right and leaders' powerful reform tool has no parallel in the Gulf States. Kuwait is also still ranked 35th amongst the 144 countries, according to the Global Competitiveness Report 2015-2016 by the World Economic Forum (Schwab and Sala-i-Martin, 2015). Although Kuwait was ranked fourth among the GCC Arab countries on the Global Competitiveness Index 2016, it fell behind all the other Gulf States with respect to healthcare, primary and secondary education, training, business sophistication, infrastructure, innovation, goods market efficiency, and financial market development (Schwab, 2015). The banking sector in Kuwait is considered to be less powerful in comparison with Saudi Arabia and the UAE (Schwab and Sala-i-Martin, 2015).

Furthermore, a range of reasons exist as to why the Kuwait banking sector is considered an interesting context for this research. First, according to the IMF (2018), Kuwait is expected to enjoy fiscal surplus which may boost its strategic goals set out in its ambitious *Vision 2035*. This is important for this research as the country's vision relies heavily on the private sector particularly the banking industry according to *Vision 2035*. Second, the banking sector is the biggest employer in the country, as under law 1028/2014 every bank is obliged to employ a minimum of 64% Kuwaiti nationals; this figure is considered to represent a decent concentration of local leaders and subordinates which may be helpful in understanding the cultural aspects in a prime sector of Kuwait. Third, the banking institutions are viewed as a pool of various sub-sectors (e.g., investment, retail banking, finance, human capital, marketing, and PR) among others which would be interesting to investigate. Finally, and most importantly, leaders in the banking sector of Kuwait are managing a considerable amount of assets for the public and private institutions, which are estimated to be £507 billions; which comprised considerable amount of the GDP in 2017. By implication, a failure in leadership may lead to economic catastrophe.

A number of gaps arise here with reference to the following concerns. For instance, the performance of the nation does not reflect its immense wealth and the leading position it used to enjoy in the Gulf in the 1960s and 1970s (Al-Mulhim, 2014), bearing in mind its relatively small population of 4.5 million (2017 census). Moreover, the nation lacks a flexible or innovative leadership, according to the Global Competitiveness Report 2014-2015 (Schwab and Sala-i-Martin, 2015). All this may in one way or another be related to the performance of leaders and followers. For instance, striking and interesting findings presented themselves in the comprehensive systematic review (section 2.5), which uncovered the empirical studies conducted in the Gulf States. In this systematic review, the researcher found that a major gap exists between leadership style (i.e. transformational) and the job performance of followers. This is because the most

researched theory in leadership, *transformational leadership* (Antonakis and House, 2014), was not adequately investigated in the Arab Gulf nations (e.g., in Kuwait) in which wide cultural and leadership differences are reported in GLOBE (2001) and House *et al.* (2004). Besides, the systematic review in section 2.5 reveals that no single piece of research exists that explores the four sub-dimensions of transformational leadership in which potential cultural differences may exist, according to (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2005b; Leong and Fischer, 2011) (see sections 2.5 and 2.6). This makes the exploration of the country's largest employer (the banking sector) timely and interesting in order to acquire an understanding of the impact of leadership style (transformational) on the job performance of people in light of a number of variables. The variables are transformational leadership (TL) and its four sub-dimensions – employee work attitude (EWA) that consists of job satisfaction (JS), affective commitment (AC), turnover intention (TO) and job performance (JP).

Therefore, the main purpose of this study is to develop an understanding of the impact of transformational leadership (TL) and its four components on job performance (JP). It was hypothesised that the TL components are mediated by EWA (job satisfaction, turnover intention and affective commitment). The independent variable is transformational leadership (TL) while the dependent variable is job performance (JP). The data for the study were collected through surveys. This thesis attempts to shed light on this important issue.

The following research objectives and questions are set out to fulfil this thesis' aims as addressed in the introduction.

1.2 Research Objectives

1. To critically analyse the extent to which job performance of followers is affected by transformational leadership's sub-dimensions.
2. To critically analyse the extent to which transformational leadership's sub-dimensions are affected by job satisfaction, affective commitment, and turnover.
3. To explore whether some of these four sub-dimensions are more effective than others.

1.3 Research Questions

1. To what extent does the TL affect followers' job performance?
2. To what extent do the four sub-dimensions of TL affect followers' job performance?

Chapter 1 Introduction

3. To what extent do the four sub-dimensions of TL affect employee work attitude (EWA), including job satisfaction (JS), turnover intention (TO), and affective commitment (AC)?

1.4 Organisation of Study

The research contains six chapters. The structure of these chapters is as follows:

Chapter One: Introduction

This chapter presents a general introduction about the research study. This includes discussion of general theoretical and statistical backgrounds about transformational leadership and employees' performance. The purpose of the study, justification for the study, and contextual background follow. Finally, the significance of the study is discussed.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

Chapter two critically evaluates the literature examining the theoretical background of leadership, and specifically transformational leadership; the evidence found in both westernised and cross-cultural studies and its relationship with job performance is presented.

Chapter Three: Methodology

Chapter three discusses the research philosophies, research design, instrumentation, sampling methods and procedure.

Chapter Four: Results

Chapter four reports the findings from the quantitative data analysis. These findings were reached by the instruments of the research. In summary, the chapter describes relationship between the independent variable (TL) and the dependent variable (JP), structural equation modelling analysis and multivariate analysis. It also provides a brief review of the descriptive statistics and inferential statistics.

Chapter Five: Discussion

This chapter evaluates and interprets the thesis findings in relation to the literature.

Chapter Six: Summary, Conclusion and Recommendations

Chapter six discusses the general findings of the research to date, including the implications for the target groups and directions for future work. Research limitations, recommendations, and future research are discussed, followed by the overall conclusions derived from the study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The literature on the various variables (i.e. TL, JP, and EWA: JS, AC and TO) is presented here to lend direction to the study. This literature review follows a systematic approach in order to minimise potential researcher bias (Tranfield *et al.*, 2003). The purpose of this chapter is twofold: first, to conduct a broader Systematic Review of Meta-analyses, in which transformational leadership findings are discussed in conjunction with the major associated dimensions. The second purpose is to conduct a narrow Systematic Review of the Gulf Arab States' studies upon which a greater analysis of the transformational leadership findings is discussed, in a non-western context (i.e. the Middle East).

2.2 Leadership and Evolution

2.2.1 Leadership definition

People have long been fascinated with the topic of 'leadership' (Yukl, 2010). As a result, multiple scholars have provided various definitions for the term 'leadership' (Stogdill, 1974; Katz and Kahn, 1978; Bass, 1985; House, 1999; Cook, 2000; Bass and Bass, 2008; Gill, 2011; Iszatt-White, 2014). For instance, Stogdill (1974p. 259), who conducted a comprehensive literature review of leadership, concluded that *"there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept"*. This is also in line with Tonvongval (2013) who articulates that leadership has various proposed definitions. More specifically, Rost (1993) in his comprehensive research, found 221 definitions of leadership in 587 publications reviewed. This displays a need to be explicit about what exactly is meant by the term "Leadership".

One of the definitions in the literature, which is put forward by Cook (2000), describes leadership as the skill of quick learning and handling change appropriately and effectively in response to the stimuli. This naturally requires certain risk-taking and courage to be influential around individuals in terms of both intellect and emotion towards the realisation of the organisation's common goals.

Leadership is also defined as *"the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organization"* (Katz and Kahn, 1978 , p.528). House (1999, p.184) defines leadership as *"the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable other to*

contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organization...". A common and key thread in all these definitions is the term 'influence'.

Looked at from a slightly different angle, leadership is also defined as a process (Gill, 2011) in which others are influenced in realising the goals and objectives of the organisation, according to (Bartol and Martin, 1998). This definition is in line with Drath and Palus (1994, p.4) who state that *"leadership is the process of making sense of what people are doing together so that people will understand and be committed"*. Rauch and Behling (1984, p.46) also define it as *"the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal achievement"*.

Leadership is process in which a group of people are influenced by one person for the achievement of common goals (Northouse (2013). The researcher further suggests that the reason for the commonality of the goals is that both the followers and leaders are part of the same leadership process. On the one hand, Iszatt-White and Saunders (2014) qualify Northouse's definition of leadership by suggesting that it is informed by the key ideas available in the literature surrounding 'leadership'. Therefore, this thesis adopts the definition offered by Northouse (2013) in which leadership is clearly defined as a process that is influenced by a leader in order to attain shared goals. Combe (2014 p. 151) also suggests a similar definition by saying that leadership is *"the ability to influence a group in the attainment of goals or objectives"*.

Because leadership is a process of influence (as defined above) which can influence people's performance (Bass, 1995; Lowe *et al.*, 1996; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Mohamed, 2016) and institutions (Bass, 1985, 1995; Verbeke *et al.*, 2016; Nguyen *et al.*, 2017), leadership is a crucial concept. Therefore, this makes the concept a subject of close study in an effort to examine its transformational and influential aspects. Also, the concept of transformational leadership which is grounded in the Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM) of Avolio and Bass (2004) is studied in this thesis. This is because transformational leadership (TL) is well demonstrated in various roles in business and society, as well as in politics (Bass, 1998; Avolio, 1999). For instance, the available literature shows that TL has been exhibited by chief executive officers (CEOs) (Yokochi-Bryce, 1989), housewives who are active in the society (Avolio and Bass, 1994), and colonels in the army (Bass, 1985). In addition, TL has been examined by administrators of schools (Koh, 1990), presidents of the United States (House *et al.*, 1991), Methodist ministers (Onnen, 1987), and brothers and sisters in the Roman Catholic church (Druskat, 1994).

In conclusion, as leadership is a concept which revolves around the factor of 'influence' that would transform people and organisations, it is vital to understand which theory of leadership is well established in this regard. The answer is transformational leadership (full-range) as it has

been one of the most researched theories of leadership in contemporary literature (Antonakis, 2001; Antonakis *et al.*, 2014).

Additionally, most of the TL research is conducted in western countries, with only a few taking place in the Eastern part of the world. However, prior to understanding TL, it would be beneficial to understand how the ‘new leadership’ of TL evolved throughout history which is addressed in the following sections.

2.2.2 Brief Evolution of leadership

Leadership principles are rooted in the emergence of civilization. In fact, the relationship between the leaders and followers emerged thousands of years ago, which shows the importance of such relationship. For instance, it has been written in Egyptian hieroglyphs, 5,000 years ago, that leadership is “*seshement*”, leader is “*seshemu*”, and follower is “*shemsu*”, according to the seminal work of (Bass and Bass, 2008) (see figure 2.1).

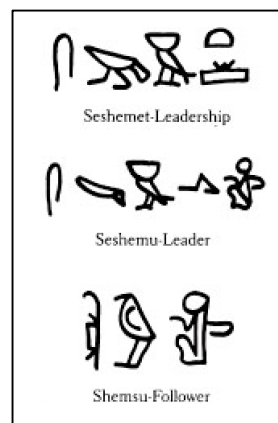


Figure 2.1 Leadership, Leader and Followers in Egyptian Hieroglyphs

Source: (Bass and Bass, 2008 p. 29)

All the greatest prophets, such as Noah, Jesus, Abraham, Jacob, Moses and the last Prophet, Mohammed, practised some form of leadership amongst their followers. Since then, leadership has been practised in societies throughout history until a new era emerged. For instance, in recent history, leadership went through many approaches which ended with “new leadership” (i.e. transformational leadership) and “emerging leadership” (i.e. authentic, spiritual and servant leadership (Northouse, 2016). Therefore, in order to understand the recent approaches it would be beneficial to briefly describe how leadership approaches evolved since 1900.

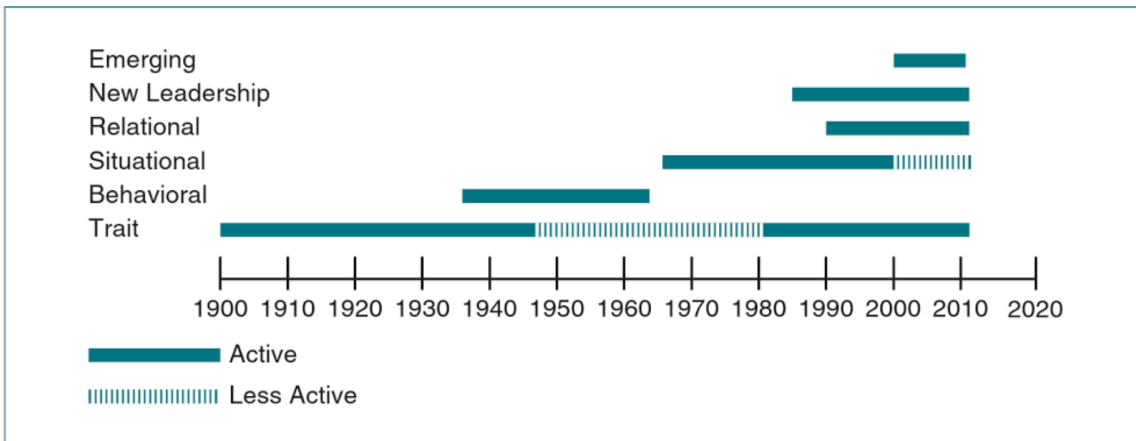


Figure 2.2 The Historical Timeline of Leadership Development

Source: Northouse (2017 p. 3) adopted from Antonakis, J., Cianciolo, A., and Sternberg R. J. (Eds). (2004). *The nature of leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage, p.7.

Figure 2.2 presents a simple timeline of the six major leadership theories or approaches developed throughout recent history, which are briefly explained in the following section. Prior to that, it is important to mention that it is not the intention here to represent the leadership approaches outlined in Figure 2.2 as distinct and separate eras. Instead, the figure portrays that new approaches or theories emerged after an older one had disappeared. Also, according to Northouse (2016), some of these theories take place at the same time and complement one another. There also remains a period of influence over the emergence of a new leadership approach once an earlier approach loses its popularity.

2.2.2.1 Trait Approach

The first leadership theory which represented the formal emergence of understanding the leadership process was the “personality era” posited by Van Seters and Field (1990). These personality period, or trait approach, theories were called “great man theories” as they were dedicated to identifying the characteristics of leaders and their innate qualities in various fields such as politics, the military and society (i.e. Mohandas Gandhi, Moses and Abraham Lincoln) according to Bass and Bass (2008) and Northouse (2016). In the 1970s, the robust leadership research enjoyed a new popularity as it began to explore visionary and charismatic leadership styles. Northouse (2016) maintains that scholars attempted to link the popular personality factors (i.e. the “Big Five”) to leadership. The basic factors of the Big Five traits of agreeableness, extraversion (surgency), neuroticism, conscientiousness (dependability) and openness (intellect) were well established in the literature (See McCrae, 1987; Goldberg, 1990). Other attempts were made in 1990s to assess the extent to which leadership is influenced by the traits through

emotional intelligence (See Goleman, 1995; Mayer and Salovey, 1995; Mayer, 1997; Goleman, 1998; Mayer *et al.*, 2000; Day *et al.*, 2004; Shankman and Allen, 2009).

The trait approach has some strengths and weaknesses. Four major strengths were reported by Northouse (2016). Firstly, this approach has enjoyed an abundance of profound and wide ranging research. Out of the plethora of research, substantive literature has emerged points to the raise of key role of personality traits in the process of leadership. Secondly, the trait approach revolves around leaders rather than the followers and situations. This is a potential weakness as it is considered to be a leader-oriented theory. Thirdly, the trait approach paves the way for understanding what traits to look for if one aims to become a leader. Fourthly, the intuitive appeal of this approach is due to the fact that leaders' traits meet the premise that leaders are the unique or extraordinary individuals who lead societies' organisations. This is because the trait approach was built on the notion that leaders are considered to be different in terms of the traits.

On the other hand, the trait approach has some weaknesses. For example, Stogdill (1948) argued that it is difficult to examine the trait approach (i.e. leaders' characteristics) in the absence of considering the situational effects. This is consistent with Bass and Bass (2008) and Iszatt-White (2014), meaning that leaders may behave differently in different situations. For example, the reaction of a leader in a stressful situation is more likely to differ from their reaction in a calm condition (Bass and Bass, 2008). Furthermore, the trait approach suffers from serious limitation such as subjectivity of the determinations of leaders' traits. Besides, the traits approach does not factor in the leadership outcome (Northouse, 2016).

A comprehensive qualitative and quantitative review by Judge *et al.* (2002) examined 222 correlation in 73 samples. The researcher revealed that leadership was insignificantly correlated with four out of the Big Five traits such as conscientiousness, extraversion, openness to experience and emotional stability (i.e. leader emergence and leadership effectiveness). In addition, most reviews in this regard "*concluded that the trait approach has fallen out of favor among leadership researchers*" (Judge *et al.*, 2002 p. 765). This is consistent with Conger and Kanungo (1998 p. 38) which portrayed the trait approach as "*too simplistic*". Besides, Yukl and Van Fleet (1992) and Hughes *et al.* (2002) suggested that researchers who attempted to identify an influence on leaders' behaviours from the traits aspect found that the outcome would be dependent on the leadership situation. Bass and Avolio (1990 p. 59) also tended to believe that after the seminal work Stogdill (1948), the "*situation-specific analyses took over, in fact, dominating the field*".

Taken together, these studies indicate that the leadership trait is a less favourable approach in comparison with others (e.g., situational, etc.). The following discusses the behavioural or style approach of leaders that emerged in the first half of the twentieth century.

2.2.2.2 Behavioural Approach (style)

Unlike the trait approach, the **behavioural** or **style** approach focuses entirely on *how* leaders act and *what* they do. In other words, this approach included leaders' actions toward their followers (Northouse, 2016, 2017). The notion of leaders' behaviour or how they indeed act drew the attention of researchers in the late 1930s. The pioneering researchers at the University of Michigan and the Ohio State University in the 1940s and 1950s examined the performance of leaders. Based on the premise that leaders' personality traits appear to be fruitless, the Ohio State researchers attempted to examine how leaders 'act' when they are appointed as group or institution leaders. This was based on the followers' perceptions of certain leaders' behaviours. The leadership behaviour approach reached its peak in the early 1960s when a new study by Blake and Mouton (1964) discovered how the relationship and task behaviours in the institutional setting were used by the managers in a groundbreaking study (Bass and Bass, 2008; Northouse, 2016). That is, the behavioural approach was initiated by three major seminal research endeavours from the University of Michigan studies, the Ohio State studies, and the research of Blake and Mouton on the Managerial Grid.

In more detail, the Ohio State Studies, which was based on the findings of Stogdill (1948) and Hemphill and Coons (1957), attempted to develop a questionnaire (i.e. Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire; LBDQ) investigating core leadership behaviour (i.e. consideration, and initiation of structure). Concurrently, another group of researchers at the University of Michigan (Katz and Kahn, 1951; Cartwright and Zander, 1960; Likert, 1961, 1967) arrived at quite similar behaviours called employee orientation and production orientation (Bowers and Seashore, 1966). Based on the joint projects findings (i.e. Ohio and Michigan studies), a number of research studies emerged to find a universal set of effective leadership behaviours (i.e. task and relationship) in various settings. The results, however, have not formed a precise behavioural model (Northouse, 2016).

The third group of researchers (Blake and Mouton, 1964; Blake and Mouton, 1978; Blake and Mouton, 1985) introduced a model for training managers to portray their various behaviours via a grid with two axes: one is concerned with individuals and the other with results. These were grouped into five key styles which are team management (9,9), middle-of-the-road management (5,5), impoverished management (1,1), country-club management (1,9) and authority-compliance (9,1).

Similar to other theories, the behavioural approach has some identified advantages and disadvantages. For instance, in light of this empirical approach, leaders are able to glean a considerable amount of information on how they are perceived by their followers and better understand their leadership styles or behaviours. This may help leaders in their attempts to improve their leadership approach (Northouse, 2016). Furthermore, the behavioural approach substantiated empirically the concept of leadership behaviours, which provided a better understanding of leadership (See Katz and Kahn, 1951; Cartwright and Zander, 1960; Likert, 1961; Blake and Mouton, 1964; Likert, 1967; Blake and Mouton, 1978; Blake and Mouton, 1985). The behavioral approach also afforded an understanding of the leadership style which consisted of two primary behaviours of leaders – relationship and task (i.e. Ohio and Michigan studies). Both are considered to shape the fundamental process of leadership. On the negative side, the behavioural approach fails to substantiate the high-high concept of effective behaviour (See Misumi and Peterson, 1985; Blake and McCauley, 1991), such as high task and high relationship. Moreover, another disadvantage is the lack of a universal cluster of leadership behaviours which make it less effective in different contexts. Furthermore, similar to the trait approach (Van Seters and Field, 1990; Coleman *et al.*, 1995; Mayer and Salovey, 1995), the behavioral approach fails to factor in the outcome of the leadership behaviours (i.e. relationship and task). For instance, the association between the leaders' behaviours and outcomes (e.g., productivity, satisfaction etc.) remain unclear (Northouse, 2016).

In summary, the behavioural approach is unlike the trait approach as it focuses on the leaders' behaviour rather than who leaders are. Although there are obvious disadvantages, the behavioural approach introduces an important concept of leader behaviour to the literature (i.e. task and relationship).

2.2.2.3 Situational Approach (contingency)

The **situational leadership** approach implies how leaders can perform in different organisational settings and tasks in an effective manner (See Hersey and Blanchard, 1969; Vecchio, 1987; Northouse, 2017). In other words, it offers the most appropriate model as to *how* to behave in certain circumstances. Hersey and Blanchard (1969) and Reddin (1967) who originated this theory began serious attempts to examine the situational leadership approach in the late 1960s. The principal premise behind this approach is the fact that there is no one way of leading followers that is suitable for every situation. In other words, it is expected that leaders must learn to understand every situation in order to try and adopt the leadership style that is most appropriate for that situation (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969; Iszatt-White, 2014), and adapt accordingly. More specifically, the situational leadership of Hersey and Blanchard (1969) and Reddin (1967) consists

Chapter 2 Literature Review

of four types of leadership style: high directive–low supportive (S1), high directive–high supportive (S2), low directive–high supportive (S3), and low directive–low supportive (S4). This model (SLII) suggests how the four styles of leaders can perform in response to the subordinates working at different development levels; for example, great deal of competence and a high degree of commitment (D4) or low in competence and high in commitment (D1), etc. That said, the effectiveness of leaders occurs when the followers' tasks match the appropriate style of the leader.

Between the 1970s and the 1990s, enhanced and refined research of the situational approach has emerged (Vecchio, 1987). One outcome was the **contingency theory** (Fiedler, 1964; Fiedler, 1967; Fiedler and Chemers, 1974; Fiedler and Garcia, 1987), pioneered by Fiedler in the late 1960s (Gill, 2011). The key premise of this theory is the importance of matching the leaders' style with particular situations (i.e. variables); meaning that the effectiveness of leaders depends on (or is *contingent* upon) the extent to which their styles fit the encountered situation (Fiedler, 1978). In summary, the contingency theory is a move from leader-oriented theories (i.e. traits approach) to a leader-situation approach.

The **path-goal theory** is another situational approach which was coined by the work of Evans (1970); House (1971); House and Mitchell (1974); House and Mitchell (1975). The path-goal theory investigates how the satisfaction and performance of employees are enhanced by leaders who use the motivation factor (Evans, 1970; House, 1971; House and Mitchell, 1974; House and Mitchell, 1975). This is a situational approach as the effectiveness of leaders is contingent on the nature of the task as well as the subordinates' characteristics. In other words, subordinates will be motivated when they are decently rewarded and feel competent (Northouse, 2016). In this approach, leaders can choose the appropriate styles (i.e. supportive, achievement-oriented, directive or participative) in order to offer what followers are missing in certain circumstances (House, 1971, 1996).

The situational approach has its advantages and disadvantages. One advantage is that the contingency theory is considered to be a new attempt to explain the situation's influence on leadership. Second, an abundance of research has been conducted on contingency theory (Evans, 1970; House, 1971; House and Mitchell, 1974; House and Mitchell, 1975; Fiedler, 2015). Third, the empirical research provides an understanding on how to predict the leaders' effectiveness. Fourth, the path-goal theory offers a beneficial framework for understanding how the style of leaders (i.e. supportive, achievement-oriented, directive or participative) affects the followers' satisfaction and productivity. Fifth, the uniqueness of the path-goal theory lies in its integration between motivation (i.e. expectancy theory) and leadership as well as its practical model that

provides a new approach in the relationship between subordinates and leaders (Northouse, 2016).

On the other hand, perhaps the most obvious disadvantage of the situational approach (i.e. contingency) that it has been criticised for is due to its primarily focus on the LPC scale which suffers from some shortcomings, one of which is its face validity (Northouse, 2016). Second, more theoretical grounding of major concepts are needed (Tosi Jr and Slocum Jr, 1984). Third, in terms of organisational levels of leaders, the contingency theory does not explain clearly how the executives' or leaders' styles change according to their job level (Zaccaro and Klimoski, 2002); nor does it explain how leaders can adapt to certain situations (Nicholson, 2001). Fourth, the goal-path theory has a number of disadvantages. For instance, the theory does not underline how the behaviours of leaders affect directly the motivation of followers. Moreover, there is insufficient consistent literature to support the theory (Northouse, 2016). In summary, *"there is little conclusive research evidence to support situational and contingency model of leadership"* (Gill, 2011).

2.2.2.4 Relational Approach

The relationship between leaders and followers gained momentum in the 1990s. One pioneering work of the relational approach was the **Leader-Member Exchange (LMX)** in which Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995), for instance, focused on a "dyadic" approach between superiors and inferiors; that is, a relationship between leaders and their subordinates (Lunenburg, 2010). The LMX theory is based on the premise that the high-quality relations could lead to greater positive leaders' outcomes than the low-quality relations would according to the *Oxford Handbook of LMX* (Bauer and Erdogan, 2015) and Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995); Rockstuhl *et al.* (2012). More specifically, LMX theory *"defines the effectiveness of leaders as a function of the psychodynamic exchange and relationship that occurs between leaders and group members (followers or subordinates)"* (Gill, 2011 p. 76).

There are some advantages and disadvantages for the LMX approach. For instance, the uniqueness of the LMX is the fact that it is the only theory in leadership that offers a dyadic relationship which is the core of the leadership process (Northouse, 2016; Schedlitzki and Edwards, 2017). In other words, LMX is unlike other leadership theories which focused primarily on leaders (e.g., traits and great man theories), situation (e.g., situational, contingency and path-goal), or behaviour approaches. In addition, LMX has been linked to some positive organisational outcomes such as commitment, empowerment, performance and organisational citizenship behaviour and others (Graen and Uhl-Bien, 1995). On the negative side, LMX has some limitations, one of which is that it reinforces the concept of privileged individuals in the

workplace. This may endorse undesirable effects on the organisation due to the practice of in-groups and out-groups (McClane, 1991; Harter and Evanecky, 2002; Northouse, 2016). Furthermore, theoretical improvement of the LMX theory is needed according to the key finding of Schriesheim *et al.* (1999) who examined 147 related research papers. LMX also fails to underscore how the dyadic relationship between leaders and subordinates develops over time; it fails to explicate how performance is affected in the absence of inequality in the dyadic relationships, and it fails to clarify how single dyads affect relationships of leaders and subordinates (Schedlitzki and Edwards, 2017). This is somewhat consistent with Scandura (1999); Harter and Evanecky (2002) who suggested that the concept of out-group and in-groups attracts inequality issues in the workplace. Moreover, the premise of ‘individualised consideration’, a core dimension of transformational leadership, which means paying attention to subordinates’ individual needs and developing them to accomplish their full potential, is not yet clearly supported by LMX (Gill, 2011). All in all, LMX theory is suffering from several clear limitations, as highlighted above.

2.2.2.5 New Leadership Approach – (Transformational Leadership)

It is necessary to understand the above historical leadership approaches in order to realise how the new leadership approaches have evolved in the mid-1980s. As shown in Figure 2.2, the new approach of leadership started in the mid-1980s which produced the charismatic leadership theory (See Bryman, 1992) along with the seminal work of (Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 1990). From the previously mentioned approach, transformational leadership (TL) introduced the concept of leadership as a process that influences organisations and individuals (Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 1990; Avolio and Bass, 1994). The term “process” supports the previous argument in section 2.2.1 in which process was a key description of TL. In addition, transformational leadership is concerned with mutual interest between leaders and their followers. This often happens without the need for the use of power due to the leaders’ close engagement with their followers, via moral leadership (Bass and Bass, 2008). Further information of transformational leadership is discussed in detail in section 2.2.3.

2.2.2.6 Emerging Leadership Approaches

Authentic Leadership, **spiritual** leadership, and **servant** leadership are various approaches that have emerged in the twenty-first century (see Figure 2.2). **Authentic** leadership, which looks at the authenticity of leaders, has been gaining momentum since the past decade (Gardner *et al.*, 2011). This new theory looks at the genuine aspect in leaders (i.e. authenticity of leaders).

The authentic leadership has some strengths and limitations. One strength is that it offers guidelines as to how to be an authentic leader (Avolio and Gardner, 2005) such as the joint efforts required between leaders and followers to identify what is happening in certain situations (Terry, 1993). Furthermore, the theory revolves around a value somewhat similar to the servant leadership of Greenleaf (1970a); (Greenleaf, 1970b) and transformational leadership (Bass, 1985), which is discussed in the next sections. As authentic leadership underlines that leaders' values and their behaviours can be developed gradually, leaders may create a constructive climate in workplaces, developing positive psychological capacities such as resilience, hope, confidence and optimism. On the other side, arguably, one of the authentic leadership limitations is that it must be studied tentatively as it is still in its initial development stage (Northouse, 2016). Moreover, although the authentic leadership literature has been increased recently, its contribution still needs further investigation particularly when compared with the other profoundly established leadership theories according to the comprehensive meta-analysis of Banks *et al.* (2016) which examined one hundred samples and 25,452 participants. Besides, another limitation is that the "spinoff theories" (authentic, spiritual, and servant) have a common denominator which is the fact that they all have included outcomes in their definitions. This is because mentioning an outcome may be challenging from a scientific point of view as "*the nature of what is measured should be exogenous with respect to the outcomes it is supposed to cause*" (Antonakis and Day, 2017 p.68). Finally, the authentic leadership is still lacking constituency, further techniques, and new guidelines according to the *Sage Handbook of Leadership* of Bryman (2011).

Somewhat similar to authentic leadership, the approach of **spiritual** leadership is defined as a combination of behaviours, attitudes and values which are paramount in the intrinsic motivation of all involved. Through a sense of belonging and membership, this gives rise to an ethic of 'spiritual survival' (Fry, 2003, p. 694-695). This approach also advises that the attitudes, behaviours and values of leaders are considered to be helpful factors which generate a spiritual environment that supports followers to thrive (Fry, 2003; Reave, 2005). According to Dent *et al.* (2005), one of the first researchers to combine the term 'leadership' with 'spiritual' to discuss workplace leadership spirituality was Fairholm (1996, 2000). This model, introduced by Fairholm (1996, 2000), was validated by Fry (2003) and Fairholm (2003). These contributions have pushed forward the theory of spiritual leadership. On the bright side, the premise of spirituality along with religion has received support and interest among the community of researchers (Dent *et al.*, 2005). However, it is argued that the spiritual leadership has some weaknesses in that it is less conceptually confounded, is parsimonious, and to some extent includes the motivational aspect which is considered to be the base of other leadership theories (Fry, 2003).

Chapter 2 Literature Review

As its name implies, **Servant** Leadership was coined by Greenleaf (1970a) in his seminal work “The Servant as Leader” (Van Dierendonck, 2011). It is an approach that focuses on the growth of followers who are concurrently served and led (Gregory Stone *et al.*, 2004). This may emerge as a paradox, because how would an individual lead and serve at the same time? However, the new field of research in servant leadership has emerged. Similar to behaviour leadership discussed above in section 2.2.2.2, servant leadership is an approach that is concerned with leaders’ behaviours. Servant leadership according to (Greenleaf, 1970a p.15) *“begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead... The difference manifests itself in the care taken by the servant— first to make sure that other people’s highest priority needs are being served”*.

One of the strengths of servant leadership is the fact that it now has a validated measure developed by Liden *et al.* (2008), which is the servant leadership questionnaire (SLQ) as well as another measure developed by Sendjaya *et al.* (2008). Furthermore, it offers a provocative style in which it treats influence (i.e. power) in a negative way, unlike all other leadership theories which view influence as a positive element in leaders’ behaviours (Northouse, 2016). This makes servant leadership interesting. On the negative side, though, servant leadership may be ineffective, particularly when followers are not inclined to be supported or directed, according to Liden *et al.* (2008).

Finally, it is worth mentioning that most of the research that has been conducted is mainly prescriptive rather than descriptive. This means that the extant literature of servant leadership concentrates primarily on *how* leaders should be (i.e. prescriptive), rather than *what* servant leaders actually are in real-life settings (Van Dierendonck, 2011).

The above three emerging leadership approaches lack a number of issues in comparison with transformational leadership; the “new leadership” approach (see 2.2.2.5). Despite the fact that the authentic leadership approach offers wide guidelines on how to be an authentic leader, (e.g. Terry (1993), its ‘moral’ aspect is not completely described as the initial ideas and concepts introduced in the work of Terry (1993); George (2003) are not entirely substantiated (Northouse, 2016). Moreover, scholars argued whether the component of positive psychological capacities should be included in the authentic leadership approach or not. For instance, Cooper *et al.* (2005) maintain that such inclusion of the positive aspects of authentic leadership capacities would broaden the theory’s construct to a large extent which could increase the difficulty of measuring it. Although authentic leadership has a different approach and definition in comparison with transformational leadership, Avolio and Gardner (2005) arrived at a high level of overlap between authentic leadership and transformational leadership in their comparison of both approaches,

published in the *Leadership Quarterly*. In addition, the authentic leadership theory suffers from the absence of a clear explanation of the influence process as well as the lack of a clear overall definition (Cooper et al., 2005; Guthey and Jackson, 2005; Ladkin and Taylor, 2010).

In conclusion, although the emerging leadership theories or approaches discussed above suffer in one way or another from a number of drawbacks, including transformational leadership, transformational leadership still remains the most researched theory in leadership literature (Antonakis and House, 2014; MacKie, 2014). Moreover, transformational leadership, developed by Bass and Avolio (1993), is the most consistent and comprehensive (MacKie, 2014) and most approved leadership model (Kirkbride, 2006) in the field today.

As indicated earlier, an understanding of the evolution of leadership approaches is required in order to understand when and how the phenomenon of transformational leadership emerged. The following section describes, in greater detail, the Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM) part of which is transformational leadership.

Before proceeding to examine the FRLM, it is necessary to highlight a new “*extension of the transformational-transactional leadership*” theory (Antonakis and House, 2014 p. 746).

2.2.2.7 Instrumental Leadership – “Extension of transformational-transactional leadership theory”

In their recent research, Antonakis and House (2014 p. 746) introduced what they called an ‘*extension of transformational-transactional leadership*’ theory. The function of Instrumental Leadership (IL) goes a step beyond the motivation and potential leader bonuses and behaviours that together make up the full range leadership model of transformational, transactional, and laissez faire leaders. Researchers validated the IL model’s construct and arrived at four factors of which became a typical representation of ‘good leadership’ (Antonakis and House, 2014 P. 746). The new model described an interesting outcomes variance which goes beyond the Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM). The model was also able to predict “*top-level leader emergence controlling for the full-range factors, initiating structure, and consideration*” (Antonakis and House, 2014 P. 746).

As the IL construct is new and at its beginning phase (Antonakis and House, 2014), there is limited research that confirms its results. Therefore, there is a lack of research to support the literature. Therefore, as described in the previous section, the following part of the thesis focuses solely on the FRLM, in order to gain insight into its concept.

2.2.3 Description of the Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM)

Attention has to be drawn to the concept of transformational leadership initially having been developed on the back of revolution and revolt in society, according to (Downton, 1973). Political scientist, Burns (1978) then compared this concept to a more transactional behaviour (Schedlitzki and Edwards, 2017). The researcher Northouse (2013) stated that Burns (1978) was trying to connect the roles of leadership and followership. Doing this, he states that Burns regards leaders as people who draw deeply from the followers' motives in fuller attainment of both leaders' and followers' goals. Burns makes a distinction between two types of leadership: transactional and transformational. Transactional leadership concerns a myriad of leadership models with their focus on the exchanges between the leaders and followers. An example of this type of leadership would be politicians that make certain promises to the electorate such as lower taxes. An example within the business context would be managers promising promotions to staff who exceed their prescribed goals (Northouse, 2013).

After Burns (1978) laid the leadership foundation, Bass (1985) further explored this work and contributed greatly to it. Schedlitzki and Edwards (2017) maintain that Bass (1985) develops the basic understanding of leadership into a great appreciation of transformational leadership theory and further state that it is a process in which people are transformed and feel differently about themselves. This, in turn, further motivates the staff and enhances their performance significantly. In other words, this indicates that TL is an important leadership concept which motivates people and, therefore, can influence their performance.

The chief advocates of transformational leadership are Bernard Bass and Bruce Avolio (Avolio and Bass, 2004; Bass and Bass, 2008). Although their conceptualisation of transformational leadership has been an evolutionary process, Iszatt-White (2014) states that Bass and Avolio's main version of the concept is commonly referred to as "the four I's". These are so called as they start with the letter I, as in:

1. Idealised Influence
2. Inspirational Motivation
3. Intellectual Stimulation
4. Individualised Consideration

2.2.3.1 Idealized Influence/attributed charisma:

The behaviour or the behavioural characteristics that leaders portray set them aside as role models in the eyes of their followers (Schedlitzki and Edwards, 2017). Ideally, leaders are regarded with admiration, respect and trust. The followers would prefer to copy their leaders as they identify with them. This goes as far as the followers perceiving leaders as having remarkable

abilities, perseverance, and drive. Leaders are leaders as they take risks, and are stable. They are dependable in taking the right decisions in the highest possible ethical and moral ways.

2.2.3.2 Inspirational Motivation:

Leaders motivate and inspire followers by communicating an appealing vision for the followers, lending and adding meaning to the efforts of the followers, and modelling suitable behavioural patterns for them (Michel *et al.*, 2011).

The above two *charismatic* dimensions (II and IM), which are theoretically distinguished and strongly correlated (Bass and Avolio, 1990), are commonly demonstrated in the available western literature (Bass, 1999; Walumbwa *et al.*, 2004; McCleskey, 2014). Although II and IM dimensions have been studied extensively in the west, the empirical studies in other parts of the world (i.e. Middle East) are still questionable. This is particularly important to be considered as it is an expectation that different outcomes or results may be obtained in the Middle East because Gulf States exhibit according to Hofstede (1985) a significant power distance at 90 in comparison with that of the US and the UK at 35 and 40, respectively.

2.2.3.3 Intellectual Stimulation:

The followers' efforts are stimulated by leaders and they are further encouraged to be innovative through asking questions about assumptions to lead them into new ways in approaching problems (Schedlitzki and Edwards, 2017). Making mistakes are no reason for public criticism. Where there are issues, new ways and creative solutions are solicited from the followers themselves. Here, the followers are directly involved in problem-solving. All are accommodated here and the range of opinions are welcome even if they are in contrast with those of the leaders (Schedlitzki and Edwards, 2017).

2.2.3.4 Individualised Consideration:

Schedlitzki and Edwards (2017) suggest that leaders as coaches and mentors take into consideration the specific needs of individual followers for them to develop and grow. This takes heed of the steady progress of followers to achieve their full potential. When new opportunities for learning are created, then individual consideration is to blossom in a supportive environment. This gives leaders a chance to recognise, differentiate and accommodate individual needs and wants. In this climate, a mutual channel of communication is fostered and 'management by walking around' is practised. Personalised interaction is promoted where the leader listens effectively to staff and delegates responsibility to develop followers. Attentive monitoring is, then, in place for delegated tasks without the followers themselves feeling they are being

Chapter 2 Literature Review

watched. This is for the leaders to see if the followers need extra support in hitting their targets and having their progress assessed (Schedlitzki and Edwards, 2017).

In summary, the above two dimensions of IC and IS are also extensively studied in western societies; however, there is a dearth of empirical research in the East (e.g. Middle East).

In addition to the above four major factors of FRLM, there are three more factors that are the opposite of transformational leadership. However, it is important to address these in order to understand why they have been excluded from this research.

These three factors are: Transactional leadership (two dimensions) and laissez-faire leadership (one dimension). See Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM)

Transformational Leadership	Idealised Influence (II), Inspirational Motivation (IM), Intellectual Stimulation (IS) and Individualised Consideration (IC)
Transactional Leadership	Passive - Management by Exception – (MBE-P), Active - Management by Exception – Active (MBE-A) and Contingent Reward (CR)
Laissez-faire¹	Non-Leadership (NL)

¹ Laissez-faire is a French word which means a ‘policy or attitude of letting things take their own course, without interfering’ according to the Oxford Dictionary.

Source: (Avolio, 2010 p. 345)

As the name indicates, the full range leadership model endeavours to capture the variety of leadership styles starting from non-leadership to the more transformational styles, according to Kirkbride (2006). Table 2.2 below offers a better explanation of FRLM which comprises a review of its concepts, factors and meanings as its three constructs (Luo *et al.*, 2013).

Table 2.2 Full Range Leadership Theory’s Constructs and Descriptions

Leadership	Sub-Dimensions	Meanings
Transformational Leadership	Idealised Influence (Attribute)	To have an impact on the follower as role model in value and moral.
	Idealised Influence (Behaviour)	To inspire followers to reach to their aims by exerting more attempt.

	Inspirational Motivation	To establish interaction in relation to mission and vision, to identify the important and right matters and discover the ways to fulfil the goals.
	Intellectual Stimulation	To urge the act of questioning old problems, challenge others, think of new ways of looking at a problem, and create new things by their own.
	Individualized Consideration	To take care of followers' individual needs and develop them to accomplish their full potential.
Transactional Leadership	Contingent Reward Leadership	To determine a series of objectives, obligations, and tasks for associates, to remunerate them when some obligations are met accordingly.
	Management-by-Exception Active and Management-by-Exception Passive	To have a supervising control over the standards of work and to meet them either in a passive or active passive way.
Laissez-faire	Passive Avoidant	To avoid making decisions in order to avoid taking responsibility and authority.

Source: (Luo *et al.*, 2013)

The difference between the transactional leadership and transformational leadership lies in the fact that the former does not take into account the individual needs of the staff or followers which in turn impedes their individual personal and professional development (Iszatt-White, 2014).

Defined essentially as a non-leader, the laissez-faire leader has a 'hands-off' leadership role in which he or she minimises engagement in terms of offering direction or support as much as possible (Kirkbride, 2006). This type of manager is indifferent to staff needs and wants, which gives rise to the absence of clear boundaries around the followers' roles and responsibilities. In such a situation, followers end up adopting the leader's role for themselves, or try and obtain direction and guidance from elsewhere in the organisation. The main indicators of the laissez-faire style are when the person (leader) abdicates taking sides in a dispute or in making decisions, displays lack of interest in what is happening, and avoids taking responsibilities (Kirkbride, 2006).

The term 'laissez-faire', which is originally French and means 'letting things ride', is an approach to leadership that seems unlikely to help with the achievement of organisational goals or the development and growth of people in the organisation (Iszatt-White, 2014).

Chapter 2 Literature Review

Management-by-Exception (MBE) is a process whereby attention is focused on exceptional, and not on the normal. Therefore, MBE leaders seem to be rather laissez-faire in normal conditions but hands-on when a situation of any kind arises, be it a mistake or a deviation from the standard (Kirkbride, 2006). In the case of passive MBE, intervention by leaders takes place when it is obvious that an exceptional circumstance has arisen (Kirkbride, 2006). However, Kirkbride (2006) maintains that active MBE is a process whereby the leader is directly involved and pays careful attention to any potential issue or deviation from the norm. In this process, close monitoring and control systems are in place in order to highlight any such issue at their early stages and stem them. Kirkbride holds that the followers in active MBE learn to avoid issues by 'burying' them. To this end, MBE-A seems to have a negative relationship to innovation and creativity. At its best, this style of management seems to generate only mediocre levels of performance in followers.

In summary, unsurprisingly, transformational leadership is far more effective than transactional leadership when it comes to generating greater levels of performance, extra efforts, more commitment, and greater satisfaction (Avolio, 2010). This is supported by Gasper (1992) who revealed in a meta-analysis that TL was the most preferred leadership style for the followers. The research also found an association between TL and the followers' satisfaction, high willingness to offer extra effort, and perceived leadership effectiveness. Another meta-analysis by Lowe *et al.* (1996) revealed a high correlation between TL factors and work performance. The findings of Lowe *et al.* (1996) seem to be consistent with the comprehensive meta-analysis of Coleman *et al.* (1995) which found that the average relationship between TL factors and performance ranged from .45 to .60, whereas, for transactional leadership, MBE active, MBE passive and laissez-faire (LF), the scores were .44, .22, .13, and .28, respectively. The relationship average varies between -1.0 to +1.0.

It is apparent from the above that the effect of TL (in general) on performance is rather high in comparison with the rest of the FRLD dimensions, addressed above. However, the question that arises here is: Which particular factors of TL would have a stronger effect on performance particularly in the non-western context, where a lack of such leadership studies exists? Understanding the cultural effect of the four individual dimensions of TL, highlighted in Table 2.1 and detailed in section 2.2.1 above, would be an interesting area to explore.

After an account of the nature and development of Bass and Avolio's FRLM model (Avolio and Bass, 2004) was offered above, the next section will examine the model in light of evidence in order to support its applicability and validity.

2.2.4 Validity of Full Range Leadership Model

A plethora of research studies that examine leadership and FRLM exist (Bass and Avolio, 1993; Antonakis *et al.*, 2003; Rowold and Heinitz, 2007; Bogler *et al.*, 2013; Luo *et al.*, 2013; MacKie, 2014). The following discusses the validity of the FRLM in a number of selected research studies according to the chronology of their publication.

Although there are numerous studies conceptualising and examining the relationship between these two models, multifactor leadership theory or the FRLM developed by Bass and Avolio (1993) is the most consistently researched and comprehensive model in examining this relationship, according to (MacKie, 2014). Moreover, as the world's perhaps most researched (Antonakis and House, 2014) and most approved leadership model, it is vital to bring the FRLM model to the centre of attention and critically engage with its findings and claims to global applicability (Kirkbride, 2006).

Another research paper by Antonakis *et al.* (2003) examined the validity of the measurement model and factor structure of Avolio and Bass (2004) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). It was assumed that the context in which leadership was performed and evaluated has an impact on leadership evaluation as well as on the psychometric attributes of leadership instrument. As far as methodology was concerned, a homogenous business sample of 1089 female and 2279 male raters were tasked to rate the leader of their gender. As a result, the nine-factor leadership model, which was proposed by Antonakis *et al.* (2003) was strongly supported.

An empirical attempt was made by Rowold and Heinitz (2007) to clarify the similarities and differences between transactional, transformational, and charismatic leadership in order to test the validity of the FRLM model. In doing so, the convergent, divergent, and criterion validity of two models were investigated by the researchers. These instruments were the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-5X) and the Conger and Kanungo (1998) Scales (CKS). The outcome of their investigations suggested that a high convergent validity was associated with transformational and charismatic leadership styles. Furthermore, it became clear that these styles of leadership were divergent from transactional leadership. As far as criterion validity was concerned, a range of performance – both subjective (e.g., satisfaction) and objective (e.g., profit) – were assessed by Rowold and Heinitz (2007). Their results showed that both transformational and charismatic leadership styles contribute unique variance to subjective performance significantly beyond other leadership styles. The results also revealed that transformational leadership and revenue generation had a direct relationship in terms of enhanced profits. This impact was significantly higher than that under transactional leadership. The findings of the research suggest that TL has a powerful impact on performance, in comparison with transactional

Chapter 2 Literature Review

leadership. However, the empirical research by Rowold and Heinitz (2007) was conducted in a western country which raises the question of what the finding would be if the 'TL four' components were conducted in non-western societies, which was the missing point of the research.

