The impact of Transformational and Transactional leadership characteristics on motivation, job satisfaction and trust within Jordanian universities

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The following tables and figure have been omitted on request of the university –

Fig 1.1 (p.21)

Table 4.1 (p.79)

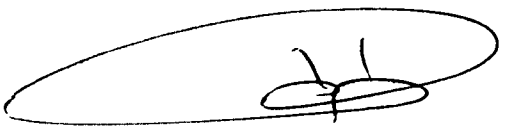
Table 4.2 (p.81)

Table 5.1 (p.116)

Author's Declaration

This is a declaration that the thesis is fully my own work, with all citations being acknowledged to the original author/s. I also declare that the thesis has not been submitted for any other degree in the UK, or around the world.

Tariq Abu Orabi



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Abstract

Extensive research has been undertaken in the area of transformational leadership theory and yet some notable gaps exist. Research has compared transformational and transactional leadership and has examined its existence in both public and private organizations. The leadership phenomenon has similarly been investigated in different cultures, yet there is a paucity of data which synthesizes how these leadership paradigms are perceived in a diverse Middle Eastern cultural environment.

The aim of the current study was to compare the perceptions of transactional and transformational leadership styles and their impact upon motivation, trust and job satisfaction within higher educational institutions in Jordan.

Working within the positivist domain, primary data was gathered through leader and follower questionnaires that were designed to test out theory in a deductive way. Data was sought on transformational leadership theory, ideal leader characteristics and the perceptual understanding of motivation, trust and job satisfaction. Biographic data was sought to form independent variables. The sample of over 700 was drawn from five Jordanian universities, which ranged across regions and between public and private institutions.

With respect to transformational leadership theory the main findings were that Intellectual Stimulation, Individual Consideration and Idealized Behaviour comprised the three main characteristics of leaders within Jordanian higher education. Followers were highly motivated by their work activity and promotion, although a fear of failure emerged as a negative aspect of follower motivation. Transformational leadership had a greater positive impact on job satisfaction than did transactional leadership, especially in the area of Inspirational Motivation, which emerged as the most effective characteristic for job satisfaction. A strong association was found between trust and both Idealized Behaviour and Idealized Attributes. Finally, it is of note that followers trusted leaders who were transactional, particularly with regards to Contingent Reward. The providing of followers with clear rules for reward, within a structured system, is likely to be a salient factor within the higher education system of Jordan.

The current study is the first of its kind to investigate transformational leadership theory in relation to trust, job satisfaction and motivation, within Jordanian universities and makes a valuable contribution to a number of areas. Most significantly, transformational leadership theory is extended in a unique way. New contributions are also made to the areas of situational leadership theory and the important conceptual areas of trust, motivation and job satisfaction. The hypothesised leader and situational profile provides a framework for understanding the behaviour and characteristics of leaders who operate within Jordanian universities and is presented with recommendations for future research.

The university sector forms an important part of Jordan's economy and there is a considerable prospect for it to contribute to the nation's economic growth. As the universities are soon to operate within a more deregulated and competitive environment, effective leadership is likely to be of paramount importance. Thus, if the higher education sector can adopt the findings and improve their leadership effectiveness, the current study is set to have a positive impact on the national economy.

List of Abbreviations

IB	Idealized Behaviours
IM	Inspirational Motivation
IC	Individual Consideration
IS	Intellectual Stimulation
IA	Idealized Attributes
CR	Contingent Reward
MBEA	Management-by-exception: Active
MBEP	Management-by-exception: Passive
LF	Laissez Faire
HDI	Human Development Index
GSEC	General Secondary Education Certificate

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

CHAPTER ONE – INTRODUCTION

1.1. FOCUS ON LEADERSHIP

In recent years institutions have begun to reduce the focus on the solo activity of their leaders (Ivey and Kline, 2010). Instead, the focus has shifted to facilitating greater coordination and performance that is more organised between the leaders and the members of their groups. So, increasingly, institutions are employing leaders who are highly educated, well informed and with excellent communication skills that facilitate the bond between members of their group. It is also acknowledged that the personal style of the leader is likely to contribute towards outstanding customer service (Xirasagar, 2008).

Previously, leadership scholars concentrated on the difference between leadership and management and to a certain extent the leader's qualities. More recently, human resources scholars have focussed on the aspects of the leader's behaviour and management and the impact of these on employee performance and organisational outcomes (Bass and Riggio, 2006). The traits, behaviour, situational perspective and the charisma of leaders became an interest for researchers, who sought links between previous leadership theories and the treatment and management of the followers within a group. The aim for the leader was to transform and inspire followers. Notable researchers within the field of transformational leadership have been Weber (1968), Burns (1978), Bennis and Nanus (1985), and Bass (1990c).

Transformative leadership was first introduced into descriptive research by Burns (1978) with the adoption of his theory on political leaders. The concept of transformational leadership is seen as the process by which leaders and their followers reach a higher level of motivation and morale, through the development of their skills. However, the concept also began to be used within organisational psychology (Lussier and Achua, 2010). Burns' concepts were extended by Bass

(1985) with the use of the term transformational instead of transforming. Explanations of psychological mechanisms which highlighted leadership characteristics of transforming and transaction were expanded upon, with Bass (1990) showing how transformational leadership can be measured and how it can impact upon the motivation and performance of followers (Pintrich, 2003).

Within the different sections, researchers had been focussing upon the leadership styles within developed countries. It was noticeable that the style of transformational leadership was a more acceptable model from the previous literature on leadership; authors preferring to adopt transformational leadership into all types of situations, cultures and organisations (Bass, 1990b; House, 1995). However, few studies had compared the effects that different leadership styles have upon the performance of followers in Middle East Higher Education Institutions. Instead, diversity studies have attempted to fit Western models of leadership into developing country settings; with the focus being upon the differences between cultures, rather than upon the development of new models of leadership for the developing country context (Randeree and Ninan, 2011).

During the early Twentieth Century, researchers developed many leadership theories that focussed upon the qualities that distinguished leaders from their followers (Bass and Riggio, 2006). Also, other theories aimed at examining variables such as the specific skills of leaders in particular jobs and situational factors (Schneider and George, 2011). Many different types of leadership theories emerged, arguing that there are eight major types of theory, covering all aspects of the characteristics within leaders. The first type of theory is the 'Great Man Theory' which assumes that the leadership qualities are inherent, that is the leader is born with them. The second type of theory is 'Trait Theory' which differs slightly from the first in that there is an assumption that some of the quality skills of the leader that make a person better suited for their role may not be inherited directly. The third type of theory is 'Contingency Theory' (Muijs, 2011). This focuses upon the suitability of certain leadership characteristics for a particular situation or environment. Fourthly, 'Situational Theory' proposes the best choice of action for leaders in relation to different situational variables (Nguyen and

Mohamed, 2011). The fifth type, 'Behavioural Theory', is based on the behaviour associated with the leader's qualities that are not born within him or her, as opposed to those inherent qualities (Cheung and Chan, 2008). The sixth type of leadership theory, 'Participative Theory', refers to where ideal leadership is considered to involve the taking into account the input of others (Javidan and Carl, 2005). The seventh type, 'Management Theory', which includes Transformational Theory, focus upon the role that leader takes in organising, supervising and improving the performance of his/her group (Avolio, et al., 2003). The final type of leadership theories, which focus on the connection between leaders and followers, are known as 'Relationship Theories' or 'Transformational theories' (Brown, et al., 2006).

Relationship theories differ from transactional theories in that leaders who are transformational tend to motivate and encourage their followers through helping them to perceive the importance of the task they are involved in. Such transformational leaders are more focussed upon improving the performance of the members in his/her group. Authors have differentiated between the aforementioned styles of leadership. However, within the literature, there are two main styles that are outlined, namely transactional leadership and transformational leadership. Ergeneli et al., (2007) consider that transactional leadership is mainly focussed upon the exchanges that occur between leaders and their subordinates or followers in order to suit their existing needs; whilst transformational leadership has the aim of elevating the needs of followers and the promotion of radical changes from the groups and individuals within the organization. Berson et al., (2001) consider that managers apply transactional influence through the specifying of certain goals and objectives for the purpose of the achievement of strategic, long term aims and objectives. It was argued originally that transformational and transactional leadership styles were at the opposite extremes of a continuum (Gronn, 2002). The difference between them can be down to ways in which followers are motivated and the trust built between leaders and followers, with their subsequent increase in follower job satisfaction. However this idea was criticised by researchers in recent years (Spillane et al., 2004).

Some authors, such as Yuki (2002) and Bartram and Casimir (2007), have argued that trust and satisfaction are felt by followers when the leader is transformational. It has also been argued by Caruso and Salovey (2004) that the motivation and enabling of individuals is difficult without emotional cleverness. Without the ability to accurately appraise and express emotions in the self and others, for instance, it may be difficult for a leader to encourage followers (Kupers and Weibler, 2006). It has been noted that many scholars have focussed on the interface between transformational leadership and the performance of followers, both theoretically (Kupers and Weibler, 2006) and empirically (Barbuto and Burbach, 2006). However, there appears to be little research that has focussed on the relationship between transactional leadership and the performance of followers and the differences between the two leadership styles in relation to the motivation, trust and the job satisfaction of followers.

1.2. STATEMENT OF STUDY PROBLEM

Within developing nations, educational institutions are undergoing a dynamic process of change, particularly within the Middle East (Almjd, 2008). As noted by Joseph and Winston (2005), technological advancements and the diffusion of knowledge are putting these institutions under pressure to adapt to the changing nature of the global educational environment. With such change, a leadership issue is sometimes faced by institutions. In order to succeed, it is apparent that there needs to be the adoption of a suitable approach to leadership so that these institutions can be guided through a dynamic and rapidly changing environment (Twigg et al., 2007). There has been a rapid increase in the amount of research concerned with the impact of the style of leadership upon performance in the educational institutions. The majority of research, however, has been undertaken within developed economies and, as leadership is contextual (Newstrom and Davis, 2002; Joseph and Winston, 2005), it is inappropriate to assume that the findings are relevant to other societies and cultures (Al-Omari, 2007; Zohar and Tenne-Gazit, 2008). As noted by Joseph and Winston (2005), the context in

Jordan, in terms of norms, beliefs and culture, is inherently different from that of Western society. So, it is unlikely that findings gleaned from research into leadership style, which is based on the UK experience, are directly transferable to the situation in Jordan.

The lack of research into leadership in higher education in Jordan formed the central problem that the current study addressed. More specifically, it was apparent that the relationship between transactional and transformational leadership styles and the situational variables of motivation, trust and job satisfaction had not been explored previously. Identifying effective forms of leadership would contribute to situational knowledge of transformational leadership theory and equally help solve the problem associated with finding the most effective leadership styles for Jordanian universities.

1.3. PURPOSE AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Leaders play a key role in the success or failure of an organization. They provide direction for their subordinates to guide employees towards the achievement of organizational goals. Therefore, in this research which considers higher education and future change, there is a need for leaders to adopt different behaviours and assume different philosophies, regarding how they lead. In particular, it will be necessary, in order to gain better results, for both leaders and their followers to have both personal and professional values, and remain true to them. They will also need to make decisions and seek to clarify, affirm and regenerate those values for the wider organization. An understanding of the principles of leadership is an important element to the success of various components of an institution and, therefore, to the institution as a whole (Bass and Avoloi (1995). Within the literature, leadership has been identified as a key factor towards the generation of motivation, trust and satisfaction of followers (Yuki, 1998; Hsu and Mujtaba, 2007; Iyad, 2011). Furthermore, a number of authors have suggested that the most capable model for all situations and organisations is transformational leadership (Charan et al., 2001; Raelin, 2004;

Brymer and Gray, 2006). The studies into transformational leadership, however, have mainly been undertaken in Western cultures, which are vastly different from those in the Middle East.

In order to achieve effective performance, there is the requirement for an expansion of the empirical research base which looks at the style of the best leadership. Through measuring the perceptions of university stakeholders, accurate results can be provided that identify leadership styles. In providing an understanding of the professional leadership and the adaptability of leadership styles within the public and private Jordanian higher academic institutions, this research can enhance the leadership performance and the influence that leaders have upon the organisation. This study, therefore, has a focus upon the leadership practices of the leaders in high, medium, and low leadership positions in three public and two private higher education institutions in Jordan. Within Jordan, a strong emphasis has been placed on the importance of having an educated population. In order to ensure widespread access to higher education amongst Jordanian citizens, the Milestones Acts were passed (Education Acts of 1964, 1994 and 2004 and the Higher Education Acts of 1980 and 1985).

The University of Jordan, which was established in 1962, became the first public university in Jordan. Next to arrive was the Yarmouk University in 1976, with eight more public universities having been established in various parts of the Kingdom since then. The establishment of private universities was first authorized in a policy document endorsed by the Council of Higher Education in 1989, with the first private institution of Amman University being established in 1990. Since 1990, a total of twelve more private universities have been founded in Jordan (Altal, 1998). There are currently ten public and fourteen private universities in Jordan, with both sectors offering programmes that lead towards degrees. However, only the public universities offer Masters and Doctorate degrees, except for the Amman Arab University for Graduate Studies, which offers both undergraduate and postgraduate awards (Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, 2010).

The work by Chang and Lee (2007) has shown that different cultures have differing effects upon the style of leadership, and different types of institutions practice different styles of management and leadership (House, 2004). The study by Al-Omari (2007) had the objective of identifying the styles of leadership and their adaptability of the departmental chairpersons and deans, as they perceived themselves, at three Jordanian institutions of higher education. In terms of style, both the departmental chairs and deans considered "selling" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988) to be their primary style of leadership, with "participating" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1988) selected as their secondary style. In terms of the adaptability of style, both departmental chairs and deans fell into the mid-range of scores, which indicates that they had a pronounced primary leadership style and were less flexible in a secondary leadership styles. The study by Al-Omari (2007) was designed to identify leadership styles and how adaptable department chairs and deans were. The study was conducted at three universities, which were public, doctoral, research universities and which had a primary leadership style within the North West region of Jordan. Depending on their discipline, a significant difference existed between the leadership styles among the deans for "delegating" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1993), where their adaptability was categorised as moderate.

1.4. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES AND QUESTIONS

Having outlined the study problem relating to the lack of leadership research in higher education institutes in Jordan, which arose from an extensive review of the literature, it is possible to determine the key research objectives for the current study. The four key research objectives arose from a gap in the literature, whereby leadership in Jordanian higher education had not been investigated previously. Given the exploratory nature of the current study the research objectives were intentionally broad in nature.

1. To critically analyse the context and applicability of transactional and transformational leadership approaches in Jordanian universities from the followers' and leaders' perspective.
2. To analyse the influence that personal biographical information can exert on transactional and transformational leadership approaches in higher educational institutions in Jordan.
3. To evaluate how key interpersonal aspects of organizational measurement, particularly the areas of trust, motivation and job satisfaction, are associated with the theoretical and practical aspects of transformational and transactional leadership characteristics.
4. To critically evaluate the followers' and leaders' perspective of what characteristics constitute an 'ideal' leader in Jordanian universities.

To provide a focus for the study and to help operationalize and devise hypotheses, research questions were formulated that paralleled the four research objectives.

1. In what ways do followers and leaders perceive transactional and transformational leadership approaches in Jordanian universities?
2. To what extent is personal biographical information associated with transactional and transformational leadership approaches in higher educational institutions in Jordan?
3. How are the organizational measurements of trust, motivation and job satisfaction associated with the theoretical and practical aspects of transformational and transactional leadership characteristics?
4. What are the followers' and leaders' perceptions of those characteristics that constitute an 'ideal' leader in Jordanian universities?

1.5. STUDY METHODOLOGIES AND DIRECTION

The current study, set within the context of higher education organisations within Jordan, provides an exploration of the relationship between the style of leadership and the trust, job satisfaction and motivation of followers. To achieve the aim, the strategy adopted was quantitative research (Edwards and Gill, 2002). With respect to philosophy, the positivist paradigm (Watson, 2008) was the primary focus, whereby deductive approaches were used to test out the theory of leadership in a new situation. As the subject matter relates to gaining an understanding of the behaviour or perceptions of individuals, quantitative responses had scales provided in a Likert format (Muijs, 2011). The research was conducted using a sample of leaders and employees, in both public and private universities (to include five universities) within three different regions of Jordan. Questionnaires were used to collect data, with these being designed to question both leaders and followers. The data was processed and analysed through the use of SPSS computer software. In order to support the findings, semi-structured interviews were conducted, to add a qualitative dimension (Harrison and Reilly, 2011).

1.6. UNIT OF STUDY

1.6.1. Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan

Jordan is an Arab country on the west of Asia, located on the East Bank of the River Jordan. Being a constitutional monarchy with a representative government, its official name is the Hashemite Kingdom of Jordan and the executive authority of the King is exercised through the Prime Minister and the cabinet. The nation of Jordan is modern in nature having a society that is mainly urban and, with the classification of an 'emerging market', the country has the highest number of Free Trade Agreements of any of the countries in the region (Jordanian Chamber of Commerce, 2010). Having close relations with the United States and the United Kingdom, Jordan appears to be following Western regimes (Ministry of Culture, 2010a). However, the culture in Jordan, its beliefs, spoken language, values, and

the ethnicities of the majority of residents is essentially Arabic, as opposed to being Western. Many other nationalities have come to settle in Jordan, such as Chechens and Armenians, although they have integrated within a society that is known for its tolerance and stability (Ministry of Culture, 2010b). Jordan has a diverse cultural scene with various different artists, religious sects and ethnic minorities residing in the country, particularly those drawn from Palestinian and Iraqi societies (Ministry of Culture, 2010c). In comparison to the region and to developing countries generally, Jordan has consistently been ranked as having a superior quality of life, with the country rated as having one of the highest standards of living within the developing world (Ministry of Culture, 2010a). It has a highly educated population and has access to advanced healthcare services, in both urban and rural areas. Indeed, according to the Human Poverty Index (2009), Jordan has the second highest standard of living in the Arab and Muslim world and has the eleventh highest standard of living in the whole of the developing world. It is a noticeably clean country which has a crime rate that is extremely low, by both regional and international standards.

In terms of security, Jordan is one of the top ten countries in the world which has followed decades of political stability, security and strict law enforcement (Ministry of Interior, 2009). After Kuwait and the United Arab Emirates, Jordan was ranked by the 2010 Newsweek 'World's Best Countries' list as the third best Arab country to live in, and fifty-third in the world. Alongside these markers, Jordan is considered one of the most liberal countries in the Middle East with the country placed in the 'high human development' bracket by the 2010 Human Development Index (HDI). This placed the country behind the oil producing countries and Tunisia at seventh place amongst Arab countries. In terms of the HDI score that excludes income, Jordan was placed second in the Arab world, which is higher than most of the affluent states of the Arab Gulf (Ministry of Interior, 2009). This indicates that the government of Jordan has placed a great deal of emphasis upon human capital within the development process of the country.

According to the 2010 Quality of Life Index prepared by the International Living Magazine, Jordan was ranked as having a quality of life that was almost the highest for the whole of the region of the Middle East and North Africa (MENA). This annual Index has been produced through a consideration of nine categories, namely: Cost of Living, Culture and Leisure, Economy, Environment, Freedom, Health, Infrastructure, Safety and Risk and Climate. In the MENA region, Jordan was ranked in second place after Israel, with 55.0 points, which was followed by Kuwait, Morocco and Lebanon. According to the UN Human Development Report, only 3.5% of the people in Jordan earn less than two US dollars a day. This rate is one of the lowest amongst the Arab states and one of the lowest in the developing world. According to a Ministry of Interior Report (2010), in comparison with other countries across the world, Jordan has one of the largest proportions of immigrants amongst its population, with over forty per cent of its residents having been born in another country; a rate that is higher than the United States.

1.6.2. Higher Education in Jordan

Unlike other Arab countries, Jordan has fewer natural resources and so a great deal of attention has been given to the education system, which has consistently improved since the mid-1990s. A good education system has played a significant role in the development of Jordan from a nation that was agrarian to one that is industrialized (Ministry of Culture, 2010b). As such, the standard of education within Jordan is ranked as the best in the Arab world and one of the best within the developing world as a whole (Ministry of Interior, 2009). More precisely, the education system has been classified by UNESCO as eighteenth in the world for the gender equality that it provides. Additionally, the Jordanian government spends approximately 20.5% of its budget upon education, in comparison to only 2.86% in Syria, for example. Therefore, Jordan is noted for having a highly educated population and, according to the Global Competitiveness Report for 2004-2005, it has the highest average science scores in the Middle East, and came 14th out of 110 countries for its number of scientists and engineers.

There are 2,000 researchers in Jordan per million people in comparison to an average of 500 researchers per million people amongst Islamic countries, generally (Bilal, 2009). As such, Jordan has a higher proportion of researchers than Greece, Italy and Israel.

Following the establishment of the Council of Higher Education in 1989, the policy of endorsing the establishment of private universities was brought forward and Amman University was duly established as the first private university in 1990. After graduating with the General Secondary Education Certificate (GSEC), students can apply to study at either public or private community colleges or to public or private universities, with there being a higher degree of competition for places within public universities. There are sixteen private and ten public universities in Jordan with an additional fifty-four community colleges, fourteen of which are public, twenty-four private and the remainder have an association to either the UNRWA (United Nations Relief and Works Agency for Palestine Refugees in the Near East), the Ministry of Health or to the Jordan Armed Forces. The Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research has responsibility for all the different types of educational institutions. A credit-hour system operates within Jordan, which allows students to create their own plan of study, which is then implemented within the system of private and public universities. In the past ten years, there has been a considerable growth in the higher education system in Jordan (Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, 2010), though it still faces challenges, due partly to the rapid growth in the knowledge-based economy.

To illustrate the increase in students in recent years, the number of students enrolled in both public and private universities in the academic year 2000/2001 was 78,000 students, whilst the corresponding figure for the year 2006/2007 was 219,000 students (Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, 2010). Whilst there has been a noticeable increase in tertiary education in Jordan, to a rate that is higher than the average for the region, there has been a discernibly higher rate of development in the private universities in Jordan, than in the public institutions. By way of contrast, student enrolment numbers at community

colleges have declined from 30,000 to 26,000 students, which can be explained by the lower level of training provided by the colleges and the demands for a knowledge-based market economy. The Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research was established by the new higher education legislation in 2001, with its main responsibility being the supervision of higher education in both public and private institutions. The selection of the rectors and vice-rectors of public universities is the responsibility of the Council of Higher Education and once the newly selected rectors are listed, Royal acceptance is sought from the King of Jordan.

Education in Jordan still faces challenges. Whilst there have been improvements to the higher education system, there are still continuing problems within the sector which need to be addressed. Here the government is seeking to ensure the new generation has a better opportunity of competing effectively, both nationally and internationally, by ensuring an appropriate quality of education is available at the universities. To illustrate the point, attention can be drawn to how an increase in the level of unemployment in the country has resulted from the lack of training for teachers. Lecturers at Jordanian universities do not appear sufficiently motivated to improve their skills and in conveying this attitude to their students, this may have led new graduates to be less able to compete in the international market. In addition, the limited teaching of the use of technology is less than that required by potential employers (Khalid, 2009).

1.6.3. Research Organisations – Primary Sources of Data

The selection of organisations was based on the research aim, to investigate the different levels of transformational leadership and leader profiles in public and private universities in Jordan. The research is based in a tribe culture (U.S. Library of Congress, 2009), with Jordan being divided into the three districts of north, south and the middle, which contains the capital. The study aimed to determine if differences or relationships existed across the three districts and how cultural aspects might affect the characteristics of leaders and followers. The study also sought to investigate the relationship between leadership styles and

the concepts of motivation, job satisfaction and trust. To achieve the study's aims five universities were selected from across Jordan (Table 1.1).

Table 1.1: Location of the Sample Universities and their Type

No.	University type	Location
1.	Yarmouk University - Public university	North Jordan
2.	Mu'tah University - Public university	South Jordan
3.	The University of Jordan - Public university	Middle Jordan
4.	Irbid University - Private university	North Jordan
5.	Philadelphia University - Private university	Middle Jordan

The rationale for the choice of those universities was to access data which would cover a broad geographical area and thus provide a better representation from which to generalise. The choice of a mixture of three public and two private universities was to provide a mixture of normative and utilitarian organisations, to contrast the value-oriented approach with the business-orientated focus, although it is acknowledged that the examples are not extreme utilitarian organisations. It should be noted that there are no private university in the south of Jordan.

1. *Yarmouk University – Public University: North Jordan*

Yarmouk University was established in 1976 by Royal decree and since its establishment has grown both in size and stature. It is now a leading university within the Jordanian higher education system, known for its commitment to service and its innovative approach in providing academic management and human resource development, without specialising in a specific field. As the University is a public institution it belongs to the government, but it has a considerable degree of independence, even though members of the Board of Trustees are appointed by Royal decree, which implies some restriction (Yarmouk University website, 2010).

The mission of Yarmouk University is threefold. First, it aims to provide a high quality education to its students, in different fields and at different levels of achievements, including undergraduate, Masters and Ph.D. level. Second, Yarmouk encourages both its students and staff to undertake research programmes that are needed for the growth of the country or which make a contribution to human welfare and prosperity in its widest context. The third Yarmouk mission is to provide a public service at local, national and international level, through the promotion of a dynamic environment of cultural improvement and the provision of educational and training opportunities to non-student groups (Yarmouk University website, 2010). Within the overall mission, the University seeks to communicate free thought to its students, adopt an appropriate stance and guide them, not just in content, but in making them leaders of the future. The aim is for a truly rounded education. Extra-curricular activities are designed not only to champion sound moral values steeped in the rich heritage of Arab Islamic culture, but to strengthen an individual's character with experiential knowledge. Students are trained to employ a scientific method of analysis and problem solving and apply this discipline of the mind to all walks of life (Yarmouk University website, 2010).

For its staff structure, the University has two Deanships, being the Deanship of Scientific Research and Graduate Studies and the Deanship of Student Affairs. In addition, there are a number of research centres which offer research or training that is oriented to different faculties. There is also a Rector and two Vice-Rectors who envision, co-ordinate and control the University. The Rector and Vice-Rectors are selected by the Higher Education ministry and approved by the King of Jordan.

The University sets out conditions for prospective staff, such as having relative experience, being without a criminal record and being well-known in the community. For teaching staff, at least seven years of experience in their field and at least two published papers are required for progression, whereas for

administrative staff the time is five years. At the time of this study, the University employed around 1,500 full-time academic and administrative staff divided as follows:

The academic staff includes the Rector, Vice-Rector, Deans, Sub-deans, Heads of faculties and departments and Lecturers. Administrative staff includes the Heads of bureau, Heads of division, Heads of sub-division, Administrators, Clerical, Technical and Secretarial staff, Librarians, and Technicians.

2. *Mu'tah University – Public University: South Jordan*

Mu'tah University is the south of Jordan public university chosen for this research. The University was established in 1981 by Royal proclamation as an institution for providing military higher education in the south of Jordan. However, in 1986 a civilian section was added. The University was established by the late King Hussein to realise the role of Jordan as an inheritor of "the Great Arab Revolt", with the intention being to enable the country to steadily face the future challenges. King Hussein was aware of the nature of the people in the area, who were generally thought to be more ethical than others in the country and believed that the military and civilian departments in the University would provide the society with competent graduates who were equipped with a scientific and cultural background, coupled with leadership qualities (Mu'tah University website, 2010).

Similar entry and promotion requirements exist to those at Yarmouk University. At the time of the current research, the University employs around 700 full-time academic and administrative staff. Being a public university the makeup of the structure is similar to that of Yarmouk Univeristy.

The academic staff includes the Rector, Vice-Rector, Deans, Sub-deans, Heads of faculties and departments and Lecturers. Administrative staff includes the

Heads of bureau, Heads of division, Heads of sub-division, Administrators, Clerical, Technical and Secretarial staff, Librarians, and Technicians (Mu'tah University website, 2010).

3. *The University of Jordan – Public University: Middle Jordan*

The University of Jordan is an old institution of higher education, which was established in 1962. The University claims to have a modern style and the ability to apply the advancement of knowledge, which is characterised by its large capacity in offering more than 60 programmes in 18 faculties, along with 22 doctoral programmes and 61 masters programmes. All programmes provide a service to the community, both locally and nationally, and embrace 30,000 non-Jordanian students, from more than 50 nationalities (The University of Jordan website, 2010).

The University supports practical training and applied essential research in most of the programmes offered. At the time of the current study the University has more than 770 academic members, whilst the administrative staff was around 874 full-time workers. Its teaching staff are active participants in conferences, workshops and symposia, both nationwide and abroad.

The promotion system for both administrative and academic staff is similar to other public universities, with promotion being mainly based on experience. However, this University operates a credit system, which is based on the teaching and research experience that academic staff gain during their work.

The University is managed by a Rector and three Vice-rectors who formulate the overall strategy and control the financial and student matters. Both the Rector and his Vice-rectors are elected by the Trustees, but they also require to be approved by King Abdullah. There is no maximum length of stay in these

positions and the Rector will stay on his position until a new recommendation from the Trustees is accepted by the King.

4. *Irbid University – Private University: North Jordan*

Irbid University is a relatively new academic institution, having been established in the northern of Jordan in 2000. Its central mission is to provide the local society with the study of human sciences, such as Islamic studies, Arts studies and sciences of business and finance. The University has four faculties, with, at the time of the current study, around 120 academic and 200 administrative staff. The staff provide an academic service for around 2,500 students (Irbid University website, 2010).

The central mission of the University is to provide a social science education for the local community, with this being supplemented by other national and overseas students. As the University is a private organisation, its main aim is to ensure a reasonable return for its shareholders. In line with effective operations, a key strategy is to recruit skilled and high experienced staff who will help progress the University. In line with other enterprises, new vacancies are announced in newspapers. The way staff are promoted in the University is not entirely clear, although the process appears to be associated with monetary reward.

The management, which is shaped by a Board of Trustees, comprises a University president and two Vice-presidents, Board of directors, University Council and a Council of Deans. It also has a Deanship of Student Affairs and Deanship of Scientific Research, along with six administration departments.

5. *Philadelphia University – Private University: Middle Jordan*

Philadelphia University is a private university, founded in 1989 as a higher educational institution, located in the middle region of Jordan. It has more than 8,000 students in eight faculties, with around 168 academic and 225 administrative staff. This University focuses on the sciences, such as engineering, pharmacy and sciences programmes, which attract many local students, along with international students from Arab countries. The University offers reduced fees for international students, when compared with the public universities, thus, they find the University attractive. The international element has led to rapid developments within the University, with an expansion from four to eight faculties in a space of ten years. It is noted that whilst research takes place, the University offers just two masters degree programmes (Philadelphia University website, 2010).

In order to incentivise academic staff, the University has created prizes for areas of research, such as the Philadelphia University Award for a Distinctive Book and the Philadelphia Award for the Best Translated book. Thus, the private universities might differ from the public bodies, not only in the way they recruit staff, but also in the way they are challenged and in the creative skills they bring to the job.

In terms of makeup, the University has a Rector and two Vice-rectors, who are elected by the Board of Trustees and who cannot be in position for more than eight years. Elections take place every four years. There is also a University council, which is responsible for the strategic direction of the university and for improving the academic level and services – the Council reports to the Board of Trustees. The University also has Deans, Sub-deans and Heads of departments and courses, along with the various administrative departments (Philadelphia University website, 2009).

1.6.4. Organisational Structure of Universities

The study aimed to investigate the perception of both leaders and followers at the different levels of the hierarchical structure, for which the basic guidance offered by Mintzberg (1979) was followed. This organisational division of strategic, middle and operating levels has been adopted as a standard process (Hughes and Avey, 2009). Within the current study, a strategic leader concerns those who formulate the policies of organisations, which includes the Rectors, Vice-rectors, Deans, Sub-deans and Heads of bureau. The operational level refers to the lecturers and those technical staff who support the main direction of the university (Heijden, et al., 2009). Finally, a middle level leader provides the link between the strategic and operational level leaders. This tier, which is more concerned with making decisions and gathering feedback, comprises the Heads of division, Heads of department, Heads of section and Heads of study programmes (Toker, 2011).

With regards to defining leaders and followers for the purposes of the current study, a "leader" is considered to be a leader within the university or the leader of a programme, along with the manager of a department or any other member of staff who has responsibility for supervising or guiding one or more other staff members. Followers were identified as being a member of university staff who reported to a supervisor or manager. Within any organisation many staff members operate as a leader and follower simultaneously but for the current study, they were identified by their primary role.

1.7. ORGANISATION OF STUDY

This thesis has been structured in order to reflect the stages for conducting research that are within the Hourglass Model for Empirical Research (Wasserman, 2005), shown in Figure 1.1.

This chapter introduced the study and established the framework of the various elements involved, including the target organisations, background to the study and the purpose of conducting the research. The review of literature is covered in two parts, with the first chapter addressing key leadership issues. As well as exploring the management and leadership debate, and leadership in general, the specific areas concerning transformational leadership theory are discussed. In the second literature chapter the areas of trust, motivation and job satisfaction are analysed. The overall review identifies the gap in the literature and, at the end of the chapter, the research objectives are presented, which are used to cover that gap.

Figure 1.1: The Hourglass Model of Empirical Research

Source: Adapted from Wasserman, (2005)

Methodological considerations and research methods are discussed in Chapter Four, with the first part exploring the various philosophies associated with research, along with the associated concepts of research design and strategy. In the second part the research methods and procedures are justified, with a particular focus being placed on questionnaire design. Following the research methods and an outline of the hypotheses, the administrative and statistical procedures are justified, so as to provide reliable and valid results.

The findings are presented in Chapter Five, where the data places the study in context and outlines both the sample data and the key results. In the subsequent discussion chapter, the research objectives and questions are addressed. Here, the data is used to facilitate wider discussion and comment, with various elements of the findings and literature being combined to explain the outcomes and place the study in context, both theoretically and with regards to previous research. The final chapter draws the study to a close by revisiting the main research question and discussing the 'big picture' of leadership in Jordanian higher education. The contribution to knowledge is also outlined in this chapter, along with contributions to practice and avenues for further research.

1.8. SUMMARY

This chapter has provided an introduction to the research study, commencing with an overview on the research concerning leadership. Following this, there was a declaration of the study problem in a statement summarising the focus of the research. The chapter then provided a discussion and justification for the purpose and rationale of the study, with an overview of its methodologies and direction. Following this, definitions of the terms used in the study were outlined, in particular those that refer to leaders and followers. The unit of study was then outlined with an overview of Jordan and its higher education system. The chapter then concluded with an outline of the structure of the thesis. The following chapter provides a critical review of the leadership literature which provides a background summary of the differing styles of leadership.

CHAPTER TWO – LITERATURE REVIEW: LEADERSHIP STYLES AND QUALITIES

The literature review is presented in two chapters, with this first chapter more clearly addressing the leadership concept, whilst in Chapter Three the situational variables of job satisfaction, motivation and trust are explored, in relation to leadership styles.

Leadership studies include various distinct areas, with specific aspects being covered in this chapter. In terms of this chapter and the current research, the specific areas addressed in detail refer to the various definitions associated with 'leadership', after which the key differences between the 'leadership' and 'management' are discussed. Next follows a comprehensive review of transformational leadership theory, which commences with an introduction to leadership theory and moves to the various factors, associated with transformational and transactional leadership styles.

2.1. DEFINITIONS OF LEADERSHIP

Whilst various definitions of the 'leadership' concept have been presented in the leadership literature, no precise, specific and universally accepted definition has been concluded. There is a tendency for researchers to define leadership from their individual perspectives and in particular, the niche aspect of the phenomenon that is of most interest to them (Ergeneli, et al., 2007). Hersey and Blanchard (1981) support the notion that there is little agreement among most researchers in the leadership field regarding this issue, although, in searching for common ground, Yukl (1998) argues that definitions of leadership generally share a common assumption, with it being an individual who, through his or her behaviours and tasks, influences his or her subordinates.

Ergeneli, et al., (2007) stress that any definition of leadership needs to include three fundamental elements. Firstly, influence, as leaders are basically individuals who control the performance of others (subordinates or followers); second, group, as leadership is usually applied and tested in a group context and finally, goal, because leadership focuses essentially on the successful achievement of goals. In this context, Ke and Wei (2008: 210) view leadership as "*the activity of influencing people to strive willingly for the group objectives*". Similarly, Kogler (2001) defines leadership in terms of a process of social influence, whereby a leader steers members of a group towards the achievement of a specific goal. A more precise direction is given by Kwantes and Boglarsky (2007), who suggest that leadership relates to the process of influencing certain activities of individuals or group, so as to accomplish goals in a given situation, arguing that most management writers would agree on this definition. The emphasis on the leaders can be disputed and the role of the followers is returned to later in this chapter.

Similarly, in seeking an accurate leadership definition within the multiple dimensions that are involved in the leadership process, Northouse (2001) identified the focus on group process, as the first dimension of leadership. In this context, the leader is usually the person at the centre of the group, who introduces change and different activities, and who represents the will of the group. The second dimension of the leadership process is the focus on individual perceptions and personality characteristics, which can be defined as an act of leadership behaviour; in other words, the leader's approach to change within the group (Ivey and Kline, 2010). Finally, the third dimension of leadership concerns the power relationships established between the leader and followers or subordinates, where the leader has the authority and power to bring about change within the organization, through his or her planning and future vision (Fein, et al., 2010). It is in the background of these three approaches, that Northouse (2001) claims that leadership is a process where an individual leader influences a group of individuals to achieve a common purpose.

2.2. LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

Management and leadership are similar in many aspects. They both require making clear decisions about what has to be done (Armstrong, 2006) and the establishing of individual networks and relationships, which can achieve the plan by ensuring that followers are able to get the job done (Kwantes and Boglarsky, 2007). Using the terms 'leadership' and 'management' interchangeably is rather widespread (Lussier and Achua, 2010), but the leadership literature highlights clear differences between the two concepts. Leaders can operate outside an organisational system, they can function at any level and they draw their strength from followers rather than official authority (Mullins, 2009).

Lok and Crawford (2004) point out that in today's business world many people in leadership positions are called managers but they emphasize that the main distinction between leadership and management lies in the orientation to change (Waite, 2008). Fundamentally, leadership is linked with having a strategic vision, it typically involves strategic thinking and consequently, leaders should have a clear view of the direction in which their organisations is travelling (Maslin-Wicks, 2007). It is argued that leaders typically deal with personal behaviours and styles (Bono, et al., 2007) and, in this context, it is the leaders' responsibility to think about the success criteria for their organization (Emery and Barker, 2007). Leaders also stimulate emotions and seek to develop a clear vision among their team, so as to inspire followers and turn the vision into real goal achievements (Heller, 2002).

Maslin-Wicks (2007) emphasizes that the leadership process is crucial in getting new, difficult and challenging situations under control, although leadership alone is not capable of controlling all the management functions, with time and budget allocations being two examples (Hughes and Avey, 2009). On the other hand, managers are said to deal with the complexities of day-to-day organizational life, such as problem-solving, short term planning and the effective control of various

resources (Heller, 2002). In other words, managers are mainly concerned with implementing the plans created by leaders and therefore create a degree of stability, order and efficiency. On the other hand leaders are more concerned about flexibility, innovation and adaptation (Maslin-Wicks, 2007). In a similar context, Mosadeghrad and Tahery (2004) highlight a different aspect of dissimilarity between management and leadership, viewing management as an authority relationship between a manager and subordinates, while in leadership the leader and followers have more of a multidirectional influential relationship.

All the same, Heller (2002) emphasizes that effective people-management requires both leadership and management skills. The author stresses that an effective manager would typically require leadership skills. Whilst leadership and management may demand various skills (Ke and Wei, 2008), they are not restrictive or exclusive and indeed they can be linked in different ways (Heller, 2002). Further, a combination of strong management and strong leadership is considered important for any organization to succeed and is needed for organizational change to be introduced (Brauckmann and Pashiardis, 2011). Management without effective leadership can lead to organizational bureaucracy whilst, on the other hand, leadership without appropriate management can cause organizational chaos and random change, without a clear vision (Singh, 2010).

Mosadeghrad and Tahery (2004) examined the main distinctions between leadership and management in the organizational context and support Kotter's (1990) view of the main differences between the two (Table 2.1). According to Mosadeghrad and Tahery's planning and the budgeting course of action, managers focus mainly on detailed steps and short term plans, ranging from a few months to a few years. On the other hand, leaders consider the future vision, goals and strategies and the possible ways to achieve these. Additionally, leaders normally consider other people's values (Taleb, 2010). Likewise, in terms of organising and staffing, management is mainly concerned with creating the right staff structure in the organization and assigning tasks and responsibilities (Oshagbemi and Ocholi, 2006). Conversely, leadership mostly focuses on

directing the whole organization towards the accomplishment of goals, along with the motivating, energizing and empowering employees.

Table 2.1: Comparison between Leaders and Managers

Management	Leadership
Planning and Budgeting Establishing detailed steps and timetables for achieving needed results, and then allocating the resources necessary to make that happen.	***Establishing direction*** Developing a vision of the future, often the distant future and strategies for producing the changes needed to achieve that vision.
Organizing and staffing Establishing some structure for accomplishing requirements, staffing that structure within individuals, delegating responsibility and authority for carrying out the plan, providing policies and procedures to help guide people and creating methods or systems to monitor implementation.	***Aligning people*** Communicating the direction by words and deeds to all those whose cooperation may be needed, so as to influence the creation of teams and coalitions that understand the vision and strategies and accept their validity.
Controlling and problem solving Monitoring results against. plans in some details, identifying deviations and then planning and organizing to solve these problems.	***Inspiring others*** Motivating, inspiring and energizing people to overcome major political, bureaucratic, and resource barriers, to change, by satisfying very basic, but often unfulfilled, human needs.
Routine and order Produce a degree of predictability and order that has the potential for consistency. Producing key results expected by various stakeholder (e.g., for customers, always being on time; for stakeholders, being on budget)	***Drives change*** Produces change, often to a dramatic degree and has the potential to produce extremely useful change (e.g. new products that customers want, new approaches to labour relations that help make a firm more competitive)

Source: Adapted from Mosadeghrad and Tahery (2004)

Returning to Mosadeghrad and Tahery's (2004) separation of leaders and managers, it is apparent that within transformational leadership theory, management more closely relates to a transactional leader, whilst a transformational leader tends to aligns more with leadership. However, the separation is not so marked, with it being possible for an individual to be both a manager and leader, depending on the situation. Thus, it is possible for a manager to be a leader and vice versa.

The key focus is the actions of followers and the reason why they do things for a person. If followers act through fear of authority, or punishment then the person is acting more like a manager; however, if they are inspired by that person and they will do things for them as a person, then that person is functioning as a leader. In short, Drucker (1996) makes the point that leaders have followers, who follow willingly. Managers simply have subordinates.

2.3. TRANSACTIONAL AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

The leadership literature draws a major distinction between transactional leadership and transformational leadership. According to Ergeneli et al., (2007), transactional leadership focuses mainly on the exchanges between leaders and subordinates, in order to suit their existing needs (Kythreotis, et al., 2010). Transformational leadership, on the other hand, aims to elevate the followers' needs and to promote radical changes in individuals and groups, within the organization (Fitzgerald and Schutte, 2010). Berson et al., (2001) suggest that transactional influence is applied by managers through specifying certain goals and objectives, whilst transformational leaders endeavour to motivate followers or subordinates to perform well, in order to achieve long term strategic aims and objectives.

Burns (1978) originally argued that transformational and transactional leadership styles exist on a single continuum, where transactional leadership comes at one extreme and transformational leadership comes at the other extreme, of the continuum. According to this vision, transformational leadership relies for the most part on emotional and normative approaches in order to reach and motivate followers (Arnold and Loughlin, 2010). While, on the other hand, the extreme transactional leadership mostly uses contingent rewards to motivate followers (Crossman, 2010). In this context, Burns (1978) points out that leaders could be classified, based on their leadership style, according to their tendency to transact

with their followers as opposed to transforming them (Tabassi and Abu-Bakar, 2010).

Although transactional and transformational leadership styles can be viewed as polar opposites, they can also augment and enhance each other (Krishnan, 2001). Nonetheless, this argument is not widely accepted by all researchers (Michaelis, et al., 2010): for instance Brymer and Gray (2006) point out that although extensive research has been carried out on transactional and transformational leadership styles, there is no adequate evidence that any of these styles can solely enable the smooth transformation of organizations (Erkutlu, 2008). Likewise, House et al., (1997) stress that although transformational leaders assess their followers' potential to carry out change within the organization, there is no clear evidence that the transformational leaders can successfully transform those followers within the organization (Gill, et al., 2010). In contrast, Dvir et al., (2002) claim that transformational leadership has become the prominent representative theory and remains the dominant paradigm. In the same context, Bass (1985) emphasizes the importance of transformational leadership, arguing that leadership styles need to be transformational in order to achieve a performance from followers that goes beyond ordinary limits (Jayakody and Sanjeewani, 2006).

Bass (1985) considers that a leader could adopt both transactional and transformational leadership styles and apply each in the appropriate situation according to the stated organisational objectives. This suggests that there are undisclosed variables that may dictate the leader's style, according to the different situations faced by the leader and accordingly, the different objectives and goals (Ivey and Kline, 2010). On the other hand, Burns (1978) contradicts Bass (1985) with regards to this issue, arguing that transactional and transformational leadership styles are at opposite ends of a single continuum and accordingly, a leader should adopt one style and stick to it, if they wish to achieve the organization's goals and objectives (Freire, 2010).

According to Bass (1985), who is supported by others (Berson et al., 2001; Fitzgerald and Schutte, 2010), the main distinction between transactional and transformational leadership is that transactional leaders typically exchange results for rewards, whilst transformational leaders attempt to transform the status quo for something they feel is better. In addition, transformational leaders encourage followers to act for the good of the group, or the organization, rather than their own self-interests (Arnold and Loughlin, 2010). Krishnan (2001) suggests that transformational leaders are normally praised by their followers or subordinates for being the ideal leader. Whilst transformational leadership theory has become a more accepted theory than earlier theories of the late 1960s and 1970s (Ahmad, 2009; Sendjaya and Pekerti, 2010), it would appear that transformational leadership is currently more accepted among researchers than transactional leadership (Zeffane, 2010).

