

**POWER DISTANCE ORIENTATION, GENDER, AND
EVALUATION OF TRANSFORMATIONAL AND
TRANSACTIONAL LEADERS**

A thesis submitted for the degree of doctor of philosophy

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ABSTRACT

Women all over the world are still having difficulties in occupying leadership positions. People perceive males as being highly qualified and likely to be considered as leaders. Females are less likely to be perceived as leaders and to be less effective in carrying it out. There are different leadership theories but the most studied and popular one nowadays is the transformational and transactional model. Female leaders are said to use a leadership behavior based on interpersonal relationships and sharing of power and information, the behavior which is usually associated with the style of leadership known as transformational. Male leaders have been found to influence performance by using rewards and punishment, the behavior mainly associated with the style of leaders known as transactional. The individuals, who work for leaders, are called followers. How followers view the magnitude of difference in power between themselves and their leaders is called a *power distance orientation*.

The purpose of this study was to evaluate transformational and transactional leadership with a gendered and culturally appropriate lens, particularly, to extend the research on gender, leadership and culture area in an Arab Middle East context where little research has been done. This study was guided by two research questions; the first one examining the interaction effect of the participant's *power distance orientation* and the leader's gender on the participant's perception of the transformational leader; the second one examining the interaction effect of the participant's *power distance orientation* and the leader's gender on the participant's perception of the transactional leader. This research adopted the quantitative method; the use of vignettes and a questionnaire. 437 employees in an organization in Syria returned a complete and usable questionnaire. Data analyzed using ANOVA and hierarchical multiple regression revealed a significant interaction effect of the gender of the

leader and the participant's *power distance orientation* on evaluation of a transformational leader on three out of the five dimensions of transformational leadership. Also, results revealed no significant interaction effect of the gender of the leader and the participant's power distance orientation on evaluation of a transactional leader on the three dimensions. This research makes an important contribution to theoretical understanding of gender by showing gender-role stereotyping may change over time and place. This study offers insight into the culture leadership research that means evaluation of performance for transformational leaders is influenced by the cultural value of a follower's *power distance orientation*.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my parents for their love, endless support and encouragement.

To my loving husband for his love, support, tolerance, and assistance.

To my daughter and my son for their existing in my life.

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I would like to thank my daughter, Sarah, and my son, Yusuf, who have always dealt with all of my absence with a smile. Thank you very much kids.

Finally, thanks to all my family who always encourage me.

DECLARATION

I declare that all the materials contained in this thesis have not been previously submitted for a degree in this or any other university. I further declare that this thesis is completely my own work.

I also declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct.

PUBLICATIONS

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 RESEARCH BACKGROUND

Leadership has, throughout the centuries and throughout all theories on leadership, conventionally been seen as a gendered idea (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2003; Dunn, 2007; Gartzia and Van Engen, 2012). There are different leadership theories but since the 1980s most of the focus of research contributing to theories on leadership has been that of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors (Bass, 1998; Judge and Bono, 2000; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Avolio, 2007; Appelbaum et al, 2013; Hunt and Fitzgerald, 2013). Transformational leadership behaviors are positively associated with nurturance and agreeableness (a stereotypically feminine trait) and negatively associated with aggression (a stereotypically masculine trait) (Ross and Offermann, 1997; Powell, 2012). Transactional leadership is an exchange-based relationship between leaders and followers (Burns, 1978; Bass 1985; 1990; 2000; 2008; Pearce and Sims, 2002; Huberts et al, 2007) and is more closely linked with stereotypical masculine characteristics (Powell et al, 2008). Although, the number of women in leadership positions was very limited during the early leadership theories, women as managers and executives in organizations have increased in number since the 1990s. Given this, research on the possible differences between men and women when it comes to leadership styles has similarly grown (Burke and Collin, 2001; Powell and Butterfield, 2011).

Sex differences between men and women exist in nature and cannot be changed, but gender differences are constructed behaviors that might be learned or not (Kawana, 2004). According to Powell (2012: 120), “the study of sex differences in leadership examines how male and female leaders actually differ in attitudes, values, skills, behaviors, and effectiveness, whereas the study of gender differences in leadership focuses on how people believe that male and female leaders differ”. Although most researchers have illustrated that transformational leadership is the most effective leadership style-the style of leadership that is most often associated

with women leaders-and while many researchers have found that indeed women possess qualities that are preferred by followers, women are still viewed as inferior leaders when compared to men (Applebaum et al, 2013b).

The topic of gender in leadership is a key concern in the Arab world and in the Middle East region more widely (Megheirkouni, 2014). This might be because gender is a sensitive issue in leadership in these regions from different perspectives: religious, social, economic, and political views that constitute the motor nerve of daily life (Megheirkouni, 2014). Only recently have scholars in management and organization behavior examined gender issues within developing or transitional countries or regions (Budwhar and Debrah, 2004; Metcalfe and Afanassieva, 2005). "Compared to other parts of the world, the Middle Eastern region has less available literature related to the field of human resources management" (Yahchouchi, 2009: 127) although there have been a few studies conducted in the Arab countries concerning transformational and transactional leadership styles (Shahin and Wright, 2004; Yahchouchi, 2009; Yassen, 2010; Taleb, 2010; Al abduljader, 2012; Sikdar and Mitra, 2012; Bin Zahari and Shurbagi, 2012; Metwally, 2014). Although the popularity of transformational and transactional leadership research is uncontested, and there have been a few studies of this in the context of the Middle East, 'the Middle East' is a region of the world as different as that of, say, 'Europe' and countries and cultures within it vary considerably, hence the need to look at transformational and transactional leadership styles within a particular country/culture of the Middle East (Alamir, 2010; Hammad, 2011). There is, then, support for the argument to look at a particular country, in this case, Syria.

Hofstede (2001) observed that the popular leadership literature often forgets that leadership can exist only as a compliment to subordinateship. This means that *power distance* is an important element in the leadership process and it is manifested in the relationship between a leader and their followers. The notion of Hofstede (1980) about *power distance* is obviously related with studying leadership because expectations of and relationships to authority are directly associated with *power distance* (Offermann and Hellmann, 1997). Different styles of leadership and actions are perceived and valued differently depending on the cultural environment in/from which those asked are from, and are related to the variations in people's

ideas about the ideal leader (Yokochi, 1989; Yamaguchi, 1999; Jung and Avolio, 1999; Jogulu and Wood, 2008). The beliefs concerning leadership and gender are different from one country to another and managing those beliefs might be different among cultures and among organizations (Jonsen et al, 2010).

Of great importance is the fact that humans have different cultural values that influence their behaviors and their evaluation of others' behaviors. There are many blanks in the theoretical and research design when gender is neglected as a variable in studying leadership (Denmark, 1993). Therefore, there is a need to consider culture and gender within studying the leadership construct. Literature has looked at the relationship between culture and leadership behaviors at the level of the individual and the social (Hofstede and Bond, 1988; Bochner and Hesketh, 1994; Gerstner and Day, 1994; Smith et al, 1994; Jung et al, 1995; Offermann and Hellmann, 1997; Dorfman et al, 1997; Jung and Avolio, 1999; Kuchinke, 1999; Den Hartog et al, 1999; Ardichvili, 2001; Ardichvili and Kuchinke, 2002; Dastoor et al, 2003; Ergeneli et al, 2007; Kirkman et al, 2009). Due to the gendered nature of leadership phenomenon leadership research, like most, if not all, of research in management, has been gendered (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2003; Dunn, 2007; Gartzia and Van Engen, 2012), there is a real need in the today's culture-leadership research to look at the joint influence of culture and gender on leadership.

Culture dimensions proposed by Hofstede (1980, 2001, and 2011) are *uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity, power distance, future orientation, and indulgence versus restraint*. Although research provides evidence that all the four original dimensions of culture developed by Hofstede (1980) are relevant to leadership, Hofstede (1980) and colleagues propose that power distance strongly influences leadership styles (Hofstede, 1980). To distinguish between power distance at the country and the individual levels of analysis, the *power distance orientation* term is used instead of *power distance dimension* to indicate an individual-level construct (Kirkman et al, 2009). Kirkman et al (2009) state that power distance orientation compared with the other cultural values has a more theoretically direct relationship to leadership than the other cultural values, namely, *individualism/collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, and femininity/masculinity* as classified by Hofstede (1980). Kirkman et al (2009) have suggested that *power*

distance is the most important determinant of leadership styles. Power-distance refers to cultural conceptions regarding the degree of power which authorities should have over subordinates (Hofstede, 1980). People who believe that superiors should have a great degree of power over subordinates are considered to be high on the *power-distance orientation* and people who believe that a smaller degree of power is appropriate are considered low on this orientation. *Power distance* is one of the four dimensions as Hofstede (1980, 2001) identified for categorizing cultures. Therefore, the research described in this study takes as its focus that one of these dimensions, namely, the *power distance dimension*. So, this research essentially aims to examine the interaction influence of gender and culture as measured by *power distance orientation* at the *individual* level of analysis on the evaluation of the transformational and transactional leaders.

1.2 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

A close review of the leadership, gender and culture literature revealed that this study is significant both theoretical and practical. In terms of theoretical significance, the contribution of this research is multifaceted. Based on the extensive review of the literature on gender, culture, and the transformational and transactional leadership styles, it is evident that literature is scarce when it comes to the Middle East Arab World context and generally knowledge is scant when it comes to the interaction influence of culture at the individual level of analysis and gender on evaluation of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. Although research provides evidence that all the four original dimensions of culture developed by Hofstede (1980) are relevant to leadership, Hofstede (1980, 2001) and colleagues propose that *power distance* strongly influences leadership styles (Hofstede, 1980). Kirkman et al (2009) state that *power distance orientation* compared with the other cultural values has a more theoretically direct relationship to leadership than the other cultural values, namely, *individualism/collectivism*, *uncertainty avoidance*, and *femininity/masculinity* as classified by Hofstede (1980). Kirkman et al (2009) have suggested that *power distance* is the most important determinant of leadership styles. Although the literature on transformational and transactional styles of

leadership is essentially those derived from studies carried out in the West cultures/countries which according to Hofstede (1980), score low on the *power distance dimension*, there are some recent studies on the transformational and transactional leadership styles in the Middle East Arab countries (e.g, Shahin and Wright, 2004; Yassen, 2010; Taleb, 2010; Al abduljader, 2012; Sikdar and Mitra, 2012; Bin Zahari and Shurbagi, 2012; Metwally, 2014). So, there is clearly a need to enrich and extend the literature on transformational and transactional leadership styles in this geographic area in the world.

A review of the literature has shown a lack of research on the joint influence of gender, and cultural values on leadership styles. Wood and Jogulu (2008) and Rohmman and Rowold (2009) have investigated the interaction influence of gender and culture at the social level of analysis on evaluation of leaders. But there are no studies on culture and leadership styles that have examined the influence of culture at the *individual* level of analysis on evaluation of male and female leaders. Yet, due to the gendered nature of leadership, it is clear that we must not only place greater importance on the joint influence of gender and culture on transformational and transactional leadership behaviors but also that much more research is needed if we are to better understand this important aspect of leadership in today's organizations. There is little research done on leadership across cultures in the Middle East Arab World and Syria is no exception (Elsaid and Elsaid, 2012). If we are to encompass the views and experiences of leadership on a worldwide scale, it is clear that there are other cultural and geographical areas that merit our attention. Therefore, the research described in this study, which takes as its context Syria, in the Middle East Arabic countries, will make its contribution to the scant knowledge that currently exists on the influence of culture at the *individual* level of analysis and gender on evaluation of the transformational/transactional leadership in general and in the Middle East Arabic countries in particular.

This is the first study to examine the influence of *power distance orientation* at the *individual* level of analysis on evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders in Syria.

The main contribution is to explore the interaction influence of follower's *power distance orientation* and gender of the leader on evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders. So this study is important to the discussion of how cultural value at the *individual* level of analysis impact perception of leadership. Most of the research on studying the influence of culture on evaluation of transformational and transactional leadership taking into accounts the culture factor at the *social* level of analysis, but this study considers the influence of culture factor at the *individual* level of analysis.

In terms of practical significance this study makes a substantial contribution to gender and leadership in non-Western literature, particularly, literature to the Arab culture, by being the first piece of research to empirically assess the interaction influence between *gender of the leader* and follower's *power distance orientation* at the *individual* level of analysis on the evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders in general and in the non-Western culture, in this case, that of the Middle East (a Syrian context) in particular. Hence, the results of this study bring empirical evidence from a relatively new cultural context, making a significant contribution to the culture-leadership literature. This study serves as a contribution to the very limited research on transformational and transactional leadership in Syrian context. Second, this study uses a transformational and transactional leadership model which was developed in the USA and has applied it in non-Western country such as Syria, so that can serve to examine the universality of this model. The third contribution to knowledge is that it is the first study of its nature based on data from Syria. Finally, this study contributed to the limited knowledge on transformational and transactional leadership literature in the Middle East Arab context general and particularly in a Syrian perspective. The transformational leadership scales of *idealized influence-attributes*, *idealized influence-behavior*, *inspirational motivation*, *intellectual stimulation* and *individualized consideration*, and the transactional leadership scales of *contingent rewards*, *management by exception: active*, and *management by exception: passive* were valid and reliable. Therefore, the findings of this research may encourage researchers who may have avoided using the MLQ instrument in the Arab World because of concerns about its validity and reliability.

1.3 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

This research investigates the interaction influence of culture at the *individual* level of analysis and gender of the leader on evaluation of two leadership behaviors (transformational and transactional) in the Middle East Arab context. To do so, eight hypotheses are asked. The first five hypotheses are for the transformational leadership style and the last three hypotheses are for the transactional leadership style.

1-Transformational Leadership Style

This study investigates whether followers (the subordinates who work for leaders) who are rated high or low when it comes to *power distance orientation* evaluate females who use a transformational leadership style less favorably than males who use the same style. According to transformational leadership style, five hypotheses were developed to be tested as follows:

H1: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' *idealized influence attributes*. There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transformational style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

H2: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' *idealized influence behavior*. There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transformational style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

H3: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' *inspirational motivation*. There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a

transformational style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

H4: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' *intellectual stimulation*. There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transformational style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

H5: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' *individualized consideration*. There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transformational style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

2-Transactional Leadership Style

This study investigates whether followers (the subordinates who work for leaders) who are rated high or low when it comes to *power distance orientation* evaluate females who use a transactional leadership style less favorably than males who use the same style. According to transactional leadership style, three hypotheses were developed to be tested as follows:

H6: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' *contingent reward*. There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transactional style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably

than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

H7: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' *management by exception: active*. There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transactional style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

H8: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' *management by exception: passive*. There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transactional style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

1.4 RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES

The primary aim of this research is to test the interaction influence of the follower's *power distance orientation* and gender of the leader on evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders. For this purpose, this study investigates gender differences in evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders. Related to this purpose, previous research indicates gender differences in leadership styles (for example, Bass and Avolio, 1994; Bass et al, 1996; Carless, 1998; Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Eagly et al, 2003; Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2003; Oshagbemi and Gill, 2003; Powell et al, 2008). The first challenge is to explore if there are gender differences in evaluation of the transformational/transactional leaders in a Syrian context. It is also noted that empirical studies have addressed the relationship between culture (at the social level, and the individual level of analysis) and transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. As discussed earlier, leadership is gendered in nature. It is,

therefore, somewhat surprising that, to the best of our knowledge, there are only two studies that address the influence of culture at social level of analysis on evaluation of transformational and transactional leadership styles taking into account the gender factor (Jogulu and Wood, 2008; Rohmman and Rowold, 2009). Consequently, the second challenge would be to explore the influence of gender and culture at the *individual* level of analysis on evaluation of transformational and transactional leadership styles in the Middle East Arab countries.

More specifically, the research objectives are stated as follows:

- 1) To evaluate the impact of gender of the leader on evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders.
- 2) To examine the interaction influence of follower's power distance orientation and leader's gender on evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders.

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Eight hypotheses have been developed in relation to independent and dependent variables. The literature review reveals that extensive research has used quantitative methods for data collection concerning the relationship between transformational/transactional leadership behaviours and culture. The majority of researchers have applied a positivist approach through questionnaires. A quantitative approach to collect data and doing analysis was adopted. Three measures are used in this study. One, *power distance orientation* is assessed by using an eight-item individual-level measure taken from Earley and Erez (1997). Two, two vignettes are used to describe a leader's behaviour in a particular situation. Three, the transformational and transactional leadership behaviours are measured by using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Avolio and Bass, 2002b). Data were obtained from Syrian employees who were working in Moderet al Tarbia in Latakia city. This is a public service organization in the education sector, and might best be described as what, in the UK, would be called a 'Local Education Authority'. The original English language version of the *power distance orientation* items, the

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), and the transformational and transactional leadership vignettes were translated from English to Arabic. A pilot study was conducted prior to four hundred and seventy questionnaires being distributed randomly during personal visits to employees. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was applied to test reliability and validity of the questionnaire. The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) for Windows, version, 18.2 was used for data analysis.

1.6 STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

There are seven chapters in this thesis as follows:

Chapter 1 begins by providing the background of the research and this chapter also addresses the significance of the study, the research aim and objectives, research hypotheses, and the research methodology used.

Chapter 2 provides the literature on existing theories related to leadership and gender. This chapter addresses the literature on early leadership theories, transformational and transactional leadership theory, and criticisms of transformational and transactional leadership theory. Finally, sex versus gender, the social construction of gender, gender-role stereotyping, gender-role stereotyping and management/leadership, women in leadership theories, the link between leadership theory and gender-role stereotypes, gender-role stereotyping and evaluation/rating of leaders' by followers, perception of gender differences in leadership behavior, and effectiveness of leader behavior.

Chapter 3 discusses Hofstede's approach to culture, critics of Hofstede's model, and Hofstede's approach to culture and Arabian culture. Following this, Hofstede's culture dimensions and leadership behavior, power distance research and leadership, levels of analysis, power distance research at the individual level of analysis, transformational/transactional leadership and culture are discussed. Finally, leadership, gender and women in the Middle East Arab countries, transformational

and transactional leadership in the Middle East Arab countries and gender-role stereotyping in the Arab world, the rationale for the study and the hypotheses are presented.

Chapter 4 begins by describing an overall picture of the philosophical approach used in the research methodology followed by a discussion of research and the organization context. This chapter discusses research methods and data analysis techniques.

Chapter 5 concerns the treatment/purification of data, that is, data prior to analysis. It consists of screening data prior to analysis, testing construct validity through exploratory factor analysis, and testing reliability using Cronbach's Alpha.

Chapter 6 presents the results, the assumptions of hierarchical multiple regressions, findings of the study, and an evaluation of the research hypotheses and their significance.

Chapter 7 presents the conclusions. This chapter outlines the findings and links them to the objectives of the thesis. It begins by providing summary of the research. It further considers the theoretical and practical contribution of the study in terms of gaps in the field of culture-leadership and gender literature. This is followed by a discussion of the limitations of this study. Future research is suggested. Finally, concluding remarks of the research findings are described.

CHAPTER TWO: LEADERSHIP, GENDER IN LEADERSHIP

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Businesses today, whatever their nature, type or in what part of the world that they are located, need to adapt in more ways than one if they are to ensure effective management at all levels. Because, it is argued, if the management is not as effective as it could be, performance, however that might be measured, may suffer. By looking at the literature on business and management, it comes as no surprise that the number of females in leadership roles is, whilst growing, small (Black and Rothman, 1998; Oakley, 2000; Ridgeway, 2001; Stelter, 2002; Eagly et al, 2003; Schein, 2007; Ward et al, 2010; Simmons et al, 2012). Whether or not there is a 'glass ceiling' for women, that females play an increasingly larger part in the management of organizations these days means that, along with this, there has been a growth in the number of studies undertaken which has looked at the effect of gender in the workplace. The structural/cultural models suggest that differences in leadership attributed to gender (Weyer, 2007) are caused by "social structures, systems, and arrangements that channel and define gender differences due to discrepancies in status and power" (Bartol et al, 2003: 9). Sex makes us male or female, gender refers to those social, cultural, and psychological traits linked to males and females through particular social contexts.

While this chapter will review literature early leadership theories in general and the transformational and transactional leadership styles in specific and gender, it is not an examination of theories of leadership, or theories of gender. The concept of leadership is all about the interaction between the leader and the follower.

2.2 LEADERSHIP

2.2.1 Leadership: An Overview

To explore the issue of gender within the business and management literature on leadership, it is important from the beginning to summarize some of the literature in relation to understandings of what is meant by 'leadership'. The leadership literature is large enough to be noticeable (Dunn, 2007; Sribenjachot, 2007). McCleskey (2014) argued that the study of leadership spans more than 100 years. According to Durbin (2001), about 35000 research articles, books, and magazines exist concerning leadership, the literature has discussed the notion of leadership since the late nineteenth century, but no one single definition exists which expresses the precise meaning of leadership (Porterfield and Kleiner, 2005; Metwally, 2014). Bass (2000, 2008) argued that the search for a single definition of leadership was pointless. Researchers have introduced different definitions of leadership using different perspectives (Harsey and Blanchard, 1993; Schermerhorn, 1999; Hersey et al, 2001; Miller et al, 2002; Yukl, 2002; House et al, 2004; Lok and Crawford, 2004; Madden, 2005; Oshagbemi and Ocholi, 2006; Northouse, 2007; Long and Thean, 2011; Ali et al, 2013). Harsey and Blanchard (1993) explain that leadership style reflects the pattern of behaviors that leaders practice to achieve goals with and through others. Schermerhorn (1999) defined leadership from an organizational perspective as motivating and influencing others to work hard to achieve organizational goals. In supporting Schermerhorn (1999), Hersey et al (2001) believed that leadership is all about influencing others' behaviors based on individuals' and organizational goals. Miller et al (2002) believe that a leadership style reflects the pattern of interaction between the leader and his/her followers. In general, leadership is about elements such as group, influence, support, organizational and individual goals (Bryman, 1992; Ali et al, 2013). One often-cited definition is that of Yukl (2002), where leadership is defined as influencing others to understand what jobs to be achieved and how it can be done efficiently, and facilitating efforts to accomplish the shared aims. Lok and Crawford (2004) argue that leaders' behaviors and styles contribute to the organizational success and failure. Another definition, following on from a study of 62 societies was as follows: "the ability of person to influence, promote, and make other people able to contribute towards the efficiency and success of the organization in which they are working" (House et al, 2004: 56). Whatever the definition, according to Madden (2005), leadership is intimately bound up with attributes more commonly associated with males. People perceive males as being highly competent and likely to be considered

as leaders. Females, therefore, are perceived as being less competent than their male counterparts and are less likely to be perceived as leaders or, if leaders by role/job title, perceived as being less effective in carrying it out. Leaders are not always the same, their behaviors, actions, and styles differ widely in the workplace (Oshagbemi and Ocholi, 2006). Leadership can be defined as a process of how to influence people and guide them to achieve organizational goals (Northouse, 2007). According to Long and Thean (2011), the idea of leadership is all about introducing a future vision as well as the strategies needed to achieve this vision. For the purpose of this study, the concept of leadership is all about the interaction between the leader and the follower.

2.2.2 Early Leadership Theories

Great Man Theory

The Great Man theory was suggested by philosophers in the 18th and 19th centuries (Denmark, 1993). It is believed that man had unusually good, special, and outstanding qualities that made him different from his subordinates (Spotts, 1976; Bass, 1990). This theory concentrates on the idea of characteristics and the assumption that there were sure personal traits of leaders that they were born with and those attributes could not be learned by those who did not have genetic qualities (Ford, 2005). Moreover, the very name given to this theory sum up a main notion that females were not seen in leadership roles at this time and leadership research over this period of time was only related to men (Jogulu and Wood, 2006). Only small numbers of people were born with characteristics and abilities required to be leaders (Denmark, 1993). A development of the Great Man theory was a start of new research and theoretical propositions which concentrated on the traits or qualities believed to be a criterion for distinguishing between leaders and non-leaders (Bass, 1990).

Trait Theory

Trait theory has attempted to create either a common or universal set of qualities that made differences between leaders and non-leaders or between effective leaders and those who were ineffective (Spotts, 1976; Schriesheim and Neider, 1993; Ford, 2005). The main elements of the traits' list were self-confidence, motivation to carry out an action, need for achievement, and self-monitoring (Ellis, 1988). Trait theory essentially described traits in masculine terms, and these qualities were considered essential and necessary for successful leadership (Jogulu and Wood, 2006). Typically, over this period of time women were viewed as assistants, teachers, carers, and nurses rather than leaders or managers (Koziara et al, 1987). This theory was extremely inefficient in pinpointing universal leadership traits (Stogdill, 1974; Bass, 1981). In other words, the general pattern of research evidence demonstrated that no common set of 'success' qualities seemed to be there (Schriesheim and Neider, 1993). What is more, in spite of extensive research studies, no compelling evidence could be found of characteristics that presented universal success in all leadership situations and contexts (Yukl, 1994; Fulop and Linstead, 1999; Grint, 1997, 2000). Thus the third leadership theory, called a behavioral theory, was initiated.

Behavioral Theory

Because researchers were unable to identify a universally set of traits, they paid much attention on how leaders behave rather than what characteristics they have. The behavioral leadership theory concentrated first on defining different leadership styles and then attempting to identify which leadership style was the most effective across all situations (Schriesheim and Neider, 1993). Hence, extensive research evidence changed attention to a focus on leadership styles ranging from early studies willing to answer whether autocratic styles lead to the most effective leadership outcomes. Later studies became more interested with leadership style and motivation theories such as McGregor's (1976) that built on Maslow's work, and led to further studies which considered task accomplishment and were concerned with subordinates studies, such a participative leadership style which is also firmly classified into the tradition of behavioral research, and is fundamentally interested with power sharing and empowerment of subordinates (Ford, 2005). Once again, this theory has been the subject of criticism because of its failure to take into account the

situation or context within which the leader is operating (Ford, 2005). As a consequence, the fourth leadership theory, contingency theory, was initiated.

Situational (Contingency) Leadership Theory

The leadership literature switched to focus on both individual attributes and situational aspects of leadership simultaneously (Bass, 1990). The situational leadership theory deals with leadership effectiveness as coming from the dynamic interplay of three elements: the leader, the subordinates, and the situation in which both find themselves (Bass, 1981; Yukl, 1981). Successful leadership style was based on the leader's judgment and consideration of situational factors for an appropriate leadership style to be chosen to deal with each case (Jogulu and Wood, 2006). Therefore, situational theories have been mainly viewed applicable for men in leadership positions because women were not noticed by people as appropriate for management roles at this time (Jogulu and Wood, 2006).

Studies from the days of the Great Man/ trait theories to the emergence of the 'new paradigm' charismatic and transformational models have been the studies of *men*, by *men*, and the findings have been extended to humanity in general (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban Metacalfe, 2003b). Throughout history, leadership has predominantly been associated with men and hierarchical relationships. Recent theories have emerged that examine the difference in leadership styles between men and women. Transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles are central to the gender debate. Therefore, transformational and transactional leadership theory is the focus in this study.