Besides these western-cited studies above, an examination of the structure and the effect of the Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM) within the context of the hotel industry in China was presented by Luo *et al.* (2013). Empirical tests and data collected from hotels in China show a lack of support in China's hotel industry for the original western-oriented Full Range Leadership Model represented by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; Form 5X) in Avolio and Bass (2004). This has been witnessed by the poor goodness-of-fit indices and the low reliabilities of the factors. It is shown that MLQ (Form 5X) can be reduced to a two-factor model in China's hotel industry with the support of enhanced goodness-of-fit indices based on exploratory factor analysis. As a result of the tests conducted where empirical data were obtained, it was revealed that cultural and other contextual issues need to be incorporated and taken into account when a theory is applied in a specific business context. Luo *et al.* (2013) further argued that the broader national cultures can be influential in leadership behaviours, with organisational culture also impacting leader's behaviour. To give an example, a 'boss' culture prevails in a privately-owned property with an autocratic leadership style. In contrast, state-owned hotels may exhibit a level of bureaucratic leadership whereas foreign or joint-venture hotels may present a degree of participative leadership.

In short, although Luo *et al.* (2013) research can be viewed as another validation of the FRLM, it arrived at another interesting finding related to culture. They found that leadership behaviours were clearly influenced by national cultures or by a "boss" culture in which autocratic leadership is salient. The researchers also revealed that government-owned hotels in China may demonstrate some degree of bureaucratic leadership, whereas the foreign hotel in the same context shows some level of participative leadership, meaning that cultural differences exist when a FRLM was conducted in a non-western context, such as China. This finding of cultural differences reported in Luo *et al.* (2013) is in line with (Hofstede, 1985), which increases the need for another attempt to test the transformational leadership or the full range leadership model (FRLM) in another part of the world such as the Middle East or the "Arab World" where different potential outcomes may exist.

A study to validate the MLQ in a virtual asynchronous communication setting was conducted by Bogler *et al.* (2013). This study aimed to assess university students' perceptions of their virtual instructors as leaders or not. Referring to the FRLM, the effects of transformational and passive

leadership styles of university instructors on student satisfaction and learning outcomes were examined. Confirmed by data analyses was the validity of the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) in the virtual asynchronous communication setting with three second-order factor models comprising transformational, active management-by-exception, and passive leadership types. It appeared that there was a direct correlation between student satisfaction and leadership style: the more the level of student satisfaction increased, the more the students associated transformational leadership style with their instructor and the less they associated it with a passive leadership style. This association of leadership style is irrelevant to actual student participation in virtual discussions and to their academic attainment. The important message this finding implies is the subordinates' satisfaction is connected more to their perceptions of their leader than to the actual tangible benefits their leader may offer. Furthermore, this study reveals the applicability of FLRM to asynchronous, instructional, web-based environments,, which are becoming more popular in institutions of higher education, according to Bogler *et al.* (2013).

An investigation into whether heterogeneity in alliance capability development could be attributed to certain intra-firm leadership characteristics was carried out by Schweitzer (2014). It is suggested that the development of innovative (dynamic) capabilities of a strategic alliance are more strongly influenced by transformational leadership behaviors than by the development of operational (substantive) capabilities. As far as transactional leadership behaviours are concerned, it is suggested that they support operational capabilities. Data collected by Schweitzer (2014) confirm the existence of a positive relationship between transformational leadership and the development of innovation and operational capabilities, whereas transactional leadership behaviours are associated with operational capability development as well as the development of innovation capabilities. Although the research by Schweitzer (2014) was conducted in a student context, it is considered to be a fairly recent proof of the transformational leadership model's validity.

A situational Judgment Test of the Full Range of Leadership Model (SJT-FRLM) was developed and validated through three studies by Peus *et al.* (2013). Measure development and pilot testing were done in study 1, where item stems were created empirically, and a theory-driven approach was developed for item responses. A leader sample was used for pilot testing. Study 2 served to investigate construct- and criterion-related validity of the instrument. Furthermore, an empirical scoring key was developed in which every item response was weighted based on the relationship it had with leadership effectiveness in every situation. Inter-rater agreement and incremental validity were demonstrated by researchers in study 3 (Peus *et al.*, 2013). Generating item stems and item responses for the first test version of the SJT-FRLM were the main rationale for conducting study 1. On that account, researchers developed 'a first test version with 15 item

Chapter 2 Literature Review

stems and 8 item responses each' amounting to a total of 120 items. The second rationale for this study was having a pilot test. Results obtained from the pilot test showed that effectiveness ratings based on the SJT-FRLM were consistent with the theoretical effectiveness propositions, which had already been expected. The development of an empirical study was what led the researchers to adopt an approach so as to develop a measure that takes heed of leadership's contextual element (Peus *et al.*, 2013).

In study two, Peus *et al.* (2013) analysed the test's content and construct-related validity and also developed an empirical scoring key. The test's content validity was approved by the results. However, confirmatory factor analyses revealed only partly satisfactory results. This points to the early concerns that transformational leadership dimensions and contingent reward leadership are empirically separated. SJT-FRLM dimensions anticipated significant variance over Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) dimensions in trust and loyalty shown by followers towards their leader. This counts as strong empirical proof for the test's incremental validity. As a result, it can be concluded that the SJT-FRLM exhibits a high explanatory value for relevant outcomes of leadership. The study by Peus *et al.* (2013) presented another proof of the validity of FRLM.

In summary, the above studies (Bass and Avolio, 1993; Antonakis *et al.*, 2003; Rowold and Heinritz, 2007; Bogler *et al.*, 2013; Luo *et al.*, 2013; MacKie, 2014) clearly show the validity of the FRLM. The measurement validity of the model means the degree to which a measurement instrument performs for the intended purpose (Saunders *et al.*, 2016).

After establishing the validity of the FRLM, it is important to discuss the 'broader picture' of the literature, but in a systematic way. For instance, the following section discusses the western body of literature followed by the non-western body in order to provide a full picture of the available literature on the FRLM. This is offered in the following section (see Figure 2.3 below):

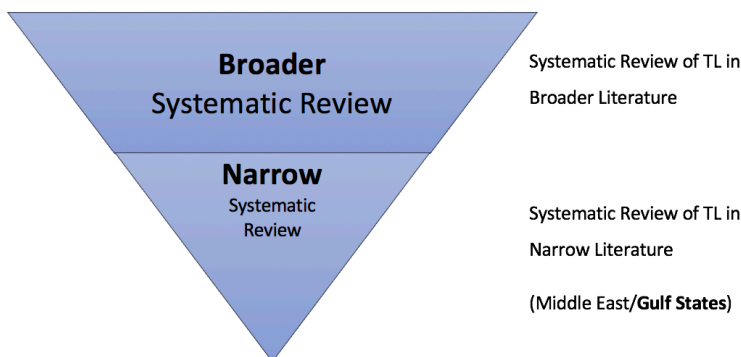


Figure 2.3 The Structure of Systematic Reviews

2.3 Broader Systematic Review of Meta-Analyses

This section examines systematic reviews and the meta-analyses conducted on transformational leadership (TL) in the past 10 years from seven major databases. The researcher adopted a clear research strategy using inclusion and exclusion criteria (i.e. systematic approach).

2.3.1 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

In order to select the meta-analyses and systematic reviews published in the past 10 years on TL, the inclusion criteria of literature will be limited to the following:

1. The identified meta-analysis or systematic review on Transformational Leadership (TL) needs to have been conducted between 2007 and 2017. This is in order to examine the most recent and relevant literature over the past decade.
2. The studies published in peer-reviewed journals only and written in English.
3. The search engines that helped the researcher conduct the academic literature review of the transformational leadership are as follows: Business Source Premier (BSP), Econlit (Ec), Emerald (Em), JSTOR (JS)¹, PsycINFO (PI), Scopus (Sc), and Web of Science Core Collection (WSCC).
4. The keywords used as search terms to identify relevant studies are: “Transformational Leadership”, “meta-analysis”, and/or “systematic review”. These keywords must be in the ‘abstract’ section of the research before being selected, as shown in Table 2.3 below, titled ‘Results of Meta Analyses and Systematic Reviews Published in the Past 10 Years’.

¹ JSTOR (JS) was excluded as only 10% of its studies have abstracts.

Table 2.3 Summary of Broader Literature - Results of Meta-analyses and Reviews Published

	Sc	ND	BSP	ND	Ec	ND	Em	ND	JS	ND	PI	ND	WSCC	ND	Tot. ND
Date of Search	Feb.		Feb.		Feb.		Feb.		Feb.		Feb.		Feb.		
	2017		2017		2017		2017		2017		2017		2017		
Published	2007-		2007-		2007-		2007-		2007-		2007-		2007-		
Dates	2017		2017		2017		2017		2017		2017		2017		
"TL" & "MA" and/or "SR"	44	11	19	4	0	0	30	0	Excl.	0	3	3	53	10	
Total	44	11	19	4	0	0	30	0	Excl.	0	3	3	53	10	28
Total titles and abstract reviewed				149											
Total studies selected				28											

Table's abbreviations:

- Business Source Premier (BSP), Econlit (Ec), Emerald (Em), JSTOR (JS), PsycINFO (PI), Scopus (Sc), and Web of Science Core Collection (WSCC).
- ND: means "Not Duplicated" results.
- TL= Transformational Leadership. "MA" = Meta-Analysis". "SR" = Systematic Review.

2.3.2 Brief Summary of the Table

The numeric findings of the systematic criteria are illustrated in the table above. The numbers of relevant papers that met the previously-set systematic review inclusion criteria are shown. From a total of 149 research studies, it appears that only 28 papers meet the systematic review criteria outlined above. Moreover, the total numbers of the non-duplicated research publications (ND) for each database are as follows: Scopus (Sc): 11 studies, Business Source Premier (BSP): 4 studies, Econlit (Ec): 0 studies, Emerald (Em): 0 studies, JSTOR (was excluded), PsycINFO (PI): 3 studies, and Web of Science Core Collection (WSCC): 10 studies.

2.3.3 Transformational Leadership Results and Dimensions

The results of these studies revealed that Transformational Leadership (TL) was associated with a number of dimensions/variables such as performance, job satisfaction, culture, students, teams, productivity, personality, retention, innovation and romance. Table 2.4 below depicts such dimensions which are then further explored.

Table 2.4 TL and Dimensions Found in Broader Meta-Analysis and Systematic Review

Rank	Dimensions	Freq.	% of Total ²	Citation
1	Performance	8	29%	(Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Rockstuhl <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Chiaburu <i>et al.</i> , 2014; Anseel <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Deinert <i>et al.</i> , 2015; Ng and Feldman, 2015; Sethibe and Steyn, 2015).
2	Job Satisfaction	5	18%	(Chin, 2007; Cummings <i>et al.</i> , 2010; Piccolo <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Rockstuhl <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Aydin <i>et al.</i> , 2013).
3	Culture	4	14%	(Leong and Fischer, 2011; Rockstuhl <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Takahashi <i>et al.</i> , 2012; Jackson <i>et al.</i> , 2013).
4	Student	3	11%	(Schyns <i>et al.</i> , 2007; Robinson <i>et al.</i> , 2008; Karadağ <i>et al.</i> , 2015).
5	Teams	3	11%	(Murphy and Ensher, 2008; Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2011; Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2014).
6	Productivity	1	.04%	(Cummings <i>et al.</i> , 2010)
7	Personality	1	.04%	(Deinert <i>et al.</i> , 2015)
8	Retention	1	.04%	(Cowden <i>et al.</i> , 2011)
9	Innovation	1	.04%	(Sethibe and Steyn, 2015)
10	Romance	1	.04%	(Schyns <i>et al.</i> , 2007)

² Percentage of the total number of studies (i.e. % of 28 studies).

2.3.3.1 Performance Dimension

The available literature reveals that transformational leadership (TL) is an important element in influencing the performance of followers. However, none of the eight identified studies (see Table 2.1) in the systematic review of this thesis had examined such a key relationship. The findings of the longitudinal field experiment by (Dvir *et al.*, 2002p. 735) recorded a positive impact on direct followers' development and on indirect followers' performance on the part of leaders in the experimental group. Moreover, Lowe *et al.* (1996), in their comprehensive study, provided additional evidence with respect to the positive relationship that is established between TL and performance. TL does not only affect the performance of followers (Dvir *et al.*, 2002) but it also cultivates a sense of a common fate as well as high-quality relationships between the transformational leaders and their followers (Deluga, 1992). Therefore, the eight studies in the light of the above importance relationship of TL and followers' performance are discussed next, starting with the most relevant studies and followed by the least relevant ones.

As portrayed in Table 2.4, out of the eight meta-analyses of the performance dimension, only five were identified as the most relevant to the systematic review of this thesis. First is Rockstuhl *et al.* (2012) who found in their study of leader–member exchange (LMX) that the relationships of LMX with task performance, organisational commitment and transformational leadership are not influenced by national culture. This “western-based” study somewhat contradicts the findings of Luo *et al.* (2013) conducted in China (non-western context), which argued that the TL can be influenced by the broader national cultures with organisational culture also impacting leader's behaviour. This rather contradictory result may be due to the cultural differences between the east and west offered by Hofstede (1985). Alternatively, results may be due to failure to examine the individual dimensions of transformational leadership, which is similar to the limitations found in a number of studies (Al-Mailam, 2004; Jabnoun and AL Rasasi, 2005; Suliman, 2009; Chaker and Jabnoun, 2010; Abualrub and Alghamdi, 2012; Behery *et al.*, 2012; Nelson and Shraim, 2014; Jabeen *et al.*, 2015).

The second research study of Wang *et al.* (2011) revealed that performance, at both team and overall organisational levels, is positively related to the transformational style of leadership. In addition, a clear augmentation effect was found in transformational leadership over transactional leadership (i.e. contingent reward) for performance at both individual level and team level to be predicted (Wang *et al.*, 2011). Although the aforementioned research gives an answer as to the unclear magnitude of the relationship between followers' performance and their transactional leaders, nevertheless, it suffers from several major drawbacks. For instance, most of the studies found in the meta-analysis were western-based literature. Moreover, given the potential effect of

culture on TL (Leong and Fischer, 2011), the study by Wang *et al.* (2011) focuses on the effect of the TL's four dimensions on followers in non-western cultures. This is important as Leong and Fischer (2011) pointed to the higher probability of different cultural effects manifestation in TL than in the sub-dimensions of TL. The aforesaid limitation was also found in the third meta-analysis below.

The third research study by Deinert *et al.* (2015) reported links between transformational leadership (TL) and performance dimension and that TL has certain sub-dimensions which are directly related to the Big Five personality traits, and indirectly to leader performance. Different combinations of these traits, however, are related to transformational leadership behaviours in a different way. An example of this can be 'inspirational motivation' being related to all five personality traits whereas 'individualised consideration' is affected only by the two traits of openness to experience and agreeableness. The researchers (Leong and Fischer, 2011; Deinert *et al.*, 2015) highlighted the importance of examining the sub-dimensions of TL in order to gain an insight into the nature of such relationships in different contexts.

The fourth piece of research by Chiaburu *et al.* (2014) studied the relationship between three forms of leaders' influence (e.g., transformational leadership) on followers' performance (proactive behaviours) by using a combined sample of about 9,000 employees. The research concluded that a positive relationship existed between leader influences (e.g., transformational leadership) and employee proactive outcomes. When the new meta-analytic data were combined with current meta-analytic correlations, researchers were able to further analyse to what degree different leadership predictors could be related to task performance as well as to proactive and pro-social contextual performance. There seemed to be only a minimal difference between the transformational leadership predictors and contingent reward in all outcomes. The link between TL as a predictor of followers' proactive contextual performance in Chiaburu *et al.* (2014) is in line with Liu *et al.* (2010). Although Chiaburu *et al.* (2014) revealed that the proactivity of subordinates can be "ignited" in various approaches by leaders. It is not quite clear which dimension of TL has more impact on subordinates' performance or their proactive contextual performance and task performance as well as the successful completion of job requirements by followers (See Gerstner and Day, 1997; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Wang *et al.*, 2011).

Fifth, a recent meta-analysis of Sethibe and Steyn (2015) examined the relationship between the style of leadership, organisations' performance, and innovation, and found that transformational leaders do affect organisational performance. Although this is supported by Noruzy *et al.* (2013) and Sethibe and Steyn (2015), they did not examine the impact of TL on followers nor the cultural effect on TL dimensions. Another limitation is that there seems to be a lack of consistent

Chapter 2 Literature Review

understanding of what organisational performance is. Moreover, another fundamental limitation in the study was that the identified meta-analysis body of literature used by Sethibe and Steyn (2015) tended to revolve around a subjective measure (i.e. self-report) and did not consider objective means such as peer report or market-related measures.

In sum, the section above has reviewed the five most relevant studies of the eight that discussed the dimensions of performance with TL (i.e. Wang *et al.*, 2011; Rockstuhl *et al.*, 2012; Chiaburu *et al.*, 2014; Deinert *et al.*, 2015; Sethibe and Steyn, 2015). The remaining studies (Brocato *et al.*, 2011; Anseel *et al.*, 2015; Ng and Feldman, 2015) matched the four criteria of the systematic review of this thesis (addressed in section 2.3.1). Nevertheless, transformational leadership was not the main focus of the research and was not discussed in sufficient depth. Therefore, such studies were excluded, and are discussed below in brief.

First, despite the fact that the study conducted by Ng and Feldman (2015) is significantly related to this thesis' systematic review as its main focus is on EL, a number of observations were made that are worth mentioning. There were some noticeable differences between the west and the east in terms of the effect of size. For instance, the relationship between TL and EL in Asian countries' samples was .65 (k7) whereas in the North American samples it was .89 (k 3). This may hide some cultural differences as to the TL dimensions or local culture. Moreover, most of the research identified in meta-analyses were based on self-report data. More studies using objective measures of non-report (e.g., peer report) are therefore needed.

Second, the study conducted by Anseel *et al.* (2015) revealed that there was a positive association between Feedback-seeking Behaviour (FSB) and performance goal orientation and learning, frequent positive feedback, high self-esteem, external feedback propensity, a transformational leadership style, and a high-quality relationship. There were limited and irrelevant findings in relation to transformational leadership and therefore, the study was excluded.

Third, the research by Brocato *et al.* (2011) was excluded for the same reasons offered for the work by Anseel *et al.* (2015).

2.3.3.2 Job Satisfaction

The second most popular dimension in Table 2.4 above is "job satisfaction" as it was used in five studies, which represents 18% of the total studies obtained (28). One of these studies conducted by Aydin *et al.* (2013) indicated that TL style affected job satisfaction of teachers positively as well as their organisational commitment. The research also found that teachers' job satisfaction and organisational commitment increased as the leadership style of administrators changes from transactional to transformational. Moreover, another study by Piccolo *et al.* (2012) has shown

that consideration and transformational leadership are the most important predictors of employee job satisfaction and ratings of leadership effectiveness, with each having incremental validity when controlling for the effects of the other. This indicates that a considerate type of leadership (e.g., Individualised Consideration) may be effective with respect to job satisfaction (JS). However, this research did not specify which dimension of transformational leadership could have a higher impact on JS and whether this could vary in different contexts.

Twenty-four studies in Cummings *et al.* (2010) show higher rates of nurse job satisfaction when the leadership style had as its focus the people and relationships (transformational, resonant, supportive, and consideration). This is in comparison with when the leadership style focus was on tasks (dissonant, instrumental and management by exception). The last study relevant to job satisfaction is the one conducted by Chin (2007). This study found that transformational school leadership positively affects teachers' job satisfaction, their perception of school efficacy, and the educational attainment of students, as far as mean effect sizes are concerned.

Furthermore, a meta-analysis by Rockstuhl *et al.* (2012) on leader–member exchange (LMX) and national culture role in moderating the relationships between leader–member exchange (LMX) and its correlates showed interesting findings. The study, which was conducted in 23 countries, reached two conclusions. The first was the relationships between LMX with turnover intentions, job satisfaction, justice perceptions, leader trust and organisational citizenship behaviour which are of greater strength in horizontal-individualistic (e.g., western) contexts than in vertical-collectivistic (e.g., Asian) contexts. Second, Rockstuhl *et al.* (2012) concluded that the relationships of transformational leadership with LMX, organisational commitment and task performance are not affected by national culture. This conclusion drew attention to the fact that although there universal sensitivity exists amongst members in the way they are treated by their leaders, in non-western societies such as Asian contexts members' responses might also be affected by collective interests and role-based obligations. This interesting finding raises the question of how the relation between TL, job satisfaction and organisational commitment would present in other non-western societies such as the Middle East or the Gulf States where high levels of homogeneity exist.

2.3.3.3 Culture Dimension

In the literature, a number of studies have consistently found that leadership in general and cultural aspects in particular affect transformational leadership. For instance, the finding of the GLOBE research project by House *et al.* (2004) revealed that cultural factors in fact do influence leadership. However, there are fewer visionary attitudes – which are a sign of leadership in Europe and the United States – in the Middle Eastern and Asian contexts.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

As far as the systematic review of this thesis is concerned, although only four meta-analysis studies (14%) were found in this review, these studies, with the exception of Rockstuhl *et al.* (2012), revealed an interesting variability of TL in different contexts. For instance, in the first study by Leong and Fischer (2011), a meta-analysis sample of about 20,000 participants that studied the cultural values effect on TL in studies published between 1985 and 2006 using MLQ in 18 countries, revealed a substantial variability among countries that reported TL (e.g. Den Hartog *et al.*, 1999; Epitropaki and Martin, 2005). This is in line with Kuchinke (1999).

Moreover, other interesting findings in the literature were found in leaders' behaviours in the less power-distant and egalitarian societies which reported a greater TL than their counterparts in the high power distance countries (Leong and Fischer, 2011). These differences in TL results were obvious in several countries, such as the clear variation between western countries such as Canada and the United States, and India and Taiwan as non-western countries. This is another indication of the possible variation which may exist when MLQ is conducted in non-western contexts.

Moreover, the research findings suggest that the obvious cultural differences explained about 50% of the cultural value models of Schwartz (1994), Hofstede (1980, 2001) (see Table 2.5) which show significant variations (Leong and Fischer, 2011). Table 2.5 which depict a number of findings in relations to the mixed-effects regression analysis of predicting MLQ scores in Schwartz, Hofstede and Wealth illustrates a number of significant findings. Table 2.5 shows that the private sector consistently showed lower MLQ means in comparison with the mixed samples of the research, whereas the public sector reported noticeably lower means than the mixed samples did. Moreover, high TL means were consistently reported in the health service industry.

Table 2.5 Mixed-Effects Regression Analysis Predicting MLQ Scores in Schwartz, Hofstede and Wealth

	Schwartz	Hofstede	Wealth
Control variables			
Health Service	.33**	.34**	.24*
Security Services	.28	.35*	.45**
Part-time Students	.11	.12	.05
Private Sector	-.24*	-.25*	-.43**
Public Sector	-.29*	-.45**	-.52**
Self-Report	.09	.05	.12
Nation level			
Harmony vs. Mastery	-.65**		
Egalitarianism vs. Hierarchy	.45*		
Autonomy vs. Embeddedness	.23		
Masculinity		-.01	
Power Distance		-.42**	
Individualism-Collectivism		.16	
Wealth			.20

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Source: Leong and Fischer (2011 p. 171)

The key weakness in Leong and Fischer (2011) research is that it studied the effect of TL as an overall construct, not as its four dimensions. This is the same limitation reported in a number of studies (i.e. Suliman, 2009; Al-Mailam, 2004; Jabnoun and AL Rasasi, 2005; Chaker and Jabnoun, 2010; Abualrub and Alghamdi, 2012; Behery *et al.*, 2012; Nelson and Shraim, 2014; Jabeen *et al.*, 2015) which were conducted in the Gulf States context (Middle East). Leong and Fischer (2011, p. 171) suggested the high probability of different cultural effects' manifestation on the sub-dimensions of TL. For instance, inspirational, motivational and idealised influence (charisma) dimensions may be essential factors in mastery-oriented contexts or cultures due to the fact that these dimensions emphasise leaders as role models and a source of inspiration which are sought after by masters in order to overcome life obstacles through unusual means. However, the individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation may be found as key dimensions in egalitarian countries. Therefore, further studies on the TL four dimensions' effect on culture are recommended (Leong and Fischer, 2011).

The second comprehensive meta-analysis in the systematic review of this thesis also arrived at interesting findings in terms of transformational leadership (TL) in multinational settings. Takahashi *et al.* (2012), who examine the five most popular theories of leadership one of which is TL, argue that leadership is influenced by the cultural aspects as a great number of studies in the

Chapter 2 Literature Review

area of leadership have been conducted by western researchers. This has given rise to a mostly western and individualistic outlook on leadership. The researcher also suggested that, due to the vitality of communal relationships in Asian countries, leaders from Asia may exhibit significantly different behaviours as well as leadership styles than those leaders from the West exhibit (Takahashi *et al.*, 2012). Transformational leadership (TL) in Takahashi *et al.* (2012), for instance, was found not only different than from western studies' findings but also from those in the Asian nations as it does not appear to be a 'plausible' theory in the Japanese context (Takahashi *et al.*, 2012). These contradicting findings between the west and east support Gelfand *et al.* (2007), who argued that a theory established in a certain cultural context may not always be applicable in other cultures, and this is also in line with the GLOBE research project (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman and Gupta, 2004). GLOBE reported that cultural differences do influence leadership, and transformational leadership (Walumbwa and Lawler, 2003). Therefore, more research is needed to unveil further cultural differences in examining transformational leadership in non-western settings.

2.3.3.3.1.1 Culture and Commitment

The third comprehensive meta-analysis of Jackson *et al.* (2013) examined the correlations between transformational leadership and three types of employee commitment and the extent to which this relationship is moderated by societal culture. Jackson *et al.* (2013, p. 97) concluded that a substantial correlation exists between transformational leadership and affective commitment (AC) whereas the correlation between TL and NC and CC were likely to be culturally moderated. Although this finding is not entirely supported by Behery *et al.* (2012), who did not arrive at a meaningful relationship between organisational commitment and transformational leadership, it was found to be supported by Aydin *et al.* (2013). Contradictory findings exist between studies conducted in non-western countries or in the Gulf States context (e.g., Behery *et al.*, 2012; Aydin *et al.*, 2013) and western studies (e.g., Jackson *et al.*, 2013). Moreover, the literature drawn on in the systematic review of this thesis has not identified which dimension or dimensions of TL can affect commitment in general. Besides, whether a cultural moderation can affect TL negatively or positively remains to be answered.

Moreover, as a strong affective commitment (AC) is presumably facilitated by collective identity (Meyer *et al.*, 2006), and whilst TL in general is affected by commitment (Avolio, Bass *et al.*, 2004), no item in the available literature of this thesis' systematic review managed to specify to what extent the four dimensions of TL could be affected by AC moderation in high collectivist societies (e.g., Middle East or Gulf States). This is highly supported in the systematic review of the Middle East/Gulf States Literature in section 2.4.

In summary, the above three comprehensive meta-analyses (i.e. Leong and Fischer, 2011; Takahashi *et al.*, 2012; Jackson *et al.*, 2013) clearly indicate that there is a gap in the literature between transformational leadership (TL) and the cultural factors in terms of which elements of TL could be affected by culture. Therefore, a study of which aspects of TL are likely to be influenced by which elements of cultural values is worth conducting (Leong and Fischer) in non-western societies.

2.3.3.4 Team Dimension

The 'team' dimension was mentioned in Murphy and Ensher (2008); Wang *et al.* (2011); Wang *et al.* (2014) which represents 11% of the overall studies. The first research of Wang *et al.* (2014) was on shared leadership and team effectiveness. This study found that both shared new-genre leadership (e.g., charismatic and transformational leadership) or cumulative, overall shared leadership have a higher relationship than shared traditional forms of leadership (e.g., initiating structure and consideration). The second research of Murphy and Ensher (2008) revealed that the leadership role of television directors in teams can be explained by 'charismatic leadership'. A range of charismatic behaviours was exhibited by directors such as vision and sensitivity to the needs of members. This behaviour was contingent upon the power relations between the leader and the member. A vital prerequisite for shared leadership was leadership self-schema. Although Murphy and Ensher (2008) and Wang *et al.* (2014) exhibited a number of charismatic behaviours, nevertheless, it is not clear which particular sub-dimension(s) of the leadership dimension (e.g., transformational) has or have more impact in certain societies. This is important, as charismatic leadership (House and Shamir, 1993) and transformational leadership (Bass, 1985) suggested that subordinates' inspiration is ignited by effective leaders. This is supported by Murphy and Ensher (2008) and Wang *et al.* (2014). Moreover, it is not yet clear whether charisma has any effect in individualistic versus collectivistic societies with respect to the reported findings based on Hofstede's (2016) categorisation. For example, the significant level of collectivism in the Gulf States (Middle East), which scored 25 on individualism versus 89 scored in the UK, could lead to interesting findings that are worth considering.

2.3.3.5 Retention (Turnover) and Other Dimensions

Although Retention (turnover), Productivity and Romance of Leadership may seem important dimensions to explore when it comes to transformational leadership (TL), they were only mentioned once in the yielded research, which represents .04% for each individual research, out of the total 28.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

As for the retention dimension, Cowden *et al.* (2011) reported an interesting finding that a positive relationship seems to be in place between supportive work environments, transformational leadership, and the intention of nurses to continue in their current jobs. The research was supported by Bycio *et al.* (1995), Leveck and Jones (1996) and Boyle *et al.* (1999) who also arrived at a significant positive relationship between TL and intent to stay. Moreover, relational leadership (e.g., transformational) led to a greater intention to stay whereas task-oriented leadership (e.g., management by exception) resulted in lesser intention to stay. In contrast, Larrabee *et al.* (2003) reported a non-significant relation between TL and intent to stay (turnover). Abualrub and Alghamdi (2012) found no significant correlation between the TL style of nurse management and the enhancement of the nurse intention to stay at work, which was a study conducted in the Middle East (Saudi Arabia). These rather contradictory results may be due to cultural differences or may be due to failure in using the four dimensions of TL which, if examined, could enlighten the understanding of such a relationship between TL and intention to stay. Moreover, the question that arises is: Does intention to stay have a mediating effect on the relationship between TL dimensions and the performance of the followers?

As for the productivity dimension, Cummings *et al.* (2010) found that different leadership styles have a differing and consequential impact on nursing staff and their environment. In this context, the study found, it was not possible to achieve optimal outcome if leadership was solely focused on task completion. To improve nurse retention (turnover), job satisfaction, recruitment, and healthy work environments, particularly in this current and worsening nursing shortage, effort by both the organisation and the staff was required to promote transformational and relational leadership types.

On the other hand, three studies were excluded; Schyns *et al.* (2007), Robinsons *et al.* (2008) and Karadağ *et al.* (2015), for instance, revealed that the perception of transformational leadership and the romance of leadership are positively related and that a significant moderating effect of the region of origin was recorded (page 1). Given the above, however, this research had to be excluded as it included students in their sample who were less experienced with leadership. Other studies were excluded (Schyns *et al.*, 2007; Robinsons *et al.*, 2008; Karadag *et al.*, 2015) which were even more deeply focused on students.

Table 2.6 Summary of the Broader Literature/ Studies Found

Research	Sample	Title	Journal
(Anseel <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	69 studies	How Are We Doing After 30 Years? A Meta-Analytic Review of the Antecedents and Outcomes of Feedback-Seeking Behavior	Journal of Management
(Deinert <i>et al.</i> ,	58 studies	Transformational leadership sub-	The Leadership

Research	Sample	Title	Journal
2015)		dimensions and their link to leaders' personality and performance	Quarterly
(Joseph <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	25 studies	Is a happy leader a good leader? A meta-analytic investigation of leader trait affect and leadership	The Leadership Quarterly
(Karadağ <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	57 articles/ dissertations	The effect of educational leadership on students' achievement: A meta-analysis study	Asia Pacific Educ. Rev.
(Ng and Feldman, 2015)	101 samples published	Ethical Leadership: Meta-Analytic Evidence of Criterion-Related and Incremental Validity	American Psychological Association
(Sethibe and Steyn, 2015)	Seven articles	The Relationship Between Leadership Styles, Innovation and Organisational Performance: A Systematic Review	South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences (SAJEMS NS)
(Chiaburu <i>et al.</i> , 2014)	Combined sample of more than 9,000 employees	Relative Importance of Leader Influences for Subordinates' Proactive Behaviors, Prosocial Behaviors, and Task Performance	Journal of Personnel Psychology
(Do and Minbashian, 2014)	53 studies	A meta-analytic examination of the effects of the agentic and affiliative aspects of extraversion on leadership outcomes	The Leadership Quarterly
(Ghosh, 2014)	39 studies	Antecedents of mentoring support: a meta-analysis of individual, relational, and structural or organizational factors.	Journal of Vocational Behavior
(Herrmann and Felfe, 2014)	186 cases	Effects of Leadership Style, Creativity Technique and Personal Initiative on Employee Creativity	British Journal of Management
(Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2014)	42 independent samples	A Meta-Analysis of Shared Leadership and Team Effectiveness	American Psychological Association
(Aydin <i>et al.</i> , 2013)	12 research in Turkey were analysed using the method of meta-analysis	The Effect of School Principals' Leadership Styles on Teachers' Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction	Educational sciences: Theory and practice
(Clarke, 2013)	103 studies	Safety leadership: A meta analytic review of transformational and transactional leadership styles as antecedents of safety behaviours	Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology
(Jackson <i>et al.</i> , 2013)	13 studies	Leadership, Commitment, and Culture: A Meta-Analysis	Journal of Leadership & Organizational

Research	Sample	Title	Journal
(Piccolo <i>et al.</i> , 2012)	11 studies	The relative impact of complementary leader behaviors: Which matter most?	Studies The Leadership Quarterly
(Rockstuhl <i>et al.</i> , 2012)	282 independent samples	Leader–Member Exchange (LMX) and Culture: A Meta-Analysis of Correlates of LMX Across 23 Countries	American Psychological Association
(Takahashi <i>et al.</i> , 2012)	22 studies	Qualitative and quantitative studies of leadership in multinational settings: Meta-analytic and cross-cultural reviews	Journal of World Business
(Brocato <i>et al.</i> , 2011)	quasi-meta-analysis	Leadership conceptual ambiguities: A Post-Positivistic Critique	Journal of Leadership Studies
(Cowden <i>et al.</i> , 2011)	23 research	Leadership practices and staff nurses intent to stay: a systematic review	Journal of nursing management
(Leong and Fischer, 2011)	40 articles & 54 independent samples	Is Transformational Leadership Universal? A Meta-Analytical Investigation of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Means Across Cultures	Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies
(Wang <i>et al.</i> , 2011)	117 independent samples	Transformational Leadership and Performance Across Criteria and Levels: A Meta-Analytic Review of 25 Years of Research	Group & Organization Management
(Cummings <i>et al.</i> , 2010)	53 studies	Leadership styles and outcome patterns for the nursing workforce & work environment: A systematic review	International Journal of Nursing Studies
(Harms and Credé, 2010)	62 independent samples	Emotional Intelligence and Transformational and Transactional Leadership: A Meta-Analysis	Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies
(Robinson <i>et al.</i> , 2008)	27 studies	The Impact of Leadership on Student Outcomes: An Analysis of the Differential Effects of Leadership Types	Educational Administration Quarterly
(Murphy and Ensher, 2008)	21 directors	A qualitative analysis of charismatic leadership (CL) in creative teams: The case of television directors	The Leadership Quarterly
(Chin, 2007)	28 independent studies	Meta-analysis of Transformational School Leadership Effects on School Outcomes in Taiwan and the USA	Asia Pacific Education Review

Research	Sample	Title	Journal
(Schyns <i>et al.</i> , 2007)	18 studies	Is Charisma Hyper-Romanticism? Empirical Evidence from New Data and a Meta-Analysis	Applied Psychology

2.3.3.6 Conclusion of Broader Systematic Review

In summary, the above systematic review of the meta-analyses studies (mentioned in Table 2.6), makes several noteworthy contributions to our understanding of the boarder literature relating to transformational leadership and followers' performance, culture, teams and retention. It has to be mentioned that a number of irrelevant studies were excluded. For instance, there was robust evidence showing how transformational leadership is considered to be the most effective style among leadership theories for enhancing the performance of individuals and institutions. This includes the followers' behaviours and attitudes (Brocato *et al.*, 2011; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Rockstuhl *et al.*, 2012; Takahashi *et al.*, 2012; Chiaburu *et al.*, 2014; Anseel *et al.*, 2015; Deinert *et al.*, 2015; Ng and Feldman, 2015; Sethibe and Steyn, 2015). Moreover, Takahashi *et al.* (2012 p. 532) maintain that *"TL still seems to be the most effective leadership style ever identifies for the purpose of enhancing the followers, groups and organisations' performance"*. TL has also been effective in improving follower attitudes and behaviours. The above literature, however, failed to explain which factors or sub-dimensions of transformational leadership (TL) were linked to TL's effectiveness. This is a key matter in understanding the real effect of TL on any examined variables. Eastern versus western cultural differences have not been comprehensively reviewed in the studies despite possible variation of leadership impact on different cultures (e.g., Hofstede 1985) and the impact of TL's four dimensions in different contexts (Leong and Fischer, 2011). This is particularly important as the magnitude between the performance of subordinates and transformational leadership (TL) is still unclear despite the broadly published literature of TL (Wang *et al.*, 2011). This supports the call for more research in this discipline to better understand this relationship.

Although the GLOBE Study of 62 Societies (House *et al.*, 2004) provides *"the strongest body of findings to date"* as to leadership and culture (Northouse, 2016 p. 378), the above studies discussed in the broader literature fail to fully examine the impact of power of distance between the east and the west (e.g., 90 in the Gulf States, and 35 in the UK and 40 in the USA). Moreover, these studies offer no explanation for the distinction between individualism and collectivism in various societies. This is important as a significant level of collectivism (a score of 25) was found in all Gulf States (including Kuwait) which is considered to be a highly collectivistic society, against a score of 89 recorded for the UK, which is amongst the highest individualist societies after the USA

and Australia at 91 and 90, respectively, based on Hofstede's (2017) categorisation. It is important to study the above cultural variations in the light of their impact on the sub-dimensions of transformational leadership.

Moreover, a number of important variables such as commitment (apart from in Jackson *et al.*, 2013) were not discussed, and turnover which is strongly linked to the performance of followers is discussed in the next section.

In addition, most of the broader literature was based on self-report methods (see; Cowden *et al.*, 2011; Leong and Fischer, 2011; Piccolo *et al.*, 2012; Aydin *et al.*, 2013; Wang *et al.*, 2014; Deinert *et al.*, 2015; Karadag *et al.*, 2015; Ng and Feldman, 2015). This was quite a limitation found mainly in the western-based studies aforementioned and in eastern studies (Middle Eastern) such as those of Al-Mailam (2004), Jabnoun and AL Rasasi (2005), Suliman (2009), Chaker and Jabnoun (2010), Abualrub and Alghamdi (2012), Behery *et al.* (2012), Nelson and Shraim (2014), and Jabeen *et al.* (2015) which are examined thoroughly in the systematic review of the Gulf States in the following section. Although self-report and peer report have certain limitations when used separately, however, having a mix of both would give a wider picture and better understanding of the variables under examination.

It is apparent from the above that a number of differences arise when transformational leadership is examined in the west and in the east, which is worth exploring (see Walumbwa and Lawler, 2003; Leong and Fischer, 2011; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Rockstuhl *et al.*, 2012; Takahashi *et al.*, 2012; Luo *et al.*, 2013;). This was recognised in a highly homogeneous area of the Middle East (Gulf States) in comparison with in the western studies. Therefore, the following section discusses this matter in detail.

2.4 Narrow Systematic Review of Gulf States

This section focuses on the Systematic Review of the literature related to transformational leadership (TL) research conducted in member countries of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) or 'Gulf States'. According to the definition proposed by Saunders *et al.* (2016), the systematic review is a process that reviews the available literature by drawing on a disciplined strategy which is planned in advance in order to identify relevant literature, evaluate its weight, analyse and combine the findings, and then present evidence for arriving at conclusions about what is already known. Besides, Denyer and Tranfield (2009) state that the same observation holds true about what is not known. Having its origin in the medical sciences, Systematic Review has been frequently used for the purposes of evaluating certain treatments in medicine. Saunders *et al.*

(2016) add that the significance of the systematic review in a variety of other subject areas has been established and recognised over the past two decades.

2.4.1 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Since a considerable amount of research is found to be carried out on systematic review of literature, determining the criteria against which the systematic review is assessed gains importance. Such criteria are titled inclusion and exclusion criteria. Certain criteria are provided below in order to determine the suitability of the studies which are included in the systematic review section:

1. The available empirical studies on transformational leadership (TL) in the GCC.
2. The studies published in peer-reviewed journals (written in English).
3. The search engines that helped conduct the academic literature review of the transformational leadership are as follows: Business Source Premier (BSP), Econlit (Ec), Emerald (Em), JSTOR (JS)³, PsycINFO (PI), Scopus (Sc), and Web of Science Core Collection (WSCC).
4. The keywords used as search terms to find the relevant studies are: Transformational Leadership and a country name. The GCC countries are: Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, the UAE, Bahrain, Qatar, and Oman. These keywords must be in the 'abstract' section of the research before being selected, as shown in the table below, regarding GCC countries database results of the systematic review.

Table 2.7 Narrow Systematic Review

	Sc	ND BSP	ND Ec	ND Em	ND JS	ND PI	ND WSCC	ND Total	ND							
Date of Search	20.4.16	20.4.16	20.4.16	20.4.16	20.4.16	20.4.16	20.4.16									
Published Dates	1988-2015	1988-2015	1988-2015	1988-2015	1988-2015	1988-2015	1988-2015									
"Leadership"	75,389	34,659	4,232	46,841	91,817	22,287	37,598									
"TL"	765	1,652	108	3924	2,244	1,683	2,588									
"TL" and "Kuwait"	4	4	7	1	0	1	0	5	0	3	1	6				
"TL" and "Saudi Arabia"	4	3	1	0	0	0	0	3	1	8	0	2	0	5		
"TL" and "UAE"	5	3	7	0	0	0	0	7	1	3	0	4	1	3	1	6
"TL" and "Qatar"	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	1
"TL" and "Oman"	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	5	0	1	0	1	0	1
"TL" and "Bahrain"	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total		11	2	0	2	0	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	19

Note: TL: Transformational Leadership, Business Source Premier (BSP), Econlit (Ec), Emerald (Em), JSTOR (JS)⁴, PsycINFO (PI), Scopus (Sc), and Web of Science Core Collection (WSCC).

³ JSTOR (JS) was excluded as only 10% of its studies have abstract

⁴ JSTOR (JS) was excluded as only 10% of its studies have abstract

2.4.2 Summary of the Table

The above table shows the numeric findings of the systematic criteria stated below. It demonstrates the number of relevant papers identified and which meet the systematic review criteria stated above. This number stands at 19. Moreover, the total numbers of the non-duplicated research (ND) for each database are as follows: Scopus (Sc): 11 studies, Business Source Premier (BSP) 2 studies, Econlit (Ec) 0 studies, Emerald (Em) 2 studies, JSTOR (JS) 0 studies (excluded), PsycINFO (PI) 2 studies, and Web of Science Core Collection (WSCC) 2 studies.

It is noticeable that there is a column on the left side of the above table illustrating the “date of search” in each database, the “published dates” of the articles under search, and the “key words” searched, respectively. Unsurprisingly, the key word “leadership” received a great number of findings or hits in each database. As an example of this, it can be mentioned that there were 75,389 findings under the keyword ‘leadership’ in Scopus (Sc), 34,659 findings in Business Source Premier (BSP), 4,232 findings in Econlit (Ee), 46,841 findings in Emerald (Em), 91,817 findings in JSTOR (JS), 22,287 findings in PsycINFO (PI) and 37,598 findings in Science Core Collection (WSCC). In comparison, when the search topic was narrowed down to “transformational leadership”, the number of responding hits on each database reduced tremendously. Correspondingly, “transformational leadership” appeared 765 times in Sc, 1,652 times in BSP, 108 times in Ec, 3924 times in Em, 2,244 times in JS, 1,683 times in PI, and 2,588 times in WSCC.

Furthermore, the research box showed that the figures fell suddenly to single digits in every database and some replication with other databases took place when the keywords ‘Country name + transformation leadership’ were input. As a result, next to each database, another column was inserted with the title of Non-Duplicated (ND). Then, a total count of NDs was taken; this generated 19 non-duplicated research papers across six databases, which pass the criteria required for systematic review.

It was also noticed that Kuwait and the UAE had the highest number of the non-duplicated research papers out of a total of six. This was followed by Saudi Arabia at a total of five studies. As for Oman and Qatar, there was only one study in each with no research having been found in Bahrain.

Table 2.8 GCC Systematic Review Research Table

Research	Number
Quantitative	17
Qualitative	2
Total	19

2.4.3 Critical Analyses of Narrow Systematic Review

The following section aims to critically analyse the systematic review findings which are highlighted in the table above. The systematic review resulted in finding only 19 studies in the GCC countries that meet the inclusion criteria. Seventeen of these studies were quantitative whereas only two were qualitative. The aim of this section is to analyse their methodology, patterns and findings. Following are the outlines:

1. Narrow Literature Methodology
 - 1.1. Design
 - 1.1.1. Population
 - 1.1.2. Purpose
 - 1.1.3. Questionnaire
 - 1.2. Narrow Literature Sample
 - 1.2.1. Sample Size
 - 1.2.2. Response Rate
 - 1.3. Narrow Literature Measurement
 - 1.3.1. Validity
 - 1.3.2. Reliability
 - 1.3.3. Questionnaire
2. Narrow Literature Patterns
 - 2.1. Objectivity of Measures
 - 2.2. Quantitative Studies Results and Patterns
 - 2.2.1. Non-significant Results
 - 2.2.2. Significant Results
 - 2.3. Qualitative Studies Results and Patterns
 - 2.3.1. First Qualitative Study
 - 2.3.2. Second Qualitative Study
 - 2.4. Measures Used

2.4.3.1 Narrow Systematic Review Methodology

Methodology is the theory underpinning how research should be conducted which includes both the theoretical and philosophical assumptions on which the research is based as well as the implications that these may have for the adopted method or methods (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). The methodology section here examines the design, sample and measurements of the GCC studies found. The following section addresses the same.

2.4.3.1.1 Design

2.4.3.1.1.1 Population

The first topic to be discussed under this heading is the *population*. Perhaps this is the most frequent pitfall and the most misunderstood topic of all research studies. It seems that many researchers do not realise the importance of the population and the need to explicitly define its

Chapter 2 Literature Review

attributes and characteristics. Evidently, the choice and definition of the population of interest to a study lies with the researcher. However, this choice is not arbitrary; nor is it without terms and conditions that limit these choices. First, the choice must be of some value to the research community or at least to some sector of the society. It must also include certain common attributes and not be limited to a specific entity. Unfortunately, most of the researchers of the 17 quantitative studies defined their populations in terms of specific entities in the society rather than in terms of their characteristics or attributes. Three of the studies defined their population as a small firm such as an audit firm (Abdullah and Tudor, 2003; Al-Mailam, 2004; and Suliman, 2009) while two defined it as one large entity such as a university (Butler, 2009 and Nelson and Shraim, 2014). Five defined it as a sector such as the health sector that includes several hospitals (Jabnoun and Al Rasasi, 2005; Al-Beraidi and Rickards, 2006; Analoui et al., 2010; Chaker and Jabnoun, 2010; and Abualrub and Alghamdi, 2012), and finally seven studies considered their population as firms from different sectors.