Bass (1985) argues that whilst transactional leaders expect their followers to accomplish certain defined objectives, they do not give enough confidence to the followers for them to assume greater responsibilities in improving themselves or leading others (Nadler and Kros, 2010). Basically, transactional leadership is characterized as contingent reinforcement, as the transactional leader identifies the followers' needs and desires and then determines how these needs and desires will be achieved, in exchange for subordinates' performance (Amjad, 2011). This differs from the transformational leaders who typically widen and promote the interests of their followers towards the ultimate objective of the group and in pursuit of the organization's mission (Yarnmarino et al., 1993).

Krishnan (2001) distinguishes between transactional and transformational leadership styles. He argues that whilst transactional leaders mainly rely on an exchange of rewards with followers to motivate them, transformational leaders include followers' moral values, to elevate their level of awareness of ethical issues and to mobilize their resources, in order to reform the organization (Harris and Cole, 2007). Additionally, transformational leaders work to appreciate the existing needs or demands of their followers (Schneider and George, 2011). Burns (1978) and Bass (1990b) agree that the main difference between

transformational and transactional leadership is the leader's approach towards followers' motivation (Fitzgerald and Schutte, 2010). Whereas the transformational leader depends mainly on moral and ethical values in motivating their followers, the transactional leader normally relies more on exchanging rewards with followers (Arnold and Loughlin, 2010).

In the same context, Bass (1985) similarly demonstrates the main distinctions between transformational and transactional leadership styles. He attempts to identify the leadership style in terms of the leader's effect on the followers and the constituent behaviours the leader applies in order to influence and motivate the followers. In contrast, in the transformational leadership style, the followers feel trust, admiration, loyalty and respect toward their leader (Pounder, 2009) and in this state, they accordingly become motivated to perform beyond the agreed aims and objectives (Mitchell and Boyle, 2009). Bass (1985) indicates that in order to achieve this change, transformational leaders need to adopt a distinctive approach. Firstly, the raising of followers' level of awareness, enhancing their level of consciousness about the significance and values of the chosen goals and objectives and showing how these goals can be reached. Secondly, motivating followers to perform beyond their own self-interests, for the common good of the group or the organisation. Finally, the continuous shifting of the followers' needs levels on Maslow's (1954) hierarchy or by heightening the followers' portfolio of needs and wants.

On the other hand, Bass (1985) points out that, in order to motivate followers, a transactional leader should adapt one of the following forms of transactions with followers. Firstly, appreciate the followers' needs and wants and ensure that they get their deserved rewards if they successfully reach the required level of performance. Secondly, offer rewards, exchange and promises for rewards in cases where the desired levels of effort are achieved by the followers. Finally, act in response to the followers' self-interests on the condition that they are getting the necessary goals and objectives done.

2.3.1. Transformational Leadership

Polychroniou (2009), in support of Bass (1985), defines transformational leadership as the process of influencing followers to transform their attitudes, approaches and assumptions, so as to create members who are committed to the organization's mission, objectives and strategies. In order to achieve this, transformational leaders allow followers to get involved in the process of transforming the organization (Yukl, 2002). According to Bass (1998), many researchers consider charisma to be an essential component of the transformational leader's approach.

According to Polychroniou (2009), transformational leadership refers to a superior form of leadership that usually takes place when the leaders broaden and elevate the interests of their followers. In this way, leaders generate an acceptance of the purpose and mission of the group and change their employees' attitude to look beyond their own self-interests and work, for the benefit of the whole group and organization (Crossman, 2010). Avolio and Bass (1998) attempt to identify certain characteristics for transformational leaders, arguing that leaders typically look for new approaches to accomplish objectives by seeking new opportunities in the face of risks (Michaelis, et al., 2010). The leader also favours effectiveness over efficiency. Additionally, transformational leaders prefer innovative thinking and, accordingly, they are unlikely to maintain the status quo in their organizations (Panagopoulos and Dimitriadis, 2009). Furthermore, transformational leaders tend to create, shape and form from the external circumstances, rather than just acting in response to them (Yiing and Ahmad, 2009).

Schyns, et al., (2009) stress that one of the main attributes of the transforming leader is that they recognize and exploit the existing needs or demands of their potential followers. According to this view, the transforming leader continuously looks for potential motives in their followers, seeks to satisfy their higher needs and fully engages with their followers. In support of this view, Politis (2006) argues that transformational leaders should assess their followers' potentiality and ability to perform certain tasks. To achieve current commitments, in this

context, Chang and Lee, (2007) suggest that transformational leaders should also be able to envision an expansion to the followers' future duties. Furthermore, transformational leadership is considered to be universally effective among different cultures (Yiing and Ahmad, 2009), and therefore, transformational leadership is the approach undertaken by many global managers, as a universally accepted leadership style, which can rise above different organizational cultures. Moreover, Schyns, et al., (2009) argue that as transformational leaders are normally more charismatic and inspiring for their followers they are able to influence and inspire loyalty to the organization. In addition, Hu, et al., (2010) state that the transformational leaders' behaviour is characterized by a clear communication of the vision, as well as the focus on objectives achievement, which are attained by working to improve the self-confidence of followers (Hughes and Avey, 2009). Moreover, transformational leaders prefer to make use of symbolism and imagery to solicit greater effort from followers, although, when appropriate, they may also use transactional strategies (Bush, 2003).

Transformational leadership involves a relationship between the leader and followers, which relies on the high involvement of followers in the process of transformation, whereby the more involved the follower becomes in the process, the more the leader elevates their needs and wants (Krishnan, 2001). Fundamentally, transformational leadership arises from, and returns to, the follower's needs and wants (Heijden, et al., 2009) and their aspirations and essential values (Randeree and Ninan, 2011). Moreover, transformational leaders constantly try to create social change with the purpose of satisfying their followers' needs and wants (Toker, 2011). Put another way, transformational leaders seek potential motives in their followers and work to fulfil these needs in order to employ the full person for the good of the group or organization (Schneider and George, 2011).

Muijs (2011) emphasizes that high levels of follower involvement in the process is important for transformational leadership to be successful. The transformational leader should seek a different level of emotional motivation if a follower is unable

to get deeply involved in the process (Schermuly, et al., 2011). Nonetheless, critics argue that motivating followers by exchanging rewards may decrease the effectiveness of the transformational leader (Brauckmann and Pashiardis, 2011), which can be explained by transformational leadership essentially relying on the fundamental values of the job (Brinia, 2011).

Awamleh and Al-Dmour (2005) claim that some organizations are more likely to adopt a transformational leadership approach than others and suggest that organizations with a constant commitment to social and moral values are more likely to apply transformational leadership. One example would be educational institutions, where typically the moral and ethical issues are the key concern of the leader and the organization.

Within the overall theory, Maslim-Wicks (2007) identify five main dimensions of transformational leadership through which leaders build connections with their followers, namely; Idealized Behaviours, Idealized Attributes, Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation and finally Individualized Consideration. These dimensions or factors form the basis of transformational leadership theory, which will be tested out in the first research objective, whereby the applicability of the factors to Jordanian higher education is assessed.

Charismatic Transformational Leadership

Idealized Influence

According to Bush (2003) which supports Bass's (1985) work, charismatic leaders are mainly those leaders who have idealized influence. Charismatic leadership gives emphasis to the importance of leaders having a sense of mission that goes further than individual self-interest and benefits the whole group, and subsequently the organization (Nguyen and Mohamed, 2011). Idealized influence is basically a leadership behaviour that stimulates strong follower emotions and a clear identification with the leader (Bush, 2003).

Typically, charismatic leaders improve their follower values and morals and motivate them by providing high ethical and moral standards (Alves, et al., 2006).

According to Shamir (2001) and Awamleh and Al-Dmour (2005), the existence of charisma relies more on the situational factors than personal. They argue that sensitive situations are likely to stimulate the emergence of charismatic leaders. In addition, Cheung and Chan (2008) argue that charisma emerges in situations where traditional authority and legal, rational and bureaucratic means have failed to get to the bottom of a situation. Jepson, (2009) supports this view, stressing that charismatic leaders are more likely to be found in small, failing organizations or those that are struggling to succeed, rather than highly structured, stable and successful organizations. Additionally, charismatic leaders usually appear at the senior management level, which may be because senior managers are required to consider different strategic issues, allowing them to express a wider scope of thinking than managers at lower levels (Jogulu, 2010).

According to Jepson (2009), individuals who have a charismatic personality are more likely to become active leaders in their organizations, although charisma is not the only factor that determines whether an individual can be a successful leader or not. The way the leader combines charisma with other essential leadership factors (inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration) determines, to a great extent, the leader's success and subsequently, the organization's success (Bush, 2003). In the context, Lord and Brown (2001) stress the importance of the agreement between the leader's mission and the followers' orientation and direction. It is also argued that the effectiveness of the organization depends mainly on an agreement between the leader and followers' values and morals (Jogulu and Wood, 2007).

Inspirational Motivation

Inspirational motivation involves leaders elevating the motivation of their followers by giving them sufficient confidence to attain and sustain high levels of

performance, which might be beyond their own expectations, by inspiring meanings in the followers' work. Jogulu and Wood (2008) suggest that leaders might inspirationally motivate their followers by using stories, to clearly communicate their message and subsequently their vision. Inspirational leaders also use symbols, on a large scale, in order to draw due attention to their leadership cause (Judge and Piccolo, 2004). Indeed, they actually use these symbols to signify certain information and to send a simply understood, clear message to their followers.

Intellectual Stimulation

Bass (1985) defines intellectual stimulation as the stimulation and change in the followers' problem awareness and problem solving capacity. Here, stimulation is through imagination, beliefs and values, rather than through arousal and results in changes through immediate action (Bush, 2003).

Yilmaz (2008) argues that intellectual stimulation relies mainly on the personal capabilities of the leader, for example their intelligence, or their ability to build personal relationships with followers (Asunakutlu, 2007) and their technical expertise. Here, the leader makes use of these capabilities to apply organizational transformation, strategic formulation, and problem solving to improve the followers performance (Chang, et al., 2007). In order to achieve this, the leader may use symbols and images to transmit clear, rather than vague, messages (Bush, 2003). Additionally, intellectually stimulating leaders motivate their followers to question and rethink their own ideas in new ways; they also provide them with new ways of looking at different issues, to help them make the right decisions (Solinger, et al., 2008).

Individualized Consideration

Individualized consideration can be explained in terms of the leader's deeds, which give individual attention and consideration to all his or her followers (Bass,

1985). This individualized consideration is important in motivating followers, as employees feel that they are a valuable asset to the organization which, accordingly, affects their performance positively (Awamleh and Al-Dmour, 2005). The leader motivates each follower by considering their individual needs, so as to achieve the desired objectives. Therefore, leaders who successfully apply individualized consideration focus on their followers' capabilities and give due attention to their team members (Sabri, 2007). Leaders work on improving and elevating their follower's capabilities through coaching, teaching, monitoring, positive criticism and feedback (Heathfield, 2009). Leaders also encourage followers to take on greater responsibilities, when they sense that they are able to perform at a satisfactory level (Swedaan, 2009). Moreover, individualized consideration can be given to individuals or a group, whereby each follower is cared for in a different way, based on his or her individual needs and capabilities (Yukl, 1999).

Authentic and Pseudo Transformational Leaders

The distinction between transactional and transformational leadership is important in terms of formulating the future direction of the organisation (Berson et al., 2001). In the same way, Alger (2010) draws attention to the major difference between authentic transformational and pseudo transformational leaders, arguing that pseudo transformational leaders make the most of transformational methods, but may exhibit public interest considerations or be following self-focused aims (Kwantes and Boglarsky, 2007). Thus, they do not possess the same moral authority as authentic transformational leaders. In addition, authentic transformational leaders adopt a morally justifiable means of advancing progress, which supports a common objective, for the good of all (Brymer and Gray, 2006). This interesting distinction is worthy of further investigation as it is central to understanding the situation within Jordanian higher education.

2.3.2. Transactional Leadership

The early years of leadership studies witnessed an initial shift towards transactional leadership theory. Transactional leadership theory is referred to as a process of exchange between a leader and his or her followers, or subordinates. Although transactional leadership theory has been extensively discussed in leadership literature, there is no clear evidence that a single author is responsible for presenting it (Awamleh and Al-Dmour, 2005). Since transactional leadership theory emerged, there has been a continuous "compare and contrast" situation in literature with transformational leadership (Ergeneli, et al., 2007). Simply, transactional leadership can be explained in terms of a sophisticated bonus scheme, offered by the transactional leaders (Yang, 2007), where followers are rewarded for their efforts in achieving certain goals and objectives (Davies and West-Bumham, 2003).

According to Hollander (1985), transactional leaders offer their followers rewards and promises, in return for their efforts. Transactional leaders are typically keen to recognize the needs and desires of their followers and accordingly they work to ensure that they satisfy these needs. In this context, transactional leadership is argued as being responsive to the followers' and subordinates' instant and long term self-interests. Thus, transactional leadership can, in certain environments, be very satisfying for the followers (McCaffery, 2004). Transactional leaders mainly centre their attention on executing tasks professionally. Bass (1985), supported by Awamleh and Al-Dmour (2005), points out that the degree of transactional leadership success depends on the extent to which the leader is operating with appropriate controls over the rewards and penalties, combined with the extent to which the followers are motivated both by the rewards promised and the desire to avoid penalties (Xirasagar, 2008). Thus, the transactional leader, when dealing with followers or subordinates, is managing both the negative and positive elements. That is, a strongly performing employee could be rewarded by a pay-rise or promotion, whilst one who is performing poorly might receive penalties (Ivey and Kline, 2010).

Conversely, Fein et al., (2010) state that transactional leadership is not sufficient to achieve the followers' highest level of performance. It has been suggested that material wealth alone is unlikely to lead to superior performance in many circumstances (Lussier and Achua, 2010). Indeed, Bass (1985) stressed that the simple process of exchange can rarely out perform a commitment to attitudes and beliefs. Essentially, transactional leadership consists of contingent rewards and management by exception (Mehrotra, 2005). Firstly, contingent reward basically involves a barter of rewards for the follower's efforts to go beyond a certain level of performance. Contingent reward usually involves a clear identification of the follower's needs, following which, the leader works to facilitate the achievement of the agreed objectives. Additionally, contingent reward requires an understandable connection between what the leader expects to be achieved and what the subordinates' expect as reward, following their achievement of the specified targets (Waite, 2008).

Management by exception simply means that leaders should only interact when something goes wrong or when certain standards are not achieved. According to Bono (2007), management by exception can be explained through the popular phrase "If it ain't broke, it don't need fixing". In this context, transactional leaders either intervene when problems arise and corrections are needed, or they continuously observe the followers' performance and interact when they sense that mistakes are going to take place (Emery and Barker, 2007). In this context, Bass (1998) identifies two distinct categories: "active" management by exception and "passive" management by exception. Active management by exception involves leaders setting certain standards and procedures, then monitoring and following up the subordinates' performance (Geijsel, 2003). The leader intervenes and takes counteractive actions when a breach of standards and procedures occurs (Hughes and Avey, 2009). On the other hand, leaders who adopt a passive management by exception stance only require their followers to carry out the essential steps necessary to achieve the objectives (Hsu and Mujtaba, 2007). Some authors consider the transactional processes between leaders and followers to be more associated with management, rather than leadership (Ke and Wei, 2008). That is, transactional leadership usually happens when there is a transaction between the leader and the subordinates (Kusku, 2003).

It is the transactional leader's mission to ensure that followers have a clear understanding of their roles and requirements, as well as the desired results and outcomes. This helps ensure that the followers possess adequate information to commit the necessary efforts to achieve the objectives (Nemanich and Keller, 2007). Additionally, the transactional leader appreciates the followers' needs and desires and demonstrates to them how these needs and desires will be met, if they make the necessary effort towards achieving the goals (Spendlove, 2007).

Transactional leaders are those who mostly depend on a contingent reward leadership style. As explained above, transactional leadership includes the process of exchange between the leader and his or her followers or subordinates (Martin and Marion, 2005). Krishnan (2001) criticises the transactional leadership style, arguing that its impact is rather limited, mainly because leadership is unsuccessful in raising the ambitions of both the leader and followers (Trivellas and Dargenidou, 2009). It is also argued that transactional leadership fails to involve the leader and followers in bonding in the communal pursuit of higher levels of performance, as the process mostly relies on the concept of exchange (Brauckmann and Pashiardis, 2011).

2.4. PERSONAL AND SITUATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS FOR TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERS

Transformational leaders have the ability to impact on their followers, through their personal and situational characteristics, including both their behaviours and personal qualities (Givens, 2008). The impact can take the form of positive personal outcomes in followers (Kirkpatrick and Locke, 1996), such as motivation (Bass and Avolio, 1995; Aarons, 2006), job satisfaction (Hatter and Bass, 1988) and trust (Gillispie and Mann, 2000).

In referring to characteristics there needs to be some clarification. There are the earlier studies of leader traits (Mann, 1959; Stogdill, 1948), which sought universal traits, qualities or attributes in individuals, which had links to the thinking that leaders were born, rather than made. There is also the area that aligns leaders with personality traits (Dignam and Scott, 2003) and which later placed these in specific situations, in the style of Fiedlers' work (1964, 1967). The term character also enters the leadership language, with this being considered different from personality (Peterson and Seligiman, 2004).

Being motivational, just, dynamic and honest, together with foresight, have been identified as universally effective leadership attributes (Den Hartog et al., 1999). However, despite such characteristics being universal, there is still the opportunity for culture and situations to impact on how these are perceived and the effect they may have. Indeed, a meta-analysis has suggested that the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) shows support for leader characteristics varying across cultures (Leong and Fischer, 2011), with a significant influence being the link between Hofstede's (1980) low power distance and charismatic, transformational leadership (Dorfman, et al., 2004). A positive correlation has also been found between low individualism and transformational leadership (Leong and Fischer, 2011). In addition, there is the issue of gender, which may impact on how the characteristics of transformational leaders are perceived (Jedeh, 2010).

Transformational leadership is fundamentally about creating conditions for motivating followers and gaining their trust (Avolio and Bass, 1988; Bass, 1985); in short, transformational leaders inspire others (Givens, 2008). Leader integrity is considered a strong characteristic for trust, along with a form of empowering leadership that equally generates strong trust in followers (Gao et al., 2011). Leader integrity can equally impact on the follower's motivation to "go the extra mile" (Bass, 1985) and also allow for greater job satisfaction. At the same time the leader has to create situational conditions that motivate followers, such as achievement at work, social cohesion and interesting work (Al Khawaldeh 2006; Salameh, 2006). It is acknowledged that some situational characteristics are

outside the leader's control, although the followers' perception may not always recognise this.

In a wider context, job satisfaction and low turnover intentions have been positively related with transformational leadership theory (Martin and Epitropaki, 2001). Within the Jordanian context, studies in the communication industry have identified fair treatment as being of great importance for trust, together with the concept of loyalty (Al Khawaldeh, 2006). In relation to job satisfaction, Al Khawaldeh (2006) and Salameh (2006) both found that open ways of working were important, which is a situational characteristic that transformational leaders need to be aware of. Equally, the two studies were in agreement that Jordanian employees, both in the communication industry and government ministries, felt that the personal principles of their leader mattered most in motivating them to put in a greater effort.

The followers' perspective of a leader and situational characteristics are important as, ultimately, it is the followers who decide if they wish to follow the person. The approach known as implicit leadership theory groups followers' responses into certain categories (Lord and Maher, 1993), although for the current study, how followers perceive the situational and personal characteristics of a successful transformational leader provides a stronger focus. As to whether leader characteristics can be developed, there is a general feeling that this is possible (Hannah and Avilio, 2011) and is the basis of leadership development (Quick and Wright, 2011).

2.5. SUMMARY

The conceptual debate surrounding the differences between leadership and management were first reviewed. Whilst there are clear academic distinctions, it is apparent that in reality the two concepts are intertwined. Indeed, it is possible

that an individual can operate as both a leader and a manager, or vice versa. The important aspect, however, appears to be the extent to which the person inspires or influences his or her followers, rather than the label the person is given. That is, a leader can be called such, but if they do not inspire others to follow willingly, it is difficult to view them as leaders. Indeed, it is not possible to have a leader who does not have followers. In addition, to differentiate leadership from management, the followers need to be inspired by the leader's characteristics, or personal qualities, rather than the authority, associated with their position.

Transformational leadership theory, which is related to the first research objective and question, was discussed, both in terms of the concept and in relation to its structural framework. The theory predicts that, especially during times of change, the transformational style of leadership is deemed the most successful, although it is accepted that transactional leadership also has a role to play. Of the three styles associated with transformational leadership theory, the laissez faire appears as a 'non-style', or an abdication of leadership and is not particularly worthy of investigation. With regards to the other two styles, transformational leadership is identified as the most effective, although the difference between this and transactional leadership might not be so great. The theory identifies five and three factors that correspond to transformational and transactional leadership, respectively. However, it is unlikely that a person totally fulfils all of the factors and so it is important to consider the approach as a person being more transactional or more transformational. It is also clear that an individual can operate using both styles, possibly at the same time, depending on the situational factors. In broad terms it is apparent that transactional leadership more closely aligns with management, as the leader is using his or her positional authority to reward followers, as opposed to then being impressed by the leaders' personal qualities and characteristics.

Researchers have found that situational factors can impact on leadership performance. Thus, it is important to assess the situational factors, as they are often outside the leader's control. In addition to cultural factors, the perceptions held by followers' plays an important part in leadership, which can be influenced

by their cultural and social background. Nonetheless, there are indications that a number of characteristics are standard across effective leaders and it is these generic characteristics that the current study sought within higher education in Jordan. The important characteristics of the leader were contained within the fourth research objective and operationalized though the research question.

Attention now turns to the three concepts which are associated with leadership, being those of motivation, job satisfaction and the important area of trust. Is it at the end of the following chapter that the gap in literature will be identified.

CHAPTER THREE – LITERATURE REVIEW: MOTIVATION, JOB SATISFACTION AND TRUST

In this chapter the three key concepts used in this study are discussed, along with their relationship to the different leadership styles. The three concepts under study are motivation, job satisfaction and trust.

3.1. MOTIVATION

According to Huber (2006), the motivation to work is the degree to which members of an organisation are willing to fulfil their role, or to do their job. However, the term 'motivation' has both a psychological and a managerial connotation in the field of organisational behaviour (Ahmad, 2009). The psychological meaning of motivation is the internal mental state of a person which relates to the initiation, direction, persistence, intensity and determination of behaviour (Mehta, et al., 2003), while the managerial meaning of motivation is the activity of managers that induces others to produce the results desired by the organisation or, perhaps, by the manager (Amjad, 2011).

3.1.1. Content Theories of Motivation

According to Harris and Cole (2007), motivation theories can be divided into two broad classes. Content theories focus on 'what' motivates people's behaviour, whilst process theories focus on 'how' that behaviour is motivated (Mehta, et al., 2003).

Herzberg's Two Factor Theory

The Two-factor Theory or the Motivation-Hygiene Theory was designed by Herzberg, et al., (1959), after testing the relationship between satisfaction and

performance. According to their study Herzberg et al. (1959) concluded that motivation depends upon a certain set of conditions, whereas job dissatisfaction is the result of an entirely different set of conditions (Schneider and George, 2011). Although it is possible to think of satisfaction and dissatisfaction as two extremes on a single continuum, they are determined by different factors (Gill, et al., 2010). Hence, it may be more helpful to think of them as two factors (Furnham, 2005). Chelladurai (2006) suggests that the most important finding of Herzberg's work was that the motivators (or growth factors) were all related to the content of the work itself, whilst the hygiene factors were related to the context in which the work was carried out (Fitzgerald and Schutte, 2010).

According to Spector (1997), to bring out job satisfaction, the organisation needs to focus on motivating factors, such as making the work more interesting, challenging and personally rewarding. Borkowski (2005) further states that according to this theory, there are two dimensions to job satisfaction. Firstly, there are motivator factors: the determiners of job satisfaction, which are related to the job content, which are achievement, recognition, work itself, independence, responsibility and advancement (Suliman and Al-Sabri, 2009). Secondly, the hygiene factors: - the determinants of job dissatisfaction that relate to the job context, which are company policies, administrative policies, supervision, salary, interpersonal relations and working conditions (Heathfield, 2009). Borkowski further suggests that Herzberg used the term "hygiene" to describe factors that are necessary to avoid dissatisfaction but that by themselves do not provide satisfaction or motivation (Swedaan, 2009).

Herzberg's Two-factor theory (Herzberg, et al., 1959) has been subjected to criticisms by many authors and researchers. One of the major criticisms of the Two-factor theory is that a single factor may be a motivator for one person (Borkowski, 2005), but cause job dissatisfaction for another. For example, increased responsibility may be welcomed by one employee but avoided by another (Abu-Tayeh and Al Khawaldeh, 2004). Another criticism has been Herzberg's placement of salary/pay in the "dissatisfier" category, which has been interpreted by some as Herzberg not valuing money as a motivator (Talal, 2011).

However, what he meant was that if pay did not meet expectations, employees would become dissatisfied; but if it does, salary was not needed to achieve job satisfaction (Harris and Cole, 2007). Another problem with the Motivation-Hygiene Theory as suggested by Jex (2002) is that it was based on the assumption that all employees want the same things from their work.

Maslow's Need Theory

If motivation is driven by the existence of unsatisfied needs, then it is worthwhile for an organisation to understand which needs are more important for individual employees (Ahmad, 2009). In this regard, Maslow (1954) developed his theory, which is one of the most widely cited theories of motivation. The Hierarchy of Needs theory, put forth by psychologist Abraham Maslow, arranged human needs in the form of a hierarchy (Palmer, 2005), ascending from the lowest to the highest. He concluded that when one set of needs is satisfied, this kind of need ceases to be a motivator and next levels of needs emerge and dominate. (Borkowski, 2005; Huber, 2006).

Tikkanen, (2009) suggests that Maslow's (1954) theory is based on the basic proposition that people are 'wanting' beings, they always want more and what they want depends on what they already have. Thus, human needs can be arranged in a series of levels, a hierarchy of importance (Schutz, et al., 2010). Maslow suggested that there are five needs systems which account for most of human behaviour and placed them in a hierarchy ranging from the most primitive and immature (in terms of the behaviour they promote) to the most civilised and mature (Eyal and Roth, 2011). According to Maslow (1954), there is a natural trend in which individuals become aware of and therefore are motivated by each of these needs in ascending order (Ahmad, 2009).

The five types of needs identified by Maslow (1954) are viewed as an ascending hierarchy, starting with the basic psychological needs:

a) Physiological needs - The requirement for food, water, shelter, etc. Until these basics are obtained, other needs are unimportant (also called basic needs.)
b) Security needs - The need for stability, longer-term safety and future satisfaction.
c) Social needs - The requirement for the companionship of others. This is met by membership of a range of formal and informal groups (also called love or belongingness needs.)
d) Status needs - The feeling of making a valuable contribution to a group which is seen as useful by those who belong to it (also called ego or esteem needs.)
e) Self-fulfilment needs - The need to utilise and develop the full range of capabilities and potential that a human being possesses (Cox and Brittain, 2004).

Maslow (1954) suggested that most people have these basic needs in broadly the order indicated and the hierarchy is relatively universal among different cultures (Schutz, et al., 2010). At the same time he recognised that there are differences in an individual's motivational desires in a particular culture and that the hierarchy is not necessarily a fixed order (Ahmad, 2009). There are likely to be a number of exceptions to the order indicated, for example, self-esteem may be seen to be more important than love to some people (Eyal and Roth, 2011). For others, such as innately creative people, the drive for creativity and self-actualisation may arise despite a lack of satisfaction of the more basic needs, whilst people who have been deprived of love in early childhood may experience the permanent loss of love needs.

There are number of additional problems relating to Maslow's (1954) theory in the work situation. For example, people do not necessarily satisfy their needs, especially the higher-level needs, solely through the work situation, but also through other areas of their life. There is also some doubt about the time that elapses between the satisfaction of a lower-level needs and the emergence of a higher-level needs. In addition, individual differences mean that people place

different values on the same need. It is also observed that some rewards or outcomes at work satisfy more than one need, for example a higher salary or promotion can be applied to all levels of the hierarchy. Further, even for people within the same level of the hierarchy, the motivating factors are unlikely to be the same. Indeed, overall, Maslow viewed satisfaction as the main motivational outcome of behaviour, but job satisfaction does not necessarily lead to improved work performance.

Although Maslow (1954) did not originally intend that the needs hierarchy should necessarily be applied to the work situation (Iyad, 2011), it remains popular as a theory of motivation at work. Despite the criticisms and doubts about its limitations, the theory has had a significant impact on management approaches to motivation and the design of organisations to meet individual needs (Mullins, 2009).

3.1.2. Process Theories of Motivation

Vroom's Expectancy Theory

The expectancy theory was devised by Vroom (1964). This theory examines motivation through the perception of what a person believes will happen. According to expectancy theory, human motivation is affected by anticipated rewards and costs (Yasser, 2011), which has similarities with transactional leadership. An employee is likely to be motivated to work toward a particular goal if it is perceived that a personal need will be satisfied (Palmer, 2005). Sims (2002) argues that the expectancy theory provides a powerful explanation of employee motivation and helps to explain why a number of employees are not motivated in their jobs, but merely do the minimum necessary to get by. He further suggests that Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory sees motivation as depending on an employee seeing the link between performance and rewards, which is supported by Eyal and Roth (2011).

According to Borkowski (2005), Vroom's expectancy theory is widely cited and also referred to as the VIE Theory. It suggests that for any given situation, the level of a person's motivation for performance (force in Vroom's conceptualisation) is dependent upon (1) Valence, the strength of an individual's wants, needs, or dislike for a particular outcome (Talal, 2011); (2) Instrumentality, the individual's perception that his or her performance is related to other outcomes, either positively or negatively and (3) Expectancy, which is an individual's perception that his or her effort will positively influence his or her performance. Thus, the theory may be expressed as: M = V x I x E.

Adam's Equity theory

The Equity theory was derived from the work of Adams (1965), originally in the context of interpersonal relationships, in which it was proposed that individuals compare their inputs and outcomes to some relevant other person, to determine whether or not they are being treated fairly (Arnold and Silvester, 2005). Further, Cooper and Locke's (2000) interpretation of equity theory suggests that individuals compare their ratios of work outcomes and inputs to those of others. Within the calculation, individuals make judgements about the fairness of their outcomes (Heathfield, 2009). If comparison ratios are equal, the situation is perceived as being equitable and no response occurs; however, if inequity is perceived, individuals feel a degree of tension and they are motivated to reduce their effort (Yasser, 2011).

According to Huseman et al., (1987), the propositions of equity theory can be explained in three points. First, individuals evaluate their relationships with others by assessing the ratio of the outcomes and inputs to the relationship, against the outcome and input of a comparator. Second, if the outcome-input ratio of the individual and comparator are perceived to be unequal, then inequity exists. Thirdly, the greater the inequity the individual perceives (in the form of either over-reward or under-reward), the greater the distress the individual feels.

It follows that the greater the distress an individual feels, the harder he or she will work to restore equity. Equity restoration techniques include altering or cognitively distorting inputs or outcomes, increasing or decreasing the amount of effort devoted to the task, acting on or changing the comparator, or terminating the relationship (Schutz, et al., 2010). Carrell and Dittrich (1978) interpret equity theory in a slightly different way and suggest that the model hypothesises three primary points. First, that the employees receive a fair and equitable return for carrying out their job, a concept referred to as the "equity norm". Second, that, in relation to their co-workers, they have an equitable return of outcomes (pay and benefits) for the inputs they commit (skills, education and effort) (Eyal and Roth, 2011). Thirdly, that employees will seek to reduce the inequity either by distorting inputs or outcomes in their own minds ("cognitive distortion") or withdrawing from situations where, in comparison with others, they feel they are being treated unfairly (Iyad, 2011). In other words, a person is motivated to maintain the same balance between his or her contributions and rewards as those demonstrated by a salient comparator, or comparators (Arnold and Silvester, 2005).

Various experiments have provided reasonable support for the equity theory, whereby the rewards and availability of comparative others are closely controlled by the experimenter. Indeed, the only way that people participating in the experiment could establish equity was to increase or decrease the quantity or quality of their work (Arnold and Silvester, 2005). In the real world, things can be more complicated, as people have a much greater choice of strategy with which to establish equity and their choice of comparator (Spector, 2008).

Moreover, Furnham (2005) states that equity theory does have some problems, such as how to deal with the concept of negative inputs, identifying the stage or point at which equity becomes inequity and the belief that people prefer and value equity over equality. Bass and Riggio (2006) further suggest that as equity theory relates to outcomes and inputs as perceived by the employees, their perception of fairness or unfairness is not actually real. Thus, it is reasonable to expect that inequitable states may be redressed effectively by merely thinking about the circumstances differently, which makes this concept more difficult to

measure in a field setting, as it is more susceptible to personality (Lussier and Achua, 2010). Indeed, Mowday (1991) states that the predictions of equity theory are less often supported by research when people receive more than their share, as opposed to when they receive less.

3.2. MOTIVATION AND LEADERSHIP

Transformational Leadership

According to Bass and Riggio (2006), transformational leaders help their followers grow and develop into leaders by responding to their needs, by empowering them and by aligning the objectives and goals of individual followers, the leader, the group, and the organisation at large (Jung, 2001). This corresponds to the two important traits of leaders, which refer to "*making followers work as a team*" and "*giving followers some control of their work*", and which are related to transformational leadership. As transformational leaders help and encourage their followers to align their objectives and goals with those of the organisation, it encourages them to work as a team and, at the same time, provides responsibility and some control for each team member (Iyad, 2011). Thus, transformational leaders can exert a positive effect on these motivational variables.

Further, as suggested by Bass (1998), one of the important behaviours practiced by transformational leaders is that of "Intellectual Stimulation" whereby they encourage their followers to use innovate ways of thinking, which corresponds to motivational areas, such as "*providing room to be creative*", "*providing flexibility in how the followers work*", "*encouraging them to develop new knowledge and skills*" and "*letting them decide the way they carry out their job*" (Charbonneau, 2004). These areas are directed towards exploring the extent to which the behaviour of the leader involves Intellectual Stimulation, which signifies the transformational nature of the leader.

With respect to individual differences associated with transformational leadership and motivation, a leader who has strong personal principles and who receives clear recognition from their manager is considered beneficial (Salameh, 2005). Additional areas, such as "*providing a chance to supervise where they can*" are in line with the view of Bass and Riggio (2006), who point out that transformational leaders are those who stimulate and inspire followers to achieve extraordinary outcomes and, in the process, develop their own leadership capacity.

Transactional Leadership

The transactional leadership style is generally based on bureaucratic authority and legitimacy within the organisation (Bass, 1985). The key focus of transactional leaders is the attainment of work objectives and thus, at times, they may resort to authoritative behaviour. In this way, variables such as "*pressuring the followers to work harder*", "*making them fearful of failure*" and "*putting them in a competitive environment*", can help determine the transactional nature of the leaders.

Further, in explaining transactional leadership, Lee (2005) highlights an important aspect, stating that they generally fulfil their promise of rewards to their subordinates or followers when the goals are achieved. At the same time, however, they can be expected to act harshly towards subordinates when targets are not achieved. Thus, areas such as "*rewarding them with money for better performance*", "*providing them challenges for promotion*", "*providing recognition*" and at the same time "*punishing them for mistakes*" in the case of unsatisfactory performance, indicate point towards a transactional leader.

3.3. JOB SATISFACTION AND LEADERSHIP

Job Satisfaction

There are a number of definitions found in the literature for the term "job satisfaction". Armstrong (2006) refers to job satisfaction as the attitudes and feelings people have about their work and suggests that positive and favourable attitudes towards the job indicate a degree of job satisfaction, whilst negative and unfavourable job attitudes suggest job dissatisfaction.

In the words of Spector (1997:73), "*job satisfaction is the degree to which people like their jobs. Some people enjoy work and find it to be a central part of their life, while others have to work and do so only because they must*". However, Locke (1976) views job satisfaction as a "*pleasurable*" or "*positive*" emotional state, which results from an individual appraising their job or experiences (Ali and Sabri, 2001). Kusku (2003) is in agreement, suggesting that job satisfaction reflects the degree to which the individual needs and desires are met and the extent to which these are perceived by other employees.

Further, Mehrotra (2005) defines job satisfaction as an individual's general attitude towards his or her job and as a positive emotional state that occurs when a person's job seems to fulfil important job values, provided these value are compatible with the individual's needs. She also argues that satisfaction is an individual's emotional reaction to the job itself and a person's attitude towards the job. However, there is not one agreed definition of job satisfaction, as all related theories appear to concentrate on only part of the picture (Furnham, 2005). Furnham suggests that researchers and practitioners need to understand that job satisfaction is not simply a function of the job, or of organisational characteristics, but rather it reflects the broad enduring individual differences in personality, values and preferences.

Job Satisfaction and Transformational Leadership

The second distinguishing behaviour of transformational leaders is "Inspirational Motivation", where they inspire their followers by presenting them with an attractive vision (Bass, 1998). Areas such as "*satisfaction of the followers with their salary*" and "*satisfaction of the followers with their chances of promotion*" can indicate the levels of job satisfaction that are important for leaders to know. This indicates the transformational leaders' behaviour towards their followers and the extent that this important aspect of Inspirational Motivation is present.

Other areas of job satisfaction can relate to Intellectual Stimulation, by which leaders encourage their followers to use innovative ways of thinking, which provide a measure of the extent to which leaders use this behaviour. Aspects of job satisfaction, such as "*freedom or independence*", "*paying attention to suggestions*", "*variety in the job*", "*ability utilization*" and "*ability development*" also provide indicators for consideration. Thus, a focus on areas such as "*freedom to choose their own method of working*", "*the attention paid to suggestions they make*", "*the degree of variety in their job*", "*the extent to which their leader allows them to do make use of their abilities*" and "*the extent to which their leader allows encourages them to develop their abilities*" provide valuable indicators.

The fourth important behaviour of the transformational leader that can be linked with job satisfaction concerns "Individualized consideration", where the leader demonstrates his or her concern and care for each of their followers. The leaders who follow transformational leadership tend to show greater concern towards their followers and consider different individuals according to their needs. Aspects such as "*the relations between leaders and followers*", "*the degree to which the leader works with others*", "*the way the leader handles the team members*" and "*the attention paid to suggestions they make*" can bring out the traits of the leader that are likely to associate job satisfaction with transformational leadership.

The connection between transformational leadership and more general factors is apparent Salameh (2005) recognising job security, promotions and salary level as being important. Work by Epitropaki and Martin (2005) and Awamleh and Atrophy (2005) support the individual factor argument.

Job Satisfaction and Transactional Leadership

Lussier and Achua (2010) propose that transactional leaders focus more on defining roles, task requirements and offering rewards which are contingent on task fulfilment. Bass (1985) pointed out that transactional leaders focus on work standards and task-oriented goals, and tend to place a greater emphasis on task completion and the compliance of their employees. At the same time transactional leaders rely, to a great extent, on the system of rewards and punishments in order to control employee performance. This suggests an exchange process, where followers get immediate, tangible rewards for carrying out the leader's orders (Locke, 1999). Thus, aspects of job satisfaction such as "*importance of chances of promotion*", "*importance of salary*", "*recognition for good performance*" and the "*degree of responsibility provided to the employees*" can be used to gain an insight into how they relate to transactional leaders. As Lee (2005) clearly points out, transactional leaders are generally good at fulfilling their promise of rewards, which can involve bonuses, recognition and promotion. In this way, some employees can be satisfied.

3.4. TRUST AND LEADERSHIP

Trust

The trust of subordinates in their managers is of immense importance. Bartlett and Ghoshal (1995) argue that trust is essential for managing change, as it relates strongly to risk-taking. Indeed, personal risk-taking is considered to be an integral part of organizational change. The construct of trust has received

considerable attention (Joseph and Winston, 2005). However, there is a diverse range of definitions, some of which are focussed on risk, vulnerability and intent, whilst others address ethical justifiability (Sendjaya and Pekerti, 2010). Within most of these diverse frameworks, the belief that a person's words accurately predict future actions forms a necessary, though perhaps not sufficient, condition for the development of trust (Walker, et al., 2011). Some scholars who focus on the element of risk and vulnerability, such as Mayer et al., (1995), explain trust as being the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party. This risk is based on the expectation that the other is going to perform a particular action that is important to the truster. An individual's act of trust is undertaken, irrespective of his or her ability to monitor or control the other party (Sendjaya and Pekerti, 2010).

According to some scholars, trust is a person's sense that another will protect and maximize the truster's interests, to which the trusted person is expected to sacrifice his or her own interests (Walker, et al., 2011). They believe in the notion that the truster believes that the trusted party will behave in a way that is beneficial to the truster (Simons, 1999). One such scholar is Robinson (1996) who defines trust as an individual's expectations or belief that the likelihood of another's future actions will be beneficial, or at least not detrimental, to the individual's interests. Moreover, scholars such as Mishra (1996), whilst drawing on the concept of vulnerability, borrow from several other sources, to define trust as one party's willingness to be vulnerable to another party, based on the belief that the other party is (a) competent, (b) open, (c) concerned, and (d) reliable.

Though different views exist about the specific definition of trust, there is a widespread consensus that this elusive construct has important consequences. Robinson (1996) found that when employees had trust in their employers, this had a direct influence on the positive contributions employees made to their organisations. These contributions are particularly found in job satisfaction and in terms of performance, willingness to stay with the organisation (loyalty), and organisational citizenship behaviours. Indeed, Tyler and Degoey (1996) point out that the purpose of gaining the employees' trust in the management is to increase

the compliance of organizational laws and rules, which can facilitate the implementation of organizational change. Further, in terms of leadership, Korsgaard et al., (1995) propose that the belief of the followers in the sincerity and honesty of their leader, are important components of their trust, which themselves add to a greater degree of trust and job satisfaction.

Trust and Transformational Leadership

Idealized Influence is one of four important behaviours displayed by transformational leaders, which means that they appeal to their followers' ideals and at the same time to act as a role model (Bass, 1998). Consequently, aspects that determine the level of trust such as 'loyalty at work', 'credibility or honest fulfilment of promises made to the subordinates', 'being truthful while speaking to the subordinates' and 'treating them fairly' provide indicators that can help identify transformational leaders. It has been strongly argued by Charbonneau (2004) that transformational leaders obtain trust and respect of their followers by means of portraying caring behaviours, whilst at the same time, they focus on changing the values, attitudes and beliefs of their followers, to align them with those of the organization. Thus, they steer their followers towards self-development and greater-than-expected accomplishments. In other words, the idea at the heart of transformational leadership is that leadership is not confined to the people at the top but can occur at all levels. Thus, it is of prime importance for leaders that they develop leadership in those who are below them, which can be achieved by offering a greater degree of trust and responsibility (Walker, et al., 2011).

Trust and Transactional Leadership

In transactional agreements each party has only a limited involvement in the activities of the other, as they are normally bound by various limitations and rules. Waite (2008) states that transactional leaders generally recognise what subordinates want from their work and attempt to help them achieve success by rewarding appropriate levels of behaviour. They respond to the followers' self-

interest, as long as they are doing their jobs well, and there is a degree of trust that just rewards will follow. Lee (2005) points out that those transactional leaders who fulfil their promise of rewards, such as merit increases, can also be expected to punish subordinates in the event that targets are not met. Therefore areas such as 'clearly stating the authority subordinates can use' and 'providing help to the subordinates' provide a means of distinguishing the transactional and transformational nature of leaders. However, some scholars do not regard a system that is based on contingent reward and punishment to be effective in building and maintaining the trust of subordinates in the leader (Lee, 2005). Indeed, it has been suggested that such actions are more likely to have a negative effect on the relationship between leader and followers, which results in a deterioration in the degree of trust (Eskildsen, et al., 2010).

3.5. EFFECT OF TRANSFORMATIONAL AND TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP

The Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE) study investigated leadership on an international scale (Den Hartog, 1999; Hanges, et al., 2006; House, 1995). The study found that 'trust' ranked top, with 'motivation' third in the top five universally endorsed attributes of a leader (Waite, 2008).

Transformational and Transactional Leadership on Trust

Previous studies that have been conducted to establish the relationship between leadership style and the three variables of motivation, trust and job satisfaction, can throw more light on the effect that the leadership style can have. A study conducted by Hsu and Mujtaba (2007) investigated the relationship between transformational leadership and team trust, empowerment (motivation) and job satisfaction, amongst software development teams in the United States. They concluded that transformational leadership is strongly, positively related to both, team empowerment (motivation) and team trust, which is supported by other

studies (Lo and Ramayah, 2011). It is of note that despite the relationship with trust, the study did not find a strong relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction.

Transformational leadership is often identified by the effect that it has on followers' attitudes, values, assumptions and commitments (Yukl, 1999). Indeed, Bass (1985) suggests that follower trust is a consequence of transformational leadership. If followers are to willingly change their attitudes, values, assumptions and commitments to bring them more closely in line with those of the organization, they need to have a deep trust in the credibility and integrity of their leader (Kouzes and Posner, 1995). Charbonneau (2004) also argues that the benefits of transformational leadership include trust and motivation.

On the other hand, Lee (2005) points out that those transactional leaders, who fulfil their promise of rewards to subordinates, can expect to be viewed as being trustworthy. However, in transactional agreements, each party has only a limited involvement in the activities of the other, as they are normally bound by various limitations and rules (Emery. and Barker, 2007). Thus, a system which is based on contingent reward and punishment is more likely to have a negative effect on the relationship between leader and followers, and can lead to a deterioration in the degree of trust (Jung, 2001).

Transformational and Transactional Leadership on Motivation

The relationship between transformational leadership and motivation can be understood from the notion that motivation is one of the five scales used to measure transformational leadership. According to Charbonneau (2004), one of the most important benefits of transformational leadership is motivation. Indeed, transformational leaders often use tactics that are expressive in nature and appeal to the emotions of their followers (Lee, 2005), which leads to inspirational motivation, which in turn helps followers to align with the leader's and organisation's vision. Conger and Kanungo (1998) argue that the inspiring

speeches and ideal actions of transformational leaders have a very powerful effect on the motivation of their followers. Moreover, studies have strongly suggested that transformational leadership has a positive association with motivation (Griffith, 2004).