2.2.3 Transformational and Transactional Leadership Theory

One of the most influential theories of leadership in the last few decades is the transformational and transactional leadership theory discussed by many researchers (e.g. Bas, 1985; 1990; 1997; Pastor and Mayo, 2006). Transformational leadership has emerged in recent years as the preferred leadership style (Coleman, 2007). Since the 1980s, the main focus of research contributing to theories on leadership

has been that of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors (Bass, 1998; Judge and Bono, 2000; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Avolio, 2007; Appelbaum et al, 2013; Hunt and Fitzgerald, 2013). For example, in the *Leadership Quarterly Journal*, a leadership journal in the field, transformational and transactional leadership theory was the most widely published theory in the past 20 years (Lowe and Gardner, 2000; Gardner et al, 2010). “This research stream dominates the leadership landscape-whether deservedly or not” (Antonakis, 2012: 257). Therefore, this study focuses on transformational and transactional leadership theory because it is considered as the most widely studied and relevant one in research nowadays.

The concept of transformational and transactional leadership styles was first inspired by Burns (1978) who described it as the procedure through which leaders make a great change in the followers' behavior. The transformational and transactional leadership theory (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985, 1990, 1997) attempts to explain the extraordinary impacts that certain leaders have on their subordinates (Pastor and Mayo, 2008). Generally, transformational-transactional leadership theory is concerned with explaining how leaders influence their followers (Metwally, 2014). The heart of these two types of leadership is the leader follower relationship (Metwally, 2014). In transactional leadership, leaders and followers consider each other as a tool for achieving their goals. Specifically, leaders use followers to achieve specific work goals. In return, followers consider achieving the specified goals as the main source for receiving rewards. Because of that, transactional leadership achieves specified goals. On the contrary, transformational leadership exceeds expected outcomes because the nature of the relationship between leaders and followers is more than an exchange relationship (Metwally, 2014). Whilst one is not 'better' than another, and nor could it be so given that the behavior of a single human being cannot be pigeonholed in such a way (human beings are complex beings), it is recognised that both transformational and transactional leadership behaviors are necessary to a leader's success and that they are not mutually exclusive (Bass, 1985, 1990, 1997; Yaseen, 2010; Tibus, 2010).

Transformational Leadership Style

Those in a leadership role, whether male or female, who demonstrate a transformational style of leadership are said to lead/manage by way of establishing, as the name suggests, relationships with their subordinates which involve a great deal of time in communicating with them, and they do not necessarily lead from the front as they tend to delegate responsibility to their teams (Bass, 1996). Such subordinates are often called 'followers' in the literature and this term, rather than the term 'subordinates' will be used in this study. The transformational leaders set especially high standards for behavior and establish themselves as role models by gaining the trust and confidence of their followers and they state future goals and develop plans to achieve those (Burns, 1978). Since the work of Burns (1978), much of the literature has been concerned with studying and defining transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Sashkin, 1987; Kouzes and Posner, 1988; Tichy and Devanna, 1990; Bass, 1996; Dvir et al, 2002; Eagly and Carli, 2003; Avolio and Bass, 2004; Pastor and Mayo, 2006; Powell et al, 2008; Jin, 2010; Ali et al, 2013; Metwally, 2014).

The relationship between the transformational leader and followers is characterized by motivation, devotion, and exceeding self-interests for the sake of the organizational benefits (Bass, 1997). The transformational leadership is the ability to motivate and encourage intellectual stimulation through inspiration (Dvir et al, 2002; Avolio and Bass, 2004). The transformational leader is visionary, charismatic, and sensitive to followers' needs, and inspirational (Pastor and Mayo, 2006). Transformational leadership is characterized by leaders who "motivate subordinates to transcend their own self-interests for the good of the group or organization" (Powell et al, 2008: 159) through the use of high performance standards. As stated by Jin (2010: 174) "transformational leadership integrates the elements of empathy, compassion, sensitivity, relationship building, and innovation". Transformational leadership is based on the idea of changing followers' values so that they share the same goals and values of the organization. By doing so, employees achieve organizational goals not because they will be rewarded but because these goals are consistent with their personal goals (MacKenzie et al, 2001; Ali et al, 2013). Transformational leader motivates and inspires followers (Metwally, 2014). In addition, there is some evidence to support a female advantage in leadership when women demonstrate transformational leadership behavior (Eagly and Carli, 2003;

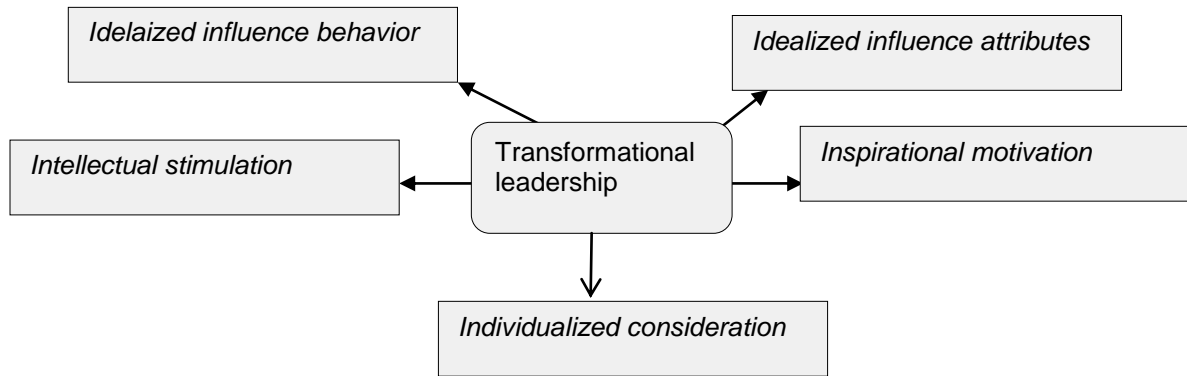
Powell et al, 2008). Transformational leadership behaviors are positively associated with nurturance and agreeableness (a stereotypically feminine trait) and negatively associated with aggression (a stereotypically masculine trait) (Ross and Offermann, 1997; Powell, 2012).

There are many dimensions of a transformational style of leadership. Bass (1985) considers charisma as a dimension, and indeed the terms 'transformational leadership' and 'charismatic leadership' are often used interchangeably (Krishnan, 2004). A male or female who exhibits a transformational style of leadership shows behaviors which are said to allow for the creation of a powerful vision which is communicated and shared, that is consistent with expectations they create, and they maintain positive and optimistic attitudes (Bennis and Nanus, 1985). Words such as vision, inspiration, and revitalisation and similar are those associated with a leader who exhibits a transformational style of leadership, as is the notion of change, innovation, and entrepreneurship (Sashkin, 1987; Kouzes and Posner, 1988; Tichy and Devanna, 1990). The most widely used and cited set of dimensions when it comes to a transformational style of leadership, and thus used in this study, is that of Avolio and Bass (2002a).

Avolio and Bass (2002a) state that the transformational leadership theory can be subdivided into five factors. One, *idealized influence attributes* which is described as instilling pride in and respect for the leader; the followers identify with the leader. Two, *idealized influence behavior* which is defined as the representation of a trustworthy and energetic role model for the follower. Three, *inspirational motivation* which is defined as the communication and representation of a vision; leader's optimism and enthusiasm. Four, *intellectual stimulation* which is described as followers are encouraged to question established ways of solving problems. Five, *individualized consideration* which is defined as understanding the needs and abilities of each follower, developing and empowering the individual follower.

Dimensions of transformational leadership style as described by Avolio and Bass (2002a) are shown in Figure 2.1:

Figure 2.1: Transformational leadership style dimensions



Source: Developed for the study

Now a clear description of the five dimensions of transformational leadership behaviors as described by Avolio and Bass (2002a) is illustrated in the Table (2.1) as follows:

Table 2.1: Transformational leadership behaviors

Transformational Leadership Style	Leader's Behavior
<i>Idealized influence attributes</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Instils pride in followers for being associated Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group Acts in ways that build followers' respect for Displays a sense of power and confidence
<i>Idealized influence behavior</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Talks about most important values and beliefs Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions Emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of mission
<i>Inspirational motivation</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Talks optimistically about future Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished Articulates a compelling vision of the future

	Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved
<i>Intellectual stimulation</i>	<p>Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate</p> <p>Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems</p> <p>Gets followers to look at problems from many different angles</p> <p>Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments</p>
<i>Individualized consideration</i>	<p>Spends time teaching and coaching</p> <p>Treats followers as individuals rather than as a member of a group</p> <p>Considers an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others</p> <p>Helps followers to develop their strengths</p>

Source: Adapted from (Avolio and Bass, 2002a)

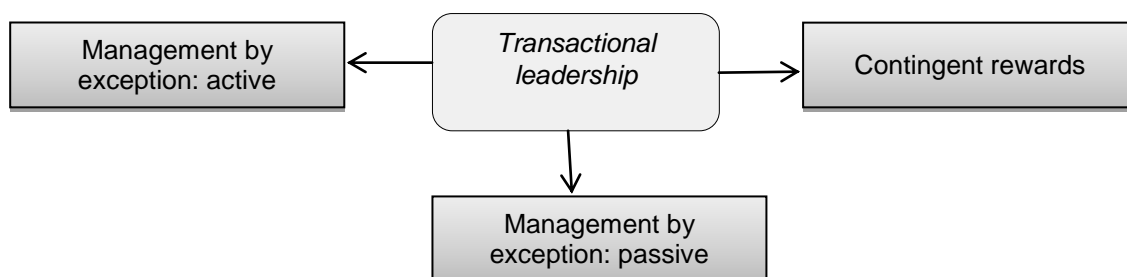
Transactional Leadership Style

Those in a leadership role, whether male or female, who demonstrate a transactional style of leadership are said to lead/manage by way of establishing, as the name suggests, relationships with their followers which involve clarifying followers' responsibilities, monitoring their work, rewarding them for meeting objectives and correcting them when they fail to meet objectives (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985, 1998; Avolio, 1999). Transactional leadership is an exchange-based relationship between leaders and followers (Burns, 1978; Bass 1985; 1990; 2000; 2008; Pearce and Sims, 2002; Huberts et al, 2007). It is based on using rewards to motivate employees and accomplish specified goals, i.e. complete tasks on hand (Pearce and Sims, 2002; Huberts et al, 2007). In this type of leadership, followers are expected to perform their tasks according to given instructions (Huberts et al, 2007). Simply, "transactional leadership relies on a set of clearly defined exchanges between leader and follower" (Rohmann and Rowold, 2009: 545). Transactional leadership is more closely linked with stereotypical masculine characteristics (Powell et al, 2008). Avolio

and Bass (2002a) subdivide the transactional leadership theory into three factors. “One, *contingent reward* which is described as defining the exchanges between what is expected from the follower and what the follower will receive in return. Two, *management by exception: active* which is defined as to maintain current performance status; the focus is on detecting and correcting errors or problems. Three, *management by exception: passive* which is defined as addressing problems only after they have become serious” (Avolio and Bass, 2002a in Rohmann and Rowold, 2009: 546). In turn, transactional leadership allows followers to fulfill their own self-interest, minimize workplace anxiety, and concentrate on clear organizational objectives such as increased quality, customer service, reduced costs, and increased production (Sadeghi and Pihie, 2012).

Those dimensions of transactional leadership style are shown in Figure 2.2 as follows:

Figure 2.2: Transactional leadership style dimensions



Source: Developed for the study

Now, a clear description of the three dimensions of transactional leadership behaviors as described by Avolio and Bass (2002a) is shown in the Table (2.2) as follows:

Table 2.2: Transactional leadership behaviors

Transactional Leadership Style	Leader's Behavior
	Provides followers with assistance in exchange for their efforts

<p><i>Contingent reward</i></p>	<p>Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets</p> <p>Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved</p> <p>Expresses satisfaction when followers meet expectations.</p>
<p><i>Management by exception: active</i></p>	<p>Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards</p> <p>Concentrates his (her) full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures</p> <p>Keeps track of all mistakes</p> <p>Directs his (her) attention toward failures to meet standards</p>
<p><i>Management by exception: passive</i></p>	<p>Fails to interfere until problems become serious</p> <p>Waits for things to go wrong before taking action</p> <p>Shows that he (she) is a firm believer in "if it isn't broke, don't fix it"</p> <p>Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action</p>

Source: Adapted from (Avolio and Bass, 2002a)

Regarding which gender leadership style is more effective, although empirical evidence supports the relationship between transactional leadership and effectiveness in some settings (Bass, 1985; 1999; 2000; Hater and Bass, 1988; Bass et al, 2003; Bass and Riggio, 2006; Zhu et al, 2012), other research concludes that transformational leadership is most strongly equated with effective leadership (Bass, 1990; Bass and Avolio, 1990, 1993; Rosenbach and Taylor, 1993; Neumann and

Neumann, 1999; Eagly et al, 2003; Spreitzer et al, 2005; Muijs et al, 2006; Jogulu and Wood, 2006, 2008; Eagly, 2007;.Borkowski et al, 2011). Bass and Avolio (1990, 1993 in Burke and Collins, 2001: 245-246) would agree since they discovered that “although most managers exhibit components of several different leadership styles, past research has demonstrated that managers that emphasize transformational behavior are espied as the most effective and satisfying managers by their subordinates”. Similarly, Rosenbach and Taylor (1993 in Alimo-Metcalfe, 2010b: 646) “first merely explored transformational leadership as an interesting new concept, however they are now convinced that the research and literature confirms the transformational leadership paradigm as most meaningful in today’s diverse and complex world”. Jogulu and Wood (2008: 601) conclude that “transformational leadership is the style of leadership that is most strongly equated with effective leadership. Employers, too, recognize transformational behavior as the most effective leadership style. Past research suggests that transformational leadership has a positive effect on an organization’s productivity and financial results”.

However, others have described that “although transformational leadership should enhance female leaders’ self-efficacy, transformational leadership actually serves male leaders more than female leaders” (Schyns et al, 2008: 597). Also, while it has been noted that men may be praised if they demonstrate transformational leadership qualities, the opposite appears to be true for women. Rutherford (2001 in Jogulu and Wood, 2008: 604) illustrated that by saying that “women were generally evaluated negatively when they exhibited leadership characteristics that were seen to exemplify men, i.e. task oriented, directive or autocratic behaviors; these characteristics are not seen as appropriate for women. Furthermore, when women display similar traits to men, they are often criticized as being ‘masculine’”. Likewise Eagly et al (1992 in Wolfram et al, 2007: 21) described that studies “show that women in particular face negative reactions if they show gender role discrepant behavior. Female leaders showing autocratic (i.e. masculine) behavior are evaluated more negatively than male leaders showing the same behavior”.

As the consensus among researchers appears to demonstrate that transformational leadership is the most effective style, some believe that this could be an advantage for women who are most often associated with this style (Appelbaum et al, 2013).

“Women are judged to be more transformational than men, and this leadership style appears to be related to higher effectiveness and more satisfaction among subordinates” (Eagly et al, 2003 in Rohmann and Rowold, 2009: 545). In addition, “followers and supervisors simply expect female managers to behave in a transformational manner, because transformational leadership is considered to be a female leadership style. Consequently, female managers are not rewarded for this expected feminine behavior, whereas transformational leadership, when exhibited by a male leader, is considered a positive surprise that deserves to be rewarded” (Schyns et al, 2008: 600).

Whilst, as above, it cannot be the case that a more transactional style of leadership is ‘worse’ than a transformational one, it is nonetheless the case that there is a perception, if not explicitly stated, that a transformational one is somehow ‘better’. Whatever is the case, this study looks at gender within the context of both transformational and transactional leadership behaviors.

2.2.4 Criticisms of Transformational and Transactional Leadership Theory

While empirical research supports the idea that transformational leadership positively influences follower and organizational performance (Diaz-Saenz, 2011), a number criticize transformational leadership (Beyer, 1999; Hunt, 1999; Yukl, 1999, 2011). Yukl (1999) took transformational leadership to task and many of his criticisms retain their relevance today. He noted that the underlying mechanism of leader influence at work in transformational leadership was unclear and that little empirical work existed examining the effect of transformational leadership on work groups, teams, or organizations. He joined others and noted an overlap between the constructs of *idealized influence* and *inspirational motivation* (Hunt, 1999; Yukl, 1999). Yukl (1999; 2011) suggested that the theory lacked sufficient identification of the impact of situational and context variables on leadership effectiveness. Despite the theory’s wide range of popularity, a number (Keeley, 1998; Shamir, 1999; Harvey, 2001) identify philosophical and theoretical weaknesses inherent in transformational leadership theory. These include a lack of conceptual clarity, the validity of the MLQ instrument, over-emphasis on the trait characterization of leadership, tendencies

toward elitist and antidemocratic behaviors, insufficient quantitative studies, and the potential to be abused (Northouse, 2004). The weaknesses can be divided into two categories: philosophical (Keeley, 1998; Harvey, 2001) and theoretical (Shamir, 1999).

Both Keeley (1998) and Harvey (2001) appeal to historical figures to underscore the philosophical weakness of the transformational paradigm. Based on the principles espoused by Machiavelli, Harvey (2001) contends that the ideals of transformational leadership will not ultimately hold up in the real world pressures of organizational leadership. He asserts that at some point, the transformational leader will find it impossible to satisfy all the ideals and values of transformation and will have to make compromises to those ideals and values in order to adequately address a current reality. Keeley (1998), appealing to Madison, points out the dangers inherent in charismatic leadership and mobilizing majorities around common visions and shared goals. The leadership of Hitler and Mao Zedong provide ample evidence of those concerns. Keeley (1998) argues that without proper checks and balances to power, charismatic leaders and mobilized majorities will naturally override and abuse the rights of the minority. Shamir (1999) provides a thorough examination of the conceptual weakness in transformational theory. Table 2.3 summarizes Shamir's observations.

Table 2.3: A Summary of Shamir's Conceptual Weaknesses Found in Transformational Leadership Theory

Weakness	Explanation
Ambiguity about Underlying Influence Processes	The theory would be stronger if the essential influence processes were identified more clearly and used to explain how each type of behavior affects each type of mediating variable and outcome.
Overemphasis on Dyadic Processes	The major interest is to explain a leader's direct influence over individual followers, not leader influence on group or organizational processes.

Ambiguity about Transformational Behaviors	The identification of specific types of transformational behavior seems to be based mostly on an inductive process (factor analysis), and the theoretical rationale for differentiating among the behaviors is not clearly explained.
Ambiguity about Transactional Leadership	Transactional leadership is defined as a process of leader-subordinate exchange, but the theory fails to make a strong link between this process and each of the transactional behaviors.
Omission of Important Behaviors	That so many important behaviors are missing from the MLQ casts doubt on the validity of the research conducted to evaluate the two-factor taxonomy of transformational and transactional leadership.
Insufficient Specification of Situational Variables	To identify situational moderator effects, more accurate measures of leader behavior should be used (e.g, observations, diaries) instead of relying so much on behavior questionnaires.
Insufficient Identification of Negative Effects	The theory does not explicitly identify any situation where transformational leadership is detrimental.
Heroic Leadership Bias	There is little interest in describing reciprocal influence processes or shared leadership.

Note: The explanations are direct quotes from Shamir (1999, Transformational leadership section).

Also, some criticize transactional leadership as follows. Burns (1978) argued that transactional leadership practices lead followers to short-term relationships of exchange with the leader. These relationships tend toward shallow, temporary exchanges of gratification and often create resentments between the participants (McCleskey, 2014). Additionally, a number of scholars criticize transactional leadership theory because it utilizes a one-size-fits-all universal approach to leadership theory construction that disregards situational and contextual factors

related organizational challenges (Beyer, 1999; Yukl, 1999; 2011; Yukl and Mahsud, 2010). Transformational and transactional leadership theories, and the corresponding full range of leadership theory, continue to add to an impressive 30-year history of empirical support (Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Reichard et al, 2009; Diaz-Saenz, 2011; Hamstra et al, 2011; Leong, 2011; Yukl; 2011; Gundersen et al, 2012). Nevertheless, transformational leadership is stated to be universal across cultures (Bass, 1997). There are studies that support this claim, such as Gibson and Marcoulides (1995) and most importantly Den Hartog et al, (1999). In addition to asserting transformational leadership theory as a full range leadership model, Bass (1997) vigorously defends the model's universal application across cultures. Despite its critics, an ongoing and massive body of research exists on transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. Therefore for the purpose of the research described in this dissertation, the applicability of transactional and transformational leadership theory will be observed since these leadership behaviors are the most recent and commonly used by researchers in the current literature (Lo et al, 2009).

To sum up, the transformational and transactional leadership theory has changed the situation of women in leadership roles; that theory recognized females in management positions and that their feminine traits were clearly valued. Further, the proportion of women was starting to increase dramatically in leadership positions when that theory was achieving presence (Jogulu and Wood, 2006). Although female leaders are in a small minority, they are present (Carli and Eagly, 2001). The under-representation of female leaders is evident in many countries in the world (Smith et al, 2012) such as Australia (Still, 2006; Davidson, 2009; Maginn, 2010), China (Tan, 2008), France (Barnet verzat and Wolff, 2008), South Africa (Mathur-Helm, 2006; Booyesen and Nkomo, 2010), UK (Thomson et al, 2008; Davidson, 2009), and the USA (Eagly and Carli, 2007; Fassinger, 2008) and not surprisingly, this is the case in regions such as the Middle East. Therefore, it is fundamental to discuss management, leadership issues and the position of women in this part of the world.

2.2.5 Summary of the Literature on Leadership Theory and Leadership Styles

Based on the historical review of the literature regarding leadership theories, the early leadership theories were considered to describe men and excluded women from being leaders in organizations, while transactional and transformational theories recognized females in management roles and their feminine traits. The act of starting to use the transactional and transformational leadership styles into contemporary leadership theory referred to a basic situation for noticing the difference between women and men in leadership styles (Jogulu and Wood, 2006). Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe (2003a) argue that leadership has traditionally been viewed as a gendered construct, stating that leadership research, like most, if not all, of research in management, has been gendered. Studies from the days of the Great Man/trait theories to the emergence of the 'new paradigm' charismatic and transformational models have been the studies of *men*, by *men*, and the findings have been extended to humanity in general. To sum up, although, the number of women in leadership positions was very limited during the early leadership theories, women as managers and executives in organizations has increased in number since the 1990s. Given this, research on the possible differences between men and women when it comes to leadership styles has similarly grown (Burke and Collin, 2001; Powell and Butterfield, 2011). Therefore, it is argued that the gendered nature of leadership has become important.

2.3 GENDER AND GENDER ROLE STEREOTYPING

The world of management is greatly dominated by men and leadership is, or at least used to be, conventionally constructed mainly in masculine characteristics (Kumra and Vinnicombe, 2008; Vinkenbunrg et al, 2011). Therefore, this section organizes the literature in three main areas: sex versus gender, the social construction of gender, gender-role stereotyping.

2.3.1 Sex versus Gender

Before we proceed, it will be useful to define key terms. In this study, there is a need to distinguish between the terms of sex and gender. "Sex is biologically based and

involves classification of persons as males or females based upon biological criteria” (Mavin and Grandy, 2012: 219). Gender refers to the socially constructed attributes of being male or female, or of femininity and masculinity (Brandt and Edinger, 2015). Masculinity is defined as beliefs that people have about the extent to which they possess masculine (i.e. task-oriented, agentic) traits associated with men in gender stereotypes. Femininity is defined as beliefs that people have about the extent to which they possess feminine (i.e. interpersonally-oriented, communal) traits that are associated with women in gender stereotypes (Eagly et al, 2000; Kite et al, 2008). Gender refers to the distinctive culturally created qualities of men and women apart from their biological differences (Brandser, 1996; Schmader, 2002). Biological models argue that men and women are biologically different (Weyer, 2007). These differences are thought to be a result of an “evolutionary model postulating constant gendered differences based on genetic patterns evolved from adaption to differing reproductive challenges of early males and females” (Lueptow et al, 2001: 1). From a psychological perspective, biological explanations are based on stable biological differences between men and women as a result of psychological dispositions (Weyer, 2007). Today, biological models are not usually used in the context of leadership differences between male and female leaders (Lueptow et al, 2001).

Gender is distinct from sex as sex refers to what people are born as while gender is what people ‘do’ (Bruni et al, 2004). Men and women vary in the extent to which they identify with masculine or feminine characteristics, i.e. people may see themselves as more or less masculine or feminine (West and Zimmerman, 1987) and this identification influences their attitudes towards stereotyped tasks (Nosek et al, 2002). Based on gender, individuals identify with characteristics attributed to males or females (Schmader, 2002). The construct of gender implies the way meaning associates with sex in members of a culture in terms of expected learned behaviors, traits, and attitudes (DeMatteo, 1994; Northouse, 2004). The concept of gender role is situationally constructed in organizations, and based on: masculinity involving aggression, independence, objectivity, logic, analysis, and decision, and; femininity involving emotions, sensitivity, expressiveness, and intuition (Fernandes and Cabral-Cardoso, 2003). Authors of socialization theories argue “gender identity and differences are acquired through various developmental processes associated with life stages, such as schooling and work life” (Bartol et al, 2003: 9). Additionally, the

structural/cultural models suggest that differences in leadership attributed to gender (Weyer, 2007) are caused by “social structures, systems, and arrangements that channel and define gender differences due to discrepancies in status and power” (Bartol et al, 2003: 9). Gender is understood to be socially constructed (Butler, 1990; Lorber and Farrell, 1991; Fonow and Cook, 1991; Jackson and Scott, 2002; Bruni et al, 2004), a product of historic, social and cultural meanings (Gherardi, 1994; Jackson and Scott, 2002). It is understood to provide “socially produced distinctions between male and female, masculine and feminine” (Acker, 1992: 250; Simpson and Lewis, 2005; Ahl, 2006). Masculinities and femininities are “forms of subjectivities that are present in all persons, men as well as women” (Alvesson and Due Billing, 1997: 85) (see Table 2.4).