As a specific example, consider the research paper that investigates a small auditing firm in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA), consisting of three departments and six staff members in each department. As far as the research community or any specific sector of society is concerned, how can they benefit from this investigation? It is clear that the corresponding evidence to answer this question is poor in the aforementioned study. The situation would have been different had the choice been one of the five giant international auditing firms since, in this case, not only the size of the firm implies more valuable attributes and characteristics, but its international nature adds more value to the research community both in academic and business communities. On the other hand, if the population is too broad, and includes firms from different sectors, then it is unlikely to find too many shared or common attributes between all the sectors. This would give rise to another poor choice in addition to the many challenges it poses on selecting sizable samples to faithfully represent the population.

2.4.3.1.1.2 Purpose

Another topic in this section is *purpose*. Comparison between subgroups in a population is an important objective of any study since only through comparison one can discover systematic variation in the population structure. There are two main categories for comparison – either comparing means of groups together to detect differences between groups, or to compare the mean of a group to certain standard score or norm. Differences between groups or between a group mean and a corresponding norm can be objectively judged through tests of significance and this is a chief objective of any scientific inquiry. Only three studies compared groups of means together (Abdullah and Tudor, 2003; Al-Mailam, 2004; Al-Beraidi and Rickards, 2006) and one

study compared means with norms (Bealer and Bhanugopan, 2014). The remaining studies performed some type of exploratory analysis on the responses (Jabnoun and Al Rasasi, 2005; Butler, 2009; Suliman, 2009; Analoui *et al.*, 2010; Chaker and Jabnoun, 2010; Abualrub and Alghamdi, 2012; Behery *et al.*, 2012; Elgamal, 2012; Sheikh *et al.*, 2013; Suliman and Al Obaidli, 2013; Li and Zahran, 2014; Nelson and Shraim, 2014; and Jabeen *et al.*, 2015).

2.4.3.1.1.3 Questionnaire

A third topic in this section is the development of a *questionnaire* which can be both mundane and challenging. A questionnaire needs to be administered carefully in order for the instrument to be valid and reliable. The majority of the studies preferred structured questionnaires ignoring the potential shortcomings associated with structured questionnaires resulting in low validity and/or reliability. Structured questionnaires run the risk of weak internal consistency of the instrument unless extreme care is taken to build the items of the questionnaire around well-defined and theoretically based concepts to preserve the unity and integrity of the items on the questionnaire. Adapted questionnaires are preferred over structured questionnaires, whenever possible, since these instruments are often developed and tested by experts, and evidence for their validity and reliability is often documented. Only three used fully adapted questionnaires (Al-Mailam, 2004; Sheikh *et al.*, 2013 and Bealer and Bhanugopan, 2014;), four used partially adapted questionnaires (Jabnoun and Al Rasasi 2005; Suliman and Al Obaidli, 2013; Li and Zahran, 2014; and Nelson and Shraim, 2014) and 10 used structured questionnaires (Abdullah and Tudor, 2003; Al-Beraidi and Rickards, 2006; Butler, 2009; Suliman, 2009; Analoui *et al.*, 2010; Chaker and Jabnoun, 2010; Abualrub and Alghamdi, 2012; Behery *et al.*, 2012; Elgamal, 2012 and Jabeen *et al.*, 2015).

2.4.3.1.2 Narrow Systematic Review Sample

Sample is an important element for a research study and systematic review. This section discusses the sample size and response rate of the GCC studies.

Statistical inference is concerned with making conclusions about the population based on the data regarding a sample of that population (Curwin and Slater, 2007; Saunders *et al.*, 2016). The fundamental theorem in statistical inference states that if the sample is drawn from the population according to a known probability distribution then it is possible to calculate probability of error when generalising from sample to population. Convenience sampling and systematic sampling do not enjoy this property and therefore the probability of error committed when these sampling schemes are used is unknown. Unfortunately, probability sampling is difficult to apply in practice since it requires a sampling frame that includes all the members of the population.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

Convenience sampling and systematic sampling are, on the other hand, easier to apply and in many cases the only avenue available to the researcher.

Probability sampling offers the best guarantee that the sample represents the population. However, when this is not possible or when it is hard to achieve and the researcher must use non-probability sampling schemes, precautionary steps must be taken to ensure that the sample represents the population as much as possible without bias to any subgroup of the population. Without such steps, the conclusions from the study will always be subject to criticism, doubt and may not be safely accepted.

In relation to the examined GCC studies, only three studies indicated the use of probability sampling (Al-Mailam, 2004; Suliman, 2009; and Nelson and Shraim, 2014) although none explained what random mechanism they used to implement this scheme. Random mechanism includes procedures such as consulting random number tables, or implementing computer-generated random numbers algorithms or similar mechanisms. As for the studies that used non-probability sampling schemes, none indicated taking any precautionary steps to guard against bias resulting from poor representation of the population.

2.4.3.1.2.1 Sample Size

There are a number of guidelines which can be used to arrive at the appropriate sample size. One states that the sample size (n) in relation to population size (N) is the following: For small populations ($N < 100$), n between 15%-25% of N ; for small to midsize populations ($100 < N < 500$), n between 10%-15%; for midsize populations ($500 < N < 1000$), n between 5%-10%; and for large populations ($1000 < N < 10,000$), n between 1%-5%. It is worth mentioning that these are only general guidelines and the decision must also take into account the other factors affecting sample size. When the above guidelines were applied to the research studies at hand, and also by taking into account the other factors, it was found that 10 of the studies had appropriate sample sizes (Abdullah and Tudor, 2003; Al-Mailam, 2004; Jabnoun and AL Rasasi, 2005; Al-Beraidi and Rickards, 2006; Butler, 2009; Suliman, 2009; Analoui *et al.*, 2010; Chaker and Jabnoun, 2010; Abualrub and Alghamdi, 2012; and Elgamal, 2012). The remaining seven studies used sample sizes below required levels (Behery *et al.*, 2012; Sheikh *et al.*, 2013; Suliman and Al Obaidli, 2013; Bealer and Bhanugopan, 2014; Li and Zahran, 2014; Nelson and Shraim, 2014; Jabeen *et al.*, 2015).

2.4.3.1.2.2 Response Rate

Sometimes a researcher initially plans a large enough sample size for their study; however, a low response rate renders the actual sample size small and below the required level. This is when low

response rates not only negatively affect the confidence levels of the results, but also allow for biases to creep into the statistical analysis. Moreover, a response rate larger than 60% is often considered satisfactory. It was found that only five studies with response rates larger than 60% (Al-Mailam, 2004; Analoui *et al.*, 2010; Chaker and Jabnoun, 2010; Behery *et al.*, 2012; and Jabeen *et al.*, 2015), one study with very low response rate of about 40% or less (Al-Beraidi & Rickards, 2006), and eight studies with response rates between 40% and 60% (Jabnoun and AL Rasasi, 2005; Butler, 2009; Suliman, 2009; Abualrub and Alghamdi, 2012; Sheikh *et al.*, 2013; Suliman and Al Obaidli, 2013; Bealer and Bhanugopan, 2014; and Nelson and Shraim, 2014). Three studies did not report response rates (Abdullah and Tudor, 2003; Elgamal, 2012; Li and Zahran, 2014).

2.4.3.1.3 Narrow Literature Measurements

Measurement is concerned with what and which data are needed for a research study. It aims at developing a valid and reliable measuring instrument for the study, and it involves a series of decision points such as: What type of information is needed for the study? In what form? How should the information be solicited from the respondents? Using which measurement scales? The instrument most often used in social sciences is the questionnaire with the ultimate goal to achieve high validity and high reliability.

2.4.3.1.3.1 Validity

Measurement validity means the degree to which a measurement instrument performs for the intended purpose it is considered (Bryman and Bell, 2015; Saunders *et al.*, 2016). This requires that the study variables are clearly defined and that their underlying constructs are well developed based on a theoretical model before any attempt has been made to derive questions which tap into the constructs.

There are several methods for testing validity of an instrument including trials on pilot samples (Saunders *et al.*, 2016) and expert judgements. However, one cannot test validity from only a single administration of the instrument unless the responses are correlated with responses of some other instrument that has known high validity.

In this GCC studies systematic review, it was found that none of the researched papers reported more than one administration of the instruments; nor did they report correlating the instruments with some other external instruments. Thus, clearly one cannot assess the validity of the instruments for these researched papers although some studies (Al-Beraidi and Rickards, 2006; Butler, 2009; Abualrub and Alghamdi, 2012; Li and Zahran, 2014; and Nelson and Shraim, 2014) performed pilot studies. However, some of these authors indicated that the pilot studies helped

Chapter 2 Literature Review

improve reliability of their instrument, where in practice pilot studies are most useful to improve validity of the instruments. Twelve studies did not report pilot studies.

2.4.3.1.3.2 Reliability

Bryman and Bell (2015) define reliability as the level of 'consistent findings' obtained through the data collection techniques or the analysis procedures used. This is a significant matter and deserves due attention. To put matters in context, the reliability of all the GCC studies' instruments recorded a value of alpha above the level of 60%, with the value standing between 60% and 80% for seven of them (Al-Beraidi and Rickards, 2006; and Suliman, 2009; Chaker and Jabnoun, 2010; Abualrub and Alghamdi, 2012; Behery *et al.*, 2012; Nelson and Shraim, 2014; and Jabeen *et al.*, 2015;), and only four of them at 80% (Jabnoun and AL Rasasi, 2005; Sheikh *et al.*, 2013; and Suliman and Al Obaidli, 2013; and Li and Zahran, 2014). It must be mentioned that six of the considered studies (Abdullah and Tudor, 2003; Al-Mailam, 2004 Butler, 2009; Analoui *et al.*, 2010; Elgamal, 2012; and Bealer and Bhanugopan, 2014) have completely failed to report their levels of reliability.

The Cronbach alpha coefficient was applied to measure the reliability level of the GCC studies. This yielded acceptable values with no study reporting a value below 60%, which would render it unacceptable. An alpha value of more than 90% is regarded as excellent, with a value of between 80% and 90% being good, and that of between 60% and 80% deemed acceptable.

In order to examine the studies that scored lower reliability value, a comparison has been made in the following table in order to compare the values with sample size and journal rating as per Table 2.9 below of SCImago Journal Rank (SJR).

Table 2.9 Gulf States Studies Comparison of Reliability, Sample and Journal Rating

Gulf States Study	Alpha	Sample (appropriate ⁵)	Journal	SJR Rating	Country
(Abdullah and Tudor, 2003)	Not reported	<50 (Yes)	MAJ ¹	Q2 ⁶	UK
(Al-Mailam, 2004)	Not reported	251-350 (Yes)	QMHC ²	Q2 ⁷	US
(Jabnoun and AL Rasasi, 2005)	>0.80	151-250 (Yes)	MSQ ³	Q2	UK
(Al-Beraidi and Rickards, 2006)	0.60-0.80	251-350 (Yes)	JAOC ⁴	Q2	UK
(Butler, 2009)	Not reported	51-150 (Yes)	LODJ ⁵	Q3 ⁸	UK
(Suliman, 2009)	0.60-0.80	>350 (No)	NAQ ⁶	Q2	US
(Analoui <i>et al.</i> , 2010)	Not reported	<50 (Yes)	JMDIJ ⁷	Q2 ⁹	UK
(Chaker and Jabnoun, 2010)	0.60-0.80	51-150 (Yes)	IJCM ⁸	-	-
(Taleb, 2010)	-	-	IJEM ⁹	Q2 ¹⁰	UK
(Abualrub and Alghamdi, 2012)	0.60-0.80	251-350 (Yes)	JNM ¹⁰	Q1	UK
(Behery <i>et al.</i> , 2012)	0.60-0.80	>350 (No)	IBJ ¹¹	-	-
(Elgamal, 2012)	Not reported	51-150 (Yes)	IJMMR ¹²	-	-
(Alsaeedi and Male 2013)	-	-	EMAL ¹³	Q1	UK
(Sheikh <i>et al.</i> , 2013)	>0.80	151-250 (No)	IJHRM ¹⁴	Q2	UK
(Suliman and Al Obaidli, 2013)	>0.80	151-250 (No)	APJBA ¹⁵	Q3	UK
(Bealer and Bhanugopan, 2014)	Not reported	151-250 (No)	IJHRM ¹⁶	Q2	UK
(Li and Zahran, 2014)	>0.80	151-250 (No)	IJHRDM ¹⁷	Q3	UK
(Nelson and Shraim, 2014)	0.60-0.80	151-250 (No)	IJHRDM ¹⁸	Q3	UK
(Jabeen <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	0.60-0.80	>350 (No)	IJOA ¹⁹	Q3	UK

Journals' Names:

- 1 Managerial Auditing Journal
- 2 Quality Management In Health Care
- 3 Managing Service Quality
- 4 Journal Of Accounting & Organizational Change
- 5 Leadership & Organization Development Journal
- 6 Nursing Administration Quarterly
- 7 Journal Of Management Development
- 8 International Journal Of Commerce & Management
- 9 International Journal Of Educational Management
- 10 Journal Of Nursing Management
- 11 International Business Journal
- 12 International Journal Of Management & Marketing Research (IJMMR)
- 13 Educational Management Administration & Leadership
- 14 International Journal Of Human Resource Management
- 15 Asia-Pacific Journal of Business Administration
- 16 International Journal of Human Resource Management
- 17 International Journal of Human Resources Development and Management
- 18 International Journal Of Human Resources Development & Management
- 19 International Journal of Organizational Analysis

⁵ Appropriate sample: Yes. Not Appropriate sample: No.

⁶ Category: Business, Management and Accounting (miscellaneous)

⁷ Category: Leadership and Management

⁸ Category : Organizational Behavior and Human Resource Management

⁹ Category: Business, Management and Accounting (miscellaneous)

¹⁰ Category: Organizational Behavior and Human Resource Management

Chapter 2 Literature Review

The “quartile” rankings of the journals are illustrated in the table above, which published the GCC quantitative studies as per SCImago Journal Rank (SJR) ranking. The lowest values are shown by Q4 and the highest values by Q1. It became apparent that 53% of the journals (i.e. a total of nine) were ranked in Q2. However, a mere 12% (i.e. two of them) were ranked in Q1, at the very highest rank. Moreover, 29% (i.e. five journals) were ranked in Q3, and none of the journals happened to be reported in the bottom of the list (Q4) from the published GCC studies.

Additionally, the majority of the studies (i.e. four out of the six), with no reporting of reliability values, were published in journals that are ranked in Q2 and one of them in Q3. This means that the relatively highly-ranked journals which were considered for publication were the studies that did not reveal the reliability values.

After the consideration of the sample size factor, it became apparent that even the sample sizes were appropriate except in one study conducted by Bealer and Bhanugopan (2014). However, this was not appropriate in comparison to the population under study.

2.4.3.1.3.3 Questionnaire

Since most of the researched papers were of an exploratory nature they were multi-objective and involved multiple dimensions. Hence, most of the researched papers involved more than one questionnaire. The problem with multiple questionnaires lies in its length, which research has shown to have adverse effects and bias in responses as a result of fatigue. A questionnaire should not be long – otherwise one runs the risk of unfaithful responses. For the GCC researched studies, the breakdown of the sampling scheme was as follows. Eight of the researched papers adapted one questionnaire (Al-Beraidi and Tudor, 2003; Al-Mailam, 2004; Al-Beraidi and Tudor, 2006; Butler, 2009; Suliman, 2009; Chaker and Jabnoun, 2010; Elgamal, 2012; Bealer and Bhanugopan, 2014). Five adapted two questionnaires (Jabnoun and AL Rasasi, 2005; Analoui *et al.*, 2010; Sheikh *et al.*, 2013; Suliman and Al Obaidli, 2013; Nelson and Shraim, 2014), and four adapted three questionnaires (Abualrub and Alghamdi, 2012; Behery *et al.*, 2012; Li and Zahran, 2014; Jabeen *et al.*, 2015). Therefore, future research should consider having a questionnaire of reasonable length. According to Saunders *et al.* (2016), when it comes to size for within-organisation self-administered questionnaires, between four and eight A4 pages is considered appropriate.

2.4.3.2 Narrow Systematic Review Studies Patterns

When having a closer look at the 19 studies conducted in GCC (17 quantitative and two qualitative studies), a number of patterns were found and are highlighted below. This section discusses the

objectivity of measures, quantitative studies results and patterns, qualitative studies results and patterns, and the measures used.

2.4.3.2.1 Objectivity of Measures

As for the objectivity of measures, it became apparent that subjective measures were used in 41% of the GCC studies: self-report. These studies comprised five subjective measures and two as a combination of both subjective and objective. This is when 59% of the studies (i.e. 10 of them) used only objective measures – peer report or ‘360 degree’.

Despite being helpful in allowing the respondents to freely express their opinions and experience, self-report measures can target a wide range of participants. However, there is always the possibility that the respondents may not portray genuine responses in an assessment of themselves. This means that ‘negative effectivity’ may cause participants to be biased and want to show themselves in only positive or good lights (Powell *et al.*, 2008). Furthermore, Mittal and Dhar (2015) state that self-report, as a subjective measure, may not be the most reliable tool of measurement.

In contrast, the objective measures are deemed to be significantly more reliable for a variety of reasons. For instance, in this method, the possibility of under-reporting of, say, bad behaviour of leaders can be minimised as well as the over-reporting or exaggerating of, say, the good behaviours. Although bias is greatly reduced in the objective method of measurement, still the participants may be negatively influenced by a ‘culture of fear’ (Bealer and Bhanugopan, 2014). This is about an intentional self-control in perhaps not revealing their honest opinions or impressions of those superior to them. Using high standards of confidentiality is one way to tackle this issue in the process of approaching respondents or using emails in order to collect the data, for example, through online secure questionnaires.

Therefore, to collect and access unbiased data, it would be wise to consider using both methods: self-report and peer report (objective). Indeed, Taleb (2010) has pinpointed the need to consider asking subordinates to describe the leadership styles of their leaders. The researcher would have the chance to assess the data and see how leaders evaluate themselves when compared with their subordinates’ views about their performance through this objective and self-report method.

2.4.3.2.2 Quantitative Studies Results and Patterns

The GCC studies generated 48 hypotheses. A significant relationship between TL and the 12 variables¹¹ examined was found by 77% (37) of these hypotheses, whereas 23% (11) of the hypotheses were found not to be significant. For a number of reasons – for example, no tests of significance were undertaken (purely descriptive) or they were qualitative studies, which are reported on in the next section– some of these studies were excluded. Furthermore, certain studies were also excluded as no MLQ or TL was used in the hypotheses. As a result, this section covers the significance of hypotheses, lower significant variables and MLQ as opposed to non-MLQ results.

2.4.3.2.2.1 Significance of Results

As can be seen in the table 2.10 above, the majority of the GCC studies' hypotheses (77%) were significant. This indicates the presence of a high correlation between TL and a number of variables. Besides, what is interesting is that more than half (54%) of the significant hypotheses (26) were at values of 1%, whereas 19% were at 5% and 4% were at .01%. This shows that TL was highly correlated to the variables and that there is minimal margin of error which does not exceed 5%.

In light of this information, the pertinent question that can now be asked is: Are there different results between studies used MLQ instrument and non-MLQ? This is particularly interesting when one knows that most of the studies' hypotheses (77%) were using MLQ, whereas only 23% had used non-MLQ. What is vital here is to see if there are any differences between the two instruments' significant results.

2.4.3.2.2.2 Non-significant Results

From the 23% non-significant results (11 hypotheses), only one non-MLQ was found, which is the work conducted by Al-Beraidi and Rickards (2006). According to them, the functional areas which are 'non-accounting' exhibited more transformational leadership behaviours and offered more support for creativity than the functional areas which were 'accounting'.

This is in contrast with the remaining 10 non-significant hypotheses, which used MLQ, and found no relations between TL and the examined variables. For example, no significant correlation between TL style of nurse management and the enhancement of the nurse intention to stay at

¹¹ The variables associated with TL are: Satisfaction, Work Engagement, Organisation Commitment (OC) Intention to Stay, Efficacy, Service Quality, and Transactional Psychological Contract (TPC), Relational Psychological Contract (RPC), Job Involvement, Emotional Intelligence (EI), LMX, and Organisation Citizenship Behaviour (OCB).

work was found in the work by Abualrub and Alghamdi (2012). They did not even find any significant effect between transactional leadership style and its effect on decreasing the nurses' level of intention to stay at work. In contrast, a previous study (Cowden *et al.*, 2011) found a positive relationship between transformational leadership (TL) and the intention of nurses to continue in their current jobs. This indicates that TL has a clear effect on the intention to stay at work in a mainly western study by Cowden *et al.* (2011), whereas it does not examine such a relationship in the Middle Eastern study by Abualrub and Alghamdi (2012).

Furthermore, Sheikh *et al.* (2013) found that the relationship between TL and the subordinate's job involvement was not moderated by 'subordinate power distance' to an extent that the relationship is stronger for those low in power distance. Additionally, neither was a significant relationship between TL and organisational commitments (OC) found in the work by Behery *et al.* (2012). However, the finding of Behery *et al.* (2012) does not support the previous research by Aydin *et al.* (2013) where a relationship between TL and OC was found.

Moreover, a recent study by Jabeen *et al.* (2015) confirms that transactional leadership has only a fractional mediating role in relation to relational psychological contract, transactional psychological contract and organisational commitment.

A large concentration of not significant results in GCC studies were revealed by Suliman and Al Obaidli (2013) where the organisational citizenship behaviours (OCB) in the Islamic banking sector were under scrutiny. They found that no significant relationship exists between OCB dimensions (e.g., generalized compliance and civic virtue) and intellectual stimulation. Also, although the findings pointed that transformational and transactional leadership styles tend to have a key role in employees' OCB. Nonetheless, Suliman and Al Obaidli (2013) state that passive/avoidant leadership styles have no statistically significant effect on the relationship.

2.4.3.2.2.3 Significant Results

The review of the GCC studies reveals that about 58% of the results were very significant at the value of 1% and below¹². This is when the rest (i.e. 19%) of these were significant at 5%. It is interesting to mention that most of the results were using MLQ and only a limited number used non-MLQ. Thus, it would be also interesting to explore the results of the MLQ and non-MLQ.

On closer examination of the MLQ results, Al-Mailam (2004), who conducted research into private and government hospitals in Kuwait, revealed that a significant correlation existed between employee perception of leadership efficacy and TL style. In addition, it is probable that leaders in the private hospitals of Kuwait to be perceived by their followers as transformational leaders

¹² This consists of significance at the levels of 1% and 0.01%.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

more than the subordinates in public hospital would perceive their leaders. Despite being a somewhat important variable, efficacy is still an area which is under-researched in the GCC context. Moreover, Al-Mailam's (2004) findings further support the idea of TL efficacy in the private sector. This is significant due to the limited number of GCC private-sector studies particularly in the financial sector where leaders have responsibility, and manage a large amount of capital.

The findings of Al-Mailam (2004) are to some extent consistent with those of Joyner *et al.* (2013) who found that high follower satisfaction, high follower evaluations of leader efficacy, and high and committed follower input are all associated with transformational leadership, a finding which is supported by (Avolio, 2010). Moreover, a link between leader intelligence and effective leadership has been found through meta-analytic studies by Lord, Vader and Alliger (1986) and Judge, Colbert and Ilies (2004).

Nelson and Shraim (2014) conducted their research in a service company around work engagement in Kuwait. They reported that the relationship between both TL (behaviours) and work engagement and transactional was found to be significant but small positive, which is consistent with those of other studies.

Certain studies, in general, have already established the importance of satisfaction to leadership style. However, in the GCC context, the review found only one research study by Abualrub and Alghamdi (2012), which was conducted in the KSA. In this study, a significant correlation between TL and satisfaction was found. The authors stated that the satisfaction of nurses was obvious when their leaders showed TL style more than the nurses' superiors who were less transformational. Moreover, the satisfied nurses were found more interested to stay at work. The findings of this study are in line with those in previous studies such as Piccolo *et al.* (2012), and the satisfaction and the intention to stay at work as well as leadership style all form the basis for fascinating future research. In other words, more research in these areas needs to be undertaken before the association between leadership style, satisfaction and intention to stay is better understood.

In a study examining the willingness to stay and leadership style in the healthcare sector, Suliman (2009) revealed significant results of 1% in all its hypotheses. The obtained results revealed that nurse managers and staff nurses both pointed to TL as a predominant factor. Also, the nationality of participants and their intention to stay or quit affected their perception of TL as a predominant style.

As far as organisation commitment (OC) is concerned, it seems to be popular in GCC literature because two studies (12%) have looked into this: Jabeen *et al.* (2015) and Behery *et al.* (2012). The most recent study by Jabeen *et al.* (2015) found a significant correlation (at 1%) between transactional leadership and psychological contracts (transactional and relational). Jabeen *et al.* (2015) found in an earlier part of the study that a partial mediation effect of TL exists between organizational commitment and psychological contract. However, Behery *et al.* (2012) suggested that TL was found to influence job involvement. No studies from the broader literature were found to support these findings.

2.4.3.2.3 Narrow Systematic Review Qualitative Results

Despite their merits for being advantageous or insightful, the two qualitative studies conducted in GCC did not reveal significant findings from the literature. For example, when the 17 quantitative studies conducted in the GCC context were compared with the two qualitative studies (Taleb, 2010; Alsaeedi and Male, 2013), it was revealed that they all yielded somewhat similar results as far as the positivity of transformational leadership (TL) is concerned.

2.4.3.2.3.1 First Qualitative Study

Research by Alsaeedi and Male (2013) examined what the principals' attitudes towards TL behaviours in Kuwaiti schools were, and whether they are ready to display such leadership behaviours. It was found that six out of the eight participants interviewed showed positive attitudes towards TL and associated behaviour; which is in line with Suliman (2009). Only two of the participants displayed negative attitudes towards the application of certain TL behaviours. The participants reflected positive attitudes towards the significance of a common vision. This finding is consistent with Abdullah and Tudor (2003). Moreover, six of the principals (participants) supported the idea of engaging stakeholders in decision making. However, one participant seemed to be reserved on this behaviour because of the culture and structure of the current education system. Although one participant out of the eight interviewed may not be regarded as a significant number as far as the barrier preventing the promotion of TL in the work environment is concerned, nonetheless, the findings of Alsaeedi and Male (2013) still point to the broader literature's findings such as the work of Leong and Fischer (2011) and Jackson *et al.* (2013). These found that culture is an element that has the potential to affect TL in one way or another. For example, in the GCC context, Bealer and Bhanugopan (2014) found that the 'culture of fear' has implications for peers' evaluation of their superiors. This is an area that lends itself to future exploration and was not mentioned in any of the GCC studies.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

Furthermore, Alsaeedi and Male (2013) reported that positive attitudes emerged among principals towards providing intellectual stimulation. This is consistent with Bealer and Bhanugopan (2014) when 'intellectual stimulation' is regarded by the highest percentage of respondents at 32%, which occurs frequently in studies in the UAE context. Finally, results of Alsaeedi and Male (2013) revealed that the school principals found that certain TL behaviours were effective such as fostering a culture of collaboration as well as high performance expectation. This finding is congruent with Analoui *et al.* (2010) in stating that respondents were asked to rate the influence of individual, organisational and environmental factors on their overall effectiveness and were ranked third among a list of seven collaborative factors. The researchers also revealed that seven out of the eight participants appeared to emphasise the important role of leaders of schools in overcoming the task of education reform.

Although Alsaeedi and Male (2013) used a modified MLQ instrument (Leithwood and Jantzi, 1999) to produce TL dimensions in line with the context of education, it produced the same results as in previous literature in terms of participants' agreement over the need for TL in the workplace.

2.4.3.2.3.2 Second Qualitative Study

The second study by Taleb (2010) also produced a similar result as in the previous literature, as far as TL is concerned. However, this study was conducted in a female-led college or single-gender context in the KSA. This study found that female leaders tend to prefer a TL style with its emphasis on vision, the development of the individual, and idealised influences. In fact, they prefer TL instead of an autocratic, task-oriented, or transactional style of leadership and, therefore, tend to prefer a democratic interpersonally-oriented leadership style. These findings are consistent with the previous literature reviewed. For example, in a meta-analysis of leadership literature over a 15-year period, Northouse (2001) stated that female leaders tend to be more democratic and participative than their male counterparts are (Taleb, 2010). Furthermore, Elgamal (2012) suggested that the conclusions of 45 leadership studies, in Flora (2007), found that females, on average, are more likely than males to adopt and practise a transformational leadership style, which is essentially associated with motivating, empowering and caring about subordinates. This point is further reinforced by Elgamal (2012 p. 95), who states that "*Arab female leaders were perceived as superior as male leaders with respect to the following characteristics: cooperation, aggressiveness, competitiveness and concern about interpersonal relationships*".

Having said this, it must be mentioned that Taleb's (2010) context of study is still limited to a single sex organisation in Saudi Arabia which is not the case in other Gulf States. As an example, bearing in mind that there is a strict segregation policy between males and females in place in

Saudi Arabia, determined by law and traditional norms, this is not the case in the other Gulf States. In Kuwait, for instance, the majority of the government institutions are run by both males and females, which is also applicable to the private sector. This means that the result of the above study cannot be beneficial to or generalised among the Gulf States' institutions, in particular within the financial sector which is a diversified sector.

Additionally, the two qualitative studies use, in one way or another, subjective approaches. Taleb (2010), for example, used a self-report measure as these ask the participants during the interviews about their leadership styles – i.e. a subjective approach. It is evident that interviewing is often deemed as a subjective technique which always comes with certain inherent bias, according to Bell (2010).

On the other hand, Alsaeedi and Male (2013) used a partially self-report approach through their qualitative research. This subjective method arises when participants were asked about their attributes or readiness to promote TL.

In summary, the results reported by Taleb (2010), and Alsaeedi and Male (2013) were not significantly different from the rest of the 17 quantitative studies conducted within the GCC context. Even the measures they used were mainly subjective, which only brings the percentage of subjective studies measures to 47% (i.e. nine out of 19 studies).

2.4.3.2.4 Measures used

This section shows *what* types of measures were used in GCC studies as well as *how* they have been collected for use. Furthermore, the transformational leadership measures used such as MLQ and others which are “non-MLQ” are also discussed.

Table 2.10 below summarises the narrow systematic review studies.

Table 2.10 Summary of narrow systematic review studies

	Research	Country	Sector	Type	FRLM and Other Instruments
1	(Jabeen <i>et al.</i> , 2015)	UAE	Other ¹	Quantitative	1). Modified MLQ (Bass and Avolio, 1997; Avolio et al., 1999): employs contingent reward, MBE-A or MBE-P, & laissez-faire. 2) Modified OCQ (Mowday et al., 1979) used to measure the organisational commitment.
2	(Bealer and Bhanugopan, 2014)	UAE	Other ²	Quantitative	1)MLQ 5X: IB, IM, IS, IC, CR, MBEA, MBEP, LF, EE, EFF & (SAT) (Avolio and Bass, 2004).
3	(Li & Zahran, 2014)	Kuwait	Other ³	Quantitative	1) EI adapted from Goleman (1998) who dev.& valid. It. 2) TL Traits adapted from (Podsakoff et al., 1990). 3) LMX Adapted from (Liden and Maslyn, 1998).
4	(Nelson & Shraim, 2014)	Kuwait	Others ⁴	Quantitative	1) MLQ developed by Bass and Avolio (2004). 2) Work Eng. Schaufeli and Bakker (2003). 3) Utrecht W. Eng. Scale (UWES).
5	(Alsaeedi and Male 2013)	Kuwait	Education	Qualitative	1)Bass's model of TL developed by Leithwood and Jantzi (1999) to produce TL dimensions to be consistent with the educational context.
6	(Sheikh <i>et al.</i> , 2013)	UAE	Other	Quantitative	1) MLQ-5X (Bass and Avolio, (1995). 2) Job involvement (JI) (Kanungo, 1982). 3) Cultural values: Collectivism (Hyp2), Power Distance (Hyp3) & Uncertainty Avoidance (Hyp4).
7	(Suliman & Al Obaidli, 2013)	UAE	Financial ⁵	Quantitative	1) MLQ 5X (Bass and Avolio, 1995). 2) OCB: org. citizenship behaviours (OCB) (Konovsky and Organ (1996)
8	(Abualrub & Alghamdi, 2012)	KSA	Health-Nursing	Qualitative	1) MLQ-5X: (Bass & Avolio 2004). 2) Job Satisfaction Survey (Spector 1985). 3) Intent to Stay (McCloskey and McCain 1987).
9	(Behery et al, 2012)	UAE	Other ⁶	Quantitative	1) MLQ-5X (Bass and Avolio, 1997; Avolio, 1999). 2) Transactional/RPC Millward and Hopkins's (1998). 3) OCQ (Mowday et al., 1979).
10	(Elgamal, 2012)	Kuwait, Egypt & Tunisia	Management	Qualitative Quantitative	1) human orientation & task orientation (Bass, 1990), work issues, leadership characteristic, life influence effecting career, demo and best advice.
11	(Analoui et al, 2010)	Oman	Management ⁷	Qualitative Quantitative	1) Analoui's model of "eight parameters for effectiveness" has been used.

	Research	Country	Sector	Type	FRLM and Other Instruments
12	(Chaker and Jabnoun, 2010)	Qatar	Financial ⁵	Quantitative	1) Previous literatures and particularly obstacles outlined by Jabnoun (2006) 2) Constructs influencing service quality gaps found by Parasuraman <i>et al.</i> (1991).
13	(Taleb, 2010)	KSA	Education ⁸	Qualitative	-case studies.
14	(Butler, 2009)	UAE	Education	Quantitative	1)LMX (Basu and Green, (1997).
15	(Suliman, 2009)	KSA	Health-Nursing	Qualitative	1) MLQ (Bass and Avolio, 1995). 2) Intention to cont. at work.
16	(Al-Beraidi & Rickards, 2006)	KSA	Financial ⁹	Qualitative	1) TL & Transactional leadership. 2) Team Climate Inventory (TCI), Team Factor Inventory (TFI).
17	(Jabnoun and ALRasasi, 2005)	UAE	Health	Quantitative	1) MLQ 6 dimensions (Avolio et al., 1999). 2) SERVQUAL (Parasuraman et al., 1991).
18	(Al-Mailam, 2004)	Kuwait	Health	Quantitative	1)MLQ.
19	(Abdullah and Tudor, 2003)	KSA	Financial ¹⁰	Qualitative Quantitative	1) Quantitative (TFI), Creative Team Factors, impact of leadership, perceived constraints to creativity. 2) Qualitative (Semi Str. Interview).

Table Key of Sector: (1): services, estate, transp., communication., tourism, banking, legal services and industrials, (2): oil-related, health and education (3): oil and gas, banking and health (4): services (5): Islamic banking. (6): service industries, (7): public sector municipality, (8): academic - female only college (9): accounting services (10): accounting profession.

2.4.4 Conclusion of Narrow Systematic Review

The table above illustrates a number of issues. First, it was noticed that out of the 17 quantitative studies, 59% which used MLQ while 12% used non-MLQ measures. Second, the GCC studies used varying 12 dimensions (no job performance). Third, the table and the previous discussion illustrate that most of the MLQ research results gave positive results to the relational leadership, in comparison with the non MLQ results which produced less positive results.

2.5 Conclusion from the Literature

Based on the literature, a number of conclusions can be drawn regarding transformational leadership (TL), employee work attitude (EWA), job performance (JP) and cultural issues.

2.5.1 Employee Work Attitude (EWA)

Although transformational leadership is considered to be effective in enhancing employees' attitudes (Koh *et al.*, 1995), this was not addressed adequately in the broader systematic review nor in the narrow literature review. Employee work attitude (EWA) consists of a number of attitudes. However, two of these (i.e. job satisfaction and affective commitment) are viewed as important constructs that need to be examined in the workplace for two reasons. First, job satisfaction is an indication of an individual's mental health or well-being, and it is presumed that it will lead to decent job performance as well as to motivation (Arnold and Silvester, 2005). As to affective commitment (AC), research shows that it is clearly impacted by leadership style, such as transformational leadership (Kim, 2014; Jauhari *et al.*, 2017). In addition, an employee's intention to leave a role is another form of attitude that could indicate an 'early warning sign', and it is important as turnover could impact organisational costs significantly (Arnold and Silvester, 2005 p; 274). This is important in any organisational context, particularly in the financial sector. This makes EWA an important aspect to explore in a leadership study.

2.5.2 Job Satisfaction

TL has been found to have an impact on the attitude of JS in a number of studies (such as Menaker and Bahn, 2008; Voon, Lo, Ngui and Ayob, 2011; Shibru and Darshan, 2011) and in order to understand the extent to which they could affect JS; Employee Work Attitude (EWA) it is important to analyse carefully the four factors of TL. This is because there is only one Saudi healthcare study in the Gulf States' systematic review relating to JS (Abualrub and Alghamdi, 2012) and no studies were found in the Gulf's financial sector; or in the banking sector in

particular. In addition, Crossman and Abou-Zaki (2003) who conducted their study in the banking sector of Lebanon suggested that the Middle East has a limited number of studies of job satisfaction. Moreover, one should expect that the factors most related to TL would be the charismatic factors (II and IM) due to the obvious impact of charisma in Middle Eastern culture (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 2001; Hostede, 2001; Shahin and Wright, 2004). In addition, according to Shibru and Darshan (2011), idealised influence (II) is considered to be a significant predictor of subordinates' JS. Therefore, within the Gulf context, no study was found that measured the relationship between the JS (EWA) of subordinates toward their job in general, and towards their leaders, given the importance of this issue.

The following section is concerned with AC, which was also found to be noticeably associated with followers' job performance outcomes.

2.5.3 Affective Commitment (EWA)

Affective Commitment (AC), which is part of EWA, has been found to be affected by leadership styles such as TL; (Kim, 2014; Jauhari *et al.*, 2017) and plays a mediating role in factors affecting job performance. However, to date, this form of attitude (AC) has not been captured adequately in the literature. In addition, AC research has not addressed which four sub-dimensions of TL are considered to be influenced by an attitude mediator in non-western cultures.

First, despite the fact that TL's four sub-dimensions (i.e. II, IM, IS and IC) are likely to be affected by culture due to the presence of certain differences (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2005), it is not yet known whether any of the four sub-dimensions of TL could affect subordinates' performance. A number of studies have examined the relationship between TL in general with AC (Kim, 2014; Jauhari *et al.*, 2017). However, the studies in this systematic review fail to examine the effect of intellectual stimulation (IS) and individualised consideration (IC) on AC. This could be interesting to explore as it is expected that IC has a stronger impact on JP than the impact of IS has. This is because the implicit leadership in the Gulf State countries (i.e. Kuwait and Qatar) is considerate leadership (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 2001). This may result in IC having a stronger effect on JP compared to IS, as IS was not reported in the study of Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001). This may make the rest of the TL variables less effective on JP in comparison with IC. In summary, AC of EWA is worth exploring.

2.5.4 Turnover Intention (EWA)

Given the importance of turnover intention (EWA) with respect to organisations' costs and employee motivation, this key attitude was insufficiently addressed in the broader and narrow

systematic review of this thesis, and the findings are rather contradictory. For instance, Cowden *et al.* (2011) reported interesting results suggesting that a positive relationship existed between TL and the intention of nurses to continue in their current jobs. These findings are consistent with the western studies of Bycio *et al.* (1995), Leveck and Jones (1996) and Boyle *et al.* (1999), who also found a significant positive relationship between TL and intent to stay. In contrast, Larrabee *et al.* (2003) revealed a non-significant relationship between TL and intent to stay (turnover), and Abualrub and Alghamdi (2012) also reported no significant correlation between the TL style of nurse management and the enhancement of the nurse's intention to stay at work, which was a study conducted in the Middle East; Saudi Arabia (Abualrub and Alghamdi, 2012). These rather contradictory findings, as well as the lack of understanding of the impact of turnover attitude on the four TL sub-dimensions (i.e. II, IM, IC and IS), lends itself to future exploration, particularly in non-western cultures (e.g., the Middle East), where cultural differences may exist (Walumbwa and Lawler, 2003).

In summary, EWA (JS, AC and TO) was not discussed adequately in the literature. This brings us to further conclusions regarding cultural matters.

2.5.5 Cultural Issues

Based on the systematic review of this study, 59% of the Gulf States' research (10 out of 17 quantitative studies) have not used the four individual sub-dimensions of the TL. In the case of the remaining 41% which have used MLQ, they have only done so partially. The problem here is the fact that not using the full MLQ dimensions could hide cultural differences which were apparent in a number of the individual factors of the MLQ, as discussed earlier. For instance, it is expected that there would be a high Idealised Influence (Charisma) and inspirational motivational in the Gulf States region in comparison with western societies. One explanation is that Gulf States demonstrate a very high power distance ranking in the 90s, in comparison with 35 and 40 for the UK and the US, respectively (Hofstede, 2016). Therefore, examining Idealised Influence (II), or Charisma, could produce different results in the Gulf context in comparison with the studied conducted in western societies. This applies to Inspirational Motivation (IM) as it (as well as II) are both regularly conceptualised as the charismatic leadership dimension in a large number of TL research studies. This is due to the fact that charismatic leadership consists of IM and II which are theoretically distinguished dimensions as well as strongly correlated (Bass and Avolio, 1990).

The other two dimensions of TL – Intellectual Stimulation (IS) and Individualised Consideration (IC) – could also produce different results in the Gulf states. For instance, Jabnoun and AL Rasasi (2005) reported an interesting point that Intellectual Stimulation was negative/weak in the UAE

context, which is a country that demonstrates high uncertainty avoidance scores of 80 according to Hofstede (2016). This may indicate that the leaders in this context find it hard to stimulate their followers to challenge their values and beliefs, such as issues related to their high uncertainty avoidance. However, other studies have found that when MLQ was used in western countries of low uncertainty avoidance, it produced strong results of IS (Mark, 2017). This indicates a situation somewhat contrary to that in the Gulf States context. Therefore, the above difference in the finding of the IS outcomes represents a further interesting cultural point to explore.

From the above narrow and broader systematic review, a number of literature gaps can be identified, which are discussed in the following section.

2.6 Literature Gaps

Based on the Broader Systematic Review of 28 studies (section 2.3) and the Narrow Systematic Review of 19 studies (section 2.4) conducted in the Gulf States, a number of conclusions can be drawn.

First, although the identified literature has used transformational leadership which is considered to be the most researched theory in leadership (Antonakis and House, 2014), effective for enhancing the performance of individuals (Takahashi *et al.*, 2012), and the most preferred leadership style by followers (Gasper, 1992), no single study exists which examines the impact of all four sub-dimensions on followers' performance (i.e. II, IM, IC and IS). This is important as the extent of the effect of transformational leadership on the performance of subordinates is still unclear despite the broadly published literature on TL (Wang *et al.*, 2011). This indicates the need for more research to bridge the literature gap.

Second, limited attention has been paid to the impact of culture on the four sub-dimensions of transformational leadership. This is key as Leong and Fischer (2011, p. 171) suggested that there is a high probability for different manifestations of cultural effects of transformational leadership. Moreover, Walumbawa *et al.* (2005) suggested in their comprehensive research that certain differences exist within the western societies in terms of TL's four dimensions. It was revealed in a study conducted in the Middle East (UAE) by Bealer and Bhanugopan (2014) that leaders in the UAE appear to be less transformational and less transactional but more passive-avoidant than their counterparts in the USA and Europe. These results were in line with prior studies (Caligiuri 2006; Beechler and Javidan 2007; Caligiuri and Tarique 2009; Story 2011; Zander *et al.*, 2011) in portraying an association between below-average transformational leadership and below-average satisfaction with supervisor effectiveness. Furthermore, the management by exception - active (MBEA) in the UAE were found to be 'significantly higher than in the USA but significantly lower

than in Europe'. In addition, there has been little comprehensive discussion about the differences in eastern and western cultures in spite of the likely variation of leadership impact on different cultures (Hofstede, 1985). This is despite the apparent cultural differences between the east and west reported by the GLOBE Study conducted in 62 societies (House *et al.*, 2004), that is considered to be outstanding literature in the area of leadership and culture so far (Northouse, 2011, p. 378). However, no previous empirical study in the literature has investigated such effect on TL's four sub-dimensions and the followers' job performance. For example, would the high power of distance in the Middle Eastern/Gulf States of 90 in comparison with the western countries (e.g., 35 in UK and 40 USA) produce a noticeably different result? Would the phenomenon of *Wasta* or social network (Abalkhail and Allan, 2016) play a negative role in MLQ or TL in the Middle East? Because *Wasta* has been a significant force in the decision-making process in the Arab region (Cunningham and Sarayrah, 1993; Abalkhail and Allan, 2016), this may have also been the reason behind potential cultural differences.

Furthermore, no attention has been paid to the dichotomy between collectivism and individualism in different societies. An understanding of this distinction is vital as a score of 25 for collectivism in the Middle East (i.e. in Kuwait) places the country in question amongst highly collectivist societies in sharp contrast with scores of 89, 90 and 91 for the UK, Australia and the USA, respectively, as highly individualist societies, based on Hofstede's (2017) categorisation. It is vital to study the above cultural variations in the light of their impact on the sub-dimensions of transformational leadership and the followers' job performance. As *Wasta*, which has a positive effect on individuals' perceptions or performance (Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011) and paternalistic leadership, authoritarianism and benevolence which are prevalent and effective in the Middle East (Pellegrini and Scandura, 2006) as well as nepotism and favouritism (Atiyyah, 1992), all these aspects are cultural factors that may lead this thesis' variables to produce different results in non-western societies (i.e., Gulf region).

Third, there has been little empirical research as to Employee Work Attitude (i.e. affective commitment, turnover intention and job satisfaction) in relation to the followers' job performance. Regardless of the way the TL's four sub-dimensions and the above variables are employed, there are no studies in the existing literature that examine such key relationships. Little is known about these variables and it is not clear which dimension of TL could produce different findings of followers' job performance. Therefore, this thesis aims to explore such relationships.

Fourth, the dyadic questionnaires (peer report and self-report) have not been applied meaningfully in the literature as most of the studies were based on self-report data (e.g., Al-

Mailam, 2004; Jabnoun and AL Rasasi, 2005; Suliman, 2009; Chaker and Jabnoun, 2010; Cowden *et al.*, 2011; Leong and Fischer, 2011; Abualrub and Alghamdi, 2012; Behery *et al.*, 2012; Piccolo *et al.*, 2012; Aydin *et al.*, 2013; Nelson and Shraim, 2014; Wang *et al.*, 2014; Deinert *et al.*, 2015; Jabeen *et al.*, 2015; Karadag *et al.*, 2015; Ng and Feldman, 2015). This limitation was found in both western and eastern studies in the broader and narrow literature which may be due to the fact that managers and their followers are likely to be reluctant to participate in this type of questionnaire. While self-report and peer report have some drawbacks when used individually, conducting a research using both methods may help obtain interesting findings especially when the four TL sub-dimensions of Avolio and Bass (2004) are used. This is to understand how leaders perceive their followers, and vice versa.

2.6.1 Research Questions

From the above conclusions, a number of questions emerge below followed by the research hypotheses. The questions explore the influence of transformational leadership (TL) on job performance in the banking sector in Kuwait as follows:

1. To what extent does TL affect followers' job performance?
2. To what extent do the four sub-dimensions of TL affect followers' job performance?
3. To what extent do the four sub-dimensions of TL affect employee work attitude (EWA), including job satisfaction (JS), turnover intention (TO), and affective commitment (AC)?

After a thorough review of the literature, the following section explores the hypotheses, followed by the research model of TL, EWA and JP, shown in Model 1 (Figure 2.4). Model 2 (Figure 2.5) consists of the four sub-dimensions of TL (i.e. II, IM, IC, IS), EWA and JP.