Ke and Wei (2008) propose that one of the major differences between transformational and transactional leadership is in the way the leaders motivate their followers. On one hand, transformational leaders raise their subordinates' motivation by making them see a deeper purpose behind their work, thereby helping them to perform better than they normally would (Jung, 2001). On the other hand, transactional leaders tend to motivate their followers by providing them with appropriate rewards when they perform more effectively (Brymer and Gray, 2006).

Transformational and Transactional Leadership on Job Satisfaction

Walumbwa et al., (2003) suggest that empirical research demonstrates that transformational leadership has a positive effect on followers' job satisfaction. Bryman (1992) further argues that a variety of studies related to organisational behaviours point out that transformational leadership and job satisfaction are positively related. Indeed, a study conducted on Jordanian banks by Awamleh and Al-Dmour, 2005) found that a transformational leadership style was positively related to job satisfaction of employees. Further, in order to achieve higher levels of job satisfaction amongst the employees, the managers needed to use transformational leadership characteristics.

Other studies have been conducted to determine the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction, such as that conducted by Bono et al., (2007). Here, healthcare workers who had supervisors with high levels of transformational leadership characteristics were found to be less likely to experience poor job satisfaction. In other studies, such as Nemanich and Keller (2007), transformational leadership has equally been found to be positively

related to job satisfaction. Butler et al., (1999) also concluded that transformational leadership behaviours heavily impacted on the job satisfaction of followers. Finally, Emery and Barker (2007) concluded that factors relating to transformational leadership, such as charisma, Individualized Consideration, Intellectual Stimulation and Inspired Motivation, where more strongly correlated with job satisfaction, than were the transactional factors of Management-by-Exception and Contingency Reward.

3.6. TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP ON TRUST, MOTIVATION AND JOB SATISFACTION IN EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

A major work on determining the effect of transformational leadership in educational settings was started by Leithwood and his colleagues, in the late 1980s and early 1990s in Canada. The study examined both the nature and effects of transformational leadership on motivation and commitment, which is itself an outcome of teacher trust at the educational institutions (Leithwood and Jantzi, 2000. Following the research a model of transformational school leadership was generated, with studies conducted in the Netherlands also confirming the Canadian findings (Geijsel et al., 2003). Moreover, both qualitative and quantitative research conducted in this area has reported positive effects of transformational leadership on teacher motivation (Geijsel et al., 2003).

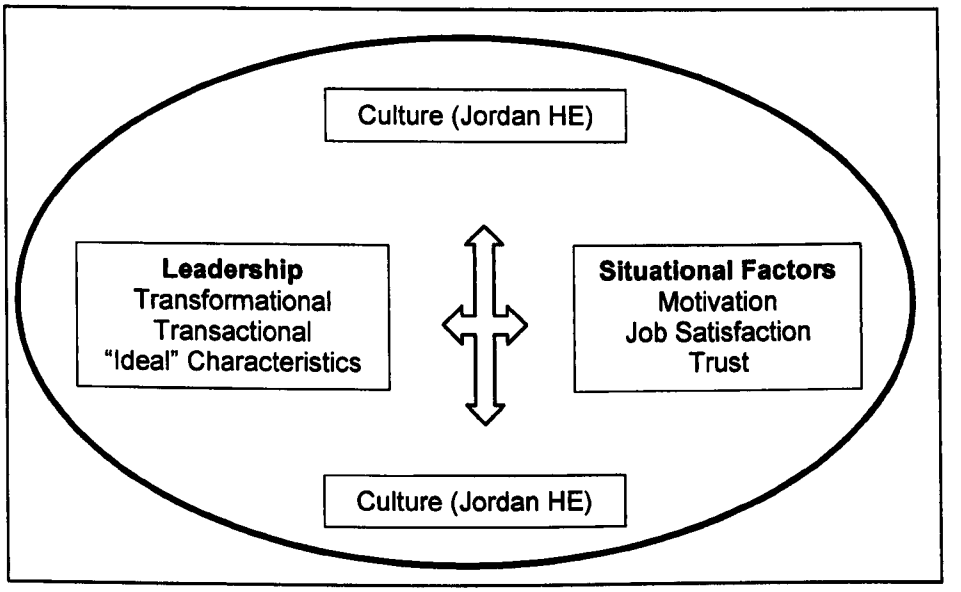
Pointing out the case of educational institutions, Dinham and Scott (2003) state that heads of institutes or principals can use transformational leadership features to include the staff in the planning, decision-making, problem-solving and implementing of the school's programme, which is likely to result in greater motivation, commitment (trust and loyalty) and job satisfaction. Moreover, these initiatives are likely to increase the effectiveness of communication skills and provide greater mutual trust and understanding, along with an enhanced level of cooperation and collaboration among the staff. All of these conditions can result in higher levels of job satisfaction and lead to a better implementation of the

school's programmes and their intended outcomes. In addition, it is proposed that by instilling motivation among their followers, a transformational leader creates a positive impact, which leads to organisational commitment.

3.7. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Having reviewed the literature it is apparent that studies have been undertaken on leadership in Jordan (Abuznaid and Weir, 2012; Al Khawaldeh, 2006; Salameh, 2004) and in the Middle East (Rees, Althakhri and Mamman, 2012). However, a gap exists in relation to evaluating transformational and transactional leadership characteristics in higher educational institutions in Jordan, particular with respect to the three key variables of trust, motivation and job satisfaction. Thus, transformational leadership theory, along with the associated leader characteristics and the conceptual areas of perceived leader trust, job satisfaction and motivation, provided the central theoretical base for the investigation.

Figure 3.1: Conceptual Framework of the Current Study



3.8. SUMMARY

Following the review of the leadership literature this chapter considered the associated concepts of motivation, job satisfaction and trust. The earlier studies of motivation, such as those of Herzberg (Herzberg et al., 1959), Maslow (1954), Vroom (1964) and Adams (1965) were used as a foundation from which to build. The concepts associated with these earlier works have been tested through on-going studies and, to a certain extent, have been found to still apply to modern business. However, the academic concept of motivation can be different from reality, whereby individuals are motivated by various issues and personal circumstances. There are, however, links with motivation and the transformational and transactional styles, but for different reasons. For example, the transformational leader can inspire his or her followers by giving them more control over their work, whilst the promise of contingency rewards, in return for commitment and effort, is a motivational approach used by transactional leaders. It is possible that the rewards approach is dependent more on managerial authority, rather than followers being genuinely inspired by a leader, as would be the case with transformational leaders.

Job satisfaction is linked, to a certain extent, with the concept of motivation, but there are also connections with transformational leadership, which incorporates the factor of Inspirational Motivation. Individualized Consideration, where the leader demonstrates his or her concern and care for each of their followers, has, as a factor of transformational leadership, also been shown to increase job satisfaction. Approaches that use task-orientated goals, as adopted by transactional leaders, can equally increase job satisfaction.

The final concept, which relates to trust, is considered to be extremely important. Indeed, it is difficult to think of how an untrustworthy leader could succeed in an educational environment. Whilst it is apparent that trust is required in both transformational and transactional leadership the concepts of loyalty, truthfulness and treating followers with equity, is more closely linked with the transformational

leader. There is a form of trust within the transactional leaders' style, but it is more of a formal, rather than personal, nature.

Within the literature, various studies suggest that leaders who are more transformational in their behaviour tend to have a more positive influence on their followers' trust, motivation and job satisfaction. Studies had been undertaken in various situations and environments, although there is little research into leadership in higher education and none within higher education in Jordan. Any investigation of leadership is complicated by the variations in the conceptual frameworks of motivation, job satisfaction and trust, although it is still important to investigate these topics, so as to provide insight into how individuals perceive their leaders. Indeed, the current study undertook to focus on the concepts of trust, motivation and job satisfaction, with these being addressed though the third research objective and the associated research question.

Finally, having identified that there is a gap in the literature concerning the style of leadership currently operating in higher education in Jordan and having identified a conceptual framework for addressing this, consideration now turns to the methodology and methods used to address this gap.

CHAPTER FOUR – RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

4.1. OVERVIEW

The methodological aspects of the research are presented in two parts. This first part introduces the different approaches of methodology and then leads into a discussion that determines the research approach and highlights the strategy for data gathering. The second part, from sub-section 4.7 onwards, provides an overview and justification of the different methods and procedures used in this study, including the important data gathering instrument.

The study aimed to examine the current leadership style in private and public Jordanian universities, and highlight the effect of these different leadership styles on the variables of motivation, job satisfaction, and trust.

With regards to methodology, an early view is presented as:

> In the social sciences, the term [methodology] applies to how one conducts research. Our assumptions, interests, and purposes shape which methodology we choose. When stripped to their essentials, debates over methodology are debates over assumptions and purposes, over theory and perspective. (Taylor and Bogdan, 1984:25)

From this definition, it is apparent that a common approach is to discuss the different methodology, which helps to identify where the assumptions and beliefs of the researcher lie in regards to the review of the social world, and to make a decision as to how the research can be carried out. Therefore, the rest of this chapter explores the different methodologies available and how the research methodology was selected.

4.2. RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY AND APPROACHES

As the researcher's previous approach was more in the empirical, quantitative area, there was a familiarity with the positivist domain. Whilst it is important to be comfortable with the approach (Molina-Azorín, 2007), the researcher is also required to consider if a previous approach is suitable for any new research.

For the social sciences, there are two main theoretical perspectives (Bruyn, 1966; Coleman and Briggs, 2007). These two methodologies have been labelled in different ways, such as positivistic versus humanistic (Bryman & Bell, 2007), positivistic versus interpretive (Giddens, 1976; Johnson, et al., 2008), scientific versus humanistic (Johnson, et al., 2008) and naturalistic versus humanistic (Quinton and Smallbone, 2006). Moreover, the second approach can be called phenomenological, although some writers, such as Hughes (1980), consider this term as a particular development of the humanistic approach (Bahl and Milne, 2006). Therefore, the following sections will clarify and outline the two different approaches which arise from different conceptions of social reality and behaviour (Bryman, 2006). Following this, a discussion of how the two different approaches relate to the research perspective will be presented, along with the implications for the current investigation (Hart, 2011).

Positivism

Although positivism can be traced to the early Greek philosophers, its modern origins are more traceable to the sixteenth and seventeenth century (Johnson, et al., 2008). However, many researchers at the present trace the current thinking on positivism to the nineteenth and early twentieth century, with researchers such as the French philosopher Comte (1844) and later to Durkheim (1925), Mill (1865) and Spencer (1937) (see Quinton and Smallbone, 2006).

A key aspect of positivism is that the social world exists externally (Creswell, et al., 2007). That is, it can reside outside an individual and is capable of being generalised from. The approach properties should also be evaluated through the use of objective methods and not be subjectively contingent (Freshwater, 2007). Hughes (1980:251) argues that: "*close attention is to be paid to empirical reality, with precise and certain method, basing natural laws on sound empirical observation*". Thus, the philosophy argues that both social and natural sciences share a similar epistemological form. Therefore, the tenets of the positivist approach is that a study of society and human behaviour could be conducted by similar methods as those used in the natural sciences (Johnson, et al., 2008), from which precise theoretical models can be constructed (Fiegen, 2010). This merging of the social and natural sciences methodology is not just desirable (Coleman and Briggs, 2007), but is possible because the distinction between the social and natural science is mainly a matter of convenience. Thus, it is not a case of dualism, but just a way of looking at the phenomena (Quinton and Smallbone, 2006). In other words, differences between the social and natural worlds that might occur are due to different matters, which in turn can be solved by setting suitable research methods (Harrison and Reilly, 2011). The second primary belief of this approach is that phenomena are subject to fixed laws in an endless chain of causation, whether the case be from the social or natural sciences (Johnson, et al., 2008).

According to the two fundamental beliefs of positivism, there are many implications which can represent the viewpoint of a positivist researcher. However, whilst some of these implications might be rejected by some positivist researchers, it can still find association with others (Harrison and Reilly, 2011). Eight implications have been identified for the different beliefs of positivism: the first one of which is "Independence". Here the researcher just observes the issue independently, without becoming involved in the social process (Coleman and Briggs, 2007). The second implication is "Value freedom" which determines the objective criteria of the issue, rather than just leaving it to the human beliefs and interests, although the 'what' and 'how' of the study is often determined by the researcher (Konfe, et al., 2005). The third implication is "Causality", which indicates that social scientists should identify causal explanations and

fundamental laws that explain the regularities in human social behaviour (Amaratunga, et al., 2002).

The fourths implication is the Hypotactic-deductive, which determines that the science proceeds through a process of hypothesising fundamental laws and then determining which kinds of observations will demonstrate the truth or falsification of the hypotheses (Fiegen, 2010). The Operationalization concept is the fifth implication, which refers to the need for the approach to be operationalized in such a way that enables the facts to be measured in a quantitative way (Amaratunga, et al., 2002).

The sixth implication is Reductionism, which aims to simplify the research problem as a whole, so as to better understand the phenomena (Chamberlain and Broderick, 2007). Generalization, the seventh implication,, aims to generalise about regularities in human and social behaviour through selecting samples of sufficient size (Molina-Azorín, 2007). Finally, the eighth implication is Cross-sectional analysis which aims to make regularities through comparisons of variations across samples (Amaratunga, et al., 2002).

There are some additional beliefs and assumptions associated with the methodological approach, such as using quantitative methods in experiments and surveys, where the data are carefully monitored and results are repeatable. In another words, the researchers mainly collect facts and study the relationship between these facts and use scientific techniques to produce quantifiable and generalizable conclusions (Johnson, et al., 2008).

Interpretivism

The other major approach of methodology is Interpretivism, which holds opposing views to the positivist approach. Interpretivism views the world as socially constructed, with it being neither objective nor exterior (Molina-Azorín, 2007).

From this view, studying human society is not seen as a natural science. The foundation can be seen in the seventeenth century and the work of Batista Vico, although his thinking was developed and expanded in the nineteenth century and later, by others, such as Henderson et al., (2009). Essentially, interpretivists disagree with the positivist, claiming that their method of collecting adequate knowledge of social science is flawed. They argue that using a positivist approach in social science is insufficient, because of the essential differences between nature and culture sciences, which means that different methods of study should be used.

Therefore, this approach seeks to understand and explain why people have different experiences, rather than searching for fundamental laws or the underlying links between the various actions of humans and society (Leonard and McAdam, 2001). Interpretivists also disagree with the determinism of man and society. This determinist approach argues that the characteristics of mankind, as uniquely human, can be reduced to make human action as a relatively insignificant process (Bahl and Milne, 2006). Thus, interpretivism is the contrary belief which gives one of the central themes of its approach (Coleman and Briggs, 2007). Such beliefs have an important meaning for researchers who have a social science approach, when collecting data. Bell (1993) argues that, in consideration of interpretivist research:

> Researchers adopting such a perspective are more concerned to understand individuals' perception of the world. They seek insight rather than statistical analysis, they doubt whether social facts exist and question whether a 'scientific' approach can be used when dealing with human beings (Bell, 1993:5).

Thus, the interpretivist researcher applies different methods of data collection from those who use quantitative researcher (Molina-Azorín, 2007). Some of the qualitative methods would include observations, focus groups, interviews and case studies.

Ely et al., (2006) highlight the complexity of identifying qualitative research and conclude that qualitative research is better able to understand meaning by its methods, rather than making a definition. They often pursue their investigation of this issue through the work of Sherman and Webb (1988), who argue that five characteristics lead the qualitative researcher. These five characteristics help the researcher to formulate a better understanding of what differentiates the quantitative and qualitative approaches (Bell, 2009). The first characteristic is to understand the events adequately, although, this can only happen if researchers view the phenomena in context (Abeysekera, 2010). Thus, it is argued, that a qualitative researcher completely understands all aspects of the issue and in greater depth (Galbraith, 2010). Secondly, it is for the researcher to understand that the contexts of the issues are not fixed, but are naturally free-forming (Kennan, 2007). Thirdly, the nature of qualitative research is to provide the perspective and actions of the respondents. Thus, qualitative research is an interactive process, whereby the respondents tell the researcher about their thoughts and beliefs (Hannabuss, 2007). The fourth characteristic of qualitative research is that researchers using the qualitative aim to study the issue as a whole, rather than as separate variables (Bell, 2009). Finally, qualitative research tends to have no general methods associated with it, although there is a need to appraise what was studied before the time of the study (Kennan, 2007).

Delamont (2006) indicates that qualitative research is covered by many methods such as interviewing with open ended questions, oral histories, studying personal constructs and mental maps, life history interviews and observational studies.

Associated Philosophies

Hanson, et al., (2005) indicate that ontology in the social sciences refers to the primary principles that individuals holds about the nature of an issue. They added that ontology relates to the belief of a researcher when predicting that the natural world would operate in the same way as predicting social behaviour. In addition, they argue that ontology relates to a researcher's belief about whether the society is a living thing or not. Thus, shaping social behaviour would be in accordance to

the degree of social structures, as opposed to the personal social factors. Therefore, highlighting the answers to these questions will frame the way that a researcher thinks, while studying the social world (Johnson, et al., 2007).

Moreover, Morse (2003) describes the term epistemology as the level and type of proof. The higher level of proof is important in accepting something as true. Here, proof could relate to trust, logic, empirical evidence, personal experience and faith. In addition, epistemology refers to the philosophical area which discovers the answer of question "what does it mean to know?" (Clark, et al., 2008). In other words, in what way does a researcher acquire the knowledge? Powell, et al., (2008) argue four sources of knowledge. Within the epistemology argument, Intuitive knowledge is based more on individual feelings, rather than facts, such as belief and faith (Tashakkori and Creswell, 2007). Second, Authoritative knowledge is based on secondary data sources, thus its strength or weaknesses depend on these sources (Turner, 2007). Third, Logical knowledge, is based on the connection between two points, by reasoning from point A that it is generally accepted to move to point Z, which constitutes new knowledge (Picken, 2007). Finally, Empirical knowledge is based on demonstrating facts through different methods, such as observation and experimentation (Kennan, 2007).

Sociological methodology concerns the methods used to acquire reasonable knowledge regarding the social world, by defining reliable and valid knowledge (Galbraith, 2010). In this context, reliability refers to the consistency, replication and representation of the population's sample within the positivist, quantitative world (Catterall, 2000). Validity relates to the extent and level of accuracy of the measurement (Fiegen, 2010). That is, does it measure what it claims to measure? Therefore, the sociological methodology needs to be both reliable and valid to be reasonable.

In general, ontology establishes the epistemology which in turn determines the sociological methodology, which subsequently determines the research methods or the data collection methods. Thus, it can be noticed that the different

sociological concepts are often related to each other, which can offer different ideas in how to study the social science (Mangan, et al., 2004).

Discussion

While both the positivist and interpretivist approaches are still in use, they have both had their criticisms. The positivist quantitative approach in particular has been increasingly criticised in relation to its application to the world of social science (Galbraith, 2010). Quinton and Smallbone (2006) have criticised positivism, the specific target of which has been science's reductionist and mechanistic perception of nature which tends to exclude the notions of individuality, choice, freedom and moral responsibility. Altrichter et al., (2005) argue that social reality could be objective and that knowledge could, therefore, be value-free, although McNiff (1988) declares that a positivist approach involving people tries to measure and quantify as if people are entirely predictable, which is not completely accurate.

On the other hand, there are authors who acknowledge the appropriateness of the positivist approach in some circumstances. Schön (1983) and Creswell (2002) argue that such circumstances are limited to a particular natural science context and not to the social sciences. Further, one of the consequences of positivist epistemology is the gap between research and practice:

> Professional knowledge is mismatched to the changing character of the situations of practice - the complexity, uncertainty, uniqueness and value conflicts which are increasingly seen as central to the world of professional practice (Schön, 1983: 14).

Schön (1983) and others (O'Hanlon, 2003) argue that scientific research has been the basis for professional practice since the Second World War. Thus, social science has emphasised the need for "*measurement, controlled experiment, applied science, laboratories and clinics*" (Schön, 1983: 14). Using this approach, researchers can provide techniques which can diagnose and

provide solutions to problems. Practitioners, therefore, need to present problems for the researcher to examine and then apply the findings of any research to their practice. In this way, research is not so widely separated from practice. This view requires the researcher to learn theory and technique as the first step, followed by professional knowledge, which in turn can be viewed as the application of scientific theory and technique to any segmentation of a problem (Johnson, et al., 2008). This view may have led to the mismatching of professional knowledge, wherein it is complex, changing and uncertain, and yet it is informed by research (Ackoff, 1979). This view could be the case of the current study, with Schön's (1983) description of the swampy lowland, where the situation is confusing and incapable of a technical solution.

Whilst authors have expressed their interest about the separation of theory and practice, others argue for the need of a connection between educational theory and professional practice (Johnson, et al., 2008). When considering education, Creswell (2001) disputes that the technical rationality model does not support practitioners. Indeed, to be exploratory and creative in their practice, professionals need to be personally reflective and critical of that practice (Delamont, 2001).

Additional Approaches

Although the opponents of positivism provide different reasons for their objections according to their epistemological viewpoint, they mostly do not accept that human behaviour is totally governed by general laws. They emphasise that developing theories from situations, makes sense of them and accept this as a legitimate approach (Elliott, 2004). So, the question is whether the nature of knowledge is acquired or personally experienced, and the belief of the researcher is subject to the level of involvement in the research.

Altrichter (1991) has indicated a range of alternative research approaches which do not operate in the traditional methodology, such as naturalistic, ethnographic,

humanistic, idiographic, case-study and action research approaches. Similar to Entwhistle (1992), Altrichter has identified some common advantages to these approaches, such as scepticism of quantification and an attempt to free data and findings from conceptuality, which emphasises the importance of locating the research in context.

Along the same lines, Collins and Cordon (1997) highlight three research traditions, being empiricist, interpretive and educational traditions. They reject the first two traditions due to the apparent control elements but they argue for a coherent approach to the educational tradition "*to the everyday practice and problems of teachers in ordinary classrooms who are trying to understand and make sense of their professional and personal lives*" (Johnson, et al., 2008: 164).

Hart and Bond (1995:3) suggest that although action research is not necessarily the best choice it is "*particularly appropriate where problem solving and improvement are on the agenda*". They believe that it can be shaped at the beginning to conform to the level of individual professional practice and the organisational structure. The action of research can also be seen as a means of solving problems which are related to the separation of research from practice. Hoggart et al., (2002) consider that the degree of the gap between theory and practice is caused by the unsuitability of using positivist science to study human organisations, which they believe requires action research. Thus, whilst there is no one definitive approach, the purpose of action research is to link theory, research and practice (Truscott, et al., 2010). Therefore this could address the problems associated with blending research and practice, and the problems of adopting theory to practice, as against developing theory from practice.

Having considered the various arguments, it is apparent that the positivist approach would most closely fit with the overall aims of the current research. In using a quantitative approach it will be possible to compare similarities and differences between the various independent variables. Thus, in exploring

leadership in a unique cultural setting, the concept of transformational leadership will be tested out. The research approach, having investigated the perceptions of leadership in five universities aimed to use objective data (Turner, 2007) to generalise to the wider population. Whilst an interpretivist approach would have provided deeper and richer data (Partington, 2002), it would not have provided the means to generalise across the universities.

4.3. RESEARCH DESIGN AND APPROACHES

Before investigating types of research design it is important to be clear about its role and purpose. The researcher needs to understand what the research design is and what it is not. In addition, the researcher needs to know where the design fits into the whole research process, from framing a question to finally analysing and reporting data (Vogt, 1999).

The design of the current research entails multiple methods, multiple levels of analysis and a cross-sectional analysis for the data collection. Thus, this research is using both qualitative and quantitative methods, where qualitative methods include semi-structured interviews, while the quantitative methods include questionnaire survey (Whitehead and McNiff, 2006).

Descriptive approach – deductive research

Although some people dismiss descriptive research as mere description, good description can be fundamental to the research enterprise and it has added immeasurably to our knowledge of the shape and nature of our society (Altrichter, et al., 2005). Descriptive research encompasses much government sponsored research, including the population census, the collection of a wide range of social indicators and economic information, such as household expenditure patterns, time-use studies, employment and crime statistics (Creswell, 2001). Descriptions can be concrete or abstract: a relatively concrete description might describe the

ethnic mix of a community, the changing age profile of a population or the gender mix of a workplace (Delamont, 2001). Alternatively the description might ask more abstract questions such as "Is the level of social inequality increasing or declining?", "How secular is society?" or "How much poverty is there in this community?" Accurate descriptions of the level of unemployment or poverty have historically played a key role in social policy reforms (Elliott, 2004). By demonstrating the existence of social problems, competent description can challenge accepted assumptions about the way things are, which can provoke subsequent action (Entwhistle, 1992).

Good description provokes the "why" questions of explanatory research. If the researcher detects a greater social polarization over the last 20 years, they are forced to ask "why is this happening?" However, before asking "why?", researchers need to be sure about the facts and dimensions of the phenomenon of increasing polarization (Hargreaves, 1999). It is all very well to develop elaborate theories as to why society might be more polarized now than in the recent past, but if the basic premise is wrong, then attempts to explain a non-existent phenomenon are flawed (Hoggart, 2002).

Explanatory inductive approach - inductive research

Explanatory research focuses on "why" questions. It is one thing to describe the leaders' styles in a country, to examine trends over time or to compare the styles in different countries (Bryman, 2006). However, it is quite a different thing to develop explanations about why a particular style is as high as it is, or why some types of style are increasing, or why the a particular style is more accepted in some countries than in others (Coelho and Easingwood, 2008). The way in which researchers develop research design is fundamentally affected by whether the research question is descriptive or explanatory (Creswell, et al., 2007). It affects what information is collected. For example, if researchers want to explain why some people are more likely to follow a traditional leader, then researchers need to have ideas about why this is so (Creswell, et al., 2003). Researchers may have incompatible ideas and will need to collect information that enables them to see

which ideas work best empirically (Freshwater, 2007). Answering the "why" questions involves developing causal explanations. Causal explanations argue that a phenomenon, such as income level is, say, affected by another variable such as gender (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

4.4. RESEARCH PURPOSE AND STRATEGY

As this research plans to achieve the different aims and objectives of this study, the rationale and methods for achieving these are next outlined.

Rationale for the Research

In providing the rationale for the research, an early work by Etzioni (1968) argues the need for different leadership styles in different type of organisation. In other words, different characteristics of followers require different types of leaders, with a certain degree of referred power (Raven and French, 1959; Bartram and Casimir, 2007), which is able to attract them to the leader. Etzioni (1968) suggested that normative organisations mainly depend on communicative or expressive leadership to control followers, whereas leaders in utilitarian organisation depend more on influential or instrumental leadership (Zikmund, 2002). Similarly, Bass (1985) classifies leadership into transformational and transactional leadership styles, with transformational leaders being similar the expressive of moral aspects of leadership. Conversely, transactional leadership is more instrumental leadership, which stresses the use of material encouragement. It was this differentiation that provided the rationale for the research framework and following instrumentation.

The Research Framework

The research framework of the current study is designed to investigate the level of leadership style in public and private universities in Jordan, along with the

associated levels of motivation, job satisfaction and trust. The variables within the organisations are also compared, with table 4.1 summarising the framework for this study. Here, Etzion's (1968) approach is being contrasted with the current research focus of transformational leadership theory, within the university environment of Jordan.

Table 4.1: The Research Framework

Source: Adapted from Borkowski (2005).

Rationale for Research Instrumentation

One of the purposes of this chapter is to discuss the developments of the different hypotheses used for this research, for both the normative and utilitarian organisations (Greene, et al., 1989). Normative organisations refer to those with value-based orientations, such as a university, whereas the utilitarian organisation would refer to more business-oriented organisations, such as private companies. For the current research the aim was to distinguish between the public normative universities and the more utilitarian private universities.

Zikmund, (2002) identifies the differences between normative and utilitarian organisations in terms of power and involvement. In this sense, normative organisations are characterized by the high moral involvement of their followers and leaders who rely mainly on normative power. Utilitarian organisations are

typified by a moderate level of involvement of followers and leaders who primarily depend on their positional power (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Johnson et al., (2007) have also differentiated between an extreme and mild organization system. For example, leaders in a public university are more likely to experience normative power than leaders in a private university. The authors also expect a correlation between power and involvement, where employees holding a higher position tend to have greater involvement, and experience normative power more than those with lower rank. Therefore, a key function of this chapter is to develop these propositions into the research framework.

Saunders et al., (2009) describe research instruments as the means of collecting, analysing, and interpreting data, which researchers obtained from their sample. However, the way in which researchers develop their research design is basically influenced by the research objectives and the associated research questions, and whether they are either descriptive or explanatory. The process of research design is to ensure that the evidence acquired allows the researcher to answer the main research question in as a precise manner as possible (Morgan, 2007). Acquiring the relevant evidence requires a determining of the type of evidence that is necessary to answer the research question which, in the current study, is to test out theory (Bryman and Bell, 2007). This means that the research design needs to question the type of evidence required to answer both the main research question and the research objectives.

Yin (2009) points out that the design of research is meant to deal with a logical problem and not a logistical problem. For example, engineers, who formulate a work plan and design the structure of a building before constructing it, decide on the required materials and tools needed, based on the building's use and the needs of its occupants. As such, in business and management research, issues such as the research sample, data collection techniques, and analysis procedures are meaningful tools, but they are complementary to the evidence

needed to answer the research question (Clark, et al., 2008). Without dealing with these research design matters at the early stages of the research, it is likely that the results will be weak and could lead to a failure in answering the research question (Creswell, 2003). Therefore, it is important to consider these issues in the following sections, before dealing with the actual research methods.

Research Strategy

Research strategy is the inclusive plan that is followed by a researcher to answer the research question and satisfy the associated aim and objectives (Creswell, 2003). While each strategy could be used with exploratory, descriptive, or explanatory researches, it is unduly simplistic to attribute strategies to one approach or another (Saunders, et al., 2009). The research strategy should identify the research objectives, point out what data needs to be collected and the resources needed, estimate the research boundaries and express how the researcher has decided on the chosen strategy (Creswell, 2003). Regardless of which approach a particular strategy is attributed to and irrespective of the label attached to it, the emphasis needs to be on the suitability of the adopted strategy to the research question and objectives. From another perspective, the emphasis needs to consider that research strategies are not mutually exclusive (Tashakkori and Creswell, 2007). Thus, Yin (2009) has arranged the methods of business and management research into five strategies (Table 4.2)

Table 4.2: Relevant Situations for Different Research Strategies

Source: Adapted from Yin (2009).

Throughout the current research, the survey research strategy was adopted. The main reason for using this method is that it is considered to be an efficient and cost effective way of collecting a large volume of data from a dispersed population, commonly through questionnaires which will obtain sufficient data to answer the research question (Yin, 2009). Moreover, the current research aims to explore the links between leadership and the three variables of trust, motivation, and job satisfaction, which requires gathering standardised data in such a way that the questions are understood and interpreted in a broadly similar way. Consequently, questionnaires were viewed as the best way of gathering reliable data (Saunders, et al., 2009).

Moreover, the use of questionnaires in the current survey offers an effective way of gathering responses from widely spread (located in five different universities) and diverse participants, including high, medium and low managers, and from their followers. The participants comprised a relatively large research sample who were required to respond to a common group of questions which were subsequently analysed by quantitative instruments (Bryman and Bell, 2007). In addition, if questionnaires are formulated efficiently, then they will require only a basic ability to be administered, when compared with other data collection methods (Delamont, 2006). Furthermore, a survey strategy allows greater control over the research process and helps the researcher to suggest causes for a particular relationship between the variables (Jankowicz, 1995). However, the current research also used semi-structured interviews to gather the primary data, in order to collect the required data in more detail from the respondents.

Research Choices and Time Horizon

This research adopted a mainly quantitative approach to data collection techniques and analysis procedures (Saunders, et al., 2009). Moreover, for the research design, the researcher needs to select from two time horizons: cross-sectional and longitudinal. Cross-sectional research is used when a particular phenomenon is studied in a certain period of time, and it is often associated with a survey research strategy and sometimes with qualitative methods, such as

interviews conducted over a short period of time (Easterby-Smith et al., 2008). It is also used when a cross-section of the population is studied at a particular time, in order to collect a volume of data that is related to two or more variables. Then, differences between individual groups within the population can be examined to detect patterns of association or differences (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

As such, taking into consideration the aim, objectives, questions and the settings of the current research, it is expected that a cross-sectional design is more appropriate to carry out this study than a longitudinal approach. The reason is that a longitudinal design demands testing the subjects more than once, over extended time intervals, whereas the cross-sectional choice allows the researcher to examine the correlation between leadership and organizational culture during the time period allocated for this study (Saunders, et al., 2009).

4.5. DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Data collection methods are instruments and mechanisms used to acquire research data and include questionnaires, observation, and interviews. Some of these techniques are qualitative, such as observation, and some are quantitative, such as questionnaires (Fisher, 2007). Thus, researchers are required to adopt a strategy and methods that tend to place the research in either the quantitative or qualitative areas, or a mix of them (Creswell, 2002).

The quantitative method comprises of data collection techniques and data analysis procedures which generate the use of numerical data (White, 2003). In very broad terms, it has been expressed as the collection of numerical data, so as to exhibit the relationship between theory and research (Bryman and Bell, 2007). The method was originally developed to investigate natural phenomenon. However, this aspect of research is extensively utilized in business and

management studies. Quantitative methods can include surveys and laboratory experiments (Coleman and Briggs, 2007).

On the other hand, qualitative method is an inquiry process for understanding a social study that is based on building a complex holistic picture. Objectives of qualitative methods are based on understanding, discovery, description, meanings and hypothesis generation (Sherman and Webb, 1988). However, Bryman and Bell (2007) point out how it can be difficult to use this method as it is often considered to be subjective and impressionistic; that is, findings rely extensively on the researcher's own unsystematic views and it is often unstructured and reliant upon the researcher's ingenuity (Altrichter, et al., 2005). That being said, advantages are drawn from adopting a mixture of both quantitative and qualitative methods.

Although the current research adopted the survey strategy, the choice of using quantitative and qualitative techniques could increase the validity and reliability of data collected (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Therefore, the mixing of qualitative and quantitative data collection methods in this research was achieved by combining questionnaires and semi-structured interviews, so as to enhance the validity and reliability of the collected data.

4.6. CONCEPTUAL ISSUES FOR VALIDITY

Internal Validity

If a study has internal validity, then there is greater confidence of the resulting relationships and differences between the dependent and independent variables (Delamont, 2001). Thus, a study with high internal validity permits conclusions of cause and effect. The major threat to internal validity is a confounding variable: a variable other than the independent variable that co-varies with the independent variable and may be an alternative cause of the changes in the dependent

variable. In relation to questionnaires, internal validity refers to the ability of the questionnaire to measure what was intended to be measured. This means the researcher is concerned that what he or she finds with the questionnaire, actually represents what is being measured.

Researchers can get round this problem by seeking other relevant evidence that supports the answers found in the questionnaire, with the relevance being determined by the nature of their research question and their own judgement. Often, when discussing the validity of a questionnaire, researchers refer to content validity, criterion-related validity and construct validity (Coleman and Briggs, 2007).

Content validity refers to the extent to which the measurement device, in the current case the questions in the questionnaire, provides adequate coverage of the investigative questions. Judgement of what is adequate coverage can be made in a number of ways, such as through a careful definition of the research sourced through the literature and with appropriate prior discussion with others. Moreover, criterion-related validity, also termed predictive validity (Gravetter, 2008), concerns the ability of the measures to make accurate predictions. This indicates that if the researcher is using questions to predict, say, the customers' future buying behaviours, then a test of these measurement questions' criterion-related validity will be the extent to which they actually predict the customers' buying behaviours. Additionally, construct validity refers to the extent to which the measurement questions actually measure the presence of those constructs that the researcher intends to measure.

4.7. RESEARCH METHODS AND PROCEDURES

This second part of the methodology chapter provides an overview and justification of the different research methods used in this study. Firstly, the

reliability of the methods used is justified, in relation to questionnaire and interview reliability, and their relationship to the leadership styles. Next, the methods of collecting the primary data and how the target population was selected for this study are outlined and justified. Finally, the ethical considerations of the study are discussed, along with the statistical procedures that were followed.

4.8. RELIABILITY OF INSTRUMENTATION

Reliability is an important process in any research, as the process is required to make an accurate assessment of the secondary and primary data sources (Saunders, et al., 2007). Dochartaigh (2002) indicates that reliability can be linked to the reputation of the source, arguing that data from well-known market research organizations can be more reliable than unknown ones. It is argued that as the reputation of well-known market research organizations depends on their outcomes, they often have effective procedures in place for the collection and analysis of data (White, 2003). On the other hand, there are many other organizations who declare their reliability for their data collection, whilst in reality the record of such organizations is often difficult to assess, when there are inconsistencies and inaccuracies in the source (Coleman and Briggs, 2007). Therefore, researchers are required to assess and examine the methods used to collect the data, in order to ascertain the level of precision the original research adopted (Gitomer, 2004).

There are numerous ways to assess the source of data. Firstly, through checking the organization or author and their credibility; Saunders, et al. (2007) recommend this as a means of assessing the reliability of the secondary data. They argue that, while using the internet to examine the reliability of data and its issuing organization, it is much easier to check the publication source. For instance, the internet is not controlled and big names could be used to suggest pseudo-academic credibility. For printed publications, reliability is normally straight forward, through the journal publishers. Dochartaigh (2002) emphasises

the necessity of checking the statement and the existence of published documents to help in validating the data. Therefore, this section highlights and examines the different reliability and validity used to ensure that data collected in the current study were at an acceptable level.

Interview Reliability

As the interview is one of the research methods used in this study, it was important to assess the reliability of data collected by this method (Coleman and Briggs, 2007). Interview is one of the non-standardised research methods which aim to reflect the reality of the situation at a particular time. Indeed, as reality more often changes over time, it is possible to repeat the interview exactly (Harter, et al., 2002). Authors have argued that this method is used when the researcher aims to explore a complex topic, wherein qualitative and non-standardised research is required (Harrison and Reilly, 2011). Thus, researchers should determine the strength of this type of research.

Marshall and Rossman (1999) suggest that using the qualitative method requires the researcher to make this method clear in order to change a perceived weakness into a strength, which is based on realistic assumptions about the ability to repeat research outputs. Gitomer (2004) argues that users of the interview method should retain notes relating to the research design, which will help other researchers to understand the processes and to reach the same findings. However, the non-standardised interview does not mean the research process is totally inflexible. Therefore, the current research used the semi-structured interview to explore the data found by the questionnaire and to provide a greater explanation of the "how and why" questions (Harrison and Reilly, 2011). In order to ensure that the data collected by this method were reliable, the researcher prepared for the interview by designing questions that drew from the literature. This approach increased the level of knowledge and information supplied to the interviewee (Abeysekera, 2010). The approach, tended to ensure that, in line with Coleman and Briggs (2007), the researcher would withhold his or her opinion, which can reduce any potential bias

The researcher also needs to choose an appropriate location in which to conduct the interview and here the participants' offices were used at pre-arranged times. Precautions were taken to ensure interviewees were not disturbed and also to make sure those interviewees felt confident that they could express their opinions (Molina-Azorín, 2007). In addition, the researcher wore casual clothes to help convey a degree of informality about the interview, which it was felt would help interviewees to more confidently express their opinion (Robson, 2002). The first five minutes of the interview were used to exchange social greetings, which is important, as the first few minutes of the conversation can impact on the interviewee and influence the outcome of the interview (Saunders, et al., 2007).

Survey Reliability

As the questionnaire was the primary method used in the current research, it was important that it was reliable (Hart, 2011). Respondents may consistently interpret a question in the survey in one way, while the researcher means something else (Fiegen, 2010), which can lead to unreliable data from the questionnaire (Christensen, 2011). Reliability is concerned with the strength of the questionnaire, in particular, the extent to which it can produce consistent findings at different times and under different conditions (Saane, et al., 2003).

Edwards and Fisher (2004) have indicated three common approaches of assessing reliability, including comparing the data collected with other data from a variety of sources and testing internal consistency. Although the analysis for each of these approaches is undertaken after the data is collected, researchers need to consider them at the questionnaire design stage (Coleman and Briggs, 2007).

The first approach, concerning test/re-test, involves estimates of reliability, which can be obtained by correlating the data in the questionnaire with a similar

questionnaire established by parallel studies (Leonard and McAdam, 2001). Thus, the questionnaire should be administered twice to respondents. However, it is often difficult to repeat a questionnaire, as respondents are unlikely to answer the same questionnaire twice, especially in a short period of time. Thus, it is recommended that this approach only be used as a supplement to other methods (Alexander and Doherty, 2010).

The second approach refers to internal consistency which aims to correlate the questions of the survey with the other questions in the same questionnaire (Christensen, 2011). This measures the consistency of responses across all the questions in the questionnaire (Coleman and Briggs, 2007). There are many methods of calculating internal consistency, with the most common being Cronbach's Alpha, which measures the level of reliability of the collected data (Field, 2009). This approach was used in the current study, with an acceptable level of 0.70 Cronbach Alpha being used to demonstrate the internal consistency of the questionnaire.

The third approach of assessing reliability is using an alternative form. This approach aims to assess the respondents' answers for the same questions, but in an alternative form (Gitomer, 2004). However, this approach increases the length of the questionnaire, which can fatigue respondents. Respondents may also spot the similar questions and just refer back to their previous answer, thus it is recommended to place similar questions in different locations (Hart, 2011). The following section discusses the different groups of questions and how some questions were repeated to ensure reliability of the data.

4.9. RELIABILITY OF MEASURING LEADERSHIP STYLES

According to Etzioni's (1975) classification of leadership styles, there are two main types of leadership, which are termed expressive and instrumental

leadership. Expressive leadership is typified by normative approaches and using symbols, whilst instrumental leadership uses performance contingent rewards for the purpose of controlling their followers (Eyal and Roth, 2011). Bass (1995) has also classified the leadership style into two similar categories termed transformational and transactional leadership style respectively. Transformational leadership is mainly characterized by moral approaches, while transactional leadership is characterized by using a rewarding system to control their followers (Iyad, 2011). As a consequence, this research has adopted Bass's transformational and transactional leadership style as the basis for testing-out the differences between the two types of leadership in both the private and public universities (Mehrotra, 2005).

Bass (1990a), who developed the concept of transformational and transactional leadership, has also developed a scale to measure these two types of leadership, which is referred to as the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Avolio, et al., 2003). The MLQ has been used in previous studies to measure the different types of leadership (Bass, 1985; Bass, 1998; Lowe et al., 1996; Yukl, 2002; Talal, 2011). Such an instrument would provide strong evidence of the validity of this scale, in measuring leadership style, as Al-Mailam (2004) and Xirasagar (2008) contend that there is no other scale which can be used to measure the phenomena. The MLQ was also used by House (2004) during his extensive international study, which assessed transformational leadership theory across differing cultures and societies, including those within the Middle East.

There are various versions of the MLQ which have been developed by Bass and Avolio (1995). The initial version, the Rater Form, was designed to gather opinions from the leader's colleagues or followers, while a later version, the Leader Form, was designed to measure the leadership style, according to the leader's view about him or herself (Charbonneau, 2004). A number of the previous studies have used the original version (Rater Form) to measure the leadership styles, arguing that the perceptions of followers are considered more accurate than the leaders' perception when rating themselves (Emery and Barker, 2007). The current research uses both approaches, so as to gather the

perceptions of both the leaders and their followers. The resulting data also allows for measurements to be compared, to determine any differences or relationships between them (Geijsel, et al., 2003). The first version, which has been used more frequently in previous studies, has a slightly higher validity and reliability (Tejeda, et al., 2001). For example, Bass and Avolio's meta-analysis (1995), which drew on nine studies in countries such as Scotland, Taiwan, and the USA, found their leadership scale to be reliable (Griffith, 2004). The coefficients of Chronbach's alpha for each factor on the leadership scale was ranged from 0.74 to 0.94 with sample of 2080 respondents (Bass and Avolio, 1995).

The Bass and Avolio (1995) studies showed higher positive correlations among the five transformational leadership scales, with an average of 0.83. In addition, the studies found a positive significant correlation between the contingent reward scale of transactional leadership and each of the five scales of transformational leadership with average of 0.71. The studies, however, found a negative correlation between transformational and Laissez-faire leadership, and between transactional and Laissez-faire leadership (Bass and Avolio, 1995). Finally, a study undertaken by Lowe el. al., (1996) found similar results.

Transformational Leadership

The main distinctive characteristic of transformational leadership is in stimulating follower performance to go beyond expectations (Bass, 1990). Transformational leaders try to exceed their followers' needs which, it is argued, gives them even higher levels of satisfaction (Ivey and Kline, 2010). This type of leadership is measured on five sub-scales.

Idealized Influence Attributed (IA): This sub-scale has extraordinary capabilities identified by the followers. The scale records the leader's ability to encourage satisfaction and display a sense of power (Hughes and Avey, 2009). For measuring this style, there were four questions (Questions 10, 17, 20, 23), which indicate the same meaning, with the aim being to confirm the reliability of the respondents answer (Hsu and Mujtaba, 2007). In part of the study the IA was

considered as an independent variable, which was measured with the dependent variables of motivation, satisfaction and trust.

Idealized Influence Behaviour (IB): This sub-scale refers to the way leaders behave, whilst demonstrating their role to their followers (Ke and Wei, 2008). Thus, items in this scale record the way a leader talks about his or her most important values and beliefs. This shows a strong and logical purpose, which takes into consideration ethics and morals. The four questions of this group are Questions 6, 14, 21 and 32. Again, for part of the study, IB was considered as an independent variable which was correlated with the dependent variables of motivation, satisfaction and trust (Kusku, 2003).

Inspirational Motivation (IM): This sub-scale aims to provide symbols and simplified emotional appeals to increase the follower's awareness and understanding of jointly required goals (Nemanich and Keller, 2007). Therefore, the items of this scale record the ability of a leader to speak positively about the future and articulate what is required for this to be accomplished. As with the other factors, IM was used as an independent variable, against motivation, satisfaction and trust. The questions of this sub-group are Questions 9, 13, 24 and 30 (Podsakoff, et al., 2003).