Table 2.4: Masculinities and femininities

Masculinities (Bem, 1981; Hines, 1992)	Femininities (Bem, 1981; Grant, 1988; Marshall, 1993)
<i>Hard</i>	<i>Empathetic</i>
<i>Dry</i>	<i>Compassionate</i>
<i>Impersonal</i>	<i>Nurturing</i>
<i>Objective</i>	<i>Cooperative</i>
<i>Explicit</i>	<i>Acceptance</i>
<i>Action-orientated</i>	<i>Emotional</i>
<i>Outer focused</i>	<i>Helpful</i>
<i>Analytical</i>	<i>Shy</i>
<i>Aggressive</i>	<i>Sensitive</i>
<i>Dominant</i>	<i>Soft spoken</i>
<i>Forceful</i>	<i>Understanding</i>
<i>Assertive</i>	<i>Warm</i>

Source: Adopted from Patterson et al (2012)

2.3.2 The Social Construction of Gender

Gender as a social construction does not arise naturally and it is not a property of individuals, instead, gender is something that is accomplished through everyday interaction (Windels and Lee, 2012). Individuals become men and women each day by behaving in gender appropriate or inappropriate ways (Salminen-Karlsson, 2006). Doing gender correctly means creating differences between men and women that are not natural or biological (Windels and Lee, 2012). “Once the differences have been constructed, they are used to reinforce the ‘essentialnesses of gender’” (West and Zimmerman, 1987: 137). “Doing gender extends into the workplace, when workplaces, or communities of practice, have implicit expectations as to how femininity and masculinity should be ‘done’, these expectations join other messages as part of the material for constructing the individual’s work identity” (Salminen-Karlsson, 2006: 34-35). The gendered expectations of the workplace can start with the power and legitimacy granted to men and women, in which men’s voices are often privileged. When a woman does gender in a male-dominant workplace, she is accountable to normative conceptualizations about her gender, “under pressure to prove that she is an ‘essentially’ feminine being” (West and Zimmerman, 1987: 149); this accountability can in turn serve to undermine her participation or discredit her performance in the profession. Gender becomes visible through role conflict, since her gender is not compatible with the norms of her profession (West and Zimmerman, 1987). Gender helps to order human activity and interactions, and as such it is both “an outcome of and a rationale for various social arrangements and a means of legitimating one of the most fundamental divisions of society” (West and Zimmerman, 1987: 126). Due to existing status inequity in gender, “doing gender” sustains and creates social divisions and inequities. In doing gender, men are typically doing dominance and being assertive while women performing gender correctly doing deference (Goffman, 1967).

To be a woman, a person must act as a woman. This maintains hierarchical status agreements (West and Zimmerman, 1987). The doing gender approach argues that the construction of reality is gendered, which challenges the notion of gender neutrality. This further challenges notions that men and women experience the workplace in the same way, which is relevant especially in places where men and women do not have equal voice in discourse. Women in creative departments are held accountable to the norms of femininity, which runs counter to the behaviors and

interactions needed to succeed in the masculine, competitive department (Windels and Lee, 2012).

Gender refers to the social construction of humans physiologically and biologically identified as women and men. Because gender is a socially constructed category, we are 'doing' rather than being men or women (Milojević, 2008). That is, the human beings engage in the cultural behaviors of practicing femininity and masculinity (Milojević, 2008). However, gender categories are much more fluid than simply those of women/men; they exist on a continuum between these two 'ideal types' of being females or males (Milojević, 2008). In addition to developments in science, technology and medicine, various cultural changes have also destabilised the common sense approach to how we 'do' gender. One of the most significant cultural forces of the twentieth century has been feminism. This social movement as well as ideology, worldview, theory, practice and way of life have insisted that gender identities need to become both more fluid and socially accepted (Milojević, 2008).

So it is concluded that sex and gender are not interchangeable terms. Sex makes us male or female, gender refers to those social, cultural, and psychological traits linked to males and females through particular social contexts. So, it is argued in this study that gender is not only socially constructed but it is also culturally constructed. Therefore, the term gender is used in this study instead of sex.

2.3.3 Gender-Role Stereotyping

The study of gender stereotypes emerged from broader stereotype research during the rise of feminism in the 1960s and 1970s (Deaux, 1995). Since that time, research has examined what these stereotypes are, the processes underlying how and why individuals stereotype, how such stereotypes affect cognition and behavior, and, specifically in terms of gender and gender role stereotypes, the attributes and roles (social, work, family) that individuals tend to associate with a particular gender. Further, while older measures of gender and gender role stereotypes often conceptualized masculinity and femininity (and their respective stereotypical gender roles) as opposing ends of a single dimension, Constantinople (1973) challenged

this unidimensional assumption, resulting in more recent measures regarding gender and gender role stereotypes allowing for two (male, female) separate dimensions (Mills et al, 2012).

Definition of Stereotyping

Marshall (1998: 251) defined the gender stereotype as “treats men and women differently, these are one-sided and exaggerated images of men and women which are deployed repeatedly in everyday life”. Stereotypes are perceptions about the qualities that distinguish groups or categories of people (Jonsen and Maznevski, 2010). Stereotypes can apply to any category that a society considers important, from gender to caste to religious affiliation, and have been acknowledged in the literature since the start of the twentieth century (Jonsen and Maznevski, 2010). Elkin et al (2004) defined stereotypes as beliefs about the characteristics, behaviours, and attributes of members of certain groups. Gender stereotypes imply perceptions and expectations of what is appropriate behavior for males and females (Loughlin, 1999). Women have identified stereotypes as an important barrier to the most senior positions in business (Catalyst, 2002), and scholars have echoed this view consistently for years (Antal and Izraeli, 1993; Heilman, 2001; Schein, 2001). Fernandes and Cabral-Cardoso (2003: 26) viewed gender stereotypes as “powerful barriers prohibiting females from being accepted and recognised as managers. They explained that masculine stereotyping has been associated with instrumentality, dominance, dynamism and autonomy, while the feminine stereotype has been associated with passiveness, submission, dependency and expressiveness of emotions and feelings towards others”.

Stereotypes Categories

Theorists typically characterize stereotypes into two broad categories: descriptive and prescriptive. In brief, descriptive stereotypes “describe what group members are typically like (e.g, *women are gentle*). By comparison, prescriptive stereotypes describe the behavioral standards group members must uphold to avoid derision by the perceiver (e.g, *women should be gentle*)” (Gill, 2004: 619). These prescriptions

act as social norms for ‘gender-appropriate’ behavior and are akin to social rules, which have been “defined as behaviors that members of a group generally believe should or should not occur within or across a range of situations” (Argyle and Henderson, 1985; Lizzio et al, 2003: 365). Violators of normative prescriptions are socially penalized in the form of negative evaluations, social isolation, and pressures to modify the ‘offending’ behavior (Cialdini and Trost, 1999; Prentice and Carranza, 2002). For instance, a power seeking woman is held in contempt because she is viewed as violating stereotypic prescriptions (i.e, power seeking is inconsistent with the norm that women should be caring) (Gill, 2004). Specifically, the prescriptive stereotype typically reserved for men is agentic and refers to achievement-oriented traits. Accordingly, men should be assertive, aggressive, forceful, independent, and decisive (Heilman, 2001; Prentice and Carranza, 2002). Conversely, the prescriptive stereotype reserved for women is communal and refers to social and service-oriented traits. That is, women should be kind, selfless, sympathetic, helpful, and concerned about others (Heilman, 2001). Eagly and Carli (2007, 2008) construct an agentic and communal leadership framework (Table 2.5).

Table 2.5: an agentic and communal leadership framework

Agentic	Communal
Aggressive	Supportive
Determined	Interpersonal
Competitive	Empathetic
Driven	Friendly
Ambitious	Sensitive
Tough	Compassionate
Independent	Kind
Task focused	Helpful
Political	Gentle
Controlled	Affectionate
Self reliant	Sympathetic

Source: Adapted from Eagly and Carli (2007)

Eagly and Carli (2007) contend that agentic behavior, such as aggression, competitiveness, control and task focus is congenial to men. Whilst women are associated with communal behavior portrayed through concern for others in their affectionate, friendly and compassionate behavior (Eagly and Carli, 2008). Through such an understanding, both women and men are gender-role stereotyped; women to communal behaviors and men to agentic behaviors (Patterson et al, 2012). In short, individuals are expected to present an image of themselves that is representative of their gender; hence, men are expected to communicate an agentic orientation; whereas, women are 'expected' to present a communal one (Shaw and Edwards, 1997). Despite the expanded role of women in the workplace over the last three decades, the proportion of women continues to decline at progressively higher levels in managerial hierarchies (Powell, 1999; Catalyst, 2006); The higher the level of the organization, the fewer women are found, a phenomenon that Bartol (1978) labeled the "sex structuring of organizations" (Powell, 2012). One of the early reasons offered for what Bartol (1978) called the "sex structuring of organizations" is that women are discriminated against when leaders are evaluated: behaviors exhibited by a male leader are evaluated more favorably than the very same behaviors exhibited by a female leader. As a result, women face greater barriers to enter leadership roles than men, and women who succeed in entering these roles find their competence and performance devalued (Eagly and Karau, 2002). Stereotypes tend to be stable overtime (Hilton and Von Hippel, 1996); in general, it is easier to maintain a stereotype of a group than to change it. However, stereotypes may also be dynamic, adapting based on new information to reflect beliefs about changing qualities of group members over time (Rothbart, 1981).

Gender stereotypes influence the classification of various occupations as masculine or feminine, which in turn influence people's aspiration and inclination towards such jobs (Cejka and Eagly, 1999). Gender-role stereotyping is the gender typing of jobs as predominantly masculine or feminine and is common in society (Miller and Budd, 1999). As gender is constructed through social, cultural and psychological means (West and Zimmerman, 1987), gender-role stereotypes get encouraged through socialization during childhood and adolescence, influenced by parents, peers, society and the mass media, such that men and women learn at an early age that

gender is associated with specific tasks (Miller and Budd, 1999). Specifically, traditional gender stereotypes depict men as effective achievers, competent, forceful, active, emotionally stable, independent, and rational, while women are generally perceived to be lacking in those attributes (Heilman et al, 1995; Becker et al, 2002). Therefore, it is important to consider the outcomes associated with gender role stereotypes in the workplace. For example, gender role stereotypes influence occupation choice by affecting perceived ability and interest in different jobs (Oswald, 2008; Rudman and Phelan, 2010). Additionally, gender role stereotypes lead to varying perceptions and expectations of leaders (Embry et al, 2008; Cabrera et al, 2009).

2.4 GENDER-ROLE STEREOTYPING AND MANAGEMENT/LEADERSHIP

The fact that gender plays a significant role in attaining a leadership position within a corporation does not appear to be limited to a specific country or culture (Baker, 2014). The lack of significant proportions of women in leadership and senior management positions in almost every organization, regardless of whether the organization is in the industrial, commercial, military, or public sector sounds to be a world wide phenomenon (Alimo-Metcalfe, 2010a).

Gender stereotyping and leadership traits have been researched extensively since the early 1970s (Coder and Spiller, 2013). Studies in the 1960s and 1970s confirmed the concept that women were thought to be unqualified for management positions (Nieva and Gutek, 1981). Schein (1973, 1975) attempted to demonstrate the relationship between gender stereotypes and the perceived characteristics as essential requisites for the manager's success. Schein (1973, 1975) also found that male and female managers view the successful manager as having the characteristics, attitudes, and behaviors more commonly related to men, and to a lesser degree, women in general. Schein (1973, 1975) concluded that independently of the managers' gender, women were viewed as not possessing the essential qualities to be successful in management. Schein (1975) mentioned that female managers are as likely as male managers to make the selection, promotion, and

placement decisions in favor of men, so increasing the number of women in management was not likely to significantly enhance the ease of entry of other women into the management ranks. Both management and leadership are related to stereotypically male characteristics (Schein, 2001; Auster, 2001). Effective leadership is perceived and described as masculine (Kawakami et al, 2000). Schein (2007) re-examined whether manager 'think male' attitude has changed and considered the implications of the outcomes for women's advancement in management today. It has been thirty years since Schein's initial research. However, Schein's (2007) result revealed that males in the USA continue to perceive men as more qualified than women for managerial positions.

Many studies indicated that gender stereotypes influence personnel decisions such as hiring and promotion, particularly for top executives and leaders (Bass et al, 1971; Rosen and Jerdee, 1978; Sutton and Moore, 1985; Gallup, 1991; Rubner, 1991; Fisher, 1992). An expectation arises that leaders in most professional and managerial positions are self-reliant, driven, independent, aggressive, and authoritative (Orser, 1994) and therefore, possess and present traits associated with the 'masculine' rather than the 'feminine' (Schein, 1973, 1975; Massengill and DiMarco, 1979; Powell and Butterfield, 1979, 2002; Heilman et al, 1989; Frank, 2001; Fernandes and Cabral-Cardoso, 2003). Dennis and Kunkel (2004) explained that masculine characteristics are viewed as the standard in leadership and management, while feminine characteristics, such as supportiveness, attentiveness, and collaboration are marginalised, if not dismissed, even though these characteristics tend to enhance morality and productivity. "Stereotypes held about women construct the perception of 'what women are like' and 'how they should behave' (Heilman, 2001; cited in Jogulu and Wood, 2008: 603)". Gender stereotypes are strong hindrances that impact on the evaluation of female leaders in organizations. Traditional gender stereotypes depict women as deficient in attributes believed necessary for managerial success (Vecchio, 2002; Eagly et al, 2003). Traditional gender stereotypes are a major reason for the negative perception of female leaders. Several studies have indicated a stereotype of the 'typical' man and woman across groups differing in sex, age, marital status, and education (Ridgeway, 2001; Krefting, 2002; Neubert and Taggar, 2004). These studies have shown that traditionally masculine characteristics generally are considered to be more positively

valued than traditionally feminine characteristics. These traditional gender stereotypes depict men as high in traits that reflect competence, while women are rated higher in traits that reflect warmth or expressiveness. These traditional gender stereotypes, when applied to work settings, affect followers' perceptions of female leaders.

Some research has also shown that organizational members view female leadership negatively (Morrison et al, 1985). These negative perceptions of female leaders may come from role incongruence (Reed, 1983). Role incongruence occurs when a woman exhibits behaviors expected of leaders. Because of the incompatibility of the gender stereotype of women and the view of effective leaders, female leaders are viewed differently, often more negatively, than male leaders exhibiting the same behaviors (Atwater et al, 2001; Carli and Eagly, 2001). A female leader is likely to receive conflicting messages about how members expect her to behave, and because these messages express incompatible expectations, e.g. 'a leader, but feminine', a female leader's inability to meet all of these expectations can lead to dissatisfaction with her performance. These traditional gender stereotypes have been very resistant to change (Ruble et al, 1984; Dodge et al, 1995). Lyness and Heilman (2006) found that women in line manager jobs were more negatively evaluated than men in this type of jobs, which was interpreted as a lack of fit between the female gender role and the masculine-typed job position. In this line of reasoning, women are not expected to succeed in management, because characteristics associated with good leadership qualities are associated with men and what is labelled masculine characteristics, and disassociated with women and what is labelled feminine characteristics (Gardiner and Tiggemann, 1999; Heilman, 2001; Schein, 2001; Eagly and Karau, 2002). Studies investigating gender-role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics have found a greater resemblance between men and managers than between women and managers (Schein, 1973, 1975, 2001). Despite rising proportions of female managers in the USA, gender typing is still seen as a barrier to women (Heilman, 2001; Eagly, 2007). Nonetheless, in some studies, female participants appear to have ceased or at least diminished their gender typing of management stereotypes (Brenner et al, 1989; Schein and Mueller, 1992; Deal and Stevenson, 1998; Schein, 2001; Duehr and Bono, 2006).

2.4.1 Women in Leadership Theories

Based on the historical review of early leadership theories, they were considered to describe men and excluded women from being leaders in organizations. The proportion of women who were in leadership positions was very small during the period of Great Man theory (Jogulu and Wood, 2006). Women occupied just 4% of management roles in the 1940s (Parker and Fagenson, 1994). The caring and nurturing qualities, which are particularly believed to be possessed by women, were not viewed as suitable for the role of leadership (Jogulu and Wood, 2006). Hence, women were not seen as leaders over the period of prominence of trait leadership theory. The percentage of those women who occupied positions of power or authority was still low in organizations when the behavioral theories achieved prominence in the 1960s. Therefore, women were not looked at as being capable for management positions during the time of the behavioral leadership theories (Jogulu and Wood, 2006). Also, situational theories have been viewed as applying to men in management or leadership roles because of the low profile of females in management in that period (Jogulu and Wood, 2006; Evans, 2010). Further, women were not often seen as being suitable for leadership positions. During early leadership theories it was highly unusual to find women in leadership roles. This phenomenon led researchers in leadership literature to seek leadership styles which are suitable for women. So it is argued here that leadership has, throughout the centuries and throughout all theories on leadership, conventionally been seen as a gendered idea (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe 2003; Dunn, 2007; Gartzia and Van Engen, 2012). Early theories of what leader behaviors work and do not work well were based almost entirely on studies of male managers (Powell, 2012). A classic 1974 compendium of research results, Stogdill's (1974) *Handbook of Leadership*, discovered few studies that examined female leaders exclusively or even included female leaders in their samples. When female managers were present in organizations being studied, they were usually excluded from the analysis because their few numbers might distort the results. It was as if female managers were less legitimate or less worthy of observation than male managers. Although management researchers no longer exclude female managers from their samples,

many of the existing theories of leadership were developed with male managers in mind (Powell, 2012).

Almost all women who have held leadership positions in corporations around the world have done so in the 1990s (Carli and Eagly, 2001). Since Eagly et al's (1992) meta-analysis, the research and leadership literature moved on and greater attention has been paid to transformational and transactional leadership styles (Bass and Avolio, 1994; Bass, 1998). In recent years, transformational and transactional leadership have become the primary focus of leadership theories (Judge and Bono, 2000; Judge and Piccolo, 2004). Dimensions of a transformational style of leadership are particularly related to stereotypes of females and how females are perceived or expected to act as leaders (Bass et al, 1996). This may perhaps explain why there has been increasing interest in studying the intersection between transformational leadership style and gender (Kark, 2004). Transformational leadership style has a positive relationship with nurturance, a feminine characteristic, and a negative relationship with aggression, a masculine characteristic (Ross and Offermann, 1997, Powell, 2012). Because of the supportive and considerate behaviors viewed in this model, the transformational style of leadership helps in encouraging people to believe that women may indeed be successful or even excellent as leaders or may encourage females to adopt such a style given its positive connotations (Eagly, 2003; Porterfield and Kleiner, 2005). A transformational style of leadership could be regarded as a 'feminine' one because of its emphasis on the manager's intellectual stimulation of, and the individual consideration given to, employees (Van Engen et al, 2001) and may perhaps offer an explanation as to why there are, these days, more women in leadership roles, that is, because the transformational style of leadership is perceived as 'a good thing' (if not 'better than' the transactional style of leadership), by association women in leadership roles must be 'good'. Or, a more cynical view, 'women are not as bad as we thought that they would be'.

Transformational leadership is more congruent with a stereotypical feminine gender role (Powell et al, 2008). In particular, *individualized consideration* includes behaviors that are markedly consistent with the female gender role's demand for supportive, considerate, and caring behaviors (Gartzia and Van Engen, 2012). While others stated that transformational leadership encompasses both masculine and

feminine qualities, the masculine are related to visioning and challenging and the feminine include behavior connected with rewarding, encouraging, and enabling others (Brandt and Laiho, 2013). According to Eagly (2003), this model may allow women to be excellent leaders. It is argued that the portion of women has increased gradually in the period in which the transformational leadership style has come to be regarded as 'better' because female gender role matched the qualities of this style.

While female leaders use a leadership behavior based on interpersonal relationships and sharing of power and information, the behavior which is usually associated with the transformational style of leadership, male leaders have been found to influence performance by using rewards and punishment, the behavior mainly associated with the transactional style of leadership (Rosener, 1990). Thus, there is evidence from the literature that female leaders tend to be more transformational, interactive and committed. Precisely, female leaders encourage involvement, participation and empowerment of individuals (Alimo Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2001; Eagly et al, 2003; Ahn and Dornbusch, 2004; Fernandez and Rainey, 2006; Bridges, 2009; Drucker, 2009). On the other hand, male leaders are more transactional as they don't excite, transform, empower or inspire people to focus on the interests of the group or organization. Women are also higher than men in dimensions of transformational leadership, which are associated with the feminine stereotype, and lower than men in *active and passive management by exception*, which are associated with the masculine stereotype. Contrary to gender stereotypes, women are higher than men in the contingent reward dimension of transactional leadership. However, women and men do not differ in task style (Powell, 2012). Gender stereotypes represent beliefs about the psychological traits that are characteristic of members of each sex, whereas gender roles represent beliefs about the behaviors that are appropriate for members of each sex (Eagly et al, 2000; Kite et al, 2008; Wood and Eagly, 2010).

However, in the another part of the world, in the Arab countries, according to the Arab Women Leadership Outlook (2009-2011) survey, the results indicate that Arab women leaders on the whole exhibit the leadership styles of transformational leaders, particularly given their general emphasis on emotional intelligence. Arab women leaders view themselves as open, accessible and relationship-oriented. They

show an exceptional ability to combine the best of leadership styles and it is possible that Arab women leaders are establishing a new form of leadership that may be replicated across gender and borders. This is consistent with the idea that the transformational style of leadership is related to patterns of communal behavior which are determined for women due to gender stereotype (Galanaki et al, 2009).

2.4.2 The Links between Leadership Theory and Gender-Role Stereotypes

Several linkages may be made between gender stereotypes and these leadership theories. Even though early leadership theories were developed at a time when there were far fewer women in leader roles, review of major theories does not support these stereotypes (Powell, 2012). However, leadership theories do not exclusively endorse feminine characteristics either (Powell, 2012). Instead, situational leadership theories (Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1973; Hersey et al, 2008) recommend that leaders vary the amount of masculine and feminine characteristics they display according to the situation. Thus, leadership theories do not suggest that either feminine or masculine behaviors are the key to leader effectiveness (Powell, 2012). The masculine stereotype is associated with a high propensity to exhibit task-oriented behaviors such as setting goals and initiating work activity, whereas the feminine stereotype is associated with a high propensity to exhibit interpersonally-oriented behaviors such as showing consideration toward subordinates and demonstrating concern for their satisfaction (Cann and Siegfried, 1990). When individuals are high in the propensity to exhibit both task-oriented and interpersonally-oriented behavior, they adopt Bem's (1981) profile of an androgynous leader, one who is high in both masculinity and femininity (Sargent, 1981). However, when individuals are low in the propensity to exhibit either type of behavior and display laissez-faire leadership, they adopt Bem's (1981) profile of an undifferentiated leader, one who is low in both masculinity and femininity.

In contrast, Hersey and Blanchard's situational leadership theory (Hersey et al, 2008) suggests that leaders should be masculine, androgynous, feminine, and finally undifferentiated (low in both masculine and feminine traits) in turn as followers increase in maturity and the leader's need to demonstrate task behavior abates.

Further, the autocratic style of decision making is more associated with the masculine stereotype, reflecting a greater emphasis on dominance and control over others (Eagly and Johnson, 1990). In contrast, the democratic style of decision making is more associated with the feminine stereotype, reflecting a greater emphasis on the involvement of others. Tannenbaum and Schmidt's (1973) situational leadership theory recommends that leaders behave in an increasingly feminine manner as their followers gain independence, responsibility, and the ability to work well as a team. Overall, the transformational leadership style appears to be more congruent with the feminine than the masculine gender role, whereas the transactional leadership style appears to be more congruent with the masculine than the feminine gender role (Bass et al, 1996; Ross and Offermann, 1997; Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Bono and Judge, 2004; Kark, 2004).

2.4.3 Gender Theories and the Evaluation/Rating of Leaders' by Followers

The importance of gender role stereotypes in the workplace is obvious when we consider that an increasing number of women are pursuing traditionally masculine jobs as well as higher-level leadership positions (Diekman and Goodfriend, 2006; Galanaki et al, 2009). The same, however, is not true for men, in that they have not moved into traditionally feminine jobs at a similar rate (Diekman and Eagly, 2000; Diekman and Goodfriend, 2006; Eagly and Sczesny, 2009). Thus, despite advances in women's role in the workplace, it appears that occupational segregation between genders still exists, and as such, stereotypes related to gender roles likely remain alive and well (Mihail, 2006).

The lack of fit model (Heilman, 1983; 1995) explained the think manager-think male phenomenon. Heilman (1983, 1995) suggests that when individuals believe that men possess the characteristics that are best suited for the managerial role in greater abundance than women, they are likely to evaluate male managers more favorably than female managers, even if the managers being evaluated are exhibiting exactly the same behavior.

Role congruity theory (Eagly and Karau, 2002) invokes the construct of gender role congruence, defined as “the extent to which leaders behave in a manner that is congruent with gender role expectations” (Eagly et al, 1992: 5). According to role congruity theory, leader and gender stereotypes put female leaders at a distinct disadvantage by forcing them to deal with the perceived incongruity between the leader role and their gender role. If women conform to the female gender role, they fail to meet the requirements of the leader role. However, if women compete with men for leadership positions and conform to the leader role, they fail to meet the requirements of the female gender role, which calls for feminine niceness and deference to the authority of men (Rudman and Glick, 2001). The role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders (Eagly and Karau, 2002) argues leadership is a male role and therefore leads to negative perceptions of and resistance to women who attempt to fill leadership roles. According to role congruity theory, individuals are penalized when they do not act according to expectations of society (Skelly and Johnson, 2011). Research based on role congruity theory has revealed that the perceptions of women, especially of those in leadership positions, remain largely negative (Wittmer, 2001; Heilman et al, 2004; Ritter and Yoder, 2004; Garcia-Retamero and Lopez-Zafra, 2006; Simon and Hoyt, 2008; Isaac et al, 2010). “Because women who are effective leaders tend to violate standards for their gender when they manifest male-stereotypical, agentic attributes and fail to manifest female-stereotypical, communal attributes, they may be being visionary and having the skills to implement strategic vision appear to be the keys to helping women break the glass ceiling unfavorably evaluated for their gender role violation, at least by those who endorse traditional gender roles” (Eagly and Karau, 2002: 575).

Even while obtaining some positive evaluation for the fulfillment of a leader role, a woman may still expect to receive negative reactions. For example, in a study completed by Heilman et al (1995) even when the researcher characterized women managers as successful, participants viewed the women as more hostile (e.g. *bitter, devious, selfish*) and less rational (e.g. *less logical, objective, or able to isolate ideas from feelings*) than successful male managers. According to role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders (Eagly and Karau, 2002), the divergent expectations of the leadership role and the female gender role stem from the construal of leadership as agentic and the female gender role as communal. Agentic

characteristics pertain to assertive, controlling and confident behavior, such as being dominant, independent and self-sufficient. Communal characteristics relate to the concern for the welfare of other people, for example sympathetic, interpersonally sensitive and helpful. An agentic male manager is considered to act in congruence with both the leadership role and his gender role, but an agentic female manager would act in incongruence with her gender role. Displaying more communal characteristics would be in accordance with her female gender role, but not the leadership role. This role divergence results in both descriptive (*how women are believed to be*) and prescriptive (*how women should behave*) norms influencing the perceived leadership potential of a woman as well as the evaluation of women in actual leadership positions.