2.7 Hypotheses

Based on the three research questions, six hypotheses were developed.

2.7.1 Model 1 (Figure 2.4)

An abundance of research reports that TL has a noticeable influence on employees' job performance in the workplace (Lowe *et al.*, 1996; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Mohamed, 2016). However, inconsistent results arise in other studies. For instance, Mark (2013) reported that there are no effects on JP from TL, whereas no single study was found in the narrow systematic review of the Gulf States, that examines such a relationship between

subordinates reporting their leaders' TL style and subordinates' JP. This contrast lends itself to further understanding. Hence, the following relationship is hypothesised:

H₁ Transformational Leadership (TL) influences Job Performance (JP).

A number of studies have explored the relationship between EWA and JP and found a positive influence (Koh *et al.*, 1995; Johlke *et al.*, 2000; Saari and Judge, 2004; Boswell, 2006; Kim, 2014; Jauhari *et al.*, 2017). This is also consistent with Menaker and Bahn (2008), Voon, Lo, Ngui and Ayob (2011) and Shibru and Darshan (2011), who found an impact on JS from JP, and Kim (2014) and Jauhari *et al.* (2017) who also reported an influence on JP from AC. In contrast, Larrabee *et al.* (2003) revealed a non-significant relationship between TL and EWA, i.e. turnover. In addition, Abualrub and Alghamdi (2012) reported no significant correlation between the TL style of nurse management and the enhancement of the nurse's EWA (i.e. intention to stay at work), in a study conducted in the Middle East (i.e. Saudi Arabia). This contradiction is worth further exploration. Hence, the following relationship is hypothesised:

H₂: Employee Work Attitude (EWA) influences Job Performance (JP).

Many studies point to the presence of a positive relationship between TL, in general, and EWA (i.e. JS), which can be found in the work of Menaker and Bahn (2008), Shibru and Darshan (2011) and Voon *et al.* (2011).

In spite of the presence of a large number of studies in the available literature on TL (Antonakis, 2001; Antonakis *et al.*, 2014), when the EWA element is examined, a number of inconsistencies occur. For instance, given the importance of EWA (i.e. turnover) with respect to organisations' costs and employee motivation, this key attitude, which was insufficiently addressed in the systematic review of the Gulf States, shows rather contradictory findings. Cowden *et al.* (2011), for instance, reported that a positive relationship exists between TL and the intention of nurses to continue in their current jobs. In contrast, Larrabee *et al.* (2003) revealed a non-significant relationship between TL and the intention to stay (turnover). In addition, Abualrub and Alghamdi (2012) reported no significant correlation between the TL style of nurse management and the enhancement of the nurse's intention to stay at work. This also applies to the other forms of EWA (i.e. AC and JS). However, AC, which is part of EWA, has been found to be affected by leadership styles such as TL (Kim, 2014; Jauhari *et al.*, 2017) and played a mediating role in factors affecting job performance. However, this form of attitude (AC) has not been captured adequately in the Gulf States literature to date. There is only one Saudi healthcare study in the Gulf States' systematic review relating to JS (Abualrub and Alghamdi, 2012), which is also inconsistent with the broader literature. In addition to the above inconsistency in the results, none of the above

studies has examined TL as a construct in relation to EWA only, as all studies examined the effect of the multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ) on EWA in non-financial sectors, or the banking sector in particular. This shows the absence of an adequate examination of TL and JP when mediated by EWA. Therefore, the research hypothesises the following:

H₃: Transformational leadership (TL) influences job performance (JP). This influence is mediated by employee work attitude (EWA).

Although a number of studies have examined the relationship between transformational leadership and job performance (Lowe *et al.*, 1996; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Mohamed, 2016) and the *difference scores* (Wohlers and London, 1989; Fletcher, 1999; Sosik and Megerian, 1999; Laird and Weems, 2011), none has attempted to compare the *difference scores* model fit against the model fit of the transformational leadership style as perceived by leaders (self-reporting) and subordinates (peers reporting their leaders' styles). This is particularly important, as relying on leaders' self-reporting models may lead to bias (Yammarino and Atwater, 1997), whereas peer-report studies in the systematic review (literature) were not found, which accounts for one of the research gaps. Thus, the following relationship is hypothesised:

H_{4a}: The relationship between subordinates reporting their leaders' TL and the subordinates JP will produce a better model fit than the TL difference scores (d²) of leaders and followers.

H_{4b}: The TL model fit of subordinates reporting their leaders' TL will be better than the TL model fits of leaders.

2.7.2 Model 2 (Figure 2.5)

Drilling down deeper into the four sub-dimensions of TL (i.e. II, IM, IC and IS) may provide a better understanding of their impact on job performance when mediated by EWA. In other words, although the relation between the four TL sub-dimensions, EWA and JP was not studied in the broader or the narrow systematic review conducted for this thesis, a number of cultural signs from the literature may lead to interesting results. For instance, the implicit leadership theory in the Gulf context is considerate leadership (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 2001), and there is a remarkable expectation that IC could have a meaningful impact on job satisfaction and commitment (i.e. EWA) due to its relationship with performance (Emery and Barker, 2007) as well as TO (Bycio *et al.*, 1995; Leveck and Jones, 1996; Cowden *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, along with the IM and II sub-dimensions of TL, along with IC, could play a noticeable role in the Gulf context for a number of reasons. For instance, the strong ties in the Arab culture can be seen in the wide practice of *Wasta*. This is a phenomenon of social networking that is obvious in the Gulf

region (Abalkhail and Allan, 2016), which may increase the chance of practising considerate behaviour that could in turn have an impact on subordinates' job satisfaction. This is important due to the positive impact that *Wasta* has on an individual's performance or perceptions (Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011). Despite it being considered an unfair practice, *Wasta* is still deemed to be influential in business and social life, where it is expected to maintain its status well into the future (Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011). Furthermore, the charismatic sub-dimensions of TL (i.e. II and IM) which are theoretically proven and strongly correlated (Bass and Avolio, 1990), may have a stronger influence on subordinates' job performance in the Middle East. For instance, following a review of over 20 studies, Shamir *et al.* (1993) suggest that charismatic dimensions were positively associated with the perceptions and performance of subordinates. That is, the peer-report perceptions of the subordinates concerning their superiors' transformational leadership style may affect their perceptions of their leaders' II and IM. This is likely to happen to some extent as the most popular leadership values in the Gulf (i.e. Kuwait and Qatar) were reported to be charisma and consideration. These are among the most desirable values according to Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001). In addition, the charismatic dimension is found to motivate and uplift subordinates (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1996). All the above may impose a different influence of the sub-dimensions on the performance of the followers in the Gulf.

Furthermore, the significant level of collectivism in the Gulf, which scores 25 on individualism, based on Hofstede's (2016) categorisation, could be a reason to expect a tendency toward considerate behaviours by managers towards their group members or subordinates. In addition, the remarkable level of high power distance of 90 degrees could be an element that leads subordinates to view their leaders as considerate individuals.

It is probable that the remarkably high uncertainty avoidance in the Gulf region which scores 80 versus 35 and 46 in the UK and the US, respectively, (House *et al.*, 2004) could lead to people encountering ambiguity and feelings of uncertainty. This uncertainty may lead to more experienced anxiety in the Middle Eastern context in comparison to western societies. Such a disparity is likely to be reflected in the perceptions of the followers toward their superiors; in other words, subordinates in the Gulf may view their leaders' style as less likely to create beliefs and institutions in an attempt to avoid the uncertainty associated with the ambiguity they experience.

Therefore, the research hypothesises the following:

H₅: Individualised Influence (II), Individualised Motivation (IM), and Individualised Consideration (IC) of subordinates reporting their leaders' TL will have a more significant impact

on the subordinates self-reporting their Job Performance (JP) than Intellectual Stimulation (IS) when mediated by subordinates' self-reporting their Employee Work Attitude (EWA).

A considerable amount of research reports that leaders tend to rate themselves higher than their co-workers or subordinates would rate them (Waldman and Thornton III, 1979; Thornton, 1980); McEnery *et al.* (1982); (Fletcher and Baldry, 2000). All of the studies mentioned were conducted in the western context, which raises the question of whether such relationships exist in non-western countries (e.g., the Middle East), where potential cultural differences may exist, according to Walumbawa *et al.* (2005) and Leong and Fischer (2011). Understanding such differences is important, as self-reporting could lead to an exaggerated perception of the self-reporters (managers) according to Yammarino and Atwater (1997). Moreover, according to a meta-analysis study conducted by Mabe and West (1982), managers appear to have limited knowledge of their managerial weaknesses and strengths. Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H₆: Leaders rate themselves higher than their followers would rate them.

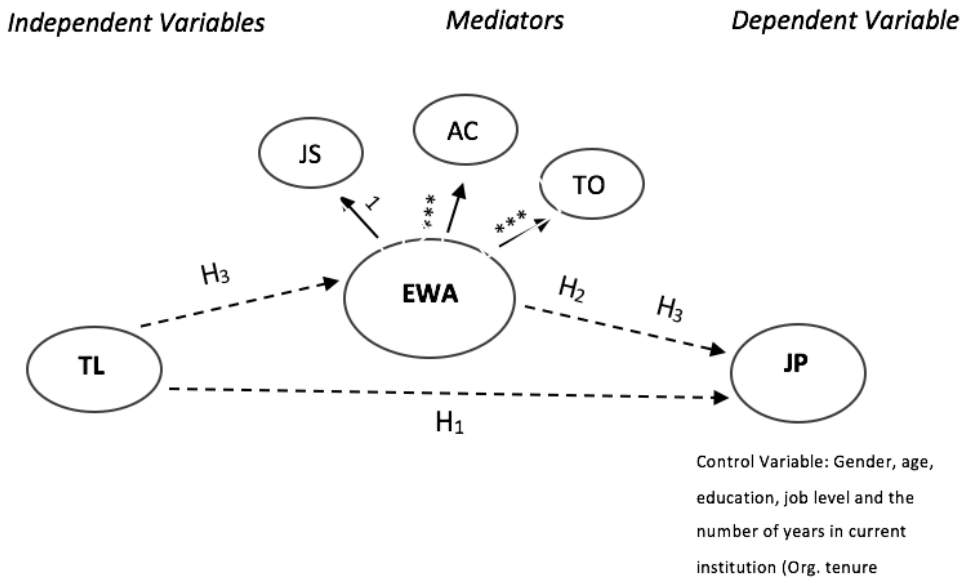
For ease of reference, the hypotheses are re-presented below:

- **H₁: Transformational leadership (TL) influences job performance (JP).**
- **H₂: Employee Work Attitude (EWA) influences Job Performance (JP).**
- **H₃: Transformational leadership (TL) influences job performance (JP). This influence is mediated by employee work attitude (EWA).**
- **H_{4a}: The relationship between subordinates reporting their leaders' TL and the subordinates JP will produce a better model fit than the TL difference scores (d^2) of leaders and followers.**
- **H_{4b}: The TL model fit of subordinates reporting their leaders' TL will be better than the TL model fits of leaders.**
- **H₅: Individualised Influence (II), Individualised Motivation (IM), and Individualised Consideration (IC) of subordinates reporting their leaders' TL will have a more significant impact on the subordinates self-reporting their Job Performance (JP) than Intellectual Stimulation (IS) when mediated by subordinates' self-reporting their Employee Work Attitude (EWA).**
- **H₆: Leaders rate themselves higher than their followers would rate them.**

Further discussion on the above-mentioned hypotheses follows below.

2.7.3 Research Model

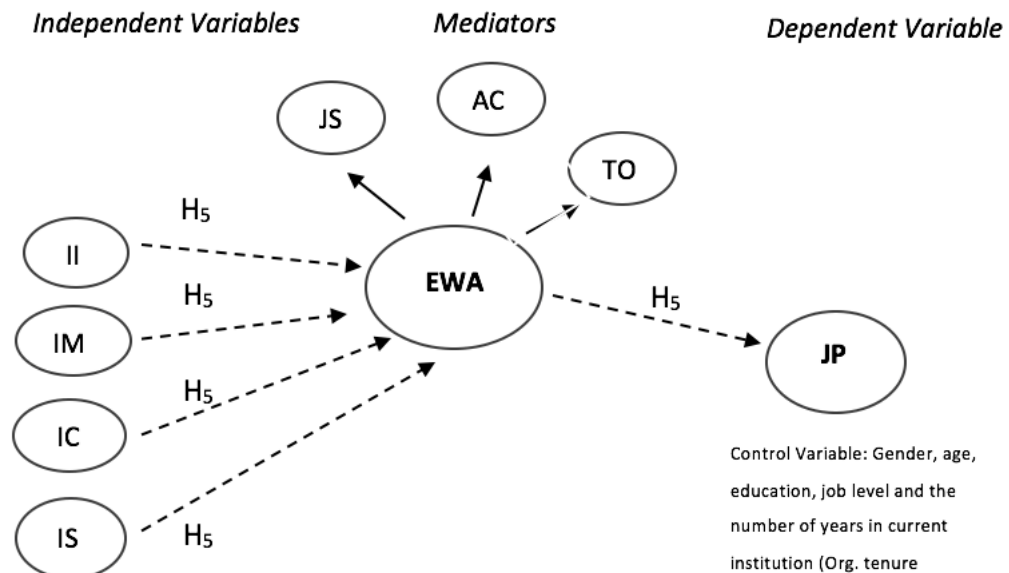
The research models in Figure 2.4 and Figure 2.5 provide the theoretical framework to operationalise the research hypotheses. This operationalisation of hypotheses continues in the entire research design section.



Notes: n = 210

II: Individualised Influence; IM: Inspirational Motivation; IC: Individualised Consideration; IS: Intellectual Stimulation; EWA: Employee Work Attitude; JS: Job Satisfaction; AC: Affective Commitment; TO: Turnover Intention and JP: Job Performance.

Figure 2.4 Research Theoretical Model (1) – Transformational Leadership



Notes: $n = 210$

II: Individualised Influence; IM: Inspirational Motivation; IC: Individualised Consideration; IS: Intellectual Stimulation; EWA: Employee Work Attitude; JS: Job Satisfaction; AC: Affective Commitment; TO: Turnover Intention and JP: Job Performance.

Figure 2.5 Research Theoretical Model (2) – Four Dimensions of Transformational Leadership

2.8 Research Context

In spite of the presence of an abundance of studies in the available literature in Transformational Leadership (Antonakis, 2001; Antonakis *et al.*, 2014), very few of these studies are conducted in the context of Kuwait (see Table 2.12). Here no attention is paid to the four sub-dimensions of TL and the followers' job performance as far as cultural factors are concerned.

The context of this research is Kuwait, a member of the GCC, where Islam is the predominant religion. This choice of context has a number of reasons. First, Kuwait holds approximately 10% of the world's oil reserve. Second, the Kuwaiti banking sector is considered the specific context of this study, being the country's largest sector on the Stock Exchange (IMF, 2012). Moreover, AlMalki (2012) recommends further research studies on TL in the banking sector.

More specifically, this study is undertaken in the banking sector of Kuwait for a number of reasons. For example, after the financial crisis in 2008, many banks struggled greatly in their financial and management performance. This was mainly due to the management performance which drove the regulators to strengthen their rules and pass new regulations to fill the gap in the legal platform. In fact, the losses in this sector reflect a key weakness in corporate governance and risk management which led to imposition of new regulations by the Central Bank of Kuwait. This makes the exploration of leadership important and interesting. Additionally, the banking

sector is a context in which no studies have been found, which results in little scientific understanding of the impact of a transforming role of leadership on the follower's job performance.

All these reasons make Kuwait a suitable context for this study.

2.9 Conclusion

In conclusion, this chapter discussed six main sections: (i) leadership and evolution, (ii) a broader systematic review of meta-analyses, (iii) a narrow systematic review of the Gulf States, (iv) literature gaps, (v) hypotheses, and (vi) research context. First, in the section on the evolution of leadership, a number of definitions of leadership were reviewed. It was apparent that the leadership theories revolve around the concept of 'influence' that would transform individuals and institutions.

The main leadership theories were also discussed in light of their strengths and weaknesses in section 2.2.2. This section of leadership focused specifically on the trait approach, behavioural approach (style), situational approach (contingency), relational approach, new leadership approach (TL), emerging leadership approaches, and the instrumental leadership approach (extension of TL).

Second, the broader systematic review was threefold: (i) inclusion and exclusion criteria, (ii) critical analyses of the systematic review, and (iii) conclusions of the review. From a total of 149 research studies identified in this thesis, it was found that only 28 papers met the systematic review criteria outlined in section 2.3.1. The broader systematic review (section 2.4) made a noteworthy contribution to the understanding of the broader literature concerning the transformational leadership (TL) and followers' performance. This was discussed in light of the other 10 dimensions found in the literature (i.e. performance, job satisfaction, culture, student, teams, productivity, personality, retention, innovation and romance). In summary, robust evidence has shown that TL is viewed as the most effective style among other leadership approaches particularly in enhancing the performance of corporates and individuals. This includes the attitudes and behaviours of subordinates (Brocato *et al.*, 2011; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Rockstuhl *et al.*, 2012; Takahashi *et al.*, 2012; Chiaburu *et al.*, 2014; Anseel *et al.*, 2015; Deinert *et al.*, 2015; Ng and Feldman, 2015; Sethibe and Steyn, 2015). However, the broader systematic review failed to determine which four sub-dimensions of TL were related to the effectiveness of TL. This is an essential element in understanding the effect of TL on any of the examined variables. Moreover, most of the literature

was based on self-report approaches. Despite the importance of commitment in relation to TL and subordinates' performance, the broader literature has failed to discuss it, apart from Jackson *et al.* (2013). As to the cultural aspect, the broader literature has failed to examine the impact of power distance between the east and west despite the apparent disparity (e.g., 90 in the Gulf States compared with 35 in the UK and 40 in the USA).

Third, through a closer view of the literature, this chapter discussed the findings of the narrow systematic review in section 2.5. The research conducted on the Gulf States studies found that only 19 studies met the criteria. The studies were critically analysed in terms of their methodology (i.e. design, sample, measurements) and patterns (i.e. objectivity of measures and results). Some conclusions were drawn concerning TL, EWA and JP.

Fourth, several research gaps were addressed based on the broader systematic reviews in section 2.4 (e.g. US, UK) and narrow reviews in section 2.5 (i.e. Gulf). For instance, no single study exists that examines the influence of the TL sub-dimensions on the performance of subordinates, despite the importance of TL in enhancing individual performance (Takahashi *et al.*, 2012) and the fact that it is subordinates' most preferred leadership style (Gasper, 1992). Furthermore, limited attention has been given to the influence of culture on the four sub-dimensions of TL and the dichotomy between collectivism and individualism in various societies. As to employee work attitude (EWA), only a few empirical studies investigate subordinates' performance and TL style. Finally, most studies in this area were not a dyadic relationship; only on a self-report approach.

Finally, six hypotheses were developed after which the research context was discussed. After reviewing and discussing the literature (i.e. broader and narrow systematic reviews), the following chapter discusses the research methodology.

Chapter 3: Methodology

3.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the literature review of the variables of the study in theoretical contexts was presented and discussed. A number of variables were created and selected as hypotheses to be tested. They include transformational leadership (TL) and job performance (JP) as well as employee work attitude (EWA) that includes job satisfaction (JS), affective commitment (AC), turnover intention (TO), and control variables. In order to process this thesis, this methodology chapter presents the philosophy behind the study, as well as the rationale for the methodology used. To this end, the general assumptions that underpin social science research and human behaviour are first explored. When the assumptions regarding the nature of social science research are well understood, then the required background for the choice of an appropriate method for data collection and analysis, as well as the right justification for the findings, is provided. The chapter then examines the research design, the conceptual research model, the research instrumentation, the data-gathering procedures, and the data analysis strategies.

3.2 Research Philosophies

As far as research philosophies are concerned, these encompass key assumptions with regard to how individuals view the world. In research philosophies, there are three main thinking approaches: epistemology, ontology, and axiology, all of which are discussed in the following sections (Saunders *et al.*, 2016).

3.2.1 Assumptions on the Nature of Social Science Research

Researchers' views of the world are determined by the ways their theoretical and philosophical assumptions are embraced (Hopper and Powell, 1985; Chua, 1986). In other words, the philosophical assumptions we hold determine the way we view the world. Thus, determining the assumptions that underpin the research is an important step toward determining consistency with such beliefs (Hopper and Powell, 1985). The research approaches are threefold: a) the ontological approach is "*a branch of philosophy which is related to the nature of social phenomena as entities*" (Saunders *et al.*, 2016 p. 128); b) the epistemological approach is concerned with "*what constitutes acceptable knowledge in a field of study*" (Saunders *et al.*, 2016p. 129); and c) the methodological approach is concerned with the technical tools used to acquire the knowledge (Corbetta, 2003). The methodological approach is considered to be a

practical approach for research, whereas the epistemological and ontological approaches are viewed as philosophical. The following sections discuss these research approaches.

3.2.2 Ontological Assumptions

Ontology is “*the researcher’s view of the nature of reality or being*” (Saunders *et al.*, 2016 p. 119). It is how the matter under consideration is viewed in light of the set of beliefs a person embraces (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). As ontology is related to the nature of reality (Saunders *et al.*, 2016), it is wise to understand the composition of reality. The nature of reality consists of two approaches: *nominalist* and *realist* (Burrell and Morgan, 1979). In the nominalist approach, it is assumed that reality is a contextually defined concept and subjectivity is specified by the observer. The nominalist approach revolves around emphasis on the meaning that the observer derives from the environment. Thus, in the nominalist approach, the existence of categories accrues through individuals’ arbitrary creation. Nevertheless, the realist approach assumes that reality is objective and exists independently of the social and human realities. Most importantly, realists believe in the existence of only one reality. It is assumed that reality occurs outside the individual’s mind (i.e. autonomous). In other words, it is independent of any interpretation (Corbetta, 2003). Hence, the natural existence of reality remains to be discovered (Della Porta and Keating, 2008).

In summary, “*Ontology is a branch of philosophy which is concerned with the nature of social phenomena as entities*” (Saunders *et al.*, 2016 p. 128).

3.2.3 Epistemological Assumptions

Epistemology is concerned with “*what constitutes acceptable knowledge in a field of study*” (Saunders *et al.*, 2016p. 129). In other words, it is related to the nature of knowledge as well as its limitations and sources (Klein, 2005) and its validity (*The Oxford companion to philosophy*, 2005). The epistemological approach involves the purpose of research in terms of whether the phenomenon is to be evaluated or explained, or whether the aim is to acquire a normative knowledge of the examined phenomenon. In other words, it revolves around *how* a phenomenon is perceived by us and the world. As positivists believe in the aspect of social concepts reality, ‘hard’ methods are considered to be their preference. However, non-positivists (i.e. interpretivists or nominalists) are inclined to use ‘soft’ methods in order to acquire knowledge. This is due to their belief in the subjectivity aspect of social concepts.

The following table presents the ontologies and epistemologies in social science.

Table 3.1 Epistemologies and ontologies in social science

Ontology of social science	Realism	Relativism	Nominalism
Facts	Solid, however cannot be reached directly.	Differs based on various perspectives of observer	All human creations
Truth	Needs predictions or verification.	Is set through consensus amongst various views.	Is based on who establishes it.
Epistemology (social science)	Positivism	Relativism	Social constructionism

Source: (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2012)

3.2.3.1 Positivists

Positivism “relates to the philosophical stance of the natural scientist. This entails working with an observable social reality and the end product can be law-like generalisations similar to those in the physical and natural sciences” (Saunders *et al.*, 2016 p. 129). Positivists perceive a phenomenon as a social reality that is structured and ordered. Thus, the reality from their perspective is to be described, discovered, and analysed (Della Porta and Keating, 2008). The positivistic philosophy assumes that a phenomenon can be studied using a neutral approach. In other words, a phenomenon, in their view, can be studied independently, without the researcher’s influence. Positivists believe that, through research, relationships between social variables can be discovered. Hence, the positivist approach lends itself to this research due to its ‘hard’ methods of obtaining empirical and unambiguous data. Figure 3.1 presents the philosophical assumptions of positivism.

-
- **Causality:** The identification of fundamental laws and causal explanations should be the aim of social sciences. This is in order to illustrate social behaviour regularities of individuals.
-
- **Cross-sectional analysis:** The comparison of a variation cross samples can simply identify the regularities.
-
- **Deduction and hypothesis:** In order to drive science forward, the fundamental laws are to be hypothesised after which one could deduct what type of observation will illustrate the falsity or truth of such hypotheses.
-
- **Generalisation:** The move from specific to general requires sufficient random sample size. From which inferences can be drawn among the broader population.
-
- **Independence:** The independency from the observers is a key matter.
-
- **Operationalisation:** The good definition of concepts make the facts measured quantitatively.
-
- **Reductionism:** The reduction of the problems into small components will make them better understood.
-
- **Value-freedom:** The objectivity of the criteria can be set by the options of *how* and *what* to study rather than by the personal interests and beliefs of individuals.
-

Figure 3.1 Philosophical assumptions of positivism

Source: (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2012)

3.2.3.2 Interpretivists

As an epistemology, interpretivism “*advocates that it is necessary for the researcher to understand the differences between humans in our role as social actors*” (Saunders *et al.*, 2016 p. 129). Interpretivism, which originated from social constructionism, assumes that classifications are not determined by how the world is; however, such classifications are simply preferred approaches of representing the world (Hacking, 1999). It is necessary for the researcher, in the interpretivist view, to play the role of ‘social actor’ among humans (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, the researcher is expected to explore what motivates individuals’ behaviours rather than exploring the world laws that are external to them (Della Porta and Keating, 2008). Hence, the meaning of a phenomenon and its depth is what drives interpretivists, rather than the breadth of its variables. Social science is an interpretive science (i.e. seeking meaning) rather than experimental (Geertz, 1973). Accordingly, interpretivists lean toward ‘soft’ approaches that are considered to be subjective by nature. These methods allow for contingencies (Della Porta and Keating, 2008) and ambiguities (Saunders *et al.*, 2016).

3.2.4 Methodological Approaches

In their quest for knowledge, researchers are expected to select an appropriate methodological approach. Such selection is influenced by two assumptions (i.e. ontological and epistemological) to underpin the research objectives. The interpretivist's epistemological approach subscribes to the nominalist's ontological assumptions. On the other hand, the positivist's epistemological approach leans toward the realist's ontological assumptions. As discussed in section 3.2.3.2, interpretivists are concerned with seeking the meaning originating from the cases whereas positivists, as discussed in section 3.2.3.1, are interested in the relationships among the variables. The researcher's choices among the methodological approaches are determined by the existing differences between interpretivist and positivist objectives. Interpretivists, for instance, adopt an idiographic methodology (in-depth interviews, etc.) in which the findings may not be generalised among a larger population while positivists subscribe to a nomothetic methodology, in which the research data is collected from a wide number of participants through questionnaires, which allows the findings to be generalised to a wider population.

The following discussion addresses positivism and social constructionism according to Easterby-Smith *et al.* (2012). For example, in social constructionism, the observer is part of the examined phenomena, human interest is the key driver of science, and the researchers normally seek to increase their general understanding of the case examined. Moreover, in social constructionism, the units of analysis could involve some complexity due to the nature of examining the phenomenon as a whole situation after which the generalisation occurs via theoretical abstraction. As to the concepts, they are generally inclusive of stakeholders' perspectives whereas the sampling in social constructionism entails a small number of cases selected for particular reasons. On the other hand, in the positivism approach, the observer of the phenomenon must be independent, human interest is irrelevant, and the researchers demonstrate causality. Furthermore, in positivism, the units of analysis are expected to be reduced to the simplest terms after which the generalisation happens in a statistical probability fashion. Unlike social constructionism, the positivism's concepts are expected to be defined prior to being measured whereas the sampling is quite large in sizes and is randomly chosen. This makes positivism the proper choice for this thesis.

3.2.5 Choices of Current Study

As this thesis is involved in testing existing theories, through which a number of hypotheses are tested in an attempt to understand the research variables, this research subscribes to the positivistic research design as opposed to ideographic or ethnographic (Glisson and James, 2002)

design. As to the research variables, they are transformational leadership, employee work attitude (i.e. job satisfaction, turnover intention, and affective commitment), and job performance. As the data were collected from various geographical areas, surveys (quantitative method) were utilised as the questionnaire is the most appropriate tool in this context (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 2008). The survey approach allows a snapshot in time of the phenomenon, unlike longitudinal studies, which are considered to be longer in terms of the examination of the studied phenomenon (Cavana *et al.*, 2001; Saunders *et al.*, 2016). It is apparent that the cross-sectional survey is a viable option as the findings of this thesis can be generalised to the population in Kuwait, as well as alleviating time and financial concerns. Further information on the cross-sectional option is highlighted below.

3.2.6 Cross-sectional Surveys

Cross-sectional surveys tend to provide a 'snapshot' of a phenomenon at a particular time (Lewis-Beck *et al.*, 2003; Saunders *et al.*, 2016). As with any statistical approach, the cross-sectional survey has a number of advantages and disadvantages. One obvious advantage is that it is appropriate choice for studying the prevalence of behaviours in a population (Sedgwick, 2014). In addition, a moderately appropriate level of confidentiality and anonymity as well as the fact that it normally enjoys a high response rate in comparison with other approaches are other advantages. Furthermore, the data are attained over a shorter time period than other statistical approaches and conclusions can be drawn rapidly. Publication of findings can also be done in a shorter time period. However, a major limitation of the cross-sectional approach is that the data collected are unduly susceptible to the time constraints (Breakwell *et al.*, 1999).

3.2.7 Adapted Methodological Approach

With regards to the aforementioned discussion, it is apparent that a number of drawbacks and strengths exist among the qualitative and quantitative methods. However, based on this dissertation's purpose and research questions, the quantitative methodology is believed to be the appropriate option for this research.

3.3 Research Design

Research design is an essential element of any intended research study. The role of research design is start with a research question and its objectives and develop them into a research project with its strategies, choices and time horizons (Lewis-Beck *et al.*, 2003).

Research design is a framework or a road map for the researcher to collect his or her data and analyse them. Therefore, this section provides the research design (i.e. the framework) of this study. See Figure 1, which presents a research design overview and the research model.

3.3.1 Research questions

1. To what extent does the TL affect followers' job performance?
2. To what extent do the four sub-dimensions of TL affect followers' job performance?
3. To what extent do the four sub-dimensions of TL affect employee work attitude (EWA), including job satisfaction (JS), turnover intention (TO), and affective commitment (AC)?

3.3.2 Research Variables

The five variables of this research – transformational leadership (TL), turnover intention, job satisfaction, affective commitment, and job performance – are incorporated as part of the research design. The major interest of the research lies in the impact of the four components of TL in the Gulf States' context on job performance when mediated by turnover intention, job satisfaction, and affective commitment.

Transformational Leadership (TL) 4 Components (Independent Variable)

The reason behind using TL components is due to fact that, according to the systematic review of this study, 59% of the Gulf States' research (10 out of 17 quantitative studies) did not use four individual dimensions/ factors of the transformational leadership (MLQ); which are Idealised Influence, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation and Individualised Consideration. Those that did use MLQ only did so partially, meaning they have used one or two components of TL. The problem here is the fact that not using the full MLQ dimensions could hide cultural differences which were apparent in a number of the individual factors of the MLQ, discussed earlier. For instance, there is obviously high Idealised Influence (Charisma) in the Gulf region or Middle East in comparison with the western societies. One explanation was that the Gulf States demonstrate a very high power of distance in the 90s, in comparison with 35 and 40 for the UK and the US, respectively (Hofstede, 2016).

Other interesting findings were shown in Bealer and Bhanugopan (2014). They revealed that leaders in the UAE seem to be less transformational and less transactional but more passive-avoidant than their counterparts in the USA and Europe. These results were in line with prior studies (Caligiuri 2006; Beechler and Javidan 2007; Caligiuri and Tarique 2009; Story 2011; Zander

Chapter 3 Methodology

et al., 2011) in portraying an association between below-average transformational leadership and below-average satisfaction with supervisor and effectiveness. Furthermore, significantly higher management by exception - active (MBEA) were found in the UAE than in the USA. The UAE's level of MBEA, however, was significantly lower than in Europe.

These interesting findings, and others, give rise to the following questions: Does the implementation of MLQ produce different results in non-western countries? Does the implementation MLQ as an objective tool (peer perception) produce different results in Kuwait? Could paternalistic leadership, collectivism or nepotism be reasons that would give different results in Kuwait than other regions when associated with transformational leadership? What about the phenomenon of *Wasta* or social network (Abalkhail and Allan, 2016)? Could the negative practice of "*Wasta*" in the Gulf States affect MLQ results or subordinates' perceptions of their leaders, especially the results of the studies which used subjective measures such as self-reporting, as there is a possibility that leaders who were hired through *Wasta* may tend to overestimate themselves? Since *Wasta* is a significant force in the decision-making process of the Arab region (Abalkhail and Allan, 2016), is this worth considering when studying MLQ in the Gulf region? On the other hand, does *Wasta* have a positive effect on individuals' perceptions or performance, as per Tlaiss and Kauser (2011)?

Other Variables (Dependent Variables)

This study incorporates three dependent variables which are job satisfaction, affective commitment and turnover intention for a number of reasons; based on the previous literature. For instance, there are well-established empirical links between TL and commitments and job satisfaction, which are work-related behaviours and attitudes (Avolio, Bass *et al.*, 2004). Moreover, a number of meta-analytic research studies as well as empirical studies reported that staff who are working with a TL leader are found to be more, satisfied, motivated, and committed to their organizations, and demonstrate fewer withdrawal behaviours (Barling *et al.*, 1996; Bono and Judge, 2003; Walumbwa and Lawler, 2003; Walumbwa *et al.*, 2004).

Control variables

The subordinates' nationality, length or relationship with their managers, bank tenure, age, and education level were controlled to minimise the potential confounding effects on the actual relationships proposed in this research.

In light of the above, the following discussions address the data collection, data analysis, research framework, and empirical research model.

3.3.3 Data Collection

The data collection process is achieved by all-population sampling. Further descriptions of the details of the sampling are addressed at the end of the chapter.

3.3.4 Data Analysis (processing)

Several analytical tools are used in the process of data analysis. The following are some of the analyses used in the study. For demographics and variables, descriptive analysis was used. In the discussion of demographics information, percentages were employed, which are displayed in graphs and charts. The statements obtained from the 5-point Likert scale were studied using frequency, percentage, mean, median and standard deviation, which are presented in tables. Linear regression, however, assists with understanding the significance of independent variables to the dependent ones. The correctness, or otherwise, of the hypotheses was tested based on the yielded results. The relationship between two variables was understood by cross-tabulation analysis, which was carried out between demographic variables in this study. Moreover, before the analyses of the studied variables were conducted, the reliability analysis through Cronbach's Alpha was carried out. A calculation for the reliability for each variable and the total data set was presented. The relationship of one variable with other variables can be understood by correlation analysis. An initial study of the significance between variables can help understand the correlation matrix. The Independent Sample T-Test and one-way ANOVA were employed. These analytical tools were used to test the impact of demographic variables on studied variables. The results will point to the possibility of the demographics being a determining factor in leadership styles or TL.

This study also used structural equation modelling (SEM), validity and linear regression.

3.3.5 The Research Framework

Figures 2.4 and 2.5 illustrate the research framework, which is an essential element of the research design. The framework is an important component as it is where hypotheses are operationalised in preparation for data collection and analysis. Hypotheses testing took place in this part of the thesis.

3.3.6 The Empirical Research Model

Based on the literature review chapter, four variables/mediators that were expected to have a certain impact on transformational leadership (TL) were identified. The Research Model in Figure 2.4 depicts the dependent variable which is job performance, whereas the independent variable

Chapter 3 Methodology

is the TL (four components) and the mediators are employee work attitude (EWA), turnover intention, job satisfaction, and affective commitment; along with control variables (such as gender, age, education, job level and the number of years in current institution (Org. tenure).

In addition, Figure 2.5 illustrates the relationship between the independent variable (TL) and the dependent variable (JS) which are mediated by the four variables. This clearly represents a direct relationship between certain variables and indirect relationships among others.

Referring to the research hypothesis and the arguments in the literature review, it is expected that a number of relationships could exist among the study variables. For instance, TL is expected to have a direct impact on job performance when mediated by a number of variables while control variables are expected to have some impact on TL.

The next section, instrumentation, discusses the appropriate choice of questionnaires for the research.

3.4 Instrumentation

As the research contains a number of variables, it was decided that constructing a tailored measuring instrument would not be wise. Due to potential costs, time constraints and lack of validity and reliability, building the new instruments of this research would be somewhat challenging. Moreover, certain available research instruments are adopted for the purposes of this study.

This research discussed a number of measurement scales which are transformational leadership (TL), job satisfaction (JS), affective commitment (AC), turnover intention (TO) and control variables. The aim of using these measurements is to consider the impact of TL's four components on job performance when mediated by job satisfaction (JS), affective commitment (AC) and turnover intention (TO). The research model in Figure 2.5 depicts clearly the likely relationships between the examined variables.

3.4.1 Independent Variable – Transformational Leadership

There are a number of rational points for using Transformational Leadership of the MLQ (independent variable), as an instrument developed by Bass and Avolio (2004) for the Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM). First, the MLQ is a validated measure as well as being the most popular measure for transformational leadership (Northouse, 2013).

Second, it was found that MLQ is widely used in a number of western studies such as Avolio *et al.* (1999), Bass and Avolio (1995; 1997; 2004) and Bogler *et al.* (2013). Moreover, it was found in a number of Gulf States studies such as Al-Mailam (2004), Jabnoun and AL Rasasi (2005), Suliman (2009), Abualrub and Alghamdi (2012), Behery *et al.* (2012), Bealer and Bhanugopan (2013), Suliman and Al Obaidli (2013), Nelson and Shraim, (2014) and Jabeen *et al.* (2015), as well as the Middle East in general such in as Shahin and Wright (2004) whose context of study was Egypt. This obviously shows that MLQ was validated in a number of Arab states.

Third, the MLQ was selected for this study as it was noticed that none of the studies implemented the TL in the banking sector in Kuwait, given that its leaders manage an enormous amount of money in comparison to the country's GDP. Moreover, a number of studies, one of which is Walumbwa *et al.* (2005), recommended conducting studies on TL in non-western countries.

This research used 20 TL items of Bass and Avolio's (2004) instrument. The motivation of using this instrument is because it is a valid and reliable replication of the original authors, Bass and Avolio's (2004). Furthermore, the instrument has been well established in the literature (Bass and Avolio, 1995; 1997; Avolio *et al.* 1999; Al-Mailam, 2004; Avolio, 2004; Jabnoun and AL Rasasi, 2005; Suliman, 2009; Abualrub and Alghamdi, 2012; Behery *et al.*, 2012; Bealer and Bhanugopan, 2013; Bogler *et al.*, 2013; Suliman and Al Obaidli, 2013; Nelson and Shraim, 2014; Jabeen *et al.*, 2015).

The following are examples of certain items used in the TL scale: "Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems", "Talks about his/her most important values and beliefs", "Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose", and "Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions". A 5-point Likert scale was used in order to measure the degree of the participants' responses to each item. Number 5 indicates "frequently, if not always" and 1 indicates "not at all" while 2 indicates "once in a while". All the items of Bass and Avolio (2004) which are used are exhibited in Appendix B.

3.4.2 Dependent variable – Job Performance

The dependent variable is job performance (JP). There are a number of rationales behind using job performance as specified by Williams and Anderson (1991) as a dependent variable: First, it is a validated measure; second, it was used in a number of western contexts but among the least researched in the Gulf States; and third, Job Performance was chosen because it was noticed that none of the studies investigated the TL and Job Performance in the banking sector in Kuwait and, therefore, it would be a good idea to see how this can have an impact. Moreover, this study is

Chapter 3 Methodology

exploring job performance as there is limited research of this variable in the banking sector in Kuwait.

This thesis is examining this gap in the literature by comparing the impact of TL on job performance when mediated by certain mediators which will be discussed in the following pages.

This research uses the seven items of Williams and Anderson (1991). The motivation for using this instrument is because it is a valid and a reliable construction of the original authors; Williams and Anderson (1991). Furthermore, the instrument has been well established in the literature. The following are examples of some of the items used in the Job Satisfaction scale: "Adequately completes assigned duties", "Performs tasks that are expected of him/her", "Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation", and "Fails to perform essential duties". A 5-point Likert scale was used in order to measure the degree of the participant responses to each item. Number 1 indicates "strongly disagree", 2 indicates "disagree", 3 indicates "neither disagree nor agree", 4 indicates "agree" and 5 indicates "strongly agree". All the items of Williams and Anderson (1991), which will be used, are exhibited in Appendix B.

The above background has justified the selection of Job Performance for this thesis. This is because the current research examines the impact of TL on Job Performance.

3.4.3 Mediator Variables – Employee Work Attitude (EWA)

This research uses EWA as a mediator that consists of three components (i.e. JS, AC and TO). The following sections discuss the variables.

3.4.3.1 EWA - Job Satisfaction

There are a number of rationales behind using Job Satisfaction of Schreisheim and Tsui (1980) as a mediator variable: First, it is a validated measure; second, it was used in a number of western contexts but among the least researched in the Gulf States; and third, job satisfaction was chosen because it was noticed that none of the studies conducted about TL in the banking sector in Kuwait was associated with job satisfaction. This is particularly important as the sector suffered a great deal after the world financial crisis in 2008, which affected the competition and a great number of employees quit their jobs. It is unclear whether it was due to the level of job satisfaction or leadership style.

Moreover, job satisfaction is a construct that has a variety of items which investigate it. The scale has one question which measures the degree of satisfaction with work, pay, supervision, co-workers and promotion chances. This scale is particularly important to this study due to the fact

that a number of these dimensions are greatly impacted by leader behaviour. Furthermore, this study explores job satisfaction as it is considered to be one area of employee attitudes which are work-related (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2005a). Despite the great challenges faced by most organisations today, including a continued globalisation of markets, uncertain economy, rapidly advancing technology and hostile takeovers (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2005b), there remains a dearth of research of TL, job satisfaction and affective commitment into the banking sector in Kuwait. This thesis examines this gap in the literature by comparing the impact of TL on job satisfaction and affective commitment.

This research adopts six items of Schreisheim and Tsui (1980). These items were well established and validated in the literature (See Tsui *et al.*, 1992). The following are examples of some of the items used in the job satisfaction scale: “How satisfied are you with the nature of the work you perform?”, “How satisfied are you with the person who supervises you-your organisational superior?”, “How satisfied are you with your relations with others in the organisation with whom you work – your co-workers or peers?”, “How satisfied are you with the pay you receive for your job?”, and “Considering everything, how satisfied are you with your current job situation”? A 5-point Likert scale was used to measure the degree of the participants’ responses to each item. Number 1 indicates “very dissatisfied”, 2 indicates “dissatisfied”, 3 indicates “unsure”, 4 indicates “satisfied”, and 5 indicates “very satisfied”. All the items of Schreisheim and Tsui (1980), which are used, are exhibited in Appendix B.

The above background has justified the selection of job satisfaction for this thesis. This is because the current research examines the impact of TL on Job Performance mediated by Job Satisfaction.

3.4.3.2 EWA - Affective Commitment

There are a number of reasons for choosing the Affective Commitment (AC) of Meyer *et al.* (1993), as a mediator variable: First, it is a validated measure; second, it was used and validated in a number of western contexts but was among the least researched in the Gulf States, according to the systematic review of this study; and third, affective commitment was chosen because it was noticed that none of the studies were conducted on the TL in the banking sector in Kuwait. This is particularly important in the sector as the number of the banks increased remarkably since 2007 from approximately 11 banks in 2007 to 23 in January 2017. This obviously led to the fact that employee numbers increased greatly which makes it interesting to explore whether affective commitment has an effect in this stage or not. Another element which is still unclear is whether employee numbers are increasing due to the leadership behaviour, or something else. Moreover, this study explore commitment as it is considered to be one of the work-related attitudes (Walumbwa *et al.*, 2005a). Walumbwa *et al.* (2005b) also found in their studies conducted in the

financial firms of the US and Kenya (non-western) that TL had greatly and positively impacted commitment in both cultures. The question that lends itself fitfully to investigation is whether this would be the case in the Gulf States.

Affective commitment of Meyer *et al.* (1993) has seven items which are investigated in this thesis. This scale has been used and deemed reliable in a number of studies. Examples of the questions or items are: "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization", "I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own", "I do not feel like 'part of the family' at my organisation", "This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me", and "I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation". This part uses a 7-point Likert scale with number 1 indicating "strongly disagree", 2 "moderately disagree", 3 "slightly disagree", 4 "neither disagree nor agree", 5 "slightly agree", 6 "moderately agree", and 7 "strongly agree".

3.4.3.3 EWA - Turnover Intention

As for the Turnover Intention of Moreno-Jimenez *et al.* (2006), four items are examined in this research; the motivation for the choice of these four items is due to their validation, reliability and establishment in the literature. Examples of these items are: "I plan to leave the bank as soon as possible", "Under no circumstances will I voluntarily leave the bank", "I would be reluctant to leave the bank", and "I plan to stay in the bank as long as possible". This part w uses a 5-point scale, with 5 indicating "strongly agree" and 1 "strongly disagree".

3.4.4 Control Variables

This study examines the control variables such as gender, age, education, job level and the number of years in current institution (Org. tenure). These demographic variables have been identified, in available literature, as potential predictors of EWA, i.e. job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990), as well as leadership outcomes (Walumbwa, Wu and Ojode, 2004). For instance, research evidence points to the likelihood of emotional attachment to any given organisation in the case of more senior in terms of age, staff and those with the organisation for longer periods of time (Riordan, Griffith and Weatherly, 2003). These variables are measured and used as controls, in this thesis which is conducted in the context of Kuwait.

3.4.5 Questionnaires Structure

The thesis used three questionnaires which are designed to answer the research questions. Table 3.4 shows the structure of “Leader Form 1” which consists of three parts, two of which are leaders self-reporting their TL and one is leaders peer-reporting their subordinates’ Job Performance. Table 3.5 depicts the structure of “Subordinate Form 1” where subordinates report their leaders’ TL style. Table 3.6 illustrates the structure of “Subordinate Form 2” which consists of three self-report parts in which subordinates self-report their Job Satisfaction, Turnover Intention and Affective Commitment. The Subordinate Form 1 and Subordinate Form 2 were administered at different times in the data collection process held in Kuwait.

Table 3.2 Structure of “Leader Form 1” - leaders self-reporting their TL and Peer-reporting Their Subordinates’ Job Performance

Part	Domain	Instrument and author/s	Description (items)	Items
1.	Demographics	Developed by the researcher	Fill in the blank: Nationality Dichotomous: gender Open-ended choice: nationality Multiple choice: Education & age	
			Total questions	5
2.	Work Characteristic	Developed by the researcher	Fill in the blank: -years of working experience in the bank -length of working with current manager/leader	
			Total questions	2
3.	Transformational Leadership	Leadership Style Questionnaire	5-point rating scale Transformational L.*	
			-(II)A	4
		MLQ Bass and Avolio (2004)	-(II)B	4
			-(IM)	4
			-IS	4
			-IC	4
			Total	20
4.	Job Performance	Job Performance Williams and Anderson (1991)	7-point rating scale	
			Total	7
TOTAL				34

Chapter 3 Methodology

Table Key: Idealised Influence (Attributes) (II A), Idealised Influence (Behaviours) (II B), Inspirational Motivation (IM), Intellectual Stimulation (IS), and Individual Consideration (IC).