Intellectual Stimulation (IS): This sub-scale defines a way of encouraging followers to look at old methods in a new way and emphasizes the use of intelligence. Thus, this scale confirms the way leaders encourage their followers to do things in their own way and in having their own values, beliefs, and expectations (Spendlove, 2007). It is also aimed at improving their challenges and creating ways to develop and achieve them (Aasen and Stensaker, 2007). The questions of this sub-group are 2, 8, 28 and 34, with these being used to determine the relationship with the dependent variables of motivation, satisfaction and trust.

Individual Consideration (IC) aims to give personal attention to all members whilst allowing each individual to feel that his or her contribution is important (Martin and Marion, 2005). Thus, the items of this scale confirm the ability of a leader to treat their followers differently, but equally, on a one-to-one basis. The

scale also explores the ability of a leader to provide advice, feedback and to train his or her followers in individual development (Michael, et al., 2000). The questions of this sub-group, which acted as an independent variable, are 15, 18, 27 and 33. After a mean was generated for each sub-group, these were tested with the other independent variables as well as the dependents variables.

In addition, "ideal" leader characteristics, associated with transformational leadership, were sought from followers through twenty items. The items chosen had previously been used in a Jordanian context (Salameh, 2004), although not in the area of higher education. The work of Al Khawaldeh (2005) also influenced the choice of the "ideal" characteristics.

Transactional leadership

This type of leadership is mainly characterized through the introduction of economic and psychological prizes to enhance employees' performance (Bass, 1990a). Transactional leadership has three sub-scales.

Contingent Reward (CR): This sub-scale relates to an exchange between efforts and reward, where the leader requires a specific level of performance before they reward their followers (McTavish and Miller, 2009). Thus, this scale's items measure the ability of leaders to provide suitable rewards for their followers, once they have met the agreed objectives (Trivellas and Dargenidou, 2009). For part of the study, CR was considered as an independent variable and correlated against motivation, satisfaction and trust. The questions of this sub-group are 1, 11, 16 and 29.

Management by Exception – Active (MBEA): This scale concerns the active monitoring system used to measure and deviations from the rules and to take appropriate corrective action. This scale's items measure the ability of a leader to involve themselves, when followers make mistakes and provide them with feedback (Osseo-Asare, et al., 2007). As with the other factors, MBEA operated as an independent variable, against motivation, satisfaction and trust. The questions of this sub-group are 4, 22, 25 and 35.

Management by Exception–Passive (MBEP): This scale relates to the leader intervening only when standards were not met, or when something has gone wrong. In this way, this scale's items measure the level of action that a leader takes when the followers make mistakes (Moss and Daunton, 2006). The questions of this sub-group are 3, 12, 31 and 19, which comprised an independent variable.

Laissez-Faire (LF): This scale defines the action when there is an avoidance or absence of leadership. The items of this scale record the avoidance of leadership, or when there is no agreement between leader and followers (Osseo-Asare, et al., 2005). The questions of this sub-group are 5, 7, 26 and 36. As the interest is in leadership itself, the LF factor was largely ignored in the analysis.

A mean, which is generated for the sub-groups, was used to test the leadership factors with various independent variables and also operated as an independent variable for the areas of motivation, jobs satisfactions and trust.

4.10. MEASUREMENT OF VARIABLES

Motivation

Many scales of motivation work on the premise that humans have an innate desire for learning, and are stimulated from birth to learn. This means that a stimulus would be either supported or discouraged according to their environment (Amjad, 2011). Mehta et al., 2003) argue that motivation can fulfil an individual's psychological needs, which he claims is a necessary precursor to intrinsic motivation (Ahmad, 2009). Intrinsic motivation is itself divided into three psychological needs; the need for competence, the need for autonomy, and the need for relatedness (Huitt, 2007). Thus, the development of a social framework would either promote or stifle intrinsic motivation according to the accomplishment of these needs. Since early times, theorists have tried to classify the different types of motivation based on the effect of both the individual needs

and the environment. The main three types of motivations are: 1) intrinsic motivation where people do something just for pleasure or the satisfaction derived from it, 2) Extrinsic motivation, where motivation is based on the feeling of a sense of obligation, or as a means to an end and 3) Amotivation, this type is based on the absence of drive to follow an activity, due to the follower's failure to adjust his or her behaviour and activity (Mehta, et al., 2003; Vallerand et al. 1992;). The motivation variable was considered as a dependent variable which was associated with the independent variables of leadership.

The relationship of individual leader and situational characteristics associated with motivation were sought through presenting a list of thirteen items that had previously been identified as "ideal" characteristics in a Jordanian context (Salameh, 2004). The approach is further supported by the work by Epitropaki and Martin (2005) and Al Khawaldeh (2005). Ranking of the items was consistent with the original Jordanian study.

Job Satisfaction

Etzioni (1975) suggested that the structure of a normative organization, which has a specific value-orientation, such as a public university, can be related to job satisfaction. He argues that a normative organization is more intrinsically satisfying than a utilitarian organization, which can be identified as being similar to a private university, which holds a strong business-orientation (Rad and Yarmohammadian, 2006).

As the current research investigated the level of both intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction in the target organizations, scales were chosen that include both items (Yiing and Ahmad, 2009). There are many scales that measure job satisfaction. For example, Smith Kendall, and Hullin (1969) developed the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) which measures 72 items of job satisfaction (Saari and Erez, 2002). Although this scale is considered popular (Harter, et al., 2002), there are other scales that measure job satisfaction, for example that designed by

Weiss et al., (1967). The questionnaire was developed to measure job satisfaction, using 100 items, which became known as the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Edwards and Fisher, 2004). In addition, Saane, et al., (2003) developed an instrument that investigated the effects of job characteristics on people, which emerged as the Job Diagnostic Survey scale.

These scales, however, were designed mainly to measure extrinsic job satisfaction, thus Warr et al., (1979) have developed a scale that addressed both extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction (Green and Tsitsianis, 2005). This scale was designed to measure job satisfaction in middle to lower managers. Therefore, the current research used Warr et al's scale to measure job satisfaction because it is concerned with exploring the followers' perception with regards to both the extrinsic and intrinsic aspects (Latham and Locke, 2009). Moreover, the scale has strong reliability, with a Cronbach alpha coefficient of 0.88 for intrinsic and 0.85 for extrinsic job satisfaction. In addition, Warr et al's study showed a Cronbach alpha of 0.72 for the correlation between the intrinsic and extrinsic job satisfaction, which signifies a combined job satisfaction (Green and Tsitsianis, 2005).

The scale used in the current research contained 22 questions on motivation. Questions 1 to 9 explored intrinsic job satisfaction, whereas questions 10 to 20 and 22 addressed extrinsic job satisfaction. Question number 21 is a general question about the respondents' satisfaction with their work (Schyns, et al., 2009). Questions on the extrinsic job satisfaction scale measured the employees' perception about different aspects of their job, such as questions that refer to physical work conditions. Conversely, items on the intrinsic job satisfaction scale measure the aspects of the job itself, such as about the respondents' freedom to choose their own method of working. Finally, Question 21, which measures overall job satisfaction, summarizes general aspects of the job (Politis, 2006).

The area concerning job satisfaction and the situational and individual leader characteristics was determined through nine items drawn from Salameh's (2004) Jordanian study into the "ideal" characteristics associated with a transformational leader.

Trust

Employee trust is one of the most important topics for organizational life as well as human relations in general (Hoy and Tschannen-Moran, 2003). Where employees have a sense of trust in their administrators, colleagues and shareholders, the relationship between employees and the organization is said to be enhanced. There are numerous theoretical and applied studies that use scales to measure this trust (Bruhn, 2002; Shockley-Zalabak et al., 2003)

The organizational Trust Scale (Yilmaz, 2006) is one tool used to gather and measure trust data within organizations. The overall scale consists of 22 items and three sub-dimensions which are: trust in administrator, trust in colleagues and trust in shareholders. The current study, however, deals with just one dimension, which is the trust in administrator (Chang and Lee, 2007). Previous studies have found the Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient for the trust in administrator sub-dimension to average 0.89, which indicates high reliability. This section has 10 questions which examine the extrinsic and intrinsic trust variables on a seven-point scale, ranging from "completely disagree" to "completely agree". A score of seven would indicate a greater trust in their leader. It is of note that, according to Hu et al., (2010) the intrinsic questions correlate more with transformational leadership, whilst extrinsic variables show a strong correlation with transactional leadership.

To explore the area of trust and transformational leadership, nine items were identified relating to situational and individual characteristics. The items were mainly drawn from Salameh's (2004) Jordanian study, which itself was supported by the work of others (Al Khawaldeh, 2005; Epitropaki and Martin, 2005).

4.11. TESTING THE MEASURES

The pre-testing of measures is desirable to evaluate both the survey instrument and the collection method to be used in the full survey (Fowler, 2002). The pre-test results are used to revise and refine the final draft of the questionnaire and determine the collection method. This step is particularly important where the measure is being introduced to different cultural respondents, than those for whom the main measure is designed; thus, the following procedures were adopted. In the current study this referred to using Western type question in a Jordanian environment

Stage One: A pre-test was undertaken in the early stage of the study, with the questionnaire being distributed to a sample of fifty followers in two universities (one public and one private). Of these, 72 per cent returned their questionnaires, which were reviewed and analysed with a view to strengthening the reliability of the instrument, before the final stage. One of the arguments is that if the respondents found difficulties at this stage, then others in the main survey would have similar perceptual misunderstandings. The questionnaire was initially formatted in English, after which it was translated into Arabic, for the purpose of the respondents. The translation was made and tested independently and was found to be reasonably accurate. The pilot respondents were from a similar background and culture that would be used in the main study. Following completion of the questionnaire, the researcher discussed the respondents' experience with them, to gain their comments. Areas of improvement were identified, mainly in re-wording some of the translations to make the meaning clearer and to increase the pitch size.

This preliminary stage indicated that additional questions were needed, whilst others needed to be changed, to make them more meaningful for the respondents. At this stage it was accepted that including the leaders' perception,

as well as the followers, would provide a stronger result. Thus, a selection of questions was added regarding the characteristics of an ideal leader, which would, through the synthesis of data, help produce a model of leadership for Jordanian higher education.

Stage Two: Prior to distribution, a final pilot test, which was carried out in Amman University. The purpose of this second pilot test was to evaluate the modified questionnaire before the final version went live.

4.12. SAMPLING STRATEGY

The five universities selected for the current research were drawn from the public and private sectors and spread throughout the north, south and middle regions of Jordan. The universities were chosen so that leadership styles and their impact, could be studied across sectors and within regions (Schneider and George, 2011), to determine if any differences or relationships existed.

In the context of a multiple-indicator survey, sampling is a process for selecting respondents from a population, which in the current research were the five universities. These sub-populations vary considerably and so the sampling that was used to select respondents was random (Hanafizadeh and Nikabadi, 2011). Stratified random sampling is a process of grouping members of the population into relatively harmonized subgroups before sampling. Here the grouping is to be in ratio to the population, with each person being assigned to only one group, following which random or systematic sampling is applied within each level (Christensen, 2011; Halim, et al., 2011). This approach often improves the representativeness of the sample by reducing sampling error (Brigham, 2010).

The aim of the sampling strategy was to represent the overall characteristics of the population. Thus, the procedures for selecting the sample size for each sub-population (university) needed three steps; first, to predict the sample size for

each university; second, to compute the proportion of the sample size in each category and finally, to adjust the sample size to the response rate.

Sample size

Moser and Kalton's (1971) model was used to determine the sample size for each selected university, as it assumes the normality of the data. The equation of this model is as follows:

$$S.E\ (x) = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma 2}{n-1}} X \frac{N-n}{N-1}$$

Where:

N is the number of the units in the population
n is the number of the units in the sample
σ is the standard deviation
S.E(x) is the standard error of the mean

According to the formula, the sample size of each university could be calculated (see Appendix III), with the results being depicted in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Sample Size for Each University

University sample	**Type of university**	**Location of university**	**Sample size (n)**
1.Yarmouk University	Public university	North Jordan	180
2.Mu'tah University	Public university	South Jordan	172
3.University of Jordan	Public university	Middle Jordan	181
4.Irbid University	Private university	North Jordan	125
5.Philadelphia University	Private university	Middle Jordan	135

4.13. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

During January 2010 telephone calls were made and formal letters were sent to the five selected universities, requesting their willingness to participate in the current research. Positive results were received from the universities in early February 2010, after which the contact person in the research departments was visited. At this point the researcher and the HR manager, or the person was in charge within the university, discussed how to administer the questionnaire. That is, who would receive a questionnaire and how completed questionnaires would be collected and returned.

Each questionnaire booklet included a covering letter, pen and a sealed envelope, to assist with confidentiality (Al-Nashmi, et al., 2011). An ethical statement and information sheet were also included. Questionnaires were sent to the selected respondents during their work time, with it being agreed that completed questionnaires would be returned to the administration office, or be collected from the research departments in each university (Deville and Tillé, 1998). The questionnaire documentation included the researcher's email address and phone number, to provide a contact point, if any questions or problems arose from the respondents. No reported difficulties arose in answering the questionnaire.

Five follow-up interviews were undertaken with the HR managers of each of the universities. The interviews were arranged to explore any detail that arose from the questionnaire and discuss the promotion system in each university, as this information could provide leaders with a means of motivating their followers. All interviews were face-to-face, with around 45 minutes being used for each interview (Stankosky, 2006). Appointments were made approximately one week before each interview, with one having to be re-arranged, and the ethical aspects of both conducting the interview and the research were emphasised.

4.14. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Firstly, the research required a convincing level of understanding and skills in order to convey to the respondents that it was credible. Apart from personal knowledge, an extensive review of the literature surrounding the subject of leadership and the related variables of motivation, satisfaction and trust was undertaken (Harrison and Reilly, 2011).

Research ethics are central to the conduct of research. According to Saunders et al., (2009), to protect the rights of the individuals who are the subject of the research, the researcher's behaviour should be considered in detail. Thus, ethical issues were carefully considered when designing the questionnaire and conducting the interviews. Prior to their involvement all participants were informed of the research aims, together with their right to withdraw from the research, without giving a reason and they were assured that the results would be confidential and would not affect their work. Assurances were given as to the anonymous nature of the data, adding that any published material would only present overall data, with no individual being identified.

The methodological position of this research draws on both quantitative and qualitative methods, which entailed the collection of primary data from the participants, both through questionnaire and interview (Harrison and Reilly, 2011). With respect to ethical issues, the researcher was aware of the responsibility to obtain permission from the universities and respondents and, in addition, to generate the interest of those individuals involved in the research (Chamberlain and Broderick, 2007). Importantly, it was understood that the information respondents revealed should not be misused, in accordance with both a moral and legal responsibility towards the respondents (Hart, 2011). Indeed, a full awareness was held of the institutions and staff rights, as well as their privacy, confidentiality, anonymity and sensitivity associated with the study (Fiegen, 2010; Molina-Azorín, 2007).

Moreover, the questionnaire was developed in accordance with LJMU's guidelines on primary data collection. Indeed, the procedures for the conducting the study in line with LJMU's "Code of Research Ethics", was submitted to the University Ethic Committee for approval. It was fully understood that following these important ethical procedures limited the chance of any harm being done to the respondents or the target organizations involved in the study (Abeysekera, 2010).

4.15. STATISTICAL PROCEDURES FOR ANALYSIS

The MLQ consists of three sections: transformational and transactional leadership, along with the Laissez-faire approach (Bass and Avolio, 1995). The final questionnaire was designed using a scale numbering 1 to 7, instead of the 0-4 of the original MLQ questionnaire. The greater range provided for more accurate findings (Rowold and Heinitz, 2007) and allowed for a common format with the other areas of motivation, job satisfaction and trust. The aim of using the Likert style scale (Likert, 1932) was to provide respondents with a standard response rate to each of the statements. The Likert style scale measured the level of agreement and disagreement with each statement, with the two phrases being used as the extreme anchors of the scales, in the form of a semantic differential (Osgood et al., 1957). Although five-point scales can be used to evaluate the respondent's opinion on leadership styles, the seven-point scale provides a greater range for respondents (Vagias, 2006). The different sections used the rating scale between 1 and 7, with the extremes being represented as "strongly disagree" (1) and "strongly agree" (7). There is some discussion as to whether, in true Likert scales, the middle, or neutral, score should be included in mean calculations, arguing that it is a non-result. However, the alternative view, particularly with an anchored scale, is that the respondent is stating an opinion and therefore, in indicating that they are not at the extremes, their score is valid (Stein, 1989). The decision was taken to represent all respondents and include the middle value in the means, as this allowed for the inclusion of all data.

The statistical procedure of this study was to analyse the primary data through the SPSS software (Field, 2009). The software provides a standard package for the analysis of differences and relationships between the various independent and dependent variables. However, the data reduction is only a means to an end, with the interpretation of the findings being crucial to the study.

Independent and Dependent Variables

The main approach in testing out the various theoretical assumptions that were linked with transformational leadership was, in line with the research objectives, to test out the null hypothesis in relation to the various independent variables for gender, length of service, educational level and most importantly the respondents' position, particularly that of leader and follower. A similar approach of using null hypotheses was used to test out the links between leadership and the variables of motivation, job satisfaction and trust, again, in relation to independent factors such as age, gender and the views held by both leaders and followers.

The difference between dependent and independent variables is that the former represents the value that is being influenced, while the independent variable is, in a classical sense, manipulated and the resulting impact on the dependent variable measured. In the social sciences the independent variable is rarely manipulated, rather it is assessed to see if there is a relationship, or difference in relation to the dependant variable (Christensen, 2011). In the initial analysis of leadership styles the independent variables referred to factors such as age, length of service, level of position and the university itself. That is, did any of these variables show a difference with the leaders' styles, for example was it the case that people with long service preferred a particular style of leadership. This was tested to a significant level equal to or less than 0.05. When determining the relationship and differences between leadership styles and motivation, satisfaction and trust, the leadership styles functioned as independent variables, whereas the dependent variables consisted of motivation, trust and satisfaction.

Here, the measurement is of the influence of the independent variable (leadership styles) on the dependent variables (motivation, trust and satisfaction).

The statistically significant results contributed to a measurement of how leadership behaviour may be influenced by various factors such as age, and the relationship it has with employee motivation, satisfaction and trust. The strength of any measurement, be it for association or difference, provides the basis for which to understand the various variables involved in the study (Watson, 2008).

Testing of Research Objectives

The main direction of the research fell within the positivist paradigm (Easterby-Smith, et al., 2008) and given that the area was relatively new, the approach was exploratory in nature (Phillips and Pugh, 2010). The deductive approach sought to test out the various elements of transformational theory in a new setting and to explore the variations in perception, with one goal being the production of a 'ideal' leader for higher education establishments in Jordan. Given the exploratory nature of the research, broad hypotheses were designed to cover the research questions, which themselves were drawn from a gap in the literature, and the resulting research objectives. Given the exploratory nature of the current study, the hypotheses are stated in the null form.

Null hypothesis 1 – There is no difference between how members of staff at Jordanian universities perceive the value of transformational and transactional leadership

Null hypothesis 2 – There is no difference in what followers and leaders at Jordanian universities perceive as the desirable characteristics of an 'ideal' leader.

Null hypothesis 3 – The independent variables of biographic data do not impact on how staff at Jordanian universities perceive transformational and transactional leadership.

Null hypothesis 4 – The organizational measurements of trust, motivation and job satisfaction are not associated with the university staffs' perceptions of transformational and transactional leadership characteristics.

Measures of Difference

The importance of measuring the differences between the two or more groups of variables is important in any quantitative study. The analysis is thus, that there are many ways of measuring the difference between groups of variables (Christensen, 2011). To explore and present the sample data, frequency distribution tables were adopted, which outline proportions and percentage representations. With respect to differences, the standard independent t-tests were used. The means, along with the significance levels, provided a statistical analysis of any significance (Watson, 2008). This approach allowed for an informed decision on the research questions and objectives.

Quantifiable data were used to analyse the differences between two means of specific variables. This test is able to divide the studied variable into two distinct groups, using a descriptive variable. For this purpose, Independent group t-test analysis was used to compare two groups of variables and to assess the probability of these groups being different. The t-test compares the difference in the means of the two groups using a measure of the spread of scores (Konfe, et al., 2005). The formulae measures any difference between these two groups, wherein a large t-statistic with a probability of equal to or less than 0.05, signifies a statistically significant result (Coleman and Briggs, 2007).

To measure difference between three or more groups, the ANOVA test was used. ANOVA tests use a descriptive variable to assess the possibility of various groups being different by chance alone (Christensen, 2011). The test analyses the variance between the means, which measures the difference between the groups and whether that difference is equal to or less than 0.05. There are three assumptions which are required before using one-way ANOVA test. The first assumption is that data value is independent and does not relate to any of the other data values. The second assumption is that data for each group is normally distributed and the third assumption is that data for each group has the same variance (Konfe, et al., 2005).

The current research aimed to examine the difference between transformational leadership styles and different independent variables such as gender, age, location, position, size of team, educational level and the private and public universities. Further, differences between the dependent variables of motivation, trust and satisfaction were sought with respect to the leadership styles, which in this analysis acted as independent variables.

Measures of Association

The study also sought to measure the association between two groups, wherein the correlation coefficient highlighted the strength of the linear relationship between two ranked or quantifiable variables. The result of the coefficient can fall between -1 and +1, wherein the +1 represents a perfect positive correlation, whilst -1 indicates a perfect negative correlation (Bryman and Bell, 2008). Perfect positive correlation suggests that two variables are precisely related to each other, wherein the increase of one variable shows a similar increase in the other variable's value (Christensen, 2011). In the social sciences it is rare that a prefect correlation is reached. There is no definitive agreement, although a Pearson's coefficient of .70 or over is considered to show a strong relationship, with .50 to .69 being of medium strength and below .50 being 'weak' (Saunders, et al., 2007). The study used correlation to test the relationship between the variables

of motivation, trust, satisfaction and different leadership styles (Konfe, et al., 2005).

4.16. SUMMARY

In the first part of this chapter the different philosophical approaches and strategies were discussed, concluding that the positivist philosophy more closely aligns with the overall purpose of the current study. The discussion on the research strategy identified a deductive approach as the most appropriate, as the process of testing out theory is closely related with positivism. Finally, in the first part, the concept of validity was discussed and justified in terms of the instrumentation. The second part of the chapter focused specifically on the data gathering instrument and the methods used to gather the primary data. Justification was provided for the reliability of the data gathering instrument and the rationale for its design. The justification included the reasons behind drawing from questionnaires that had been used previously and the reasons why these were modified for the current study. Detailed justification was provided for the selection of the sample, which included the formula used, to ensure a representative sample was obtained. The procedures associated with the distribution of the questionnaire and the ethical implications were discussed. Attention turned to the analysis of the data, with justification being provided for the use of parametric statistics and the tests for both differences and relationships. Having discussed the philosophical and operational basis for gathering and treating the data, the next chapter concerns the findings that resulted from the analysis.

CHAPTER FIVE – THE FINDINGS

This chapter reports the findings of the survey into Jordanian universities. The sample was drawn from five universities located in different areas of the Jordanian Kingdom, according to the size of each population (as reported in Chapter 5). The questionnaire aimed to gather information on the leadership characteristics in higher education, particularly transformational leadership and the areas of motivation, job satisfaction and trust. Following the descriptive statistics of the sample, the results from the inferential statistics are presented, separated into follower and leader results. Finally, the results associated with the concepts of motivation, job satisfaction and trust are presented.

5.1. DESCRIPTIVE DATA AND SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS

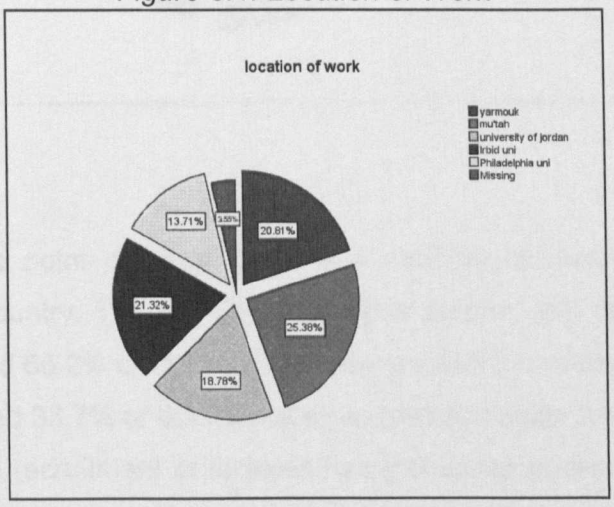
Of the 700 questionnaires distributed, 523 were returned, although only 503 were used in the current study, due to the fact that the other 20 having incomplete data. The followers' questionnaire includes two main categories; "Teaching staff" and "research staff". Another 250 questionnaires were sent to leaders, of which 204 were returned. There were four categories for leaders' position; "Rector and Vice-rector", "Dean", "Head of division or department", and "Head of section or programme". However, due to low numbers, the data were collapsed into three categories to represent high, middle and low levels of leadership (see Appendix IV).

The followers' sample comprised 31% of teaching staff, 19.4% administrators and 15.4% research staff, while the leaders' sample included 13.6% Heads of section or programme, 8.5% Head of division or department and 6% in the position of Rectors, Vice rector or Dean.

Location of Universities

The sample was distributed between the five targeted universities, with Mu'tah representing 25% and the University of Jordan 19%. Yarmouk University comprised 21% of the sample, with Irbid University being 21%. At 14%, the smallest response was from Philadelphia University (Fig. 5.1).

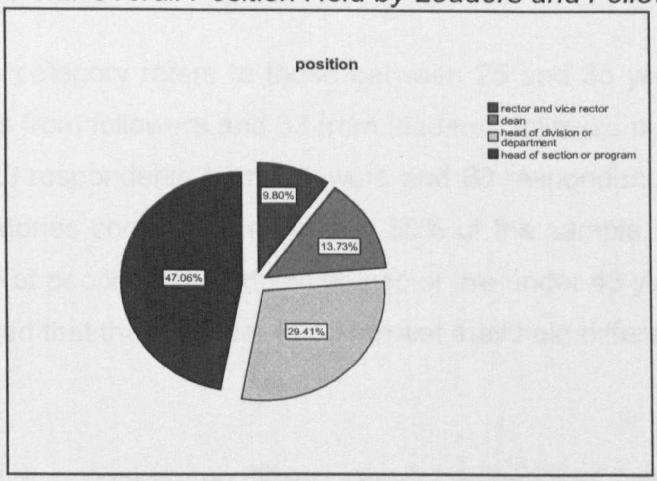
Figure 5.1: Location of Work



In regards to the followers' location, the University of Jordan represents the largest number of followers (24.9%), followed by Mu'tah University (21.3%) and Yarmouk University (20.3%), with Irbid and Philadelphia universities following on (17% and 16.7% respectively).

The highest leader responses were collected from Mu'tah University (24.5%), Irbid University (20.6%), Yarmouk University (20.1%), The University of Jordan (18.1%) and Philadelphia University (13.2%). It is apparent that Mu'tah University returned the highest proportion of questionnaires, with Philadelphia University taking last place for both leader and follower returns,

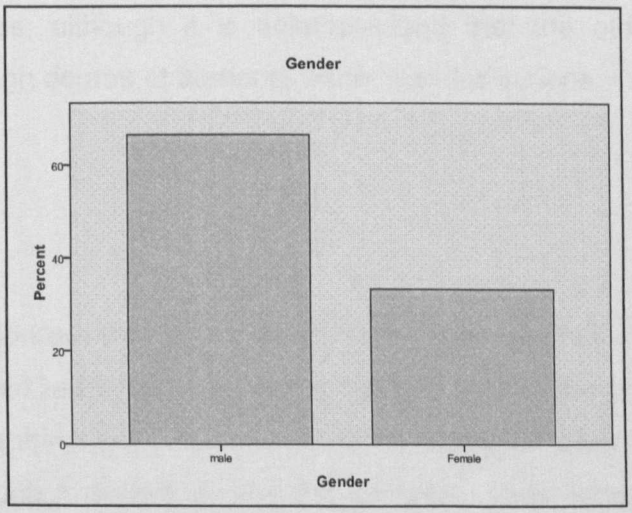
Figure 5.2: Overall Position Held by Leaders and Followers



Gender

It is important to point out that there is a majority of males in employment throughout the country. The sample follows this pattern with 66.3% being male, which represented 66.2% of the total followers and 66.7% of the leaders. Overall, females comprised 33.7% of the total sample (see Appendix IV). This percentage indicates that the recruitment of females has increased wherein the universities, which is of note, as the traditional culture of Jordan has tended not to recruit females into education. Conversely it could be that more females wished their 'voice' to be heard through the questionnaire.

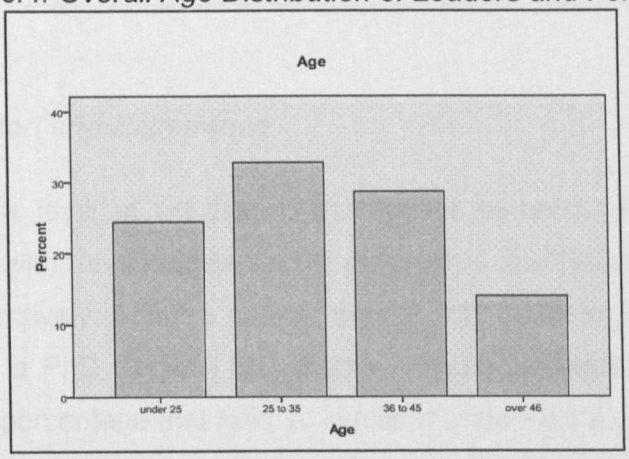
Figure 5.3: Overall Gender Distribution of Leaders and Followers



Age Factor

The largest age category refers to those between 25 and 35 years old (32.8%; 149 respondents from followers and 83 from leaders), followed by the 36-45 year olds (28.7%; 123 respondents from followers and 80 respondents from leaders). These two categories comprised more than 50% of the sample, which indicates that the majority of people in the education sector are under 45 years of age, with it being suggested that those nearer to retirement may hold different views.

Figure 5.4: Overall Age Distribution of Leaders and Followers

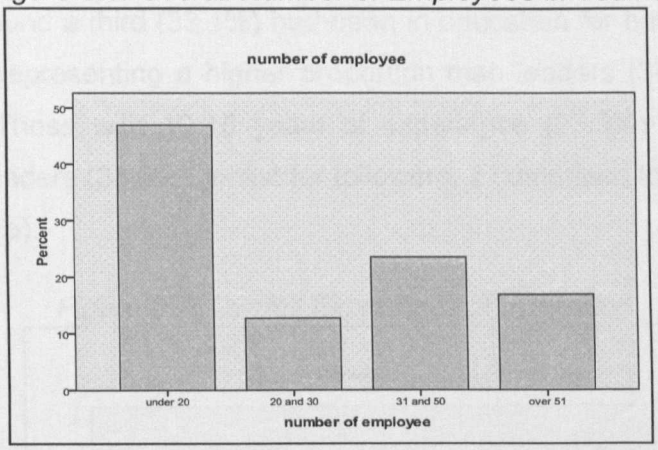


The oldest category of over 46 years formed 14% of the sample, of which 65% were followers and 35% leaders. The returns may reflect the hierarchical nature of the universities, although it is acknowledged that the older, more senior leaders have a high degree of authority within their institutions.

Team Size

As it was considered that the size of team membership might affect how participants viewed leadership, this area was explored in the questionnaire. It is apparent that the majority (47%) work in 'small' teams of fewer than twenty, with only 16.8% working in teams of over 51 members. Thus, when interpreting the results the nature of leaders required within the education sector may change depending on the size of team they are involved with.

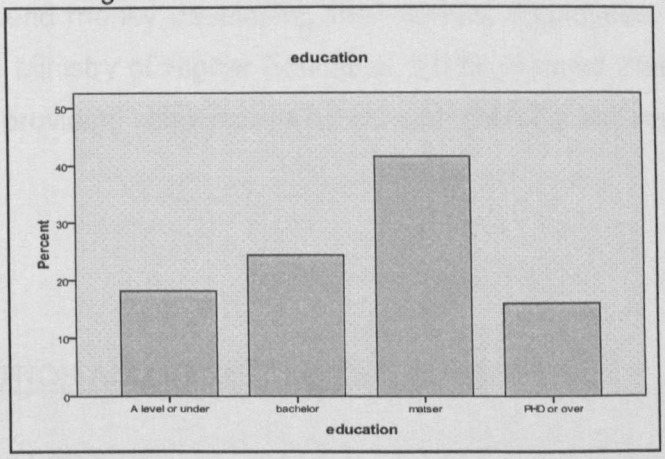
Figure 5.5: Overall Number of Employees in Teams



Level of Education and Experience

In regards to the level of education, the largest percentage (41.6%) held a masters degree, with the separate figures for leaders and followers being 59.8% and 34.2% respectively. About a quarter overall held bachelor degrees (24.3%), whilst 16% held a PhD degree, broken down to 79 followers and 34 leaders. There is a small percentage that held 'A' levels or under (8.5%), although none of these were in a leadership position (the 'A' Level term has been used to signify the university entrance examinations used in Jordan, such as Ammah, although 'A' levels are also studied).

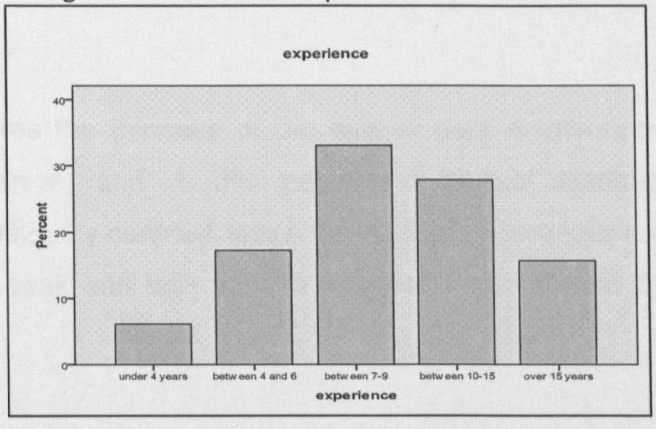
Figure 5.6: Overall Educational Levels



The level of experience in education may affect a person's response to leadership and their motivation and, accordingly, this area was investigated.

Overall, no large differences were found, with the results being fairly evenly distributed. Around a third (33.1%) had been in education for between 7-9 years, with followers representing a higher proportion than leaders (34.2% and 30.4% respectively). Those with 10-15 years of experience (27.9%) had the highest proportion of leaders (38.8%), whilst for followers, it comprised the second largest category (24.7%).

Figure 5.7: Overall Experience in Education



Finally, just 6% of the total sample had been in education for less than 4 years, all of whom were represented by followers. These data suggest that the vast majority of respondents would have a good understanding of leadership in their university. It may be that respondents had taught elsewhere and recently joined the target university. However, the targeted universities rarely recruit new staff, choosing to spend money developing their current employees. Indeed, the last report from the Ministry of Higher Education (2009) showed that the government is increasingly providing scholarships for current teaching and research staff.

5.2. DISTRIBUTION AND RELIABILITY OF DATA

Distribution of Data

It is important to test the nature of data to confirm that it is normally distributed, which helps determine the correct analytical tests to use (Rudestam and Newton, 2007). Skewness measures were used to test the degree of symmetry of a

probability distribution. Where skewness is greater than zero, the distribution is skewed to the right, having more observations on the left. Conversely, if the skewness is less than zero, then the distribution is skewed to the left, having more observations on the right. The data can be considered as normally distributed if the skewness statistic ranges between -1 and +1. Where this range is exceeded, then this would indicate that the data is not normally distributed, for statistical purposes (McQueen and Knussen, 1999).

Kurtosis measures the thinness of the tails of data distribution. If the Kurtosis score is between +1 and -1, this indicates a normal distribution of the data (Oppenheim, 1992). By contrast, when the Kurtosis figure falls outside this range, it suggests the peak and tails vary to suggest a non-normal distribution of the data.

The current data was shown to be normally distributed for both Skewness and Kurtosis statistic (see Appendix IV); thus, data is accepted as normally distributed which, with other parameters, allows for parametric statistics to be used, such as t-tests, ANOVA and Coefficient correlation tests.

Reliability of data

Testing the reliability of data aims to measure the level of consistency between the various responses, so that the researcher can be confident in his or her basis for analysis. Essentially, reliability refers to consistency and can be defined as:

> The extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study is referred to as reliability and if the results of a study can be reproduced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered to be reliable. (Joppe, 2000:1)

Churchill and Peter (1984) argue that a reliability score of less than 0.60 suggests an unsatisfactory level of internal consistency, whilst a result above 0.60 provides the researcher with greater confidence that data will give the same results if it was repeated. However, Yin (2009) argues that the minimum acceptable scale for the social sciences is 0.70. The result of reliability statistics for the current study shows that the Cronbach Alpha for all variables exceeded the minimum requirement which means that it is reasonable to conduct analytical tests on the data (Table 5.1). With respect to the breakdown, the overall followers' data reported a Cronbach alpha of 0.891, whilst the leaders were slightly less at 0.805.

Table 5.1: Cronbach's Alpha Results for Leadership Styles

Source: Bass (1997).

Moreover, the reliability test was undertaken for each style of leadership, which indicated acceptable Cronbach Alpha levels for each of the Transformational leadership styles.

5.3. LEADERS' FINDINGS

This section highlights the main leadership differences that existed in the data, taking account of the leaders' gender, age, position, experience, location and the level of education. The scale used was a seven-point scale, in the form of a semantic differential (Vagias, 2006), with 1 being "not at all", "not important" or "strongly disagree" whilst 7 represented "all the time", "extremely important" or "strongly agree".

Leader t-test results - gender

T-tests were undertaken to highlight the key differences in the means for two variables. Male and female respondents were significantly different for the dependent factor "Express confidence" (p .041), with the female mean (4.96) being higher than male (4.65).

Another area of significant difference between male and female leaders related to "the degree of responsibility given to do their job" (p .049) and "how satisfied they feel" (p .024). It is important to highlight that "the degree of responsibility given to do their job" indicates to a higher mean for males (4.59) than females (4.18), whilst "sat_21" (how satisfied they feel) found the female mean (4.93) to be higher than the male (4.37). The test did not find any differences in the mean between male and female in regards to both motivation and trust sections.

It was found that "ideal_leader2" (Educated), "ideal_leader12" (Sincere), "ideal_leader15" (Clever) and "ideal_leader19" (Understanding) all had significant differences between males and females, with the t-test p-values being .038, .032, .005, and .003, respectively. It is of note that in all four factors the male mean was higher than that of the females, which suggests that males place a greater importance on these areas of an ideal leader.

Leader ANOVA test results

Leader ANOVA Test Results – Age

ANOVA found that age was a significant differentiator for "mot_1" (make them busy all the times) (p .050), with the Post Hoc "Tukey test" showing that the "under 25" group (5.43) were significantly higher than the other age groups (25-35 - 4.07; 36-45 - 4.14; over 46 - 4.26). In addition, age differences were found for "Sat_6" (the degree of responsibility given to do their job) (p .038), with the "under 25" being significantly different from both the "36-45" (4.56) and "over 46" (4.85) groups. Apart from these two areas, the "25-35" age group had no other significant differences. However, it indicates that the younger members of staff wished to be kept busy and take on responsibility.

Leader ANOVA Test Results – Education

With regards to educational level, both "manager_char7" (Absent when needed) (p .050) and "manager_char26" (avoid making decisions alone) (p .049) showed significantly different results. The area concerning leaders being absent when needed, found that those leaders with a "PhD or over" (4.74) disagreed more than others ("masters" 5.10; "bachelor" 5.19).

The educational level also showed a difference for "sat_12" (the hours they work) (p .007), with "bachelor" respondents (3.38) being less that those with a "PhD or over" (4.47). Overall, it is apparent that educational background does not have a major impact on leadership in the universities.

Leader ANOVA Test Results – Number of Employee

In relation to the number of employees in teams, "manager_char7" (Absent when needed) (p .041) and "manager_char26" (Avoid making decisions alone) (p .009) both showed significant differences between the opinion of leaders and the size of their teams. The Post Hoc test, using "Tukey", highlighted that teams with

"over 51" (4.74) were significantly different from teams with "between 31 and 50" (5.26). A Duncan test found differences between leaders for avoiding making decisions alone, with teams of "20-30" (4.85) and "over 51" (4.85) showed lower means than teams of "31-50" (5.28) and "under 20" (5.30).

In relation to "mot_10" (Let them challenge for promotion) differences existed between team size, whereby the "under 20" employees showed a lower mean (4.59) than teams of "20-30" employees (5.33). Similarly, differences were found for "mot_19" (Remind them of previous jobs that have been successful) (p .032), wherein teams of "under 20" (4.72) were lower than those with "20-30" (5.41). There is a small trend here, that the people in small teams are less happy with these motivational aspects.

The independent variables did not significantly influence the area of satisfaction and team size. Further, only one significant difference was found for team size and trust, wherein "trust_2" (Show them loyalty at work) (p .019) showed that teams of "20-30" (4.00) were lower than the other three groups (31-50 - 4.68; under 20 - 4.84; over 51 - 4.88).

Finally, two main differences were found for the characteristics of ideal leader. The area of an "ideal_leader4" (Strong) (p .049) showed that teams of "31-50" (3.28) differed from those of "under 20" (4.00). Differences were also found for "ideal_leader19" (Understanding) (.035) with groups of "31-50" (5.06) and "20-30" (5.11) being less happy, compared with those with "over 51" in the team (5.71).

Leader ANOVA Test Results – Experience

The experience of leaders was used to check for differences of leader opinions. Leaders with experience of "over 15 years" (4.74) returned lower means than those with "10-15" years' experience (5.26) for the area "manager_char7" (Absent when needed) (p .027). This area has appeared before in the results above. It is

also of note that leaders with "over 15 years" experience had lower means (4.59) for "manager_char27" (consider individuals) (p .034).

Leader ANOVA Test Results – Position

With respect to the leader's position the area of "mot_10" (let them challenge for promotion) (p .007), found that both "Rector and Vice rector" (4.55) and "Head of section or programme" (4.59) were less happy than the "Head of division or department" (5.20) group. This is possibly a result of the Rectors and Vice-rectors protecting their position, although it could also be a reflection of the hierarchical system that exists in the universities.

Leader ANOVA Test Results – Location

Finally, the study wished to explore if leaders in five different universities had similar or different perceptions of leadership. With regard to "manager_char15" (Spend time teaching) (p .039) the leaders in Yarmouk University (4.68) were not as content as other universities (Philadelphia - 5.19; Mu'tah - 5.24; and Irbid 5.31). Again, with respect to another areas of management, "manager_char22" Mu'tah (4.68) was different from Irbid university (5.38; p .005)). Mu'tah University (4.66) was also significantly different from Irbid University (5.29) for "manager_char25" (direct attention toward those who failure to meet standards) (p .040). Finally, for "manager_char29" (express satisfaction) a significant difference existed (p .037) between Mu'tah University (4.56) and both the University of Jordan (5.08) and Irbid University (5.17). Overall, compared with the other institutions, Mu'tah University emerged as the least content in a number of areas.

5.4. FOLLOWERS' FINDINGS

Data was collected from followers to analyse their perceptions of leader behaviour in their institutions and identify ideal leadership characteristics, suitable for Jordanian universities. Thus, this section addresses the main findings from the followers' questionnaires.

Follower t-test – Gender

The t-test analysis found significant differences between male and female followers in terms of manager characteristics for "manager_char25" (Directs my attention toward failures to meet standards) (p .010). The t-test for this item thus rejected the H0 and accepted H1, which supports that a difference in means between the two variables (male and female) exists. The test found that males rated this area higher than the females, suggesting a higher degree of satisfaction for them.

The t-test results indicate a significant difference between the two variables (male and female) (p .002) when tested with "manager_char35" (dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures effective), males were found to have higher mean of satisfaction with their leaders in this question than did females. The t-test also found that "mot_16" (My leader gives me the chance to decide how to carry out work) showed significant differences between males and females (p .019), with females feeling more motivated. Males were more motivated with respect to "mot_21" (My leader gives me recognition of my skills and competencies) (p .000). No further differences were found in the other motivation factors, which indicates that, overall, the impact of gender on motivation is not strong.

In regards to satisfaction factors, three significant differences were found between males and females. In "sat_2" (The freedom to choose my own method of working) (p .010) suggested that males were more satisfied than female followers. Similarly, in "sat_13" (The amount of variety in your job) (p .049),

females (4.75) were found to be more content than males (4.94). Conversely, for "sat_21" (Overall, how satisfied do you feel about your job as a whole) (p .391), males (4.60) were more content than the female followers (4.01), which, in a general way, indicates the higher overall satisfaction of male followers.

With regards to trust, significant differences were found for four areas, being "trust_1" (How confident are you that your manager will always treat you fairly) (p .026), "trust_3" (Do you believe that your manager is honest with his/her followers) (p .032), "trust_5" (Do you believe that your leader will stand up for you in any emergency) (p .009) and "trust_8" (Does your manager treat you or any of your group according to family background) (p .034). For all four areas female followers showed a higher degree of trust than males: "trust_1" (f 5.08, m 4.87); "trust_3" (f 4.98, m 4.79); "trust_5" (f 5.05, m 4.80) and "trust_8" (f 4.28, m 3.95). Clearly, female followers have a higher level of trust in their leaders than do males.

When looking at ideal characteristics five areas of differences were found ("ideal_leader_1" (Energetic) (p .027); "ideal_leader_2" (Educated) p .029; "ideal_leader7" (Intelligent) p .029;, "ideal_leader12" (Sincere) p .008 and "ideal_leader15" (Clever) p .011. In each case male followers showed a stronger preference for the characteristics than did the females, which suggests their preference for an energetic leader, who is educated and sincere.

Finally, in relation to an "ideal_leader19" (Understanding), (p .043), it is apparent that male followers had a greater wish for an 'understanding' leader than females.

Overall, the results of t-test for gender and leadership variables provide a variation in findings, although overall, it appears that the female followers are not as content as their male counterparts.

Follower ANOVA Test Results

Follower ANOVA Test Results – Age

An ANOVA test was used to differentiate between age and the dependent variables. With respect to "manager_char16" (makes clear what I can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved) (p .034), the "over 46" group (4.92) were not as convinced as the younger groups of "25-35" (5.29) and "under 25" (5.29). Thus, H0 is rejected (which indicates no difference) and H1 accepted, which implies that there are significant statistical differences between age groups.