Status characteristics theory or expectation states theory (Berger et al, 1985; Berger et al, 1998) proposes that individuals shape expectations for others' behavior depending on the status given by the society to their personal traits (Powell et al, 2008). Concerning evaluation, Foschi (2000) argues that most social interactions need making a comparison amongst participants, their characteristics and their acts. On most occasions, the comparison involves evaluation against some standards which are expressed in a direct or indirect way (Weyer, 2007). Based on whether standards are high or low, additional expectations are created. For example, the successful performances of people having a lower social status (e.g females) are examined very carefully and then judged by stricter standards than the same performances which are done by individuals who are of a higher social status (Foschi, 2000). With regard to gender stereotypes, expectation state theory particularly focuses on the role of status beliefs that "link greater social significance and general competence, as well as specific positive and negative skills, with one category of a social distinction (e.g men) compared to another (e.g women)" (Ridgeway, 2001: 638). Further, status characteristics theory (Berger et al, 1998; Berger and Webster, 2006; Ridgeway, 1991, 2006) argues that unequal societal status is assigned to the sexes, with men granted higher status than women. Because of their weaker status position, women are required to monitor others' reactions to themselves and be responsive to interpersonal cues, leading them to specialize in interpersonally-oriented traits (Aries, 2006). In contrast, because of their stronger status position, men get more opportunities to initiate actions and influence

decision making, leading them to specialize in task-oriented traits. Each of these three theories including, lacks of fit model, role congruity theory, and status characteristics theory, argues that the social construction of both gender and leadership exerts a powerful influence on individuals' beliefs about which sex belongs in the leader role (Powell, 2012).

Social role theory plays a great role in explaining gender-role stereotyping in evaluation of leaders (Welty and Burton, 2011). It is suggested that each gender has qualities and behavioral tendencies which are desirable, as well as expectations as to which roles men and women must occupy (Eagly and Karau, 2002). Social role theory describes the ways in which managers have expectations for individuals to comply with the tendencies and actions that are commensurate with their social roles (Skelly and Johnson, 2011). Social role theory argues that women and men's leadership behaviors are somewhat different because gender roles exert some effect in leadership roles in terms of the expectations that leaders and others hold (Eagly, 1987). Sex differences in social behavior are in part caused by the tendency of people to behave consistently with gender roles (Eagly and Karau, 1991). According to this theory, females tend to exhibit more behavior that is social service oriented in nature, while males tend to show more achievement oriented behaviors (Eagly and Karau, 2002). Social role theory suggests that as a result of socialization and social norms, women may be more likely to engage in person-focused leadership such as transformational or servant leadership (Eagly, 1987). Meta-analysis lends some support to this theory, with findings suggesting that compared to male managers, the leadership style demonstrated by female leaders is more transformational, and less transactional (Burke and Collins, 2001; Eagly et al, 2003). Male managers have been shown to be more likely than women to engage in management by exception, typical of transactional leadership (Eagly et al, 2003).

According to social role theory (Eagly and Steffen, 1984) and the gender role framework (Gutek et al, 1991), gender role stereotypes are determined in part by society and reflect occupational and societal trends (Eagly and Steffen, 1984; Diekman and Eagly, 2000). Differences in gender roles, such as the tendency for men to fulfill the breadwinner role and for women to fulfill the domestic role (Eagly et al, 2000; Diekman and Goodfriend, 2006), might be based on early role divisions in

which men, due to their physical strength, were hunters and home builders, while women fulfilled caring roles (Feingold, 1994). Thus, gender roles arise from the types of work traditionally performed by each sex, although similar occupational gender patterns and stereotyping still exist today, with substantially more men than women in managerial, executive, and leadership roles in the workplace (Brady et al, 2011). Social role theory argues that in a leadership situation, people develop expectations about the role of leader (Weyer, 2007; Powell et al, 2008). At the same time, social role theory claims that leaders are simultaneously seen in relation to their gender and their role in an organization (Eagly et al, 1992). Social role theory argues that there are specific traits, such as assertiveness, that society has linked to qualities typically demonstrated by men. As evidenced, social role theory proposes the existence of a significant stereotype against females in leadership positions (Lyness and Heilman, 2006). The lack of women in management has often been attributed to stereotypical conceptions and traditional gender norms, where individual men and women are evaluated against gender stereotypes (Eagly and Karau, 2002).

However, additional research has proven that the issue is not as easy for women to 'do as the boys do'. Women are expected to be feminine, and those that exhibit toughness, decisiveness, and assertiveness (all male traits) are not well accepted by their peers (Broughton and Miller, 2009). On the other hand, women who do not show enough of those characteristics are deemed not suitable for the top positions. It is obvious that women are in a double bind (Eagly, 2007). Eagly and Diekmann (2003) proposed an extension of social role theory (Eagly, 1987; Eagly et al, 2000), arguing that the role behavior of men and women ultimately shapes the stereotype that is assigned to them. Beliefs about the traits possessed by women and men may change in response to perceived change in the behavior elicited by their life circumstances. Thus, if the societal roles of women and men were believed to be more similar, stereotypes of women and men would converge in masculinity and femininity (Diekmann and Eagly, 2000). Further, if changes in the societal roles of women were perceived to be greater than changes in those of men, the stereotype of women would be more dynamic than that of men. Thus, the stereotype of the effective leader may have changed such that it is now more aligned with traits associated with women than with those associated with men. Such changes may have led to a reversal of the effect of leader sex on evaluations favoring men (Powell

et al, 2008). Powell et al (2008: 157) provide a theoretical basis to explain how men and women are perceived differently as leaders. "Social role theory (Eagly, 1987; Eagly et al, 2000) suggests that individual's form expectations for the social roles of others based on gender roles, or consensual beliefs about the traits that are characteristic of, and appropriate for, women and men. Gender roles are both descriptive, consisting of beliefs about the psychological traits that are *characteristic* of each sex, named as 'gender stereotypes' (Deaux and Kite, 1993), and are prescriptive, consisting of beliefs about the psychological traits that are *appropriate* for each sex (Eagly and Karau, 2002)". Powell et al (2008: 157) argue that "according to traditional gender roles, males are especially high in 'masculine' traits that are task-oriented or agentic, whereas females are especially high in 'feminine' traits that are interpersonally oriented or communal (Bem, 1974; Deaux and Kite, 1993; Eagly et al, 2000)".

"Translating this into an organizational leader situation, people form perceptions and expectations about how the leader role should be performed. The leader role is perceived as those behaviors and traits most closely associated with men, thus leaving women perceived as less adequate for leader roles" (Mavin, 2009: 2). Socially constructed gendered roles and gender-role schemas (Efthim et al, 2001) "are now generally accepted as identity resources that people draw upon in everyday lives" (Mavin, 2009: 2). Due Billing and Alvesson (2000) question notions of masculinity and femininity, recognizing these categories are gendered, grounded within culture and not by biological necessity they are not one's sex. Masculinity and femininity are not fixed but constantly changing; culturally and historically dependent on the meanings we ascribe to them. They are forms of subjectivities (orientations in thinking, feeling and valuing), that recognize that "men as well as women are capable of acting in what may be labelled masculine and feminine ways, based on instrumentality as well as feelings, dependent on the situation" (Due Billing and Alvesson, 2000: 152). "Eagly and Diekmann (2003) extend social role theory and argue that the role behavior of men and women shape the stereotype assigned to them e.g. perceptions and beliefs about the behaviors and traits possessed by men and women may change in response to perceived change in behavior elicited by their life circumstances" (Powell et al, 2008: 158).

Powell et al (2008) argue that as women and men are preparing for leader roles in more similar numbers, and as women have reached greater representation in middle management roles, then stereotypes assigned to them have become less differentiated. Mavin and Grandy (2011) in their work contend “those individuals can perform exaggerated expressions of femininity or (masculinity) while simultaneously performing alternative expressions of femininity or masculinity” (cited in Mavin and Grandy, 2012: 219). By doing so, they agreed with Due Billing (2011, cited in Mavin and Grandy, 2012: 219) “who states that gender is a fluid concept that shifts over time and place”. However, well-documented evidence shows that gender roles still differ considerably (Bosak and Sczesny, 2011). Communal attributes such as supportive, empathic, and gentle are more strongly ascribed to women. Agentic attributes, such as assertive, competitive, controlling, and dominant are more strongly associated with the male gender role. The distinction between communal and agentic attributes is also of central importance in the domain of leadership (Schuh et al, 2014). Recent work on leadership roles has confirmed that these are still mainly defined in masculine (i.e, agentic) terms-despite the growing number of female attributes that have become an integral part of the leadership role (Koenig et al, 2011). People’s expectations about successful leadership behavior are strongly associated with attributes such as competitive, assertive, and decisive, which are traditionally regarded as male characteristics (Schuh et al, 2014).

Even though there is a big body of literature concerning stereotyping and that men and women are different, there is another point of view which sees men and women as being the same and that they possess the same skills that make them good leaders. Theories and perspectives on gender are often investigated from three different perspectives: the dominance perspective, the difference perspective and the dual perspective (Baxter, 2010). The dominance perspective echoes the famous words of Schein (1975): ‘think manager, think male’, suggesting a strong male-biased conception of what constitutes an effective and ideal leader. As Holmes (2006: 34) suggests: “leaders are typically characterized as authoritative, strong-minded, decisive, aggressive, competitive, confident, single-minded, goal-oriented, courageous, hard-nosed and adversaria”. In a similar vein Sczesny et al (2004: 632) argue that “Research has shown that the attributes ascribed to managers yielded a significantly higher correlation with the description of a typical man than with the

description of a typical woman". The second perspective, the difference perspective, within leadership and gender relies to a great extent on early theories of leadership styles and leadership traits. This perspective draws on the dichotomy set up between 'management' and 'transactional leadership' at one end of the scale and 'leadership' and 'transformational leadership' at the other end of the scale. Thus, according to Kotter (1999), management involves "keeping the current system operating through planning, budgeting, organizing, staffing, controlling, and problem solving" (Kotter, 1999: 10). These actions correspond to Burns' (1978) notion of 'transactional leadership', "where a transactional leader is described as someone who 'tends to think more about specific goals, work skills and knowledge needed to accomplish those goals, work assignments, and various reward relationships'" (Connor, 2004: 52). However, according to both Burns (1978) and Kotter (1999), management involves more than just planning, controlling, goal-orientation and the rest. There is also a relational and social side to management which Kotter refers to as 'leadership' and for which Burns has coined the term 'transformational leadership' (Askehave and Zethsen, 2014). "Transformational leadership places greater emphasis upon intellectual capability and creativity. It tends to be more abstract, and emphasizes vision over goals" (Connor, 2004: 53). Burns (1978) argues that a transformational leadership style is more effective than the transactional style, whereas Kotter (1999: 51), suggests that "leadership and management are two distinctive and complementary systems of action. Each has its own function and characteristic activities. Both are necessary for success in an increasingly complex and volatile business". The concepts of transactional/management and transformational/leadership styles have been adopted by researchers of gender and leadership, with Rosener (1990) arguing that female managers have a distinct leadership style which typically echoes that of the transformational style, whereas males tend to adopt a transactional approach. Similarly, Eagly and Johnson (1990), Fagenson (1993) and Helgesen (1995), Bird and Brush (2002), Alimo-Metcalfe (2010) suggest that women, as opposed to men, manage through relationships, listen and empathize much more with their staff, and focus on empowerment and team building, while men value influence and self-confidence, drive and direction. This may have consequences for the recruitment process. Alimo-Metcalfe (2010b) suggests, for example, that as men are usually involved in the managerial selection process, they are more likely to favour qualities which they believe are important to manage effectively-ending up

with male-biased criteria of leadership qualities, that is leadership is cast within a masculine gender framework. A number of researchers have criticized and warned against the difference perspective on gender and leadership (White, 1995; Maher, 1997; Alvesson and Due Billing, 1997; Holmes, 2006; Due Billing, 2011). They suggest that the difference perspective may simply lead to stereotyping and keeping women locked in a particular role that is impossible to break away from. Rather, the above researchers emphasize a dual perspective, suggesting that both men and women possess qualities associated with both the transformational and the transactional leadership styles, and that the leader's behavior (whether male or female) is dependent on a number of contextual features such as nature of the company, members of staff, business or industry, age, experience, and the rest. In other words, they argue that a one-sided conceptualization fails to take into account that management/leadership takes place in actual situations and contexts which may call for very different leadership styles or behaviors depending on the task at hand, the team you are in, the financial situation of the company and the rest.

Finally, although some researchers supported the notion that men and women nowadays do not differ, there are many statistics that prove they are still few far in the top leadership positions and they are still struggle to get top positions. For example, in most Western nations, primarily Europe and North America, women account for nearly half of the workforce, according to government statistics. In the United States, for example, 52 percent of workers are women, and in Europe the number of women averages slightly less than 45 percent of workers. Yet when it comes to the number of women holding corporate leadership roles, the percentages are much lower. An analysis of compensation surveys released by Mercer on Feb. 21, 2012, found that women held 29 percent of senior-level management jobs in Europe. A report released by Catalyst in December 2011 showed that women held just 14 percent of the executive-level jobs at *Fortune* 500 companies in the U.S. "For a gender comprising over half the global population, women's representation in senior corporate roles is woeful," said Sophie Black, a principal for Mercer's executive remuneration team, in a statement. "The causes are complicated. It's cultural, social; in some cases it is intentional discrimination, but it can also be an unconscious and unintentional bias," she explained. "The end result of these issues is the creation of a 'pyramid of invisibility' for women in corporate life" Mercer

researchers analyzed 264,000 senior-management jobs at approximately 5,300 companies in 41 countries and found that countries in the former Soviet bloc had the highest percentages of women in senior-level positions. The researchers found that women held 44 percent of the senior management jobs in Lithuania, followed by Bulgaria (43 percent) and Russia (40 percent). However, Spain, the United Kingdom and France each had a female representation level of 28 percent, while the Netherlands had the lowest level of female executives in Europe at 19 percent. (<http://www.weknownnext.com>, Leonard, 2012). According to the Grant Thornton International Business Report (2012), women hold 21 percent of senior management positions globally. Russia has the highest percentage of women in leadership roles, well ahead of the EU and North America. The US, UK and Germany are all among the bottom 10 economies when it comes to the percentage of women in senior management roles. Japan 5%, Germany 13%, India 14%, Denmark 15%, UAE 15%, USA 17%, Netherlands 18%, Mexico 18%, Argentina 20%, and UK 20%.

So this study draws upon social role theory (Eagly, 1987; Eagly et al, 2000), Eagly and Carli (2007, 2008) an agentic and communal leadership framework, and Bosak and Sczesny (2011) work. That means, this study builds on the distinction between two gender-roles including the agentic gender-role which is associated with transactional leadership behavior, and the communal gender-role which is associated with the transformational leadership behavior.

In short, social constructionist theories have argued that biological differences between men and women do not have the same meaning across cultures rather it is societal expectations which create and maintain inequality between both of genders (Wood and Eagly, 2002). It is argued here that gender is socially constructed. So, gender rather than sex is the term used in the research described in this study. Sex is ascribed to being male or female, while gender is viewed as the behavior of a person and is therefore something described as being typically masculine or typically feminine. "The sex/gender split meant that scholars could distinguish sex, referring to attributes of men and women created by their biological characteristics and *gender*, referring to the distinctive qualities of men and women which are created culturally" (Brandser, 1996: 7). Fernandes and Cabral-Cardoso (2003) further explain that the gender role can be either relied on femininity attributes (e.g *emotions, sensitivity and*

intuition) or masculinity attributes (*involving aggressiveness, confrontation, independence and decision*). So, it is worth noting that sex is known as being male or female, while gender is viewed as the behavior of sex and therefore there is such a thing as typically masculine or typically feminine behavior. Therefore, it is argued here that gender is constructed differently across cultures; gender is not only socially constructed but also culturally constructed as well. So if we are to look at leadership and gender, it is important to look more closely at the *perceptions* held.

2.5 PERCEPTION OF GENDER DIFFERENCES IN LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR AND EFFECTIVENESS

The impact of gender differences on leadership has been widely discussed in the literature (Eagly et al, 2003; Appelbaum et al, 2003; Kan and Parry, 2004; Parker, 2005; Swanwick and McKimm, 2011). Whether men and women differ in skills and abilities for leadership is an important question and deserves to be considered due to the controversy surrounding recent claims that one gender is naturally considered to have better skills for leadership positions (Vecchio, 2002). The increasing number of women entering business and holding leadership positions explains why there has been strong interest from researchers seeking to study the differentiating aspects of men and women as leaders (Burke and Collin, 2001; Vecchio, 2002; Hopkins and Bilimoria, 2008). "For women in management, stereotyping may result in the internalization of the idea that women are less capable of assuming leadership roles (Appelbaum et al, 2013b). As such, they do not identify themselves with potential leadership positions, considered male territory, thus undermining their motivation and potentially leading to lower performance. Stereotype threat has been proven to impact women negatively in academic fields and, importantly, in women's professional aspirations" (Davies et al, 2002; Roberson and Kulik, 2007; cited in Jonsen and Maznevski, 2010: 552). So, are there really gender differences in leadership styles? In attempting to answer this question, this section, particularly, will include behavioral stereotypes, perception barriers and gender differences in leader behavior and effectiveness of leader behavior.

2.5.1 Behavioral Stereotypes

Sheaffer's (2011: 9) study in leadership attributes shows that early work about gender stereotypes found that "men were more likely to possess the characteristics associated with managerial success. Indeed, most descriptors of male managers portrayed them as being assertive, self-reliant, competitive, objective, forceful, ambitious, emotionally stable and self-confident" (Sheaffer, 2011: 9). These results have not changed substantially over time, as (Sheaffer, 2011: 9), and that, presumably, the most important obstacle for women in management is the persistent stereotype that associates management with maleness. "To put it plainly, if female leaders behave like women, they do not fit the leader's role. If they are successful leaders, they do not fit their gender role. This means that no matter how female leaders behave, they will always be rated unfavourably" (Heilman, 1983; cited in Schyns et al, 2008: 599). "Therefore, when women do desire to progress into senior roles and leadership positions in organizations, they are more likely to be evaluated negatively based on 'lack of person-job-fit' because senior roles and leadership position in organizations have been seen as occupations that are a male domain" (Lyness and Heilman, 2006: 604).

2.5.2 Perception Barriers

This section will cover the following: the glass ceiling and glass cliff effect, as well as motherhood.

The Glass Ceiling and Glass Cliff Effect

"Women's participation in the upper echelons of management continues to be disproportional relative to that of men. This gender imbalance is often attributed to: the relatively invisible barrier of the 'glass ceiling' that prevents women climbing the corporate ladder" (The Corporate Woman, 1986; cited in Ryan et al, 2007: 182). Extending the metaphor of the glass ceiling, Ryan and Haslam (2005) argue that, compared to men, women are more likely to find themselves on a glass cliff, such

that their positions of leadership are associated with greater risk and an increased possibility of failure, and can thus be seen as more precarious.

“Related to explanations based on discrimination and in-group favoritism, it has been argued that women are appointed to glass cliff positions because company decision makers see women as more expendable and are thus more willing to put them forward for leadership positions of dubious status. Moreover, in such positions women may be more attractive as potential scapegoats who can be shouldered with blame should things go wrong” (Ryan et al, 2007: 189). Hence, “women’s disproportional representation in precarious positions may expose them to a greater danger of being the subject of unfair criticism and blame for negative outcomes, compared to their male counterparts” (Ryan et al, 2007: 184). On the other hand, “more benign explanations for the glass cliff centred on the fact that it was not about deliberately putting women in precarious positions, but that it was an outcome of a strategic decision for what was best for the company. Such strategic decisions included the idea that ‘trying something different is better than trying nothing at all’ the idea of a female appointment as a ‘last hope’ to ‘improve public image of company’ and to ‘show a visible change” (Ryan et al, 2007: 191). “When looking at the glass cliff effect from a women’s perspective the explanation for its ‘phenomenon focused not so much on the motivations of decision makers, but on the women themselves, women may be more likely to accept risky and precarious leadership positions because they had less opportunity than their male counterparts” (Ryan et al, 2007: 189-190). As well, “women may also down play the significance of glass cliffs for strategic reasons in order to avoid either being cast in the role of victim or attracting criticism from those in power” (Reicher and Levine, 1994; Maniero, 1994; Postmes et al, 1999; Kaiser and Miller, 2001; Garcia et al, 2005; cited in Ryan et al, 2007: 186). With regard to the glass ceiling and glass cliff effect, it is claimed that Arab women demonstrate a unique style of leadership that has proven to be successful in breaking the glass ceiling and creating a positive impact on the Arab world (Arab Women Leadership Outlook, 2009-2011). However, whilst this is no doubt the case for *some* women, as in the West, there is nothing to support the claim that women in the Middle East do not face the very same glass ceiling that women the world over face.

Motherhood? Still?

“Regardless of conflicting research about a woman’s innate abilities, researchers agree that married women who work outside of the home experience far greater conflicts between work and family roles than their male counterparts” (Brown, 2010: 472). “Despite the modern ideals of shared parenting and household management responsibility, the bulk of this work continues to be done by women. Women who become pregnant during their career-building years will require, at minimum, a reasonable period of maternity leave. They may decide to extend this into a career break of several years in order to spend time with a pre-school child or to complete their families. Climbing back up the career ladder is always difficult after such an extended time away from the workplace environment. This may be exacerbated by continuing parental responsibilities, which more often than not, fall more heavily on women than on men” (Strategic Direction, 2008). Consequently, “domestic responsibilities place constraints on women’s labor market activity which decreases rapidly post-childbirth. For example, women may be less geographically mobile because their ‘travel to work area’ is constrained by the need to take children to and from school. Domestic responsibilities also place constraints on the jobs women apply for within the organization. Many women turn down jobs they are perfectly qualified to do, because they require temporal patterns of work that simply do not mesh with the temporal patterns of caring” (Durbin and Fleetwood, 2010: 227). Cabrera’s (2009) study found that “women are hurt the most by the workplace cultures that reward employees who fulfill the expectations of the ideal worker. Face time and sacrifice continue to be used to judge an employee’s performance and commitment. Many organizational cultures value the number of hours spent at the office, the ability to attend early and late meetings, travel and the ability to be instantly responsive to e-mails. The focus is not solely on results” (Cabrera, 2009 cited in Brown, 2010: 472). “Guillaume and Pochic’s (2007) research also indicates that time availability is directly linked to career promotion” (Guillaume and Pochic, 2007 cited in Brown, 2010: 473).

Furthermore, “those who manage the recruitment process have little to gain from recruiting an employee who is likely to generate the extra costs and inconvenience

(to the employing organization) associated with maternity leave or pregnancy. Gatrell, (2005; cited in Durbin and Fleetwood, 2010: 224-225) for example, shows that pregnant women's 'leaky bodies' are often unwelcome in the workplace. Note that recruitment decisions penalize not only women who have children, or who intend to have them, but all women of child-bearing age, even those who have no intention of having children, because the suspicion lurks that they might "Perhaps partly due to these pressures to balance work and family, high-level professional women often decide to take a less demanding position or seek new career options following childbirth. Some even become stay-at-home mothers and leave the workforce entirely. Those who try to have it all struggle to spend enough time with their children while still continuing on a successful professional path" (Cabrera, 2009; cited in Brown, 2010: 474). Yet "women are not angry at employers, nor do they actively expect employers to change policies. As discussed, women perceive themselves and their situations differently than the actual experiences and behaviors reveal. While women realize that finding balance is a struggle (and that balance is defined differently based on the career and home life decisions), they appear to have a general appreciation for any considerations given by employers, even when employers are not enforcing or encouraging flexible and family-friendly work arrangements or policies" (Brown, 2010: 490). As for motherhood, Arab women, like women all over the world, face a challenge that is very particular to their role as a leader, wife and mother. Most women believe that balancing their personal lives with their work is the most difficult challenge they face. Thus success is very much contingent upon having the right support system and making the necessary sacrifices (Arab Women Leadership Outlook, 2009-2011).

2.5.3 Gender Differences in Leader Behavior

Sex differences between men and women exist in nature and cannot be changed, but gender differences are constructed behaviors that might be learned or not (Kawana, 2004). According to Powell (2012: 120), "the study of sex differences in leadership examines how male and female leaders actually differ in attitudes, values, skills, behaviors, and effectiveness, whereas the study of gender differences in leadership focuses on how people believe that male and female leaders differ". So

for the purpose of this study, gender differences in leadership behaviors are addressed. Researchers have paid a lot of attention to studying gender differences in leadership behaviors and effectiveness.

Since the early 1990s, some studies have revealed differences between men and women with respect to leadership style preferences (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2005). Research which supports the notion of gender differences in leadership styles (for example, Bass and Avolio, 1994; Bass et al, 1996; Carless, 1998; Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Eagly et al 2003; Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2003; Oshagbemi and Grill, 2003; Powell et al, 2008; Gartzia and Van Engen, 2012) is reviewed next.

Historically, men have been perceived as being better suited to become leaders than women (Dawley et al, 2004). "In order to develop themselves and prepare for a senior leader role, women need awareness that their performance as leaders is often perceived and presented differently to that of men. Such perceptions are based on gender or sex-role stereotypes of what is (in) appropriate behavior for men and women leaders" (Mavin, 2009: 1). Although the proportion of women in leadership positions has grown over the past decades, women are still underrepresented in leadership roles, which poses an ethical challenge to society at large but business in particular (Hausmann et al, 2010; Schuh et al, 2014).

Many studies indicated that there is a significant difference between male and female leadership styles (Bass and Avolio, 1997; Eagly et al, 2003; Aldoory and Toth, 2004; Morgan, 2006; Eagly, 2007). For example, the International Women's Forum (IWF) conducted, in 1991, a questionnaire and found out that male supervisors tend to apply a transactional leadership style, that means man would give nominal rewards when followers do something right and punish them if they do not. On the other hand, female supervisors tend to adopt a transformational leadership style, which means woman will achieve the company's major goals, by actively interacting with followers, encouraging employees' involvement in decision making sharing authority and information, respecting employee self-value, and encouraging employee to like their job.

Women are viewed as more transformational leaders than men who exhibit the same leadership style (Bass and Avolio, 1994). These findings were supported by a study conducted by Bass et al (1996) that tested gender differences in both of transformational and transactional leadership styles using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. In three samples, results indicated that female leaders, evaluated by both their female and male direct supervisors as exhibiting transformational leadership behavior on certain scales of charisma, and *individualized consideration*, were more favorably rated as such than their male counterparts (Bass et al, 1996). Evidence providing further support for this comes from a study carried out in Australia (Carless 1998), where taking into account multiple views, results revealed that female managers were evaluated by their superiors as more transformational than male managers, while women and men leaders were evaluated equally by their followers. More recent studies regarding gender differences in transformational and transactional leadership styles come from a study by Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001), whose study support the idea that women exhibit more transformational leadership behavior than men, and which reveal that women leaders are more able to show characteristics that make their subordinates feel pride to be working with those leaders than do their men colleagues. However, women who exhibited transactional leadership behavior on the scale *contingent reward* were rated more favorably than men; also, it seems that women rewarded their followers for good performance more than men did. In contrast, men scored higher on two transactional leadership behaviors *passive management by exception*, and *active management by exception* than women, in other words, men leaders tend to be more concentrated on problems than women.