Table 3.3 Structure of “Subordinate Form 1” - Subordinates report their leaders’ TL Style

Part	Domain	Instrument and author/s	Description (items)	Items
1.	Demographics	Developed by the researcher	Fill in the blank: Nationality Dichotomous: Gender Open-ended choice: nationality Multiple choice: Education & age Total questions	5
2.	Work Characteristic	Developed by the researcher	Fill in the blank: -years of working experience in the bank -length of working with current manager/leader Total questions	2
3.	Transformational Leadership	Leadership Style Questionnaire	5-point rating scale Transformational L.*	
			-(II)A	4
		MLQ	-(II)B	4
		Bass and Avolio (2004)	-(IM)	4
			-IS	4
			-IC	4
			Total	20
TOTAL				27

Table Key: Idealised Influence (Attributes) (II A), Idealised Influence (Behaviours) (II B), Inspirational Motivation (IM), Intellectual Stimulation (IS), and Individual Consideration (IC).

Table 3.4 Structure of “Subordinate Form 2” - Self-report Employee Work Attitude (EWA)

Part	Domain	Instrument and author/s	Description (items)	Items
1.	Demographics	Developed by the researcher	Fill in the blank: Nationality Dichotomous: Gender Open-ended choice: nationality Multiple choice: Education & age Total questions	5
2.	Work Characteristic	Developed by the researcher	Fill in the blank: -years of working experience in the bank -length of working with current manager/leader Total questions	2
4.	Employee Work Attitude (EWA) Job satisfaction	Job Performance of Williams and Anderson (1991)	5-point Likert rating scale Total number of items	6
5.	Employee Work Attitude (EWA) Turnover Intention	Moreno-Jimenez et al. (2006)	4-point scale Total number of items	4
5.	Employee Work Attitude (EWA) Affective Commitment	Meyer, Allen and Smith (1993)	7-point scale Total number of items	6
TOTAL				23

3.4.6 The Pilot

As all the instruments used in this research were validated and since the study respondents were from different backgrounds, a pilot survey was designed and launched to establish, at this early stage, the clarity of subjects of certain phrases and sentence. Thus, this research piloted a study among a group of people from similar backgrounds and sector (banking). Some translational and grammatical changes were applied. This is to ensure that the questionnaires were clearly understood by the participants. The number of participants was 52. This exceeds the minimum required sample size of 10 according to Van Teijlingen *et al.* (2001).

Although English was the primary spoken language in the banking sector of Kuwait, there was still a need to provide an Arabic version as the research was conducted in the Middle East context. Thus, a professional translation was conducted for the questionnaires (forms) of leaders and followers. The questionnaires are “Leader Form 1” in which leaders self-report their TL style and peer-report their subordinates’ job performance, “Subordinate Form 1” in which followers report their direct superiors’ TL style, and “Subordinate Form 2” in which subordinates self-report their employee work attitude (EWA). To ensure the correctness of the wording, the questions, covering letter and instructions were translated by an English-Arabic specialist translator. Also, to ensure the best accuracy and equivalency of measurements, the Arabic questions were back-translated into English (Brislin, 1973; Brislin, 1980) by the same specialist translator to ensure that no disparities in meaning existed in comparison with the original questions.

The Arabic survey was carefully examined by a panel of academics to assure the clarity of comprehension. Their minor comments were strictly translational. Consequently, the few suggestions were added to the translated questionnaires, after which the questionnaires were tested to ensure their validity for the data collection phase.

Pilot testing of the data collection tool showed evidence of construct validity and reliability, confirming the validity of the survey for use in Kuwait’s banking sector. In summary, the questionnaires of leaders and subordinates were valid for the data collection process.

The following section discusses the research sampling strategy employed.

3.5 Sampling

Selecting the appropriate research sample is of great importance. To this end, a discussion of sample size, location and characteristics is offered below. It is crucial to identify and approach the appropriate population, which in this case are the banks’ employees in Kuwait. A total number of 14,000 employees were recorded as a population. Consequently, according to Saunders *et al.* (2016), the sample size of a population between 100,000 and 1,000,000 can be between 383 and 384 with a margin of error of 5% at the 95% confidence level. This, therefore, would yield approximately 384 surveys. However, slightly more than this range was distributed due to the reason mentioned below in the sample size section. This study managed to survey 420 participants (210 pairs of managers and employees).

3.5.1 Location

The sample population in this research is the employees of the banking sector in Kuwait. It would be difficult to contact all the employees; however, efforts were made to contact all the banks in Kuwait. The HR managers and the department heads were contacted first and an informal discussion was carried out to state the need for and importance of the survey.

3.5.2 Sample Size

The researcher distributed a total of 850 questionnaires across 23 banks in Kuwait (12 International Banks and 11 Local). These questionnaires were sent to the subordinates/raters who are basically employees who are reporting themselves and reporting their direct managers, and vice versa, where leaders also will be reporting themselves and their subordinates. This means that there were 210 managers and 210 leaders who received the questionnaires (total pairs of 420). The researcher obtained a response rate of at 50% of the distributed questionnaires.

It is worth mentioning that the information-sharing was on a personal basis as getting the different employees together would be difficult. In addition to stating the need for this research, the managers' permission to contact the employees for survey was also sought. Email addresses of the employees to which the web survey form was sent were also collected from the managers. In brief, the participants were provided an overview of the research and assured of confidentiality of the information they provided. Permission had to be sought from their employees to take part in the survey and contact details of the employees to which the surveys can be emailed were collected.

Table 3.5 below shows the names of local and international banks in Kuwait included in the sample (all population).

Table 3.5 Local and international banks in Kuwait

	Bank	Origin
1	National Bank of Kuwait	Local
2	Commercial Bank of Kuwait	Local
3	Gulf Bank	Local
4	Al Ahli Bank of Kuwait	Local
5	Al Ahli United Bank (*)	Local
6	Burgan Bank (K.S.C)	Local
7	Kuwait International Bank (*)	Local
8	The Industrial Bank of Kuwait	Local
9	Kuwait Finance House (*)	Local
10	Boubyan Bank (*)	Local
11	Warba Bank (*)	Local
12	Bank of Bahrain and Kuwait - Kuwait Branch	Foreign

13	BNP PARIBAS - Kuwait Branch	Foreign
14	HSBC Bank Middle East Limited - Kuwait Branch	Foreign
15	National Bank of Abu Dhabi - Kuwait Branch	Foreign
16	Citibank - Kuwait Branch	Foreign
17	Qatar National Bank - Kuwait Branch	Foreign
18	Doha Bank - Kuwait Branch	Foreign
19	Mashreq Bank - Kuwait Branch	Foreign
20	Al-Rajhi Banking & Investment Corporation (Al-Rajhi Bank) - Kuwait Branch (*)	Foreign
21	Bank Muscat - Kuwait Branch	Foreign
22	Union National Bank - Kuwait Branch	Foreign
23	Industrial and Commercial Bank of China Limited - Kuwait Branch	Foreign

(*) According to its articles of association, the bank conducts its business in accordance with Islamic Sharia. *Source: Central Bank of Kuwait (CBK, 2018)*

3.5.3 Sample Characteristics

The sample's biographical data include gender, age, education, job level and the number of years in current institution (Org. tenure). The statistical details of these biographical variables are provided in the Results Chapter. The next section provides information on the instruments used to collect the primary data.

3.6 Procedure

The three main stages of pre-data collection, data collection and post-data collection (i.e. data treatment) are regarded as the required procedure for conducting this research study.

3.6.1 Data Collection

The data for this thesis were collected from all banks in Kuwait; 23 registered local and international banks. There were two types of participant. First, there are 210 employees who report directly to 210 managers. Second, there are 210 managers who supervise 210 subordinates. This means that, in this study, the aim was to distribute questionnaires to 210 pairs of leaders and subordinates. For instance, the leaders were requested to self-report their Transformational Leadership style along and to peer-report their subordinates' Job Performance.

Subordinates were asked to self-report their Transformational Leadership style. In the second questionnaire, the subordinates were requested to self-report their Job Satisfaction, Turnover Intention and Affective Commitment.

The General Manager/CEO, Chairman, or the HR Manager was contacted to obtain their permission for employees to participate in this research. Once the permission was granted, all

participants (managers and subordinates) were assured that their collected data will be kept strictly confidential as their names will be anonymous and their completed questionnaires will be collected in sealed envelopes due to confidentiality reasons. Moreover, the researcher assured them that the completion of the questionnaire was completely voluntary. Furthermore, if requested by the bank, only aggregated data results would be reported to the concerned institution.

3.6.2 Questionnaires Procedure

As to the procedure, the questionnaires are designed as a self-administered tool. Self-administered questionnaires do not require researcher intervention or interaction with the respondent (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). The questionnaire is designed in such a way that the respondents can easily understand it and answer it. In this research, the questionnaire is primary quantitative data collection tool and is divided into three main sections.

The first section is the covering letter that introduces the need for the research, and the researcher. One of the most important pieces of information in the covering letter is assurance of confidentiality. The letter clearly indicates safeguarding the confidentiality and anonymity of the respondent.

The second section of the questionnaire is the demographic details of the respondent. Information about personal details of respondents is not collected. The proposed demographic variables are age, gender, nationality, education level and organisational turnover. These variables provide an overview on the respondents. In addition to this, job position, department where the respondent is currently assigned, number of years in the current department and number of years in the organisation are collected. The information collected here provides an understanding on the relationship of the employee with the organisation and the leaders. All of these variables are designed using closed-ended and multiple options of which the respondents need to select only one option.

The third section covers the studied variables. The variables studied are transformational leadership, turnover intention, job satisfaction, affective commitment, and control variables; based on the literature review.

This is the basic structure and design of the questionnaire. The pilot of the above proposed questionnaire is discussed.

3.6.3 Data Analysis

This research used IBM Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) which is compatible with SPSS in order to analyse the collected data. As they are essential parts of the data analysis, data cleaning, descriptive statistics, *t* tests, correlations, structural equation modelling and frequencies were applied in order to analyse the collected data.

3.6.3.1 Data Cleaning

All responses of the collected questionnaires were carefully examined by the researcher. Out of 427 questionnaires seven were found to contain a big number of unanswered items. Therefore, the seven forms were discarded. As the disregarded seven questionnaires, which represent 1.66% of the returned batch of questionnaires, had answers that represent 15% of the questions, the researcher decided to omit them (George and Mallery, 2016). Therefore, 420 of the received questionnaires were retained for analysis. A number of the received questionnaires showed several unanswered items. However, such omissions were adjudged not to poorly affect the research outcomes (George and Mallery, 2016). The researcher ensured that a very few missing values were replaced with the mean scores of the various items/questions. All outliers were removed from the research data as the test of normality was conducted. The extreme values of kurtosis and skewness were also excluded. As the skewness and kurtosis values between ± 1.0 are considered to be excellent as per George and Mallery (2016), and the values between ± 2.0 are also considered to be acceptable for most of the reasons addressed above, therefore, the cut-off point of this research was in the range of ± 1.5 for skewness and kurtosis. The factor analysis and the tests of reliability for the used measurements were conducted for the main variables of the thesis.

3.6.3.2 Descriptive Statistics

A descriptive analysis was conducted in order to provide the reader with a general sense of the research data and to achieve the required data analyses. For instance, the descriptive statistics provide information about the measures of central tendency such as the median, mean and mode. Moreover, variance and standard deviation are also conducted. All the above is aimed to provide a decent idea about the research data.

3.6.3.3 Correlations

In order to examine the relationship among the variables, bivariate correlations were undertaken.

3.6.3.4 Means / t Tests

A *t* test was undertaken to determine whether there were significant differences among the leaders' and subordinates' data with respect to the study variables of transformational leadership and EWA. In addition, the biographical data such as age, gender and education, among others were analysed.

3.6.3.5 Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was conducted to measure the research model validity. Part of this is to examine whether the model dimensions (the path model, the measurement model and the structural model) fit the data. The key elements of variables were used in the research model with transformational leadership being the exogenous factor. Further points are discussed in the Results Chapter.

3.7 Conclusion

In summary, this chapter presented and discussed research philosophies, design, instrumentation, sampling, and procedure. First, the philosophy underpinning the research was discussed in addition to the chosen methodology. In this regard, the research assumptions concerning social science research and human behaviours were explored. After careful examination and review of the nature of the social science assumptions, the appropriate background for the selected data collection method, analysis, and findings justification was described. Second, the chapter examined the research design by discussing the research questions, variables, data collection, analysis, research framework and the research model. Third, the instrumentation section addressed the independent variables (TL), dependent variables (JP), mediator variables (EWA), control variables, questionnaires structure and the pilot study. Fourth, the selection of the appropriate research sample was discussed along with context where the data collection was carried out, sample size, and sample characteristics. Finally, the procedure employed to conduct this research was reviewed in three stages; data collection, questionnaire procedures, and data analysis (i.e. data cleaning, descriptive statistics, correlations, means/t-tests, and SEM).

The following chapter discusses the research results in detail.

Chapter 4: Results

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter described the statistical techniques used in conducting the research. Moreover, it reported the research strategy, approach, sampling method, target population and data collection methods. This chapter included a discussion of the ethical issues, validity and reliability. Hence, this chapter portrays the findings from the quantitative data analysis, which were obtained using the instruments of the research. The chapter describes, in summary, the relationship between the independent variables (TL's four dimensions) and the dependent variable (JP), structural equation modelling analysis and multivariate analysis. It also provides a brief review of the descriptive statistics.

Multivariate analysis was employed using IBM SPSS Software (version 24) and AMOS software (version 24). This stage of the research has employed a number of techniques, including correlations, factor analysis, structural equation modelling (SEM) and *t* tests. Prior to this, a pre-analysis treatment or assessment of the data quality was implemented. A data treatment diagram is provided below.

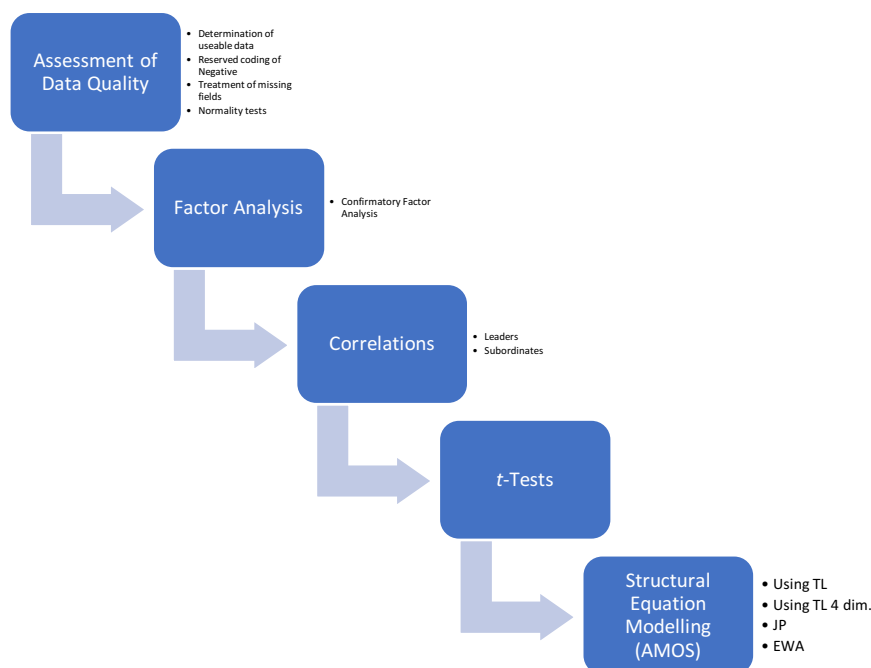


Figure 4.1 Diagram of the Data Treatment

4.2 Pre-analysis Data Treatment (Assessment of Data Quality)

4.2.1 Determination of Useable Data

In order to ensure the reliability of the data quality, the researcher carefully examined the responses provided by the sample. For instance, the unusable responses were identified by the non-response rate. Thus, data collected from the participants which had item non-response rate of 15% and above were excluded from the research analysis (George and Mallery, 2016). The following responses, B11L2, B01S2, B9S23, B12L32, B5S19, B04L13 and B7S17, were dropped from research data. The resultant questionnaires or responses were used in this research.

4.2.2 Reversed Coding

All questionnaires' statements that were negatively worded were reversed-scored. These negatively framed items are L112, L111, S12, and S11 (see Appendix E).

4.2.3 Missing Data

As far as the missing fields are concerned, the missing items from the participants were resolved by replacing non-response statements with their relevant means. With respect to the missing fields in the biographical data they were replaced by "99".

4.2.4 Normality Test

Examining the normality of research variables' values is necessary prior to conducting any statistical test (Saunders *et al.*, 2016). The normality test, therefore, was applied to check the normality behaviour of the study variables. To remain consistent with the normality requirements all outliers were examined. The items that scored high skewness and kurtosis ($X > +/- 1.5$) were excluded. Please refer to Appendix E to see the dropped items.

4.3 Biographical Data

With respect to the biographical data, the following sections describe the demographics of the leaders and subordinates.

4.3.1 Leader Demographics

The tables below demonstrate a number of differences in the demographics of the leaders. Regarding gender, Table 4.1 shows that 81% of the leader respondents were male, whereas females accounted for 19%. Regarding gender frequency, males and females accounted for 171 and 39, respectively.

Table 4.1 Gender of leaders

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	171	81.4	81.4	81.4
Female	39	18.6	18.6	100
Total	210	100	100	

Regarding age, Table 4.2 shows that, among the leader respondents, 0.5% were between 15 and 20, 1.4% were between 22 and 25, 7.1% were between 26 and 30, 15.7% were between 31 and 35, 30% were between 36 and 40, 17.6% were between 41 and 46, and 27.6% were 47 and above.

Table 4.2 Age of leaders

Age	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
15-20 years	1	0.5	0.5	0.5
21-25 years	3	1.4	1.4	1.9
26-30 years	15	7.1	7.1	9
31-35 years	33	15.7	15.7	24.8
36-40 years	63	30	30	54.8
41-46 years	37	17.6	17.6	72.4
47 years and above	58	27.6	27.6	
Total	210	100	100	100

Regarding the leaders' educational qualification, as shown in Table 4.3, 4.8% hold only high school diplomas, 21.9% hold college diplomas, 44.3% possess Bachelor's degrees, 24.8% have postgraduate degrees, and 4.3% hold other qualifications. Thus, almost 96% of the leaders hold degrees or postgraduate qualifications, as shown in Table 4.3.

Chapter 4 Results

Table 4.3 Educational qualifications of leaders

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
High School	10	4.8	4.8	4.8
College	46	21.9	21.9	26.7
Undergraduate	93	44.3	44.3	71
Postgraduate	52	24.8	24.8	95.7
Others	9	4.3	4.3	100
Total	210	100	100	

Regarding the length of tenure (stay), Table 4.4 shows that 15.7% of the leaders have been working in their banks for three years or less, 15.2% between four and six years, 22.4% between seven and 10 years, 20% between 11 and 13 years, 9.5% between 14 and 16 years, 5.7% between 17 and 19 years, and 11.4% for 20 years or more.

Table 4.4 Length of tenure of leaders

	Frequency	Percent	Percent	Cumulative Percent
3 years or less	33	15.7	15.7	15.7
4-6 years	32	15.2	15.2	31
7-10 years	47	22.4	22.4	53.3
11-13 years	42	20	20	73.3
14-16 years	20	9.5	9.5	82.9
17-19 years	12	5.7	5.7	88.6
20 or more years	24	11.4	11.4	100
Total	210	100	100	

Table 4.5 shows the descriptive statistics of the leaders in terms of their present job and length of relationship with subordinates. Regarding present job, the average mean of leaders is 8.31, the median score is 7.00, the standard deviation is 6.41, the skewness score is 1.416, the standard error of skewness is 0.168, the kurtosis score is 2.595, and the standard error of kurtosis is 0.334. In terms of the length of the relationship between leaders and subordinates, the average mean of leaders is 4.81, the median score is 4.00, the standard deviation is 3.878, the skewness is 1.524, the standard error of skewness is 0.168, the kurtosis score is 2.243, and the standard error of kurtosis is 0.334.

Table 4.5 Leaders' descriptive statistics – present job and length of relationship with subordinates

	Present Job	Length of Relation*
N	210	210
Missing	0	0
Mean	8.31	4.81
Median	7	4
Std. Deviation	6.411	3.878
Skewness	1.416	1.524
Std. Error of Skewness	0.168	0.168
Kurtosis	2.595	2.243
Std. Error of Kurtosis	0.334	0.334

*Length of relationship between managers and subordinates

4.3.2 Subordinates' Demographics

The tables below demonstrate a number of differences in the subordinates' demographics. Regarding gender, Table 4.6 shows that 66.7% of the subordinate respondents were male, whereas 32.9% were female. Regarding gender frequency, males and females accounted for 140 and 69, respectively.

Table 4.6 Gender of subordinates

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	140	66.7	66.7	66.7
Female	69	32.9	32.9	99.5
	1	0.5	0.5	100
Total	210	100	100	

Regarding age, among the subordinate respondents, 0.5% were between 15 and 20, 6.2% were between 21 and 25, 27.6% were between 26 and 30, 29.5% were between 31 and 35, 17.6% were between 36 and 40, 7.6% were between 41 and 46, and 11% were 47 and above, as shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7 Age of subordinates

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
15-20 years	1	0.5	0.5	0.5
21-25 years	13	6.2	6.2	6.7
26-30 years	58	27.6	27.6	34.3
31-35 years	62	29.5	29.5	63.8
36-40 years	37	17.6	17.6	81.4
41-46 years	16	7.6	7.6	89
47 years and above	23	11	11	100
Total	210	100	100	

Regarding the participants' educational qualifications, 6.2% hold only high school diplomas, 25.2% hold college diplomas, 43.3% possess Bachelor's degrees, 21% have postgraduate degrees, and 3.8% hold other qualifications. Therefore, almost 96% of the subordinates hold degrees or postgraduate qualifications, as shown in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Education of subordinates

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Below High School	1	0.5	0.5	0.5
High School	13	6.2	6.2	6.7
College	53	25.2	25.2	31.9
Undergraduate	91	43.3	43.3	75.2
Postgraduate	44	21	21	96.2
Others	8	3.8	3.8	100
Total	210	100	100	

As far as the length of stay at the bank is concerned, 31.4% of the subordinates have been working at their bank for three years or less, 23.3% between four and six year, 21.4% between seven and 10 years, 11% between 11 and 13 years, 5.2% between 14 and 16 years, 1.9% between 17 and 19 year, and 5.7% for 20 years or more, as show in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9 Length of stay of subordinates

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
3 years or less	66	31.4	31.4	31.4
4-6 years	49	23.3	23.3	54.8
7-10 years	45	21.4	21.4	76.2
11-13 years	23	11	11	87.1
14-16 years	11	5.2	5.2	92.4
17-19 years	4	1.9	1.9	94.3
20 or more years	12	5.7	5.7	100
Total	210	100	100	

The above demographics regarding the subordinates show a number of differences in terms of their gender, age, education, and length of stay at the bank in comparison with the leaders.

4.4 Structural Equation Model (SEM)

This data analysis section has been introduced in order to test the empirical research model using structural equation modelling (SEM). SEM is a multivariate analysis tool through which a researcher can estimate the multiple dependence variables simultaneously and combine multiple measures for each concept. This is confirmed by Hair *et al.* (2010,p.627) who consider SEM to be *“the best multivariate procedure for testing both the construct validity and theoretical relationships among a set of concepts represented by multiple measured variables”*. Moreover, the selection of SEM was due to its strength in examining the relationships (i.e. direct and indirect) using multiple mediating factors concurrently (Supovitz *et al.*, 2010). Therefore, the SEM of this thesis was processed using IBM SPSS AMOS 24 software.

4.4.1 Justification for using SEM

The selection of SEM for this thesis was based on four key factors, addressed by (Byrne, 2010). First, SEM enables researchers to introduce explicit estimates of error variance parameters, unlike the traditional multivariate analyses, which lack the ability to assess or correct errors of measurement. Second, unlike former methods, SEM is designed to incorporate the observed and unobserved variables, such as the ‘latent variables’. Third, with respect to data analysis, SEM adopts confirmatory factor analysis rather than the exploratory approach (Byrne, 2010).

In light of the above, and as this thesis explores the relationships among several variables, which are pointed out in the research model, SEM is the appropriate option for this thesis. This is particularly important as the current research involves latent variables.

4.4.2 Measurement Model

The following section describes the SEM, which was conducted to test the study's hypotheses. As recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988), the researcher followed a two-step approach. First, the measurement model was estimated by conducting a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to assess the reliability and validity of the research's latent constructs. Second, the hypothesised structural model was also estimated.

4.4.2.1 Reliability of Instruments

In order to ensure that the measurement instruments adopted in this research met the reliability standard, the researcher conducted reliability analyses for the instruments. As a Cronbach's alpha of 0.70 and above is considered to be an adequate level of internal consistency for the measuring instruments (Nunnally, 1978), as well as an alpha level in the 0.60s (Nunnally, 1967), the following Cronbach's alphas are in line with the acceptable ranges. For instance, TL has 0.82 and JP has 0.70. Regarding EWA, JS has 0.80, AC has 0.70, and TI has 0.78. This indicates a reasonably high internal consistency. Subsequently, a number of steps were taken to assess the validity of the instruments.

4.4.2.2 Average Variance Extracted

The discriminant validity was assessed in accordance with Fornell and Larcker (1981). Thus, whenever the average variance extracted (AVE) for each instrument used in the research is higher than the squared correlation among the constructs, discriminant validity exists. Therefore, each of the constructs was assessed and each demonstrated sufficient discriminant validity: TL (0.97), EWA (0.50) and JP (0.55).

4.4.2.3 Factor Analysis

The following section presents the findings of the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

4.4.2.4 Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

As the internal consistency of the reliability of the research instruments was found to be at acceptable levels (see section 4.8.3), the following step was used to determine whether the data supported the original component scales of the research instruments via CFA. Principal component analysis (CFA) was used as an extraction method in which the Varimax rotation extracted the relevant items. With respect to TL's four sub-dimensions, 16 items were confirmed. Similarly, 16 items were confirmed for TL, while three items were confirmed for JS, AC and TO.

In summary, as presented in Table 4.10, and Table 4.12, most of the standardised factor loadings (items) are above 0.66, which exceeds the minimum recommended level of 0.4 (Ford *et al.*, 1986)

Table 4.10 Confirmatory factor analysis for independent variable of transformational leadership

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
<i>Factor 1 - Individualised Influence (II)</i>				
Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her.	0.656			
Acts in ways that builds my respect.	0.61			
Displays a sense of power and confidence.	0.622			
Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	0.632			
Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	0.674			
<i>Factor 2 - Individualised Motivational (IM)</i>				
Talks optimistically about the future.		0.637		
Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.		0.673		
Articulates a compelling vision of the future.		0.658		
Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved.		0.833		
<i>Factor 3 - Individualised Consideration (IC)</i>				
Spends time teaching and coaching.			0.638	
Considers me as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.			0.404	
Helps me to develop my strengths.			0.816	
<i>Factor 4 - Intellectual Stimulation (IS)</i>				
Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.				0.696
Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems.				0.67
Gets me to look at problems from many different angles.				0.727
Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.				0.782

Table 4.11 Confirmatory factor analysis for dependent variables of employee work attitude (EWA)

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
<i>Factor 1 - EWA- Job Satisfaction (IS)</i>			
How satisfied are you with the nature of the work you perform?	0.444		
How satisfied are you with the opportunities which exist in this organization for advancement or promotion	0.546		
Considering everything, How satisfied are you with your current job situation?	0.777		
<i>Factor 2 - EWA- Affective Commitment (AC)</i>			
I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.		0.612	
I do not feel "emotionally" attached to this organization.		0.841	
I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.		0.56	
<i>Factor 3 - EWA- Turnover Intention (TO)</i>			
I have had thoughts of leaving this profession			0.656
If I had job security and were economically stable, I would quit my job.			0.428
These days, I am more attracted to other alternative job opportunities			0.565

With respect to Table 4.11 on the dependent variables, most standardised factor loadings (items) are above 0.66. This exceeds the minimum recommended target of 0.4 (Ford *et al.*, 1986).

4.4.2.5 Goodness-of-fit for Measurement Model

Table 4.12 below presents the goodness-of-fit for the measurement model, which was assessed by drawing on the Tucker Lewis Index (TLI), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), the Normed Fit Index (NFI) and the Chi-square/*df* ratio. The measurement model’s Chi-square/*df* ratio (1.85) is below the threshold of 3.0 (Kline, 1999). The TLI (0.924), CFI (0.933) and NFI (0.866) all exceed the threshold of 0.90, which is considered to be a good-fitting model (Bentler and Bonett, 1980), whereas the RMSEA (.064) remains at the cut-off point of 0.06 (Hu and Bentler, 1999). Thus, the research measurement model achieved a good model fit (see Table 4.12).

Table 4.12 Goodness-of-fit of measurement model

Model ^a	X ²	df	X ² / <i>df</i>	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	NFI	GFI	AGFI
1.II,IM,IC and IS → EWA and JP ^b	622.377	336	1.852	.933	.924	.064	.866	.833	.799

a) n = 210

Note: *df*: Degrees of Freedom; TLI: Tucker Lewis Index; IFI: Incremental Fit Index; CFI: Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

4.4.2.6 Multi-collinearity

The multi-collinearity, tolerance and value inflation factor were examined. No substantial multi-collinearity was reported in the independent variables. The research fulfilled the tolerance threshold of VIF, which should be less than 10 (Nizam *et al.*, 2008) and the tolerance is above 0.1.

4.4.2.7 Correlations

Regarding the research variables’ correlations, (Table 4.13 and Table 4.14) present the standard deviations, means, and correlations between the research variables. No concerns exists as none of the correlations exceeds the threshold of 0.7 (Anderson *et al.*, 2002).

Table 4.13 Descriptive statistics and correlation among variables

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. TL	76.96	18.07	1									
2. EWA	3.82	0.46	.315**	1								
3. JP	3.74	0.52	0.088	0.006	1							
4. Age	4.24	1.41	0.018	.143*	0.000	1						
5. Education	3.90	0.95	0.016	-.228**	-0.003	-0.117	1					
6. Length w/Bank	2.64	1.67	0.036	0.121	-0.012	.661**	-.215**	1				
7. Length w/manager	3.59	3.42	0.009	-0.087	-0.073	-0.010	0.086	0.027	1			
8. Length in Job	6.25	5.39	0.035	.139*	0.015	.597**	-.187**	.783**	0.081	1		
9. Nationality	127.82	32.54	-0.004	-0.066	0.097	-0.084	0.004	-0.100	0.054	-0.099	1	
10. Gender	1.37	0.71	0.074	-0.084	0.066	0.011	0.036	0.004	-0.040	0.064	0.089	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Note: n = 210; Pearson correlation (bivariate) with listwise deletion; SD: standard deviation; TL: Transformational Leadership; EWA: Employee Work Attitudes (which consists of Job Satisfaction, Affective Commitment and Turnover Intention) and JP: Job Performance

*: $p \leq .05$, **: $p \leq .01$.

Table 4.14 Descriptive statistics and correlation among variables

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. II	31.24	7.23	1												
2. IM	15.37	4.07	.910**	1											
3. IC	14.93	3.61	.860**	.810**	1										
4. IS	15.42	4.10	.888**	.869**	.811**	1									
5. EWA	3.82	0.46	.326**	.243**	.335**	.275**	1								
6. JP	3.74	0.52	0.058	0.103	.135*	0.065	0.006	1							
7. Age	4.24	1.41	0.023	0.029	-0.047	0.053	.143*	0.000	1						
8. Education	3.90	0.95	-0.005	0.027	0.013	0.042	-.228**	-0.003	-0.117	1					
9. Length Bank Stay	2.64	1.67	0.054	-0.009	-0.004	0.074	0.121	-0.012	.661**	-.215**	1				
10. Length Rel. With L.	3.59	3.42	0.001	0.024	-0.005	0.019	-0.087	-0.073	-0.010	0.086	0.027	1			
11. Length in Prest Job	6.25	5.39	0.037	-0.007	0.021	0.077	.139*	0.015	.597**	-.187**	.783**	0.081	1		
12. Nationality	127.82	32.54	-0.012	0.051	-0.053	-0.001	-0.066	0.097	-0.084	0.004	-0.100	0.054	-0.099	1	
13. Gender	1.37	0.71	0.059	0.091	0.048	0.090	-0.084	0.066	0.011	0.036	0.004	-0.040	0.064	0.089	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Note: n = 210; Pearson correlation (bivariate) with listwise deletion; SD: standard deviation; II: Individualised Influence; IM: Individualised Motivational; IC: Individualised Consideration; IS: Intellectual Stimulation; EWA: Employee Work Attitudes (which consists of TO, JS and AC) and JP: Job Performance

*: $p \leq .05$, **: $p \leq .01$.

Table 4.14 depicts limited high correlations (e.g. JP correlates significantly with IC at 0.135), which are due to the different natures of bivariate correlation and structural equation modelling (SEM). According to Saunders et al. (2016), correlation is the degree to which two variables are related to each other. In other words, the correlation is bivariate that ignores all other variables except that with which it correlates. Whereas SEM is a quantitative test that uses multiple models to illustrate the relationships between observed variables in order to test hypothesised models. In other words, it is a scientific method of hypothesis testing that enables a better understanding of complex relationships between constructs (Schumacker and Lomax, 2012).

In addition, the understanding of complex phenomena (e.g. multiple variables) will be limited when simple bivariate correlation is used. Whereas sophisticated theoretical models are better tested using SEM. That is, the examination of simple bivariate correlation is considered to be insufficient, which makes SEM necessary to advance the understanding of complex relationships. Therefore, SEM models are the preferred approach for confirming or disconfirming the quantitative aspect of the theoretical models (Schumacker and Lomax, 2012). In summary, SEM techniques are more reliable when comparing simple statistical methods (Schumacker and Lomax, 2012).

In general, although the intercorrelation between TL dimensions seems to be high, the TL dimensions remain independent and suitable for use in the SEM analysis as no substantial multicollinearity was reported that fulfils the tolerance threshold of VIF, which should be less than 10 (Nizam et al., 2008), and the tolerance is above 0.1. However, the relationship needs to be explored in much greater depth in the SEM.

4.4.3 Structural Model

The second part of the SEM is the structural model, in which the research tests the effect of transformational leadership style, as perceived by subordinates, on the JP mediated by EWA. EWA consists of JS, AC and TO (Model A, in Table 4.15). The full sample of 210 cases (one leader versus one subordinate) was used. The total number of participants' number was 420, consisting of 210 leaders and 210 subordinates.

Despite goodness-of-fit indices for the structural models being quite similar among the nested models in Table 4.15, 'Model A', which is partially mediated, was selected for analysis for several reasons. First, a wide range of studies suggest the importance of EWA as a mediator (i.e. JS, AC and TO) that influences the JP of employees as well as the existence of a direct impact between TL and JP (see the work of Chin, 2007; Brocato *et al.*, 2011; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Rockstuhl *et al.*, 2012; Chiaburu *et al.*, 2014; Sethibe and Steyn, 2015; Anseel *et al.*, 2015). Second, attitude is a natural element in the human personality that could affect individual behaviours. Third, Model A still displays a reasonably high degree of freedom of 489, so is still considered a parsimonious model. Hence, Model A is consistent with normal practice (Mulaik, 2001). Fourth, the correct model fit does not necessarily fit the data and any model exclusion (i.e. Models B and C) should be based on substantive or logical grounds (Zabkar, 2000), which meets the case of the selected Model A.

The mediator (EWA) hypotheses (H_2 and H_3) were tested by following the recommendation of James *et al.* (2006). Therefore, a couple of steps were taken. First, it is important to check whether there are partial or full hypothesised mediator relationships. Given that EWA as an attitude mediates the influence of JP, the partially mediated model (baseline) was used for subsequent model comparisons. Second, the SEM features were used in order to test the research mediation hypotheses. Thus, the research tested the paths from the predictor variables of TL to the mediator variables of EWA (i.e. JS, TO and AC), as well as the path from the mediator variables to the dependent variable (i.e. JP), in addition to a direct path from TL to JP.

The fit indices of the hypothesised model (baseline or partially mediated) are as follows: χ^2/df ratio (1.76), which is below the threshold of 3.0 (Kline, 1999). The CFI (0.920), TLI (0.909) and NFI (0.836) all exceeded the threshold of 0.90 of a good-fitting model (Bentler and Bonett, 1980), except for NFI, whereas RMSEA (0.06) remained at the cut-off point of 0.06 (Hu and Bentler, 1999) (see Table 4.15).

Table 4.15 Goodness-of-fit for structural nested models

Model ^a	χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	NFI	GFI	AGFI
Model A: TL→EWA→JP & TL→JP ^b	862.041	489	1.763	.920	.909	.060	.836	.815	.774
Model B: TL→EWA→JP ^c	892.575	516	1.730	.920	.907	.059	.831	.814	.773
Model C: TL→EWA & TL→JP	891.926	516	1.729	.920	.907	.059	.831	.814	.773
Model D: TL→JP & EWA→JP	918.227	516	1.780	.914	.901	.061	.826	.809	.767

a) n = 210

b) Partially mediated model – baseline/hypothesised

c) Fully mediated model

Significance levels: *: $p \leq .05$; **: $p \leq .01$; ***: $p \leq .001$

Moreover, Table 4.15 displays the nested models' indices of the other models (B, C and D) against the baseline Model A. The baseline Model A (Figure 4.2) has indirect paths from TL to JP, and a direct path from TL to JP.

It is worth mentioning that the traditional test for mediation by Baron and Kenny (1986) is no longer suitable for this research in the presence of the SEM approach. For instance, Iacobucci *et al.* (2007) outlined a number of evidences indicating the superiority of SEM over the traditional regression approach when examining the relationship of mediators. In fact, MacKinnon *et al.* (2002) have shown that Baron and Kenny (1986) test has the lowest statistical power among fourteen methods of mediation testing. The work of MacKinnon *et al.* (2002) suggests using SEM to test the mediation and indirect effects. More details of the differences between SEM and the traditional approach of testing for mediation are outlined in Zhao *et al.* (2010).

4.4.3.1 Hypotheses H₁, H₂, and H₃

H₁: 'Transformational Leadership (TL) influences Job Performance (JP).'

H₂: 'Employee Work Attitude (EWA) influences Job Performance (JP).'

H₃: 'Transformational leadership (TL) influences job performance (JP). This influence is mediated by employee work attitude (EWA).'

Taking into account the standardised path coefficient of Model A, the results of this model fit suggest that TL shows a highly significant positive impact ($\beta = .419$; $p \leq .001$) on EWA. Moreover, the results of the control variable Age display a highly significant positive impact ($\beta = .388$; $p \leq .001$) on EWA. Nationalities exhibits a highly significant positive impact ($\beta = .205$; $p \leq .006$) on JP.

Chapter 4 Results

Hence, this model did not confirm H_1 as no significant effect exists between TL and JP, which is inconsistent with the findings of a wide range of research conducted in Western countries (see the Broader Systematic Review section). Moreover, H_2 was rejected due to the insignificant influence between EWA and JP ($p=.826$) (see Figure 4.2).

In Model A, the researcher analysed the effect of TL on JP mediated by EWA. The results show that the effect of TL on JP mediated by EWA is non-significant (0.803). In summary, this result does not support H_3 .

4.4.3.2 Hypothesis 4 (a, b)

H_{4a}: 'The relationship between subordinates reporting their leaders' TL and the subordinates JP will produce a better model fit than the TL difference scores (d2) of leaders and followers.'

H_{4b}: 'The TL model fit of subordinates reporting their leaders' TL will be better than the TL model fits of leaders.'

In order to test hypothesis 4a and hypothesis 4b, three models were estimated: ' d^2 Model X', 'Leaders' Model Y', and 'Subordinates' Model Z'. The researcher followed a two-step approach, as recommended by Anderson and Gerbing (1988). First, the measurement model was estimated by conducting a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) to assess the reliability and validity of the research's latent constructs. Second, the hypothesised structural model was also estimated.

In order to ensure that the measurement instruments adopted met the reliability standard, the reliability analyses for the instruments were conducted. As a Cronbach's alpha of 0.70 and above is considered to be an adequate level of internal consistency for the measuring instruments (Nunnally, 1978), as well as an alpha level in the 0.60s (Nunnally, 1967), the following Cronbach's alphas are in line with the acceptable ranges. For example, in Leaders' Model Y, TL has 0.82 and JP has 0.70. In Subordinates' Model Z, TL has 0.00 and JP has 0.00, while in ' d^2 Model X', TL has 0.00 and JP has 0.00. This indicates a reasonably high internal consistency. Subsequently, a number of steps were taken to assess the validity of the instruments.

The discriminant validity was also assessed in accordance with Fornell and Larcker (1981). Therefore, whenever the average variance extract (AVE) for each instrument used in the research is higher than the squared correlation among the constructs, discriminant validity exists. Thus, each of the constructs was assessed and demonstrated sufficient discriminant validity: Leaders' TL (0.97) and JP (0.55); Subordinates' TL (0.98) and JP (0.55); d^2 TL (0.00) and JP (0.00).

As the internal consistency of the reliability of the research instruments was found to be at acceptable levels (see section 4.8.3), the following step was used to determine whether the data

supported the original component scales of the research instruments via CFA. Principal component analysis was used as an extraction method in which the Varimax rotation extracted the relevant items. With respect to Leaders' Model Y, 12 items were confirmed for Leaders' TL and three items were confirmed for JP. Regarding Subordinates' Model Z, 16 items were confirmed for Subordinates' TL and three items were confirmed for JP. In d^2 Model X, 13 items were confirmed for d^2 TL and three items were confirmed for JP.

In summary, most of the standardised factor loadings (items) in d^2 Model X, Leaders' Model Y, and Subordinates' Model Z are above 0.60, which exceeds the minimum recommended level of 0.4 (Ford *et al.*, 1986).

Regarding the goodness-of-fit for the measurement models, Table 4.16 below presents the indices of the models, which were assessed by drawing on the Tucker Lewis Index (TLI), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), the Normed Fit Index (NFI), and the Chi-square/*df* ratio.

The Leaders' Model Y measurement model's Chi-square/*df* ratio (1.796) is below the threshold of 3.0 (Kline, 1999). The TLI (0.924), CFI (0.940), and NFI (0.876) all exceed the threshold of 0.90, which is considered to be a good-fitting model (Bentler and Bonett, 1980), whereas RMSEA (0.06) remains at the cut-off point of 0.06 (Hu and Bentler, 1999). Thus, the research measurement model achieved a decent model fit (see Table 4.16).

Regarding composite reliability (CR) for Leaders' Model Y, all CR variables (TL and JP) are above the recommended cut-off point of 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978). Moreover, all variables exceed the recommended average variance extract (AVE) criterion of 0.50, except for JP, which is slightly below the threshold (Chin, 1998).

The Subordinates' Model Z measurement model's Chi-square/*df* ratio (2.127) is below the threshold of 3.0 (Kline, 2015). The TLI (0.933), CFI (0.942), and NFI (0.897) all reach the threshold of 0.90, which is considered to be a good-fitting model (Bentler and Bonett, 1980), whereas RMSEA (0.073) remains slightly higher than the recommended level of 0.06 (Hu and Bentler, 1999). Thus, the research measurement model achieved a decent model fit (see Table 4.16).

The CR of the Subordinates' Model Z shows that all variables (TL and JP) are above the recommended cut-off point of 0.70 (Nunnally, 1978); 0.94 for JP and 0.96 for TL. All variables exceed the recommended AVE criterion of 0.50 (Chin, 1998); 0.65 for JP and TL.

Regarding the d^2 Model X measurement, the model's Chi-square/*df* ratio (1.905) is below the threshold of 3.0 (Kline, 2015). The TLI (0.913), CFI (0.930) and NFI (0.865) all exceed the threshold

Chapter 4 Results

of 0.90, which is considered to be a good-fitting model (Bentler and Bonett, 1980), whereas RMSEA (0.06) remains at the cut-off point of 0.06 (Hu and Bentler, 1999). Thus, the research measurement model achieved a decent model fit (see Table 4.16).

Table 4.16 Goodness-of-fit of measurement models

Model ^a	χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	NFI	GFI	AGFI
Leaders TL → JP ^b	149.044	83	1.796	.940	.924	.060	.876	.912	.873
Subordinates TL → JP ^c	427.594	201	2.127	.942	.933	.073	.897	.849	.810
d^2 TL → JP ^d	2.30	1.2	1.905	.930	.913	.06	.865	.880	.890

- a) *n* = 210
b) Leaders Model Y.
c) Subordinates Model Z.
d) d^2 Model X.

Note: *df*: Degrees of Freedom; TLI: Tucker Lewis Index; IFI: Incremental Fit Index; CFI: Comparative Fit Index and RMSEA: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

The second part of the SEM analysis is the structural model, in which the research tests the effect of transformational leadership style, as perceived by the leaders, on the JP (Leaders' Model Y, in Table 4.19). The fit indices of the leaders' structural Model Y is as follows: χ^2/df ratio (1.796), which is below the threshold of 3.0 (Kline, 1999). The CFI (0.940), TLI (0.924), and NFI (0.876) all exceed the threshold of 0.90 of a good-fitting model (Bentler and Bonett, 1980), whereas RMSEA (0.06) remains at the cut-off point of 0.06 (Hu and Bentler, 1999) (see Table 4.17).

Table 4.17 Goodness-of-fit of structural models

Model ^a	χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	NFI	GFI	AGFI
Leaders TL → JP ^b	149.044	83	1.796	.940	.924	.062	.876	.912	.873
Subordinates TL → JP ^c	427.594	201	2.127	.942	.933	.073	.897	.849	.810
d^2 TL → JP ^d	3.558	7	.5082	1.00	1.00	.000	.990	.996	.978

- a) *n* = 210
b) Leaders Model Y.
c) Subordinates Model Z.
d) d^2 Model X.

Note: *df*: Degrees of Freedom; TLI: Tucker Lewis Index; IFI: Incremental Fit Index; CFI: Comparative Fit Index and RMSEA: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

This thesis also examined the structural Model Z that tests the effect of transformational leadership style, as perceived by the subordinates, on the JP (Table 4.17). The fit indices of the subordinate structural Model Z are as follows: χ^2/df ratio (2.127), which is below the threshold of 3.0 (Kline, 1999). The CFI (0.942), TLI (0.933), and NFI (0.897) all reach the recommended threshold of 0.90 of a good-fitting model (Bentler and Bonett, 1980), whereas RMSEA (0.07) remains slightly higher than the recommended threshold of 0.06 (Hu and Bentler, 1999) (see Table 4.17).

Chapter 4 Results

Regarding d^2 Model X, its structural model tests the effect of transformational leadership style (difference score), on the JP (Table 4.17). The fit indices of the d^2 model X are as follows: X^2/df ratio (.5082), which is below the threshold of 3.0 (Kline, 1999). The CFI (1.00), TLI (1.00), and NFI (0.990) all reach the recommended threshold of 0.90 of a good-fitting model (Bentler and Bonett, 1980), whereas RMSEA (0.000) remains within the recommended threshold of 0.06 (Hu and Bentler, 1999) (see Table 4.17).

In summary, it is clear from Table 4.17 that the Leaders' Model Y is to certain extent the best model fit. However, Subordinates' Model Z was selected as it is strongly supported by the literature in the systematic review. Therefore, hypothesis 4a, which states that 'The relationship between subordinates' TL and their JP will produce a better model fit than the TL difference scores (d^2) of leaders and followers' is confirmed. Hypothesis 4b, which states that 'The TL model fit of subordinates will be better than the TL model fits of leaders' is also confirmed.