Significant differences were also found for "manager_char28" (Gets me to look at problems from many different angles) (p .047), wherein the "under 25" (5.29) and "25-35" (5.29) groups had higher means than the "over 46" (4.92) group.

The other significant factor for age was "sat_4" (The recognition you get from your leader for good work) (p .009). The age group of "under 25" (4.61) differed from the "36-45" (5.01) and "over 46" (4.98) age groups, in that they were less supportive. The last area for age refers to "trust_4" (Do you believe in the truthfulness of your leader) (p .014), with the "20-30" age group returning a higher mean (5.24) than the other groups. Overall, there is a mix of results, although the younger followers "under 25" have less agreement on the level of trustfulness of their leaders (mean, 4.90); the older groups of followers have even lower agreements on trust for their leaders, "over 51" (4.88) "31-50" (4.76).

Follower ANOVA Test Results – Position

Differences were sought according to the position of the followers, with two areas being reported with respect to characteristics. Whilst "manager_char3" (fails to interfere until problems become serious) was significant (p .040), neither of the post hoc Tukey or Duncan tests were able to differentiate between the sub-groups at 0.05. The "manager_char12" (waits for things to go wrong before taking

action) showed a significant difference (p .027) between the "other" (4.45) and "administration" category (4.92).

In terms of satisfaction factors, two key differences were found. For "sat_8" (The relationship between you and your leaders) (p .030) the "other" category was found to differ from the remaining three. In looking at the area of "sat_17" (Your leader's decision making capabilities) (p .018), "research staff" deferred from "other" positions, with there being no significant differences between "teaching staff" and "administration" positions. This last result indicates that, in terms of satisfaction, the lecturers and administrators are of a similar mind.

Finally, one difference was found for trust. In "trust_4" (Do you believe in the truthfulness of your leader) (p .020) the "administration" group returned a significantly higher mean (5.10) than the "other" group (4.66).

It is of note that no differences were found between position and motivation, which suggests that followers have similar views on motivation, regardless of their position or work.

Follower ANOVA test results – Education Level

The research classified four types of followers according to their education level: A level or under, bachelors, masters, and PhD. This section highlights the significant differences educational level. In terms of characteristics "manager_char5" (avoids getting involved when important issues arise) (p .043), the "Doctoral" group was less content (4.76) than the "masters" group (5.08). Another characteristic referred to "manager_char18" (Treat me as an individual rather than just a member of a group) (p .031), wherein the "Doctoral" group (4.78) were joined by the "A level or under" group (4.79) to report a lower mean than "masters" respondents (5.08). This result is rather confusing and, in the first instance, difficult to explain, although as the result stands it suggests that

doctoral and A level employees wish to be treated more as team members, than do the masters employees.

In addition, the "manager_char33" (Improves my strengths) significantly differed according to education levels (p .022), and highlighted that the "A level or under" group (4.74) were less ambitious that those from the "masters" group (5.06).

Followers with different education level had differing views on motivation. The "mot_7" (My leader encourages me to work with ethical standards) (p .029), showed that the "PhD" group (4.81) were less concerned with ethical standards than the "bachelor" group (5.16), although no differences were found for the "masters" and "A level or under" groups.

The area of satisfaction returned three differences for educational level, which related to recognition and relationships. Concerning recognition "sat_4" (The recognition you get from your leader for good work) and "sat_19" (Your leader's recognition of your contribution) the probabilities were p .018 and p .043, respectively. For relationships "sat_8" (The relationship between you and your leaders) the probability was p .040. For the recognition aspect, those with a "bachelor" degree (4.66), "A level or under" (4.68) and a "masters" (4.71) sought less responsibility that the "PhD" (5.03) group. However, the Duncan test indicated that these differences were .849 and .991 respectively. The Duncan test also explained that the mean for "masters" (3.76) differed from the mean of both "bachelor" (4.28) and "PhD or over" (4.30). However, the difference between the groups saw the Duncan test give the significant values as .223 and .304 correspondingly.

Follower ANOVA Test Results – Location

As the research tested five different universities in Jordan the level of, and differences in, follower perceptions would provide important data for

comparisons. However, ANOVA found only one significant area, which was for the "manager_char25" (Directs my attention toward failures to meet standards), (p .045). Philadelphia University (4.38) and the University of Jordan (4.39) had similar means, which were significantly lower than the result from Irbid University (4.72).

Overall, however, no other differences between the universities were found. Thus, with respect to manager characteristics, or the other variables, such as satisfaction, motivation and trust, there is a high degree of consensus amongst the followers, regardless of their university location.

5.5. VARIABLES OF MOTIVATION, JOB SATISFACTION AND TRUST – LEADERS AND FOLLOWERS

This next section highlights key differences between followers and leaders, in relation to manager characteristics, motivation, satisfaction, trust and the ideal leader. In exploring the leader and follower perceptions, t--tests are used to highlight any differences.

Leader Characteristics

The characteristics referred to the actual behaviour that managers adopted, which showed a large variation between followers and leaders. With respect to "manager_char2" (re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate) (p .004) the findings showed that the followers (5.15) wished their managers to re-examine, although the managers were less convinced (4.91). However, for "manager_char3" (fails to interfere until problems become serious) (p .000), leaders (5.20) felt more strongly than the followers (4.69). Similarly, for "manager_char4" (focuses attention on irregularities mistakes, exceptions and deviations from standards) (p .000), the followers (4.53) were not in agreement with the leaders (5.01) on the focus of deviations.

In the area of optimism "manager_char9" (Talks optimistically about the future) (p .001), the leaders (5.01) had greater confidence in the future, than the followers (4.81). The trend of leaders agreeing more than followers can also be seen in three areas concerning pride, purpose and performance: "manager_char10" (instils pride in me for being associated with him/her) (p .040); "manager_char11" (discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets) (p .028); and "manager_char14" (specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose) (p .013).

Differences were also found for self-interest, mistakes, vision, standards and avoiding decisions, again with the leaders rating these areas higher than their followers: "manager_char17" (goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group) (p .001); "manager_char22" (keep track of all mistakes) (p .001); "manager_char24" (articulate a compelling vision of the future) (p. .000); "manager_char25" (direct attention toward those who failure to meet standards) (p .000); "manager_char26" (avoid making decisions alone) (p .002). However, with respect to addressing problems ("manager_char28" (gets me to look at problems from many different angles) (p .000), the followers (5.21) felt it was more important than their leaders (4.77) to do this.

It is clear that, overall the leaders rated their performance more highly than their followers, which was the case for the areas of interference, collectiveness, developing strengths and dealing with mistakes: ("manager_char31" (Shows his belief that "If it isn't broke, don't fix it.") (p .002); "manager_char32" (emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of mission) (p .009); "manager_char33" (Improves my strengths) (p .000), and "manager_char35" (Always focuses on my mistakes, complaints and failures) (p .000).

Motivation

Motivation forms one of the main variables under investigation in the current research and it is important to highlight any difference between how the leaders and followers are motivated. The first significant difference was found for "mot_1" (make them busy all the times) (p .000), with the followers (4.75) wishing to be kept busier than the leaders (4.18), with a similar difference being seen for "mot_2" (provides me with new challenges to achieve objectives) (p .000) and "mot_3" (put them in a competitive environment) (p .000). Here the followers are seeking greater challenges and competition than their leaders. However, with respect to "mot_4" (make me fear failure at work) (p .006), the followers (4.53) appeared to welcome the pressure of failure more than their leaders (4.20), which may match with their views on a more competitive environment and being kept busy.

Despite the challenges sought by followers, when it came to controlling their work "mot_5" (make me exercising control over other people) (p .002), the followers seemed to want to set the challenges (4.63) more than their leaders (4.27). Again, with respect to how the followers do their work, they sought greater flexibility and creativeness than their leaders seemed to give them "mot_8" (gives me some chance to be creative) (p .000); "mot_9" (give me flexibility in my working conditions) (p .000)). With this in mind, it seems strange that the followers wish to be put under pressure "mot_11" (put me under pressure to work harder) (p .000), although, more so than their leaders, they are motivated by working ethically and gaining recognition for their work "mot_6" (My leader provides me a recognition for my efforts) (p .070); "mot_7" (encourage me to work in accordance with ethical standards) (p .000).

The leaders (5.11) felt that working together as a team "mot_12" (make them work as a team, not individually) (p .000), was more motivating than did the followers (4.73). The followers (3.99) were also less convinced of the opportunity to supervise "mot_13" (encourage me to operate as part of a team, rather than as an individual contributor) (p .000), than their leaders (4.96).

Other areas of motivational difference, where the leaders felt that motivation was higher, concerned freedom of work and new skills "mot_16" (give me the chance to decide how to carry out work) (p .000); "mot_17" (Encourage them develop new knowledge and skills) (p .001). The followers (4.74) accept the authority of the leader (3.33), with regards to performance "mot_18" (challenge them physically if they make mistakes) (p .000), whilst leaders (4.93) felt it was motivating to remind their followers (4.72), of past successes "mot_19", (remind them of previous jobs that have been successful) (p .020).

Finally, the followers were more motivated by the areas of appreciation and recognition "mot_20" (let them know that their work is appreciated) (p .000) "mot_21" (give them recognition of their skills and competencies) (p .000). Indeed, within the area of motivation, there are a large number of differences between the leaders and followers, which is likely to cause confusion and ineffectiveness in the universities.

Job Satisfaction

Concerning Job satisfaction, thirteen differences were found and for all of these, followers were in greater agreement than their leaders. The first area referred to "sat_1" (good physical work conditions) (p .000), with the followers' mean (4.14) being higher than the leaders (4.77). Areas that can bring job satisfaction relate to colleagues "sat_3" colleagues in the team) (p .000), recognition "sat_4" recognition of their good work) (p .005) and "sat_5" (their immediate boss) (p .000). The following areas equally have an impact on job satisfaction, with significant differences being shown between leaders and followers: "sat_6 "the degree of responsibility given to do their job) (p .002); "sat_7" (their salary) (p .000); "sat_8" (the relations between leaders and followers) (p .011); "sat_9" (their chances of promotion) (p .027); "sat_10" (the way the institution is managed) (p .000); "sat_11" (the attention paid to suggestions they make) (p .000); "sat_12" (the hours they work) (p .000); "sat_13" (The amount of variety in your job) (p

.000); "sat_14" (their job security) (p .000); "sat_15" (the degree to which the leader works with others) (p .019) and "sat_16" (the way their leader handles the team members) (p .000). A number of these areas relate to motivation and it is clear that motivation and job satisfaction are often related. It is also important to note that the followers rated all areas higher than the leaders so, for example, good relations, recognition of work, salary and the hours they work, tend to increase job satisfaction.

Trust

The area of trust equally found differences between leaders and followers. The first significant finding was related to showing loyalty at work: "trust_2" - p .000, with followers (5.17) rating this as being more important than did their leaders (4.70). Followers were also more positive on the areas of trust relating to honesty, true fullness and providing help: "trust_3" (honest with employee in promises – p .005; "trust_4" (truthful when speak – p .038) and "trust_5" (give the help needed - p .003). It is of note that the area of trust did not result in as large a difference between followers and leaders, than did job satisfaction and motivation.

5.6. CHARACTERISTICS OF AN "IDEAL" LEADER

This part of the findings discusses the differences with respect to how the leaders and followers viewed the ideal characteristics of a leader. Followers (5.64) felt more that their leaders (5.23) that an ideal leader should be energetic ("ideal_leader_1" (Energetic - p .000). Similar results were found for an Educated ("ideal_leader2" - p .046), Intelligent ("ideal_leader7" - p .001) and Enthusiastic ("ideal_leader8" - p .000) leader. However, with respect to being helpful ("ideal_leader10" - p .001), the leaders (3.87) supported this area more than the followers (3.45), although the overall mean is not strong.

Followers also preferred a leader who was motivated ("ideal_leader11" - p .000) (followers 5.61 and leaders 4.93) and sincere ("ideal_leader12" - p .024) (followers 5.60 and leaders 5.39). Not quite in keeping with the current notion of a strong 'silent' leader the followers (4.52) preferred, more than their leaders (3.89), for an ideal leader to be loud ("ideal_leader13" - p .000).

The t-test also found significant results for "ideal_leader16" (Obnoxious – p .000), "ideal_leader17" (Dedicated – p .000) and "ideal_leader18" (Pushy – p .000). Rather strangely, for these areas, two of which appear negative, followers rated these areas in an ideal leader. Similarly, in the negative area of a leader being manipulative ("ideal_leader20" - p .000) followers (2.66) agreed more that leaders (1.74), although the overall mean for both was low.

With respect to seeking a leader who is understanding ("ideal_leader19"), the followers (mean, 5.55) felt this was a more important characteristic than did their leaders (mean, 5.35). Indeed, overall, the followers sought what could be viewed as a more "moral" leader, although it is of note that a minority of respondents sought did not follow this line.

In addition to the individual leader characteristics desired, participants were asked to indicate their preferences for situational and leader characteristics that they felt were important for the areas of motivation, job satisfaction and trust. "Personal principles", "progression on job position" and "personal growth" were considered the top three ranked areas with regards to motivation. The situational characteristics identified as least likely to motivate referred to the "commercial outlook", "Competition with colleagues" and the "Level of activity".

Ranking in the area of job satisfaction placed "Job security", "Levels of responsibility" and "Choosing ways of working" as the three most desirable items, with the "Hours of work" and "Taking part in making decisions" being the

situational characteristics considered of least importance. Here, it appears that being involved in decision-making is not a strong area associated with job satisfaction. Finally, "Fair treatment from your manager" was considered the most important leader characteristic in the area of trust, with "Standing by you in an emergency" being ranked last of the six items.

5.7. GROUPED FINDINGS FOR TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP AND MOTIVATION, JOB SATISFACTION AND TRUST

In this final section, the key findings between the different leadership styles of Transformational leadership are explored, including the main sub-factors of the theory (Idealized Behaviours (IB), Inspirational Motivation (IM), Individual Consideration (IC), Intellectual Stimulation (IS) and Idealized Attributes (IA), Contingent Reward (CR), Management-by-exception: active (MBEA), Management-by-exception: Passive (MBEP). The focus is on the areas of motivation, job satisfaction, trust and ideal leader characteristics as a whole.

With respect to transformational leadership styles, all showed significant differences between leaders mean and followers'. "IA" returned a significant p-value (p .001), with followers (4.71) not being as keen as the leaders (4.97). There were also significant differences for the "IB" factor (leaders 4.98, followers 4.84) and the factors of "IM" (p .001), "IS" (p .001) and "IC" (p .002). While the group of "IM" and "IC" showed a stronger preference for leaders than followers, the followers (5.17) preferred the "IS" factor more than leaders (4.99). With respect to transactional leadership factors, leaders (5.00) showed greater support than followers (4.52) for "MBEA" (p .000), with there being similar findings for "MBEP" (p .000) (leaders 4.98, followers 4.72).

Taking the motivation responses as a whole, the followers (4.69) rated this area higher (p .000) than the leaders (4.33). Similarly, results (p .000) were found for

job satisfaction (followers 4.56, leaders 4.22). With respect to the overall "trust" group of responses (p .008), this again showed stronger support from followers (4.85) than their leaders (4.68). However, within the overall group of ideal leader characteristics leaders (4.99) reported significantly higher means (p .000) than their followers (4.83).

5.8. SUMMARY

This chapter has highlighted the significant differences between the groups, using the independent variables of gender, age, education, experience, team size and location, for both the leaders and followers. Significant differences in manager characteristics and motivation, satisfaction and trust has also been explored and reported. Significant differences between leaders and followers and the different leadership styles were found, which lead into the following chapter, where the research objectives and leader characteristics in Jordanian universities, are discussed.

CHAPTER SIX – DISCUSSION

The theoretical framework of the current study, which was introduced in the previous chapters, related to the transformational and transactional leadership characteristics and their effect on employee motivation, job satisfaction and trust in universities of Jordan. Consideration was given to the difference between leaders' and followers opinions and the differentiation between the private and public universities in Jordan. Hence, the purpose of this study was to examine, empirically, the relationships of transformational/transactional leadership with the concepts of motivation, satisfaction and trust in Jordanian universities. More precisely, the study used four key research objectives to investigate the phenomena and these form the framework of this discussion chapter.

6.1. TRANSFORMATIONAL AND TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP STYLES – FOLLOWERS' VIEW

Overview

The first of the research objectives referred to a critical analysis of transformational and transactional leadership, from a followers perspective. Before proceeding, a broad overview of the theoretical underpinning is presented. Building on the earlier work by Burns' (1978), Bass (1985) and Bass and Avolio (1997), transformational leadership is considered to be one of the most powerful theories and remains the preferred choice for a number of leaders and researchers. According to Bass and Avolio (1997) there are three main styles of leadership, the first being transformational leadership, which embraces the five factors of Idealized Attribution (IA), Idealized Behaviour (IB), Inspirational

Motivation (IM), Intellectual Stimulation (IS), and Individualized Consideration (IC) (Humphreys and Einstein, 2003).

In contrast to transformational leadership, is the transactional leadership style, which is predominately based on contingent reinforcement. The central characteristics of transactional leadership are; Contingent Reward (CR), Management-by-Exception Passive (MBEP), and Management-by-Exception Active (MBEA). The final leadership behaviour is Laissez-faire, which is normally referred to as non-leadership, because this type of leader avoids decision making, clarifying expectation or addressing conflict.

Many of the previous studies (Medley and Larochelle, 1995; Ingram, 1997; Abu-Tayeh and Al Khawaldeh, 2004; Ahmad, 2009) demonstrate that, when compared with transactional and Laissez-faire leadership, transformational leadership shows a high positive correlation with variables such as motivation, trust, job satisfaction and increased effort and effectiveness. Although the standard questionnaire used to measure these types of leadership is the "Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire" (MLQ 5x) which was developed by Bass and Avolio (1997), a number of criticisms have been raised (Northouse, 1997; Yukl, 1999; Charbonneau, 2004). Tepper and Percy (1994) criticise the structural validity of the MLQ, which is supported by Kelloway et al., (2000), who found a strong correlation between transformational leadership factors. Yammarino and Dubinsky (1994) also reported a strong correlation amongst the transformational factors, with a high loading of the items on a single transformational scale. However, Den Hartog et al., (1997) discovered mixed results when they tried to study the overall leadership styles of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire.

Another criticism focused on the qualities of MLQ, following a study by Tepper and Percy (1994). They examined the quality of the MLQ using positive analyses at the item and scale levels, with two independent samples. Whilst the results of the first sample showed no particular fit, the second sample, which was focused

on the convergent and discriminant validity of the dimensions, identified three factors which were valid; Idealized Influence, Inspirational Motivation, and Contingent Reward. Thus, whilst not conclusive, these three elements can be considered of greater importance in any analysis

Finally, Lowe et al., (1996) and Leong and Fischer (2011) investigated the structure of the transformational leadership factors, using a high-order confirmatory factor analysis and found that second-order transformational factors were confirmed by their data. Thus, it can be concluded that the MLQ is more complicated than it might at first seem. Despite the criticism of the MLQ, which still retains some mysteries for researchers, it is considered to be one of the best instruments for measuring the type of leadership present (Kirkbride, 2006).

Applicability of Transactional and Transformational Leadership in Jordanian Universities

The first research objective concerned the situation in Jordanian universities and the varying perspectives that were held by different stakeholders, specifically, managers and followers. An important difference between a manager and leader is that leadership is invariably linked with the strategic element and a clear view of the organization's vision. Leaders also deal with their followers' behaviours, rather than just giving commands, in an endeavour to achieve the vision for their organization (Maslin-Wicks, 2007). However, there are many ways these leaders can achieve their goals, including the leadership style they adopt. The different type of leadership has its own beliefs in accordance to how it deals with followers to achieve the success criteria. Accordingly, this section examines the different styles of leadership which exist within the Jordanian higher education institutions, focusing mainly on the typologies of transformational and transactional leadership.

Although Jordan is part of the Middle East region; it has some specific cultural aspects which differ from other Arab countries (Awamleh and Al-Dmour, 2005).

Thus, the discussion focuses on how the Jordanian culture can be reflected in higher education and the links with the various leadership styles within its educational institutions. In addition to addressing how the leader's version of reality varies from that of their followers, the contrasting views between leaders and followers enters the discussion.

Transformational Leadership Styles – Followers and Leaders

With respect to leadership styles, the highest ranked elements were associated with the transformational style. Of particular importance were Intellectual Stimulation (IS), Individual Consideration (IC), Idealized Behaviours (IB) and Inspirational Motivation (IM). Conversely, Idealized Attribute (IA) was considered least important, being ranked at the lower end. However, whilst followers ranked Intellectual stimulation as the most preferred leadership style, the leaders identified Individual Consideration as the style most currently in existence within the universities.

Leaders who are high on Intellectual Stimulation tend to encourage their followers to be creative and look at problems from different angles. They also encourage followers to align their own value and beliefs with those of the organization (Bass and Avolio, 1997). The survey explored the concept of Intellectual Stimulation through four questions:

- re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate (manager_char2)
- seek differing perspectives when solving problems (manager_char8)
- gets others to look at problems from different angles (manager_char28)
- suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments (manager_char34)

The IS element of transformational leadership received the highest mean, showing that it was valued by followers in Jordanian universities. This suggests a strong consensus across all the five universities studied. Conversely, the leaders felt that IS was less important. In particular the question which referred to getting

others to look at problems from different angles (manager_char28) showed a higher mean for followers (5.21) than leaders (4.77). With respect to re-examining assumptions (manager_char2), again, a significantly higher mean (p .004) was returned by the followers (5.15) than the leaders (4.91). The result is not dissimilar to the findings of Ali and Sabri (2001) who studied a sample of 240 employees from education and industrial sectors. More specifically, they found that Jordanian culture can increase satisfaction by encouraging employees to use their thinking to solve problems. Thus, it is not unsurprising that the followers sought high levels of stimulation from their leaders. This enthusiasm may also be accounted for by the followers being naturally ambitious and wishing to strive, achieve and self-actualise in a wider sense.

Individual Consideration (IC) was the second transformational leadership factor which followers sought within the universities. Individual Consideration measures the leader's level of interest in their followers, rather than just the work relationship. That is, leaders pay attention to isolated individuals within the group. This factor was explored through four key questions:

- spend time teaching and coaching my followers (manager_char15)
- treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group (manager_char18)
- consider individuals have different needs and aspirations from others (manager_char27)
- help others to develop their strengths (manager_char33)

Although the IC style of transformational leadership has been identified as the second leadership factor in the target organizations, there are variations. Whereas followers placed this factor second (4.91) the leaders saw this as their top priority (5.09).Key differences for individual questions were also found. A statistically significantly difference (p .001) was found with respect to helping others to develop their strengths (manager_char33), with a follower mean of 4.89 and a leader mean of 5.2. What is happening here is that the managers feel they are helping followers more than they perceive. That is, the leaders feel that helping others is important, yet whilst it is considered high on the followers' agenda, there is a mismatch between reality and perceptions. In their study of the

Malaysian industry, using1400 workers from food, manufacturing and construction, Avolio et al., (2003) identified the importance of IC. Having asked respondents to evaluate their leaders' interest in them as individuals, alongside their level of satisfaction with their leaders, the authors found that when leaders had a high interest in individuals, those individuals were more satisfied.

There appears to be a 'feel fair' aspect of this element, in that when an individual's views are genuinely sought, then they are likely to feel more valued and hence satisfied. Indeed, in a study on transformational leadership in Jordanian banks, Awamleh and Al-Dmour (2005) found that the use of Individual Consideration is more likely to enhance the followers' level of satisfaction and trust, which will be returned to later in this chapter.

The factor of transformational leadership referred to as Idealized Behaviour concerns the level of trust a leaders builds with his or her followers. More importantly, it refers to leader behaviours that improve their followers' inspiration and identify with their dreams and aspirations. Four questions were used to explore Idealized Behaviour:

- talk to my employees about my most important values and beliefs (manager_char6)
- specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose (manager_char14)
- show consideration for the moral consequences of my decisions (manager_char21)
- emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of mission (manager_char32)

Within this transformational leadership factor, two questions showed significant differences between leaders and followers. First, with respect to having a strong sense of purpose (manager_char14), followers had a significantly lower threshold of 4.77 than managers 4.97 (p .010). In the second area, followers equally had a significantly lower score (4.74) than managers (4.95), with respect to emphasising the importance of having a collective sense of mission (manager_char32 p .009). The statistical differences in these two areas have not been identified in previous studies, although it is possible to offer some

explanations. Whilst, overall, the means for Idealized Behaviour were third and fifth respectively for followers and leaders, the specific differences indicate that followers are seeking a strong sense of purpose and collective mission. There also a cultural element, in that the followers view leaders as more authoritarian and therefore look to them to provide a coherent vision, although this would run contrary to the followers desiring a greater degree of freedom with respect to creativity, identified under intellectual stimulation.

Inspirational Motivation measures the level of vision provided by the leader, which helps followers to focus on their work and feel it is important. The following four areas were used to test out this transformational leadership factor:

- talk optimistically about the future (manager_char9)
- talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished (manager_char13)
- articulate a compelling vision of the future (manager_char24)
- express confidence that goals will be achieved (manager_char30)

Although, overall, the factor of Inspirational Motivation was ranked fourth in the transformational leadership, differences existed, in that the managers identified a number of transactional leadership factors above this. There were also significant statistical differences within specific areas. As might be expected, given the cultural aspect of leader dominance (manager_char9), the leaders were more positive (5.01) when talking optimistically about the future, than their followers (4.74). A similarly understandable significant difference is seen with respect to articulating a compelling vision of the future (manager_char24; 4.83 and 5.20). Whilst understandable, these results are important as they suggest that followers feel that they lack a certain degree of importance in the workplace. Difference in leadership factors have been studied previously. Talal (2011), who investigated leadership styles and work motivation from a cross-cultural perspective, found that the transformational leadership model has the ability to use the institution's vision and goals to increase follower motivation. Whilst this may be the aspiration in the universities the message is not necessarily being conveyed strongly to the followers. However, it may be the makeup of the managers, rather than their behaviour. Alan, et al., (2003), who studied the effect of leadership on motivation

and performance across international marketing channels, found that transformational leadership style was identified as the most effective by the employees. Specifically, they found that those leaders with a transformational leadership personality used the team's goals and objectives as a tool with which to motivate their followers. Caution is needed and the study spans the countries of USA, Finland and Poland, and might not be applicable across borders.

The final area of transformational leadership, Idealized Attribution, was ranked second lowest by both leaders and followers. The factor refers to the level of trust leaders build with their followers and how leaders maintain their faith and respect. Four questions were used in the questionnaire to explore the concept:

- Instil pride in them for being associated with me (manager_char10)
- Go beyond self-interest for the good of the group (manager_char17)
- Act in ways that build others' respect for me (manager_char20)
- Display a sense of I in others (manager_char23)

The low ranking of this factor of transformational leadership suggests that there might not be a high level of trust in Jordanian universities, although this aspect will be discussed in greater detail later in the chapter. Within the area, two significant differences were found between the followers and leaders, with followers returning a lower score on both occasions. With regard to leaders instilling pride in their followers and making them proud to be associated with them (manager_char10) it appears that they do not live up to follower expectations (p .04). A similar result is found for leaders going beyond self-interest for the good of the group (manager_char17: p .001). The indications are that although the leaders believe in their ability to build trust with their followers, they have not reached the level of followers' satisfaction. In relation to the important area of trust, this aspect is likely to impact negatively on the higher education institutions in Jordan. A low return for Idealized Attribution was not found in a previous study into Jordan's petroleum industry (Abu-Tayeh and Al Khawaldeh, 2001). Indeed, for the 700 leaders and followers surveyed, a high level of trust was apparent. The work has parallels to the current study as it investigated transformational leadership. However, their findings that Idealized Attribution had a positive effect on the level of trust between leaders and their

followers, was not found in Jordanian universities. It is of note that Abu-Tayeh and Al Khawaldeh found that followers were willing to increase the level of trust further, but that they required a degree of action from their leaders. Trust is a reciprocal concept, although a greater responsibility is placed on the leader to initiate the process. It is not easy to explain the differences between the study done by Abu-Tayeh and Al Khawaldeh and the situation in Jordanian universities, but it may be that employees in the petroleum industry operate on a different level than followers in higher educational institutions.

Transactional Leadership Styles – Followers and Leaders

Whilst transformational leadership has a key place in the model, transactional leadership, with its reward mechanisms, equally has a part to play. Indeed, in less democratic or authoritarian settings, the process can bring benefits. It is also noted that the form of giving contingent reward can be beneficial in motivating workers to increase the effort they make.

In transactional leadership terms, Contingent Reward measures the extent to which leaders make rules about rewarding followers and gaining their commitment to achieving the goals set for them. Four questions were used to evaluate the Contingent Reward factor of transactional leadership:

- provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts (manager_char1)
- discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets (manager_char11)
- make clear what followers can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved (manager_char16)
- express satisfaction when others meet expectations (manager_char29)

Contingency Reward is concerned with the clarity and fairness of the rules surrounding a specific reward, along with the commitments that this generates in followers. Within the transactional model contingent reward was placed highest and within the follower ranking it came fourth overall. This indicates a desire of

followers to be rewarded for their efforts and have clear parameters of how to achieve their goals. Conversely, the leaders rated this bottom of all the eight transformational/transactional factors, which suggests that they aspire to transformational leadership. Whilst this may be an aspiration, it is not necessarily borne out by reality, at least in the eyes of the followers. There was one significant difference between the followers and leaders, with respect to the discussion of who was responsible for achieving performance targets (manager_char11: p .028). However, the overall mean did not a show strong agreement with the area, as both followers and leaders rated this area low. It is important for both followers and leaders to fully understand what is required of them, which is clearly not happening in the universities. To increase their effectiveness, leaders will need to firmly outline the rules which are to be followed, although there maybe something within the university system which is preventing this from happening.

In addition to Contingent Reward there are two additional factors in the transactional leadership model: Passive Management-by-Exception (MBEP) and Active Management-by-Exception (MBEA). Passive Management-by-Exception concerns how clearly the job requirement is explained to the followers, but it is different from Contingency Reward in that it suggests how the leader is more passive and reactive. Thus, the leader does not respond to situations and problems systematically or immediately. The following areas were used to evaluate this factor of transactional leadership:

- Fail to interfere until problems become serious (manager_char3)
- Wait for things to go wrong before taking action (manager_char12)
- Treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group (manager_char19)
- Show that I am a firm believer in "If it isn't broke, don't fix it." (manager_char31)

In overall terms, followers ranked MBEP as sixth out of the eight factors, whilst the leaders placed it higher, at fourth. A leader is normally expected to show initiative and step in when a crisis exists, or when he or she needs to. That the followers showed significantly lower means than their managers (4.72 & 4.98) for

their failure to interfere until problems become serious (manager_char3), indicates a degree of disappointment, although the overall score is heartening. In a similar vein, followers showed a lower mean for the area of "If it isn't broke, don't fix it "(manager_char31). A key area of leadership is inspiration (Berson, et al., 2001; Fitzgerald and Schutte, 2010; Kythreotis, et al., 2010) and yet the indications are, that in the universities of Jordan, leaders are using this style of leadership more than the followers expect. Thus, the leaders believe that they have a more passive approach when they lead their teams and it is presumed that they perceive that their followers are accepting of this.

The transactional leadership Management by Exception, Active, required leaders to identify and actively communicate the "standards to follow" in respect to their job requirements. This factor was evaluated using the following areas:

- focus attention on deviations from standards, such as irregularities, mistakes and exceptions "manager_char4"
- keep track of all mistakes "manager_char22"
- direct my attention toward those who failure to meet standards "manager_char25"
- concentrate fully on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures "manager_char35"

Followers ranked this transactional factor as the least preferred approach. Conversely the leaders identified MBEA as the second highest. It is apparent that the leaders saw MBEA as an alternative to transformational leadership, which perhaps fulfilled the defectiveness of the culture. However, the followers, from the same culture were less enthusiastic about the factor, indeed they saw it as the last option. More specifically, for all four areas, followers returned significantly lower scores than their leaders. With respect to keeping track on mistakes (manager_char22) and directing attention toward those who failed to meet standards (manager_char25), this approach failed to convince followers that it was an acceptable form of leadership. Paying attention to any deviations from standards, such as irregularities and mistakes (manager_char4), or an over-emphasis on dealing with mistakes, complaints and failures (manager_char35) was against what followers were seeking in their leaders. The "active" approach

is not readily accepted by the followers, possibly because the leader was not influencing them, rather they were monitoring them as a manager would (Ergeneli, et al., 2007).

6.2. LEADERSHIP STYLES – INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

Having discussed the leader and follower perceptions of transformational leadership theory, attention turns to the second research objective. The aim was to determine if, and the extent to which, independent variables impacted on the perceptions held of leadership in the universities.

Private and Public Universities

Overall, there are no statistically significant differences between the perception of leadership styles within the public and private universities in Jordan. Due to their supposed different culture and ethos, it was felt that differences between university sectors might vary, which prompted the study of three public universities (Yarmouk, Mu'tah and Jordan) and two private universities (Irbid and Philadelphia). These five universities can also be classified according to geographical location, with both the University of Jordan and Philadelphia University being located in the middle of Jordan, whilst Yarmouk and Irbid University are located in the north, and with just one public university being located in the south. Again, geographical location appeared not to affect the way people perceived leadership.

In reviewing the results in a general way, it is apparent that both the public and private universities identified Intellectual Stimulation as the most preferred leadership factor. As might be considered for educational institutions the desire is for leaders who encourage their followers to use creativity in solving problems. In addition, this form of leadership encourages an alignment of individual values and beliefs with those held by the institute. Schneider and George (2011), who

studied leadership styles in voluntary sector organizations, compared the effect of transformational leadership with servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1998) and the satisfaction of employees. They found that transformational leadership is more likely to be effective in a service organization, as employee behaviour is considered to be more controllable by their psychological desires. They argue that these behavioural aspects can increase follower satisfaction and motivation, which aligns with the desire for Intellectual Stimulation in the universities. Schneider and George also found that transformational leadership employs the value elements which helps followers connect with the organization's aims and objectives, thus increasing their satisfaction and performance.

Whilst no overall significant differences existed between universities, some individual differences are apparent between the respondents' answers. The public Yarmouk University had a lower level of Individual Consideration than the other universities. Although Yarmouk University is ranked in the top five universities in Jordan, the result suggests that leaders at the university do not spend sufficient time with their followers. The weakness in Individual Consideration refers to the leaders' interest in their followers and is a crucial element of leadership. Arnold and Loughlin (2010) have studied the impact of Individual Consideration as a factor of transformational leadership, and report that leaders who are characterised as demonstrating Individual Consideration show a clear concern for their individual employees and aim to improve them at every opportunity.

It is also apparent, although not statistically significant, that, with respect to transactional leadership Mu'tah University returned the strongest preference for the Contingent Reward approach. Indeed, overall, Mu'tah University, a public university in the south, has, in comparison with the other universities, the strongest level of transactional leadership. With respect to specific areas, Mu'tah University tends to focus on directing attention toward those who fail to meet standards and on keeping track of all mistakes. This could suggest that leadership in the south of Jordan tends to overload their followers with strict rules for rewarding their commitment. That having been said, it is of note that all

universities placed MBEA as the least preferred form of leadership. Individual differences existed between leaders and followers, and it may be that the followers' preferences are drowning out the voice of the leaders. Nonetheless, this leadership approach needs to be treated with caution.

Leadership Styles – Gender and Age

Other aspects of the study investigated the area of gender, to determine if differing views on leadership were held. The only leadership style that showed a significant different for gender was that of Inspirational Motivation. Whilst being statistically different the margins are not considerable, although it is noted that male respondents favoured Inspirational Motivation less than females. The implication is that males believe providing a vision for their work is less of a concern than that for females. Previous studies have investigated the relationship between leadership and gender, along with the impact of gender on organizational development. Triandad and Nonnore (2004) found that female leaders have a stronger belief in transformational leadership than males, who were more likely to prefer transactional leadership. The current investigation has not found similar gender differences, apart from the Inspirational Motivation factor of transformational leadership, for which women showed a greater preference. The absence of gender differences can be viewed as a positive, as this essentially eliminates this aspect from the leadership dissuasion in Jordanian universities. That is, men and women have broadly similar views on leadership.

Age was also explored as an independent variable. Again, it is apparent that age is not a significant variable in leadership, as no statistically significant differences were found. The groups were divided into four: under 25, between 25-35, between 36-45 and over 46 years of age. Whilst the overall results did not show difference of opinions for age, some differences were found for individual groups. The most notable difference referred to Intellectual Stimulation, with the younger groups, ranging from under 25 to between 25-35 years old, strongly rejecting the invitation to look at problems from many different angles. Oshagbemi (2003), in investigating the influence of age on the leadership styles and behaviours, found that older groups are more likely to prefer transactional leadership, with transformational leadership being more likely to exist within younger age groups.

In the current study, the result might be a statistical anomaly, or it could be that the younger employees are indeed more secure in their intellectual capacity and prefer to be led in a different way than older employees.

In summary, the second objective addressed the level of transformational leadership present in the Jordanian universities and the different perspectives related to this. In some aspects, for example gender and age, there are little differences as to how the employees view leadership, which is valuable, as it eliminates these areas as being of concern. Not unsurprisingly, differences existed between how leaders and followers perceive leadership.

Whilst leadership is important in itself, it is equally important to determine the impact leadership has on followers, particularly with respect to their motivation, job satisfaction and their level of trust. It is to these areas that the discussion now moves.

6.3 LEADERSHIP AND ASPECTS OF MOTIVATION, JOB SATISFACTION AND TRUST

The third research objective concerned three relative variables that were directly affected by leadership: motivation, job satisfaction and trust. In addressing these areas, this section covers the material in three separate blocks. Each block firstly provides a brief overview, which is followed by a discussion of the survey findings and how these relate to the theoretical concept. Finally, the relationship between independent variables and the different forms of leadership are discussed.

6.3.1. Factors of Motivation in Jordanian Higher Education

Motivation at work refers to the level of willingness that followers display to fulfil their job or roles (Pintrich, 2003). Motivation is a critical organizational variable that affects the performance of followers. Thus, if leaders can increase the level

of their followers' motivation, then they can make a greater contribution to team and ultimately organizational performance (Ahmad, 2009). To determine levels of motivation in the universities 22 questions were employed. To obtain a comprehensive overview, a variety of motivational areas were covered, which included the level of activity, challenges, competition, fear of failure, power, recognition, personal principles, progression, or rewards, and position. This section takes these sub areas of motivation and discusses their contribution and connections with leadership.

Two questions were used to measure the "work activity" of individuals and its effects on follower motivation:

- Make them busy all the times (mot_1),
- put them under pressure to work harder (mot_11)

It is of note here, that the 'activity' factor is considered to be a positive motivator, with it being argued that if followers like to be busy and are able to complete work under pressure, then this factor is likely to energise them. Further, it is argued that multi-task jobs would be likely to excite followers.

Differences existed between the view of leaders and followers regarding work activity. Followers more strongly supported the idea of the benefits of high work activity than did their leaders. This suggests that the followers had a strong work ethic and that the lack of recognition of this by their leaders could influence the level of motivation at Jordanian universities. Subsequent discussion with the leaders brought a paternal response. The leaders argued that to overload employees, particularly in the public universities, was considered counterproductive, with the rational being Jordan's large unemployment rate. Unemployment in the Middle East and Government policies force the universities to recruit extra employees, to reduce the national rate. Whilst this is understandable, it appears that the followers in the universities are not satisfying their work ethic.

What is of interest is that the study did not find any relationship between this motivator and the respondents' position, location, or personal characteristics, such as age, experience and educational level. Thus, the result has considerable strength as a coherent response.

Heathfield (2009) found similar results concerning the use of work activity as a motivating factor. He argued that employees with high pressure at work are more motivated than those who had insufficient work. This type of motivation can be classified as "moderately motivating" and is an area that can encourage a greater effort to be made. Not all studies are supportive of the approach; indeed, Swedaan (2009) found that continuous pressure on employees can change the work effect from a motivator to a demotivator. This finding is of particular significance as it referred to Arab employees and confirmed that, for them, additional pressure is not offset by cash rewards. Caution needs to be raised, however, in considering all Arab people as one and it is quite reasonable to consider that followers in Jordan view their work ethic differently.

"Challenge" is considered a factor of motivation that is concerned about the level of achievement followers can attain, which in turn provides an increase in their motivation. Followers who are able to achieve targets normally feel as though they have been challenged, particularly if the work ethic is strong. It is of note that long term targets can, however, turn a challenge into a demotivator. Conversely, straightforward work that is not considered challenging can be very frustrating for employees, which in itself can lead demotivating employees.

The current study suggests that challenges are not used at an appropriate level within the universities. This is in line with Salameh's work (2004), who found that challenges were not a strong feature of leaders in Jordanian ministries. Nonetheless, the followers indicated that, as with work activity, they rated challenges higher than did their leaders. Moreover, no differences were found between the public and private universities. It may be that, as with work activity,

the leaders are in denial, although when pushed they were able to explain the pressures that Government exerted on them and, with over employment, it was difficult to present individual challenges. Nonetheless, it is apparent that followers are being left unsatisfied and possibly demotivated.

"Competition" is one of the major motivators. Previous studies have reported that when leaders use competition in a challenging way, then the performance and motivation of followers is likely to increase dramatically (Herzberg et al., 1959; Hopfl, 2001; Shamir, et al., 1993; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990). Consequently, competition was explored in the questionnaire, through the following areas:

- Put them in a competitive environment (mot_3)
- Make them work as a team (mot_12)

The findings indicate that leaders at Jordanian universities have not exploited this motivator on their followers (put them in a competitive environment), where the mean of followers (4.66) was higher than the mean of their leaders (3.69), which indicates a perceived inappropriate use of competition by followers. Wallis and Dollery (2005), who studied the impact of leadership on the direction of local government reform, argue that a competitive environment in government organizations is unlikely to motivate employees. Indeed, the level of competition at work showed a very weak relationship with the type of leadership styles.

With respect to using teams as motivational tools, the leaders rated this form of motivation (5.11) more highly than their followers (4.73). Thus, it seems that leaders wish to use team challenges, rather than individual challenges, to motivate their followers. For both these areas of competition, no differences were found with respect to experience, age, gender, or even the location of universities, which suggests a strong coherence of view amongst the universities.

The "fear of failure" is often considered a barrier to motivation, which is coupled with a loss of self-esteem. Given the impact this can have, two areas were explored with the respondents:

- Make them fearful of failure (mot_4),
- Challenge them physically if they make mistakes (mot_18)

Not unreasonably, it was found that the followers had a higher fear of failure, when compared with their leaders. However, the leaders do not introduce physical pressures on their employees when mistakes occur, although the area of psychological pressure was not explored. During interview, leaders explained that this type of motivation tool is a "double-edged sword", which can equally discourage followers, by reducing their effort to try, if they feel they are to be ridiculed. Others have argued along similar lines. Lussier and Achua (2010) identified the fear of failure as a major demotivating factor, which leaders should be aware of when setting challenges. They argue that leaders should avoid setting unrealistic objectives, in which followers are unlikely to succeed. The authors also put forward the idea that leaders should provide their followers with sufficient support, so as to give them confidence and deflect the element of failure.

With regards to national culture, one interviewee argued that in Jordanian culture the general notion was for it to be blame-free. Given this cultural dimension, it is clear that the followers' level of motivation could be higher than in other cultures, where fear of failure is not so readily accepted. This contention is supported by Talal (2011), who highlighted that whilst Jordanian people prefer to work with a low prospect of failure, an increase in the fear of failure could lead them to giving up work. This does not sit comfortably with the earlier report that followers sought greater challenges, although the challenges could refer to those that are achievable.

"Employee power", particularly giving control to followers, can be motivational and lead to improved follower performance through greater autonomy, with

Talal,(2011), arguing that a lack of autonomy can lead to individuals being de-motivated. The area of control was explored with the recipients:

- give them some control of their work (mot_5)
- encourage them develop new knowledge and skills (mot_17)

It is apparent that the leaders in Jordanian universities believe that they provide sufficient encouragement for their followers in motivating them to develop new knowledge and skills (4.94). However, the followers take a significantly reduced view (4.66). As there were no differences for gender, age, or location of their universities, the similarity of this finding provides a strong result on which there is broad agreement. It may be that the leaders are over-emphasising the degree of control they allow their followers, for within Jordanian culture it might be more natural for the manager to lead traditionally. Nonetheless, the results suggest that regular close supervision might be irritating to the university followers.

Recognition, which is considered a moderate motivating factor, was tested using three areas:

- give them recognition of their efforts (mot_6),
- let them know that their work is appreciated (mot_20),
- give them recognition of their skills and competencies (mot_21)

Leaders of higher education in Jordan do not seem to use of recognition as a means of increasing follower stimulation. For these three questions, followers had higher means than leaders, which suggests a low awareness of leaders with regards to the importance of recognition as a means of stimulating their followers.

In his Jordanian study, Salameh (2004) found followers to be more motivated by recognition if the leader checked what forms of praise or recognition are most meaningful to followers. Once recognised, leaders need to ensure that they use the appropriate responses to acknowledge good work. However, the interviews

identified that an emphasis on recognition can also bring risks. They argued that whilst recognition and positive feedback can energise and motivate followers, a lack of support can lead to them being de-motivated. Thus, before pursuing this aspect of recognition, the management of higher education institutions need to improve the interpersonal skills of their leaders.

With respect to the independent variables, it is apparent that female followers are more likely to be motivated by recognition than their male counterparts. Leaders need to recognise this as being an element in using interpersonal skills to react to individual needs. Apart from gender, no differences were found between the private or public universities, or between the different age groups, which suggests a consensus of opinion.

The element of "personal principles" is an important factor in improving follower motivation, especially when the goal is to produce a high standard of work. At the same time, there is a risk of individuals being asked to compromise their personal ethical standards, which could lead to de-motivation. Nonetheless, Heathfield (2009) argues that using the personal principles of followers that align with those of the organization is a valuable approach.