Burke and Collins (2001: 250) revealed that “the tendency of females to emphasize the highly effective transformational leadership style more than their male colleagues applied to all four of the transformational leadership style subcomponents. Females were more likely than males to report doing the following: serving as positive role models for subordinates who aspire to be like them (attributed charisma); inspiring employees to believe in and strive for a common purpose (*inspirational motivation*); encouraging followers to be creative in problem solving and to question assumptions (*intellectual stimulation*); and spending time developing, teaching, and coaching their subordinates (*individual consideration*)”. Likewise, another significant finding that

came out of the contemporary leadership research is the understanding that transformational leadership behaviors to a large extent exemplify feminine type behaviors built around female innate qualities such as nurturing, caring, participative, consultative, compassionate, concern, respect, equality and consideration (Loden, 1985; Helgesen, 1990; Yammarino et al, 1997; Carless, 1998; Van Engen et al, 2001). This is an interesting and important finding which suggests that female managers would be able to exhibit transformational leadership more easily and frequently compared to their male counterparts.

However there are some studies that do not reach the same conclusions. Vecchio (2002 in Rohmann and Rowold, 2009: 548) “concluded in his critical review that claims of gender advantage are overstated”. There are also results showing no sex differences in leadership styles (Van Engen et al, 2001; Manning, 2002). In a study including multiple perspectives, Carless (1998) showed that superiors evaluated female managers as more transformational than male managers, whereas subordinates evaluated their female and male leaders equally. Bass et al (1996) reported sex differences in transformational leadership in one study, but no strong sex differences in two other samples.

Eagly et al (2003) carried out a meta-analysis of gender differences in transformational and transactional leadership behaviors which are used by actual leaders, and whose findings show that women were evaluated more favorably than men on most scales of transformational leadership behavior and on *contingent reward* as one scale of transactional leadership behavior, especially on the *individualized consideration* scale, which entails mentoring behavior that is supportive of other people. Conversely, men were evaluated more favorably than women on the other scales of transactional leadership *active management by exception*, and *passive management by exception* that have been considered to have a negative relation with leaders' effectiveness or to be unrelated to it (Lowe et al, 1996). These findings have been translated as a suggestion that women have an advantage in leadership positions, with this idea being argued for strongly among many (Vecchio, 2002, 2003; Eagly and Carli, 2003a; Eagly and Carli, 2003b).

Another study conducted by Oshagbemi and Gill (2003) found no significant differences between men and women leaders in overall leadership styles, female and male leaders differed significantly for only one out of seven dimensions, namely, *inspirational motivation*. Many justify this lack of differences by women's attempt to mix their gender stereotype role and the leader role qualities; this effort finally makes their leadership style alike the leadership behavior of their male colleagues (Galanaki et al, 2009).

Powell et al (2008) carried out a study using part-time (evening) MBA students enrolled in management courses at three large US universities. This study has also offered support for women as leaders and their results reveal that women who exhibited transformational leadership behavior were evaluated more favorably than men who exhibited the identical behaviors. These results suggest women are advantaged when it comes to evaluations of transformational leaders, especially when women were themselves the evaluators, and their results revealed that men using a transactional leadership style were not evaluated more favorably than women using that style (Powell et al, 2008). A study conducted in Germany by (Kent et al, 2010) which was concerned with whether male and female leaders lead differently using different kinds of behaviors that are associated with transformational leadership, their results showed that men and women lead using the same behaviors. In each of five dimensions of behaviors, there were no differences between men and women's transformational leadership behaviors. In Gartzia and Van Engen's study (2012) conducted in Spain, significant differences between men and women leaders appeared in *individualized consideration* and *contingent rewards* behaviors with women leaders showing the higher scores. More recently, a study conducted by Metwally (2014) in Egypt, results shows that Egyptian female leaders tend to be more transactional.

As a result, "as is often said, women have to work harder than men in order to prove themselves" (Jonsen and Maznevski, 2010: 550). The literature has suggested that "the evaluation of women in both management and leadership roles has often been highly subjective and in many cases this has led to inequalities in promotion opportunities between female and male managers" (Heilman, 1995, 2001; cited in Jogulu and Wood, 2008: 603). Evidence suggests that the lack of systematic criteria

and well-structured guidelines about evaluation processes in organizations offer a possible explanation for prejudiced decision making to continue, which effects the progression of women into senior managerial roles in many organizations”. Similar views are expressed by Snyder (1993) who reported that “women were significantly better performers than men in many of the foundation skills required for effective leadership” (Snyder, 1993; cited in Jogulu and Wood, 2008: 604). Despite this, it is obvious that women are more likely to experience “disadvantages from prejudicial evaluations of their competence as leaders’ more so compared to their male counterparts” (Eagly and Carli, 2003; cited in Jogulu and Wood, 2008: 604). What’s more is that “women tend to self-rate their contribution in the workplace slightly lower than will men, which, consequently, can affect how women help shape how they are perceived in the workplace. Though women’s low self-ratings are not a direct cause for their limited representation in senior leadership roles, the ratings can indirectly play into how women are perceived in an organization. If a woman rates her contributions as low, she is less likely to effectively self-promote her contributions in the organization, which in turn, may lead her managers to assess her skills and potential inaccurately” (Hutson, 2010: 56). “In general, leadership evaluation in organizations has been reported to be skewed, discriminatory and prejudiced due to the absence of clear guidelines in the evaluation processes” (Heilman, 2001; cited in Jogulu and Wood, 2008: 603). It has been suggested that the paucity of women in senior organizational echelons may be “a consequence of gender bias in evaluations” (Heilman, 2001; cited in Jogulu and Wood, 2008: 603).

2.5.4 Effectiveness of Leader Behaviors

Studies that directly measure leader effectiveness, however, rate women as no more or less effective than men (Powell, 2012). Additional evidence suggests that situational factors influence whether men or women are more effective as leaders. These factors include the nature of the organizational setting and leader role, the proportions of male leaders and followers, and the managerial level of the position. As a result, some leader roles are more congenial to male leaders, whereas other leader roles are more congenial to female leaders. Thus, field evidence clearly refutes the stereotypes that men are better leaders and that better leaders are

masculine. Effective leadership today requires a combination of behaviors that are masculine (e.g. *contingent reward*) and feminine (e.g. *individualized consideration*) and the absence of other behaviors that are sex-neutral (e.g. *laissez-faire* leadership). Women have been found to exhibit more of behaviors that contribute to leader effectiveness than do men. However, situations differ in whether they favor women or men as leaders (Powell, 2012). Although most researchers have illustrated that the most effective leadership style is transformational leadership-the style of leadership that is most often associated with women leaders-and while many researchers have found that indeed women possess qualities that are preferred by followers, women are still perceived as inferior leaders when compared to men (Applebaum et al, 2013b).

2.6 SUMMARY

This chapter focused on leadership and gender in leadership. The chapter was divided into four main sections. In the first section, an overview of leadership, early leadership theories, transformational and transactional leadership theory, criticisms of transformational and transactional leadership theory and finally, a summary of the literature on leadership theory and leadership styles were presented. For the purpose of this study, the concept of leadership is all about the interaction between the leader and the follower. It was argued that studies from the days of the Great Man/trait theories to the emergence of the “new paradigm” charismatic and transformational models have been the studies of *men*, by *men*, and the findings have been extended to humanity in general (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban Metcalfe, 2003b). Throughout history, leadership has predominantly been associated with men and hierarchical relationships. Recent theories have emerged that examine the difference in leadership styles between men and women. Transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles are central to the gender debate. Therefore, transformational and transactional leadership theory was the focus in this study. As the consensus among researchers appears to demonstrate that transformational leadership is the most effective style, some believe that this could be an advantage for women who are most often associated with this style

(Appelbaum et al, 2013). “Women are judged to be more transformational than men, and this leadership style appears to be related to higher effectiveness and more satisfaction among subordinates” (Eagly et al, 2003 in Rohmann and Rowold, 2009: 545). In addition, “followers and supervisors simply expect female managers to behave in a transformational manner, because transformational leadership is considered to be a female leadership style. Consequently, female managers are not rewarded for this expected feminine behavior, whereas transformational leadership, when exhibited by a male leader, is considered a positive surprise that deserves to be rewarded” (Schyns et al, 2008: 600). Whilst, as above, it cannot be the case that a more transactional style of leadership is ‘worse’ than a transformational one, it is nonetheless the case that there is a perception, if not explicitly stated, that a transformational one is somehow ‘better’. Whatever is the case; this study looked at gender within the context of both transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. The second section of the chapter addressed many issues concerning gender and gender role stereotyping. Sex versus gender, the social construction of gender, gender-role stereotyping were addressed. The third section of the chapter addressed gender-role stereotyping and management/leaders. Women in leadership theories, the links between leadership theory and gender-role stereotypes, gender theories and the evaluation/rating of leaders’ by followers were addressed in this section. The fourth section of the chapter addressed perception of gender differences in leadership behavior and effectiveness. Behavioral stereotypes, perception barriers, gender differences in leader behaviours, and effectiveness of leader behaviours were addressed in this section.

In short, gender is distinct from sex as sex refers to what people are born as while gender is what people ‘do’ (Bruni et al, 2004). Biological explanations, socialization explanations, and structural/cultural explanations were described to explain gender-related behaviors in organizations. Socialization and structural/cultural models have been cited as “the most accepted explanation for gender differences” (Lueptow et al, 2001: 1), and have received much more attention than biological models (Bartol et al, 2001). So, sex and gender are not interchangeable terms. Sex makes us male or female, gender refers to those social, cultural, and psychological traits linked to males and females through particular social contexts. So, it is argued in this study that gender is not only socially constructed but it is also culturally constructed.

Therefore, the term gender is used in this study instead of sex. While since the early 1990s some studies have revealed gender differences regarding leadership style preferences, research has not supported real differences between men and women leaders. When men and women show the same leadership behavior, men are often evaluated more positively than women (Nieva and Gutek, 1980; Seifert and Miller, 1988; Butler and Geis, 1990; Shimanoff and Jenkins, 1991; Eagly and Carli, 2003a; Jogulu and Wood, 2006, 2008; Eagly, 2007). Studies which showed gender differences in leadership styles have concentrated on how leadership is perceived differently. Gender and leadership literature showed that researchers have taken many different ways towards the subject of gender and leadership. One way focuses on the differences between women and men leaders, claiming that female leaders are inherently different from male leaders. The second way claims that there is not any difference between men and women in the leadership positions. Finally, others stressed on small differences between men and women leaders. Therefore, if we are to better understand the achievements, experiences, and performance of women as leaders, we must take into account the essential factor of the culture in which women (and men) live and work. National culture has a significant effect on leadership behavior according to gender socialisation and the expectations determined by that culture (Gibson, 1995). Therefore, because of the strong link between leadership and culture, culture issues are discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

CHAPTER THREE: CULTURE AND ITS ROLE IN LEADERSHIP STYLES AND GENDER

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In general, there is little research conducted on leadership across cultures, and this includes the Middle East Arab world (Elsaid and Elsaid, 2012). For the purpose of this study, culture is considered as the social-cultural factors of a country that affect those who live and work in it, including leaders and their followers. Arab women's conceptions of leadership have been ignored in business research today (Neal et al, 2005). Therefore, what concerns this study is extending the literature on leadership styles and gender in a geographic area which remains mostly unexamined, namely, that of the Middle East. There is, therefore, a need to expand our knowledge base on the role of women in management by exploring this in countries and cultures other than those reflecting a more Western perspective. Females face difficulties to get the higher managerial positions in the West, especially male-dominated positions or where a high percentage of workers are men (Eagly et al, 1995; Eagly, 2007). If it is the case in the West, how can one imagine the situation of women in the Middle Eastern Arab countries? In the Arab world, females have struggled for decades to prove themselves in work (Ameen, 2001; Mostafa, 2005; Yaseen, 2010). In 2007, 42.8% of active US females held some type of managerial positions while less than 10% of United Arab Emirati women and 11% of Egyptian women were in some type of managerial positions (International Labour Office, 2008). In Gulf countries, particularly in the UAE, Bahrain, and Kuwait, females strive to be involved in the movement of democracy and individual freedom as they try hard to overcome on the social restraints of women that traditionally exist (Khabash, 2003). However, women in Egypt and Jordan hold leadership positions dominated by men and they have since proven themselves (Abdurrahman, 2004). In Syria, the percentage of women involved in the economy is much less than that of men (9.2% for women and 45.2% for men according to 2004 figures). Women's activities in this field are centred in services' sector (56.3%) while they are lower in the sector of modern production (7.7% in industry). Further, the occupation of women in the high administrative

positions is still low. Since 1970, one of the Syrian government's agenda of development priorities was employment and advancement of women. These statistics show clear evidence that there is a wide variation in terms of opportunity for women to be managers and attitudes toward women managers all over the world (Simmons et al, 2012). In spite of the increasing participation of women in the workplace in the Middle Eastern countries, women still fail to get the same success as men (Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011). Not only is the position of females in management in the Middle Eastern Arab countries at an extreme disadvantage, the status of women in management has also been neglected in terms of research (Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011).

Although a large body of the literature on transformational and transactional styles of leadership is essentially those derived from studies carried out in the West cultures/countries which according to Hofstede (1980), score low on the power distance dimension, there are some recent studies on the transformational and transactional leadership styles in the Middle East Arab countries (e.g, Shahin and Wright, 2004; Yassen, 2010, Taleb, 2010; Al abduljader, 2012; Sikdar and Mitra, 2012; Bin Zahari and Shurbagi, 2012; Metwally, 2014). Although Syria has witnessed new changes in all aspects of life since 2000s, scholarly research on Syria and its people is difficult to find (Megheirkouni, 2014). More specifically research focused on leadership evaluation and gender in that country seems to be almost nonexistent, and there is no evidence of existing research on the influence of culture as measured by power distance orientation at the individual level of analysis on evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders. At the same time, a number of scholars have observed that there are few empirical studies that address the key themes and problems around women leadership in the developing countries, and the Middle East region in particular (Al-Lamki, 2007; Madsen, 2010; Omair, 2010; Tlaiss and Kauser, 2010; Yaseen, 2010). So, there is clearly a need to enrich and extend the literature on transformational and transactional leadership styles in this geographic area in the world. While, there is an extensive research on the difference between male and female leadership styles (Young, 2011), knowledge is scant when it comes to the interaction influence of culture at the individual level of analysis and gender on evaluation of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. This have brought into focus the importance and need to carry out research on

gender and leadership in the Middle East Arab countries to contribute to the scarce knowledge that exists on the gender and leadership research in the Middle East Arab context. Therefore, it is fundamental to discuss culture issues next.

3.2 CULTURE

On the issue of culture, increasing numbers of studies show that different styles of leadership and actions are perceived and valued differently depending on the cultural environment in/from which those asked are from, and are related to the variations in people's ideas about the ideal leader (Yokochi, 1989; Yamaguchi, 1999; Jung and Avolio, 1999; Jogulu and Wood, 2008). Leading researchers in the field of cross-cultural management and leadership have shown that culture has a direct influence on leadership (Hofstede, 1980, 1984, 2001; Erez and Earley, 1993; House et al, 1997, 1999; Javidan and House, 2001; Dastmalchian et al, 2001; House et al, 2004), where both the leader's behaviors and followers' responses inevitably reflect the styles of behavior which are regarded as suitable within their culture (Shahin and Wright, 2004).

Like leadership, 'culture' is complicated and not easy to define. The meaning of culture has been widely debated and it can be defined in many ways. For our purpose in the leadership field, Hofstede's definition is useful. Hofstede (1980) defined culture as the collective programming of the mind that differentiates between the individuals of one kind of people and those people of another category. More simply he defined culture by saying that even though the country could include various cultural groups, these people, on most occasions, have the same cultural qualities that make their persons recognizable to people that are from different countries as belonging to that society (Hofstede, 1980, 2001).

3.2.1 Hofstede's Approach to Culture

Hofstede's work is based on the results of an international survey conducted in the large multinational corporation IBM between 1967 and 1978. The study comprised 116000 questionnaires from which over 60000 people responded from 66 countries. The company's international employee attitude survey program focused on employees' values across nations (Hofstede, 2001). Hofstede measures culture in multiple dimensions through the IBM Attitude Survey (Hofstede, 1981) which was initially constructed as an employee satisfaction survey but during the analysis he found that the questionnaire had some national attributes that could be correlated to cultural values. These values reflect a given national culture, defined as "the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another" (Hofstede, 2001: 9). Hofstede used the eclectic approach relying on theoretical reasoning followed by statistical factor analysis to categorize the cultural dimensions (Magnusson et al, 2008). From his results, Hofstede (1980, 2001) has identified four dimensions that compose a national culture (*uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity, and power distance*), which became the basis of his characterisations of culture for each country (Hofstede, 1980; Dorfman and Howell, 1988: 129; Schneider and Barsoux, 1997: 79). A following study conducted by Hofstede and Bond (Hofstede and Bond, 1984; Hofstede and Bond, 1988; Hofstede, 1991b) introduced the fifth dimension which is called *Confucian Dynamism or long/short term orientation*, which was an attempt to fit the uncertainty avoidance dimension into the Asian culture. In 2010 he added a sixth and new dimension called indulgence versus restraint (Hofstede, 2011).

1-Uncertainty Avoidance Dimension

Uncertainty avoidance is related to the extent of stress in a society in face of unknown future (Hofstede, 2001). This dimension measures the extent to which people and organizations feel either comfortable or uncomfortable in unstructured situations (Deveshwar and Aneja, 2014). Uncertainty avoidance describes to which extent uncertain and ambiguous situations threaten a society, and the society tries to prevent these situations from happening by providing larger career stability, founding more formal rules, and being intolerant of deviant notions and behaviors (Hofstede, 1980). Each person perceives uncertainty but there are many different ways that

people use to deal with it, these ways are based on mechanisms and institutions such as technology, law and religion (Alves et al, 2006).

2-Individualism/Collectivism Dimension

Individualism versus collectivism is about the integration of people into groups (Hofstede, 2001). In some cultures individualism is viewed as important values, while others prefer collectivism. In an individualistic culture, individual rights are more important than social responsibilities, and people are expected to take care of themselves. The implications of collectivistic values depend in part on whether they are more important for in-groups or the larger society, but most of the cross-cultural research has emphasized in-group collectivism (Deveshwar and Aneja, 2014). Individualism is described as a preference for a loose structure of a society in which individuals are presumed to look after themselves and their immediate families only (Hofstede, 1980). He contrasts this with collectivism described as a preference for a tight structure of a society in which individuals recognize between in-groups and out-groups where in-group people look after each other (Hofstede, 1980)

3-Masculinity/Femininity Dimension

Masculinity versus femininity refers to the distribution of emotional roles between men and women (Hofstede, 2001). The distinction is not clearly defined by gender, but shifted on one side in relation to 'tough' masculine or 'tender' feminine societies (Deveshwar and Aneja, 2014). Masculinity is defined as to which extent the masculine values such as assertiveness, toughness, material and economic aspects of life are dominant in the society (Hofstede, 1980b). While femininity is defined in opposite way to masculinity, that is, to which degree the feminine values such as preference for friendly atmosphere, position security, physical conditions, and cooperation are dominant in the society (Hofstede, 2001). Hofstede (1980, 2001) argued that men in masculine cultures are assertive and tough and women are modest and tender. It seems that cultures vary in the degree to which they associate feminine and masculine stereotypic traits with women and men, respectively. This means that, in some societies, people are more able to describe women with feminine stereotypic characteristics and men with masculine stereotypic ones than in

other societies (Jonsen et al, 2010). More simply, men in masculine culture are supposed to concentrate on performance role, while women are supposed to concentrate on relationships roles (Alves et al, 2006). In feminine cultures, women have less resistance to access jobs, get promotions and balancing career (Hofstede, 2001).

4-Power Distance Dimension

Hofstede (1980, 2001) and Kirkman et al (2009) referred to power distance as the degree to which societies accept inequalities. With respect to the work context, Hofstede (2001) discussed power distance as the perceived difference (inequality) in the amount of power (influence) that a supervisor has compared to that of a subordinate. Importantly, the magnitude of this inequality is accepted (valued) by both the supervisor and the subordinate and is reinforced by their social and national environments (Hofstede, 2001). According to Hofstede and Hofstede (2005: 46), "Power distance can be defined as the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally". *Power distance* is a value that differentiates individuals, groups, organizations, and nations based on the degree to which inequalities are accepted either as unavoidable or as functional (Daniels and Greguras, 2014). The acceptance of inequalities in power shapes views about how individuals with differing levels of power should interact (Javidan and House, 2001). As stated by Hofstede (2001: 83-84), "Culture sets the level of power distance at which the tendency of the powerful to maintain or increase power distances and the tendency of the less powerful to reduce them will find their equilibrium". *Power distance* is a value directly relevant to organizational contexts given that power in organizations is necessarily distributed unequally (Farh et al, 2007). *Power distance* influences the levels of participative decision making, centralization, and formal hierarchy within organizations (Hofstede, 2001). In high *power distance* cultures, individuals with power are seen as superior, inaccessible, and paternalistic and are expected to lead autocratically (Hofstede, 1980). Individuals with power are perceived as superior and elite, those with less power accept their places in the hierarchy, trust their leaders, defer judgments to them (Kirkman et al, 2009), and are generally submissive, loyal,

and obedient to their leaders (Bochner and Hesketh, 1994). As such, cultures or individuals higher on *power distance* are more likely to value status, power, and prestige (Schwartz, 1999; Jaw et al, 2007). A culture with a low *power distance* dimension seems more egalitarian and favors participation in decision making. However, a culture with a high power distance dimension distinguishes people with respect to power, position, and people without (Matveev and Lvina, 2007).

5-Future Orientation (Long Term Orientation versus Short-Term Orientation)

As regards long-term versus short-term orientation, future orientation is related to choice of focus for individuals' efforts: the future or the present (Hofstede, 2001). It differentiates between two term orientations, if people's time concentration is long term or short term oriented (Alves et al, 2006). Hofstede (2001) proposes that people who work in organizations with long term orientation stress on the development of social relationships and market positions, match business and family matters together, and draw high standards of satisfaction from daily human relations. In contrast, people working in settings with a short term orientation concentrate on short term results, draw less levels of satisfaction from daily human relations, tend to view family and business as a separated issues.

6-Indulgence versus Restraint

This is the sixth and new dimension that focuses on aspects not covered by the other five dimensions. It is named in the literature as a happiness research (Hofstede, 2011). Indulgence "stands for a society that allows relatively free gratification of basic and natural human desires related to enjoying life and having fun" (Hofstede, 2011: 15). Restraint "stands for a society that controls gratification of needs and regulates it by means of strict social norms" (Hofstede, 2011: 15).

Hofstede's model has had a fundamental effect on practitioners and academics alike (Jones, 2007). However, some aspects of his work have been strongly criticised such as the definition of culture he proposed (McSweeney, 2002; Fang, 2006, 2012)

and his research methodology (McSweeney, 2002). Moreover, the foundation of *Confucian dynamism dimension*, also known as *short/long term orientation*, has also been criticized (Fang, 2003). Culture dimensions proposed by Hofstede (1980, 2001) are the most recognized and criticized in leadership research (Dickson et al, 2003). Therefore, arguments against Hofstede's work will be discussed next.

3.2.2 Critics of Hofstede's Model

The validity of Hofstede's dimensions has been questioned as data were collected from one company using a survey based questionnaire which, it is claimed, is lacking academic foundation (McSweeney, 2002). It is criticized in that using a survey is not an appropriate instrument for accurately determining and measuring cultural disparity (Jones, 2007). This is especially obvious when the variable being measured is a value which is culturally subjective and sensitive (Schwartz, 1999). Perhaps, the most popular criticism is cultural homogeneity. Hofstede's study supposes the domestic population is a homogenous whole (Jones, 2007). However "most nations are groups of ethnic units" (Nasif et al, 1991: 82; Redpath, 1997: 336). Some have criticized Hofstede's model for being non-comprehensive (Schwartz, 1994) and as based only on a single corporation (Schwartz, 1994; Smith et al, 1996), others say a study fixated on only one corporation cannot give information on the entire cultural system of a country (Graves, 1986; Olie, 1995). Another criticism comes from the attempt to accommodate the Asian culture by adding the fifth dimension, which is called long term, short term orientation. According to Hofstede and Bond (1988) the validity of uncertainty avoidance has been questioned in some Asian cultures which led to adding the fifth dimension. In addition, Hofstede (1981) acknowledged the lack of samples from communist countries. Another criticism is against the relevance of the data as it was collected between the years of 1969-1973 which makes it outdated (Hill, 1998, McSweeney, 2002).

Some have claimed that the study is too old to be of any modern value, especially, with today's rapidly changing global environments, internationalisation and convergence (Jones, 2007). Cultures do not stand still; they evolve over time albeit slowly, saying that what was a reasonable characterization in the 1960s and 1970s

may not be reasonable today (Hill, 1998). This view was supported by Smith et al (1996) as they believe the values sampled were not very broad which prevented the dimensions from being exhaustive. Donthu and Yoo (2002) criticized Hofstede's (1991) cultural indices for the four dimensions as they pooled 22 Arab countries together without being analyzed individually, assuming the societal differences among these countries are similar and have no differences. There is a big debate on whether Hofstede's (1981) assumption for clustering countries in one group is valid and to what extent if it is applicable in his national cultural difference. However, Hofstede (1981) did not study each country at a time. And, whilst there are different countries, within these countries there may perhaps be regions within them that are their own 'mini culture within a culture'. So, for example, whilst there are 22 Arabic countries if we look at the map, in reality there may be regions within them which have their own culture, irrespective of their national boundary. Hill (1998) criticized Hofstede's approach by saying: First, the research itself may have been culturally bound, because the research team was composed of Europeans and Americans. The analysis may well have been shaped by their own cultural biases and concerns. Second, Hofstede's informants worked not only within a single industry, but also within a single company. At the time IBM was renowned for its own strong corporate culture and employee selection procedures. It is possible that the values of IBM employees are different in important respects from the values that underlie the cultures from which those employees came. The most common criticisms of Hofstede's claims is doubts about the representativeness of the IBM population (for example: Banai, 1982; Triandis, 1982; Robinson, 1983; Korman, 1985; Lytle et al 1995 and Cray and Mollory, 1998). According to McSweeney (2002), Hofstede's model of national culture is profoundly problematic. McSweeney (2002) adds that Hofstede's claims are excessive and unbalanced; he explains that excessive because they claim far more in terms of identifiable characteristics and consequences than is justified; unbalanced because there is too big willing to prove his prior convictions rather than rate the adequacy of his results (McSweeney, 2002).