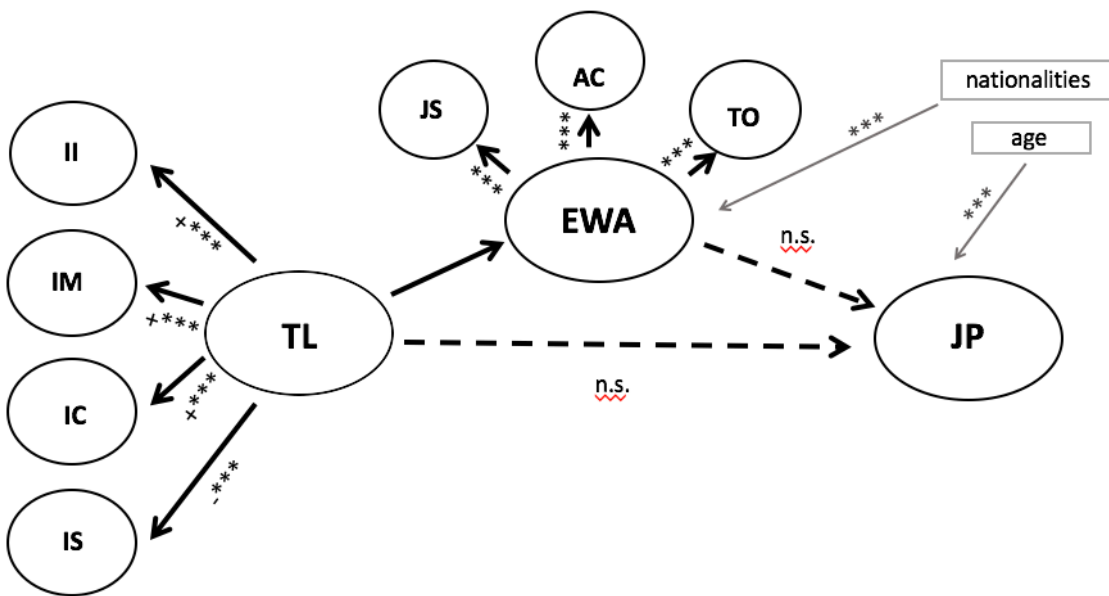


Figure 4.2 Results of Model A

Notes: n = 210
 Standardised coefficients
 Significant Levels: n.s. = not significant: *: $p \leq .05$, **: $p \leq .01$, ***: $p \leq .001$

4.4.3.3 Hypothesis 5

H₅: 'Individualised Influence (II), Individualised Motivation (IM), and Individualised Consideration (IC) of subordinates reporting their leaders' TL will have a more significant impact on the subordinates self-reporting their Job Performance (JP) than Intellectual Stimulation (IS) when mediated by subordinates' self-reporting their Employee Work Attitude (EWA).

To test H₅, in which the four individual components of TL are analysed, a new measurement model is developed. This measurement model is slightly different in terms of having four independent variables, as presented in Figure 4.2 (i.e. II, IM, IC and IS). Table 4.18 below presents the goodness-of-fit for the measurement model, which was assessed by drawing on the Tucker Lewis Index (TLI), the Comparative Fit Index (CFI), the Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), the Normed Fit Index (NFI) and the Chi-square/*df* ratio. The measurement model's Chi-square/*df* ratio (1.836) is below the threshold of 3.0 (Kline, 1999). The TLI (0.926), CFI (0.936) and NFI (0.871) all exceed the threshold of 0.90, which is considered to be a good-fitting model (Bentler and Bonett, 1980), whereas RMSEA (0.063) remains at the cut-off point of 0.06 (Hu and Bentler, 1999). Thus, the research measurement model achieved a decent model fit (see Table 4.18).

Table 4.18 Goodness-of-fit of measurement model

Model ^a	χ^2	<i>df</i>	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	NFI	GFI	AGFI
1.II,IM,IC&IS → EWA and JP ^b	598.563	326	1.836	.936	.926	.063	.871	.839	.800

e) n = 210

Note: *df*: Degrees of Freedom; TLI: Tucker Lewis Index; IFI: Incremental Fit Index; CFI: Comparative Fit Index and RMSEA: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation.

The multi-collinearity, tolerance and value inflation factor were examined. No substantial multi-collinearity was reported in the independent variables. The research adhered to the tolerance threshold of VIF, which should be less than 10 (Nizam *et al.*, 2008) and the tolerance is above 0.1.

With respect to the structural model, this tested the effect of the four components of TL – II, IM, IC and IS – as perceived by subordinates on JP mediated by EWA. EWA consists of JS, AC and TI (Model E). The full sample of 210 cases (one leader versus one subordinate) was used. The total number of participants was 420, consisting of 210 leaders and 210 subordinates.

Despite the goodness-of-fit indices for the structural models being similar among the two nested models in Table 4.19, Model E, which is partially mediated, was selected for analysis as it is consistent with the literature. Second, Model E still displays a reasonably high degree of freedom of 507, meaning that it is considered a parsimonious model. Hence, Model E is consistent with

Chapter 4 Results

normal practice (Mulaik, 2001). Third, the correct model fit does not necessarily fit the data and any model exclusion should be based on substantive or logical grounds (Zabkar, 2000), which meets the case of Model E.

The research tested the paths from the predictor variables (i.e. II, IM, IC and IS) to the mediator variables of EWA (i.e. JS, TI and AC) as well as the path from the mediator variable to the dependent variable (i.e. JP), in addition to a direct path from II, IM, IC and IS to JP.

The fit indices of the hypothesised model E (baseline or partially mediated) are as follows: χ^2/df ratio (1.694), which is below the threshold of 3.0 (Kline, 1999). The CFI (0.925), TLI (0.912), NFI (0.837) all exceed the threshold of 0.90 of a good-fitting model (Bentler and Bonett, 1980), except NFI, whereas RMSEA (0.58) remains at the cut-off point of 0.06 (Hu and Bentler, 1999) (see Table 4.19 in which the nested models present the two competing models). The best model fit was Model E for the reasons mentioned.

Table 4.19 Goodness-of-fit for structural nested models – E and F

Model ^a	χ^2	df	χ^2/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	NFI	GFI	AGFI
Model E: II,IM,IC&IS→EWA→JP &TL→JP ^b	858.862	507	1.694	.925	.912	.058	.837	.818	.774
Model F: II,IM,IC&IS→EWA→JP	863.310	511	1.689	.925	.912	.057	.836	.817	.774

- a) n = 210
- b) Partially mediated model - baseline/hypothesised
- c) Fully mediated model

Significance levels: *: p ≤ .05; **: p ≤ .01; ***: p ≤ .001

The mediator (EWA) hypothesis 5 was tested by following the recommendation of James *et al.* (2006). Therefore, a couple of steps were taken. First, it is important to check whether there are partial or full hypothesised mediator relationships. Given that EWA as an attitude mediates the influence of job performance (Chin, 2007; Brocato *et al.*, 2011; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Rockstuhl *et al.*, 2012; Chiaburu *et al.*, 2014; Anseel *et al.*, 2015; Sethibe and Steyn, 2015), Model E (baseline) was used for subsequent model comparisons. Second, the SEM features were used in order to test the research mediation hypotheses. Thus, the research tested the paths from the predictor variables II, IM, IC and IS to the mediator variables of EWA (i.e. JS, TO and AC) as well as the path from the mediator variables to the dependent variable (i.e. JP).

What is interesting in this mediation testing is that a number of significant impacts were found between the four dimensions of TL (i.e. II, IM, IC and IS) and JP when mediated by EWA. This is

unlike the non-significant influence of TL on JP, reported earlier. For instance, II shows a negative significant level of influence on JP when mediated by EWA (-0.029; $p \leq .05$). Also, IM and IC display a negative significant impact on JP when mediated by EWA, at -0.036; $p \leq .05$ and -0.042; $p \leq .05$, respectively, whereas IS displays a highly significant positive impact (0.024; $p \leq .05$). In summary, Model E confirms H₅, as a higher negative significant influence exists between II, IM, and IC on JP than exists with IS.

The following section is included to report the findings of the TL alignment (difference scores).

4.5 Transformational Leadership Assessment Alignment

H₆: 'Leaders rate themselves higher than their followers would rate them'.

As Fletcher (2000) suggests, managers tend to rate themselves higher than their employees rate them, which is consistent with the findings of Waldman and Thornton III (1979), Thornton (1980) and McEnery *et al.* (1982), in addition to the meta-analyses of Harris and Schaubroeck (1988) and Conway and Huffcutt (1997). A TL alignment (difference scores) was undertaken and discussed in this section.

Reasons and Basis for difference score: The difference score was conducted in order to understand the extent to which leaders' assessments could differ from those of their subordinates, in the Middle East context (i.e. Kuwait). This is particularly important as, according to a meta-analysis study (Mabe and West, 1982), managers appear to have limited knowledge about their managerial weaknesses and strengths. Moreover, a number of theories and bodies of evidence suggested that low self-awareness could result in poor performance or outcomes (e.g., career failure) (London and Smither, 1995).

This research followed the difference score approach of Church (1997). The research suggests that the use of difference score (d) is calculated by "*the square root of the sum of squared (i.e. absolute) differences between self-report*" and other rating scores (i.e. subordinates' peer-reporting their managers' leadership style) according to (Church, 1997 p. 306).

Appendix A and Table 4.20 present noteworthy findings which indicate that 56% of cases (leaders vs. subordinates) have reported different assessments, by a score of 0.25. Moreover, 29% of the cases were different by a score of 1 and above, and 16% of the cases were different by a score of 2 and above. Regarding the d^2 total average difference between the answers, this was reported to be a score of 1 only. In contrast, only 44% of the cases reported somewhat mutual agreement between leaders and their subordinates in terms of transformational leadership assessments,

Chapter 4 Results

meaning that the difference in scores was barely noticeable, at less than a score of 0.25 (see Table 4.20).

Table 4.20 Summary of Transformational Leadership Alignment Results

	d ² Difference Scores Levels		
	.25 & more	1 & more	2 & More
d ² Difference Scores between Leaders and Subordinates	56%	29%	16%

Therefore, it is obvious from Table 4.20 and Appendix A that wide differences among the leaders’ and subordinates’ TL assessments exist. For example, the most striking finding to emerge from the data is that 56% of the cases (difference scores of 0.25 and above) show that leaders rate themselves higher than their subordinates rate them. In addition, 29% and 16% of the managers evaluate themselves higher than the reported scores of their subordinates by 1 score and more and 2 score and more respectively.

The above findings support hypothesis 6, in which it was expected that managers rate themselves higher than their subordinates rate them (Table 4.20 and Appendix A).

This interesting finding fills a gap in the literature in which most of the Gulf States’ studies were self-reporting (see 2.5.3.1.3 Narrow Literature section). Conducting this assessment is important as self-reporting could lead to an exaggerated perception of the self-reporters (managers), according to (Yammarino and Atwater, 1997).

Table 4.21 below summarises the findings from the hypotheses testing.

Table 4.21 Summary of Results from Hypotheses Testing

Model	Hypothesis ^a	Relationship	Mediator	Finding
Model A	H ₁	TL→EWA→JP and TL→JP ^b		Rejected
Model A	H ₂	TL→EWA→JP and TL→JP		Rejected
Model A	H ₃	TL→EWA→JP and TL→JP	EWA	Rejected
Model X,Y,&Z	H _{4a}	Model fit comparisons		Confirmed
	H _{4b}	Model fit comparisons		Confirmed
Model E	H ₅	II,IM,IC and IS→EWA→JP	EWA	Confirmed
Model X ^C	H ₆	TL Alignment of L vs. S ^b		Confirmed

- a) All hypotheses are stated below this table.
- b) TL alignment of leaders vs. subordinates using d^2 approach (see section 4.7).
- c) Model X was discussed in Section 4.4: Transformational Leadership Alignment Assessment.

Note: *df*: Degrees of Freedom; TLI: Tucker Lewis Index; IFI: Incremental Fit Index; CFI: Comparative Fit Index; RMSEA: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; II: Individualised Influence; IM: Individualised Motivational; IC: Individualised Consideration; IS: Intellectual Stimulation; TO: Turnover Intention; JS: Job Satisfaction; AC: Affective Commitment; JP: Job Performance and EWA: Employee Work Attitudes (which consist of TO, JS and AC).

For ease of reference, below are the six hypotheses:

- **H₁: Transformational Leadership (TL) influences Job Performance (JP).**
- **H₂: Employee Work Attitude (EWA) influences Job Performance (JP).**
- **H₃: Transformational leadership (TL) influences job performance (JP). This influence is mediated by employee work attitude (EWA).**
- **H_{4a}: The relationship between subordinates reporting their leaders' TL and the subordinates JP will produce a better model fit than the TL difference scores (d^2) of leaders and followers.**
- **H_{4b}: The TL model fit of subordinates reporting their leaders' TL will be better than the TL model fits of leaders.**
- **H₅: Individualised Influence (II), Individualised Motivation (IM), and Individualised Consideration (IC) of subordinates reporting their leaders' TL will have a more significant impact on the subordinates self-reporting their Job Performance (JP) than Intellectual Stimulation (IS) when mediated by subordinates' self-reporting their Employee Work Attitude (EWA).**
- **H₆: Leaders rate themselves higher than their followers would rate them.**

After discussing the hypotheses' findings, the following section highlights other interesting significant findings.

4.5.1 Further Significant Results (non-hypothesised)

4.5.1.1 Transformational Leadership Impacts on EWA

The findings show that TL has a highly significant positive impact on EWA ($\beta = .419$; $p \leq .001$). This is an interesting finding, and is further explained and discussed in the next chapter of the discussion.

4.5.1.2 Nationalities Impact EWA

The results show that nationalities exhibit a significant positive impact on EWA ($\beta = .205$; $p \leq .006$). As a large proportion of nationalities are Kuwaiti and Gulf State nationals (69%), then, from a statistical aspect, nationalities data may not be normally distributed. Therefore, nationalities were divided in two groups: first, ‘gulf nationalities’, including Kuwaiti and Gulf State nationals for homogeneous reasons (Al-Mulhim, 2014) and second, ‘other nationalities. The two groups were tested as control variables. The results show that Gulf and other nationalities exhibit insignificant impacts on JP: ($\beta = .20$; $p \leq .166$) and ($\beta = .20$; $p \leq .301$), respectively. The nationalities breakdown is as follows: first, Gulf nationalities (127); second, other nationalities: US (1), Europe (6), Asia (35), and the Middle East without Gulf States (42). Specifically, the 13 countries are: the United States, the United Kingdom, Syria, Saudi Arabia, Pakistan, Lebanon, Kuwait, Jordan, Japan, India, Greece, Egypt, and Armenia.

Moreover, a test of nationalities moderation was conducted in this research to explore the relationship between TL and JP. The results show that nationalities of the subordinates do not moderate the relationship between TL and JP ($\beta = .591$; $p \leq .344$). In other words, nationalities dampens the negative relationship between TL and JP (see figure 4.3).

Another attempt was made, by testing the *t* test of the two groups (Gulf and other nationalities) with job performance, affective commitment and turnover intention. Interestingly, none of the variables was significantly related to the two nationalities’ groups. However, the mean of turnover intention among the Gulf nationalities was 2.6 versus 2.2 for the other nationalities. Potential explanations are offered in the next chapter of discussion.

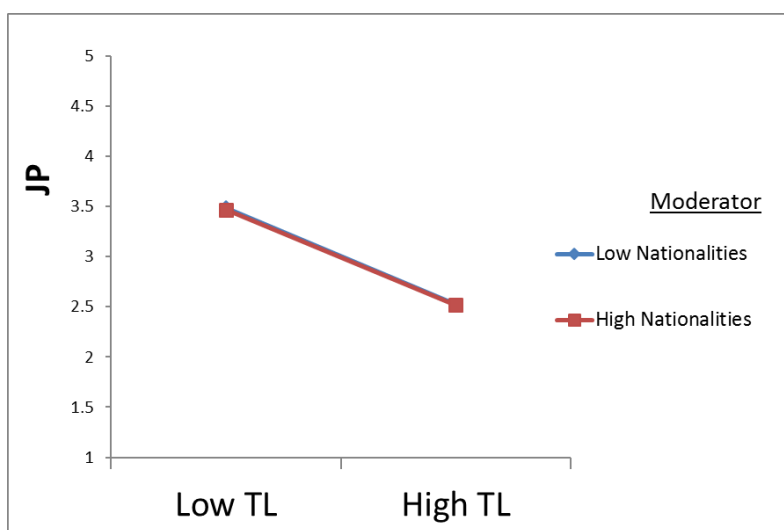


Figure 4.3 Plot of the Interaction between nationalities (moderator), TL and JP

4.5.1.3 Age impacts EWA

The results also indicate that age displays a highly significant positive impact on EWA ($\beta = .388$; $p \leq .001$). Further explanation is set out in the following chapter.

4.6 Conclusion

In summary, this chapter portrayed the findings of the quantitative data analysis by describing the pre-analysis data treatment (assessment of data quality), biographical data, and structural equation model (SEM) followed by analysis of the hypotheses. First, the pre-analysis data treatment was examined to ensure the reliability of data quality. Second, the biographical data for the participants (i.e. leaders and followers) were described. It was apparent that male leaders represented 81% of the sample, while female leaders accounted for only 19%. Moreover, some other demographic showed a number of differences between leaders and followers concerning their age, education, and length of stay at the bank. Third, a multivariate analysis using structural equation modelling (SEM) was conducted, and justification for using SEM was stated. In addition, the development of measurement models (i.e. Reliability of Instruments, Average Variance Extracted, factor analysis) and structural models was presented followed by analyses of the hypotheses.

The findings from the quantitative data analysis in the previous results chapter are discussed below.

Chapter 5: Discussion

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the findings from the quantitative data analysis; these were achieved using the research instruments. It summarised the relationship between the independent variable (transformational leadership) and the dependent variable (job performance), using structural equation modelling analysis and multivariate analysis. It also provided a brief review of the descriptive statistics. Therefore, this chapter discusses the research findings, then compares and contrasts them with past literature in order to arrive at the significance of the findings.

5.2 Research Context

5.2.1 Research Questions and Hypotheses

This thesis explores the influence of transformational leadership (TL) on job performance in the banking sector in Kuwait. The research questions suggested in Chapter One are as follows:

4. To what extent does the TL affect followers' job performance?
5. To what extent do the four sub-dimensions of TL affect followers' job performance?
6. To what extent do the four sub-dimensions of TL affect employee work attitude (EWA), including job satisfaction (JS), turnover intention (TO), and affective commitment (AC)?

Based on the three research questions, six hypotheses were developed. For ease of reference, the hypotheses are re-stated below:

- **H₁: Transformational Leadership (TL) influences Job Performance (JP).**
- **H₂: Employee Work Attitude (EWA) influences Job Performance (JP).**
- **H₃: Transformational leadership (TL) influences job performance (JP). This influence is mediated by employee work attitude (EWA).**
- **H_{4a}: The relationship between subordinates reporting their leaders' TL and the subordinates JP will produce a better model fit than the TL difference scores (d^2) of leaders and followers.**
- **H_{4b}: The TL model fit of subordinates reporting their leaders' TL will be better than the TL model fits of leaders.**

H₅: Individualised Influence (II), Individualised Motivation (IM), and Individualised Consideration (IC) of subordinates reporting their leaders' TL will have a more significant impact on the subordinates self-reporting their Job Performance (JP) than Intellectual Stimulation (IS) when mediated by subordinates' self-reporting their Employee Work Attitude (EWA).

H₆: Leaders rate themselves higher than their followers would rate them.

The following section identifies the extent to which these hypotheses are supported by the literature.

5.3 Summary of Findings

The significant results obtained in this thesis are discussed in this section. This includes a discussion of the interesting findings that were not envisaged in the research hypotheses.

The discussion of the findings is divided into four sections: first, demographics variables, second, Model 1 (TL relationship with variables); third, sub-dimensions of TL (i.e. II, IM, IC, and IS); and fourth, model fit and TL assessment (score difference).

5.3.1 Biographical Variables

The biographical variables that differed significantly were nationality, age, tenure of office, length of service, and professional qualifications.

5.3.1.1 Age

Leaders were significantly older than their followers. Interestingly, unlike leaders, followers' ages were far more diversified in terms of years, ranging mainly between 26 and 40 years of age, with very few below 25 years, whereas 75% of leaders' ages were above 36 years. This could be the nature of superiority.

5.3.1.2 Length of Relationship between Leaders and Follower Subordinates

The average mean relationship length between leaders and followers is 4.81 years, which may be a good indication of the rationality this gives to opinions. In other words, working with a superior or a subordinate for about five years might be a reasonably long enough period to judge or report the perceptions of such a relationship. Moreover, the average of five years is significantly above the minimum required in the participants' criteria (see Appendix A).

5.3.1.3 Length of Stay

In terms of the length of stay, the findings show that leaders had worked for longer than the subordinates in the banks. This may be due to a high turnover at the subordinate level, or due to the fact that the banking sector in Kuwait is more prone to organisational changes such as acquisitions and downsizing as a consequence of economics or reductions in oil prices that may lead to downsizing or cost cutting. This makes the private sector less secure in comparison to the government sector (Madzikanda and Njoku, 2008). This may be a possible explanation as to why 69% of male and 84% of female employees reject privatisation because of their concerns regarding its impact on job security (Madzikanda and Njoku, 2008). What may exacerbate this matter is the fact that the Kuwaiti government is obliged to secure jobs for its people, as enshrined in Sector Employment Law No. 16 of 1960, which guarantees a job in the public service for every qualified citizen (Al-Enezi, 2002).

5.3.1.4 Professional Qualification

Leaders scored slightly higher on professional qualifications than followers did. For example, most leaders (91%) hold a college qualification or an undergraduate or postgraduate degree, whereas the percentage for subordinates was 89.5%. This indicates that both leaders and subordinates hold high levels of professional qualification. This is not a surprising result as both the younger and older generations were offered various opportunities to proceed with their education after the opening of more universities and schools, one of which is the Open University in Kuwait. In addition to the rise in competition in the financial sector, bankers may tend toward furthering their education.

5.3.2 Relationships among Variables

The research hypotheses predicted a number of relationships among the research variables. The research results are discussed in light of the hypotheses.

5.3.2.1 Transformational Leadership and Job Performance

Hypothesis H₁ states, 'Transformational Leadership (TL) influences Job Performance (JP)'

Although an abundance of research reports that TL has a noticeable influence on employees' JP in the workplace (Shamir *et al.*, 1993; Lowe *et al.*, 1996; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Mohamed, 2016), this thesis did not arrive at the same findings as no significant influence was found between TL and JP. However, a few possible explanations can be drawn. One possible explanation is related to the four sub-dimensions of TL (II, IM, IC, and IS), which were not

considered in this hypothesis. For instance, the charismatic sub-dimensions – individualised influence (II) and individualised motivation (IM) – which are theoretically distinguished and strongly correlated (Bass and Avolio, 1990) may have a stronger impact on JP. Shamir *et al.* (1993) reviewed more than 20 studies and suggest that charismatic or TL sub-dimensions are positively associated with followers' performance and perceptions. In other words, TL, which was peer-reported by the subordinates in this thesis, may affect their perceptions as well as the charismatic dimensions of TL (II and IM). This might be the case, as the culturally popular leadership values in the Gulf (i.e. Kuwait and Qatar) indicates that charisma and consideration are among the most desirable values (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 2001). Moreover, the charismatic aspect is found to uplift and motivate followers (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1996). All of the above may have some sort of impact on TL if the four sub-dimensions are considered in relation to JP.

Another possible explanation for the inconsistency of hypothesis 1 with the previous literature may be due the level or type of performance. For example, Wang *et al.* (2011) found that TL has a stronger relationship with performance at the team level than at the individual level, whereas this thesis was conducted only at the individual level of performance. Although there is a dearth of research on the level of performance in comparison to subordinates' JP, the findings of Wang *et al.* (2011) are worthy of consideration.

In summary, the fact that hypothesis 1 is inconsistent with previous literature is a contribution itself as none of the narrow systematic reviews of the Gulf States examines such an insignificant relationship between TL and JP.

The next section discusses the impact of EWA on JP.

5.3.2.2 Employee Work Attitude and Job Performance

Hypothesis 2 states, 'Employee Work Attitude (EWA) influences Job Performance (JP).'

Contrary to expectations, this study (H₂) did not find a significant influence from employee EWA on JP, and this inconsistency with previous research may have a number of explanations. It seems possible that these results are due to cultural aspects such as *Wasta*. This social phenomenon of social networking, which is practiced widely in the Gulf States, represents strong ties in Arab culture (Abalkhail and Allan, 2016). Most importantly, *Wasta* may increase the chances of practising unfair behaviour (Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011), which could have an impact on subordinates' EWA (i.e. job satisfaction, commitment, or turnover), as indicated by Alreshoodi (2016). This is important due to the positive impact *Wasta* has on an individual's performance or perceptions (Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011), as well as the intention to leave an organisation (Aldossari and Robertson, 2016). Moreover, *Wasta* is considered to be a form of Arabic 'indigenous

nepotism' (Alreshoodi, 2016), through which the possibilities of unfair practices may arise. Thus, as in the definition of nepotism, *Wasta* includes preference and favouritism shown to relatives (Ford and McLaughlin, 1986; Abdalla *et al.*, 1998; Arasli and Tumer, 2008). In summary, *Wasta* is reported to have a strong impact on employees' outcomes (Alreshoodi, 2016), JP, or EWA.

There is another possible explanation that is related to nationalities. According to the findings, when the researcher controlled for nationalities (13 countries), a significant positive impact on JP (0.06) was found. However, when the researcher attempted to drill down deeper to understand whether there are any differences among Gulf nationals and non-Gulf nationals, an interesting finding arose. For instance, when the subordinates were divided into two groups – Gulf nationals and others of various countries – a significant relationship was also revealed between the two parties. This indicates that nationality in general may play a role in impacting JP if considered in future research, regardless of whether the subordinate is Arab or non-Arab. In a related vein, nationality was found to moderate the relationship between turnover and age as well as overall job satisfaction (Cotton and Tuttle, 1986). Moreover, Yousef (2000), who conducted a study in the Gulf context, reported that nationality has moderating impacts on EWA (i.e. job satisfaction) and leadership behaviour. This indicates that followers who perceive their leaders to be adopting certain leadership styles (i.e. participative or consultative) and who are UAE nationals tend to be more satisfied in their professions. However, such a moderating affect was not found in this study, which gives contradictory results in terms of nationality, and thus provides an interesting subject to explore in terms of the direct or indirect relationship with EWA and JP.

Since an insignificant influence between EWA and JP was not found elsewhere in the systematic reviews, this is likely due to the fact that the research was conducted in the banking sector. This is because significant negative relationships between EWA (i.e. turnover) and job performance were reported in the comprehensive meta-analysis of McEvoy and Cascio (1987), which was mainly conducted in non-banking sectors. Moreover, a study conducted in the judicial/power sector in California (Wright and Bonett, 1997) concluded that a significant relationship between EWA and staff performance exists. This is supported by another meta-analysis and review by Cotton and Tuttle (1986), published in the *Academy of Management Review*; the study reports that turnover (EWA) is influenced by a number of factors such as type of industry, employee population, and nationality. This indicates why the sector (industry) and employee population may affect the relationship between EWA and JP.

In summary, although the results of this thesis differ from some other published studies (Wright and Bonett, 1993, 1997; Clarke and Mahadi, 2017), the thesis can still be considered to make a contribution to the literature as it provides a different aspect or understanding of the relationship

between EWA and JP, particularly in the Gulf States, where no empirical work was found in the narrow systematic review. For instance, contrary to the western studies, this research indicated that EWA is not significant to JP in a non-western context. The inconsistency of the result found in this thesis between EWA and JP may be due to the abovementioned explanations as well as the contradictory findings within the existing literature. For instance, Petty *et al.* (1984) and Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) found a weak link between EWA and JP, whereas a potential relationship between performance and job satisfaction was suggested by Caldwell and O'Reilly III (1990) and Spector (1997). Further study on this topic is therefore recommended.

The thesis now turns to the discussion of how TL impacts JP when mediated by EWA.

5.3.2.3 EWA Mediation between TL and JP

Hypothesis H₃ states, 'Transformational leadership (TL) influences job performance (JP). This influence is mediated by employee work attitude (EWA).'

The current study has been unable to demonstrate that TL impacts JP when mediated by EWA. There are several possible explanations for this result, which may be related to cultural features related to the four sub-dimensions of TL, team performance, use of EWA, and person–job fit.

A key possible explanation may be due to the cultural aspects hidden within TL, particularly within the four sub-dimensions (i.e. II, IM, IC, and IS). As Leong and Fischer (2011) report, the high probability of different cultural effects manifests in the sub-dimensions of TL. Since the four sub-dimensions of TL were not considered in this thesis (i.e. hypothesis 3), a number of possible explanations may exist. For instance, studying the sub-dimensions of TL may reveal some interesting results. As the meta-analysis of Piccolo *et al.* (2012) reports, EWA (i.e. job satisfaction) is predicted by two important variables, which are consideration and TL. This indicates that a considerate type of leadership (e.g. individualised consideration) may be effective with respect to EWA (i.e. JS). Nevertheless, hypothesis 3 does not specify which dimensions of TL could have a stronger impact on JS and whether this could vary in different contexts. In the same vein, as a strong affective commitment (AC) is presumably facilitated by a collective identity (Meyer *et al.*, 2006), and while TL in general is affected by commitment (Avolio *et al.*, 2004), from testing hypothesis 3, the extent to which the four dimensions of TL could be affected by AC moderation in high-collectivist societies (e.g., Middle East or Gulf States) is not clear (see the systematic review of the Middle East/Gulf States literature in section 2.4).

Another explanation may be team performance. As TL and team performance have not been examined broadly in the literature (Bass *et al.*, 2003), the four sub-dimensions of TL may have a significant impact on 'team performance' if considered in this thesis instead of the individual job

performance discussed by Williams and Anderson (1991), which was reported to be insignificant. For example, a relationship has been established between TL and team performance (Balthazard *et al.*, 2002; Kahai *et al.*, 2003), whereas another study found links between the TL sub-dimensions and team performance (Dionne *et al.*, 2004), which is a relationship worth consideration in future research. This may lead to a stronger relationship between TL and the performance of the team instead of individual performance.

This research discrepancy (H₃) with the previous literature could be attributed to the use of different EWA components or JP constructs or measurements. For example, unlike the current thesis (see H₃), when Wright and Bonett (1997) used a well-being measurement as an EWA, they found a significant relationship with JP. This is consistent with Clarke and Mahadi (2017) (i.e. respect) and Jung and Avolio (2000), who suggest that a values congruence between subordinates and their superiors predicts a positive subordinate JP. In the same vein, the insignificant relationship found in this thesis between EWA and JP may be due to the use of a different measurement of performance such as that used by Wright and Bonett (1997), which led to a significant impact on EWA. However, this thesis used the validated measure of Williams and Anderson (1991), which subsequently became insignificant with JP. In summary, the use of a different measurement of EWA could result in a different finding when associated with performance (Jung and Avolio, 2000; Clarke and Mahadi, 2017). This applies to the use of different performance constructs, which may also lead to contrasting findings (See Wright and Bonett, 1993, 1997).

Another possible explanation for this might be related to person–job (P–J) fit. For instance, a highly significant positive correlation was found between EWA (i.e. well-being) and P–J fit, and positive effects were found between both EWA and P–J on JP (Lin *et al.*, 2014). Another study conducted in the service sector in Malaysia also reported a significant relationship between P–J fit and employee job performance (June and Mahmood, 2011), and this is supported by Hecht and Allen (2003). In other words, if considered, P–J fit may influence EWA and followers' performance in this thesis. This is consistent with a study conducted in the banking sector in Morocco (Middle East) by Aniss and Rajâa (2017), who reported a positively correlated relationship between EWA (i.e. organisational commitment) and P–J fit and person–organisation fit. The finding is also consistent with a number of other studies (e.g. Lauver and Kristof-Brown, 2001; Cable and DeRue, 2002; Saks and Ashforth, 2002; Shin, 2004; Kristof-Brown *et al.*, 2005; Greguras and Diefendorff, 2009), which found a positive relationship between EWA (i.e. organisational commitment, job satisfaction, and intention to leave) with person–job fit as well as performance. The above indicates that P–J fit might be a potential explanation for the findings.

In summary, there are a number of explanations for the results found from the testing of this hypothesis which are related to P–J fit, the use of different EWA components, and, most importantly, the absence of the four sub-dimensions of TL. This is why Leong and Fischer (2011) suggest that further study on the effects of culture on the four sub-dimensions of TL is recommended.

The following section discusses the findings of the models' fits.

5.3.2.4 Model Fit Comparisons (TL and d^2)

Hypothesis H_{4a} states, 'The relationship between subordinates reporting their leaders' TL and the subordinates JP will produce a better model fit than the TL difference scores (d₂) of leaders and followers.'

Hypothesis H_{4b} states, 'The TL model fit of subordinates reporting their leaders' TL will be better than the TL model fits of leaders.'

The findings of H_{4a} are supported. A possible explanation for these results may be due to the biased nature of the leaders self-reporting their TL styles (Yammarino and Atwater, 1997), which may have affected the leaders' model fits. These results may have been raised as self-reporting managers appear to have limited knowledge of their own managerial weaknesses and strengths, according to a comprehensive meta-analysis by Mabe and West (1982). Moreover, a number of theories and pieces of evidence suggest that low self-awareness could result in poor performance or outcomes (e.g., career failure) (London and Smither, 1995). This issue may be obvious in the leaders' model in comparison to that of the subordinates as, according to Fletcher and Baldry (2000), managers tend to rate themselves higher than their employees rate them, which is consistent with the findings of McEnery *et al.* (1982), Thornton (1980), and Waldman and Thornton III (1979), in addition to the meta-analyses of Harris and Schaubroeck (1988) and Conway and Huffcutt (1997). Moreover, the subordinates' TL model shows a higher model fit, which may be due to the objective nature of the participants peer-reporting their managers. Thus, this may have led to a stronger subordinate model than a leader model.

Regarding H_{4b}, the findings support this hypothesis. It is somewhat challenging to explain this result due to the lack of relevant literature on the difference score compared to the model fit of leaders and subordinates. However, a possible explanation may be that the difference score is a more realistic measure in comparison to the subordinates' model, in which they peer-reported their superiors and the leaders self-reported themselves. In summary, hypothesis 4 was supported due to the aforementioned possible explanations.

The next section discusses the influence of the TL sub-dimensions on JP when mediated by EWA.

5.3.2.5 Impact of TL Sub-dimensions on JP

Hypothesis H₅ states, 'Individualised Influence (II), Individualised Motivation (IM), and Individualised Consideration (IC) of subordinates reporting their leaders' TL will have a more significant impact on the subordinates self-reporting their Job Performance (JP) than Intellectual Stimulation (IS) when mediated by subordinates' self-reporting their Employee Work Attitude (EWA).'

This hypothesis was confirmed and makes an interesting contribution to the literature. The present findings seem to be consistent with our earlier expectations and other research, which indicates that some meaningful cultural findings may be found in the four sub-dimensions of TL (Leong and Fischer, 2011). This was one of the reasons why the researcher aimed to further 'unpack' the four sub-dimensions of TL (i.e. II, IM, IC and IS) in an attempt to provide a better understanding of their impact on JP when mediated by EWA. As a result, a number of significant impacts were reported between the four dimensions of TL and JP when mediated by EWA. II, IM, and IC showed a negative significant level of influence on JP when mediated by EWA whereas IS displayed a highly significant positive impact. This higher negative significant influence (from II, IM, and IC) on JP is a new contribution to the systematic review literature on the Gulf States (see section 2.4) and can be considered an interesting reinforcement of the western literature (Bass, 1998; House, 1999; Walumbwa *et al.*, 2005a; Leong and Fischer, 2011; Takahashi *et al.*, 2012; Kim, 2014; Deinert *et al.*, 2015; Kim and Kim, 2015) and Middle Eastern literature (Jabnoun and AL Rasasi, 2005; Mohamed, 2016).

Moreover, the impact on JP that is mediated by EWA is framed by the subordinates' perceptions of leadership. Thus, the gap identified in the thesis (section 2.4) has led to this interesting finding. This raises the question of whether or not empirical studies in the Gulf States (not covered in the systematic review criteria of this thesis) have examined such a relationship and whether they have arrived at the same results. As indicated in section 2.5, the Arabic studies were not included in this thesis' systematic reviews as they do not meet the review criteria. Further study on the current topic is therefore recommended.

The thesis results also match those observed in earlier studies. For instance, a study by Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001) notes that the implicit leadership theory in the Gulf context uses considerate leadership, and this thesis expected to find a remarkable meaningful impact from IC on job satisfaction and commitment (i.e. EWA) due to its relationship with performance (Emery and Barker, 2007) as well as turnover intention (Bycio *et al.*, 1995; Leveck and Jones, 1996;

Cowden *et al.*, 2011). Therefore, the findings of the present study are consistent with those of previous studies and the researcher's expectation that the IC, IM, and II sub-dimensions of TL could play a noticeable role in the Gulf context for a number of reasons. For example, the strong ties in Arab culture can be seen in the wide practice of *Wasta*. Moreover, in a recent IMF report (2018), Kuwait recorded the highest rate of *Wasta* in the Gulf States. This is a phenomenon of social networking that is common in the Gulf region (Abalkhail and Allan, 2016), as discussed in hypothesis 1, which may increase the chance of practising considerate behaviour that eventually has an impact on subordinates' EWA (i.e. job satisfaction).

Another possible explanation for the significant positive results of IS and the negative impacts of the other three TL sub-dimensions is likely to relate to the subordinates' perceptions of *Wasta*. For instance, if a subordinate was hired by a leader on the basis of *Wasta*, the other followers of the leader may tend to have a negative impression about their leaders which may not be the case for the followers who were hired or benefited by *Wasta* involvement. In other words, followers' perceptions regarding the style their leaders embody (i.e. II, IM and IC) could be skewed negatively if subordinates were not employed through this form of Middle Eastern nepotism (i.e. *Wasta*). Moreover, the three sub-dimensions (i.e. II, IM and IC) may be positive if the recruitment has not considered *Wasta*.

Even if some individuals feel unfairly treated due to *Wasta*, their intellectual stimulation (IS), which is the freedom to think and act, may explain why it showed a positive significant impact in a Middle Eastern context (i.e. Kuwait).

Moreover, although the previous literature review in relation to culture expected such differences between IS and the rest of TL sub-dimension, the unexpected finding was the sign of each dimensions.

Furthermore, the significant level of collectivism in the Gulf, which scores 25 on individualism based on Hofstede's (2016) categorisation, could account for this thesis' finding, which demonstrates a tendency towards considerate behaviours by managers towards their group members or subordinates. In addition, the remarkable high power distance of 90 degrees may be an element that leads subordinates to view their leaders as considerate individuals.

This finding also accords with the researcher's earlier observation, which showed that high uncertainty avoidance in the Gulf region scores 80 in comparison with the west, where the UK and the US score 35 and 46, respectively. This means that, in comparison with the Gulf and the US, people in the UK are less likely to feel threatened by any ambiguous or unknown situations they may encounter in life. Instead, members of the British culture tend to create beliefs and

institutions in an attempt to avoid the uncertainty associated with ambiguity (Hofstede, 1985). Therefore, anxiety is less common in British culture in comparison to the Arab world and the American culture. This finding of remarkably high uncertainty avoidance in the Gulf States may be a factor that leads to different results of IS in comparison to II, IM, and IC. IS, which revolves around giving people the freedom to act or think (Avolio and Bass, 2004; Luo *et al.*, 2013), may be affected by uncertainty avoidance which, by definition, could ignite the anxiety associated with uncertain or ambiguous decisions.

5.3.2.6 Leaders' and Followers' Self- and Peer-reporting

Hypothesis 6 states, 'Leaders will rate their TL higher than their followers rate them'.

The findings of the current study are consistent with the western studies of Waldman and Thornton III (1979), Thornton (1980), McEnery *et al.* (1982), Harris and Schaubroeck (1988), Conway and Huffcutt (1997) and Fletcher and Baldry (2000), which found that leaders do rate themselves higher than their subordinates would rate them. However, no research in the Gulf systematic review (section 2.3) substantiates this result. This study, which reports remarkably higher self-reporting results for leaders than the results of followers peer-reporting their leaders, may be due to the abnormally high power distance in the 90s in comparison with 35 and 40 for the UK and US, respectively (Hofstede, 2016).

This finding confirms the association between leaders overrating themselves and their limited knowledge of their own weaknesses. For example, the meta-analysis study of Mabe and West (1982) reports that managers who over-evaluate themselves appear to have limited knowledge of their own managerial weaknesses and strengths. This may be another explanation for the present research finding. This is important to consider or explore further as a number of theories and pieces of evidence suggest that low self-awareness could result in poor performance or outcomes (e.g., career failure), according to London and Smither (1995). The performance of financial institutions or banks may be even more important as this is related to people's and institutions' money.

Although this finding reinforces the western literature of Thornton (1980), McEnery *et al.* (1982), Harris and Schaubroeck (1988) and Fletcher and Baldry (2000), it is still an interesting contribution as it is not substantiated in the Gulf States literature (see section 2.4) and, more importantly, it reveals a key aspect relating to performance and outcomes (London and Smither, 1995).

More importantly, this self-overrating result of leaders' TL offers a possible explanation as to why the first three hypotheses (H1, H2 and H3) were not confirmed. For example, overrating leaders are more likely to find a positive relationship with JP whereas, when the direct-reporting views

are considered, which is 'a lower level', that relationship may disappear. In other words, the way in which leaders perceive themselves in terms of their leadership style versus their followers' perceptions of their leadership style could be quite different. This reinforces the contribution of this thesis in terms of considering peer-reporting and self-reporting.

5.3.3 Non-hypothesised Significant Findings

Some interesting significant results were found among the relationships between EWA and nationality, age, and TL, which were not hypothesised.

5.3.3.1 Nationality Influences EWA

The findings show that nationalities reveal a significant positive impact on EWA. Because a large proportion of people (69%) are Gulf State nationals (including Kuwaitis), data on nationalities may not be normally distributed. Thus, nationalities were divided in two groups – 'Gulf nationalities' and 'other nationalities'; these were tested as control variables. The results also show that 'Gulf nationalities' and 'other nationalities' impose insignificant impacts on EWA, which accords with the earlier findings on all nationalities. This indicates that – whether participants are from the Gulf States or from the rest of the world – this does not have an individual impact on EWA. As this result is difficult to explain, a test of nationalities' moderation was conducted to explore the potential relationship between TL and JP. The findings reveal that the nationalities of the subordinates do not moderate the relationship between TL and JP. In summary, a possible explanation may be due to the small sample size.

5.3.3.2 TL Impacts EWA

The present study reveals an interesting contribution to the growing body of literature on TL and EWA. A significant influence between TL and EWA was substantiated, which is consistent with previous literature (Kim, 2014; Jauhari *et al.*, 2017). One reason for the importance of this finding is related to the two major elements of EWA (i.e. JS and AC), which are viewed as important constructs that need to be examined in the workplace. This is because job satisfaction (EWA) is an indication of an individual's mental health or well-being, and it is presumed that it will lead to decent job performance as well as to motivation (Arnold and Silvester, 2005). Moreover, research shows that affective commitment (AC) is noticeably influenced by leadership style, such as TL (Kim, 2014; Jauhari *et al.*, 2017).

In addition, this research finding is rather interesting as it reinforces previous western studies in the Gulf context, in which TL was found to influence EWA more than transactional leadership, which is the second component of the full-range leadership model (FRLM) (see section 2.2.3). Thus, the present research finding is a good explanation of the impact of TL on EWA. Further study on the current topic is therefore recommended.

It seems possible that the present study result could lead to a better understanding of the TL impact on turnover (EWA). The employee's intention to leave a role, for instance, is another key form of attitude that could indicate an 'early warning sign', and it is important as turnover could impact organisational costs significantly (Arnold and Silvester, 2005 p. 274). This is important in any organisational context, particularly in the financial sector. Hence, this makes EWA another key point in understanding the impact of TL on employees' attitudes.

Taken together, these findings also suggest that there is an association between TL and EWA, which will serve as a basis for future studies.

5.3.3.3 Age Impacts JP

The findings also indicate that age demonstrates a highly significant positive impact on JP. This was inconsistent with Li and Hung (2009), who used the same construct of JP of Williams and Anderson (1991) that is used in this thesis. They controlled for age but reported an insignificant relationship between age and JP. It appears that this may be due to Li and Hung (2009) using self-reporting of performance, whereas this thesis used peer-reporting (i.e. followers evaluating their managers). In addition, age was not significantly related to co-workers' relationships (CWR). This is important as CWR is viewed as an alternative influence on the work attitudes and performance of employees (Seers (1989). In summary, age apparently impacts peer-reported job performance, as found in this thesis. However, when age was compared with self-reported job performance, it was insignificantly related to performance and attitude or CWR.

5.4 Conclusion

As evinced in the previous sections, three hypotheses of the six proposed are supported by this thesis. A number of significant relationships among the study variables are reported in detail. As discussed in this chapter, the research variables account for the variance in the subordinates' performance. In the next chapter, the summary and conclusions drawn from this thesis are presented.

The next chapter discusses the research summary, conclusions and recommendations.

Chapter 6: Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

6.1 Introduction

The previous chapter discussed the research findings and compared and contrasted these with past literature in order to confirm the significance of the findings. This chapter discusses the general findings of the research, including the implications for the target groups and directions for future study. Moreover, a discussion of the research limitations, recommendations, and future research is presented. The chapter ends with a final conclusion. The following section presents the key findings and conclusions.

6.2 Key Findings and Conclusions

A number of key findings and conclusions can be drawn from this research. For instance, the composite TL (all dimensions) that influences subordinates' performance in western studies on leadership (Bass, 1995; Lowe *et al.*, 1996; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Mohamed, 2016) does not impact followers' performance in the eastern context (i.e. Middle East). This is an interesting contribution to TL research and theory. However, a fundamentally different influence on JP arose when the composite TL was 'unpacked' into its four main sub-dimensions of II, IM, IS, and IC. This interesting result provides empirical evidence that questions the universality of TL in terms of the impact of its four sub-dimensions in non-western societies (i.e. Middle East or Eastern countries). The concept of TL may be applicable in a global context; however, the sub-dimensions that constitute TL may be affected by particular geographic areas or cultures. This suggests that the effectiveness of the four sub-dimensions of TL may not be as significant in developing nations as in developed countries (i.e. the UK and the US), particularly when it comes to the charismatic aspects (Abdalla and Al-Homoud, 2001). In addition, the sub-dimensions of TL (i.e. II, IM and IC) were negatively and significantly related to JP whereas IS was reported to be positively related to JP. This key finding was not identified in the narrow systematic review, which makes it an interesting cultural contribution to the theory of TL. The results may be due to a remarkably high uncertainty avoidance score of 80 in the Gulf States compared to the UK and US, which scored 35 and 46, respectively. This means that IS, which revolves around giving people the freedom to act or think (Avolio and Bass, 2004; Luo *et al.*, 2013), and ignites the anxiety associated with uncertain or ambiguous decisions, could be a reason behind the 'pulling down' of IS.

Chapter 6 Summary

The present research findings enhance our understanding of EWA in relation to JP and TL in terms of its mediating effect and direct relationship. For instance, the results of the SEM analysis show that, in contrast to the findings in the literature in western settings, subordinates' JP in the Gulf State context is not impacted by EWA, or by the composite measure of TL.

This thesis has gone some way towards enriching our understanding of how leaders in the Gulf context perceive themselves in terms of their style of leadership (i.e. transformational). Although this contribution is consistent with western literature (Fletcher, 2001; Bailey and Fletcher, 2002), it was not identified in the narrow systematic review despite the consequence of leaders being biased when it comes to self-reporting, which is discussed by Fletcher and Baldry (2000). The use of the *difference score* for leaders and their direct followers results in 72% of leaders in the Gulf context over-rating themselves by significantly more than their subordinates rate them, by between 1 and 4 points.