- Encourage them to work to ethical standards (mot_7)
- Encourage them to work to personal principles (mot_22)

In exploring the area in the universities, the leaders belief that they encouraged their followers to work ethically (4.93), was not supported by their followers (4.13). Thus, whilst the leaders claim to support the use of ethical standards, followers are less convinced that this would stimulate them to a better performance. Differences were also found in other independent variables, particularly in the area of educational level. Followers with a bachelor's degree were more highly motivated by ethical principles than those who held doctorates. It is not easy to explain this result, yet it may be the case that those with a bachelor's degree are more idealistic in their views and more questioning. Finally, whilst Mehrotra (2005) argues that the use of personal principles are an

influential factor in good leadership, he also discovered that connecting the individual principles with the firms' goals would increase the level of the follower motivation, of which leaders should be acutely aware.

Followers can be encouraged to progress by devolving a degree of "creative power" to them, although for less able followers this might be a demotivating factor (Heathfield, 2009).

- give them room to be creative (mot_8),
- give them flexibility in how they work (mot_9),
- give them a chance to supervise where they can (mot_13),
- let them decide to carry their job (mot_16)

It is apparent from the findings that while followers sought greater chances to be creative at their work, the same cannot be said of their leaders, as little encouragement is given in this direction. It is common in Jordanian culture to state that power can be passed on, but the responsibility remains with the leaders themselves. Thus, it is understandable in the culture, that the leaders who carry the responsibility are reluctant to devolve this. This is especially so if they have little trust in their followers ability to use the devolved power in an appropriate way. In a similar way, the findings suggest that followers have a strong desire to work flexibly, whilst this is not emphasised by the leaders. One explanation is the nature of how a university works, in that they seem to be more rule-bound. However, overall, it can be concluded that no statistically significant differences were found between age groups, experience, location and gender, which again, presents a coherent response.

A strong motivational factor is that of "reward", with the offer of promotions being a popular tool by which leaders can motivate their followers.

- let them challenge for promotion (mot_10)
- reward them with money (Mot_14)

There was a consensus of opinion surrounding promotions, with no differences being found between followers and leaders. Differences were found between team sizes, where the leaders with small teams were less in agreement than larger teams. It is possible that in small teams, the leader can provide alternative motivators than money. That is, in a small team the leader can provide each individual with special treatment, whilst this option is limited in larger teams. Similar results were found by Al Khawaldeh (2006), who reported a positive association between the team size and the opportunities for promotion.

With respect to position, it is apparent that the use of promotion varied according to the position of the leader. Specifically, leaders who held positions as Rectors and Vice-rectors did not see promotion as a motivator (4.55) as much as did the Heads of Division or Departments (5.20). This may be a product of the hierarchical system, where the reduced opportunity at the high level of management lessens its importance as a motivator.

It is apparent that variations exist between leaders and followers as to what motivates individuals. A common consensus is reached on the negative effects associated with the fear of failure, although this does not always sit comfortably with the followers striving for greater challenges in their work. They are also seeking greater control of their work, which is associated with the increased challenges, although again an element of failure might be associated with this, which is not welcome. Opportunities for progression and recognition are sought by followers and need to receive greater recognition by the leaders in the universities. The leaders argue that their actions more closely align to what is expected within the national culture, although they need to accept that the need for recognition by followers is important to satisfying their needs. Having explored the levels of motivation present, the discussion moves to the important area of determining the relationship between leadership styles and motivations.

Relationship between Motivation and Leadership Styles

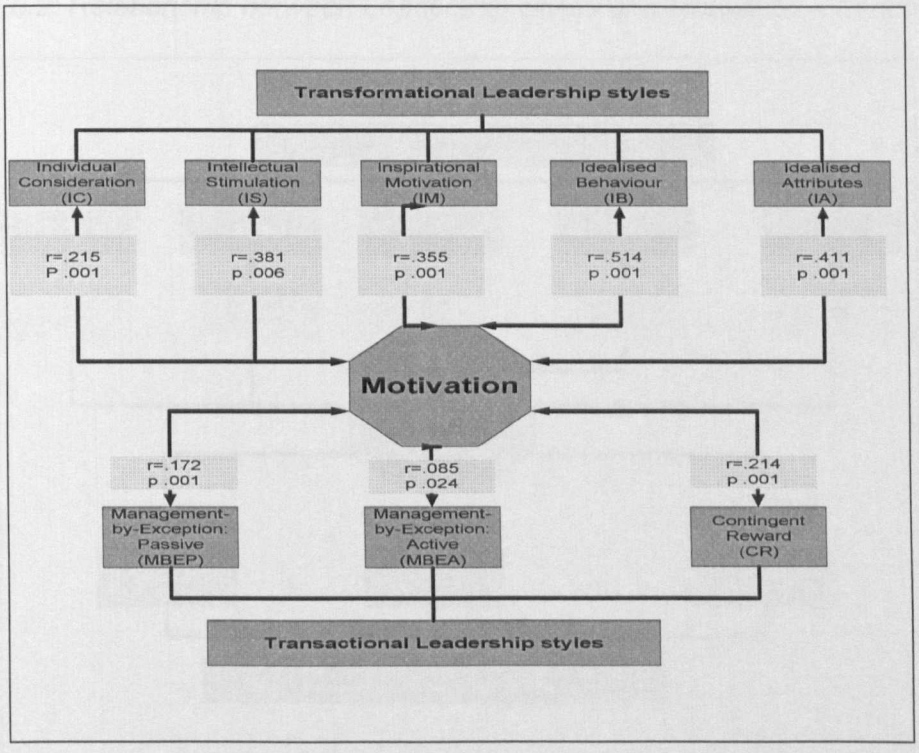
Organizations employ workers and within this process they are led and managed to varying degrees. It is not a person's title that is of concern, but how the person acts or behaves. Whilst some managers take on the role of leadership, others perform more as managers, which negatively affects the motivational levels of their followers. Thus, there are a number of studies supporting the idea that leadership and motivation are linked (Suliman and Al-Sabri, 2009; Heathfield, 2009; Swedaan, 2009; Lee, 2005; Kusku, 2003; Hsu and Mujtaba, 2007; Charbonneau, 2004). Further, an increased existence of leadership characteristics is likely to increase follower motivation (Heathfield, 2009; Swedaan, 2009).

The difference between a manager and leader have been long debated, with some arguing that leader characteristics are not designated, but rather are gifted, possibly from birth (Osseo-Asare, et al., 2007). Such people, it is argued, have a greater ability to motivate their followers, although the style of leadership is also of crucial importance (Charbonneau, 2004). Indeed, Hsu and Mujtaba (2007) argue that the level of leader effectiveness is predominantly dependent on the style of leadership, with each style showing different degrees of motivation. As people are involved, it is difficult to identify one style that fits all situations, which leads Lee (2005) to argue that, as no perfect leadership style exists in the workplace, a leader might equally draw from a mix of transformational and transactional leadership factors.

Previous studies point out a strong correlation between the leadership style and the motivation, but the strength of this correlation depends on a number of factors: particularly the type of leadership (Al-Mailam, 2004; Waite, 2008; Tosi et al., 2000; and Mullins, 2009), and the leadership environment (Kythreotis et al., 2010; Yiing et al., 2009; Chang and Lee, 2007). The current research focuses on transformational and transactional leadership in a university environment and the rest of this section is devoted to discussing the relationship between a leader's styles and the motivation of their employees.

To assess the relationship, correlation tests were used to produce the statistical outcomes. Figure 6.1 outlines the overall relationship between leadership styles and motivation at Jordanian universities. Of equal interest are the significant differences between leaders and followers with respect to leadership style and motivation, with the followers generally showing a higher level of correlation (Fig. 6.2 Leaders & Fig. 6.3 Followers).

Figure 6.1: Relationship between Leadership Styles and Motivation – Overall Review

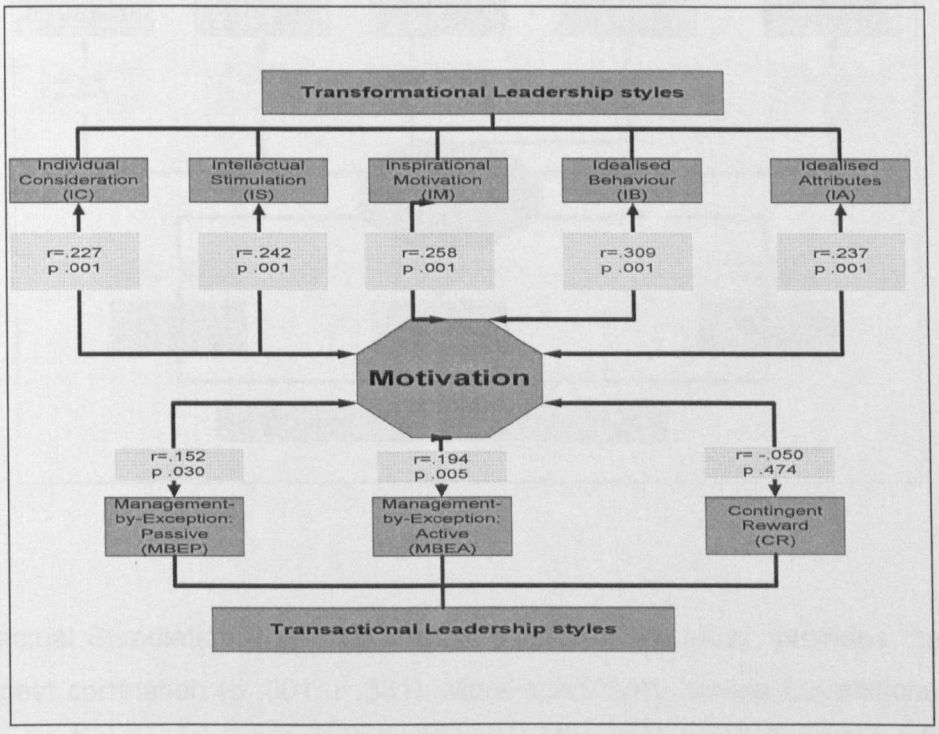


Motivation and Transformational leadership

In general terms, there is a strong correlation between the five transformational leadership styles and motivation, with the highest Pearson correlation being between motivation and Idealized Behaviour (r .514). Idealized Behaviour is mainly concern with how the leader uses the follower's inspiration to develop a strong motivational force. Whilst the Pearson correlations are not strong, all five transformational factors are greater than those for the transactional factors. The highest transactional factor refers to Contingent Reward, which is normally considered not to be strongly associated with transformational leaders. One explanation is that the low standard of living in Jordan is driving employees to

consider monetary reward and one way of achieving this is through a leader who can offer those contingency rewards to followers (Heathfield, 2009). When considering the followers perspective, Idealized Behaviour forms their highest aspiration (p .001, r .683), which can be compared with that given by the leaders' (p .001, p .309). This is a case of the followers believing that Idealized Behaviour has a positive influence on motivation, whereas the leaders are less convinced.

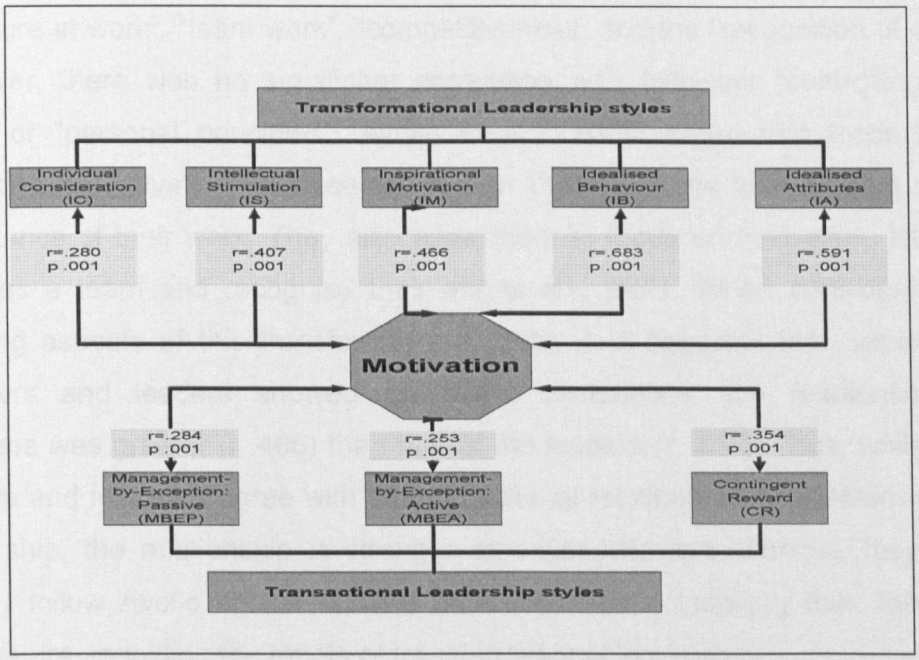
Figure 6.2: Relationship between Leadership Styles and Motivation – Leaders' View



It is apparent that the transformational factor of Idealized Attribution provided a degree of motivation (p .001, r .411). Idealized Attribution is present when leaders gain respect from their followers, who equally have faith in them. In this way, leaders try to maintain a degree of respect between them and their followers. The main area associated with Idealized Attribution refers to the development of knowledge and skills, followed by a strong fostering of teamwork. This factor does not, however, show any significant correlation with delegation, which is referred to as "giving control", "pressure of work" or "recognition". Previous work by Heathfield (2009) identified a significant relationship between Idealized Attribution and recognition, wherein he argued that leaders who are respected tend to care about the recognition of others' skills and competencies. In a similar

way, Alger (2010) found that positive recognition increased the level of follower motivation, arguing that this behaviour is more apparent in leaders who operate as transformational leaders.

Figure 6.3: Relationship between Leadership Styles and Motivation – Followers' View



Intellectual Stimulation, the third area of priority in the study, provides the third strongest correlation (p .001, r .381). More specifically, strong correlations were found for "money reward" and "challenging for promotion". Whilst Intellectual Stimulation strives to encourage followers to address problems from different angles, no significant correlations existed for the "development of knowledge and skills", "recognition", and "personal principles". These findings are counter to earlier studies, which have argued that transformational leadership provides greater encouragement, recognises others work and improves follower skills in a way that helps them achieve their goals (Avolio et al., 1987; Abu-Tayeh and Al Khawaldeh, 2004). Again, the pattern is continued, in that the followers perceive Intellectual Stimulation to have a stronger relationship with leadership (r .407), particularly transformational leadership, than their leaders (r .242). This support by followers is more in line with earlier findings and indicates that Intellectual Stimulation is a factor in their motivation to work.

It is apparent that the leadership factor of Inspirational Motivation correlates with a transformational leader and motivation (p .001, r .355). Within this factor, strong correlations were found with respect to letting followers decide how they carried out their job (p .001, r .547). Correlations were also found with respect to "pressure at work", "team work", "competitiveness" and the "recognition of effort". However, there was no significant correlation with followers "controlling their work" or "personal principles". Avolio et al., (2003) argue that leaders with Inspirational Motivation increase feelings in their followers with respect to the importance of their work. They also allow them to focus on their work, let them work as a team and recognise their efforts and skills. When considering the differing aspects of this transformational factor it is apparent that, whilst both followers and leaders showed significant correlations, the relationship for followers was greater (r .466) than that of the leaders (r .258). Thus, whilst both leaders and followers agree with the motivational relationship of transformational leadership, the relationship is stronger amongst followers. That is, they more closely follow Avolio et al's., (2003) argument that in inspiring their followers, leaders are upholding the tenets of transformational leadership.

The final significant relationship between transformational leadership and motivation is that of Individual Consideration (p .001, r .215). The strength of the relationship is not strong and it is not surprising therefore that, although Individual Consideration concerns individuals, no correlations were found between Individual Consideration and "personal Principles", "recognition", "appreciation" and "giving control". This result is not dissimilar to that of Aycan and Kanungo (2000), whose work in developing countries showed no correlation between transformational leadership and appreciation, personal principles and recognition. Indeed, in looking at the current results it is apparent that there was a degree of acceptance in that, for both the leaders and followers, there was little difference between the perceived strength of the relationship. This is contrary to another study, which suggested that increasing the existence of transformational leadership styles would increase the use of stimulators like appreciation, recognition and team work (Goodwin and Whittington, 2001). In the Jordanian

situation it is apparent that Individual Consideration is not a strong feature of motivating followers through transformational leadership.

Overall, significant statistical differences were found between some independent variables. It is apparent that younger respondent, who were under 25, were more motivated than their elders (p .002). The data also suggests that younger leaders were more strongly associated with motivation factors, particularly with respect to keeping their followers busy. Perhaps it is youthful enthusiasm that inspires the younger leader, or that they have not yet become disenchanted with the organization systems. Nonetheless, the result parallels what Suliman and Al-sabri (2009) found in their study of healthcare workers, wherein younger leaders and employees were more highly motivated than their elders.

Differences were also found between the positions held by respondents. Overall, the leaders had less faith in the relationship between motivation and transformational leadership than their followers. Further, those in high and medium leadership positions held a lower view of motivation than those in lower leadership positions. Hopfl (2001), who studied motivation at work, argued that lower levels of leadership are more likely to use a different type of motivation, as they deal directly with a large number of followers, who have different objectives. Thus, the more personal transformational leadership is more suited to those who have a strong direct contact with their followers. In considering another aspect, Ahmad (2009) found that culture is a major factor that differentiates the level of motivation and position. His study, which covered both Egypt and the UAE, found that young Egyptian managers used motivation aspects more than their counterparts in the UAE. The work by Ahmad suggests that the link between leadership and motivation may, to a certain extent, be culturally or situationally dependent.

Finally, no differences were found between the public and private universities, which are located in different geographical areas in Jordan. Thus, it is apparent

that similar views are held within the broader university sector. This can be explained by the nature of the private universities structure, whereby many of the leaders at these universities have either recently been working in a public university or they work in both public and private universities on a part-time basis. Educational level, however, may have an effect, as the study found that those with a lower educational level were more motivated than respondents with a higher level of education. It may be that those with lesser qualifications are striving to succeed and prove themselves in the work environment.

Overall, it is apparent that transformational leadership is present in the Jordanian higher education institutions and that there is a links with this form of leadership and the motivation of followers. Whilst not all leadership factors are represented equally, it is clear, overall, and from the individual reports of leaders and followers, that Idealized Behaviour has the strongest association with motivation.

Motivation and Transactional Leadership

Although transactional leadership factors show a significant correlation with motivation, the strength of the relationship is lower than that found for transformational leadership. Indeed, the highest transactional correlation was for Contingent Reward (p .001, r .214). This transactional factor is associated with the followers being fearful of failure. Jung (2001) found that transactional leaders show little significant interest in passing responsibilities to their followers, but rely more on passing on a fear of failure and focusing on associated monetary rewards. The current findings tend to support this approach, with it being noted that the leaders of universities reported a negative correlation between Contingent Reward and motivation (see Fig. 6.4), although this correlation was not significant. Conversely, the followers saw a significant relationship between motivation and Contingent Reward (p .001, see Fig. 6.5), with this being the preferred transactional factor. The suggestion is that whilst leaders are not convinced of the motivational value of Contingent Reward, the followers believe the approach can motivate them to improve aspects of their work, although not to the extent of most of the transformational factors.

Another aspect of transactional leadership is Passive Management by Exception (MBEP), which is associated with delivering a high level of clarity with respect to job requirements and procedure. The overall correlation with motivation was significant, although the relationship was not strong (p .001, r .172). Nonetheless, a strong correlation was found between MBEP and encouraging followers to develop their new knowledge and skills (r .680). Leaders and followers both felt there was a significant relationship between MBEP and motivation, although the followers feelings were stronger (r .284) than their leaders (r .152). Work by Sabri (2004) found that transactional socio-cultural values had a direct effect on leader behaviour and in determining the ways in which to motivate their followers. However, in the current study there are apparent differences from within the same culture, although it may be that there is a sub-culture amongst the leaders and followers.

The last factor of transactional leadership is the Active Management by Exception (MBEA), which, although significant (p .024), showed a weak correlation (r .085). In parallel with MBEP, the factor showed a strong relationship with encouraging followers to develop new knowledge and skills and for giving them a chance to supervise where they can. Whilst leaders and followers were in agreement, the association remained low, although for the leaders this was the strongest factor for transformational leadership. Thus, when using transformational leadership approaches, it is apparent that the leaders feel that MBEA is the best way to motivate their followers, although for the followers the reverse is the case.

In general, it is clear that the links between transactional leadership and motivation within the Jordanian higher education are not as strong as those associated with transformational leadership. Whilst there is broad agreement on the relationships, there are discrepancies, particularly with respect to the Active Management by Exception, which is favoured by the leaders, whilst the followers show a stronger preference for Contingency Reward. Having explored the

concept of motivation, the discussion now turns to job satisfaction and its links with leadership.

6.3.2. Job Satisfaction in Jordanian Higher Education

First, the area of job satisfaction is discussed in relation to the concept and how different elements of the population view this aspect of work. This is followed by a critical review of the association of leadership styles with job satisfaction, which looks at both the leader and follower perspective.

Satisfaction as a Concept

Job satisfaction and its relationship to the different forms of leadership, was the second area that was investigated. Job satisfaction refers to the positive and favourable attitudes and feelings that people have about their work, with the negative and unfavourable attitudes being referred to as job dissatisfaction (Armstrong, 2006). It is important for leaders to improve the level of favourable attitudes in followers and reduce unfavourable outcomes, with it being argued that leadership styles can contribute.

Overall, no significant differences were found for gender, although differences existed for some individual questions. With respect to allowing followers the freedom to choose their own method of working (sat_2) males believed this was significantly more important (4.44) than females (4.11), in generating job satisfaction. That is, males prefer greater freedom in choosing their own methods of working. This difference may be a reflection of Jordanian culture, which places a degree of restrictions on female at work. Similar findings have emerged for a study into Jordanian banks (Awamleh and Al-Dmour, 2005) which found that male employees gained greater job satisfaction than females when they were allowed freedom to choose their work method. This finding and that of the current study, has to be set in the general nature of culture in Jordan, which overall, does not allow for a large degree of freedom at work (Ali and Sabri, 2001). Yet, within

this setting, it is apparent that a greater degree of responsibility would increase job satisfaction for male workers.

The aspect of valuing recognition at work was found to increase as the age of the followers increased. That is, there is a significant difference (p .009) in how older employees value being recognised for the good work they do. This difference is not surprising, as respect of older people is a key feature of the Jordanian culture (Al-mailam, 2004). Moreover, the findings indicate that older leaders were more willing to pass responsibilities to their followers, than the younger leaders. In exploring these points through interview, it was apparent that the university leaders do not like to give much responsibility to their followers, as they believed that the responsibility to get the job right belonged to them. This withholding responsibility contradicts what Fuller et al., (1999) argue in their study of transformational leadership behaviour, trust and satisfaction, that transformational leadership is associated positively with the level of satisfaction, particularly with regards to the relationship between followers and leaders.

Differences in job satisfaction were also found in relation to the level of education and recognition. Those respondents educated to masters level or above were more satisfied with the level of "recognition" that they received. This may be a product of the followers, or the leadership style. However, Bono et al., (2007), whilst studying the workplace emotions associated with leadership, found that leaders change the way they talk with followers when they have similar or higher levels of education.

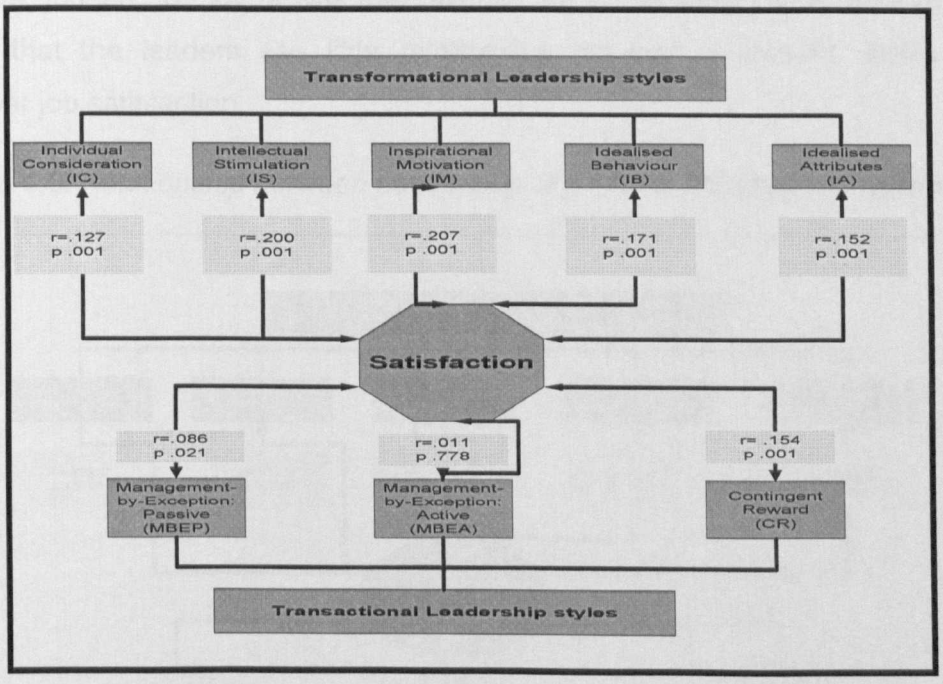
A final aspect relates to research having the lowest level of satisfaction among the universities hierarchy. This result, which was similar across the private and public universities, may not be directly related to a variance in leadership styles, with the root being more in the job itself, although the university authorities need to recognise the finding.

Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Leadership Styles

This part of the discussion examines the relationship between leadership styles and the job satisfaction of followers. Scholars have discussed the notion that both transactional and transformational leadership have a direct correlation with the job satisfaction of followers. Nonetheless, there is disagreement as to the specific elements of job satisfaction that are suitable for each type of leadership (Gannon & Ranzijn, 2005; Kafetsois & Zampetakis, 2008; Palmer et al., 2002).

Whilst, overall, there is a positive statistical relationship between the five factors of transformational leadership and job satisfaction, the association is not strong (Fig. 6.4). It is of note that two of the transactional leadership styles were also significantly related to job satisfaction (except MBEA), although generally at a weaker level than the transformational styles.

Figure 6.4: Relationship between Leadership Styles and Satisfaction – Overall View

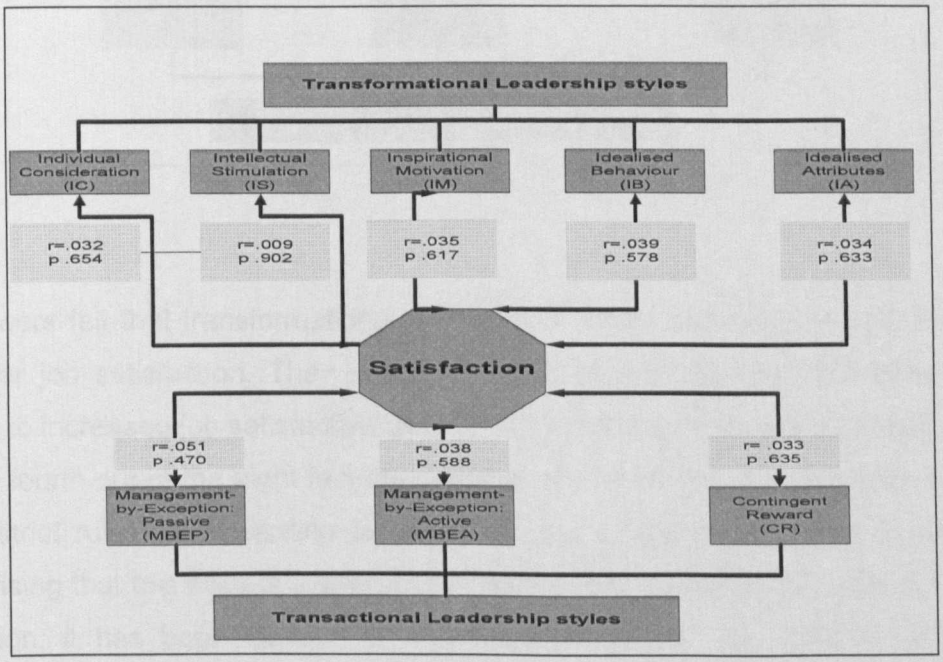


More specifically, it is apparent that Inspirational Motivation had the greatest correlation with job satisfaction (p .001, r .207). In considering the detail, the leaders were not convinced of this relationship (Fig. 6.5), whilst for followers this was top of their list (Fig. 6.6, r .386). This suggests that when leaders provide their followers with a vision and help them in their work, together with a feeling of

importance for what they do, then followers reach higher levels of satisfaction. The notion of motivation is important in the leader's makeup, with a key requirement being for leaders to inspire their followers (Fitzgerald and Schutte, 2010), which is what they are seeking in this study.

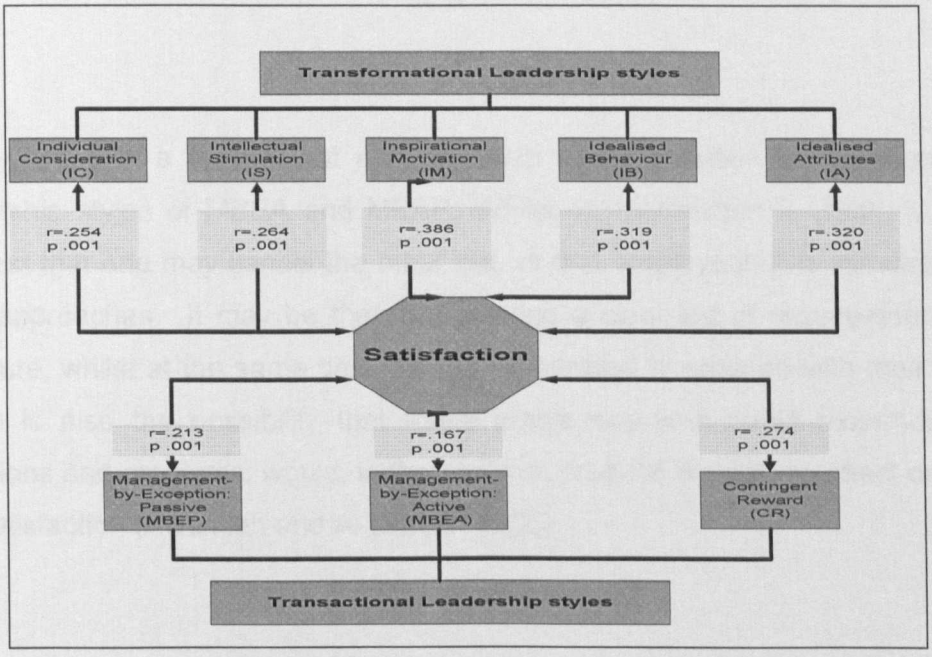
Amongst the transformational factors, Intellectual Stimulation is considered an important element in job satisfaction (p .001, r .200). In this regard, the leader encourages creativity in solving problems. However, the lack of a significant correlation suggests that the leaders do not view this as an important factor in job satisfaction, whilst the relationship is recognised in their followers (p .001, r .264). Authors who emphasise a correlation between transformational leadership and job satisfaction tend to support previous findings and arguments for this positive relationship (Locke, 1976; Isaiah and Obeng, 2000; Salameh, 2004; Kakabadse, et al., 2005; Karami, et al., 2006). At this point it is worth re-stating that none of the five transformational factors were seen as statistically important by the leaders; indeed, the same was the case for the three transactional factors. It is clear that the leaders see little relationship between leadership styles and follower job satisfaction.

Figure 6.5: Relationship between Leadership Styles and Satisfaction – Leaders' View



Overall, Idealized Behaviour was reported as having a significant relationship with job satisfaction. Here, those leaders who, in the Jordanian universities, inspire their followers are more likely to offer greater satisfaction to their followers. The followers' support of this factor parallels previous studies, which found that transformational leadership styles can result in greater job satisfaction than transactional leadership behaviours, particularly when leaders inspire their followers (Yammarino and Jung, 1998; Lowe et al., 1996; Hater and Bass, 1988). Bass (1990b) adds that transformational leaders can more effectively increase their followers' satisfaction, beyond their original expectations, if they can inspire their followers to achieve their dreams and hopes.

Figure 6.6: Relationship between Leadership Styles and Satisfaction – Followers' View



Followers felt that transformational elements of leadership could equally lead to greater job satisfaction. They identified Contingent Reward as the most likely route to increased job satisfaction (p .001, r .154) which, in terms of strength, was rated fourth out of the eight factors. Contingent Reward refers to the use of clear and strict rules for rewarding commitment and achievements, thus it was not surprising that this style of leadership is significantly related to job satisfaction. In addition, it has been found that employees in Jordan are more likely to be satisfied at work when they have clear rules about responsibilities and pathways

to promotion (Awamleh and Al-Dmour, 2005). Further, the process of self-gratification, reward and justice are linked to the basic elements of motivation (Herzberg, 1957; Maslow, 1954).

Bass et al., (2006) and Borkowski (2005) have argued that increasing the level of concern for an individual can increase the level of trust, which in turn can increase employee satisfaction. Looking across the leadership factors, there is a significant relationship between the transformational leadership aspects of Idealized Attributes and Individual Consideration. This suggests that through the maintaining of faith and respect, and by providing special attention to individuals, there is likely to be an increase in employee satisfaction.

Finally, there is a feeling that a relationship exists between the transactional leadership styles of MBEA and MBAP. Whilst the correlation is weak, it could suggest that one may cancel the other out, or that employees find stimulation in both approaches. It may be they are seeking a clear set of requirements and structure, whilst at the same time wish to be allowed to proceed with their work. There is also the possibility that those employees who avoid responding to situations and problems, would, in themselves, produce a negative effect on their job satisfaction (Awamleh and Al-Dmour, 2005).

The area of job satisfaction is important for the effective running of an organization. Whilst the leaders are apparently unaware of the links between any of the transformational and transactional factors, the followers are more alert to the connection. They feel that Inspirational Motivation, the leader inspiring them to greater things and the transactional element of Contingency Reward, are most important. This mix of wishing to be inspired and, at the same time rewarded, is understandable within the culture, which is mainly traditional, but is progressing to a more liberal economy.

6.3.3. Trust in Jordanian Higher Education

Trust is an important element in organizational life and is the basis of many human relations (Podsakoff, et al., 2005). Indeed, when employees experience trust in their leader and colleagues, a positive effect is exerted on organizational life, which enhances organizational behaviour and strengthens the bond between employees and the organization (Hoy and Tarter, 2006; Deluga, 1995; Demircan, 2003). Given the importance of trust, this was adopted as a key variable in the current research. The remainder of this section examines the level of trust that followers had in the leaders of Jordanian higher education and evaluates the human relations and behaviour. First, the concept of trust is visited, which is followed by the important relationship between leaders and trust.

The Concept of Trust

Overall, the followers have a reasonably high level of trust in their leaders (4.85), which is closely matched by the impression of their leaders (4.68). This suggests that, in the main, followers in Jordanian universities trust their leaders, who equally believe they have the trust of their followers. With this level of trust it is likely that a strong relationship exists in the universities, which increases loyalty and organizational commitment (Yilmaz, 2008). Yilmaz's work was conducted in Turkish schools. Turkey has a similar culture to that of Jordan, which provides a parallel for the two studies. Another study conducted in Turkish organizations similarly found a high degree of loyalty and were able to link this to culture (Asunakutlu, 2007). Looking in more detail at the outcomes from the current study it is apparent that followers sought an extremely high level of loyalty from their leaders (trust_2, 5.17), which was closely matched by the leaders' view of what they expected from themselves (4.7). The nature of the question does not explain the reasons for this level of loyalty, although earlier studies have shown that it can be enhanced through traditional culture (Erdheim, et al., 2006). It is noted, however, that the culture in Jordan is biased towards a loyalty to an individual's regions and families, which can work either to increase or decrease the level of loyalty. Within the universities it is apparent that a positive effect is being exerted.

With regards to leaders speaking the truth (trust_4) a significant difference occurred between leaders and followers, with the followers rating this of greater importance than their leaders. Speaking the truth is a central characteristic of masculinity in Middle East culture, particularly for those who hold senior positions or are elderly (Ali and Sabri, 2001). Indeed, there is strong evidence to support that "truth" will increase the level of trust leaders have with their followers (Bryk and Schneider 2002; Swedaan, 2009). Conversely, when leaders lie, then the level of trust that followers give them is reduced dramatically (Swedaan, 2009). Celep (2000), who studied teachers and commitment in Turkish education, argued for the importance of trust when communicating information to their students. Similar to the educational situation in Jordan, a lack of trust between academics may impact negatively on their goals. Trust is a two-way process, with followers learning from their leaders' behaviours and deeds, with leaders trust going beyond the educational environment (Demircan, 2003). Thus, it is reiterated, that for the current study a high level of trust exists in the universities, which is most probably due to the respect held for older leaders in authority.

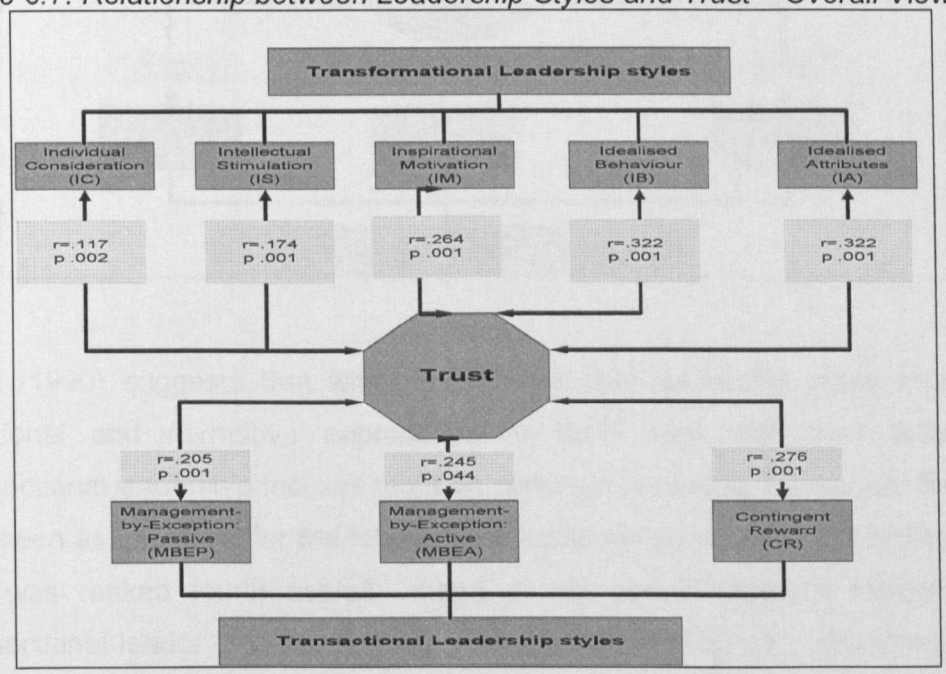
With respect to gender, it is apparent that female followers had greater trust than their male colleagues. This fits with the findings of Demircan (2003) who, in investigating organizational trust and commitment, found that females had a higher level of trust in their leaders. In addition, despite their high level of trust, they were keen to receive more attention than their male counterparts. It is possible that the female followers in the current study were equally sensitive to their leaders than the males. Having outlined the concept of trust, the discussion moves on to examining the relationship between trust and leadership styles.

Relationships between Trust and Leadership Styles

Overall, the factors of transformational and transactional leadership were correlated with building trust (Fig. 6.7). However, with respect to the leader, it is clear that they did not see a single factor of leadership being related to trust (Fig.

6.8). This indicates that the leaders have a low awareness of the importance of building trust with the followers, which can also damage relationships. The followers held a different view; indeed, a significant relationship was seen for each leadership factor and trust (Fig. 6.9), indicating the importance they attach to the connection. Overall, Idealized Attributes and Idealized Behaviour were considered to have the strongest relationship with trust. In reviewing the detail, Idealized Attributes was considered to be strongly associated with speaking true-fully and setting clear objectives, whilst Idealized Behaviour related more to avoiding family issues. The factors of Idealized Attitudes and Idealized Behaviours were seen as the most important aspects of leadership for followers, who clearly saw a strong relationship with these and trust (p .001, r .528; p .001, r .509).

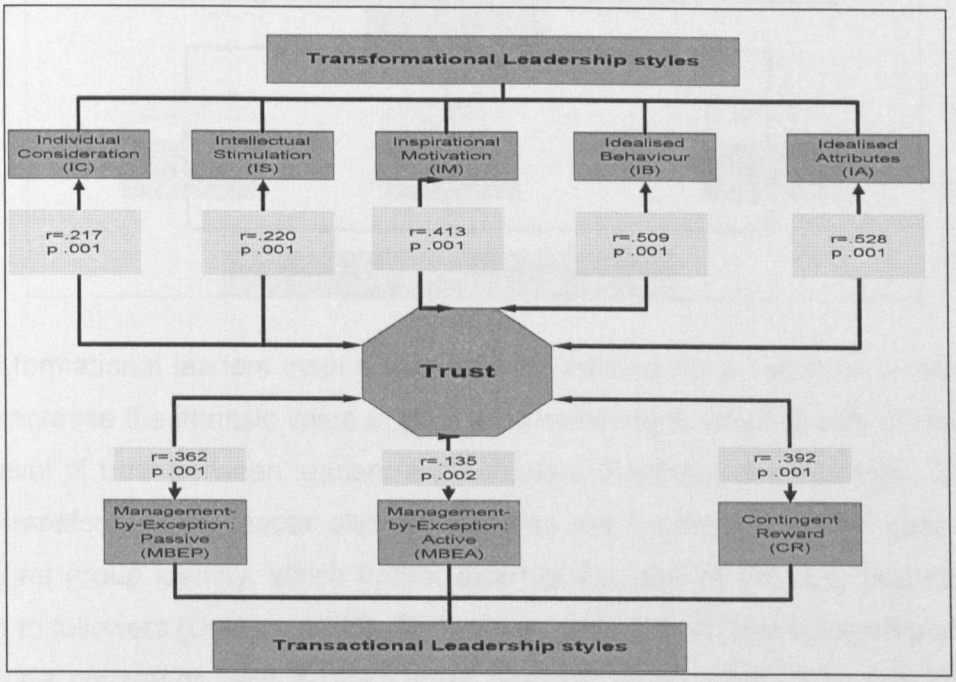
Figure 6.7: Relationship between Leadership Styles and Trust – Overall View



Inspirational Motivation equally found favour in relation to trust. Inspirational Motivation is strongly associated with "honesty". The result is not surprising as transformational leadership styles have been shown to build a higher trust with their followers (Barling et al., 1996; Bass, 1998; Bycio et al., 1995; Koh et al., 1995; Rowden, 2000). For the current study, followers believed that Inspirational Motivation was the third most important leadership factor, in relation to trust (p .001, r .413), which satisfies the trust needs of followers.

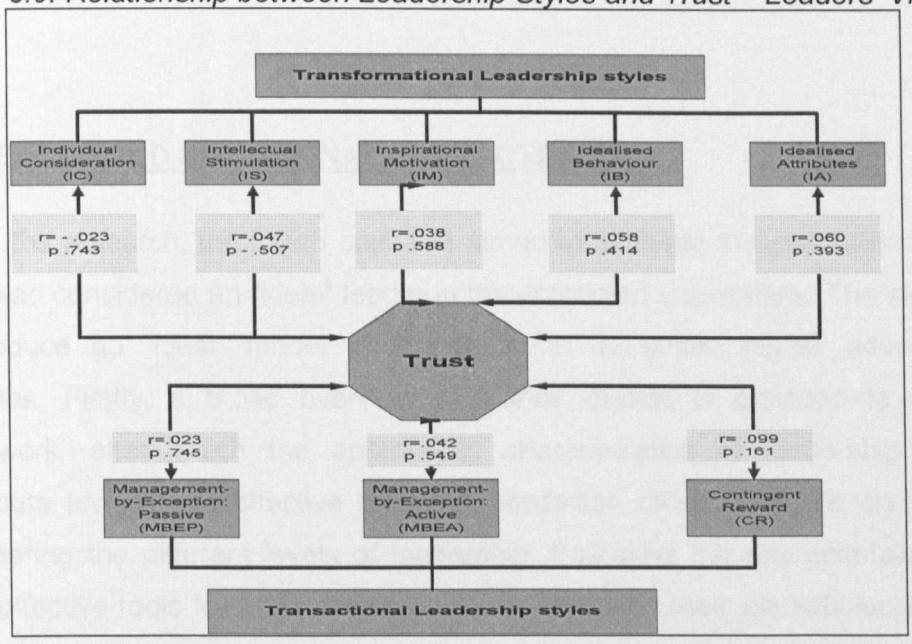
Briefly, the followers saw the area of Intellectual Stimulation as providing a degree of trust, particularly the links with leaders providing help when required, whilst Individual Consideration was strongly associated with the leader calming down his or her followers.

Figure 6.8: Relationship between Leadership Styles and Trust – Followers' View



Bass (1990) suggests that whilst transformational leadership relies more on emotional and normative approaches to build trust with their followers, transactional leadership focuses more on contingent rewards. Contingent Reward was seen as important for the followers in Jordanian universities in building trust and was ranked fourth overall, ahead of two transformational factors. The transactional leader stresses "loyalty" and a "non-stressful job", with Contingent Reward being significantly correlated with "loyalty". The second transformational choice of followers was the Passive Management-by-Exception, which correlated positively with a "non-stressful job". It is noted that in closed environments, such as the military, there is sometimes a preference for transactional leaders' more than transformational (Cummings and Bromiley, 1996). However, for the current study there was a preference for both, although with a greater focus on transformational leadership.

Figure 6.9: Relationship between Leadership Styles and Trust – Leaders' View



Transformational leaders inspire trust and by articulating a vision or a mission, they increase the intrinsic value of goal accomplishment, which in turn, increases the level of trust between leaders and followers (Fairholm and Fairholm, 2000). The transformational leader also emphasises the importance of the goal as a basis for group identity, which further extends the level of authority that can be given to followers (Deluga, 1995). Accordingly, transformational leadership shows a strong correlation with building trust (Barling, et al., 1996; Rowden, 2000). Similarly, transformational leadership can build a stronger relationship with followers than transactional leadership (Bycio et al., 1995; Koh et al., 1995), which can in turn raise the level of trust.