While the criticisms of Hofstede's work may be sound, "Hofstede's research is one of the most widely used pieces of research among scholars and practitioners; it has many appealing attributes" (Ross, 1999: 14; Furrer, 2000: 358). The national cultural framework of Hofstede is the most widely used in many fields such as psychology,

sociology, marketing, or management studies (Sondergaard, 1994, Steenkamp, 2001). Because until now it is the most comprehensive and robust in terms of the number of national culture samples (Smith et al, 2006). Hofstede's framework is an integratable cultural framework that can fit into studies in a simple, practical, and usable way for cultural studies (Soares et al, 2007). Hofstede's work has been considered as the most important national cultural framework that could provide the beginning point of the foundation that could help scientific theory building in cross-cultural research (Sekaran, 1983). Hofstede's model of national culture "is regarded as the most extensive examination of cross-national values in a managerial context" (Nakata and Sivakumar, 1996: 62). It is the most commonly used model in the business and management literature (Zhang et al, 2005). A greater argument exists which support Hofstede's work than exists which dispute his work (Jones, 2007). Hofstede's work is one of the most cited in the field of social sciences (Cardon, 2008) and outside academia (Piller, 2011).

3.3 CULTURE AND LEADERSHIP

3.3.1 Hofstede's Culture Dimensions and Leadership Behavior

As can be seen in section (3.2.1), there are six dimensions of culture, namely, *uncertainty avoidance*, *individualism/collectivism*, *masculinity/femininity*, *power distance*, *future orientation*, and *indulgence versus restraint* (Hofstede, 1980, 2001, 2011). But by reviewing the literature, we can see that only the first four dimensions of culture had a direct relation to leadership. So, the relationship between leadership behavior and the four original dimensions of culture (*uncertainty avoidance*, *individualism/collectivism*, *masculinity/femininity*, and *power distance*) as developed by Hofstede (1980, 2001) are provided in this section.

Uncertainty Avoidance: Generally, people in societies with high uncertainty avoidance are supposed to be more controlling, less delegating and less approachable than those with low uncertainty avoidance (Dickson et al, 2003). Regarding leadership, leaders in high uncertainty avoidance environment might

focus on traits such as planning and formal rules, while leaders in low uncertainty avoidance societies may favor innovation and flexibility (Alves et al, 2006). Certain leaders perform better in novel, unknown, surprising situations while others avoid uncertain and undefined roles in different cultural. When there is high uncertainty avoidance, valued qualities for managers include being reliable, orderly, and cautious, rather than flexible, innovative, and risk taking. Managers use more detailed planning, formal rules and standard procedures, and monitoring of activities, and there is less delegation (Deveshwar and Aneja, 2014).

Individualism/Collectivism: Leaders prefer individual or collective characteristics based on cultures (Dickson et al, 2003). In collective cultures people tend to define themselves with leaders' targets, share the vision of the setting who work in, and demonstrate higher levels of loyalty, while in individualistic cultures, people tend to be self-motivated and satisfy their own interests (Alves et al, 2006). In management and leadership dynamics, individualists are expected to stress individual action and self-interest, while collectivists behave and see themselves more as group members (Singelis et al, 1995).

Masculinity/Femininity: In his work, Hofstede (1991) revealed that across cultures, effective managerial work needed parts of both assertiveness and nurturance and thus ranking of managerial jobs was in the midrange of jobs in terms of masculinity (Hofstede, 1991). With respect to leadership, Hofstede (2001) also states that feminist cultures will have 'feminist heroes' and masculine cultures will have 'masculine heroes'. Particularly, in feminine cultures, the ideal leader is intuitive and searches for consensus and cooperation, while in masculine cultures, the ideal leader is expected to be assertive, decisive, and aggressive (Hofstede, 2001). In cultures with high gender egalitarianism, sex roles are not clearly differentiated, and jobs are not segregated by gender. Women have more equal opportunity to be selected for important leadership positions, although access is still greater for public sector positions than in business corporations, Masculine cultures value leaders that challenge the system and encourage competition while feminine cultures value leaders that cooperate and invest in relationships within teams and organization (Deveshwar and Aneja, 2014).

Power Distance: Hofstede (2001) observed that the popular leadership literature often forgets that leadership can exist only as a compliment to subordinateship. This means that *power distance* is an important element in leadership process and it is manifested in the relationship between leader and followers. The notion of Hofstede (1980) about power distance is obviously related with studying leadership because expectations of and relationships to authority are directly associated with *power distance* (Offermann and Hellmann, 1997). In a society with a low *power distance* culture, the relationships between superiors and followers are theoretically close and not so much official in nature. While, in a high *power distance* culture these relations are supposed to be unfriendly, hierarchically ordered, and kept (Offermann and Hellmann, 1997). After reviewing leadership research that is based on Hofstede's work, Dickson et al (2003) noticed that in hierarchical societies followers are much more hesitant to challenge their leaders, and leaders are supposed to elicit patterns of authoritative behavior. In high power distance cultures, people expect leaders to have more authority and they are more likely to comply with rules and directive without questioning or challenging them. Subordinates are less willing to challenge the bosses or express disagreement with them. Participative leadership as a more favorable leadership attribute in low power distance cultures. Not all cultures appreciate participative styles of leadership. Many cultures prefer the leader takes full responsibility; there are other cultures that expect participation (Deveshwar and Aneja, 2014).

Schaubroeck et al (2007) argue that, with greater *power distance*, leaders have more influence on followers because followers defer to the leader, have greater respect for leaders, develop more formalized relationships, and internalize leader expectations to a greater extent. Alternatively, others propose that due to the bureaucratic, distant nature of leader-follower relations in high *power distance* cultures, leadership styles that deviate from these types of relations are likely to have weaker effects on employees than observed in lower power distance cultures (Javidan et al, 2006).

Although research provides evidence that all the four original dimensions of culture developed by Hofstede (1980, 2001) are relevant to leadership, Hofstede (1980, 2001) and colleagues propose that *power distance* strongly influences leadership styles (Hofstede, 1980). Kirkman et al (2009) state that *power distance orientation*

compared with the other cultural values has a more theoretically direct relationship to leadership than the other cultural values, namely, *individualism/collectivism*, *uncertainty avoidance*, and *femininity/masculinity* as classified by Hofstede (1980). Kirkman et al (2009) have suggested that *power distance* is the most important determinant of leadership styles. So, the focus of this study related to culture would be on *power distance* dimension. *Power distance* research and leadership would be discussed in more detail next.

3.3.2 Power Distance Research and Leadership

To understand the type of the relationship between *power distance* dimension and leadership, it is important from the beginning to define what is meant by *high power distance* individuals versus *low power distance* individuals. As mentioned earlier, *power-distance* refers to cultural conceptions regarding the degree of power which authorities should have over followers (Hofstede, 1980). People who believe that superiors should have a great degree of power over followers are considered to be high on the *power-distance orientation* and people who believe that a smaller degree of power is appropriate are considered low on this orientation. *Power distance* is one of the four dimensions as Hofstede (1980, 2001) identified for categorizing cultures. Based on a large-scale empirical study spanning over 40 countries, Hofstede (1980) suggested that there are cultural differences in the level of power inequality that people find appropriate for subordinate-authority relations. For example, individuals who are high on *power distance* believe that authority figures should be respected and shown deference (Yang et al, 2007), whereas individuals lower on *power distance* do not perceive many distinctions based on social strata, power, or hierarchical position (Javidan and House, 2001). As with his other dimensions such as *individualism-collectivism*, Hofstede's (1980) *power-distance* dimension is often used as an individual difference variable.

Power distance affects how leaders and followers typically interact (Daniels and Greguras, 2014). For example, Tyler et al (2000) observed that those with a *lower power distance orientation* value quality treatment from their leaders more than those with a *higher power distance orientation* (who value the favorability of their

outcomes). Similarly, *higher power distance* employees prefer directive leaders and do not enjoy the same levels of favorable outcomes (e.g, job satisfaction) as those *lower on power distance* when their leaders break from simple, hierarchical leadership styles to which people high on *power distance* are accustomed. For example, when leaders delegate more responsibility and autonomy to subordinates, this has a significant positive impact on organization-based self-esteem and perceived insider status for those low on traditionality (a value conceptually similar to *power distance*), however this effect is attenuated for employees in cultures higher on traditionality (Chen and Aryee, 2007). As another example, those *higher on power distance* are less likely to exercise autonomous self-leadership, indicating that they likely prefer to have clear roles dictated to them (Alves et al, 2006).

One important leadership style that has received a lot of attention in the literature is transformational leadership (Bass, 1985). Transformational leaders individually consider, charismatically influence, inspirationally motivate, and intellectually stimulate their followers (Bass and Avolio, 2004). This prototype of a transformational leader, however, likely is in contrast to typical leadership styles in *high power distance* societies. Those who value *power distance* typically expect leaders to adhere to a centralized structure, rely on formal rules, and consult subordinates less frequently than those in *low power distance* societies (Smith et al, 2002). Given this, Kirkman et al (2009) argue that the *intellectual stimulation* component challenges followers to rethink how they work, which can cause ambiguity or suspicion in *high power distance* followers because they prefer to be directed and not to challenge the status quo. Indeed, their findings indicate that there is a weaker positive relation between transformational leadership and procedural justice perceptions for *higher power distance* followers. The reduced effectiveness of transformational leadership for those *high on power distance* was also found by Spreitzer et al (2005). In particular, the more task-oriented dimensions of transformational leadership (e.g, articulates vision or intellectually stimulates) were not as strongly related to effectiveness in low compared to high *power distance* contexts. This could be because those high on *power distance* expect more task-oriented leaders and thus are not as impressed when they behave as such. There also is evidence that *power distance* exacerbates some of the effects of transformational leadership. Transformational leaders have a stronger effect on team

potency, or generalized beliefs about the effectiveness of a team across contexts, when *power distance* is high (Schaubroeck et al, 2007).

Transformational leadership has a stronger effect for those with high *power distance* values (Daniels and Greguras, 2014). Indeed, employees are more likely to mimic the transformational leadership behaviors of one's supervisor in *high power distance* cultures versus *low power distance* cultures (Yang et al, 2010). Similarly, Earley (1999) also found that, at the group level, deliberating while making collective efficacy and performance judgments in *high power distance* cultures leads the group to more closely mimic the individual judgments of high status members. In *low power distance* cultures, however, it seems that all members contribute equally to such collective judgments. Interestingly, this mimicry does not seem to work for more personal, internal attitudes. For example, organizational commitment of the supervisor is less positively related to the organizational commitment of the follower when follower *power distance* is higher (Loi et al, 2012). Thus, it appears that in *high power distance* cultures, followers are more willing to model their supervisor's behavior; however, they either (a) are not privy to such internal attitudes of those with higher status or (b) are less willing to internalize higher status individuals' attitudes. "Value dimensions are used widely to make distinctions between countries and also serve to explain behavior of individuals within countries" (Fischer and Poortinga, 2012: 157). At the individual level, value orientations of individuals are typically measured and then related to some attitudes or behavior (Fischer and Poortinga, 2012). Therefore, the levels of analysis are discussed next.

3.3.3 Levels of Analysis

There are several common mistakes that research often makes with respect to levels of analysis issues in cultural research (Daniels and Greguras, 2014). One common conceptual problem in cross-cultural research is that of committing the ecological fallacy, or incorrectly interpreting relations found at the group level and applying them to the individual level (Robinson, 1950). Similarly, it would be fallacious to apply individual-level results to the group level, a problem that Hofstede (2001) calls the reverse ecological fallacy. In either case, the implication is that the same

construct might mean different things at different levels, and thus the relations between constructs at each level may differ (Daniels and Greguras, 2014). For example, Spector et al (2001) found no relation between *collectivism* and job satisfaction at the country level. One would be committing the ecological fallacy to assume that there is no relation between these variables at the *individual* level. In fact, Kirkman and Shapiro (2001) found a positive relation between *collectivism* and job satisfaction at the *individual* level. This discrepancy may exist because *collectivism*, job satisfaction, and the relation between the two operate differently at these two levels. Research has supported use of the construct of *collectivism* at the *individual* level of analysis (Jackson et al, 2006). Thus, it is important to consider the level of analysis when making theoretical predictions and interpreting results.

Another level of analysis issue to consider associated with cross-cultural research is the assumption that for culture to be a shared group phenomenon there should be little variability in ratings within a society. Based on this assumption, some studies draw from Hofstede's (1980) database to assign cultural values to individuals based on their nationalities. However, in reality, not all members of a particular country endorse the same values to the same degree. This raises two important issues. First, the assignment of values based on nationalities may not appropriately represent any given individual or group. Second, assigning members of a society the same value score ignores important within-country variance that might be substantively important in explaining phenomena (Daniels and Greguras, 2014).

Another shortcut often used by culture researchers is to use country as a proxy for cultural values and then make comparisons between two or more countries. Countries differ, however, on variables other than cultural values such as language, economic development, systems of government, and climate. It is impossible in these cases to disentangle the effects of other factors. Thus, researchers are encouraged to directly model the country-level value scores in their analyses and use a large sample size of countries to mitigate these other effects (Tsui et al, 2007; Fischer, 2009). Fischer (2009) recommends using these country-level scores in multilevel models only if data are available from at least 10 countries. If this is not the case (which it is not for a large majority of cross-cultural research), he argues that researchers should "unpack" culture further to the *individual* level to isolate the

effects of cultural values. For more comprehensive treatments of levels of analysis issues related to culture research (Schaffer and Riordan, 2003; Kirkman et al, 2006; Peterson and Castro, 2006; Gelfand et al, 2007; Fischer, 2009; Erez, 2011). Level of analysis of the *power distance* dimension, the scope of this study, is discussed next.

3.3.4 Power Distance: Levels of Analysis

Power distance varies at the individual, group, organizational, and societal levels. As such, levels of analysis issues must be considered regarding at what level, and how, to conceptualize and measure *power distance* (Daniels and Greguras, 2014). Furthermore, while it is important to examine cultural elements on a macro level as Hofstede did, it is also important to consider individual perception of the cultural dimension (for example *power distance*). *Power distance* rankings are based on average national scores. Even though the nation may rank *high in power distance*, there are individuals with this country who have relatively high or low perception of *power distance*. Likewise; there are individuals who have relatively high or low perception of *power distance* within a country characterized by low power distance (Simmon et al, 2012). *Power distance* is a cultural value, which is especially important in organizational research because power is fundamental to all relationships, is inherent in hierarchical organizations, and affects many organizational processes and outcomes (Keltner et al, 2003). After *individualism/collectivism*, *power distance* is the most frequently studied cultural value in organizational research (Erez, 2011). Although *power distance* is sometimes treated as a homogeneous national value, it varies at the individual, group, organizational, and societal levels and relates to various criteria across these different levels (for a recent meta-analysis, see Taras et al, 2010). This focus on *power distance* at the *individual* level is consistent with other reviews of cultural values in general (84% of studies that investigate cultural values are at the *individual* level of analysis, 5% at the group level, 8% at the national level, and 4% at the cross level (Tsui et al, 2007) and regarding *power distance* specifically (76% of data points were at the *individual* level of analysis, 2% at the group level, and 22% at the national level (Taras et al, 2010). Cultural value orientations, or “individually held cultural values and beliefs” (Kirkman et al, 2009: 744), have been posited to

substantially influence what individuals expect from leaders, as well as how they perceive and react to different leader behaviors (Ensari and Murphy, 2003; Gelfand et al, 2007; Tsui, 2007; Tsui et al, 2007). Therefore, for the purpose of this study, we apply *power distance* at the *individual* level of analysis to test *how power distance orientation* influence followers in perceiving transformational and transactional leaders.

3.3.5 Power Distance Research at the Individual Level of Analysis

Research has begun to examine the intersection of leadership behaviors and employee cultural value orientations (Lian et al, 2012). In particular, *power distance*, or the degree to which individuals accept and believe that organizational, institutional, or societal power should be distributed unequally (Hofstede, 1980; Carl et al, 2004), has been emphasized to be especially relevant to leadership research, given its implications for how leaders are perceived (Kirkman et al, 2009). Extant research has highlighted the role of *power distance* in moderating reactions to leadership behaviors such as giving employees voice (Brockner et al, 2001) and transformational leadership (Kirkman et al, 2009; Yang et al, 2010). Therefore, it is argued in this study that followers' *power distance orientation* will influence evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders.

As it is discussed earlier, at a social level, *power distance* is defined as the extent to which the people accept that power is distributed unequally in society (Hofstede, 1980). At the *individual* level, *power distance* is defined as the extent to which an individual accepts the unequal distribution of power in institutions and organizations (Clugston et al, 2000). Many researchers studied Hofstede's *power distance* dimension at the *individual* level of analysis. One study conducted by Liu and Liao (2013) explored the mechanism of the effects of transformational leadership on employees' speaking up (voice), especially probing the moderating effects of *power distance*. They measured *power distance* at the *individual* level with 6-item scales taken from the instrument developed by Clugston et al (2000).

Lee et al (2000) used a sample of Hong Kong employees to test the hypotheses that *power-distance* at the *individual* level and gender moderate the relationships between justice perceptions and the evaluation of authorities (trust in supervisor) and the organization (contract fulfillment). This study measured *power distance orientation* using an adaptation of Hofstede's international work survey (Hofstede, 1980). A more recent study conducted by Kirkman et al (2009) studied *power distance* dimension at the *individual* level of analysis. Using 560 followers and 174 leaders in the People's Republic of China and United States, they found that individual follower's *power distance orientation* and their group's shared perceptions of transformational leadership were positively related to follower's procedural justice perceptions. *Power distance orientation* also moderated the cross-level relationship that transformational leadership had with procedural justice; the relationship was more positive when *power distance orientation* was lower, rather than higher. Procedural justice, in turn, linked the unique and interactive relationships of transformational leadership and *power distance orientation* with followers' organizational citizenship behavior. Country differences did not significantly affect these relationships. The study measured *power distance orientation* using an eight individual item Earley and Erez (1997).

The concept of using cultural value dimensions at the *individual* level of analysis was first applied by Dorfman and Howell (1988). Moreover, it is proven that differences in cultural values at the *individual* level can be greater than country-level cultural differences (Au, 1999; Hofstede, 2001). This concept proposes that cultural values differences in terms of *individual* level can make sense in influencing leadership processes, probably to a larger degree than at the country level of analysis (Kirkman et al, 2009). Individual's values state specifically about how an individual is affected and effects include how leadership styles might be seen and rated (Walumbwa et al, 2007). Cultural influences may affect the way females and males behave in their job, particularly when roles of power and authority are clear, and the way in which that behavior would be valued by others (Jogulu and Wood, 2008). According to Walumbwa et al (2007), individual tendencies to behave in a particular way such as individual's values are believed to be a sign for individuals' favorings for particular things such as leadership behaviors. They claim that it sounds likely that those individual differences could affect how individual rates the transformational and

transactional leadership styles. In addition, attention has focused on the degree to which notions of transformational and transactional leadership styles generalize from one culture to another (Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2005).

In short, the four original cultural value dimensions as developed by Hofstede (1980, 2001) not only vary among nations (Dwyer et al, 2005), but they differ between the individuals in the same culture (Clugston et al, 2000). For instance, while most people in a particular country are considered to be high on *individualism*, in contrast, other people with considered to be high on *collectivism* will likely exist (Wasti, 2003). Even though Hofstede (1980) stated that research of cultural values has only meaning at the societal level, others have discovered that every dimension of Hofstede's value dimensions has a huge difference over individuals in societies and those individual differences influence directly on many outcomes (Clugston et al, 2000; Kirkman and Shapiro, 2001). Kirkman et al (2006) demonstrated that through reviewing empirical research in the past quarter century which included Hofstede's cultural values, there was more research that tested these cultural values at the *individual* level than research testing those values at the *societal* level.

Therefore, the influence of culture dimensions at the social and individual level of analysis on transformational and transactional leadership behaviors is discussed next.

3.4 TRANSFORMATIONAL AND TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND CULTURE

3.4.1 Transformational and Transactional Leadership and Culture at the Social Level

A systematic review of the literature (see Table 3.1) shows studies which were interested with testing the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership styles and culture at the social level of analysis.

Table 3.1: Transformational and transactional leadership and social culture

Journal title	Authors	Culture	Research setting	Sample	Method
The journal of leadership studies	Jung et al (1995)	-----	-----	-----	Conceptual article
Journal of cross-cultural psychology	Offermann and Hellmann (1997)	United States	Multinational organizations	Midlevel managers	Quantitative methods
Leadership Quarterly	Dorfman et al (1997)	Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, Mexico, and USA	Large manufacturing organizations	Managers and professionals	Quantitative methods
Human Resource Development Quarterly	Kuchinke (1999)	USA and Germany	Manufacturing sites	Managers, engineers, and production employees	Quantitative methods
Leadership Quarterly	Den Hartog et al, (1999)	62 cultures Africa, Asia, Europe (central, Eastern and Northern), Latin America, North	Financial industry, food industry, and telecommunication industry	Middle managers	Quantitative methods

		America, Middle east (Qatar, Turkey, Egypt, and Kuwait), and the Pacific Rim			
Academy of Management Journal	Jung and Avolio (1999)	USA	Large public university	students	Quantitative method
Human Resource Development Quarterly	Ardichivili (2001)	Russia, Georgia, Kazakhstan, and Kyrgystan	Manufacturing Enterprises	Managers and employees	Quantitative method
Human Resource Development International	Ardichvili and Kuchinke (2002)	Russia, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Germany, and the USA	Ten business organizations (manufacturing sector of industry)	Middle-level Managers and non-managerial employees	Quantitative method
International Journal of Intercultural	Ergeneli, Gohar, and Temirbekova (2007)	Turkey, Pakistan, and Kazakhstan	University	Business students	Quantitative method

Relations					
Leadership and Organizational Development Journal	Jogulu (2010)	Malaysia and Australia	Manufacturing, transport, postal and warehousing, finance and insurance services, and information media and telecommunications	Middle managers	Quantitative method
Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies	Leong and Fischer (2011)	Australia, Canada, China, France, Germany, Greece, India, Italy, Kenya, Korea South, Netherlands, New Zealand, Singapore, Spain, Taiwan, UK, and USA	----- -----	----- -----	Meta-analysis using means reported in articles published between 1985 and 2006

Source: Developed for the study

Certain behaviors have positive influences and these may vary depending on the culture in question. There is evidence that supportive, contingent reward, charismatic leader behaviors have universally positive influences in five different cultures (Japan, South Korea, United States, Mexico, and Taiwan) and that directive, contingent punishment and participative leader behaviors have a positive influence in only two cultures, namely, Mexico and Taiwan (Dorfman et al, 1997). Examining the influence of cultural value dimensions on transformational and transactional leadership styles in post-communist countries, Ardichvili's study (2001) shows a weak relationship between leadership and national culture dimensions.

Jogulu (2010) sought to find out whether transformational and transactional leadership styles are culturally-linked and/or culturally-biased, and carried out the study in Malaysia and Australia. The results showed that transactional leadership was strongly aligned with the ratings of managers from Malaysia, and transformational leadership scales correlated with the Australian respondents' mean ratings. This finding supports other research that proposes a direct impact of culture on leadership styles (Smith and Peterson, 1988; Ardichvili and Kuchinke, 2002; Javidan and Carl, 2005; Hanges et al, 2006; Cheung and Chan, 2008; Russette et al, 2008; Jepson, 2009; Ayman and Korabi, 2010).

Ardichvili and Kuchinke (2002) used the full range leadership framework developed by Bass and Avolio (1994) and Hofstede's (2001) model of culture, and the results of their study on leadership indicate that two dimensions (*contingent reward* and *inspirational motivation*) produced the highest scores in all the four countries of the former Soviet Union. *Laissez-faire leadership* and *management by exception* received significantly higher scores in Russia, Georgia, Kazakhstan, and Kyrgyzstan than they did in the USA and Germany. Other studies show results for specific cultural values. Effective leadership style in collectivist cultures is generally more autocratic and transactional than participative and transformational (Offermann and Hellmann, 1997). However, Jung and Avolio (1999) showed that collectivists working

with a transformational leader are going to create more ideas than do individualist workers.

A conceptual article by Jung et al (1995) addressed the relationship between *individualism* and transformational leadership, and suggested that transformational leaders' *idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation* and *individualized consideration* processes are likely to be enhanced in collectivistic cultures that are low on *individualism* because most followers in these cultures have a high level of respect and are obedient toward their leaders. Jung (1995) and his colleagues speculated that transformational leadership is more effective in collectivist countries than in individualist ones (Jung et al, 1995). Kuchinke's (1999) results showed that masculinity emerged as the stronger predictor of charisma, followed by *long-term orientation and individualism*. Den Hartog et al (1999) demonstrate that several attributes reflecting charismatic/transformational leadership are universally endorsed as contributing to outstanding leadership. These include encouraging, motive, trustworthy, arouser, foresight, communicative, dynamic, positive, confidence builder, and motivational. Several other charismatic attributes are perceived as culturally contingent. These include enthusiastic, risk taking, ambitious, unique, sincere, sensitive, compassionate, and self-sacrificial.

A study conducted by Ergeneli et al (2007) to examine the relationship between overall transformational leadership as identified by Kouzes and Posner (2005) and taking into account Hofstede's culture value dimensions, examined the responses of Pakistani, Kazakh, and Turkish business students. The results showed that *uncertainty avoidance* is related to transformational leadership style. In the same study, there was no relationship between *individualism* and transformational leadership. More recently, a study conducted by Leong and Fischer (2011) which used culture's dimensions developed by Schwartz (1994, 2004) and Hofstede (1980, 2001) to predict that higher cultural mastery (the extent to which individuals seek to master and dominate the social and natural world) and higher egalitarianism (whereas in egalitarian settings, individuals are socialized to take care of others and feel a strong commitment to the well-being of other human beings) would be associated with greater transformational leadership. They found out that transformational leadership means were consistently correlated with hierarchical (in

hierarchical contexts, individuals accept and expect an unequal distribution of power and resources) versus egalitarian dimensions of culture, showing that leaders in more egalitarian contexts are seen as engaging more in transformational leadership behavior.

3.4.2 Transformational and Transactional Leadership and Culture at the Individual Level

Recent studies are concerned with examining cultural values at the individual level of analysis and transformational and transactional leadership behaviors (see Table 3.2).