Unlike western research, it is evident that in this research (i.e. Middle Eastern context), JP is not influenced by TL and EWA; or by EWA when mediating the relationship between TL and JP. The aforementioned indicates that this research makes several contributions to the current literature. The thesis now turns to the research limitations.

6.3 Limitations of the Study

There were seven limitations found within the present research that need to be acknowledged. First, the major limitation was the use of the dyadic relationship, which was very difficult to study in Kuwait for cultural reasons. The number of interested participants reduced substantially when they were informed that they would be required to peer-report their direct superiors while managers would be peer-reporting their subordinates. Second, it is unfortunate that, due to time constraints, the researcher was not able to include participants from a range of sectors (i.e. public or private sector) in order to compare and contrast the findings. Third, these results may not be applicable to certain non-western cultures such as Far East Asia due to differences between the Arabic and Asian cultures. Fourth, as a limited number of nationalities participated (13) in the present research (mainly Gulf citizens), further research should consider widening the range of participating nationalities to understand better the cultural differences between western and eastern respondents. It would also be interesting to conduct a cross-nationality study to explore the cultural aspects in relation to TL. Fifth, the exclusion of non-English research in this thesis may have eliminated some insightful studies written in other languages (e.g., Arabic). Although this research focused on English language peer-reviewed studies to meet the quality criteria highlighted in section 2.5, future work may need to consider the inclusion of other languages,

particularly Arabic, for research conducted in the Middle East; this is because some Middle Eastern countries may not be homogeneous, such as Gulf and North African countries (e.g., Mauritania and Algeria). Sixth, the published reports, which are minimal in this thesis, may have a tendency to over-report some data or may rely on inaccurate data from the Gulf States. Seventh, another limitation was the fact that this research was conducted in the banking sector, thus, more sectors are needed. Finally, the percentage of female participants was relatively small (18%), whereas male participants accounted for 82%, which gives a very limited representation of females in the sample.

The future research is discussed next.

6.4 Future Research

This research has raised many questions that warrant further investigation. As there is a paucity of empirical studies to empirically substantiate the relationship between TL and JP in the Middle East (i.e. Gulf States), according to the narrow systematic review conducted in section 2.5, more research is required to examine the effect of TL on subordinates' performance; of the 12 dimensions found, none examines the JP of followers, despite the importance of performance on profit (Rowold and Heinitz (2007), attitude (Cowden *et al.*, 2011), and TL (Li and Hung, 2009; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Deinert *et al.*, 2015).

Further research is required to determine the efficacy of the FRLM in non-western contexts. In contrast to western studies, the study of Bealer and Bhanugopan (2014) revealed that leaders in the UAE are less transformational and less transactional but more passive-avoidant than their counterparts in the US and Europe. Moreover, significantly higher MBEA was reported in the UAE than in the US. However, the UAE's level of MBEA was significantly lower than that of Europe, according to Bealer and Bhanugopan (2014). Further study is therefore needed to examine this relationship.

More broadly, future studies should also consider including Arabic studies in the discussion as a wide range of non-English studies may provide insightful information that can be used to compare the findings with the relevant western literature.

According to the narrow systematic review in section 2.5, of the 17 identified quantitative studies, 59% used the multidimensional leadership questionnaire (MLQ), whereas 12% used non-MLQ measures. Interestingly, most of the MLQ research results produced positive findings in relation to relational leadership, in comparison to the non-MLQ results which produced fewer positive

Chapter 6 Summary

results. Hence, further investigation into the reasons behind this obvious variance in the non-western context (e.g., Middle East) is strongly recommended.

Another possible area for future research would be to investigate why using different components of EWA, particularly well-being, instead of the present research components of EWA (i.e. job satisfaction, affective commitment, and turnover intention) could lead to a remarkably significant relationship between TL and subordinates' performance. This is important as happy employees display high levels of job-related performance (Spector, 1997; Brief, 1998). Moreover, when Wright and Bonett (1997) used the well-being measurement as EWA, a significant relationship with JP was found. This may also mean that other work-related attitudes may need to be considered for future research, such as relational psychological contract (RPC), efficacy, job involvement, organisational citizenship behaviour (OCB), and the mutual recognition respect of Clarke and Mahadi (2015).

What is needed now is a cross-national study involving *Wasta* as an important phenomenon of social networking apparent in the Gulf region (Abalkhail and Allan, 2016), as this impacts individuals' performance (Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011) and leaders' decisions. Despite *Wasta* being considered an unfair practice, it is still deemed to be powerful in social life and business, where it is expected to maintain its status well into the future (Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011). Studying *Wasta* and leadership style (e.g., TL) may reveal insightful findings about culture, particularly when the four sub-dimensions of TL are examined, in which culture differences may arise, as maintained in the discussion chapter (see hypotheses 1, 2, and 3).

A greater focus on the national culture model of Hofstede (1985) in future research could produce interesting findings that account more for the cultural differences between the east and the west. A number of studies have revealed that, when examining some of the six cultural dimensions of Hofstede (1985) – such as uncertainty avoidance, individualism versus collectivism, and power distance – in relation to TL, a significant relationship is reported.

Although the Gulf countries are considered to be homogeneous (Al-Mulhim, 2014), no study has been found in Bahrain that meets the present study's systematic review criteria of TL studies, whereas the systematic review identified six studies in Kuwait, six in the UAE, one in Qatar, and one in Oman. The absence of TL in Bahrain, the second financial hub in the Gulf, is an intriguing issue that could be explored in future research.

As team performance has not been examined broadly in the literature (Bass *et al.*, 2003), more research needs to be conducted to study the impact of TL on team performance. This should include the composite TL as well as its four sub-dimensions. A direct relationship was reported

between TL and team performance (Balthazard *et al.*, 2002; Kahai *et al.*, 2003), while another study arrived at key findings in which links between the TL sub-dimensions and team performance were found (Dionne *et al.*, 2004). Thus, future trials should assess the impact of both team performance and individual performance on TL.

It is recommended that further research should examine a broader systematic review by studying the 'meta of meta-analysis' to provide an insightful overview of the published literature. This may help to understand why the TL style ignites followers' commitment and performance (Bass, 1995).

Although the present research covers all banks in Kuwait, including local and international banks, the study is limited to a single industry in the Gulf States. This assertion needs to be further validated by future studies, by applying similar set-ups to that used in this study in different countries and sectors. This should attain consistency within different samples.

Further research should be conducted to investigate the relationship between humour (an attitude), leadership style, and performance. This is because humour is used by superiors to cope with encountered levels of stress, as per Yovetich *et al.* (1990) and Ziv (1990), to enhance performance as well as the managerial process, as maintained by Malone (1980). Moreover, the findings of a study by Avolio *et al.* (1999) in the *Academy of Management Journal* show that humour moderates the relationship between leadership style (TL) and the performance of both individuals and at the unit level. Moreover, Avolio *et al.* (1999) suggest that future studies on how humour is used in a socially destructive or constructive way by a manager would be an interesting aspect to explore along with the moderation of humour between employees' performance and leadership style. All of the above suggests that humour is a useful attitude to explore in different contexts, as it may not be as effective in all societies due to cultural differences.

The contributions of the research are discussed next.

6.5 Contributions of the Research

The present research makes several noteworthy contributions, which include theoretical, methodological, and practical implications.

This research extends our knowledge of TL and its four sub-dimensions. It contributes to the existing knowledge on TL by providing noteworthy evidence of the different impacts each sub-dimension of TL has on the JP of subordinates in the non-western context. This is important as

Chapter 6 Summary

most research on leadership has been conducted in the western context in comparison with limited empirical works in eastern societies (Yukl, 2002).

It is apparent from the systematic review (section 2.5) that this research is also the first to examine three EWAs (i.e. JS, AC, and TO) simultaneously with TL. Most research has examined fewer variables simultaneously, which is a contribution to the theory and provides a deep understanding of such relationships. In addition, the conceptual research models (see section 2.7.3) make a substantial contribution to the theory and methodology.

More broadly, in this thesis, the interrelationship between the variables (TL, EWA, and JP), in light of the dyadic relationship which was not identified in the narrow systematic review, provides, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, in-depth data on leaders' and followers' perceptions of each other. Thus, this research is the first to assess comprehensively such variables in light of peer- and self-report approaches (see the narrow systematic review in section 2.5).

The research also addresses a noteworthy gap in the literature by adding to the knowledge on TL theory. For instance, a number of western studies suggest that TL impacts JP (Menaker and Bahn, 2008; Voon, Lo, Ngui and Ayob, 2011; Shibru and Darshan, 2011), or EWA when mediating TL and JP; however, in contrast to the literature and expectations, the present research reports no influence on JP from TL; nor from TL when mediated by EWA. This is an important contribution to the theory of TL as well as work-related attitudes.

As the literature was found to revolve primarily around the self-reporting of leaders' styles, and because there is a dearth of research that explores the dyadic relationship in the broader literature, and none of the six Gulf States has attempted to examine the four sub-dimensions of TL in relation to JP in any sector, this makes the current empirical work an interesting contribution to the theory and literature. The study will also serve as a basis for future research.

Another significant contribution to the literature and theory was revealed when TL was 'unpacked' to explore the impact of its four sub-dimensions (i.e. II, IM, IC and IS), in which cultural differences were found. That is to say, II, IM, and IC are negatively related to JP, whereas IS positively influences JP. However, when the present research used the composite TL measure, no significant relationship was reported with JP or with EWA. This extends our knowledge of TL and its effect on the performance of subordinates in the non-western context, which may be due to hidden cultural aspects.

The research also revealed that the subordinates' model fit of TL (employees reporting on their leaders' TL styles) and JP are stronger than the model fit of leaders self-reporting their own TL style. However, when the difference score model was considered, a notably stronger model fit

was found. This is an interesting and key contribution to the theory and methodology. In other words, this finding indicates that the 'subjective model' of leaders self-reporting their leadership style is not as good as the 'objective model' in which subordinates peer-report their superiors' TL style. However, when the difference score between both models (leaders and subordinates) was calculated, an even stronger model fit was produced. This contribution was not located in either the broader or the narrow systematic review, which extends our knowledge of TL in light of peer-report, self-report, difference score, and subordinates' JP.

In addition, it was found that leaders in the Gulf context (i.e. Kuwait) tend to rate themselves higher than their subordinates rate them in terms of TL. Although this is consistent with western literature, none of the extant literature (i.e. Gulf) has reported such a remarkable score difference. The difference score was reported in 57% of cases (manager versus subordinate), most of which scored fairly high difference scores ranging between 2 and 4. This may be due to a number of cultural explanations, as addressed in the discussion chapter (see the discussion on hypothesis 4).

This research provides additional evidence with respect to employee turnover. According to McEvoy and Cascio (1987), most managers of organisations have difficulty finding readily available information on their employees' intention to leave. However, the limited available information in this regard has little value in terms of providing approaches for superiors to deal with subordinates' decisions to leave their jobs. Moreover, the narrow systematic review in this research (section 2.5) indicates that there is inadequate examination of the relationship between turnover intention and leadership styles in the Gulf literature, which this thesis has attempted to rectify.

The results presented in this research extend the previous findings on the relevance of TL on JP (Bass, 1995; Lowe *et al.*, 1996; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Wang *et al.*, 2011; Mohamed, 2016) and EWA (Koh *et al.*, 1995; Menaker and Bahn, 2008; Cowden *et al.*, 2011; Shibru and Darshan, 2011; Voon, Lo, Ngui and Ayob, 2011; Kim, 2014; Jauhari *et al.*, 2017).

This research has empirically substantiated and extended the theoretical propositions and empirical findings pertaining to the influence of TL on JP. This study is the first to empirically demonstrate the influence of the four sub-dimensions of TL on JP in the banking sector in the Gulf States, which meets the systematic review criteria of this research.

Moreover, this research adds another study to the existing Gulf literature, which was conducted on the whole population (i.e. 23 internal and local banks in Kuwait) using the 'all population

Chapter 6 Summary

sample'. This involves all members (banks) within the population of interest, which offers in-depth insights into the examined phenomena.

Regarding the methodology, the key contribution of this research of this is the dyadic relationship aspects and the use of difference score (d^2) in the thesis analyses.

In summary, this thesis extends our knowledge in a number of key areas, including the four sub-dimensions of TL and their compositional impact on JP in light of work-related attitudes and culture. It also contributes to the TL dyadic relationship between leaders and subordinates, mediating the role of EWA, model fit comparison (i.e. leaders' and subordinates' self- and peer-reporting), TL difference score, leaders over-rating themselves, lack of turnover intention information, and the full population sample.

6.5.1 Practical Implications Contribution

A number of practical implications can be drawn from this research. First, the findings show that EWA does not mediate the relationship between the TL and JP of followers. Hence, this indicates that financial institutions and leadership development programmes should not rely entirely on work-related attitudes to influence followers' performance as the TL style in the Gulf context (i.e. Kuwait), unlike the west, does not have a direct influence on followers' performance. Nevertheless, the charismatic TL sub-dimensions (II and IM) and IC have significant negative impacts on the performance of employees whereas IS is positively related to followers' performance. This means that, when leaders allow their followers the freedom to think and act in relation to a problem using intellectually different approaches, this stimulates an increase in followers' performance and vice versa for II, IM, and IC. This particular finding of intellectual stimulation (IS) can be used to develop targeted interventions aimed at developing the IS of subordinates in an attempt to boost the followers' job performance.

As one of the key findings indicates that employee work attitude (EWA) does not have a direct influence on subordinates' job performance, a reasonable approach to tackle this issue could be to explore the wellbeing factor of subordinates which was found to have a direct influence on followers' performance. This may be achieved through introducing programmes or incentives that increase the well-being of banks' subordinates such as offering pension funds, flexible working hours, staff promotions, stock options, and increasing salaries and bonuses, among others.

In the Kuwait banking sector, leaders (e.g., self-reporting) tend to report their leadership style higher than their subordinates peer-report them. A reasonable approach to tackle this issue of

bias could be to consider a 360-degree reporting approach or a balance of both self-reporting and peer-reporting. This may limit the biased nature of leaders self-reporting on their styles.

As subordinates' perceptions of their leader' TL does not have a direct influence on their leaders' style, there is definite need for decision makers in the banking sector to avoid the implementation of training programmes that rely mainly on TL style in an attempt to boost followers' performance. For instance, HR managers may consider other drivers or cultural differences that may lead to performance increase.

The research findings provide information for the different implications of the four sub-dimensions of transformational leadership. For instance, the banking executives need to consider increasing the practice of Intellectual Stimulation (IS) as it was found to be stronger in influencing the performance of followers in the banking industry in comparison with the other four TL dimensions (i.e. II, IM and IC). This can be operationalised by offering training courses and workshops that enhance intellectual stimulation (IS).

Another interesting avenue for practical implications is related to communication and JP. For instance, according to Li and Hung (2009), leaders are strongly advised to uphold good practices of communication interaction in the workplace to boost relationships among colleagues in order to encourage favourable JP.

The thesis provides additional evidence with respect to the following:

- The findings may draw the attention of boards of directors of banks and HR professionals to the importance of leadership style, particularly TL, on the performance of their employees. This may lead to better criteria for selecting TL. In fact, a couple of leading banks in Kuwait indicated to the researcher their initial interest in enhancing the leadership selection criteria, in which TL may be considered.
- Potentially, this research may help business consultancy firms to consider cultural differences in their business advice in an attempt to improve the performance of businesses and leaders.
- The research may further help private-sector businesses to open up avenues for leadership programmes in the area of TL in relation to subordinates' JP.
- The research findings may provide information on cultural differences in relation to leadership styles (i.e. TL) to international firms and individuals who are intending to establish businesses in Kuwait.

- This thesis may draw the attention of executives developing programmes, such as the Institute of Banking Studies, which is a leading institution in the Gulf region, to focus on leaders' and followers' training, consultancy services, and professional education in finance.

6.6 Conclusion

This study provides an exciting opportunity to advance our knowledge of transformational leadership theory and its practical implications and contributions. In addition, further research should be conducted to investigate the unanswered questions.

In terms of practical implications and contributions, this research has contributed further knowledge to enable a better understanding of the leadership style (i.e. TL) for use with followers in professional environments (i.e. the banking sector). By applying the findings of this research, leaders can efficiently adjust their behaviours (i.e. four sub-dimensions) to enhance followers' job performance. Moreover, leaders may also benefit from the influence of intellectual stimulation (IS) on followers' performance by developing IS skills to boost subordinates' job performance. In addition, the subjectivity of using the self-reporting leadership style in the Gulf, as discussed in section 2.5, could be eliminated by considering non-biased approaches such as self-reporting methods; that is, a 360-degree reporting approach or a balance of both peer and self-reporting. This could be a reasonable approach for leaders to tackle the matters of bias encountered by corporates. Furthermore, as employees' work attitudes (EWA) do not have a direct influence on followers' job performance, institutions may consider other form of employee attitudes that were reported to enhance the performance of followers.

This research has raised important issues for future research. For instance, as EWA do not have a direct impact on followers' job performance, leaders may now consider other EWA, such as well-being, which is reported to have a significant relationship with followers' job performance (Wright and Bonett, 1997). Moreover, happy workers display a high level of job-related performance (Spector, 1997; Brief, 1998).

The present study also offers several noteworthy contributions to TL theory. An interesting contribution is that the composite TL (all dimensions) that influences subordinates' performance in western studies on leadership (Bass, 1995; Lowe et al., 1996; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Wang et al., 2011; Mohamed, 2016) does not impact followers' performance in the eastern context (i.e. Middle East). This is a notable empirical contribution to TL theory. A further exciting contribution arose when universality of TL was tested concerning its four sub-dimensions in a non-western context. That is, the effectiveness of the four sub-dimensions of TL in the developing countries

(i.e. Kuwait) was not as significant as in the developed countries (e.g. the UK and the US). In addition, the empirical findings in the current study provide a new understanding of the TL sub-dimensions that was not identified in the Gulf systematic review, as discussed in section 2.5. It was found that II, IM and IC were negatively and significantly related to JP. However, IS was found to be positively related to followers' job performance. This is viewed as a cultural contribution to TL theory for the reasons discussed in section 6.2. This research also enriches our understanding of EWA concerning followers' job performance and its direct influence and mediating effect. For example, in contrast to the western literature, setting followers' job performance in the Gulf context is not influenced by employee work attitude or the composite measure of TL, which is itself a valuable contribution. Furthermore, the present study also demonstrates, for the first time, according to the narrow systematic review (i.e. section 2.5), that leaders in the Gulf have overrated themselves according to the score difference approach, which has not been reported elsewhere in the region.

In contrast to the western context, this study demonstrates that job performance is not impacted by composite TL and EWA, nor by EWA, when mediating the relationship between TL and JP. The points mentioned above demonstrate that the present study has provided noteworthy contributions to the current literature on TL and its practices. The research also serves as an interesting base for future studies on TL.

Bibliography

- Abalkhail, J.M. and Allan, B. (2016) "Wasta" and women's careers in the Arab Gulf States. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 31 (3), 162-180.
- Abdalla, H.F., Maghrabi, A.S. and Raggad, B.G. (1998) Assessing the perceptions of human resource managers toward nepotism: A cross-cultural study. *International Journal of Manpower*, 19 (8), 554-570.
- Abdalla, I.A. and Al-Homoud, M.A. (2001) Exploring the implicit leadership theory in the Arabian Gulf states. *Applied Psychology*, 50 (4), 506-531.
- Abualrub, R.F. and Alghamdi, M.G. (2012) The impact of leadership styles on nurses' satisfaction and intention to stay among Saudi nurses. *Journal of Nursing Management*, 20 (5), 668-678.
- Al-Beraidi, A. and Tudor, R. (2003) Creative team climate in an international accounting office: an exploratory study in Saudi Arabia. *Managerial Auditing Journal*, 18 (1), 7-18.
- Al-Beraidi, A. and Tudor, R. (2006) Rethinking creativity in the accounting profession: to be professional and creative. *Journal of Accounting & Organizational Change*, 2 (1), 25-41.
- Al-Enezi, A.K. (2002) Kuwait's employment policy: its formulation, implications, and challenges. *International Journal of Public Administration*, 25 (7), 885-900.
- Al-Mailam, F.F. (2004) Transactional versus transformational style of leadership—employee perception of leadership efficacy in public and private hospitals in Kuwait. *Quality Management in Healthcare*, 13 (4), 278-284.
- Al-Mulhim, A. (2014) Kuwait: Past and present. *Arab News*. Available from: <http://www.arabnews.com/news/598756>
- Aldossari, M. and Robertson, M. (2016) The role of wasta in repatriates' perceptions of a breach to the psychological contract: a Saudi Arabian case study. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 27 (16), 1854-1873.
- Alreshoodi, S.A. (2016) *Negative Institutional Influences in The Saudi Public Sector: Wasta, Public Service Motivation and Employee Outcomes*, PhD thesis, Cardiff University.
- Alsaeedi, F. and Male, T. (2013) Transformational leadership and globalization: Attitudes of school principals in Kuwait. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 41 (5), 640-657.
- Analoui, F., Ahmed, A.A. and Kakabadse, N. (2010) Parameters of managerial effectiveness: The case of senior managers in the Muscat Municipality, Oman. *Journal of Management Development*, 29 (1), 56-78.
- Anderson, D., Sweeney, D., Williams, T., Camm, J. and Cochran, J. (2002) *Statistics for Business and Economics, South-Western*. Cincinnati, USA: Thomson Learning Publishing.
- Anderson, J.C. and Gerbing, D.W. (1988) Structural equation modeling in practice: A review and recommended two-step approach. *Psychological Bulletin*, 103 (3), 411.

Bibliography

- Aniss, A.I.T. and Rajâa, O. (2017) Impact of person-job fit, person-organization fit, information sharing and empowerment on organizational commitment of moroccan banks managers. *International Journal of Emerging in Management & Technology*, 6 (2).
- Anseel, F., Beatty, A.S., Shen, W., Lievens, F. and Sackett, P.R. (2015) How are we doing after 30 years? A meta-analytic review of the antecedents and outcomes of feedback-seeking behavior. *Journal of Management*, 41 (1), 318-348.
- Antonakis, A. (2001) *The nature of leadership 101-124*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Antonakis, J., Avolio, B.J. and Sivasubramaniam, N. (2003) Context and leadership: An examination of the nine-factor full-range leadership theory using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 14 (3), 261-295.
- Antonakis, J., Bastardoz, N., Liu, Y. and Schriesheim, C.A. (2014) What makes articles highly cited? *The Leadership Quarterly*, 25 (1), 152-179.
- Antonakis, J. and Day, D.V. (2017) *The nature of leadership*, 3rd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Antonakis, J. and House, R.J. (2014) Instrumental leadership: Measurement and extension of transformational–transactional leadership theory. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 25 (4), 746-771.
- Arasli, H. and Tumer, M. (2008) Nepotism, favoritism and cronyism: A study of their effects on job stress and job satisfaction in the banking industry of north Cyprus. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, 36 (9), 1237-1250.
- Arnold, J. and Silvester, J. (2005) *Work psychology: Understanding human behaviour in the workplace*, 4th ed. Harlow, England: Pearson Education.
- Atiyyah, H.S. (1992) Research note: Research in Arab countries, published in Arabic. *Organization Studies*, 13 (1), 105-110.
- Avolio, B.J. (1999) *Full leadership development: Building the vital forces in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Avolio, B.J. (2010) *Full range leadership development*, 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publication.
- Avolio, B.J. and Bass, B.M. (1994) *Evaluate the impact of transformational leadership training at individual, group, organizational and community levels. Final report to W.K. Kellogg Foundation, Center for Leadership, Binghamton University, Binghamton*. New York.
- Avolio, B.J. and Bass, B.M. (2004) *Multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ)*. USA Mind Garden.
- Avolio, B.J. and Gardner, W.L. (2005) Authentic leadership development: Getting to the root of positive forms of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16 (3), 315-338.
- Avolio, B.J., Howell, J.M. and Sosik, J.J. (1999) A funny thing happened on the way to the bottom line: Humor as a moderator of leadership style effects. *Academy of Management Journal*, 42 (2), 219-227.
- Avolio, B.J., Walumbwa, F.O. and Weber, T.J. (2009) Leadership: Current theories, research, and future directions. *Annual review of psychology*, 60, 421-449.

- Avolio, B.J., Zhu, W., Koh, W. and Bhatia, P. (2004) Transformational leadership and organizational commitment: Mediating role of psychological empowerment and moderating role of structural distance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25 (8), 951-968.
- Aydin, A., Sarier, Y. and Uysal, S. (2013) The Effect of School Principals' Leadership Styles on Teachers' Organizational Commitment and Job Satisfaction. *Educational Sciences: Theory and Practice*, 13 (2), 806-811.
- Bailey, C. and Fletcher, C. (2002) The impact of multiple source feedback on management development: Findings from a longitudinal study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23 (7), 853-867.
- Balthazard, P., Waldman, D., Howell, J. and Atwater, L. (2002) Modeling performance in teams: the effects of media type, shared leadership, interaction style, and cohesion. Paper presented at Academy of Management Meeting, Denver, CO, August, 2002
- Banks, G.C., Mccauley, K.D., Gardner, W.L. and Guler, C.E. (2016) A meta-analytic review of authentic and transformational leadership: A test for redundancy. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 27 (4), 634-652.
- Barling, J., Weber, T. and Kelloway, E.K. (1996) Effects of transformational leadership training on attitudinal and financial outcomes: A field experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81 (6), 827.
- Baron, R.M. and Kenny, D.A. (1986) The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51 (6), 1173.
- Bartol, K. and Martin, D. (1998) *Management*. Boston: McGraw-Hill.
- Bass, B.M. (1985) *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: Free Press.
- Bass, B.M. (1995) Theory of transformational leadership redux. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 6 (4), 463-478.
- Bass, B.M. (1998) *Transformational leadership: Industry, military, and education impact*. Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Bass, B.M. (1999) Two decades of research and development in transformational leadership. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8 (1), 9-32.
- Bass, B.M. and Avolio, B.J. (1990) *Transformational leadership development: Manual for the multifactor leadership questionnaire*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Bass, B.M. and Avolio, B.J. (1993) Transformational leadership and organizational culture. *Public Administration Quarterly*, 17 (1), 112-121.
- Bass, B.M., Avolio, B.J., Jung, D.I. and Berson, Y. (2003) Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88 (2), 207-218.
- Bass, B.M. and Bass, R. (2008) *The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications*, 4th ed. New York: Free Press.
- Bauer, T.N. and Erdogan, B. (2015) *The Oxford handbook of leader-member exchange*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Bibliography

- Bealer, D. and Bhanugopan, R. (2014) Transactional and transformational leadership behaviour of expatriate and national managers in the UAE: a cross-cultural comparative analysis. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 25 (2), 293-316.
- Beaugrand, C. (2016) Deconstructing minorities/majorities in parliamentary Gulf states (Kuwait and Bahrain). *British Journal of Middle Eastern Studies*, 43 (2), 234-249.
- Behery, M., Paton, R. and Hussain, R. (2012) Psychological contract and organizational commitment: The mediating effect of transformational leadership. *Competitiveness Review: An International Business Journal*, 22 (4), 299-319.
- Bell, J. (2010) *Doing your research project : A guide for first-time researchers in education, health and social science*, 5th ed. Berkshire, England: Open University Press.
- Bentler, P.M. and Bonett, D.G. (1980) Significance tests and goodness of fit in the analysis of covariance structures. *Psychological Bulletin*, 88 (3), 588.
- Blake, R. and Mouton, J. (1964) *The managerial grid: The key to leadership excellence*. Houston: Gulf Publishing
- Blake, R.R. and Mccanse, A.A. (1991) *Leadership dilemmas--grid solutions*. Houston: Gulf Professional Publishing.
- Blake, R.R. and Mouton, J.S. (1978) What's New with the Grid? *Training and Development Journal*, 32 (5), 3-8.
- Blake, R.R. and Mouton, J.S. (1985) *The new managerial grid III*. Houston, TX: Gulf Publishing.
- Bogler, R., Caspi, A. and Roccas, S. (2013) Transformational and passive leadership: An initial investigation of university instructors as leaders in a virtual learning environment. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 41 (3), 372-392.
- Bono, J.E. and Judge, T.A. (2003) Self-concordance at work: Toward understanding the motivational effects of transformational leaders. *Academy of Management Journal*, 46 (5), 554-571.
- Boswell, W. (2006) Aligning employees with the organization's strategic objectives: Out of 'line of sight', out of mind. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 17 (9), 1489-1511.
- Bowers, D.G. and Seashore, S.E. (1966) Predicting organizational effectiveness with a four-factor theory of leadership. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 11 (2), 238-263.
- Breakwell, G., Hammond, S. and Fife-Schaw, C. (1999) *Research Methods In Psychology*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Brief, A.P. (1998) *Attitudes in and around organizations*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Brislin, R., Lonner, W. J., & Thorndike, R. (1973) *Cross-cultural research methods*. New York: Wiley.
- Brislin, R.W. (1980) Translation and content analysis of oral and written materials IN: (, T.a.J.W.B. (ed.) *Handbook of cross-cultural psychology*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon., 389-444.
- Brocato, B., Jelen, J., Schmidt, T. and Gold, S. (2011) Leadership conceptual ambiguities. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 5 (1), 35-50.
- Bryman, A. (1992) *Charisma and leadership in organizations*. London: Sage Publications.

- Bryman, A. (2011) *The SAGE handbook of leadership*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Bryman, A. and Bell, E. (2015) *Business research methods*. Oxford University Press, USA.
- Burns, J.M. (1978) *Leadership*. New York: Harper & Row.
- Burrell, G. and Morgan, G. (1979) *Sociological paradigms and organisational analysis*. Aldershot, UK: Gower.
- Butler, C. (2009) Leadership in a multicultural Arab organisation. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 30 (2), 139-151.
- Bycio, P., Hackett, R.D. and Allen, J.S. (1995) Further assessments of Bass's (1985) conceptualization of transactional and transformational leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80 (4), 468-478.
- Byrne, B. (2010) *Multivariate applications series. Structural equation modeling with AMOS: Basic concepts, applications, and programming*. New York: Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group.
- Cable, D.M. and Derue, D.S. (2002) The convergent and discriminant validity of subjective fit perceptions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87 (5), 875.
- Caldwell, D.F. and O'reilly Iii, C.A. (1990) Measuring person-job fit with a profile-comparison process. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75 (6), 648.
- Cartwright, D. and Zander, A. (1960) *Individual motives and group goals: Introduction*, 2nd ed. Evanston, IL: Row Peterson and Company.
- Cavana, R.Y., Delahaye, B.L. and Sekaran, U. (2001) *Applied business research: Qualitative and quantitative methods*. Australia: John Wiley & Sons.
- Chaker, M.N. and Jabnoun, N. (2010) Barriers to service quality in Islamic banks in Qatar. *International Journal of Commerce and Management*, 20 (4), 296-307.
- Chiaburu, D.S., Smith, T.A., Wang, J. and Zimmerman, R.D. (2014) Relative importance of leader influences for subordinates' proactive behaviors, prosocial behaviors, and task performance. *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, 70-86.
- Chin, J.M.-C. (2007) Meta-analysis of transformational school leadership effects on school outcomes in Taiwan and the USA. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 8 (2), 166-177.
- Chin, W.W. (1998) Commentary: Issues and Opinion on Structural Equation Modeling. *MIS Quarterly*, 22 (1), vii-xvi.
- Chua, W.F. (1986) Radical developments in accounting thought. *Accounting Review*, 61 (4), 601-632.
- Church, A.H. (1997) Do you see what I see? An exploration of congruence in ratings from multiple perspectives. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 27 (11), 983-1020.
- Clarke, N. and Mahadi, N. (2015) Mutual recognition respect between leaders and followers: Its relationship to follower job performance and well-being. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 141 (1), 163-178.
- Clarke, N. and Mahadi, N. (2017) Mutual recognition respect between leaders and followers: Its relationship to follower job performance and well-being. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 141 (1), 163-178.

Bibliography

- Clarke, S. (2013) Safety leadership: A meta-analytic review of transformational and transactional leadership styles as antecedents of safety behaviours. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 86 (1), 22-49.
- Coleman, E., Patterson, E., Fuller, B., Hester, K. and Stringer, D. (1995) A meta-analytic examination of leadership style and selected follower compliance outcomes. Paper presented at Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Orlando, FL.
- Combe, C. (2014) *Introduction to management*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Conger, J.A. and Kanungo, R.N. (1998) *Charismatic leadership in organizations*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.
- Conway, J.M. and Huffcutt, A.I. (1997) Psychometric properties of multisource performance ratings: A meta-analysis of subordinate, supervisor, peer, and self-ratings. *Human Performance*, 10 (4), 331-360.
- Cook, P. (2000) Jazz and Leadership. *Strategy*, 9-10.
- Cooper, C.D., Scandura, T.A. and Schriesheim, C.A. (2005) Looking forward but learning from our past: Potential challenges to developing authentic leadership theory and authentic leaders. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16 (3), 475-493.
- Corbetta, P. (2003) *Social research: Theory, methods and techniques*, 1st ed. London: Sage Publications.
- Cotton, J.L. and Tuttle, J.M. (1986) Employee turnover: A meta-analysis and review with implications for research. *Academy of Management Review*, 11 (1), 55-70.
- Cowden, T., Cummings, G. and Profetto-Mcgrath, J. (2011) 'Leadership practices and staff nurses' intent to stay: a systematic review'. *Journal of nursing management*, 19 (4), 461-477.
- Crossman, A. and Abou-Zaki, B. (2003) Job satisfaction and employee performance of Lebanese banking staff. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 18 (4), 368-376.
- Cummings, G.G., Macgregor, T., Davey, M., Lee, H., Wong, C.A., Lo, E., Muise, M. and Stafford, E. (2010) Leadership styles and outcome patterns for the nursing workforce and work environment: a systematic review. *International journal of nursing studies*, 47 (3), 363-385.
- Cunningham, R.B. and Sarayrah, Y.K. (1993) *Wasta: The hidden force in Middle Eastern society*. Praeger Publishers.
- Curwin, J. and Slater, R. (2007) *Quantitative methods for business decisions*. Cengage Learning EMEA.
- Day, D.V., Zaccaro, S.J. and Halpin, S.M. (2004) *Leader development for transforming organizations: Growing leaders for tomorrow*. Psychology Press.
- Deinert, A., Homan, A.C., Boer, D., Voelpel, S.C. and Gutermann, D. (2015) Transformational leadership sub-dimensions and their link to leaders' personality and performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 26 (6), 1095-1120.
- Della Porta, D. and Keating, M. (2008) *Approaches and methodologies in the social sciences: A pluralist perspective*. Cambridge University Press.
- Deluga, R.J. (1992) The relationship of leader-member exchanges with laissez-faire, transactional, and transformational leadership in naval environments. *Impact of leadership*, 237-247.

- Den Hartog, D.N., House, R.J., Hanges, P.J., Ruiz-Quintanilla, S.A., Dorfman, P.W., Abdalla, I.A., Adetoun, B.S., Aditya, R.N., Agourram, H. and Akande, A. (1999) Culture specific and cross-culturally generalizable implicit leadership theories: Are attributes of charismatic/transformational leadership universally endorsed? . *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10 (2), 219-256.
- Dent, E.B., Higgins, M.E. and Wharff, D.M. (2005) Spirituality and leadership: An empirical review of definitions, distinctions, and embedded assumptions. *The leadership quarterly*, 16 (5), 625-653.
- Dionne, S.D., Yammarino, F.J., Atwater, L.E. and Spangler, W.D. (2004) Transformational leadership and team performance. *Journal of organizational change management*, 17 (2), 177-193.
- Do, M.H. and Minbashian, A. (2014) A meta-analytic examination of the effects of the agentic and affiliative aspects of extraversion on leadership outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 25 (5), 1040-1053.
- Downton, J.V. (1973) *Rebel leadership: Commitment and charisma in the revolutionary process*. New York: The Free Press.
- Drath, W.H. and Palus, C.J. (1994) *Making common sense: Leadership as meaning-making in a community of practice*. Greensboro, North Carolina: Center for Creative Leadership.
- Druskat, V.U. (1994) Gender and leadership style: Transformational and transactional leadership in the Roman Catholic Church. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 5 (2), 99-119.
- Dvir, T., Eden, D., Avolio, B.J. and Shamir, B. (2002) Impact of transformational leadership on follower development and performance: A field experiment. *Academy of management journal*, 45 (4), 735-744.
- Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R., Jackson, P. and Lowe, A. (2008) Management research (ed.). London: SAGE. Ellison, N., Steinfeld, C., & Lampe, C.(2007). "The benefits of Facebook" friends:" social capital and college students' use of online social network sites. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 12, 1143-1168.
- Easterby-Smith, M., Thorpe, R. and Jackson, P.R. (2012) *Management research*. Sage.
- Elgamal, M.A. (2012) An empirical analysis of female leadership in the Arab world. *International Journal of Management and Marketing Research*, 5 (1), 95-102.
- Emery, C.R. and Barker, K.J. (2007) The effect of transactional and transformational leadership styles on the organizational commitment and job satisfaction of customer contact personnel. *Journal of organizational culture, communications and conflict*, 11 (1), 77.
- Epitropaki, O. and Martin, R. (2005) The moderating role of individual differences in the relation between transformational/transactional leadership perceptions and organizational identification. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16 (4), 569-589.
- Evans, M.G. (1970) The effects of supervisory behavior on the path-goal relationship. *Organizational behavior and human performance*, 5 (3), 277-298.
- Fairholm, G.W. (1996) Spiritual leadership: Fulfilling whole-self needs at work. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 17 (5), 11-17.
- Fairholm, G.W. (2000) *Perspectives on leadership: From the science of management to its spiritual heart*, 2nd ed. USA: Greenwood Publishing Group.

Bibliography

- Fairholm, M.R. (2003) *Conceiving leadership: Exploring five perspectives of leadership by investigating the conceptions and experiences of selected metropolitan Washington area municipal managers.*
- Fiedler, F. (1967) *A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness.* New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Fiedler, F. (2015) Contingency theory of leadership: Fred Fiedler IN: Miner, J.B. (ed.) *Essential theories of motivation and leadership.* New York: Routledge, 232-255.
- Fiedler, F.E. (1964) A Contingency Model of Leadership Effectiveness *Advances in experimental social psychology.* USA: Elsevier, 149-190.
- Fiedler, F.E. (1978) The Contingency Model and the Dynamics of the Leadership Process *Advances in experimental social psychology.* Elsevier, 59-112.
- Fiedler, F.E. and Chemers, M.M. (1974) *Leadership and effective management* Glenview, Illinois: Foresman and Company.
- Fiedler, F.E. and Garcia, J.E. (1987) *New approaches to effective leadership: Cognitive resources and organizational performance.* Oxford, England: John Wiley & Sons.
- Fletcher, C. (1999) The implications of research on gender differences in self-assessment and 360 degree appraisal. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 9 (1), 39-46.
- Fletcher, C. (2001) Performance appraisal and management: The developing research agenda. *Journal of Occupational and organizational Psychology*, 74 (4), 473-487.
- Fletcher, C. and Baldry, C. (2000) A study of individual differences and self-awareness in the context of multi-source feedback. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 73 (3), 303-319.
- Ford, J.K., MacCallum, R.C. and Tait, M. (1986) The application of exploratory factor analysis in applied psychology: A critical review and analysis. *Personnel psychology*, 39 (2), 291-314.
- Ford, R. and McLaughlin, F. (1986) Nepotism: Boon or bane. *Personnel Administrator*, 31 (11), 78-89.
- Fornell, C. and Larcker, D.F. (1981) Evaluating structural equation models with unobservable variables and measurement error. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 1, 39-50.
- Fry, L.W. (2003) Toward a theory of spiritual leadership. *The leadership quarterly*, 14 (6), 693-727.
- Gardner, W.L., Cogliser, C.C., Davis, K.M. and Dickens, M.P. (2011) Authentic leadership: A review of the literature and research agenda. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22 (6), 1120-1145.
- Gaspar, J.M. (1992) *Transformational leadership: An integrative review of the literature*, PhD thesis, Western Michigan University. Available from: <https://scholarworks.wmich.edu/dissertations/1929/> [Accessed 14 March 2018].
- Geertz, C. (1973) *The Interpretation of Cultures: Selected Essays.* New York: Basic Books.
- George, B. (2003) *Authentic leadership: Rediscovering the secrets to creating lasting value.* San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- George, D. and Mallery, P. (2016) *IBM SPSS statistics 23 step by step: A simple guide and reference.* Routledge.

- Gerstner, C.R. and Day, D.V. (1997) Meta-Analytic review of leader–member exchange theory: Correlates and construct issues. *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 82 (6), 827-844.
- Ghosh, R. (2014) Antecedents of mentoring support: A meta-analysis of individual, relational, and structural or organizational factors. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 84 (3), 367-384.
- Gill, R. (2011) *Theory and practice of leadership*, 2nd ed. London: Sage.
- Goldberg, L.R. (1990) An alternative" description of personality": the big-five factor structure. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 59 (6), 1216-1229.
- Goleman, D. (1998) *Working with emotional intelligence*. Toronto: Bantam Books.
- Goleman, D.P. (1995) *Emotional intelligence: Why it can matter more than IQ for character, health and lifelong achievement*. New York: Bantam Books.
- Graen, G.B. and Uhl-Bien, M. (1995) Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 6 (2), 219-247.
- Greenleaf, R.K. (1970a) *The Servant as a Leader*. Indianapolis, IN: Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership.
- Greenleaf, R.K. (1970b) *The Servant as a Leader* Indianapolis, IN: Greenleaf Center for Servant Leadership.
- Gregory Stone, A., Russell, R.F. and Patterson, K. (2004) Transformational versus servant leadership: A difference in leader focus. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 25 (4), 349-361.
- Greguras, G.J. and Diefendorff, J.M. (2009) Different fits satisfy different needs: linking person-environment fit to employee commitment and performance using self-determination theory. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 94 (2), 465-477.
- Guthey, E. and Jackson, B. (2005) CEO portraits and the authenticity paradox. *Journal of Management Studies*, 42 (5), 1057-1082.
- Hacking, I. (1999) *The social construction of what?* Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press.
- Hair, J., Black, W., Babin, B. and Anderson, R. (2010) *Multivariate Data Analysis - A Global Prospective*, 7th ed. Boston: Pearson Prentice Hall.
- Harms, P.D. and Credé, M. (2010) Emotional intelligence and transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 17 (1), 5-17.
- Harris, M.M. and Schaubroeck, J. (1988) A meta-analysis of self-supervisor, self-peer, and peer-supervisor ratings. *Personnel Psychology*, 41 (1), 43-62.
- Harter, N. and Evanecky, D. (2002) Fairness in leader-member exchange theory: Do we all belong on the inside? *Leadership Review*, 2 (2), 1-7.
- Hecht, T.D. and Allen, N.J. (2003) Person-job fit on the dimension of polychronicity: examining links with well-being and performance. Paper presented at Academy of Management Best Conference Paper, USA, 1 August 2003. [Accessed 15 March 2018].
- Hemphill, J.K. and Coons, A.E. (1957) Development of the leader behavior description questionnaire. *Leader behavior: Its description and measurement*, 6.

Bibliography

- Herb, M. (2002) Emirs and parliaments in the Gulf. *Journal of Democracy*, 13 (4), 41-47.
- Herrmann, D. and Felfe, J. (2014) Effects of leadership style, creativity technique and personal initiative on employee creativity. *British Journal of Management*, 25 (2), 209-227.
- Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K.H. (1969) Life cycle theory of leadership. *Training & Development Journal*, 23 (5), 26-34.
- Hofstede, G. (1985) The interaction between national and organizational value systems [1]. *Journal of Management Studies*, 22 (4), 347-357.
- Hopper, T. and Powell, A. (1985) Making sense of research into the organizational and social aspects of management accounting: A review of its underlying assumptions [1]. *Journal of management Studies*, 22 (5), 429-465.
- House, R.J. (1971) A path goal theory of leader effectiveness. *Administrative science quarterly*, 16 (3), 321-339.
- House, R.J. (1996) Path-goal theory of leadership: Lessons, legacy, and a reformulated theory. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 7 (3), 323-352.
- House, R.J., Hanges, P.J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P.W. and Gupta, V. (2004) *Culture, leadership, and organizations: The GLOBE study of 62 societies*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.
- House, R.J., Hanges, P.J., Ruiz-Quintanilla, S. A., Dorfman, P. W., Javidan, M., Dickson, M., & Associates (1999) Cultural influences on leadership and organizations: Project GLOBE *Advances in Global Leadership*. USA: JAI Press Ltd, 171-233.
- House, R.J. and Mitchell, R.R. (1974) Path-goal theory of leadership. *Journal of Contemporary Business*, (3), 81-97.
- House, R.J. and Mitchell, T.R. (1975) *Path-goal theory of leadership*. Available from: <http://www.dtic.mil/docs/citations/ADA009513>.
- House, R.J. and Shamir, B. (1993) Toward the integration of transformational, charismatic, and visionary theories *Leadership theory and research: Perspectives and directions*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
- House, R.J., Spangler, W.D. and Woycke, J. (1991) Personality and charisma in the US presidency: A psychological theory of leader effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 36, 364-396.
- Hu, L.T. and Bentler, P.M. (1999) Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural equation modeling: a multidisciplinary journal*, 6 (1), 1-55.
- Hughes, R., Ginnett, R. and Curphy, G. (2002) *Leadership: Enhancing the lessons of experience*, 4th International ed. Boston McGraw-Hill.
- Iacobucci, D., Saldanha, N. and Deng, X. (2007) A meditation on mediation: Evidence that structural equations models perform better than regressions. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 17 (2), 139-153.
- Iaffaldano, M.T. and Muchinsky, P.M. (1985) Job satisfaction and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Psychological bulletin*, 97 (2), 251.
- Iszatt-White, M.S., C. (2014) *Leadership*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Jabeen, F., Behery, M. and Abu Elanain, H. (2015) Examining the relationship between the psychological contract and organisational commitment: The mediating effect of transactional leadership in the UAE context. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 23 (1), 102-122.
- Jabnoun, N. and Al Rasasi, A. (2005) Transformational leadership and service quality in UAE hospitals. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*, 15 (1), 70-81.
- Jackson, T.A., Meyer, J.P. and Wang, X.-H. (2013) Leadership, commitment, and culture: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 20 (1), 84-106.
- Jahan, S. (2016) Human development report 2016: human development for everyone. New York: United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). Available from: http://hdr.undp.org/sites/default/files/2016_human_development_report.pdf.
- James, L.R., Mulaik, S.A. and Brett, J.M. (2006) A tale of two methods. *Organizational Research Methods*, 9 (2), 233-244.
- Jauhari, H., Jauhari, H., Singh, S., Singh, S., Kumar, M. and Kumar, M. (2017) How does transformational leadership influence proactive customer service behavior of frontline service employees? Examining the mediating roles of psychological empowerment and affective commitment. *Journal of Enterprise Information Management*, 30 (1), 30-48.
- Johlke, M.C., Duhan, D.F., Howell, R.D. and Wilkes, R.W. (2000) An integrated model of sales managers' communication practices. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 28 (2), 263-277.
- Joseph, D.L., Dhanani, L.Y., Shen, W., Mchugh, B.C. and Mccord, M.A. (2015) Is a happy leader a good leader? A meta-analytic investigation of leader trait affect and leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 26 (4), 557-576.
- Judge, T.A., Bono, J.E., Ilies, R. and Gerhardt, M.W. (2002) Personality and leadership: a qualitative and quantitative review. *Journal of applied psychology*, 87 (4), 765.
- Judge, T.A. and Piccolo, R.F. (2004) Transformational and transactional leadership: a meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of applied psychology*, 89 (5), 755.
- June, S. and Mahmood, R. (2011) The relationship between person-job fit and job performance: A study among the employees of the service sector SMEs in Malaysia. *International Journal of Business, Humanities and Technology*, 1 (2), 95-105.
- Jung, D.I. and Avolio, B.J. (2000) Opening the black box: An experimental investigation of the mediating effects of trust and value congruence on transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21 (8), 949-964.
- Kahai, S., Sosik, J. and Avolio, B. (2003) Effects of leadership styles, anonymity and rewards in an electrical meeting system environment. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 14 (4-5), 499-524.
- Karadağ, E., Bektaş, F., Çoğaltay, N. and Yalçın, M. (2015) The effect of educational leadership on students' achievement: a meta-analysis study. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 16 (1), 79-93.
- Katz, D. and Kahn, R. (1951) Human Organization and Worker Motivation, in LR Tripp. *Industrial Productivity Madison, Wise: Industrial Relations Research Association*, 1, 33.
- Katz, D. and Kahn, R.L. (1978) *The social psychology of organizations*. New York: Wiley.