In summary, leadership concerns a dynamic relationship between the leader and his or her followers, which constantly changes with the operational and environmental circumstances. It is apparent that followers mostly preferred a transformational leader, with Idealized Attributes and Idealized Behaviour being perceived as particularly strong. Elements of transactional leadership are also favoured. However, the result of the correlation analysis does not mean that transformational leaders influence the level of trust of their followers, as the correlation test just highlights the correlation, rather than determining the cause and the effect (Bryman, 2004).

6.4. LEADER AND SITUATIONAL CHARACTERISTICS

Within the research, the fourth objective aimed to evaluate the characteristics of what was considered an "ideal" leader in the Jordanian universities. The aim was to produce an "ideal" model of leadership in Jordanian higher educational institutes. Firstly, a broad overview of leader studies is provided to give a framework, after which the appropriate characteristics of leadership which contribute towards an effective leader in Jordanian universities are discussed, considering the different levels of leadership. Following the characteristics, the most effective tools for motivating followers, increasing their job satisfaction and building trust are explored.

Leader Studies

Leadership in educational institutions is a growing issue for researchers, who seek either to redefine the roles and tasks of leaders in education, or present and test models of effective leadership, such as the transformational and transactional styles (Bass, 1998). Drawing on the current study and past literature, this section proposes a new model of leadership, which is suited for higher educational institutions in Jordan. Four key strategies of leadership in educational institutions have been identified: critical, humanistic, instrumental and scientific.

The critical position focuses on the social sciences and analyses the relationship between leaders and followers in their current role and environment, along with the way these enhance or limit the process. The discussion provides practitioners with opportunities to reflect on what they are told to do, what they actually do and what they would like to do. In addition, the approach attempts to enhance the connection of their work with the bigger picture outside their immediate environment. This position also examines the way leaders view the power issues

that underpin their professional practice and provides scope for the interpretation, refusal and the generation of alternatives to prescribed ways of working (Armstrong, 2006; Arnold and Silvester, 2005; Bass and Riggio, 2006; Brauckmann and Pashiardis, 2011; Lussier and Achua, 2010; Singh, 2010).

The humanistic position highlights the biographical epistemology through which leaders in educational institutions explain their own stories, and is used to explain how leadership is exercised in particular settings, over time (Schneider and George, 2011; Gill et al., 2010). Thus, this position focuses on the perceived realities of how tensions and dilemmas are managed in real time (Day et al., 2004). Many authors tolerate this approach as it can support a holistic view (Dulewicz and Higgs, 2005; Coleman and Briggs, 2007), whilst others criticise the emphasis on policy. The immediacy of action, along with any longitudinal and contextual location of professional experiences, is considered as being too overly subjective and unmeasurable to be of any major use in the drive to improve standards.

The instrumental position offers models of leader effectiveness within their cultures, along with site-based performance management, to operationalize an effective role. Thus, this position focuses on an effective strategy of leadership that delivers the organizational outcomes (Fitzgerald and Schutte, 2010; Ivey and Kline, 2010).

The scientific position examines the impact of leadership behaviour in education on their followers' behaviours, functions, and emotions, which in turn enables statistical evidence to be generated about the relationship between policy and practice (Arnold and Loughlin, 2010; Mitchell and Boyle, 2009; Pounder, 2009). In this approach to leadership, the construct of leadership attributes and skills can be instrumentalized through a list of actions, which are considered most effective. These actions are extensively drawn upon in official policy-making and in the preferred leadership model that is applicable to the target environment. Forde et al., (2000) emphasise the importance of knowledge production in commercial or

educational situations, such as universities, arguing that theories of action and understanding are more suited to professional researchers. With this in mind, the characteristics of leaders are now considered.

Leadership Characteristics

In drawing on the statistical results and with a preference for the 'scientific' approach, the nature of leader characteristics is explored. There are various theories that discuss the different characteristics of leadership in institutions. A number of years ago, Etzioni (1975) identified the idea of expressive and instrumental leadership. Expressive leadership is characterised by a normative approach, whilst instrumental leadership uses performance and contingent rewards to control their employees. Bass (1990b) came up with similar styles in the form of transformational and transactional leadership. Here, whilst the transactional leader is epitomised through a reward system of control, the transformational leader adopts a stronger moral approach. Based upon the similarities between the two concepts, the creation of a new model of leadership, fitting for Jordanian higher education, draws strongly on Bass's leadership styles.

Desirable Transformational Leader Characteristics

In exploring the concept of an ideal leader, the strongest requirement was that the person should be "clever" (ideal_leader15), which was demonstrated by receiving the highest mean (5.57). There was agreement between university leaders and followers for the importance of this character, although it is assuming that respondents understood the concept as 'intelligent', rather than being "cunningly" clever (Karami, et al., 2006). It is of note that both leaders and followers also agreed it was important that a leader in Jordanian universities requires intelligence. The intelligence characteristic in leaders has previously been identified as allowing the leader to balance between achieving the required tasks and fulfilling the followers' expectations (Polychroniou, 2009). In the current study, the "educated" characteristic was ranked as the second most important leader characteristic (Bass and Steidlmeier, 1999).

Whilst agreement for education was high, it is of note that the followers placed an equal emphasis on this characteristic, as did their leaders. There were, however, some differences in the importance of the educational characteristics of a leader, between the private and public universities. The public University of Jordan and Irbid University showed a significantly greater requirement for leader education than did those attending the private Philadelphia University.

In parallel with the educational characteristic, an "intelligent" character was considered as a highly desirable character in a leader (5.49). This could indicate a stronger need for followers, who emphasised this characteristic more than their leaders, to seek intelligent leaders who can assist them in solving any problems they or their team might face. This emphasis on general intelligence is not surprising, given the nature of the university environment.

Sincerity is a key part of trust (Humphrey, 2002) and inspirational leadership (Joshi, et al., 2009). This characteristic was recognised as important, with it being placed in overall in third position of importance. Followers had a greater belief in the importance of sincerity (5.60) than did their leaders (5.39). Followers were equally impressed by leaders who were energetic in character and consequently rated this higher than their leaders. In addition, Irbid University were more enthusiastic for an energetic leader than University of Jordan and Philadelphia University, which could possibly indicate that universities in the north of Jordan have a stronger preference for an energetic leader.

It is clear that an understanding leader is considered an important characteristic in leading within Jordanian universities (5.45). Enthusiasm is also considered a desirable characteristic for leaders, although significant differences were reported between positions, with both the administrative and teaching staff considering this aspect more important than those in leadership positions (Dean, Head of

Division, and Head of Section). In addition, Irbid University was found to have higher mean than the University of Jordan for enthusiasm (Sakwa, 2008).

Having a leader who is motivated was also considered to be important for leaders in educational service (5.27), although the followers felt this characteristic was more significant (5.61) than did their leaders' (4.93). This suggests that followers prefer their leaders to be more proactive in motivating them at work, than did their leaders (Kark, 2007). Nonetheless, the leaders still rate this characteristic quite highly, although possibly they feel that achieving work targets should be given a stronger focus than catering for their followers' needs (Sankar, 2003).

The characteristic of a leader being 'loud' was found to be reasonably important, being ranked ninth overall out of twenty, by both followers and leaders, although the followers' mean score indicated a greater preference for this characteristic. Moreover, the findings show that staff in administrative, teaching, and research positions sought this characteristic in leaders more so than did those in senior positions - the Rectors, Deans and Heads of Section.

Non-desirable Leader Characteristics

Whilst reviewing the characteristics it is sometimes helpful to "select-out" those features that are not considered to be useful in an effective leader. Overall, the university respondents rejected the idea of a "tough" characteristic in their leaders. For example the concept of a "strong" character (ideal_4strongcharacter) was not found to be overly useful (3.83). It may be that the culture rejects the forceful leaders, with the view being that a more collaborative leader is better. However the characteristic of the leader being "helpful" (ideal_10helpful) is equally not desirable within Jordanian universities. Whilst there is a statistical difference between followers and leaders, with the followers agreeing less that being helpful is a useful characteristic, the low overall mean (3.66) identified this as not overly important. This is a strange result, as it would seem natural for people to wish to be helped and to help others, particularly in an Arab culture,

where supporting a "brother" is part of the way of life. However, it could be that followers felt they were competent and just wanted to be inspired by their leader, or that they resented interference in their work, even though they may need that assistance.

A number of other areas were identified as not being effective for a leader in higher education. Followers and leaders alike agreed with respect to the "Male" characteristic, with both not considering this an important aspect of leaders in educational institutions (3.57). Moreover, the "Conceited" and "Domineering" characteristics were equally rejected by both followers and leaders. Thus, it appears that a "softer" leadership style is being sought. Indeed, there was a clear signal, from both followers and leaders that a manipulative leader (ideal_20 manipulative) is rejected as a characteristic. The message here is that a leader is sought who is honest and open, whichis likely to lead to a greater degree of trust. The areas at the lower end of the table are identified by the three characteristics of "pushy", "obnoxious" and "selfish". Whilst leaders rated these lower than followers the overall consensus was that these are not desirable characteristics of a leader in Jordanian universities.

Having assessed the leader characteristics overall and in keeping with the research objectives, the discussion now turns to those leader aspects that are related to the areas of motivation, job satisfaction and trust.

6.5. SITUATIONAL AND LEADER CHARACTERISTICS FOR MOTIVATION, JOB SATISFACTION AND TRUST

It is equally important to understand the relationship between situational and leader characteristics and the variables of motivation, satisfaction and trust, to see which items affect the different variables.

Situational and Leader Characteristics for Motivation

In terms of motivation, employees considered that the transformational factor of "personal principles" would provide the greatest motivator tool for employees, indeed, nearly thirty per cent of respondents ranked this factor as the greatest motivational factor. It is of note that two other studies of transformational leadership in Jordan, although in different sectors (Al Khawaldeh, 2005; Salameh, 2004), found that personal principles were ranked as the top characteristics for leaders. Cox and Brittain (2004) argue that people cannot normally understand the level of need that is attached to this motivator, unless they have mastered the full range of needs such as physiological, safety, love, and esteem (Maslow, 1954), which make this factor important.

A strong transformational area that increases motivation refers to "progression" on the job, with 17 per cent of respondents rating this as the second most important area, which is in keeping with Al Khawaldeh's (2005) study into a Jordanian communications organization. The situational element of promotion is not always within the power of the leaders in Jordanian universities, which may lead to employees being unjustly disappointed with their leaders. Within the area of job progression, a positive correlation was found for an educated and enthusiastic leader. Here, there is a suggestion of fair play, with the leaders needing to be seen as intelligent enough to make good promotional decisions. There is also a need for an enthusiastic leader, who can channel their energies in the right direction. The point that different needs exist at different levels is shown in the different views, where the Deans felt that promotion was an effective motivator, whilst the Rectors and Heads of Division or Department, considered promotion to be a non-effective motivation tool. As mentioned above, it is possible that the different positions have different levels of authority to make promotions happen, although the general consensus is that promotions do motivate.

Gaining promotion sits at the second level of Maslow's (1954) hierarchy of needs. Having satisfied their psychological needs, individuals seek to satisfy their needs

of stability, longer-term safety, belonging and future satisfaction. Although gaining promotion fits with esteem in the second level of the hierarchy, the respondents still considered this linked with the lower level of gaining security, which they placed third in their requirements. This suggests that employees in Jordanian universities do not feel secure in their work status, wherein they may fear losing their job. "Fear of failure", however, did not seem to be as strong a job motivator as "Ease" and "job security", with fear of failure being classified as ninth in the priority of motivators. This low result may be linked to the poor interest in measuring performance in Jordanian universities, although other Jordanian studies found a similar response (Al Khawaldeh, 2005; Salameh, 2004). Thus, people would rarely lose their job because of their failure to achieve their target. If this is the case, it is likely that the promotion aspect is more concerned with gaining status, rather than for reasons of job security. A different danger could be that of being replaced in their job. Jordan broadly follows a Bedouin culture, wherein many leaders and managers tend to practice nepotism and provide job opportunities for their relatives and those with similar backgrounds. However, in the current study, no correlation was found between ease and security as motivators, with the different leadership characteristics.

"Personal growth" is not considered to be as important as personal principles, even though it is still a strong element of keeping employees satisfied and motivated, which has been identified in other leadership studies in Jordon (Al Khawaldeh, 2005; Salameh, 2004). The message from respondents is that the followers feel these areas are significantly more important than their leaders. There was also a variation with respect to position, whereby the Deans supported the idea of personal interest, more than the Heads of Section, or Programme and Division, or the Department Heads. This is not easy to explain. However, as the lower level leaders are in closer contact with their followers, it might be assumed that they would exert a strong personal interest. However, it may be that as the Deans have fewer people to supervise, they have more time to devote to their personal interest.

Finally, there is a strong relationship between the personal growth motivator with an educated, intelligent and motivated leader. In addition, the motivators of Creativity and Recognition, which are highlighted as having a positive effect, are also strongly related to an intelligent leadership (Hooper and Potter, 2000).

Situational and Leader Characteristics for Job Satisfaction

Satisfaction at work is an important aspect of working life and it was clear that the workers in Jordanian universities felt that "security at work" was the most important item in increasing satisfaction. This is in line with other Jordanian studies (Al Khawaldeh, 2005; Salameh, 2004), which found job security to produce the greatest job satisfaction. As was identified for a number of areas in motivation, there was a strong positive relationship between satisfaction, security and the characteristic of an intelligent leader.

As was the case with motivation "Promotion", as a situational characteristic, was a source of increasing employee satisfaction, wherein the promotions would increase the level of recognition of the employees' effort and would also enhance their own esteem, particularly if the promotion was prestigious. This second factor of satisfaction showed no significant differences for any of the independent variables, which suggests a strong consensus of opinion and agreement. In an instrumental way (Abdul-muhmin, 2005), it is apparent that the "salary" provided a degree of employee satisfaction and was ranked third in this area, which is in line with Salameh's (2004) study. As in many organizations, the salary rate relates to the level of promotion, with the salary increasing as the person is promoted. Thus, for higher education in Jordan, a salary increase is providing both motivation and job satisfaction. Again, there is a consensus on the salary, as no significant difference was found for the various independent variables. Generally, salaries in Jordan are considered low, in comparison to the standard of living, which leads to a large number of employees suffering with their poor salaries. However, salaries in the universities are considered to provide one of the best salary rates in Jordan, with the average monthly salary for a lecturer being 1,000 Jordanian dinar, against the average Jordanian equivalent being 350

dinar (UNICEF Statistics, 2011). Although, "promotions" were considered the second most important area in increasing the level of satisfaction, no significant relationships were found between this item and leadership characteristics. This last comment implies that there is little connection between promotions and the leader who recommends the promotion, with promotions perhaps being seen as an 'institutional' activity, rather than the decision of a particular individual.

Gaining "recognition from their manager" (Abdul-muhmin, 2005) and "taking part in making decisions" were the fourth and fifth characteristics that satisfied employees in Jordanian higher education. In comparison, other studies into this area rated these lower still (Al Khawaldeh, 2005; Salameh, 2004), which suggests that there may be differences in sectors across the national culture. These two relate to the status needs of employees and their feeling of belonging to the organization which, as discussed earlier, are not fully satisfied among Jordanian staff. Yukl (2002) argues that the fulfilment of esteem needs can dramatically increase the level of satisfaction although, once achieved it may be that new self-fulfilling needs would arise, which would further lead to dissatisfaction if they are not met. With respect to decision making (Abdul-muhmin, 2005), the followers were significantly more willing to see this shared, than were their leaders, believing that it would bring them greater satisfaction. Previous studies that have surveyed followers and leaders in educational settings have reported similar results (Ingram, 1997). The study clearly supported the notion that when leaders shared the decision making with their followers, they were more satisfied in the work they did. It is possible that the feeling of belonging to the organization increases their prestige and status, which in return brings a higher level of satisfaction. However, if the involvement of followers is only superficial, or their contributions are unreasonably ignored, then the process of involvement is likely to have an even greater negative impact on satisfaction, than if the involvement had not been made at all.

There are four additional characteristics that affect the level of employees' satisfaction, which refer to the "physical work condition" (Lapierre, et al., 2008), "hours of work" (Turkyilmaz, 2011), "level of responsibilities" (Abdul-muhmin,

2005) and their choosing their "... own ways of working". Apart from the last two, which were rated higher on other Jordanian studies (Al Khawaldeh, 2005; Salameh, 2004), it appears that the hours and physical conditions are not of great importance. Despite wishing to be involved in decision making, employees at Jordanian universities are not strongly motivated by a high level of responsibility. Within the nature of their work there is no great scope to work flexibly, neither is a great deal of power passed from leaders to their employees. In turn this reduces the importance of their contribution and whilst not leading to dissatisfaction, does not provide a positive feeling of satisfaction. However, in wishing to have a greater say in their ways of working, this goes against the normal cultural feeling, which is to accomplish a task by following a set of rules, which provides some sense of security. Whilst the degree of involvement and choice of working refers to higher order satisfaction, the areas of hours and physical work conditions are of a lower order. Whilst employees in higher education regularly do the same amount of hours as equivalent workers in Jordan, they have better work conditions than many other governmental jobs (Mendelson, et al., 2011).

Situational and Leader Characteristics for Trust

The trust subordinates have in their managers or leaders is of immense importance. Simons (1999) argues that trust is of greater importance during a managing-change process, because here trust is necessary for risk-taking, with personal risk-taking being seen as integral to organizational change (Joseph and Winston, 2005). One limiting factor is that the construct of trust, whilst receiving considerable attention, has a diverse set of definitions. Some authors focus on the risk, vulnerability and intent of trust (Cremer and Knippenberg, 2005), whilst for others it refers to ethical justifiability (Cremer, et al., 2006). However, within the diverse frameworks of trust, a basic belief is that a person's word should accurately reflect their past or future actions. Whilst this truthfulness forms a necessary condition for the development of trust, it is not alone sufficient (Bartram and Casimir, 2007).

The most important element that leads to an increase in trust between leaders and their employees concerned the "fair treatment" of followers by their leader. This element of fairness was considered as important and seen as reciprocal, in that if the leader increased his or her focus on fair treatment, then the employees would likewise increase their trust in their leader. The characteristic was also viewed as an important element across sectors in Jordan (Al Khawaldeh, 2005; Salameh, 2004). However, the followers held a significantly different view of the importance of this element, which impacts negatively on their level of trust. It is also apparent that the younger followers, under 25 years of age, have an even stronger belief that unfair treatment would impact negatively on the amount of trust they have in their leader.

Another element that was considered to be an essential part of building trust concerned the "honesty" of the leader and how they kept their promises. The consensus was that the more honest the leader was, the greater the level of trust he or she could build with their followers. Clearly, in the followers' minds, honesty is a highly effective element in building trust. Whilst it may not be practiced, it was reported that the Deans and Rectors valued the element of honesty above others in authority, who were not so convinced of its importance. Tsui et. at., (2006) argue that honesty and fair treatment by the leader can lead not only to an increase of followers' confidence, but the aspect of natural justice can lead to team members placing greater trust in their leaders. Thus, the making of just decisions, combined with a high degree of honesty, can lead followers to increase their belief in the promises a leader makes, that is, to trust them more.

In addition to fair treatment and honesty, a leader who works for the "advantages for the whole team" was considered to more trustworthy than those who do not, which is equally born out in Al Khawaldeh's (2005) study of the communication industry. Statistically, this element is highly correlated to the first two elements of fair treatment and honesty. This is not surprising, as actions that advantage the whole team can be seen as fair and, hence, it makes it easier for followers to trust the leader in this situation. This aspect can be linked to other elements, for example it is easy to see how keeping promises, particularly when these affect

team members equally, can enhance trust. Indeed, if the advantage was not for the whole team, it would tend to decrease the level of trust in a leader and became linked to a perception of unjust actions, or unfair treatment by their leader.

Other elements impacted on how followers allocated trust to their leaders, although the impact may not be as great as honesty, fair treatment and not identifying individuals for special treatment. Employees in the higher education institutes tended to trust leaders who stood up for them when they faced an emergency, which could be explained through their security and self-esteem needs being satisfied. Not unsurprisingly, the "truthfulness of what a manager says" was thought to have a positive effect in raising levels of trust. Many of the reports relating to trust can be summed up in the area concerning the "loyalty toward manager". Whilst this element had a positive correlation with educated and intelligent leadership, the influence was not overly strong.

6.6. SUMMARY

In addressing the key research objectives the discussion explored the areas of transformational leadership present in Jordanian universities. The characteristics of leaders were assessed, along with their relationship to motivation, trust and job satisfaction, with the followers' perspective being emphasised.

In considering the overall transformational factors at Jordanian universities, there is a broad consensus between followers and leader that Intellectual Stimulation is important, as is Individual Consideration. Followers, however, rated Individualized Behaviours higher than their leaders, whilst the leaders felt that the active transactional factor of Management by Exception was of greater importance. Followers, in placing the active factor last, were rejecting the notion that leaders should actively engage in their daily tasks, preferring to be left alone as

professionals to continue with their work. Contingency Reward did however, find greater favour with the followers than the leaders, indicating that the followers wished to be left to their own devices, whilst being rewarded for their efforts in reaching targets. A dichotomy of interest arises, with leaders viewing Contingency Reward as the least desirable of all the factors associated with the transformational theory overall.

Turning to what was felt to be "ideal" individual leader characteristics for those in authority in Jordanian universities, it is apparent that a key requirement is for a leader who is clever, educated and intelligent, which is most probably reflective of the overall educational environment. Although the followers viewed these characteristics as desirable in a leader, they did not necessarily impact on their Intellectual Stimulation, with respect to trust, motivation and trust. It is possibly that whilst they wish to see these features in their leaders, the followers can work independently of them. With respect to their behaviour, leaders who were energetic and enthusiastic were welcomed as salient characteristics of what followers particularly sought in their leaders. The overall mean rank, although with stronger support from leaders, similarly identified sincerity and understanding as being key factors in an ideal leader. There is a similar consensus that negative aspects described as manipulative, obnoxious, pushy, domineering, selfish and conceited are qualities which, are rejected in a leader, with this being universal across followers and leaders.

With respect to identifying an ideal positive leader, a person who is educated, enthusiastic, energetic, sincere and understanding is given high legitimacy.

Table 6.1: Summary of "Ideal" Individual Leader Characteristics

	Ideal Leader Characteristics	Leaders' Rank	Followers' Rank	Overall	Rank
1	Energetic	6	2=	8	4
2	Educated	2	2=	4	2
3	Selfish	17	15=	32	17
4	Strong	12	12	24	13
5	Conceited	15	15=	30	15
6	Male	14	14	28	14
7	Intelligent	5	2=	7	3
8	Enthusiastic	8	2=	10	5=
9	Domineering	16	15=	31	16
10	Helpful	10=	13	23=	11=
11	Motivated	7	6	13	8
12	Sincere	3	7	10	5=
13	Loud	9	9	18	9
14	Masculine	10=	11	21	10
15	Clever	1	1	2	1
16	Obnoxious	19	15=	34=	19=
17	Dedicated	13	10	23=	11=
18	Pushy	18	15	33	18
19	Understanding	4	8	12	7
20	Manipulative	19	15=	34=	19=

Having explored the objectives and drawn salient points from these, including the identifying of key characteristics and preferred styles, both with respect to leadership styles and their relationship to motivation, job satisfaction and trust, the wider picture of the research question is next visited. In addition, the concluding chapter, in drawing together the salient points, presents a coherent, idealized, model.

CHAPTER SEVEN – CONCLUSION

This study aimed to investigate perceptions of transactional and transformational leadership styles in higher educational institutions in Jordan. The key areas of focus were the perceptions of the phenomena, which included leader and followers and how their personal biographical data related to their perceptions. The characteristics of an "ideal" leader were also explored, as was the key area concerning the impact that the different situational and leadership characteristics would have on motivation, trust and job satisfaction. Thus, this pioneering research studied transformational leadership characteristics and their interaction with the trust, motivation and job satisfaction of employees. To achieve the study's aim a sample was drawn from leaders and followers in five public and private universities, across three regions of Jordan.

This concluding chapter highlights the main results of this study and in answering the key research question, concludes the overall study problem. This is achieved through firstly drawing together the key issues that emerged from the different research objectives. The perceptions of transformational and transactional leadership characteristics are presented, along with how these related to the motivation, job satisfaction and trust of followers; the situational and 'ideal' characteristics of a leader are also reviewed. Having drawn together the key elements it is possible to identify preferred leadership styles and present a model for leadership in universities in Jordan. Following this, the theoretical implications of this study are proffered, following which practitioner benefits and recommendations drawn from the study are given. Finally, this chapter notes the limitations of the current study and identifies areas that researchers need to focus upon in any future investigation in this area.

7.1. CONCLUSIONS ABOUT THE STUDY PROBLEM

This research was a pioneering study that critically evaluated the perception of leadership characteristics in Jordanian higher education and how these styles interacted with the motivation, satisfaction and trust of employees. As no previous studies on transformational leadership and followers in Jordanian universities have been published, this current research makes a substantial contribution to an identified gap in the literature, along with the knowledge of how transformational leadership theory operates in a different cultural setting. Indeed, the research evaluated the growing importance of leadership within Jordanian higher education. Jordanian universities play a vital part in the nation's education and have the prospect of contributing greatly to economic growth within Jordan and beyond, to the Middle East. The study is particularly poignant, as there is currently discussion, at Government level as to whether the universities are to be permitted to operate in a fully deregulated and competitive environment. If this is enacted, then Jordanian universities will have to embrace creative strategies to satisfy their prospective students, which will need effective leadership.

The research is also important with respect to the location, size and the private and public nature of Jordanian universities. If leaders, especially those in the public sector, seek an improvement in the performance of followers, they need to emphasize some of the leadership concepts that are available in the wider business community.

Leaders in Jordanian universities, along with universities in other Arab nations, may take advantage from the outcomes of this study, particularly in those areas where the motivation and job satisfaction of employees is a strategic objective. The outcomes of the current study could be utilised as a benchmark by which other universities or educational organizations may contrast their levels of employee satisfaction and motivation. This study has shown that there is an overlap between the various leadership approaches, with the "answer" being more situationally specific, rather than a single definitive result. Therefore, it is likely that a university leader would conform to two or three distinct facets of

transformational leadership theory. This is especially significant in nations such as Jordan, where leaders and managers are appointed from diverse demographic backgrounds, from both within Jordan and from other Arab nations. Thus, whilst using the single preferred leadership style, a blending of various approaches is going to be beneficial, particularly when considering the distinct ethnic backgrounds of both the staff and leaders.

7.2. RECONSIDERATION OF THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

At this juncture, it is appropriate to review the key outcomes which emerged from the research objectives and which directly referred to the data outcomes. The prevailing study contributed a wider understanding of transformational leadership theory in a higher educational setting, taking into account the individual variables associated with followers and leaders. 'Ideal' leader characteristics were also identified.

The data objectives followed a review of the various writings on leadership styles (Fein, et al., 2010). A particular focus was placed on transformational and transactional leadership characteristics, particularly with regard to the motivation and job satisfaction of followers and the building of their trust (Bass and Riggio, 2006; Huber, 2006; Ivey and Kline, 2010).

The consensus from the literature is that transformational leadership style approaches are more successful for growing and developing followers (Bass & Riggio, 2006), as they show a strong concern for individual followers. They empower their followers, by encouraging them to align their objectives and goals with those of the organization (Lussier and Achua, 2010). Transformational leadership encourages followers to work as a team and, at the same time, provides them with responsibility and a degree of control (Waite, 2008). However, whilst the literature suggests that transformational leadership exerts a positive

effect on motivation (Ahmad, 2009; Mehta et al., 2003) and effectiveness, these theoretical concepts needs to be grounded in the reality of work. Having grounded the study in the literature, the research objectives for the current study were explored through an in-depth investigation of leadership in a Jordanian educational setting.

The resulting data were aligned and investigated statistically in order to discover if those objectives were accomplished or not. This study took further steps to better realise and investigate the connection between worker job satisfaction, motivation and trust, and to identify what sort of leader might be acceptable in Jordanian higher education

Leadership Styles in Jordanian Universities

Overall, it can be concluded that transformational leadership elements are the most notable characteristics within Jordanian universities, with both leaders and managers agreeing that Intellectual Simulation was the most desired characteristic for leaders within higher education. This element of transformational leadership signifies that leaders within Jordanian universities encouraged their followers to find new ways of solving their problems, while they also encouraged them to connect their own values with those of the organization.

The three elements of Individual Consideration, Idealized Behaviour and Inspirational Motivation, were equally found to be acceptable elements of transformational leadership. It is of note, however, that followers viewed Individual Consideration slightly differently from their leaders, believing more strongly that their leaders should demonstrate a higher degree of care for them as individuals. The followers also believed strongly that leaders helped them to improve their levels of inspiration, which would enable them to pursue their dreams. Conversely, the leaders were less likely to encourage their followers to connect their values with those of the organization, preferring more to provide followers with clear job requirements.

Finally, both leaders and followers agreed that Idealized Attributes was generally weak within the Jordanian universities, wherein leaders do not care much about improving the areas of faith and respect which can help a transformational leader to build trust between themselves and their followers.

General "Ideal" Leader Characteristics

The discussion now turns to the general leader characteristics that are perceived as important for those who are to lead effectively within Jordanian higher education. These are firstly presented in isolation and later the relationship of these to motivation, job satisfaction and trust will be discussed.

Leaders and followers both perceive effective leadership in educational institutions as being strongly linked to cleverness, education and intelligence. It is apparent that a key behaviour requirement for leaders in Jordanian universities is for a leader that is energetic and enthusiastic. Other salient characteristics that identify effective university leaders relate to sincerity and understanding.

With high legitimacy being given to the positive characteristics that were identified as ideal, there was a similar consensus with respect to negative characteristics. University leaders that are manipulative, obnoxious, pushy, domineering, selfish and conceited are rejected, with this being universal across followers and leaders.

General Effect of Leader Characteristics on Trust, Motivation and Job Satisfaction

Ten different types of motivational characteristics were discussed, namely: work activity; challenge; competition; team work; fear of failure; power; recognition;

personal principles; progression and promotions. For each area, links were sought between motivation and the different elements of leadership styles.

It is clear that followers were highly motivated by their work activity and promotions, although the negative aspect involving the fear of failure also featured. Further, the followers were found not to be strongly motivated by challenges, team work or personal principles. Taking the leaders' perspective, they did not use some of the motivation tools that the followers indicated were effective motivators for increasing performance. More specifically, the leaders performed unsatisfactorily in the motivational areas of competition, power, recognition and progression, even though followers indicated their desire for these.

With respect to motivation and overall styles, transformational leadership was seen as more likely to motivate followers than transactional leadership, with a particular emphasis being placed on the association between motivation and Idealized Behaviour. However, the leaders and followers disagreed on the other elements of transformational leadership, with the followers being more satisfied with leaders who supported the elements of Idealized Attributes, followed by Inspirational Motivation, Intellectual Stimulation and Individual Consideration.

Regarding job satisfaction, it is clear that a transformational leadership in the universities was more likely to increase the satisfaction of followers than would transactional leadership. Indeed, the area of Inspirational Motivation was found to have the strongest association with job satisfaction, followed by that of Intellectual Stimulation. Clearly, followers will be more satisfied when they are encouraged to be creative in solving their problems or the importance of their work recognised.

The building of trust between the university leaders and followers has associations with different elements of leadership. There is a strong relationship between building trust and Idealized Behaviour, which suggests that by improving the inspiration of followers, the leader is acting out the dreams of his or her followers. There was also a strong association between trust and the transformational element of Idealized Attributes. It is also of note, however, that followers will trust their leaders who act in the transactional manner of Contingent Reward, which provides followers with clear rules for reward, within a structured system.

The discussion now turns to those characteristics of university leader that related to the various thoughts of followers. Many characteristics were found that would potentially help leaders increase their followers' levels of motivation, satisfaction and trust. Each area is associated with one or more leader characteristic. The highest possible motivator related to "personal principles" which, if correctly used, can stimulate followers to make greater efforts. The concept of personal principles is also strongly related with the level of the education in leaders. Indeed, the clear indications are that an intelligent and educated leader will increase the personal growth of followers, which is a key element of motivation. This "intellectual" aspect is understandable within a university setting where education is valued by both followers and leaders.

Motivational characteristics that relate to job satisfaction concern the areas of progression on job, recognition, having an interesting job and creativity. Thus, leaders need to take notice of these aspects in gaining the most out of their followers. Moreover, leaders also need to focus on the elements of security, responsibility and freedom of followers, as these were identified as increasing the job satisfaction of employees. Finally, the areas relating to fairness, team benefits and loyalty were all key factors that are involved in the building of trust between leaders and followers.

7.3. LEADERSHIP IN JORDANIAN HIGHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTES – A NEW MODEL

Overall Desirable Leadership Styles for Jordanian Universities

Having assessed the key research objectives it is possible to synthesize the outcomes to produce a model of leadership in Jordanian higher educational institutes that relates both to the reality and what is perceived as ideal for the context.

It is clear that four out of the five transformational leadership factors are featured in the top five overall rankings, derived from both followers and leaders (Table 7.1). This shows a strong preference for transformational leadership in Jordanian universities, as opposed to the more managerially focused transactional factors. Idealized Attributes is less sought after, whilst the strong support by followers places Contingency Reward into fifth place overall, whilst the lack of support for Active Management-by-Exception, ensured that this factor received the lowest rank.

Overall, the universities desire a leader who stimulates followers through imagination and beliefs (IS). This form of leadership relies on the leader's personal qualities (Yilmaz, 2008), or their ability to build personal relationships with their followers (Asunakutlu, 2007). There is also the notion that followers wish to be stimulated to rethink their own ideas and see the extent to which they can contribute to the organization (Solinger, et al., 2008). Thus, this provides a clear goal for leaders in the universities to strive for. Considering followers as individuals (IC) is equally important. As well as encouraging followers to take on greater responsibility, considerate leaders pay attention to individual capabilities (Sabri, 2007) and further these through coaching, teaching, mentoring and providing critical feedback in a positive way (Heathfield, 2009). A key point is for leaders to balance the team focus with that of considering the individual needs. Not unexpectedly, the leaders in Jordanian universities are expected to behave in

a way that provides inspirational motivation (IM). Using corporate stories, or symbols, there is a need for leaders to motivate their followers to achieve more (Judge and Piccolo, 2004).

Table 7.1: Overall Leadership Styles at Jordanian Universities

Followers Rank of Leadership style (by mean score)	**Leaders Rank of Leadership style (by mean score)**	**Overall Rank of Leadership style (by mean score)**
Intellectual Stimulation	Individual Consideration	Intellectual Stimulation
Individual Consideration	Management-by-exception Active	Individual Consideration
Idealized Behaviours	Intellectual Stimulation	Idealized Behaviours
Contingency Reward	Management-by-exception Passive	Inspirational Motivation
Inspirational Motivation	Idealized Behaviours	Contingency Reward
Management-by-exception Passive	Inspirational Motivation	Management-by-exception Passive
Idealized Attributes	Idealized Attributes	Idealized Attributes
Management-by-exception Active	Contingency Reward	Management-by-exception Active

Transformational leadership revolves round a mutual relationship between leader and followers, with the leader elevating the followers' needs and wants (Krishnan, 2001). Followers at the universities believe that this connection can be achieved with a leader who demonstrates idealized behaviours (IB). Here the followers' idealized influence is drawn from the leader's behaviours, which go beyond self-interest (Nguyen and Mohamed, 2011). The universities are seeking someone who followers can respect, look up to and admire. The concept relates to wanting to make an extra effort for the person themselves, as opposed to their "rank". The importance of fair treatment is apparent, particularly in being rewarded fairly (CR). The promise of a fair reward, along with the avoidance of punishment (Xirasagar, 2008) is considered a valuable asset in a higher education leader. However, as this factor is ranked below four transformational factors, it needs to be remembered that the individual qualities of the leader are more important than the contingency of exchange. Finally, the approach whereby the leaders manage

by exception, either passively or actively, is considered to be of low priority. Here, a more transformational leader is being sought within the universities.

Desirable Leadership Styles for Jordanian Universities

With respect to breaking down the leadership styles into the specific areas of motivation, job satisfaction and trust, there was a broad consensus, from both followers and leaders, which Idealized Behaviour and Idealized Attributes are of key importance, particularly for the areas of motivation and trust. In addition, when the strength of the correlation coefficients is viewed overall, both Management by Exception styles were considered of lesser importance than the transformational styles (Table 7.2).

Table 7.2: Overall Leadership Styles at Jordanian Universities, Correlated with Respect to Motivation, Job Satisfaction and Trust

Motivation	Job Satisfaction	Trust
Idealized Behaviours	Inspirational Motivation	Idealized Attributes
Idealized Attributes	Intellectual Stimulation	Idealized Behaviours
Intellectual Stimulation	Idealized Behaviours	Contingency Reward
Inspirational Motivation	Contingency Reward	Inspirational Motivation
Individual Consideration	Individual Consideration	Management-by-exception Active
Contingency Reward	Idealized Attributes	Management-by-exception Passive
Management-by-exception Passive	Management-by-exception Passive	Intellectual Stimulation
Management-by-exception Active	Management-by-exception Active	Individual Consideration

The central focus for motivating followers and instilling trust is that a leader is desired who is idealized in both their behaviour and attributes (IB and IA). This idealized notion takes the leader beyond their self-interest and incorporates a strong desire for him or her to provide high ethical and moral standards (Alves, et al., 2006). It may be that a charismatic leader (Cheung and Chan, 2008; Jepson, 2009; Shamir, 1999) is being sought in the universities or one who has personal

qualities and traits, but the important aspect is that they work towards improving the self-confidence of their followers (Hughes and Avey, 2009).

With regards to job satisfaction, a leader is sought who is able to strongly motivate individuals (IM). For followers to feel more comfortable at their work, the leader needs to inspire high levels of performance, which may go beyond their expectations (Jogulu and Wood, 2008). This transformational factor of motivation is also relevant to the concept of trust and motivation, being sought in the top four factors of both of these areas. The motivational element is further supported by a need for intellectual stimulation (IS), in producing job satisfaction. As might be expected within an educational establishment, there is a demand for intellectual leadership which, through building relationships with individuals, would lead to greater capabilities in problem solving and empowered decision-making (Chang, et al., 2007).

In a similar way to the area of motivation, the transactional factor of management by exception was shown not to be a desirable characteristic for job satisfaction. However, with respect to "trust", the bottom ranked factor was Individual Consideration (IC). This is not surprising as the concept of trust is predominately dependent on the leader, and their behaviour, as it supported by the high ranking of Idealized Attributes and Behaviours (IA and IB).

What is sought in a leader in Jordanian universities is broadly in line with previous findings in that motivation is broadly enhanced through transformational leadership (Awamleh, et al., 2005; Charbonneau, 2004; Luechinger, et al., 2010; Lo and Ramayah, 2011). The same is found for job satisfaction (Jung, 2001; Emery and Barker, 2007; Nemanich and Keller, 2007) and trust (Heu and Mujataba, 2007; Lo and Ramayah, 2011). The relationship between trust and transformational leadership has been found to be particularly strong in educational establishments, in Canada (Leithwood and Jantzi, 2000) and the Netherlands (Geijsel, et al., 2003).

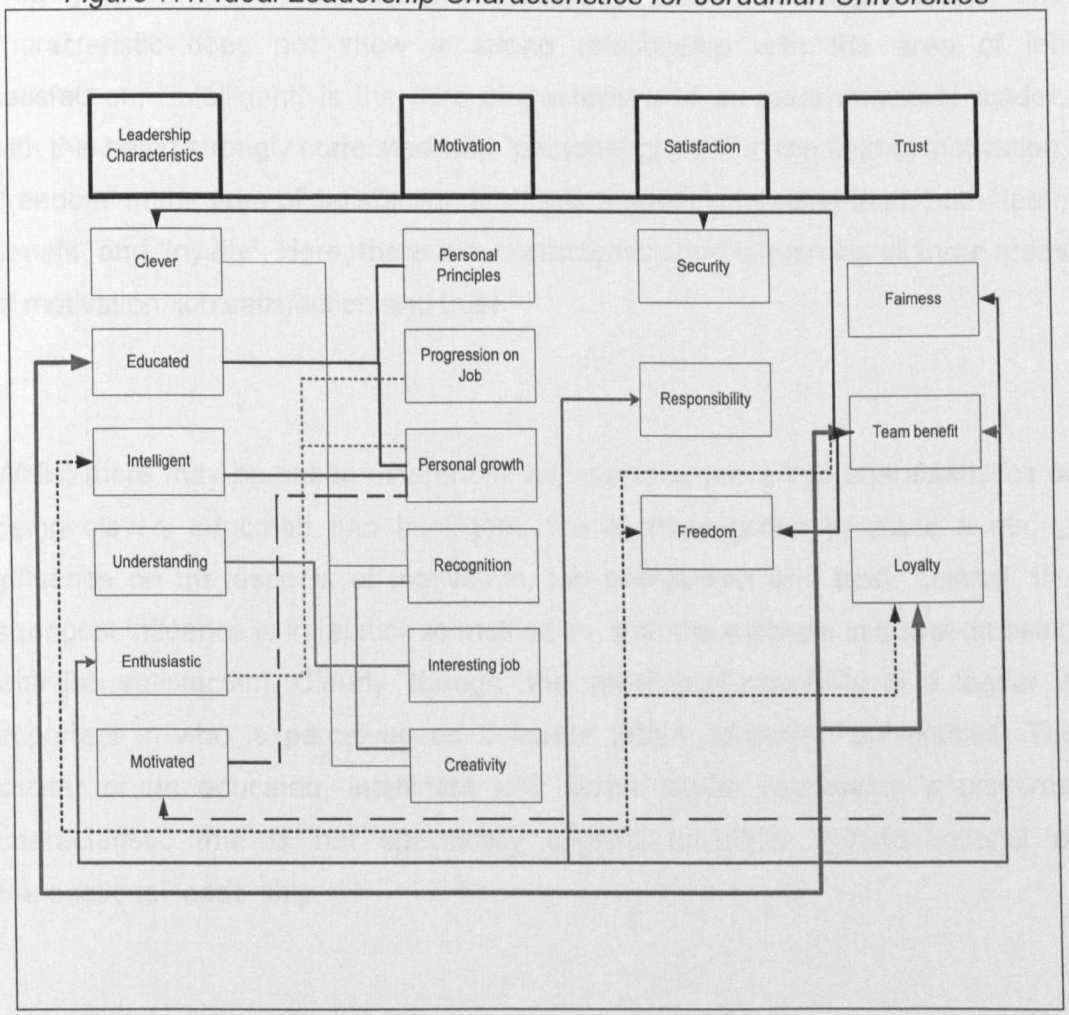
What is clear is that leaders will need to be aware of the different factors that are required for the various elements of leadership. For the majority of the time leaders in the universities would function within the overall factors, although they may need to change their behaviour and approach if they wish to target a specific aspect, such as increasing job satisfaction or engendering greater trust.

Model of Situational and Leader Characteristics for Jordanian Universities

The synthesised model for a desired university leader was created through taking those situational and leader characteristics that achieved a high overall mean, as this indicates a high level of acceptance by both leaders and followers. To determine the relationship between the characteristics and the three variables of trust, motivation and job satisfaction, correlations with these characteristics with sought. Finally, the strongest relationship between leadership characteristics and the highest factors for the three variables were determined.

In positioning the various characteristics with the motivation, job satisfaction and trust variables, is it possible to identify the most desirable leadership characteristics associated with each element (Fig. 7.1).

Figure 7.1: Ideal Leadership Characteristics for Jordanian Universities



The most desirable leader characteristic of "clever" was highly correlated with the "recognition" and "creativity" factors of motivation, and also with the "security" and "freedom" characteristics of satisfaction. However, the concept of being clever did not correlate with the area of trust. Thus, whilst leadership characteristics are desirable in broad terms, it is apparent that certain aspects are more strongly related to target areas, with the point being that cleverness does not relate strongly to trust, yet supports elements of motivation and job satisfaction.

Being "educated" is the second character that both leader and follower desire in a university. It is apparent that the educated leader is more likely to use both "personal principles" and "personal growth" to motivate employees, while leaders with this characteristic can increase trust between him or herself and their employees, by using both "team benefit" and "loyalty". The required approach is

broadly in line with transformational leadership (Bass and Riggio, 2006). The characteristic does not show a strong relationship with the area of job satisfaction. "Intelligent" is the third characteristic of an ideal university leader, with this being strongly correlated with "personal growth" in the field of motivation, "freedom" in the area of satisfaction and, with respect to building trust, both "team benefit" and "loyalty". Here, there is a characteristic that influences all three areas of motivation, job satisfaction and trust.

Whilst there may be subtle differences between the perceived characteristics of being clever, educated and intelligent, these areas group to place a strong influence on the aspects of motivation, job satisfaction and trust. Overall, the strongest influence is in relation to motivation, with the weakest association being with job satisfaction. Clearly, though, the intellectual capability of a leader is important in who is perceived as a leader within Jordanian universities. The cluster of an educated, intelligent and clever leader represents a universal characteristic that is not specifically aligned to either transformational or transactional leadership.

An "understanding" leader can effectively motivate followers by "recognition" of their achievements, encouraging their "creativity" and making their job more "interesting". However, this characteristic of understanding does not correlate with either job satisfaction or trust. Perhaps the understanding nature of the leader raises a concern in followers that they may be too concerned about their being and therefore may change their mind to accommodate each individual, with one being sacrificed for the other. Nonetheless, it is clear that the characteristic of understanding does support motivation, with it being viewed as more of a caring behaviour (Charbonneau, 2004).

The "enthusiastic" leader is valued in the university environment. The characteristic successfully combines with the "personal growth" and the "progression on job" to motivate their followers to greater things. Enthusiasm

would broadly reside within an idealized leader, who was attractive to followers through both their attributes and behaviours (Hughes and Avey, 2009). Enthusiastic leaders can equally increase followers' satisfaction by increasing the level of "responsibility" and build their trust by focusing on the "team benefit" and "fairness" of treatment among the team members. The aspect of enthusiasm is strongly associated with a dynamic transformational leader (Bass and Riggio, 2006), who urges his or her followers to buy-in to the organization's vision and sacrifice their own wishes for those of the organization.