Table 3.2: Transformational and transactional leadership and individual culture values

Journal Title	Authors	Culture	Research Setting	Sample	Method
AIB-SE (USA) Annual Meeting, Clearwater, FL	Dastoor et al (2003)	Thailand	Higher educational institutions	Faculty members	Quantitative method
Journal of Organizational Behavior	Spreitzer et al (2005)	Asia and North America	Global IT company+ global automobile company	leaders	Quantitative method
Organization Development Journal	Mancheno-Smoak, Endres, Polak, and Athanasaw (2009)	USA	Fortune companies	Human resources executive s/managers	Quantitative method

<p>Academy of Management Journal</p>	<p>Kirkman,G. Chen, Farh, Z. Chen and Lowe (2009)</p>	<p>China and United States</p>	<p>Midsize university</p>	<p>Part time MBA Students and employees reporting directly to them</p>	<p>Quantitative method</p>
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Source: Developed for the study

For example, Dastoor et al (2003) tested the relationship of transformational leadership dimensions and cultural values (*uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, paternalism, power distance and sex roles/masculinity*) which were measured with Dorfman and Howell's (1988) scales designed to use at the *individual* level of analysis to the leader-related organizational outcomes of employees extra effort, perceptions of leader effectiveness and satisfaction with leadership among professors in colleges and universities in Thailand. The results support Bass's (1998) claim of universal applicability for his model. Spreitzer et al (2005) tested if the individual value of traditionality (emphasizing respect for hierarchy in relationship) moderates the relationship between dimensions of transformational leadership and leadership effectiveness. The study was conducted in Asia and North America. The results supported the moderating impact of traditional values on the relationship between appropriate role model, intellectual stimulation, high performance expectation, and articulating a vision dimension of transformational leadership on leadership effectiveness. More recently, Mancheno-Smoak et al (2009) investigated from the individual self-assessed perspective about how work-related cultural values and level of job satisfaction affects a person's propensity toward transformational leadership behavior, with results from this study supporting cultural values at the *individual* level and job satisfaction factors as indicators of a leader's propensity towards exhibiting transformational behavior. Kirkman et al (2009) used followers and leaders from the People's Republic of China and United States. They did find that, within and across countries, *power distance orientation* at the *individual* level of

analysis moderated reactions to transformational leaders (Kirkman et al, 2009). Given that the number of women who hold management and senior leadership positions in organizations has significantly increased (Kanter, 1997; Eagly and Carli, 2003; Davidson and Burke, 2004; Jogulu and Wood, 2006, 2008), the joint effect of culture and gender on evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders is discussed next.

3.4.3 The Influence of Culture and Gender on Evaluation of Transformational and Transactional Leaders

First, it is fundamental to point out to the link between Hofstede’s culture dimensions and gender before reviewing research on the influence of culture and gender on evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders. Although Hofstede (1980, 2001) concluded that cultural dimensions do generally not differ by gender, he argued that “the word culture can also be applied to the genders. Part of our mental programming depends on whether we were born as girls or boys. Like nationality, gender is an involuntary characteristic. Because of this, the effects of both nationality and gender on our mental programming are largely unconscious” (Hofstede, 2001: 286). He found that, on average, men have been programmed with tougher values and women with more tender values, but that the gap between genders varies by country (Hofstede, 2001).

The literature cited earlier has addressed the relationship between culture at the social level, and the individual level of analysis and transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. As discussed earlier, leadership is gendered in nature. It is, therefore, somewhat surprising that, to the best of our knowledge, there are only two studies that address the influence of culture on transformational and transactional leadership styles taking into account the gender factor (see Table 3.3).

Table 3.3: Culture, gender, and transformational and transactional leadership

Journal title	Authors	Culture	Research setting	Sample	Method

Leadership and Organization Development Journal	Jogulu and Wood (2008)	Malaysia and Australia	Large organizations in four industries types (manufacturing, transport, postal and warehousing, information media and telecommunication and financial and insurance services)	Middle managers	Quantitative method
Equal Opportunities International	Rohmma and Rowold (2009)	Germany	Recreational sport clubs for traditional karate, large government agency, large public transport service company, and psychology students	Students, leaders, employee, and student respectively	Quantitative method

Source: Developed for the study

Of these, Jogulu and Wood (2008) were interested in exploring whether results related to evaluation of women leaders gleaned from studies carried out in a Western context mirror the experiences of female managers in non-Western cultures. They set out to test if the cultures of Malaysia and Australia strongly influenced attitudes and perceptions of effective leadership. Jogulu and Wood's (2008) research suggests that values and attitudes are strongly culture specific and, therefore, can have an influence on evaluation at the level of the *individual*. Another study, conducted by Rohmman and Rowold (2009), used four samples from Germany aiming to validate the results about gender differences in transformational

leadership styles obtained in the USA (specifically, that female leaders would score higher in transformational leadership than male leaders). Findings in all four samples revealed that female leaders were considered to exhibit a style of leadership described as being transformational in contrast to male leaders, supporting findings from the USA context.

3.5. HOFSTEDE'S APPROACH TO CULTURE AND ARABIAN CULTURE

Many researchers have investigated Arab culture and its significance (Obeidat et al, 2012). As mentioned earlier, Hofstede (1991) studied the national culture of seven Arab countries. He referred to them as the 'Arab Group'. Hofstede characterised Arab countries as having a large *power distance*, relatively strong *uncertainty avoidance*, high *collectivism*, and a moderate *Masculinity/Femininity*. Weir (1993) emphasized the unique characteristics of the Arab culture and identified it as a fourth paradigm that represents the management practice in Arab countries besides the three most well known paradigms (American, European, and Japanese cultural paradigms). He commented that the components of this paradigm are rooted in the Islamic, social, and political life of Arab countries. However, one of the major problems in researching Arab culture is the question of whether to deal with all Arab countries as one unit or separately. Lamb (1987) said that it is impossible to generalise most cultural values across all Arab countries. Many other researchers supported Lamb and commented that each Arab country is different from the others and even stated that cultural differences can be found within the same country. Sidani and Gardner (2000) and Ali and Wahabi (1995) for instance, questioned how 'Arab' Lebanon and Morocco are. Nevertheless, many researchers investigating Arab culture disagreed with them and treated Arab countries as one unit. Wilson (1996) for example said that beliefs and attitudes shared by many Arabs seem to cross national and social classes. Moreover, Dedoussis (2004) commented that some generalizations are to be expected when referring to 'Arab Culture' since the Arab countries comprise a large geographical region from the Atlantic Edge of Africa through the northern part of the continent to the Arabian Gulf and from Sudan to the

Middle East. As a result, all Arab countries have been treated as one entity identified as 'Arab culture'

Arab countries in Hofstede's model scored low in the *uncertainty avoidance* dimension compared to other countries like Greece (Obeidat et al, 2012). This was recognised by Parnell and Hatem (1999) who emphasised the effect of religion on the *uncertainty avoidance* dimension and considered it a crucial factor which affected Hofstede's results. For Muslims, God controls all kinds of resources (Cavusgil et al, 2008) and the Islamic value system requires a commitment to God and a belief that God is ubiquitous even in material work. Muslims believe that time is, to a certain extent, controlled by God and nothing happens until God wills for it to happen (Herbig and Dunphy, 1998). The *uncertainty avoidance* dimension is considered to be the only dimension in which religion plays an important role.

In Hofstede's classification, Arab countries scored 38 out of a possible score of 100. They were rated to have a more collective than individualistic culture. It is worth pointing out that there is a negative relationship between this dimension and the *power distance* dimension (Obeidat et al, 2012). Countries with large *power distance*, such as Arab countries, tend to be more collectivist. In such countries, people are more dependent on groups as well as on power figures than on individuals (Hofstede, 1994). Employees within Arab culture organizations are expected to be collectivists in their behavior. These employees will belong to certain groups within these organizations, and through the impact of the power distance dimension which was discussed previously; their loyalty will be more to their managers than to the organizational goals (Obeidat et al, 2012).

Arab countries are one example in Hofstede's extended study of cultures which are considered to have both moderate masculine and feminine characteristics. In his model, they scored 53 out of a maximum score of 100 and were ranked 23 amongst the 50 countries and three regions included in this study (Obeidat et al, 2012). According to Bjerke and al-Meer (1993), Arabs are considered to be close to the feminine side of the masculine-feminine continuum in that they care about establishing a friendly relationship with other people. Those in a feminine culture

'work to live', whereas in a masculine society, the belief is that a person 'lives to work' (Hofstede, 2001).

Hofstede (2001) noted that there is a positive relationship between power distance and paternalism. In the *power distance* dimension, decisions are made on the basis of favors to subordinates and loyalty to superiors, not on the basis of merit. Nations with a large *power distance*, where inequality is accepted, emphasize on a dependency relationship between managers and subordinates. Such nations include the Arab countries which scored 80 out of 104 score; these were ranked the seventh amongst the 50 countries included in the study (Obeidat et al, 2012). This result can be justified by the inherited culture of the Ottoman Turks who ruled the Arab countries for 400 years (Al-Rasheed, 1997). Countries that value high *power distance* are Arab countries, Malaysia, and Panama (Hofstede, 1980b). It may be stated that discussing such dimension in developing countries, such as Arab world suggests that *power distance* is related to the norms of acceptable work-related behaviors because Arab world consider women as less than compared to their counterparts males (Megheirkouni, 2014). *Power distance* dimension has been found to impact evaluations of women and, particularly in a business setting (Garcia et al, 2009; Xiumei and Jinyinhg, 2011). Caligiuri and Tung's (1999) results support the notion that attitudes, especially attitudes about power, influence perceptions of women. For example, a country with a low power distance dimension such as the USA would differ from Arab countries, historically ranked as a high power index in terms of their attitudes toward women as leaders (Hofstede, 2009).

Arab countries were not classified in *future orientation (long term orientation versus short-term orientation)* dimension. However, taking into consideration that long-term planning cultures encourage planning; a strategy which Arab cultures use to reduce uncertainty and the similarity of Arab culture to the Chinese one, Arab culture could be classified as having a long-term orientation (Obeidat et al, 2012).

To sum up, in terms of some of the other dimensions measured by Hofstede (1980), the Arab countries fall half way between the extreme positions. Thus, on '*individualism/collectivism*' the Arab countries are midway between the highly westernised countries which rate strongly on *individualism*, and the Latin American

societies who rank at the other extreme. In terms of '*masculinity and femininity*', the Arab countries rate as moderately masculine, whereas Japan and some of the Latin countries rate very highly on *masculinity*. The strong emphasis in Arab culture on masculine role attributes is mediated by the requirement to have good working relationships with one's direct superior, to work with people who cooperate well with one another, to live in an area appropriate to one's self image, and to have employment security so that one will be able to work in the interests of one's family, for one's enterprise, as long as one wishes. These are seen by Hofstede as feminine and 'high relationship' attributes. The Arab countries also rank in the middle on 'uncertainty avoidance.' They do not typically feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations but neither do they wish to be assimilated towards them. Arab countries rank strongly in their emphasis on the importance of strong kinship and interpersonal networks (Weir, 2001).

3.6 LEADERSHIP, GENDER AND WOMEN IN THE MIDDLE EAST ARAB COUNTRIES

Before addressing management, leadership, gender, and women issues in the Middle East Arab countries, it is necessary to define the Arab World as including Syria, Lebanon, Iraq, Egypt, Jordan, Palestine, Saudi Arabia, Libya, and the Gulf Cooperation Council states of Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, United Arab Emirates, and Yemen. The Arab World remains of significance to the Western world and international managers not only for its economic interests but also because it comprises a large proportion of the world's Islamic people, who account for 20 per cent of the world's believers (Weir, 2003b). Therefore, management in the Arab World: a fourth paradigm, gender in leadership in the Middle East Arab world, the position of women in the Middle East Arab World, and Arab women in the work places are discussed next.

3.6.1 Management in the Arab World: A Fourth Paradigm

Weir (1999) suggests that there are three existing strong management paradigms that are currently influential globally, namely the North American, the European and the Japanese and that the business styles and behaviors of the Arabian Gulf region may represent 'a fourth paradigm'. Arab people are linked in a variety of ways (Metcalf, 2008). The great majority are linked by common language (Arabic), religion (Islam) and cultural identity and heritage (Ahmed, 1998; Ali, 1995, 1999; UNIFEM, 2004). So we come to the 'Arab Manager'. Some very important research has already been undertaken by those who, like Farid Muna, have attempted to delineate the main characteristics of management organization and behaviors in Arab countries (Weir, 2001). Muna's first path-breaking book, *The Arab Executive*, in fact put together managers from a wide variety of Middle Eastern backgrounds, some of which (such as Lebanese) were by no means uniquely characterised by Arab culture (Muna, 1980). Others have studied Arab management and behavior within specific national cultures. Included in this group are Suleiman, who undertook one of the earliest studies of management culture in Iraq (Suleiman, 1984). Fuad Al-Shaikh (1987) and Mahmoud Al-Falah (1982) studied aspects of management behavior in Jordan. In an important paper included in the Proceedings of the 1993 Arab Management conference, Hamid Attiyah compared the management style of Arab managers in Iraq and Saudi Arabia. Attiyah's conclusion is worth repeating at this point. He finds that "the culture bound hypothesis, regarding the style of Arab managers, has not been supported by this research. These findings are also inconsistent with previous results reporting a predominantly authoritarian or consultative style adopted by Arab managers. Arab managers surveyed here, like their counterparts elsewhere, use a number of styles and their choice of style depends on their evaluation of the situation" (Attiyah, 1993).

3.6.2 Gender in Leadership in the Middle East Arab World

The topic of gender in leadership is a renewed subject, at the very least, in the Arab world or in the Middle East region (Megheirkouni, 2014). This might be because gender is sensitive issue into leadership and in these regions from different perspectives: religious, social, economic, and political views that constitute the motor nerve of daily life (Megheirkouni, 2014). Only recently have scholars in management

and organization behavior examined gender issues within developing or transitional countries or regions (Budwhar and Debrah, 2004; Metcalfe and Afanassieva, 2005). While there will be some common concerns that men and women may share globally, it is important to examine the specificities of socio cultural and political processes and their impact on gender systems (Fagenson, 1993; Powell, 2000; Roald, 2001). It is, however, the ME countries where the gap between the rights of men and women is the most visible and significant, and where resistance to women's equality has been most challenging (Mernissi, 1991; UNIFEM, 2004; Moghadam, 2005; Metcalfe, 2007). It is argued that women labour is considered as a significant factor into economic growth in these regions (World Bank, 2006) because Arab world witnessed a resurgence of Arab women's activism in leadership in different fields (O'Connor, 2010). This increased the need for women's career development, which has become a real priority for policy makers and firms in the Arab world. According to the Arab Human Development Report (2005), the Arab region witnessed a greater increase in the role of women in economic activities than other parts of world between 1990 and 2003.

In Syria, as well as in other Arab countries, the increasing participation of women in the labour market and their career development has been totally attributed to politically led nationalisation strategies (Megheirkouni, 2014). However, it should be further noted that although modernisation has assisted changes and development in economic and social context across all Arab countries, institutional-cultural context continues to be a great challenge toward Arab women (Alajmi, 2001). For instance, Wilkinson (1996) found that Emirati, Omani, Bahraini women in top leadership positions face discrimination at work, cultural barriers, and lack of trust in their leadership. Metcalfe (2006) investigates the barriers to Arab Middle Eastern women's career advancement, and identifies work-family conflict, lack of diversity or equality frameworks in organizations and limited organizational and training support as significant barriers which impede women's career mobility. These findings suggest that the experiences of women professionals in the Middle East are comparable to those of female managers in the West in those barriers or obstacles to international work may be similar (Hutchings et al, 2010). Non-Western geographical contexts are under-represented in management studies (Weir and Crowley-Henry, 2013).

Many studies of women managers and qualified professionals focus on the negative and relatively disqualifying aspects of women in Muslim countries, in the Arab Middle East (Al Kharouf and Weir, 2008). But in the socio-political and cultural sphere, others have noted, for example in reportage on the Arab Spring, the apparently increased role of young well-educated and professionally qualified women (Weir and Crowley-Henry, 2013). Marmenout (2009) in a study in Saudi Arabia shows that the mapping of concepts of 'manager' on to male/female stereotypes appears to reinforce the received patriarchal paradigm, in that men do rate themselves more closely to a 'managerial' profile, and tend to rate women as having lower capability as leaders and that moreover women rate themselves somewhat lower on 'leadership' characteristics. Al Kharouf and Weir (2008) indicate that well qualified women in the Jordanian labour market do not appear to be all that different in their attitudes and expectations to their Western counterparts. Moreover further examination of Marmenout's (2009) findings of Saudi managers indicates that women in her sample rate certain characteristics more highly than do men and vice versa, Interestingly the 'male' profile emphasises the dimensions more appropriate to a corporate, structured, organizational environment whereas women rate such characteristics as 'creativity, the ability to separate feelings from ideas, knowing the way of the world, being well-informed, ambitious, and desiring responsibility' that appear more characteristic of the 'protean' mind set. She concludes that what she characterises as 'female readiness' is understated in respect of Saudi women and appears to be higher than comparable norms for Japan or Germany.

3.6.3 Women in the Middle East Arab World

Generally, the role of women in the workplace across all organizational levels has been expanding steadily worldwide (Powell, 2012). In the USA, the proportion of women in the labour force (i.e. the proportion of all adults employed or seeking employment who are women) rose from 39 percent in 1973 to 47 percent in 2010 (US Department of Labour, Bureau of Labour Statistics, 2011); the number of women in the labour force increased 107 percent during this period of almost four decades, whereas the number of men increased only 50 percent. The proportion of

women in the labour force varies widely across countries, e.g. 14 percent in Saudi Arabia, 27 percent in Morocco, 36 percent in Chile, 45 percent in Australia, 46 percent in the UK, 47 percent in France, and 48 percent in Finland (International Labour Office, 2011). However, the trend in almost all countries has been in the same direction, toward the increased employment of women (Powell, 2011b). Similarly, although the proportion of women in management in different countries varies widely due to differences in national culture and definitions of the term manager, the trend in almost all countries has been toward the increased representation of women in the managerial ranks (International Labour Office, 1993; Powell, 2011b). Despite these trends, female managers have been consistently concentrated in the lower management levels and hold positions with less power and authority than men (Bartol, 1978; Davidson and Cooper, 1992; Powell, 1999, 2000; Barreto et al, 2009; Brady et al, 2011).

The Arab region has the world's lowest ratios of women representation not only in managerial positions but also in employment in general, and in politics (WEF, 2013), despite the fact that in several Arab countries women's average education is higher than men's (AFESD, 2013; WEF, 2013). Also, the region scores the world's highest ratios of female economic inactivity, gender-gap in economic activity and unemployment where women unemployment ratios are double those of men (AFESD, 2013; UNDP, 2013). Recent studies (McElwee and Al-Riyami, 2003; Jamali et al, 2005; Tlaiss, 2010; Karam and Afiouni, 2013) suggested that Arab women career barriers were similar to those of Western women, in addition to the impact of the patriarchy. Women in the Middle East, like women in many different parts of the world, struggle against inequality and restrictive practices in education, economic participation and family roles (Hattab, 2012). For example, the findings of Marmenout's study (2009) indicated that Middle Eastern women working in the UAE have challenges that are largely the same to their counterparts elsewhere in the world. On average, only 28 percent of the adult women in the Middle East are economically active, the lowest rate in the world (Freedom House, 2010). This is due to many factors: the prevailing cultural attitudes, gendered laws, weak support services (O'Sullivan et al, 2011) and the weak real per capita growth performance (Bhattacharya and Wolde, 2010) which predisposes economies towards low demand for female labour. In addition, the traditional view that men are the breadwinners

further obstructs the employment of women and contributes to an increase in women's unemployment relative to men (UNDP, 2005). Women's most important role, according to the society, is as a homemaker and mother, while the man's responsibility is to support and protect the wife and the family. The man is considered the head of the household even in cases where the woman makes large contributions to the family's income (Metcalf, 2008). Hence, "women enjoy limited, if any, recognition, for their contribution to the family, and are often seen as legally, financially and socially dependent on men" (World Bank, 2003b: 9). The difficulties that many women face in the Middle East are similar to other women in many parts of the world.

However, there are opportunities and constraints for women attributed to gender within their culture. Both men and women believe that Islam defines gender and family roles and responsibilities and these are taken very seriously. Women's groups, governments and organizations advocate the inter face between the Islamic and universal construction of human rights and stress the family as a foundation of an Islamic state (UNIFEM, 2004; Badran, 2005). Furthermore, the Arab culture that defines the roles of men and women, where men are expected to support their families and women to take care of the house and family is a culture which promotes that the right place for a woman is her house. Nonetheless, the situation of women in the Middle East has seen lots of changes, all aiming at improving the overall status of women. The Arab Human Development Report 2003 argued that the full empowerment of Arab women, recognizing their right to equal participation in politics, society and the economy, as well as to education and other means of building capabilities was a significant aspect of the region's future development in a global society (World Bank, 2003a, b, c; World Bank, 2005; Metcalf, 2006, 2007). More women are turning to entrepreneurship and hence contributing to the development and economic growth of their countries. Women's capacity to become successful business women and entrepreneurs can be highlighted against a backdrop of economic, social and demographic changes in the Middle East countries and there are need to create and supply jobs for a young and well-educated workforce (Arab International Women's Forum, 2005).

Women face discrimination in both the economic and social spheres, and many women do not enjoy equal rights as citizens (Seikaly, 1994; CAWTAR, 2001; World Bank, 2003a). Although women's rights organizations have repeatedly raised the issue, not one country in the Arab region has a law that makes domestic violence a criminal offence (UNIFEM, 2004). With increasing numbers of Arab women in jobs (Abdurrahman, 2004; Mowafaq, 2004) where they have attained leadership positions exhibiting 'cooperative' behavior and 'democratic' styles (Yaseen, 2010), they had to work extra hard compared to men to prove themselves, attaining success and recognition in public services (Abdurrahman, 2004; Mowafaq, 2004). Some highlight gender inequality as a severe problem in Arab society (Hijab, 1998; Kazemi, 2000; Moore, 2003; Treacher, 2003) where men and women are considered suited for different roles and only certain careers are deemed suitable for women.

3.6.4 Arab Women in the Work Places

With Arab society tradition and culture dictating the type of work women do, there is a clear case of gender difference, even discrimination, arising out of some form of socially constructed gender stereotyping where the dominant and self interested nature of men and the mental and emotional traits of women idealize roles (Yaseen, 2010). Arab women' participation in the workplace is expected to be in the areas of education, health (mainly nurses) and other support or clerical jobs primarily at the lower end of organizational hierarchies; leadership positions are typically reserved for men (Mostafa, 2003; Haddad and Esposito, 1998; Abdalla, 1996). Women's current labour participation rate in the Arab region has seen tremendous increases of late (Wirth, 2001; World Bank, 2003b; UNIFEM, 2004). Moghadam (2005) argues that in many countries this labour market growth is largely attributable to the 'feminization of public employment'. Middle East occupational structures are strongly gendered with the majority of women employed in health, education and social care. There is also evidence of vertical segregation with women concentrated in lower level roles (World Bank, 2003c, 2005). In some countries women are also barred from certain professions, for example architecture, some fields in medicine and engineering occupations (Bahry and Marr, 2005). Indeed, Oman currently has more women in ministerial positions than do the UK and USA. While not all countries have

given women the vote (Saudi Arabia and UAE) women have accessed power and decision-making roles and have strongly advocated women's rights, and have served as a role model for women across Middle East states.

Neal et al (2005) note that an increasing number of females are entering the workforce in Arab states, and in many cases are rising to positions of leadership in both the public and private sectors, citing Al-Lamki (1999); UNDP (2002), and Salloum (2003), in support. Mostafa (2005) notes that while in 1960 women in the Arab world made up only 12 percent of the workforce; by 1995 this figure had increased to 30 percent. Al-Shaikh (2004) estimated females to make up 20 percent of the labour force, compared with 40 percent globally and 44 percent in the industrialized world.

Abd El-Latif (1988) studied the Egyptian society's attitudes towards working women. The study found a negative attitude towards women managers and women in top managerial and leadership positions. The study also found that women occupy only 11 percent of the top managerial positions in Egyptian organizations. Askar and Ahmad (2003) studied factors determining attitudes towards women occupying supervisory positions at various organizations in Kuwait perceived by a sample of 278 participants. The results of the study indicate a relatively positive attitude towards women managers. Sex of the participant was found to be statistically significant in determining attitudes towards women managers with female more supportive to women in supervisory positions. Mensch et al, (2003) found evidence of extremely strong traditional attitudes about gender roles among Egyptian boys and girls between the ages of 11 and 19. Gender socialization was found to be extremely patriarchal and strongly supportive of traditional family values, with a particular emphasis on women's primacy in the domestic sphere. Mostafa (2003) investigated the Egyptian society's attitudes towards women who work held by a sample of 217 participants. The results of the study reveal that, contrary to our expectations, Egyptian students have very similar attitudes towards women who work to those of the older generations. There are also significant differences between males' and females' perceptions towards women's roles and participation in society. Finally, the study predicted that modernity may diminish patriarchal attitudes towards women in Arab societies.

Al-Lamki (1999) has challenged the stereotypical and persistent western view that Arab women are overwhelmingly repressed in the Arab workplace and Arab societies in general. "In almost all Arab countries, the number and proportion of women entering the workplace is rising year on year (in absolute and relative terms); and in most cases women have equal access to state education from primary to tertiary levels, and outperform men at all levels" (UNDP, 2003: 193-195). Historically, most Arab cultures have been relatively comfortable with women wielding power and authority (Guthrie, 2001). Under most interpretations of Islam, women are permitted to work as long as it does not interfere with or compromise the fulfilment of their 'primary role' in the family (Darwiche, 1999; Read, 2003). In an important study, Al-Qudsi (1998) found that the most important determinants of Arab women's participation in the workplace are the age at which they marry and have children; and the number of children they have. Arab mothers, particularly those with multiple children, are obviously restricted in terms of access to work, and their ability to rise to positions of authority. The customs of early marriage and motherhood thus influence the longevity (or rather, brevity) of young women's presence in the labor market; a situation that, in turn, reflexively sustains social attitudes about the role of young, single, working women; and impacts upon their recruitment and promotion prospects. Arab customs and norms concerning marriage and family thus influence not only women's attitudes towards work, but also wider societal attitudes about their ability to remain in work, and their ability to rise to positions of authority (Mostafa, 2003).

Research conducted by Moore (2003), Zayed University in UAE, emphasized that women are exceeding men in university enrolment, but their participation in the labor force in UAE and Gulf region still significantly lags behind the world average of 40-50 percent. Although the research shows women's economic participation has increased less than 7 percent since 1985, while enrolment in tertiary education has grown nearly 40 percent since the 1970s, women prominently hold positions in government and education sectors with only 30 percent in decision-making positions. Moreover, Moore (2003) indicated that the UAE is the best in the Gulf region in its treatment of women, but gender equality is a severe problem in the Middle East. Another empirical study conducted by Mowafaq (2004) in Iraq, on the challenges

facing the Arab women to occupy leadership positions, worked with 122 female respondents from different territories in Iraq. The research findings indicated that women are satisfied in their leadership positions and they perform well in comparison with men and their ultimate goal is to prove themselves (Mowafaq, 2004). The research findings indicated that 83 percent of the participants believed that the roadblock preventing women from occupying leadership positions come from male executives in the Arab world.

According to Egypt State Information Services (2006), 48.8 percent of Egyptian society is female, 30 percent of Egyptian scientists are women and most of them are in the medical sciences. In addition, women in Egypt represent 15.5 percent of the total workforce from the age of 15-64 (Abdurrahman, 2004). The meta-analysis of this study compared the involvement of women in public leadership positions in Egypt between 1997 and 2008. The study findings indicated that the percentage increased from 2.5 to 4.7 percent perceptively.