Bibliography

- Kim, H. (2014) Transformational leadership, organizational clan culture, organizational affective commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior: A case of South Korea's public sector. *Public Organization Review*, 14 (3), 397-417.
- Kim, H. and Kim, J. (2015) A cross-level study of transformational leadership and organizational affective commitment in the Korean Local Governments: Mediating role of procedural justice and moderating role of culture types based on competing values framework. *Leadership*, 11 (2), 158-185.
- Kirkbride, P. (2006) Developing transformational leaders: the full range leadership model in action. *Industrial and Commercial Training*, 38 (1), 23-32.
- Kirkpatrick, S.A. and Locke, E.A. (1996) Direct and indirect effects of three core charismatic leadership components on performance and attitudes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81 (1), 36.
- Kline, R.B. (1999) Principles and practice of structural equation modeling. *Canadian Psychology*, 40 (4).
- Koh, W.L., Steers, R.M. and Terborg, J.R. (1995) The effects of transformational leadership on teacher attitudes and student performance in Singapore. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 16 (4), 319-333.
- Koh, W.L.K. (1990) *An empirical validation of the theory of transformational leadership in secondary schools in Singapore*, PhD thesis, University of Oregon.
- Kristof-Brown, A.L., Zimmerman, R.D. and Johnson, E.C. (2005) Consequences Of Individuals'fit At Work: A Meta-Analysis Of Person–Job, Person–Organization, Person–Group, And Person–Supervisor Fit. *Personnel Psychology*, 58 (2), 281-342.
- Kuchinke, K.P. (1999) Leadership and culture: Work-related values and leadership styles among one company's US and German telecommunication employees. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 10 (2), 135-154.
- Ladkin, D. and Taylor, S.S. (2010) Enacting the 'true self': Towards a theory of embodied authentic leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21 (1), 64-74.
- Laird, R.D. and Weems, C.F. (2011) The equivalence of regression models using difference scores and models using separate scores for each informant: implications for the study of informant discrepancies. *Psychological Assessment*, 23 (2), 388.
- Larrabee, J.H., Janney, M.A., Ostrow, C.L., Withrow, M.L., Hobbs, G.R. and Burant, C. (2003) Predicting registered nurse job satisfaction and intent to leave. *Journal of Nursing Administration*, 33 (5), 271-283.
- Lauver, K.J. and Kristof-Brown, A. (2001) Distinguishing between employees' perceptions of person–job and person–organization fit. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 59 (3), 454-470.
- Leong, L.Y.C. and Fischer, R. (2011) Is transformational leadership universal? A meta-analytical investigation of multifactor leadership questionnaire means across cultures. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 18 (2), 164-174.
- Leveck, M.L. and Jones, C.B. (1996) The nursing practice environment, staff retention, and quality of care. *Research in Nursing & Health*, 19 (4), 331-343.
- Lewis-Beck, M., Bryman, A.E. and Liao, T.F. (2003) *The Sage encyclopedia of social science research methods*. Sage Publications.

- Li, C.-K. and Hung, C.-H. (2009) The influence of transformational leadership on workplace relationships and job performance. *Social Behavior and Personality: an international journal*, 37 (8), 1129-1142.
- Li, J. and Zahran, M. (2014) Influences of emotional intelligence on transformational leadership and leader-member exchange in Kuwait. *International Journal of Human Resources Development and Management*, 14 (1-3), 74-96.
- Liden, R.C., Wayne, S.J., Zhao, H. and Henderson, D. (2008) Servant leadership: Development of a multidimensional measure and multi-level assessment. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 19 (2), 161-177.
- Likert, R. (1961) *New Patterns of management*. New York McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Likert, R. (1967) *The human organization: Its management and values*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Lin, Y.-C., Yu, C. and Yi, C.-C. (2014) The effects of positive affect, person-job fit, and well-being on job performance. *Social Behavior and Personality: an International Journal*, 42 (9), 1537-1547.
- Liu, W., Zhu, R. and Yang, Y. (2010) I warn you because I like you: Voice behavior, employee identifications, and transformational leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21 (1), 189-202.
- London, M. and Smither, J.W. (1995) Can multi-source feedback change perceptions of goal accomplishment, self-evaluations, and performance-related outcomes? Theory-based applications and directions for research. *Personnel Psychology*, 48 (4), 803-839.
- Lowe, K.B. and Gardner, W.L. (2000) Ten years of the leadership quarterly: Contributions and challenges for the future. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 11 (4), 459-514.
- Lowe, K.B., Kroeck, K.G. and Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996) Effectiveness correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 7 (3), 385-425.
- Lunenburg, F.C. (2010) Leader-member exchange theory: Another perspective on the leadership process. *International Journal of Management, Business, and Administration*, 13 (1), 1-5.
- Luo, Z., Wang, Y. and Marnburg, E. (2013) Testing the structure and effects of full range leadership theory in the context of China's Hotel Industry. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 22 (6), 656-677.
- Mabe, P.A. and West, S.G. (1982) Validity of self-evaluation of ability: A review and meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 67 (3), 280.
- Mackie, D. (2014) The effectiveness of strength-based executive coaching in enhancing full range leadership development: A controlled study. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, 66 (2), 118.
- Mackinnon, D.P., Lockwood, C.M., Hoffman, J.M., West, S.G. and Sheets, V. (2002) A comparison of methods to test mediation and other intervening variable effects. *Psychological Methods*, 7 (1), 83.
- Madzikanda, D.D. and Njoku, E.I. (2008) Employee Attitudes Towards the Privatization of Kuwait Government Departments and State Owned Enterprises. *International Public Management Review*, 9 (1), 107-129.

Bibliography

- Malone, P.B. (1980) Humor: a double-edged tool for today's managers? *Academy of Management Review*, 5 (3), 357-360.
- Mathieu, J.E. and Zajac, D.M. (1990) A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108 (2), 171.
- Mayer, J. (1997) What is emotional intelligence? In P. Salovey & D. Sluyter (Eds.) *Emotional development and emotional intelligence: Implications for educators* (pp. 3-31). New York: Basic Books.
- Mayer, J.D. and Salovey, P. (1995) Emotional intelligence and the construction and regulation of feelings. *Applied and Preventive Psychology*, 4 (3), 197-208.
- Mayer, J.D., Salovey, P. and Caruso, D. (2000) Models of emotional intelligence IN: Salovey, P., Brackett, M. and Mayer, J.D. (eds.) *Emotional Intelligence: Key readings on the Mayer and Salovey Model*. New York: Dude Publishing.
- Mcclane, W.E. (1991) Implications of member role differentiation: Analysis of a key concept in the LMX model of leadership. *Group & Organization Studies*, 16 (1), 102-113.
- Mccleskey, J.A. (2014) Situational, transformational, and transactional leadership and leadership development. *Journal of Business Studies Quarterly*, 5 (4), 117.
- Mccrae, R.R. (1987) Creativity, divergent thinking, and openness to experience. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 52 (6), 1258.
- Mcenery, J., Kulick, N. and Mayer, R. (1982) Evaluating sex differences in managerial perceptions of performance appraisal. Paper presented at Annual Meeting of the American Psychological Association, Washington, DC.
- Mcevoy, G.M. and Cascio, W.F. (1987) Do good or poor performers leave? A meta-analysis of the relationship between performance and turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 30 (4), 744-762.
- Meyer, J.P., Allen, N.J. and Smith, C.A. (1993) Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. *Journal of applied psychology*, 78 (4), 538.
- Meyer, J.P., Becker, T.E. and Van Dick, R. (2006) Social identities and commitments at work: Toward an integrative model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 27 (5), 665-683.
- Michel, J.W., Lyons, B.D. and Cho, J. (2011) Is the full-range model of leadership really a full-range model of effective leader behavior? *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 18 (4), 493-507.
- Misumi, J. and Peterson, M.F. (1985) *The behavioral science of leadership: An interdisciplinary Japanese research program*. Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan Press.
- Mittal, S. and Dhar, R.L. (2015) Transformational leadership and employee creativity: mediating role of creative self-efficacy and moderating role of knowledge sharing. *Management Decision*, 53 (5), 894-910.
- Mohamed, L.M. (2016) Assessing the effects of transformational leadership: A study on Egyptian hotel employees. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 27, 49-59.
- Mowday, R.T., Steers, R.M. and Porter, L.W. (1979) The measurement of organizational commitment. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 14 (2), 224-247.

- Mulaik, S.A. (2001) The curve-fitting problem: An objectivist view. *Philosophy of Science*, 68 (2), 218-241.
- Murphy, S.E. and Ensher, E.A. (2008) A qualitative analysis of charismatic leadership in creative teams: The case of television directors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 19 (3), 335-352.
- Nak (2018) *Constitution of Kuwait*. Available from: <http://www.kna.kw/clk-html5/run.asp?id=2024> [Accessed 15 March].
- Nelson, S.A. and Shraim, O. (2014) Leadership behaviour and employee engagement: a Kuwaiti services company. *International Journal of Human Resources Development and Management*, 14 (1-3), 119-135.
- Ng, T.W. and Feldman, D.C. (2015) Ethical leadership: Meta-analytic evidence of criterion-related and incremental validity. 100 (3), 948-965.
- Nguyen, T.T., Mia, L., Winata, L. and Chong, V.K. (2017) Effect of transformational-leadership style and management control system on managerial performance. *Journal of Business Research*, 70, 202-213.
- Nicholson, N. (2001) Gene politics and the natural selection of leaders. *Leader to Leader*, 20 (Spring), 46-52.
- Nizam, A., Kleinbaum, D., Muller, K. and Kupper, L. (2008) *Applied regression analysis and other multivariable methods*, 4th ed. Belmont, CA: Duxbury.
- Northouse, P. (2013) *Leadership sixth edition, theory and practice*. 6. painos. SAGE Publications.
- Northouse, P.G. (2016) *Leadership: Theory and practice*, 7th ed. London: Sage Publications.
- Northouse, P.G. (2017) *Introduction to leadership: Concepts and practice*, 4th ed. London: Sage Publications.
- Noruzi, A., Dalfard, V.M., Azhdari, B., Nazari-Shirkouhi, S. and Rezazadeh, A. (2013) Relations between transformational leadership, organizational learning, knowledge management, organizational innovation, and organizational performance: an empirical investigation of manufacturing firms. *The International Journal of Advanced Manufacturing Technology*, 1-13.
- Nunnally, J.C. (1967) *Psychometric theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Nunnally, J.C. (1978) *Psychometric theory* 2nd ed. New York: MacGraw-Hill.
- Onnen, M.K. (1987) *The relationship of clergy leadership characteristics to growing or declining churches* PhD thesis, University of Louisville.
- The Oxford companion to philosophy* (2005). Oxford University Press.
- Pellegrini, E.K. and Scandura, T.A. (2006) Leader–member exchange (LMX), paternalism, and delegation in the Turkish business culture: An empirical investigation. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 37 (2), 264-279.
- Petty, M.M., Mcgee, G.W. and Cavender, J.W. (1984) A meta-analysis of the relationships between individual job satisfaction and individual performance. *Academy of Management Review*, 9 (4), 712-721.

Bibliography

- Peus, C., Braun, S. and Frey, D. (2013) Situation-based measurement of the full range of leadership model—Development and validation of a situational judgment test. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 24 (5), 777-795.
- Piccolo, R.F., Bono, J.E., Heinitz, K., Rowold, J., Duehr, E. and Judge, T.A. (2012) The relative impact of complementary leader behaviors: Which matter most? *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23 (3), 567-581.
- Powell, R., Johnston, M. and Johnston, D.W. (2008) The effects of negative affectivity on self-reported activity limitations in stroke patients: Testing the symptom perception, disability and psychosomatic hypotheses. *Psychology and Health*, 23 (2), 195-206.
- Rauch, J. and Behling, O. (1984) Functionalism: Basis for an alternate approach to the study of leadership *International Perspectives on Managerial Behavior and Leadershipsch*. New York: Elsevier, 45-62.
- Reave, L. (2005) Spiritual values and practices related to leadership effectiveness. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16 (5), 655-687.
- Reddin, W.J. (1967) 3-D Management style theory-typology based on task and relationships orientations. *Training and Development Journal*, 21 (4), 8-17.
- Robinson, V.M., Lloyd, C.A. and Rowe, K.J. (2008) The impact of leadership on student outcomes: An analysis of the differential effects of leadership types. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 44 (5), 635-674.
- Rockstuhl, T., Dulebohn, J.H., Ang, S. and Shore, L.M. (2012) Leader–member exchange (LMX) and culture: A meta-analysis of correlates of LMX across 23 countries. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 97 (6), 1097.
- Rost, J.C. (1993) Leadership development in the new millennium. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 1 (1), 91-110.
- Rowold, J. and Heinitz, K. (2007) Transformational and charismatic leadership: Assessing the convergent, divergent and criterion validity of the MLQ and the CKS. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 18 (2), 121-133.
- Saari, L.M. and Judge, T.A. (2004) Employee attitudes and job satisfaction. *Human Resource Management*, 43 (4), 395-407.
- Saks, A.M. and Ashforth, B.E. (2002) Is job search related to employment quality? It all depends on the fit. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87 (4), 646.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A. (2016) *Research methods for business students*, 7th ed. Harlow: Pearson.
- Scandura, T.A. (1999) Rethinking leader-member exchange: An organizational justice perspective. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10 (1), 25-40.
- Schedlitzki, D. and Edwards, G. (2017) *Studying leadership: traditional and critical approaches*, 2nd ed. UK: Sage Publications.
- Schriesheim, C.A., Castro, S.L. and Cogliser, C.C. (1999) Leader-member exchange (LMX) research: A comprehensive review of theory, measurement, and data-analytic practices. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10 (1), 63-113.

- Schumacker, R.E. and Lomax, R.G. (2012) *A beginner's guide to structural equation modeling*. Taylor & Francis Group. Available from: <http://ebookcentral.proquest.com/lib/soton-ebooks/detail.action?docID=668347> [Accessed 22/08/2018].
- Schwab, K. and Sala-I-Martin, X. (2015) *World Economic Forum's Global Competitiveness Report, 2014-2015*. Available from: http://www.mof.gov.il/ChiefEcon/InternationalConnections/DocLib3/Global_Competitiveness_Report_2015-2016.pdf.
- Schwab, K., Sala-I-Martin, X. Samans, R. And Blanke, J (2015) *World Economic Forum's Global Competitiveness Report*. Available from: http://www.mof.gov.il/ChiefEcon/InternationalConnections/DocLib3/Global_Competitiveness_Report_2015-2016.pdf [Accessed 17 Sep].
- Schwartz, S.H. (1994) Beyond individualism/collectivism: New cultural dimensions of values *Individualism and collectivism: Theory, method, and applications*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, 85-119.
- Schweitzer, J. (2014) Leadership and innovation capability development in strategic alliances. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 35 (5), 442-469.
- Schyns, B., Felfe, J. and Blank, H. (2007) Is charisma hyper-romanticism? Empirical evidence from new data and a meta-analysis. *Applied Psychology*, 56 (4), 505-527.
- Sedgwick, P. (2014) Cross sectional studies: advantages and disadvantages. *BMJ: British Medical Journal*, 348.
- Seers, A. (1989) Team-member exchange quality: A new construct for role-making research. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 43 (1), 118-135.
- Sendjaya, S., Sarros, J.C. and Santora, J.C. (2008) Defining and measuring servant leadership behaviour in organizations. *Journal of Management Studies*, 45 (2), 402-424.
- Sethibe, T. and Steyn, R. (2015) The relationship between leadership styles, innovation and organisational performance: A systematic review. *South African Journal of Economic and Management Sciences*, 18 (3), 325-337.
- Shamir, B., House, R.J. and Arthur, M.B. (1993) The motivational effects of charismatic leadership: A self-concept based theory. *Organization Science*, 4 (4), 577-594.
- Shankman, M.L. and Allen, S.J. (2009) *Emotionally intelligent leadership: A guide for college students*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass
- Sheikh, A.Z., Newman, A. and Al Azzeh, S.a.F. (2013) Transformational leadership and job involvement in the Middle East: the moderating role of individually held cultural values. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24 (6), 1077-1095.
- Shibru, B. and Darshan, G. (2011) Effects of transformational leadership on subordinate job satisfaction in leather companies in Ethiopia. *International Journal of Business Management and Economic Research*, 2 (5), 284-296.
- Shin, Y. (2004) A person-environment fit model for virtual organizations. *Journal of Management*, 30 (5), 725-743.
- Sosik, J.J. and Megerian, L.E. (1999) Understanding leader emotional intelligence and performance: The role of self-other agreement on transformational leadership perceptions. *Group & Organization Management*, 24 (3), 367-390.

Bibliography

- Spector, P.E. (1997) *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes, and consequences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Stogdill, R.M. (1948) Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of the literature. *The Journal of Psychology*, 25 (1), 35-71.
- Stogdill, R.M. (1974) *Handbook of leadership: A survey of theory and research*. New York: Free Press.
- Suliman, A. and Al Obaidli, H. (2013) Leadership and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) in the financial service sector: The case of the UAE. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Business Administration*, 5 (2), 115-134.
- Suliman, W.A. (2009) Leadership styles of nurse managers in a multinational environment. *Nursing Administration Quarterly*, 33 (4), 301-309.
- Takahashi, K., Ishikawa, J. and Kanai, T. (2012) Qualitative and quantitative studies of leadership in multinational settings: Meta-analytic and cross-cultural reviews. *Journal of World Business*, 47 (4), 530-538.
- Taleb, H.M. (2010) Gender and leadership styles in single-sex academic institutions. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 24 (4), 287-302.
- Terry, R.W. (1993) *Authentic leadership: Courage in action*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Thornton, G.C. (1980) Psychometric properties of self-appraisals of job performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 33 (2), 263-271.
- Tlaiss, H. and Kauser, S. (2011) The importance of wasta in the career success of Middle Eastern managers. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 35 (5), 467-486.
- Tonvongval, S. (2013) Impact of transformational leadership development through organization development intervention on employee engagement and firm performance: A case study. *Social Research Reports*, 25, 34-49.
- Tosi Jr, H.L. and Slocum Jr, J.W. (1984) Contingency theory: Some suggested directions. *Journal of Management*, 10 (1), 9-26.
- Tranfield, D., Denyer, D. and Smart, P. (2003) Towards a methodology for developing evidence-informed management knowledge by means of systematic review. *British Journal of Management*, 14 (3), 207-222.
- Tsui, A.S., Egan, T.D. and O'reilly Iii, C.A. (1992) Being different: Relational demography and organizational attachment. *Administrative science quarterly*, 549-579.
- Van Dierendonck, D. (2011) Servant leadership: A review and synthesis. *Journal of Management*, 37 (4), 1228-1261.
- Van Seters, D.A. and Field, R.H. (1990) The evolution of leadership theory. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 3 (3), 29-45.
- Van Teijlingen, E.R., Rennie, A.M., Hundley, V. and Graham, W. (2001) The importance of conducting and reporting pilot studies: the example of the Scottish Births Survey. *Journal of advanced nursing*, 34 (3), 289-295.
- Vecchio, R.P. (1987) Situational Leadership Theory: An examination of a prescriptive theory. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 72 (3), 444.

- Verbeke, W., Bagozzi, R.P. and Belschak, F.D. (2016) The role of status and leadership style in sales contests: A natural field experiment. *Journal of Business Research*, 69 (10), 4112-4120.
- Waldman, D. and Thornton lii, G. (1979) A comparison of supervisors' self-appraisals and their administrators' appraisals. *Medical Group Management*, 22, 24-58.
- Walumbwa, F.O. and Lawler, J.J. (2003) Building effective organizations: transformational leadership, collectivist orientation, work-related attitudes and withdrawal behaviours in three emerging economies. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14 (7), 1083-1101.
- Walumbwa, F.O., Lawler, J.J., Avolio, B.J., Wang, P. and Shi, K. (2005a) Transformational leadership and work-related attitudes: The moderating effects of collective and self-efficacy across cultures. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 11 (3), 2-16.
- Walumbwa, F.O., Orwa, B., Wang, P. and Lawler, J.J. (2005b) Transformational leadership, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction: A comparative study of Kenyan and US financial firms. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 16 (2), 235-256.
- Walumbwa, F.O., Wang, P., Lawler, J.J. and Shi, K. (2004) The role of collective efficacy in the relations between transformational leadership and work outcomes. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 77 (4), 515-530.
- Wang, D., Waldman, D.A. and Zhang, Z. (2014) A meta-analysis of shared leadership and team effectiveness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 99 (2), 181-198.
- Wang, G., Oh, I.-S., Courtright, S.H. and Colbert, A.E. (2011) Transformational leadership and performance across criteria and levels: A meta-analytic review of 25 years of research. *Group & Organization Management*, 36 (2), 223-270.
- Williams, L.J. and Anderson, S.E. (1991) Job satisfaction and organizational commitment as predictors of organizational citizenship and in-role behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 17 (3), 601-617.
- Wohlers, A.I. and London, M. (1989) Ratings of managerial characteristics: evaluation difficulty, co-worker agreement, and self-awareness. *Personnel Psychology*, 42 (2), 235-261.
- Wright, T.A. and Bonett, D.G. (1993) Role of employee coping and performance in voluntary employee withdrawal: A research refinement and elaboration. *Journal of Management*, 19 (1), 147-161.
- Wright, T.A. and Bonett, D.G. (1997) The role of pleasantness and activation-based well-being in performance prediction. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 2 (3), 212.
- Yammarino, F.J. and Atwater, L.E. (1997) Do managers see themselves as other see them? Implications of self-other rating agreement for human resources management. *Organizational Dynamics*, 25 (4), 35-44.
- Yokochi-Bryce, N. (1989) *Leadership styles of Japanese business executives and managers: Transformational and transactional*, ProQuest Information & Learning.
- Yousef, D.A. (2000) Organizational commitment: A mediator of the relationships of leadership behavior with job satisfaction and performance in a non-western country. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 15 (1), 6-24.
- Yovetich, N.A., Dale, J.A. and Hudak, M.A. (1990) Benefits of humor in reduction of threat-induced anxiety. *Psychological Reports*, 66 (1), 51-58.

Bibliography

- Yukl, G. and Van Fleet, D. (1992) Theory and research on leadership in organizations. IN: Hough, M.D.D.L.M. (ed.) *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* Palo Alto: Consulting Psychologists Press. , 147-197.
- Yukl, G.A. (2002) *Leadership in organizations*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Yukl, G.A. (2010) *Leadership in organizations*, 7th ed. London: Pearson
- Zabkar, V. (2000) Some methodological issues with structural equation model application in relationship quality context. *New Approaches in Applied Statistics*, 16 (1), 211-226.
- Zaccaro, S.J. and Klimoski, R.J. (2002) *The nature of organizational leadership: Understanding the performance imperatives confronting today's leaders*. San Francisco, CA: John Wiley & Sons.
- Zhao, X., Lynch Jr, J.G. and Chen, Q. (2010) Reconsidering Baron and Kenny: Myths and truths about mediation analysis. *Journal of consumer research*, 37 (2), 197-206.
- Ziv, A., , & Gadish, O (1990) Humor and giftedness. *Journal for the Education of the Gifted*, 13: , 332-345.

Appendix A

Transformational Leadership Alignment - Difference Scores

	Leader	Subordinate	Diff	d^2	.25 more	d^2	1 & more	d^2	2 & More
1	4.4	3.5	0.9	0.81	1	0.81		0.81	
2	4.4	4.1	0.3	0.09		0.09		0.09	
3	4.4	4.5	-0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
4	4	4.2	-0.2	0.04		0.04		0.04	
5	4.9	3.7	1.2	1.44	1	1.44	1	1.44	
6	4.6	4.2	0.4	0.16		0.16		0.16	
7	3.9	4.6	-0.7	0.49	1	0.49		0.49	
8	4.1	2.8	1.3	1.69	1	1.69	1	1.69	
9	3.5	1.8	1.7	2.89	1	2.89	1	2.89	1
10	4.2	4.6	-0.4	0.16		0.16		0.16	
11	3.8	4.3	-0.5	0.25	1	0.25		0.25	
12	4.5	2.6	1.9	3.61	1	3.61	1	3.61	1
13	4.7	3.6	1.1	1.21	1	1.21	1	1.21	
14	4.3	4.2	0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
15	4	3.7	0.3	0.09		0.09		0.09	
16	4.7	4.1	0.6	0.36	1	0.36		0.36	
17	4.6	1.7	2.9	8.41	1	8.41	1	8.41	1
18	4.1	2.4	1.7	2.89	1	2.89	1	2.89	1
19	3.6	4.2	-0.6	0.36	1	0.36		0.36	
20	4.4	2.3	2.1	4.41	1	4.41	1	4.41	1
21	4.3	4.3	0	0		0		0	
22	3.8	4.4	-0.6	0.36	1	0.36		0.36	
23	3.6	4.8	-1.2	1.44	1	1.44	1	1.44	
24	4.9	4.3	0.6	0.36	1	0.36		0.36	
25	4.6	1.7	2.9	8.41	1	8.41	1	8.41	1
26	3.7	3.8	-0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
27	4.3	3.1	1.2	1.44	1	1.44	1	1.44	
28	4.5	3.7	0.8	0.64	1	0.64		0.64	
29	4.9	2.8	2.1	4.41		4.41	1	4.41	1
30	4.5	5	-0.5	0.25	1	0.25		0.25	
31	4	2	2	4	1	4	1	4	1
32	3.8	5	-1.2	1.44	1	1.44	1	1.44	
33	4.4	4.8	-0.4	0.16		0.16		0.16	
34	4.7	3.8	0.9	0.81	1	0.81		0.81	
35	3.6	4.6	-1	1	1	1	1	1	
36	4.8	2.8	2	4	1	4	1	4	1
37	4.7	2	2.7	7.29	1	7.29	1	7.29	1
38	4.3	3.3	1	1	1	1	1	1	
39	4.2	3.8	0.4	0.16		0.16		0.16	

Appendix A

40	4.2	4.4	-0.2	0.04		0.04		0.04	
41	4.4	5	-0.6	0.36	1	0.36		0.36	
42	4	4.8	-0.8	0.64	1	0.64		0.64	
43	4.1	3.5	0.6	0.36	1	0.36		0.36	
44	4.3	5	-0.7	0.49	1	0.49		0.49	
45	4.4	2.8	1.6	2.56	1	2.56	1	2.56	1
46	4	4.2	-0.2	0.04		0.04		0.04	
47	4.5	4.6	-0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
48	4.8	1.7	3.1	9.61	1	9.61	1	9.61	1
49	3.8	4.3	-0.5	0.25		0.25		0.25	
50	5	3.2	1.8	3.24	1	3.24	1	3.24	1
51	4.5	3.7	0.8	0.64	1	0.64		0.64	
52	4.6	4.8	-0.2	0.04		0.04		0.04	
53	4	4.6	-0.6	0.36	1	0.36		0.36	
54	3.9	4	-0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
55	4.6	3.6	1	1	1	1	1	1	
56	4.5	4	0.5	0.25	1	0.25		0.25	
57	4.3	3.6	0.7	0.49	1	0.49		0.49	
58	4.6	3.4	1.2	1.44	1	1.44	1	1.44	
59	4.2	4.3	-0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
60	4.1	3.7	0.4	0.16		0.16		0.16	
61	4.6	3	1.6	2.56	1	2.56	1	2.56	1
62	4	3.7	0.3	0.09		0.09		0.09	
63	4.8	4.5	0.3	0.09		0.09		0.09	
64	3.5	2.8	0.7	0.49	1	0.49		0.49	
65	4.6	3.9	0.7	0.49	1	0.49		0.49	
66	4.8	5	-0.2	0.04		0.04		0.04	
67	3.6	1.4	2.2	4.84	1	4.84	1	4.84	1
68	4	4.1	-0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
69	3.9	3.8	0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
70	4.7	4.6	0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
71	4.2	3.7	0.5	0.25	1	0.25		0.25	
72	4.2	4.2	0	0		0		0	
73	5	4.6	0.4	0.16		0.16		0.16	
74	3.8	3.1	0.7	0.49	1	0.49		0.49	
75	4.7	3.1	1.6	2.56	1	2.56	1	2.56	1
76	3.7	4.4	-0.7	0.49	1	0.49		0.49	
77	4.3	3.6	0.7	0.49	1	0.49		0.49	
78	4.1	3.1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
79	3.9	4	-0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
80	4.5	4.4	0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
81	3.7	3.3	0.4	0.16		0.16		0.16	
82	4.4	4.1	0.3	0.09		0.09		0.09	
83	4.3	3.4	0.9	0.81	1	0.81		0.81	
84	4	3.3	0.7	0.49	1	0.49		0.49	
85	4.9	2.4	2.5	6.25	1	6.25	1	6.25	1
86	4.4	2.6	1.8	3.24	1	3.24	1	3.24	1
87	3.9	2.7	1.2	1.44	1	1.44	1	1.44	

88	4.1	4.2	-0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
89	4.7	3.1	1.6	2.56	1	2.56	1	2.56	1
90	4.8	3.2	1.6	2.56	1	2.56	1	2.56	1
91	4.1	4.4	-0.3	0.09		0.09		0.09	
92	4.1	4	0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
93	3	1.7	1.3	1.69	1	1.69	1	1.69	
94	4.8	2.1	2.7	7.29	1	7.29	1	7.29	1
95	4.6	4	0.6	0.36	1	0.36		0.36	
96	4.3	3.7	0.6	0.36	1	0.36		0.36	
97	4.1	4.9	-0.8	0.64	1	0.64		0.64	
98	4.1	4	0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
99	4.8	4.8	0	0		0		0	
100	4.8	4.6	0.2	0.04		0.04		0.04	
101	4.4	2	2.4	5.76	1	5.76	1	5.76	1
102	3.4	3.9	-0.5	0.25		0.25		0.25	
103	4.8	4	0.8	0.64	1	0.64		0.64	
104	4	4.4	-0.4	0.16		0.16		0.16	
105	4.1	3.8	0.3	0.09		0.09		0.09	
106	4.6	3.6	1	1	1	1	1	1	
107	4.2	5	-0.8	0.64	1	0.64		0.64	
108	3.4	3	0.4	0.16		0.16		0.16	
109	4.1	4.1	0	0		0		0	
110	4.1	2.7	1.4	1.96	1	1.96	1	1.96	
111	4.1	3.7	0.4	0.16		0.16		0.16	
112	4.1	4	0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
113	4.1	3.7	0.4	0.16		0.16		0.16	
114	3.9	4	-0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
115	3.4	5	-1.6	2.56	1	2.56	1	2.56	1
116	4.8	4.3	0.5	0.25	1	0.25		0.25	
117	4.8	4.9	-0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
118	4.7	7	-2.3	5.29	1	5.29	1	5.29	1
119	4.4	4.5	-0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
120	4.3	4.5	-0.2	0.04		0.04		0.04	
121	4.2	4	0.2	0.04		0.04		0.04	
122	4.8	3.5	1.3	1.69	1	1.69	1	1.69	
123	5	3.8	1.2	1.44	1	1.44	1	1.44	
124	4.3	3.8	0.5	0.25	1	0.25		0.25	
125	4.5	4.7	-0.2	0.04		0.04		0.04	
126	4.4	3.8	0.6	0.36	1	0.36		0.36	
127	3.6	4.2	-0.6	0.36	1	0.36		0.36	
128	3.8	4.8	-1	1	1	1	1	1	
129	4.7	5	-0.3	0.09		0.09		0.09	
130	4.4	1.5	2.9	8.41	1	8.41	1	8.41	1
131	4.5	4.4	0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
132	4.9	5	-0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
133	5	3.7	1.3	1.69	1	1.69	1	1.69	
134	4	4.2	-0.2	0.04		0.04		0.04	
135	4.4	4.8	-0.4	0.16		0.16		0.16	

Appendix A

136	4.8	4.6	0.2	0.04		0.04		0.04	
137	5	4.4	0.6	0.36	1	0.36		0.36	
138	3.8	3.5	0.3	0.09		0.09		0.09	
139	4.8	4.5	0.3	0.09		0.09		0.09	
140	4.4	4.8	-0.4	0.16		0.16		0.16	
141	4.7	4.3	0.4	0.16		0.16		0.16	
142	4.4	4	0.4	0.16		0.16		0.16	
143	4.8	4	0.8	0.64	1	0.64		0.64	
144	4.7	4.6	0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
145	4.2	4.8	-0.6	0.36	1	0.36		0.36	
146	4.2	4.6	-0.4	0.16		0.16		0.16	
147	3.3	3.5	-0.2	0.04		0.04		0.04	
148	3.7	4.7	-1	1	1	1	1	1	
149	3.8	4.2	-0.4	0.16		0.16		0.16	
150	4.7	2.9	1.8	3.24	1	3.24	1	3.24	1
151	4.6	3.6	1	1	1	1	1	1	
152	4.8	3.7	1.1	1.21	1	1.21	1	1.21	
153	3.7	2.1	1.6	2.56	1	2.56	1	2.56	1
154	2.8	3	-0.2	0.04		0.04		0.04	
155	4.8	2.2	2.6	6.76	1	6.76		6.76	1
156	4.4	4.8	-0.4	0.16		0.16		0.16	
157	4.8	5	-0.2	0.04		0.04		0.04	
158	3.8	3	0.8	0.64	1	0.64		0.64	
159	4.9	4.5	0.4	0.16		0.16		0.16	
160	4.7	5	-0.3	0.09		0.09		0.09	
161	3.8	2.5	1.3	1.69	1	1.69	1	1.69	
162	3.9	4	-0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
163	4.1	4.8	-0.7	0.49	1	0.49		0.49	
164	3.8	4.4	-0.6	0.36	1	0.36		0.36	
165	4.6	3.8	0.8	0.64		0.64		0.64	
166	3.5	3.4	0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
167	3.7	4.8	-1.1	1.21	1	1.21	1	1.21	
168	4.3	4.1	0.2	0.04		0.04		0.04	
169	4.5	4.4	0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
170	4	3.5	0.5	0.25	1	0.25		0.25	
171	4.1	4.4	-0.3	0.09		0.09		0.09	
172	4.3	5	-0.7	0.49	1	0.49		0.49	
173	4.3	3.3	1	1	1	1	1	1	
174	4.3	3.9	0.4	0.16		0.16		0.16	
175	4.6	4.5	0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
176	4.9	4.7	0.2	0.04		0.04		0.04	
177	4.1	3.4	0.7	0.49	1	0.49		0.49	
178	4	4.8	-0.8	0.64	1	0.64		0.64	
179	4.5	4	0.5	0.25	1	0.25		0.25	
180	3.9	2.4	1.5	2.25	1	2.25	1	2.25	1
181	4.4	2.7	1.7	2.89	1	2.89	1	2.89	1
182	4.9	4.2	0.7	0.49	1	0.49		0.49	
183	4.5	4.6	-0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	

184	4.2	4.6	-0.4	0.16		0.16		0.16	
185	4.2	1.8	2.4	5.76	1	5.76	1	5.76	1
186	4.6	4.9	-0.3	0.09		0.09		0.09	
187	4.3	2.7	1.6	2.56	1	2.56	1	2.56	1
188	4.2	4.3	-0.1	0.01		0.01		0.01	
189	4.1	4.7	-0.6	0.36	1	0.36		0.36	
190	4.5	4.3	0.2	0.04		0.04		0.04	
191	4.3	4.1	0.2	0.04		0.04		0.04	
192	4.9	3.4	1.5	2.25	1	2.25	1	2.25	1
193	4	4.6	-0.6	0.36	1	0.36		0.36	
194	4.3	5	-0.7	0.49	1	0.49		0.49	
195	4.4	4.6	-0.2	0.04		0.04		0.04	
196	4.4	4.9	-0.5	0.25	1	0.25		0.25	
197	4.7	5	-0.3	0.09		0.09		0.09	
198	4.4	3	1.4	1.96	1	1.96	1	1.96	
199	4.1	4.6	-0.5	0.25	1	0.25		0.25	
200	4.8	5	-0.2	0.04		0.04		0.04	
201	3.8	3.1	0.7	0.49	1	0.49		0.49	
202	3.9	3.4	0.5	0.25	1	0.25		0.25	
203	3.5	2.4	1.1	1.21	1	1.21	1	1.21	
204	3.8	2.8	1	1	1	1	1	1	
205	3.5	3.9	-0.4	0.16		0.16		0.16	
206	4.1	2.5	1.6	2.56	1	2.56	1	2.56	1
207	4	4	0	0		0		0	
208	3.8	4.4	-0.6	0.36	1	0.36		0.36	
209	4.5	5	-0.5	0.25	1	0.25		0.25	
210	4.3	4.7	-0.4	0.16		0.16		0.16	
					56%		29%		16%

Appendix B

LEADER/MANAGER FORM #1

4 April 2017

Dear Participant,

My name is Mohammed Alnughaimish. I am a Ph.D. Researcher at the University of Southampton (UK). For my PhD project, I am conducting research into leadership in the banking sector in Kuwait. As you are **a leader/manager** in the banking sector, I would like to invite you to participate in this study by completing the attached questionnaire, which will require approximately 10 minutes to complete. There is no compensation for responding nor is there any known risk. Please be advised that all information will remain strictly confidential. Kindly answer all questions as honestly as possible and return the completed questionnaire promptly. Participation is strictly voluntary, and you may refuse to participate at any time.

Thank you for taking the time to assist me with my survey. The data collected will provide useful information regarding leadership in the banking sector in Kuwait. If you require additional information or have questions, please contact me on the email address below: Email: mea1e14@soton.ac.uk

Yours faithfully,

Mohammed E. Alnughaimish
Ph.D. Researcher
Southampton Business School
University of Southampton

LEADER/MANAGER FORM #1 (cont.)

My Name (Leader):	Leader's ID #:
Bank's Code #:	
Code:	

This questionnaire is to **describe** YOUR **Leadership style** as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet.
 Forty-seven descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word "others" may mean your peers, clients, direct reports, supervisors, and/or all of these individuals.

Gender: <input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female
Nationality:
How long you have been on your present job: years
How long have you been working with the current manager/leader?
How long you've been with the bank: <input type="checkbox"/> 3 years of less <input type="checkbox"/> 4-6 <input type="checkbox"/> 7-10 <input type="checkbox"/> 11-13 <input type="checkbox"/> 14-16 <input type="checkbox"/> 17-19 <input type="checkbox"/> 20 or more
Age (years): <input type="checkbox"/> 15-20 <input type="checkbox"/> 21-25 <input type="checkbox"/> 26-30 <input type="checkbox"/> 31-35 <input type="checkbox"/> 36-40 <input type="checkbox"/> 41-46 <input type="checkbox"/> 47- and above
Educational Qualification: <input type="checkbox"/> Below High School <input type="checkbox"/> High school <input type="checkbox"/> College <input type="checkbox"/> Undergraduate <input type="checkbox"/> Postgraduate <input type="checkbox"/> Others

Twenty descriptive statements are listed in this page (1 to 20). Judge how frequently each statement describes YOU. Use the following rating scale.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
1	2	3	4	5

1. I instill pride in others for being associated with me.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I spend time teaching and coaching.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I talk about my most important values and beliefs	1	2	3	4	5
4. I talk optimistically about the future.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	1	2	3	4	5
9. I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I seek differing perspectives when solving problems.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I act in ways that build others' respect for me.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I articulate a compelling vision of the future.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I get others to look at problems from many different angles.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I display a sense of power and confidence.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I help others to develop their strengths.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I express confidence that goals will be achieved.	1	2	3	4	5
20. I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B

My Name (Leader):	Leader's ID #:
My Subordinate Name:	Subordinate's ID #:
Bank's Code #:	
Code:	

Please indicate on the scale below to what extent you agree with the following statements (from 21-27) about your subordinate's job performance.

Strongly disagree	disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

My Subordinate:

21. Adequately completes assigned duties.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Fulfils responsibilities specified in job description.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Performs tasks that are expected of him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Meets formal performance requirements of the job.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation.	1	2	3	4	5
26. Neglects aspects of the job he/she is obliged to perform.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Fails to perform essential duties.	1	2	3	4	5

SUBORDINATE FORM #1

4 April 2017

Dear Participant,

My name is Mohammed Alnughaimish. I am a Ph.D. Researcher at the University of Southampton (UK). For my PhD project, I am conducting research into leadership in the banking sector in Kuwait. As you are **employed** in the banking sector, I would like to invite you to participate in this study by completing the attached questionnaire, which will require approximately 10 minutes to complete. There is no compensation for responding nor is there any known risk. Please be advised that all information will remain strictly confidential. Kindly answer all questions as honestly as possible and return the completed questionnaire promptly. Participation is strictly voluntary, and you may refuse to participate at any time.

Thank you for taking the time to assist me with my survey. The data collected will provide useful information regarding leadership in the banking sector in Kuwait. If you require additional information or have questions, please contact me on the email address below:

Email: mea1e14@soton.ac.uk

Yours faithfully,

Mohammed E. Alnughaimish
Ph.D. Researcher
Southampton Business School
University of Southampton

SUBORDINATE FORM #1

Name of Leader:	
Bank's Code #:	Leader's ID #:
Code:	

The Following table contains statements regarding the **Leadership style** of the above-mentioned individual (YOUR Leader/Manager) as you perceive it. Kindly answer ALL questions on this questionnaire. Also, **make sure to answer the questionnaire anonymously.**

Important (necessary for processing): Which best describes you?

- ___ I am at a higher organizational level than the person I am rating.
- ___ The person I am rating is at my organizational level.
- ___ I am at a lower organizational level than the person I am rating.
- ___ Other than the above

Demographic Info.:						
Gender: <input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female						
Nationality:						
How long you have been on your present job: years						
How long have you been working with the current manager/leader?						
How long you've been with the bank:						
<input type="checkbox"/> 3 years of less	<input type="checkbox"/> 4-6	<input type="checkbox"/> 7-10	<input type="checkbox"/> 11-13	<input type="checkbox"/> 14-16	<input type="checkbox"/> 17-19	<input type="checkbox"/> 20 or more
Age (years): <input type="checkbox"/> 15-20 <input type="checkbox"/> 21-25 <input type="checkbox"/> 26-30 <input type="checkbox"/> 31-35 <input type="checkbox"/> 36-40 <input type="checkbox"/> 41-46						
<input type="checkbox"/> 47- and above						
Educational Qualification:						
<input type="checkbox"/> Below High School	<input type="checkbox"/> High school	<input type="checkbox"/> College	<input type="checkbox"/> Undergraduate	<input type="checkbox"/> Postgraduate		
<input type="checkbox"/> Others						

Twenty descriptive statements are listed in this page (1 to 20). Judge how frequently each statement fits the person you are describing (your leader/manger). Use the following rating scale.

Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
1	2	3	4	5

My Manager/Leader who I am rating:

1. Instills pride in me for being associated with him/her.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Spends time teaching and coaching.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Talks about his/her most important values and beliefs.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Talks optimistically about the future.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	1	2	3	4	5
6. Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Treats me as an individual rather than just as a member of a group.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Acts in ways that builds my respect.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Considers me as having different needs, abilities, & aspirations from others	1	2	3	4	5
13. Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Articulates a compelling vision of the future.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Gets me to look at problems from many different angles.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Displays a sense of power and confidence.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Helps me to develop my strengths.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.	1	2	3	4	5

SUBORDINATE FORM #2

4 April 2017

Dear Participant,

My name is Mohammed Alnughaimish. I am a Ph.D. Researcher at the University of Southampton (UK). For my PhD project, I am conducting research into leadership in the banking sector in Kuwait. As you are **employed** in the banking sector, I would like to invite you to participate in this study by completing the attached questionnaire, which will require approximately 10 minutes to complete. There is no compensation for responding nor is there any known risk. Please be advised that all information will remain strictly confidential. Kindly answer all questions as honestly as possible and return the completed questionnaire promptly. Participation is strictly voluntary, and you may refuse to participate at any time.

Thank you for taking the time to assist me with my survey. The data collected will provide useful information regarding leadership in the banking sector in Kuwait. If you require additional information or have questions, please contact me on the email address below:

Email: mea1e14@soton.ac.uk

Yours faithfully,

Mohammed E. Alnughaimish
Ph.D. Researcher
Southampton Business School
University of Southampton

SUBORDINATE FORM #2

Name of Subordinate:	Subordinate's ID#:
Name of Leader:	Leader ID #:
Bank's ID #:	
Code:	

This questionnaire explores your views and feelings about working in your organisation. **Please answer all 40 questions/items on this answer sheet plus the questions in the following demographic information table.**

Demographic Info.:
Gender: <input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female
Nationality:
How long you have been on your present job: years
How long have you been working with the current manager/leader?
How long you've been with the bank: <input type="checkbox"/> 3 years of less <input type="checkbox"/> 4-6 <input type="checkbox"/> 7-10 <input type="checkbox"/> 11-13 <input type="checkbox"/> 14-16 <input type="checkbox"/> 17-19 <input type="checkbox"/> 20 or more
Age (years): <input type="checkbox"/> 15-20 <input type="checkbox"/> 21-25 <input type="checkbox"/> 26-30 <input type="checkbox"/> 31-35 <input type="checkbox"/> 36-40 <input type="checkbox"/> 41-46 <input type="checkbox"/> 47- and above
Educational Qualification: <input type="checkbox"/> Below High School <input type="checkbox"/> High school <input type="checkbox"/> College <input type="checkbox"/> Undergraduate <input type="checkbox"/> Postgraduate <input type="checkbox"/> Others

Part One: The purpose of this section is to give you a chance to tell **how you feel about your present job**, what things you are **satisfied** with and what things you are **not satisfied** with. This section has 6 questions/items (from 1 to 6). Choose the statement that fits you by using the following rating scale.

Very Dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	unsure	Satisfied	Very Satisfied	
1	2	3	4	5	
1. How satisfied are you with the nature of the work you perform?	1	2	3	4	5
2. How satisfied are you with the person who supervises you – your organizational superior?	1	2	3	4	5
3. How satisfied are you with your relations with others in the organization with whom you work – your co-workers or peers?	1	2	3	4	5
4. How satisfied are you with the pay you receive for your job?	1	2	3	4	5
5. How satisfied are you with the opportunities which exist in this organization for advancement or promotion	1	2	3	4	5
6. Considering everything, How satisfied are you with your current job situation?	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B

Part Two: For each of the statements below (from 7 to 10), please answer using the following scale

Totally disagree	disagree	agree	Totally agree
1	2	3	4

7.I have had thoughts of leaving this profession.	1	2	3	4	5
8.If I had job security and were economically stable, I would quit my job.	1	2	3	4	5
9.These days, I am more attracted to other alternative job opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
10.Nowadays I don't spend more time at work than the necessary time required.	1	2	3	4	5

Part Three: The descriptive statements from 11 to 16 are listed on the following pages. Choose the statement that fits you by using the following rating scale.

Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither disagree nor agree	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

11.I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization. (R).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.I do not feel "emotionally" attached to this organization. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization. (R)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7