The final characteristic refers to a "motivated" leader, which relates to "personal growth" in the area of motivation and building trust through "fairness" and "team benefit". There is not a strong relationship with a motivated leader and the area of job satisfaction. Yet, in reviewing the broader areas of styles it is apparent that Inspirational Motivation is a leading style for job satisfaction, whereby the leader uses emotional appeals to increase follower awareness of organizational goals (Nemanich and Keller, 2007). It is likely that such an anomaly can be explained through the detail. In the assessment of styles, the wider groupings are being used; however, with respect to characteristics, these are specifically targeted areas that followers feel are either important or not.

In presenting a holistic model that combines the follower and leaders perceptions of leader characteristics, there is naturally not a complete consensus across the three areas of motivation, job satisfaction and trust. Overall, however, the leader characteristics have the greatest impact on motivation, with trust being the second area of choice. This is the strength of the model, in that specific characteristics can be used to target areas that the leader seeks to influence. Thus, this unique model for leadership in Jordanian higher education is the culmination of the research into desirable leader characters and their relationship to employee motivation, trust and satisfaction.

7.4. IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY – THEORY AND PRACTICE

The positive relationship between leadership styles and staff performance in Jordanian universities is mediated by the variables of employee satisfaction, motivation, trust and leadership characteristics. Transformational leadership style affects the motivation, employment satisfaction and trust of employees in a positive way. A leader who is competent in performing his or her role and creating a dynamic work environment, with a fair allocation of resources, is likely to gain the trust of followers. Leadership behaviour has a positive effect on employees, which corresponds with their motivation and employment satisfaction. Behaviours also relate to delivering high quality reporting and positive aspects to employee satisfaction and positive beliefs, which are expected of leaders and which enhance the motivation of followers. The impact of leaders in Jordanian higher education is noteworthy, although there is still room for greater motivation, job satisfaction and trust amongst their leaders. Leadership serves to enhance the performance of teams which, in this examination, concentrates on enhancing the motivation and satisfaction of the team and to work towards establishing trust, rather than it simply occurring as part of the process of transformational leadership.

Theoretical Contributions

The study, in researching leadership in Jordanian universities, makes a substantial contribution to knowledge. Firstly, it is of note that conducting leadership research in higher education is a relatively new concept in the Middle East (Iyad, 2011). Differing perspectives of leadership styles were investigated, along with leader characteristics and the impact of styles on employee job satisfaction, motivation and trust. Independent biographical variables were introduced, which further extended the depth of the final outcomes. In addition, transformational leadership was conducted within educational service organizations, which provided an alternative perspective to the traditional workplace. Additionally, the outcomes of this study provide a platform for future research into the areas of transformational leadership, a leaders' relationship with motivation, job satisfaction and trust, situational trait leadership and contingency theory.

This pioneering research studied the interaction of leadership styles with the trust, motivation and job satisfaction of employees and, as such, makes a strong contribution to the literature on leadership and specifically leadership within higher education organisations in Jordan. The research provides an evaluation of the growing importance of the style of leadership to the context of higher education in Jordan, particularly with regard to the building of trust, motivation and the job satisfaction of employees. As the universities are an important part of the education sector in Jordan and some of the most outstanding universities in the Middle East (Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, 2010), there is a considerable prospect of them making a strong contribution to the country's economic growth.

Specifically, through the perceptions of leaders and followers, the study expanded the conceptual underpinning of transformational theory. In addition, through the exploration of the relationship between leadership, motivation, satisfaction and trust, the conceptual frameworks of these three separate and related concepts was extended. Follower's perceptions on a leader's characteristics make a contribution to implicit leadership theory. A contribution is also made to situational theory through the cultural element, by researching leadership in the unique environmental setting of Jordanian higher education. The contributions are presented though identifying the factors, from transformational theory, that are strongly associated with the elements of motivation, job satisfaction and trust, along with a model that identifies desirable characteristics and situational factors for leaders, in addressing these conceptual areas.

In summary, the areas to which the current research made a theoretical contribution are:

- Expands the theoretical underpinning of transformational theory in its purest sense, through the identification of perceptions of the overall phenomena

- Through determining the relationship between leadership and the concepts of motivation, satisfaction and trust, the frameworks of these three separate concepts have been extended

- The situational or contingency theory of leadership has been further extended by identifying outcomes from leadership research undertaken in a specific cultural and work environment

- Through the identification of ideal leader characteristics, the leader trait theory has been further developed

- The analysis of the follower perspective adds to the theoretical concept of implicit leadership theory, where it is followers who ultimately determine leadership and hence their view is important

- Finally, through the researching of transformational leadership theory and its impact on motivation, satisfaction and trust, and the design of a creditable model of leadership characteristics for Jordanian universities, the study makes a unique contribution to the overall conceptual framework.

Practical Application

Research and literature suggests that leaders have a degree of agreement over what current and future leaders need to know and be capable of doing (Bottoms and O'Neill, 2001), with, as the current study demonstrates, the followers equally having views. Whilst the study makes a strong contribution to the literature on

leadership within higher education organizations in Jordan, there is a growing notion of the practical importance that leadership is important within universities.

This study discussed the implications of leadership styles on the motivation, job satisfaction and trust of employees. The findings of this study can be used by practitioners in Jordanian universities, to improve their approach to motivating their employees and to increase their level of job satisfaction. Additionally, leaders of other universities in similar conditions as Jordanian universities can also make use of the findings of this study, the results of which can be generalised, albeit with caution, to the educational sector.

The links with the building of trust, motivation and job satisfaction are equally seen as important. Further, the universities are an important part of the education sector in Jordan, and as they contain some of the most outstanding universities in the Middle East (Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, 2010), there is considerable potential for them to make a significant contribution to the nation's economic growth and wealth. In a practical way the outcomes of this study provide a framework within which universities can embrace leadership strategies that can satisfy their prospective students, particularly if they are permitted to operate in an environment that is to become more deregulated and competitive.

It is recommended that the leaders in both public and private universities in Jordan adopt transformational leadership practices as their standard leadership style. Whilst agreement exists as to the value of transformational leadership, there is much less agreement on how the effectiveness of transactional leadership could be improved, particularly in relation to the motivation and job satisfaction of followers. Nonetheless, the followers were strongly supportive of Contingency Reward and it may be that on occasions this is intertwined with the transformational approach. Within the Jordanian educational environment,

leaders can be aware of and, where possible, adopt the specific characteristics to target specific areas, such as motivation or trust.

The findings of this study can also assist leaders and managers of other sectors in Jordan, to improve their approach to motivating and satisfying their employees. As employees within the same culture have similar values and needs, if the leaders of other sectors decide to improve the performance of their followers, they could consider the findings of this study as a base for evaluating the motivations and needs of their team.

Wider Implications of the Study

Whilst the last few years has seen a growth in the literature relating to leadership within the education sector, the volume of literature is still relatively small, with effective leadership in Jordanian higher education largely being ignored. Jordanian universities have increased their potential to attract local and regional students and there is now enthusiastic competition amongst potential students for places. New Jordanian policies have moved towards a zero-budget system, whereby the Government has encouraged institutions to be financially independent and capable of ensuring their own economic survival. It has been noted that public universities have now started to compete with those in the private sector. Given the vital contribution Jordanian universities make to the national economy, they have become highly motivated to improve their research and effectiveness, so as to acquire increased funding from the Government and other research institutions.

As a consequence of the funding model, effective leadership practices can provide a way of encouraging and inspiring university employees, so that they have a vision that is shared with the university goals, which can improve organizational performance. Transformational leadership would not only drive followers forward, it would also inspire them to pursue a shared vision, through which they would act as university representatives. In a sense, followers would

be encouraged to join in a society that encourages them to adopt the characteristics, culture and beliefs of their university. It is generally understood that the real source of the authority of the principal lies not in their position, but in their ability to encourage and inspire employees to share a vision and commit both their heart and minds to their work.

The literature suggests that the leadership skills and knowledge required to be an effective leader in higher education can be learned. A key role can be played by the universities in preparing future leaders and providing continuous learning for practising leaders. Pre-service and in-service instructional programmes need to planned around comprehensive improvement designs, where those who administer professional educational development are involved in designing the leadership programme. The areas of change strategies, personnel administration, principalship and leader supervision need to be included in the programme. The sessions need to provide simulations that enable the practice of effective leadership behaviours. Successful leaders, drawn from the university sector, need to be used to develop realistic and challenging simulations, including topic areas such as trusting the judgement of followers and recognising the achievements of staff who support their followers in difficult circumstances.

The literature and the current study confirm that the work of a leader in higher education is very demanding upon their time, and sometimes the leadership aspect is ignored. Future leaders should be prepared to lead effectively, so as to better cope with the multitude of tasks and responsibilities they are confronted with. On a practical level, if a principal or university leader is able to cope more effectively with the demands of their job, then they will have more time to consider and act on the individual needs of followers. Indeed, with the changes confronting Jordanian universities, effective leaders are needed to face the challenges ahead, which leaders can do through adopting transformational leadership styles and the associated leader characteristics as their base model.

7.5. LIMITATIONS

Due to extenuating circumstances, which are often outside the control of the researcher, it is rarely possible to conduct the perfect study. As with other research, the current study has limitations which may have impacted negatively on any of the results or outcomes. Awareness is held of these limitations and they are presented here for completeness.

Concerns exist over the measurement of employee job satisfaction. Satisfaction can be a useful predictor of employee turnover although, the concept is inherently difficult to quantify. An example of this is that surveys have, ostensibly, shown similar levels of satisfaction.

Employees within higher education may require different values of motivation, satisfaction and trust than other sectors, and general perceptions may change when aligned to individuals. The study could have been strengthened therefore, by identifying specific leaders with their followers. Whilst this would have produced meaningful data, such an approach was not acceptable, either politically or ethically.

As the study was only applied to universities in Jordan, the findings may only have significance within the Jordanian context. The results specifically relate to the styles of leadership and characteristics that are part of the work culture within the universities in Jordan, and whilst the findings may prove to be useful indicators for other universities, they may not be automatically applicable to them. Thus, whilst it is statistically possible to generalise to Jordanian universities, generalising to universities in the West or even those in other Arabian countries in the Middle East, is not justified, as it is important to consider the socio-cultural and economic context of the study.

The specific period for the study from 2007 to 2011 coincided with major political changes in Jordanian universities that may have impacted on the results. Also, due to logistical restrictions, it was not possible to choose the sample of employees and leaders from the universities in a strictly random way. This may have impacted on the inferential statistics, although the large sample size would have helped reduce any effect. The reason behind identifying different Jordanian universities is that they are generally accepted to have Christian and Islamic backgrounds, although this was not assessed directly. However, it is interesting to note that, in the main, a broad consensus was shown between the institutions.

The study focused on perceived leadership and the relationship between styles of leadership and the motivation, satisfaction and trust. The case could arise where a leader may indeed be effective, although the employee may evaluate their performance negatively, due to personal differences. The large sample will have helped reduce any effect yet, it is important to understand the actual reality of the follower and the impact the leader's behaviour has on them.

It is possible that personal characteristics other than those sought from the respondents could have had an influence on the findings. However, it was not possible to cover all possible variables in one survey and those chosen were identified though the pilot test

A further potential limitation of this study is that it was not possible to capture the service quality offered by multi-national universities, although these might have been in the subconscious minds of employees when they reflected on their degree of satisfaction and motivation.

The limitations are presented to indicate that this study, as with others, had its flaws and that an awareness of these is held and was considered in the foregoing analysis. Some of the limitations, however, lead to opportunities for future development and additional research.

7.6. FURTHER RESEARCH

This research has opened new avenues in relation to leadership in Jordan's higher education sector and from this there are opportunities for future research. Studies are invariably carried out within a certain time frame and under particular situations, and in this ever-changing world it is important to carry out comparative research within a variety of frameworks, to explore different time frames and situations. Taking this and the above limitations into account, the current research can be developed into a number of ways.

In order to establish a consistent pattern in followers' perceptions of the leader behaviours, the study can be undertaken repeatedly in the target universities, to provide a longitudinal form of data collection.

Only five universities were investigated for this study. To gain a fuller understanding of the nature of leadership behaviours in Jordan's universities, research should be undertaken that involves the inviting of participants from other universities within Jordan that have an international culture, such as the American University.

In order to build a more generalizable model of transformational leadership and its associated impact, a duplicate study could be conducted in the other Arab universities within the Middle East.

Future research could carry out a comparative study between university leadership and the leadership being operated in other sectors of the Jordanian economy.

This research has suggested the need to research the effect of women in leadership roles, which is a notion that has been increasing within Jordan in recent years. There is a need to establish the relationship between gender and job satisfaction, as well as assessing the notion of women leaders and their followers in the creation of trust.

The research could be extended into other service industries, with parallel studies being conducted. Such studies would examine transformational leadership and the associated characteristics, in different service sectors such as mental health, school education, health care and insurance, and provide comparative sector studies.

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APPENDIX I – LEADERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Introduction

Dear Manager

This questionnaire seeks your views and opinions about your work, the university you work in and the relationship between you and your employees. The survey, which forms part of my PhD, seeks your personal views, with there being no right or wrong answer. The survey is voluntary, although if you choose not to take part you will be giving up your chance to have your voice heard.

All your answers will be treated as completely confidential and results will be grouped together so no individual responses can be identified. The data will be analysed in a confidential way, at Liverpool John Moores University, in the United Kingdom, and no individual will be able to be traced.

The questionnaire is in three sections. The first section seeks information on your leadership style, whilst the second section relates more to aspects of your job, with the third section seeking individual information.

The questionnaire should take no longer than 20 minutes to complete. In general the first response that occurs to you is the best one to put down and remember, it's your thoughts that are needed.

Thank you for your responses and it is much appreciated

CONFIDENTIAL

Section one - Leadership style

1. This section refers to the way you handle your followers – remember, there are no right or wrong answers, so please be as honest as you can.

(Please circle one number for each question)

When I work with my team, I ..

		Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1	Provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Fail to interfere until problems become serious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Focus attention on deviations from standards, such as irregularities, mistakes and exceptions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Avoid getting involved when important issues arise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Talk to my employees about my most important values and beliefs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Am often absent when needed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Seek differing perspectives when solving problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Talk optimistically about the future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Instil pride in them for being associated with me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Wait for things to go wrong before taking action	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Spend time teaching and coaching my followers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	Make clear what followers can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Go beyond self-interest for the good of the group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Demonstrate that problems usually have to become chronic before I take action	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	Act in ways that builds others' respect for me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	Show consideration for the moral consequences of my decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	Keep track of all mistakes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	Display a sense of confidence in others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	Articulate a compelling vision of the future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

25	Direct my attention toward those who fail to meet standards	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26	Avoid making decisions by myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	Consider individuals have different needs and aspirations from others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	Get others to look at problems from different angles	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	Express satisfaction when others meet expectations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	Express confidence that goals will be achieved	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	Show that I am a firm believer in "If it isn't broke, don't fix it."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	Emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of mission	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33	Help others to develop their strengths	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34	Suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	Concentrate fully on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36	Delay responding to urgent questions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. What leadership characteristics do you believe are best for leaders in a university environment? It is not necessary that you have such characteristics, it's just what you think are important.

(Please circle one number for each question)

		Not Important						**Extremely Important**
1	Energetic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Educated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Selfish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Strong character	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Conceited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Male	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Domineering	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Helpful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Motivated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Sincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Loud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Masculine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Clever	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	Obnoxious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Dedicated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Pushy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Understanding	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	Manipulative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section Two – job variables

1. Here you are asked to express the way you work with your followers to motivate them, build job satisfaction and your trust in them.
2. So it is about the way you treat followers to build trust in your decisions, enhance job satisfaction and increase trust - again there is no perfect answer here, so please answer the questions truthfully.

A. Motivation

When you motivate your followers to what extent do you..

(Please circle one number for each question)

		Not at all						All the time
1	Make them busy all the times	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Provide new challenges	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Put them in a competitive environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Make them fearful of failure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Give them some control over their work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Give them recognition for their efforts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Encourage them to work to ethical standards	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Give them room to be creative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Give them flexibility in how they work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Let them challenge for promotion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Put them under pressure to work harder	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Make them work as a team, not individually	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Give them a chance to supervise where they can	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Reward them with money	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Encourage them to feel secure in their jobs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	Let them decide on the way to carry out their job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Encourage them to develop new knowledge and skills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Challenge them physically if they make mistakes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Remind them of previous jobs that have been successful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	Let them know that their work is appreciated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	Give them recognition of their skills and competencies	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	Encourage them to work to personal principles	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

B. Job satisfaction

Please indicate what increases job satisfaction in your followers.

Increase job satisfaction in followers is caused by..

(Please circle one number for each question)

		Not at all						All the time
1	Good physical work conditions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Freedom to choose their own method of working	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Colleagues in the team	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Recognition of their good work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Their immediate boss	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	The degree of responsibility given to do their job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Their salary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	The relations between leaders and followers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Their chances of promotion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	The way the institution is managed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	The attention paid to suggestions they make	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	The hours they work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	The degree of variety in their job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Their job security	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	The degree to which the leader works with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	The way their leader handles the team members	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	The decision-making capabilities of the leader	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	The extent to which their leader allows them to do make use of their abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	How well the leader recognises their contribution	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	How strongly they contribute to the organizational goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	How satisfied they feel about their job as a whole	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C. Trust

Please indicate how you build trust from your followers

To build trust I ..

(Please circle one number for each question)

		Not at all						All the time
1	Try always to treat them fairly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Show them loyalty at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Am honest with them in my promises	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Am truthful with them when I speak with them	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Give them all the help they need	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Show them the objectives the team needs to accomplish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Tell them what authority they can use	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Avoid family issues when I deal with my team	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Try to make their job non-stressful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Try to calm them down when they are worried	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. What do you feel are the most important tools in motivating your followers?

(*Please rank the items, with 1 being the most important through to 14, which is the least important*)

Item	Rank
Achievement of their work	
Progression on job position	
Commercial outlook	
Competition with their colleagues	
Personal principles	
Recognition from their managers	
Power on job	
Interest in what they are doing	
Personal growth (their skills)	
Level of activity (challengeable jobs)	
Social connection	
Ease and security of their job	
Fear of failure	
Others (please specify)	

4. What are the most important factors that satisfy your followers?

(*Please rank the items, with 1 being the most important through to 10, which is the least important*)

Item	Rank
Physical work conditions	
Hours of work	
Choose their own ways of working	
Their job security	
Recognition from their manager	
Taking part in making decisions	
Level of responsibilities	
Promotions	
Their salary rate	
Others (please specify)	

5. How can you build trust with your followers?

(Please rank the items, with 1 being the most important through to 7, which is the least important)

Provide fair treatment (*Fairness*)	
Stand up with them in an emergency	
Be loyal toward them (*Loyalty*)	
Show advantages for the whole team (*Team benefit*)	
Be honesty and keep promises	
Be truthful in what is said	
Others (please specify).....	

Part Three - Background information

(Please circle one response for each question)

1. What is your sex?

   Male Female

2. How old are you?

   Under 25 years 25 to 35 years 36 to 45 years Over 46 years

3. What is your position at the university?

   Administration manager Department leader Research team leader Other manager position

4. How many employees work under your team?

   Under 20 between 20 and 30 between 31 and 50 Over 51

5. What is your ***highest*** educational qualification?

   other Doctorate A level Bachelor Master

6. How long have you been working in the Educational field in general (as a manager)

Under one year 1-3 years 4-6 years 7-9 years 10-15 years over 15 years

7. Which university are you working with?

Yarmouk University		The University of Jordan	
Mu'tah University		Philadelphia University	
Irbid University			

The End

Thank you for your time

APPENDIX II – FOLLOWERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

Introduction to the questionnaire

Dear Employee

This questionnaire seeks your views and opinions about your work, the university you work in and the relationship between you and your employees. The survey, which forms part of my PhD, seeks your personal views, with there being no right or wrong answer. The survey is voluntary, although if you choose not to take part you will be giving up your chance to have your voice heard.

All your answers will be treated as completely confidential and results will be grouped together so no individual responses can be identified. The data will be analysed in a confidential way, at Liverpool John Moores University, in the United Kingdom, and no individual will be able to be traced.

The questionnaire is in three sections; the first section seeks information on how you view different leadership styles, whilst the second section relates more to aspects of your job. The final section seeks information about you and your organization.

The questionnaire should take no longer than 20 minutes to complete. In general the first response that occurs to you is the best one to put down and remember, it's your thoughts that are needed.

Thank you for your responds and it is much appreciated

Part One

Section One - Leadership styles

1. Thinking of your manager's leadership style, please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement

My manager..

(Please circle one number for each question)

		Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1.	provides me with assistance in exchange for my efforts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	fails to interfere until problems become serious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	focuses attention on irregularities mistakes, exceptions and deviations from standards	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	avoids getting involved when important issues arise	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	talks about their most important values and beliefs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	is absent when needed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	seeks different perspectives when solving problems	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	talks optimistically about the future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10.	instils pride in me for being associated with him/her	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	waits for things to go wrong before taking action	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	spends time teaching and coaching	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	makes clear what I can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	treats me as an individual rather than just a member of a group	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	acts in ways that builds my respect	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	keeps track of all mistakes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23	displays a sense of power and confidence	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24	articulates a compelling vision of the future	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25	directs my attention toward failures to meet standards	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

26	avoids making decisions alone	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27	considers me as having different needs, abilities and aspirations from others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28	gets me to look at problems from many different angles	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29	expresses satisfaction when I meet expectations	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30	expresses confidence that goals will be achieved	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31	Shows his belief that "If it isn't broke, don't fix it."	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32	Emphasises the importance of having a collective sense of mission	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33	Improves my strengths	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34	Encourages me to look at how to complete assignments in different ways	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35	Always focuses on my mistakes, complaints and failures	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
36	Always delays in responding to urgent questions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. Thinking about what you consider a good leader's characteristics should be, please rate the following.

(Please circle one number for each question)

		Not Important						Extremely Important
1	Energetic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Educated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Selfish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Strong character	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Conceited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Male	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Intelligent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Domineering	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Helpful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Motivated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Sincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Loud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Masculine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Clever	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	Obnoxious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Dedicated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Pushy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Understanding	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	Manipulative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Section Two – job variables

1. Here you are asked to express the way your leader motivates you, increases your job satisfaction and builds your trust.
2. So it is about the way your leader treats you to build trust in their decisions, to motivate you and give you job satisfaction – there is no perfect answer here, so please answer the question truthfully.

(Please circle one number for each question)

A. Motivation

		Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
1	My leader makes me busy at work all the time	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	My leader provides me with new challenges to achieve objectives	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	My leader puts me in a competitive environment	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	My leader makes me fear of failure at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	My leader gives me some control over my work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	My leader provides me with recognition for my efforts	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	My leader encourages me to work to ethical standards	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	My leader gives me some chance to be creative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	My leader gives me flexibility in my working conditions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	My leader gives me the chance to challenge with others for promotions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	My leader puts me under pressure to work harder	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	My leader encourages me to operate as part of a team, rather than as an individual contributor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	My leader gives me the chance to supervise other people's tasks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	My leader rewards me with money for my job performance	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	My leader provides me with the feeling of security in my job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	My leader gives me the chance to decide how to carry out work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	My leader encourages me to develop new knowledge and skills	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	My leader challenges me physically if I make mistakes	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	My leader reminds me of previous jobs that have been successful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	My leader lets me know that my work is appreciated	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	My leader gives me recognition of my skills and competencies	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22	My leader encourages me to work to my personal principles	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

B. Job satisfaction

With regards to the following statements, please rate how your leader gives you job satisfaction

(Please circle one number for each question)

		Not at all						Extremely
1	The physical work conditions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	The freedom to choose your own method of working	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	The colleagues in your team	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	The recognition you get from your leader for good work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Your immediate boss	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	The amount of responsibility you are given to do your job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Your salary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	The relationship between you and your leaders	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Your chance of promotion	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	The way your institution is managed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	The attention paid to suggestions you make	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Your hours of work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	The amount of variety in your job	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Your job security	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	The way in which your leader works with others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	The way your leader handles the team members	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Your leader's decision making capabilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	The extent to which your leader allows you to do something that makes use of your abilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Your leader's recognition of your contribution	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	With your contribution to the organizational goals	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21	How satisfied do you feel about your job as a whole	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

C. Trust

With regards to the following statements, please rate how your leader builds trust in you

(Please circle one number for each question)

		Not at all						Extremely
1	How confident are you that your manager will always treat you fairly	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Do you feel a strong sense of loyalty towards your manager	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Do you believe that your manager is honest with his/her followers	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Do you believe in the truthfulness of your leader	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Do you believe that your leader gives you all the help you need	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Do you feel that your leader shows you the objectives the team needs to accomplish	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Do you have a clear understanding about your authority	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Does your manager treat you or any of your group according to their family background	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Does your job make you depressed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Does your job make your worried	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Part Two

Job variables

1. What do you feel are the most important aspects of work that motivate you?

(Please rank the items, with 1 being the most important through to 14, which is the least important)

Item	Rank
Achievement of your work	
Progression on job position	
Commercial outlook	
Competition with your colleagues	
Personal principles	
Recognition from your managers	
Power on job	
Interest in what you are doing	

Personal growth (your skills)	
Level of activity (challengeable jobs)	
Social connection	
Ease and security job	
Fear of failure	
Others (please specify)	

2. What do you feel are the most important job factors that satisfy you?

(Please rank the items, with 1 being the most important through to 10, which is the least important)

Item	**Rank**
Physical work conditions	
Hours of work	
Choose your own ways of working	
Your job security	
Recognition from your manager	
Taking part in making decisions	
Level of responsibilities	
Promotions	
Your salary rate	
Others please specify	

3. What are the most important factors that build trust with your leader?

(Please rank the items, with 1 being the most important through to 7, which is the least important)

Fair treatment from your manager (*Fairness*)	
Stand by you in an emergency	
Loyalty toward your manger (*Loyalty*)	
Sees advantages for the whole team (*Team benefit*)	
Honesty and keeping promises	
Truthfulness of what your manager says	
Others (please specify).....	

Part Three - Background information

(*Please circle one response for each question*)

8. What is your sex?

Male Female

9. How old are you?

Under 25 years 25 to 35 years 36 to 45 years Over 46 years

10. What is your position at the university?

Administration Teaching staff Research staff Other

11. How many employees in your department?

Under 20 between 20 and 30 between 31 and 50 Over 51

12. What is your ***highest*** educational qualification?

GCSA or under A level Bachelor Master Doctorate

13. How long have you been working in the Educational field in general

Under one year 1-3 years 4-6 years 7-9 years 10-15 years over 15 years

14. Which university are you working with?

Yarmouk University		The University of Jordan	
Mu'tah University		Philadelphia University	
Irbid University			

The End

Thank you for your time

APPENDIX III – SAMPLE SIZE

DEFINING THE SAMPLE SIZE

The sample size for each organization is determined by using the formulation as follows:

$$S.E\ (x) = \sqrt{\frac{\sigma 2}{n-1} X \frac{N-n}{N-1}}$$

Where:
N is the number or the units in the population
n is the number of the units in the sample
σ is the standard deviation
S.E(x) is the standard error of the mean

According to the formulae, we have known the number of population, whilst the standard deviation and standard error of the mean may be found from the pilot test. Standard error and standard deviation of transformational leadership: 0.05 and 0.71.
Therefore, the sample size can be found as follows:

1. University 1.A

(0.05 = 0.71 / (√ n- 1) X √(N - n)/ √(N - 1)

0.0025 = (0.5041 /n- 1) x (1542 - n) / 1541

(0.0025 n-0.0025) x 1541 = 0,5041 (1542 - n)

3.8525n-3.8525 = 777.3222 - 0.5041n

4.3566n= 781.1747
n= 179.308
Sample size of the university = 180 respondents.

2. University 1.B
(0.05 = 0.71 / (√ n- 1) X √(N - n)/ √(N - 1)

0.0025 = (0.5041 /n- 1) x (1125 - n) / 1124

(0.0025 n-0.0025) x 1124 = 0.5041 (1125 - n)

2.81n-2.81 = 567.1125 - 0.5041n
3.3141n= 569.9225
n= 171.96
Sample size of the university = 172 respondents.

3. University 1.C
(0.05 = 0.71 / (√ n- 1) X √(N - n)/ √(N - 1)

0.0025 = (0.5041 /n- 1) x (1644 - n) / 1643

(0.0025 n-0.0025) x 1643 = 0.5041 (1644 - n)

4.1075n-4.1075 = 828.7404 - 0.5041n
4.6116n= 832.8479
n= 180.59
Sample size of the university = 181respondents.

4. University 2.A
(0.05 = 0.71 / (√ n- 1) X √(N - n)/ √(N - 1)

0.0025 = (0.5041 /n- 1) x (320 - n) / 319

(0.0025 n-0.0025) x 319 = 0.5041 (320 - n)

0.7975n-0.7975 = 161.312 - 0.5041n
1.3016n= 162.1095
n= 124.55
Sample size of the university = 125 respondents.

5. University 2.B
(0.05 = 0.71 / (√ n- 1) X √(N - n)/ √(N - 1)

0.0025 = (0.5041 /n- 1) x (394 - n) / 393

(0.0025 n-0.0025) x 393 = 0.5041 (394 - n)

0.9825n – 0.9825 = 198.6154 – 0.5041n

1.4866n = 199.5979
n= 134.27
Sample size of the university = 135 respondents.

APPENDIX IV - FREQUENCIES AND MEAN DATA

Frequency Tables – All Data

questionnaire

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Employee	503	71.1	71.1	71.1
	Leaders	204	28.9	28.9	100.0
	Total	707	100.0	100.0	

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	male	469	66.3	66.3	66.3
	Female	238	33.7	33.7	100.0
	Total	707	100.0	100.0	

Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	under 25	173	24.5	24.5	24.5
	25 to 35	232	32.8	32.8	57.3
	36 to 45	203	28.7	28.7	86.0
	over 46	99	14.0	14.0	100.0
	Total	707	100.0	100.0	

position

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	administration	137	19.4	19.4	19.4
	teaching staff	219	31.0	31.0	50.4
	research staff	109	15.4	15.4	65.8
	other	38	5.4	5.4	71.1
	rector and vice rector	20	2.8	2.8	74.0
	dean	28	4.0	4.0	77.9
	head of division or department	60	8.5	8.5	86.4
	head of section or program	96	13.6	13.6	100.0
	Total	707	100.0	100.0	

number of employee

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	under 20	332	47.0	47.0	47.0
	20 and 30	90	12.7	12.7	59.7
	31 and 50	166	23.5	23.5	83.2
	over 51	119	16.8	16.8	100.0
	Total	707	100.0	100.0	

education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	A level or under	128	18.1	18.1	18.1
	bachelor	172	24.3	24.3	42.4
	master	294	41.6	41.6	84.0
	PHD or over	113	16.0	16.0	100.0
	Total	707	100.0	100.0	

experience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	under 4 years	43	6.1	6.1	6.1
	between 4 and 6	122	17.3	17.3	23.3
	between 7-9	234	33.1	33.1	56.4
	between 10-15	197	27.9	27.9	84.3
	over 15 years	111	15.7	15.7	100.0
	Total	707	100.0	100.0	

location of work

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yarmouk	143	20.2	20.4	20.4
	Mu'tah	157	22.2	22.4	42.9
	University of Jordan	162	22.9	23.1	66.0
	Irbid uni	127	18.0	18.1	84.1
	Philadelphia uni	111	15.7	15.9	100.0
	Total	700	99.0	100.0	
Missing	99	7	1.0		
Total		707	100.0		

Frequencies - Leaders

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	male	136	66.7	66.7	66.7
	Female	68	33.3	33.3	100.0
	Total	204	100.0	100.0	

Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	under 25	7	3.4	3.4	3.4
	25 to 35	83	40.7	40.7	44.1
	36 to 45	80	39.2	39.2	83.3
	over 46	34	16.7	16.7	100.0
	Total	204	100.0	100.0	

position

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	rector and vice rector	20	9.8	9.8	9.8
	dean	28	13.7	13.7	23.5
	head of division or department	60	29.4	29.4	52.9
	head of section or program	96	47.1	47.1	100.0
	Total	204	100.0	100.0	

number of employee

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	under 20	96	47.1	47.1	47.1
	20 and 30	27	13.2	13.2	60.3
	31 and 50	47	23.0	23.0	83.3
	over 51	34	16.7	16.7	100.0
	Total	204	100.0	100.0	

education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	bachelor	48	23.5	23.5	23.5
	master	122	59.8	59.8	83.3
	PhD or over	34	16.7	16.7	100.0
	Total	204	100.0	100.0	

experience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	between 4 and 6	35	17.2	17.2	17.2
	between 7-9	62	30.4	30.4	47.5
	between 10-15	73	35.8	35.8	83.3
	over 15 years	34	16.7	16.7	100.0
	Total	204	100.0	100.0	

location of work

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yarmouk	41	20.1	20.8	20.8
	Mu'tah	50	24.5	25.4	46.2
	University of Jordan	37	18.1	18.8	65.0
	Irbid uni	42	20.6	21.3	86.3
	Philadelphia uni	27	13.2	13.7	100.0
	Total	197	96.6	100.0	
Missing	99	7	3.4		
Total		204	100.0		

Frequencies - Followers

Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	male	333	66.2	66.2	66.2
	Female	170	33.8	33.8	100.0
	Total	503	100.0	100.0	

Age

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	under 25	166	33.0	33.0	33.0
	25 to 35	149	29.6	29.6	62.6
	36 to 45	123	24.5	24.5	87.1
	over 46	65	12.9	12.9	100.0
	Total	503	100.0	100.0	

position

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	administration	137	27.2	27.2	27.2
	teaching staff	219	43.5	43.5	70.8
	research staff	109	21.7	21.7	92.4
	other	38	7.6	7.6	100.0
	Total	503	100.0	100.0	

number of employee

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	under 20	236	46.9	46.9	46.9
	20 and 30	63	12.5	12.5	59.4
	31 and 50	119	23.7	23.7	83.1
	over 51	85	16.9	16.9	100.0
	Total	503	100.0	100.0	

education

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	A level or under	128	25.4	25.4	25.4
	bachelor	124	24.7	24.7	50.1
	master	172	34.2	34.2	84.3
	PHD or over	79	15.7	15.7	100.0
	Total	503	100.0	100.0	

experience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	under 4 years	43	8.5	8.5	8.5
	between 4 and 6	87	17.3	17.3	25.8
	between 7-9	172	34.2	34.2	60.0
	between 10-15	124	24.7	24.7	84.7
	over 15 years	77	15.3	15.3	100.0
	Total	503	100.0	100.0	

location of work

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yarmouk	102	20.3	20.3	20.3
	Mu'tah	107	21.3	21.3	41.6
	University of Jordan	125	24.9	24.9	66.4
	Irbid uni	85	16.9	16.9	83.3
	Philadelphia uni	84	16.7	16.7	100.0
	Total	503	100.0	100.0	

Means

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
ideal_leader15	707	3	7	5.60	1.119
ideal_leader2	707	1	7	5.58	1.130
ideal_leader7	707	1	7	5.55	1.135
ideal_leader19	707	3	7	5.50	1.089
ideal_leader8	707	1	7	5.42	1.204
ideal_leader11	707	2	7	5.41	1.150
ideal_leader13	707	1	7	4.34	1.290
ideal_leader17	707	1	7	4.29	1.801
ideal_leader14	707	1	7	4.19	1.352
ideal_leader4	707	1	7	3.85	1.819
ideal_leader10	707	1	7	3.57	1.582
ideal_leader6	707	1	7	3.51	1.709
ideal_leader5	707	1	7	2.67	1.461
ideal_leader9	707	1	7	2.63	1.487
ideal_leader3	707	1	7	2.59	1.485
ideal_leader20	707	1	6	2.39	1.389
ideal_leader18	707	1	6	2.39	1.389
ideal_leader16	707	1	6	2.39	1.389
Valid N (listwise)	707				

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Rank_mot14	707	2	14	9.97	3.974
Rank_mot13	707	1	14	8.43	3.806
Rank_mot8	707	1	14	8.02	4.172
Rank_mot3	707	1	14	7.89	3.427
Rank_mot10	707	1	14	7.64	3.937
Rank_mot12	707	1	14	7.63	4.428
Rank_mot2	707	1	14	7.49	4.534
Rank_mot6	707	1	14	7.30	3.594
Rank_mot1	707	1	14	7.28	3.429
Rank_mot4	707	1	14	7.07	3.915
Rank_mot7	707	1	14	7.01	3.476
Rank_mot11	707	1	14	6.81	4.310
Rank_mot9	707	1	14	6.67	3.577
Rank_mot5	707	1	14	5.63	4.004
Valid N (listwise)	707				

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Rank_sat10	707	1	10	7.63	2.852
Rank_sat2	707	1	10	6.23	2.710
Rank_sat7	707	1	10	5.86	2.619
Rank_sat1	707	1	10	5.85	2.897
Rank_sat6	707	1	10	5.51	2.538
Rank_sat9	662	1	10	5.20	2.646
Rank_sat3	707	1	10	5.10	2.568
Rank_sat5	707	1	10	4.87	2.765
Rank_sat8	662	1	10	4.66	2.817
Rank_sat4	707	1	10	4.03	2.771
Valid N (listwise)	662				

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Rank_trust7	707	2	7	5.96	1.424
Rank_trust3	707	1	7	4.46	1.942
Rank_trust2	707	1	7	4.27	1.703
Rank_trust6	707	1	7	3.90	1.785
Rank_trust1	707	1	7	3.24	1.889
Rank_trust4	707	1	7	3.17	1.665
Rank_trust5	707	1	7	2.98	1.790
Valid N (listwise)	707				

APPENDIX V - RELIABILITY TESTS

Descriptive – All Data

Descriptive Statistics – All Data

	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
manager_char1	707	.781	.092	-.829	.184
manager_char2	707	.383	.092	-1.033	.184
manager_char3	707	.573	.092	-.991	.184
manager_char4	707	.987	.092	-.262	.184
manager_char5	707	.487	.092	-1.128	.184
manager_char6	707	.673	.092	-.757	.184
manager_char7	707	.225	.092	-1.075	.184
manager_char8	707	.106	.092	-1.074	.184
manager_char9	707	.762	.092	-.751	.184
manager_char10	707	.719	.092	-.693	.184
manager_char11	707	.752	.092	-.869	.184
manager_char12	707	.756	.092	-.497	.184
manager_char13	707	.756	.092	-.685	.184
manager_char14	707	.778	.092	-.595	.184
manager_char15	707	.589	.092	-.940	.184
manager_char16	707	.693	.092	-.966	.184
manager_char17	707	-.236	.092	1.434	.184
manager_char18	707	.455	.092	-1.077	.184
manager_char19	707	.800	.092	-.513	.184
manager_char20	707	-.446	.092	1.790	.184
manager_char21	707	.595	.092	-.812	.184
manager_char22	707	.637	.092	-.924	.184
manager_char23	707	.785	.092	-.594	.184
manager_char24	707	.443	.092	-1.151	.184
manager_char25	707	1.260	.092	.414	.184
manager_char26	707	.266	.092	-1.225	.184
manager_char27	707	.556	.092	-1.048	.184
manager_char28	707	.356	.092	-1.023	.184
manager_char29	707	.709	.092	-.932	.184
manager_char30	707	.815	.092	-.664	.184
manager_char31	707	.704	.092	-.814	.184
manager_char32	707	.825	.092	-.516	.184
manager_char33	707	.260	.092	-1.300	.184
manager_char34	707	.375	.092	-.978	.184
manager_char35	707	1.440	.092	1.320	.184
manager_char36	707	.394	.092	-1.241	.184
mot_1	707	-.345	.092	-.623	.184
mot_2	707	-.227	.092	-.452	.184
mot_3	707	-.324	.092	-.059	.184
mot_4	707	-.199	.092	.013	.184
mot_5	707	-.299	.092	-.212	.184
mot_6	707	.015	.092	.100	.184

mot_7	707	-.396	.092	.271	.184
mot_8	707	-.354	.092	.248	.184
mot_9	707	-.453	.092	.272	.184
mot_10	707	-.288	.092	.303	.184
mot_11	707	-.465	.092	.573	.184
mot_12	707	.001	.092	.607	.184
mot_13	707	-.421	.092	-.268	.184
mot_14	707	.182	.092	-.461	.184
mot_15	707	.261	.092	-.105	.184
mot_16	707	.323	.092	-.263	.184
mot_17	707	.377	.092	.084	.184
mot_18	707	-.469	.092	.366	.184
mot_19	707	.337	.092	.232	.184
mot_20	707	-.435	.092	.261	.184
mot_21	707	-.465	.092	1.788	.184
mot_22	707	-.059	.092	-1.022	.184
sat_1	707	-.431	.092	.261	.184
sat_2	707	-.056	.092	.800	.184
sat_3	707	-.562	.092	.334	.184
sat_4	707	-.283	.092	.172	.184
sat_5	707	-.365	.092	-.085	.184
sat_6	707	-.038	.092	-.053	.184
sat_7	707	-.283	.092	.496	.184
sat_8	707	.002	.092	.077	.184
sat_9	707	-.148	.092	.540	.184
sat_10	707	-.414	.092	-.075	.184
sat_11	707	-.240	.092	.130	.184
sat_12	707	-.183	.092	.659	.184
sat_13	707	-.556	.092	.385	.184
sat_14	707	-.399	.092	.358	.184
sat_15	707	-.150	.092	.397	.184
sat_16	707	.079	.092	.104	.184
sat_17	707	-.027	.092	-1.050	.184
sat_18	707	.054	.092	-1.038	.184
sat_19	707	-.087	.092	-.997	.184
sat_20	707	-.070	.092	-.725	.184
sat_21	707	-.325	.092	-.812	.184
trust_1	707	.216	.092	-.333	.184
trust_2	707	-.258	.092	.193	.184
trust_3	707	-.078	.092	.431	.184
trust_4	707	-.152	.092	.309	.184
trust_5	707	-.201	.092	.125	.184
trust_6	707	.121	.092	-.023	.184
trust_7	707	.069	.092	-.141	.184
trust_8	707	.084	.092	-.274	.184
trust_9	707	-.300	.092	.045	.184
trust_10	707	-.182	.092	-.818	.184
ideal_leader1	707	-.464	.092	-.511	.184
ideal_leader2	707	-.537	.092	-.198	.184
ideal_leader3	707	.674	.092	-.539	.184

ideal_leader4	707	-.120	.092	-1.233	.184
ideal_leader5	707	.622	.092	-.529	.184
ideal_leader6	707	.223	.092	-1.160	.184
ideal_leader7	707	-.481	.092	-.304	.184
ideal_leader8	707	-.478	.092	-.214	.184
ideal_leader9	707	.696	.092	-.381	.184
ideal_leader10	707	.084	.092	-.961	.184
ideal_leader11	707	-.348	.092	-.558	.184
ideal_leader12	707	-.467	.092	-.250	.184
ideal_leader13	707	-.570	.092	.263	.184
ideal_leader14	707	-.466	.092	-.156	.184
ideal_leader15	707	-.433	.092	-.605	.184
ideal_leader16	707	.802	.092	-.243	.184
ideal_leader17	707	-.385	.092	-.970	.184
ideal_leader18	707	.802	.092	-.243	.184
ideal_leader19	707	-.278	.092	-.612	.184
ideal_leader20	707	.802	.092	-.243	.184
Rank_mot1	707	-.073	.092	-.561	.184
Rank_mot2	707	.047	.092	-1.398	.184
Rank_mot3	707	-.347	.092	-.543	.184
Rank_mot4	707	-.140	.092	-1.399	.184
Rank_mot5	707	.157	.092	-1.507	.184
Rank_mot6	707	.206	.092	-.732	.184
Rank_mot7	707	.187	.092	-.913	.184
Rank_mot8	707	-.307	.092	-1.246	.184
Rank_mot9	707	.426	.092	-.890	.184
Rank_mot10	707	-.168	.092	-1.292	.184
Rank_mot11	707	.422	.092	-1.416	.184
Rank_mot12	707	.131	.092	-1.551	.184
Rank_mot13	707	-.284	.092	-1.013	.184
Rank_mot14	707	-.577	.092	-1.065	.184
Rank_sat1	707	-.391	.092	-1.040	.184
Rank_sat2	707	-.585	.092	-.812	.184
Rank_sat3	707	-.164	.092	-1.253	.184
Rank_sat4	707	.530	.092	-.896	.184
Rank_sat5	707	.505	.092	-.932	.184
Rank_sat6	707	.141	.092	-.615	.184
Rank_sat7	707	-.281	.092	-.874	.184
Rank_sat8	662	.547	.095	-1.052	.190
Rank_sat9	662	.289	.095	-1.333	.190
Rank_sat10	707	-.936	.092	-.469	.184
Rank_trust1	707	.377	.092	-.888	.184
Rank_trust2	707	-.049	.092	-.864	.184
Rank_trust3	707	-.643	.092	-.946	.184
Rank_trust4	707	.293	.092	-.862	.184
Rank_trust5	707	.853	.092	-.466	.184
Rank_trust6	707	-.063	.092	-1.163	.184
IA	707	.771	.092	-.316	.184
IB	707	.823	.092	-.133	.184
IM	707	.605	.092	-.567	.184

IS	707	.536	.092	-.076	.184
IC	707	.445	.092	-.568	.184
CR	707	.756	.092	-.556	.184
MBEA	707	.886	.092	.232	.184
MBEP	707	.550	.092	-.665	.184
LF	707	.489	.092	-.819	.184
MOTIVATION	707	.378	.092	.608	.184
SATISFACTION	707	-.281	.092	.720	.184
TRUST	707	.082	.092	.805	.184
Charact	707	1.192	.092	2.076	.184
Valid N (listwise)	662				

Reliability

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	707	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	707	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.875	109

Reliability - Followers

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	503	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	503	100.0

a. Listwise deletion based on all variables in the procedure.

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.891	109

Reliability - Leaders

Scale: ALL VARIABLES

Case Processing Summary

		N	%
Cases	Valid	204	100.0
	Excluded[a]	0	.0
	Total	204	100.0

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.805	109