Following international trends there are signs of increased entrepreneurial development amongst women especially in Jordan, Egypt and Bahrain (Basma, 1999; Carter and Weeks, 2002; Tzanntos and Kaur, 2003). The rate of women's participation in the work force tends to be higher in countries with abundant labour and relatively limited resources such as Egypt, Lebanon, Morocco and Tunisia, as opposed to countries that are abundant with labour and rich in resources such as Syria, Algeria, Iraq and Yemen. There is a high degree of gender and occupational segregation with the majority of Arab women working in the service sector and in the public sector where social security exists (UNDP, 2003; UNIFEM, 2004).

Regarding Syria the scope of this study, the percentage of females in the workplace has risen from 18.3% in 2000 to 20.1% in 2005 (Soubh, 2006). She added that although women's entry into work has increased, they did not play leadership roles sufficiently (Soubh, 2006). The main factor behind the high labor force growth rates during the 1980s and 1990s is the increasing rates of female labor force participation, which rose steadily from 11.9 percent in 1983 to 21.3 percent in 2001, with the highest increases among the youth (LABORSTA, 2004). Syria has also achieved marked progress in reducing gender imbalances in educational attainment.

Syria was historically advanced in the field of women's rights, compared to all the Arab countries, except Lebanon and Egypt (Jabbour, 2006). Women's cultural activities began in Aleppo and Damascus since the late 19th century (Jabbour, 2006). The government in Syria is keen on empowering women, capable of this, and practices it. Therefore, the official public orientations always include persistence on equality between men and women (Jabbour, 2006).

It is clear that women leaders in the Arab world are becoming more visible and their influence is felt across many sectors of business, despite the fact that they continue to represent a small minority in Arab society. Yet this minority increasingly punches above its weight, and these women leaders act as role models and agents for change in Arab society (Arab Women Leadership Outlook, 2009-2011). "In the past women striving for leadership were looked upon as a novelty. Nowadays, because of the success of Arab women leaders, aspiring women now have the opportunity to succeed." (Al Marashi, Arab Women Leadership Outlook, 2009-2011).

However, because of the unique conditions in which Arab women must operate, respondents in the Arab Women Leadership Outlook survey (2009, 2011) made it clear that hard work and a natural ability to lead are not enough. Even if a woman demonstrates the traits, skills and characteristics required for leadership, a supportive cultural and socio-economic environment is essential. As such, women tend to adopt the transformational leadership style which encompasses being kind, conscientious, emotionally flexible and open to experience to a greater extent than men. Women are more likely to demonstrate transformational leadership styles because, in general, they are more relationship oriented. Male leaders, on the other hand, are more likely to manifest transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles (Arab Women Leadership Outlook, 2009-2011). Discussion of the transformational and transactional leadership behaviors in the Middle East Arab countries is presented next.

3.7 TRANSFORMATIONAL AND TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP IN THE MIDDLE EAST ARAB COUNTRIES

“Compared to other parts of the world, the Middle Eastern region has less available literature related to the field of human resources management” (Yahchouchi, 2009: 127). Recently, there are many studies conducted in the Arab countries concerning transformational and transactional leadership styles. Shahin and Wright (2004) conducted an empirical study in An Egypt as one example of the Arab Middle East, provide evidence for Bass’s (1997) argument that transformational leadership concept is universally applicable. The study investigated the suitability of applying Bass and Avolio’s (1994) transformational and transactional leadership model in Egypt. Their results provide strong support for the argument that if we are to come up with a transformational leadership model which suitably reflects leaders who live and work in other cultures, Bass and Avolio’s (1994) transformational and transactional leadership model will need some adjustment and modification given that its development was informed and underpinned by the USA (only) cultural context.

Yahchouchi (2009) conducted a study in Lebanon using Bass’ (1990) framework of transformational and transactional leadership to examine the employees’ perceptions of the prevalent leadership style in Lebanon and its impact on organizational commitment. The results revealed that Lebanese leadership tends to be more transformational than transactional. Evidence supporting a positive relation between transformational leadership and organizational commitment has been found.

Al abduljader (2012) conducted a study in the Kuwaiti commercial banks sector in order to know which of the two leaderships is more applied in the banks, either the transactional leadership or the transformational leadership. The results were that the transactional and transformational Leadership styles are highly implemented in the Kuwaiti commercial banks. There are no differences with a statistical significance at 0.05 levels between the level of implementing the transformational leadership and the transactional leadership in the Kuwaiti commercial banks, which indicates that the Kuwaiti commercial banks are interested of using the both mentioned leadership styles in their study, which confirms the existed relationship between them.

In the Arab World, numerous studies compared the leadership styles of women and men (Chatty and Rabo, 2001). One empirical study conducted in the Middle East using the United Arab Emirates (UAE) as a case study (Yassen, 2010). The findings of this study indicated that women in the Arab world exceeded men on four transformational scales: *the attributes version of idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration*. These findings suggest that female Arab leaders exceed Arab male leaders on *idealized influence attributes*, display a sense of power and control, actions that build respect, and they go beyond self-interest for the good of the group. While male Arab leaders exceed female Arab leaders on *idealized influence behavior*, they are found talking about their values and beliefs more, they specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose and mission and they consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions. Arab women exceed men on *inspirational motivation* by talking optimistically about the future, talking enthusiastically about what needs to be done to accomplish the firm's vision and they express confidence in achievement. Arab women exceed men on intellectual stimulation in re-examining critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate and seeking differing perspectives when solving problems. Arab women exceed men on *individualized consideration* by spending more time coaching, teaching, assessing individual needs, and helping team members in developing their strengths. His findings suggest that Arab men exceed Arab women on two transactional scales: *management by exception: passive*, when leaders fail to interfere until problems become serious and *management by exception: active*, when leaders focus their attentions on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards while women exceed men on *contingent reward*. Arab men (30 percent) do not interfere until problems become serious; they react to problems more than looking after problems before they occur, while 70 percent of Arab men indicated that they focus their attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures. Arab women exceed men on *contingent reward* by providing assistance for achieving performance targets, and by making clear what one expects to receive when performance goals are achieved. Arab men exceed women on *laissez-faire* leadership style, they avoid making decisions and they delay responding to urgent questions.

Taleb (2010) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between gender and female leadership styles in a single-sex academic institution in Saudi Arabia. Evidence suggests that the interviewed female leaders of Manar College are inclined to adopt stereotypical attributes of feminine qualities of leadership. They also tend to prefer a democratic, interpersonally-oriented and transformational style rather than autocratic, task-oriented or transactional style of leadership. In essence their leadership styles seem to agree to a large extent with the main stream view on women's ways of leading.

Sikdar and Mitra (2012) conducted a study in the UAE to investigate the emergence of women leaders in UAE organizations by going beyond biological sex role biases to identify leadership as masculine or feminine gendered role stereotypes in organizations. The findings indicate that within organizations in the UAE, employee feedback highlights gender-role stereotypes as defining leadership roles, rather than individual biological sex and their traditional family and social role. The findings reveal that in the UAE, gender stereotypes influence leadership intention and behavior rather than individual biological sex and related traditions. Accordingly, women leaders having higher proportions of 'agentic' characteristics of male gender stereotype together with lower proportions of 'people orientation' of female gender stereotype, which makes successful leaders in the UAE, break the proverbial 'glass ceiling'. This explains the emergence of an increasing number of women leaders in the UAE.

Bin Zahari and Shurbagi (2012) conducted a study in Libya to investigate the effect of organizational culture on the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction in petroleum sector with a focus on the National Oil Corporation of Libya (NOC). The findings indicate that the leaders of National Oil Corporation of Libya follow transformational leadership style to manage their organization and the dominant culture in NOC of Libya is Hierarchy culture while the relationship between transformational leadership style, job satisfaction and organizational culture is positive significant relationship.

More recently, Metwally (2014) conducted a study in Egypt to explore the influence of gender differences on leadership styles of Egyptian academics and its impact on

subordinate' satisfaction. The study aimed to compare research results in an Arab country with previous research results in the West. Similar to Western countries, the leadership style is found to be significantly related to subordinates' satisfaction. Further, transformational leadership is significantly correlated to subordinates' satisfaction. Regarding the relationship between gender and leadership style, gender is found to be insignificant in determining the leadership style as differences exist across males as well as across females. After reviewing literature and research on transformational and transactional leadership in the Middle East Arab context, now, transformational and transactional leadership in Syria, the context of this study, is addressed next.

Although the popularity of transformational and transactional leadership research is uncontested, there are limited studies which have been conducted in Syria to address transformational and transactional leadership styles. Alamir (2010) conducted a study in Syria to investigate the employees' perception of the Syrian leadership styles and its impact on employees' job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the private Syrian organizations. The findings revealed that transformational and transactional leadership has a positive impact on both job satisfaction and organizational commitment in the six private Syrian organizations. The respondents perceived Syrian leadership style in the private Syrian organization as more transformational than transactional. Hammad (2011) conducted a study in Syria to examine the impact of transformational leadership in change management- a field study on hospital Red Crescent in Damascus. The results showed that all the dimensions of transformational leadership have the same impact on organizational change management. However, other than these two studies, there are no others, hence providing further support for the argument to look at this country/culture in particular.

3.8 GENDER-ROLE-STEREOTYPES IN THE ARAB WORLD

There is little evidence to suggest that Arab men are equipped with personal characteristics that make them more suitable than women for management (Kauser

and Tlaiss, 2011). However, the 'think male/think manager' attitude continues to prevail in Arab cultures. The evidence suggests that stereotypical attitudes towards women managers are salient within Arab organizations (Jamali et al, 2005). Results reported by Abdalla (1996) found strong evidence of traditional attitudes towards working women in the Gulf region. Mensch et al (2003) found evidence of strong stereotypical beliefs about gender roles among Egyptian students. Similarly, Mostafa (2003, 2005) reported that Egyptian societal attitudes towards working women were extremely patriarchal and supportive of traditional family values. According to Wilkinson (1996), in a study among UAE, Oman and Bahraini women managers' negative attitudes and cultural taboos were the root cause of discriminatory treatment against women's career advancement. Overall, the limited evidence suggests that as in developed countries, Arab women have to deal with male orientated behavior; work harder than men and consistently exceed performance expectations to counter negative assumptions. The patriarchal nature of Arab corporate culture perpetuates traditional attitudes concerning masculine managerial stereotypes. It is also the reason behind women selecting fields that are viewed by society to be more suitable to women's gender roles such as education, health and social services.

Many scholars believe that gender based discrimination in Arab societies has its roots in the cultural and family traditions of the Arab male dominated culture (Abdalla, 1996; Orabi, 1999). Arab societies perceive the family as the strongest social unit with the father or husband as the head of the pyramid of responsibility and authority within the family (El-Jawardi, 1986; El-Rahmony, 2002; Hutchings and Weir, 2006; Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011). Furthermore, marriage is considered a social necessity and women are pressured by their families to get married and have children (Kausar, 1995; Khattab, 1996). These social beliefs are also widely impacted by the practice of Islam, which highly values marriage and children (Kausar, 1995; Khattab, 1996; Jawad, 1998; El-Ghannam, 2001). As in many Western countries, Arab women consider marriage, children, and family important, and do not see a trade off between family responsibilities and a successful career (Moghadam, 1992; Al-Lamki, 1999, 2007). But as we have already noted Arab women are not supposed to prioritize their careers before their family. In Arab countries a career is only a last resort if the family is having a financial difficulty (Al-

Lamki, 1999). Women are taking up management positions but remain marginalised at lower levels of management; women make up almost half of the labour force, but are employed in low level, traditional female occupations with poor opportunities for training and promotion; and compared to their male colleagues have lower salaries (Jamali et al, 2005, 2006; Tlaiss and Kauser, 2011).

The notion of the biological differences prescribed Arab gender relationships and roles (Metcalf, 2006, 2007) which assumes that a woman will marry early; her contribution to the family will be as homemaker; the man leads, financially supports and protects his household (Metcalf, 2011). The traditional gender paradigm in the Arab world, which is Syria part of it, determines gender roles and power dynamics in and outside the household. Arab Women Leadership Outlook Survey (2009-2011) addressed gender paradigm in the Arab World as follows: This paradigm is based on the notion that (a) men and women differ biologically and their biological differences define their social functions, (b) men and women bear different responsibilities and, as such, are complements to each other, and (c) these responsibilities are associated with a different, but equitable, set of rights. The paradigm is based on the following elements:

1-Centrality of the family, as opposed to the individual, making family the primary building block of society. This value placed on the family and the separation of roles between men and women implies that a woman's primary priority should be the family, and her economic participation will depend on her ability to combine work with family. For example, in Arab countries where women's hours of work are not regulated by law, women face pressure from their families to avoid working long hours and to take up part-time work instead.

2-Establishment of the man as the sole breadwinner and head of the household, which in some Arab countries is codified by the law. This cultural value establishes the position of women and children as needy of protection, implying that women cannot and need not provide for themselves. A woman's participation in the workforce has also been viewed as the inability of the man to provide for her and the family, putting the man's honour and reputation at stake.

As a result of these cultural stereotypes that assign different roles to the two sexes, women face family and societal pressure (including pressure from other women in

the family and/or social circle) for early marriages and childbearing. Given the established position of the man as the sole bread earner, early marriages and child bearing responsibilities restrict women's participation outside the private sphere. Thus, the traditional gender paradigm is a serious constraint faced by Arab women on their journey towards leadership, as it discourages women's participation in economic and/or political activity, which is a core requirement for leadership to flourish. However, the strength of these cultural norms varies across the region. The Arab women leaders interviewed in this Arab Women Leadership Outlook (2009-2011) survey agreed to this gradually changing perception of women leaders in the Arab world. When asked to comment on the image of women leaders in their respective countries, a high 81% of respondents suggest that Arab women leaders are on the whole perceived positively. 32% of the total respondents perceive the image of women to be very positive, while only 8% considered it to be negative. Breaking the gender stereotypes construction of gender stereotypes should be made. As such, women tend to adopt the transformational leadership style which encompasses being kind, conscientious, emotionally flexible and open to experience to a greater extent than men. Women are more likely to demonstrate transformational leadership styles because, in general, they are more relationship oriented. Male leaders, on the other hand, are more likely to manifest transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles.

3.9 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Based on the extensive review of the literature on gender, culture, and the transformational and transactional leadership styles, it is evident that literature is scarce when it comes to the Middle East Arab World context and generally knowledge is scant when it comes to the interaction influence of culture at the *individual* level of analysis and gender on evaluation of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. Despite the wide range of research about gender and leadership, most of this research has been conducted in the West (Metwally, 2014). Research about gender and leadership in Arab cultures is limited. Therefore, the scope of this study is on transformational and transactional leadership styles in

the context of Syria for two reasons; first it is considered as one example of the Middle East Arab context, second literature on transformational and transactional leadership and gender is scant when it comes to this country/cultural context. Although research provides evidence that all the four original dimensions of culture developed by Hofstede (1980) are relevant to leadership, Hofstede (1980, 2001) and colleagues propose that power distance strongly influences leadership styles (Hofstede, 1980). Kirkman et al (2009) state that *power distance orientation* compared with the other cultural values has a more theoretically direct relationship to leadership than the other cultural values, namely, *individualism/collectivism, uncertainty avoidance, and femininity/masculinity* as classified by Hofstede (1980). Kirkman et al (2009) have suggested that *power distance* is the most important determinant of leadership styles. As stated earlier, a transformational leader motivates and inspires followers (Metwally, 2014), and transactional leadership relies on a set of clearly defined exchanges between leader and follower (Rohmann and Rowold, 2009), and *power distance* affects how leaders and followers typically interact (Daniels and Greguras, 2014). Therefore, it is suggested in this study that followers' *power distance orientation* will influence evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders. "Given that power distance orientation deals with individuals' beliefs about status, authority, and power in organizations" (Kirkman et al, 2009: 745), it would be valuable to examine this dimension of culture in conjunction with follower rating to transformational, transactional (or any other) style of leadership at the *individual* level of analysis.

This cultural dimension has been found to influence perceptions of women and men, particularly in a business setting (Caligiuri and Tung, 1999; Garcia et al, 2009; Xiumei and Jinyinhg, 2011). The findings of Caligiuri and Tung's (1999) study support the idea that attitudes, especially attitudes about power influence perceptions of women (Simmon et al, 2012). For example, we would expect that a country with a reported low power index such as the USA would differ from Arabic countries historically characterized by a high power index in terms of their attitudes toward women as managers (Hofstede, 2009). Consequently, we are not surprised to learn that four times as many women are managers in the USA than in Arab countries (International Labour Office, 2008).

Models of transformational and transactional styles of leadership were developed in the USA, a culture which, according to Hofstede (1980), scores low on the *power distance* dimension, that is, it is a culture characterised by a communication style that is informal, direct and participative. In terms of ranking, the USA is ranked at 40. However, even though a country/nation such as the USA may rank/score low on the *power distance* dimension, there are individuals within this country/nation who, as individuals, have relatively high or low perceptions of power distance. Likewise, there are individuals who have a relatively high or low perception of *power distance* within a country characterised by high *power distance* (Simmon et al, 2012). Differences in cultural values at the *individual* level can be greater than country-level cultural differences (Au, 1999; Hofstede, 2001). The differences that exist at the level of the *individual* impact their perceptions of leaders to a greater degree than how the country/culture is itself described, at the country level of analysis (Kirkman et al, 2009). The values of an individual affect how leadership styles might be seen and rated (Walumbwa et al, 2007). Cultural influences may affect the way females and males behave in their job, particularly when it comes to roles of power and authority, and the way in which that behavior is perceived or valued by others (Jogulu and Wood, 2008).

Although the relationship between the transformational/transactional styles of leadership and culture dimensions has been examined (Hofstede and Bond, 1988; Bochner and Hesketh, 1994; Gerstner and Day, 1994; Smith et al, 1994; Jung et al, 1995; Dorfman et al, 1997; Offermann and Hellmann, 1997; Jung and Avolio, 1999; Kuchinke, 1999; Den Hartog et al, 1999; Ardichvili, 2001; Ardichvili and Kuchinke, 2002; Dastoor et al, 2003; Ergeneli et al, 2007; Kirkman et al, 2009), a review of the most recent literature (Jogulu and Wood, 2008; Rohmman and Rowold, 2009) has revealed that these two studies were the first to examine the joint influence of culture and gender on how transformational and transactional leaders are evaluated/perceived by their followers. Both of these studies looked at these aspects not at the level of the *individual* but instead at the level of the *society* as a whole. So in order to fully capture the impact of gender and culture on transformational/transactional leadership, there is a need to examine the interaction effect of gender and culture at the *individual* level of analysis when it comes to how followers evaluate/perceive the leaders who they work for who are categorised as

having a transformational or a transactional style of leadership. Although the literature on transformational and transactional styles of leadership is essentially those derived from studies carried out in the West cultures/countries which according to Hofstede (1980), score low on the *power distance* dimension, there are some recent studies on the transformational and transactional leadership styles in the Middle East Arab countries (e.g, Shahin and Wright, 2004; Yassen, 2010; Taleb, 2010; Alabduljader, 2012; Sikdar and Mitra, 2012; Bin Zahari and Shurbagi, 2012; Metwally, 2014). So, there is clearly a need to enrich and extend the literature on transformational and transactional leadership styles in this geographic area in the world.

As discussed earlier, the importance of culture to leadership is provided in most research (Dastoor et al, 2003) and, as discussed, Bass's (1985) transactional and transformational leadership model was developed in the USA, and it has been much tested with respect to cultural differences (Brain and Lewis, 2004). Yet, due to the gendered nature of leadership, it is clear that we must not only place greater importance on the joint influence of gender and culture on transformational and transactional leadership behaviors but also that much more research is needed if we are to better understand this important aspect of leadership in today's organizations. There has been little research done on leadership across cultures in the Middle East Arab World and Syria is no exception (Elsaid and Elsaid, 2012). If we are to encompass the views and experiences of leadership on a worldwide scale, it is clear that there are other cultural and geographical areas that merit our attention. Therefore, the research described in this study, which takes as its context Syria, in the Middle East Arabic countries, will make its contribution to the scant knowledge that currently exists on the influence of culture at the *individual* level of analysis and gender on evaluation of the transformational/transactional leadership in general and in the Middle East Arabic countries in particular.

3.10 HYPOTHESES

The theoretical leadership framework for this study is based on Avolio and Bass’s (2002) that examines transformational and transactional leadership styles. Table (3.4) illustrates the independent and dependent variables in this study.

Table 3.4: Independent and dependent variables for the empirical study

Independent variables	Dependent variables
<p>The predictor variable (Leader’s gender)</p>	<p>Follower’s perception of transformational leader on five scales (<i>idealized influence attributes, idealized influence behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration</i>)</p>
<p>The moderator variable (Follower’s power distance orientation)</p>	<p>Follower’s perception of transactional leader on three scales (<i>contingent reward, active management-by-exception, and passive management-by-exception</i>)</p>

Source: Developed for the study

This study focuses on the 32 items that correspond to the transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. A four-item subscale measuring laissez-fair (avoiding) leadership or ‘non-leadership’ is not used in this study because the purpose of this study is to evaluate leader’s behavior and laissez-faire leadership is non-leadership where there are generally neither transactions nor agreements with followers. Three leadership outcome scales are not used in this study as they do not represent a leadership behavior. Furthermore, this study values transformational and transactional leaders by followers; the rationale is that followers are very likely to notice the behaviors of leaders on a daily regular basis (Spreitzer et al, 2005). In addition, most research in leadership used followers to value leadership behavior (Podsakoff et al, 1990).

Leadership involves having and using power, but stereotypic expectations of women let many people be hesitated to accept females’ use of power in organizations

(Pinder, 1998), especially in high *power distance* cultures. It may be stated that *power distance* dimension in developing countries, such as Arab world suggests that *power distance* is related to the norms of acceptable work-related behaviors because Arab world consider women as *less than* their counterparts males (Megheirkouni, 2014). So, it is argued in this thesis that individuals who live in a high *power distance* culture such as Syria are likely to have negative response to female leaders and then they will rate them less favorably than male leaders. Therefore, eight hypotheses were put forward. The first five hypotheses are for the transformational leadership style and the last three hypotheses are for the transactional leadership style.

1-Transformational Leadership Style

This study investigates whether followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation* evaluate females who use a transformational leadership style less favorably than males who use the same style. According to transformational leadership style, five hypotheses were developed to be tested as follows:

H1: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' *idealized influence attributes* (a leader who instills pride in followers for being associated, goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group, acts in ways that build followers' respect for, displays a sense of power and confidence). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transformational style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

H2: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' *idealized influence behavior* (a leader who talks about most important values and beliefs, specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose, considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions, emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of mission). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who

exhibit a transformational style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

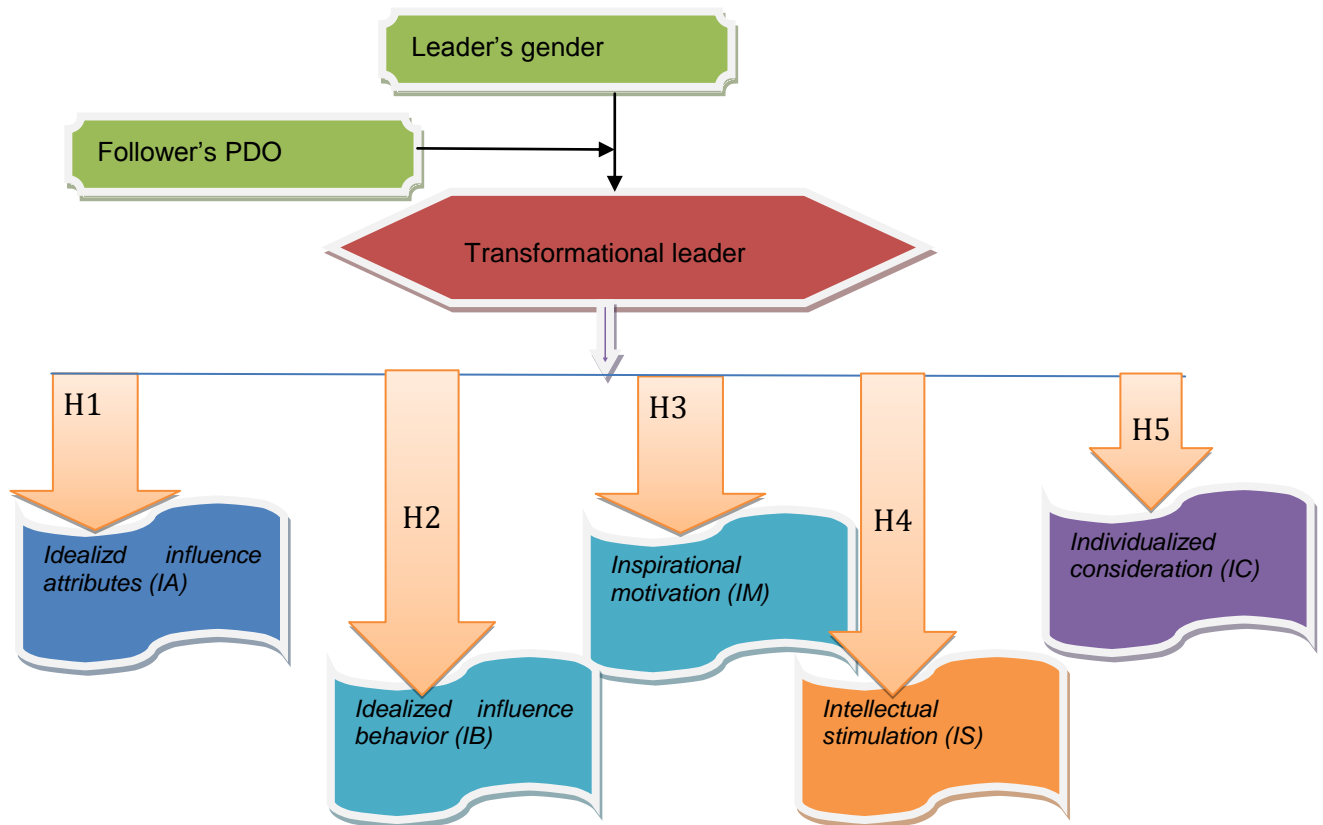
H3: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' *inspirational motivation* (a leader who talks optimistically about future, talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished, articulates a compelling vision of the future, and expresses confidence that goals will be achieved). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transformational style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

H4: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' *intellectual stimulation* (a leader who re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate, seeks differing perspectives when solving problems, gets followers to look at problems from many different angles, suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transformational style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

H5: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' *individualized consideration* (a leader who spends time teaching and coaching, treats followers as individuals rather than as a member of a group, considers an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others, helps followers to develop their strengths). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transformational style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

The hypothesized model designed for this research (transformational leadership style) is shown as Figure 3.1 below:

Figure 3.1: Hypothesized research model (transformational leadership style)



Source: Developed for the study

2-Transactional Leadership Style

This study investigates whether followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation* evaluate females who use a transactional leadership style less favorably than males who use the same style. According to transactional leadership style, three hypotheses were developed to be tested as follows:

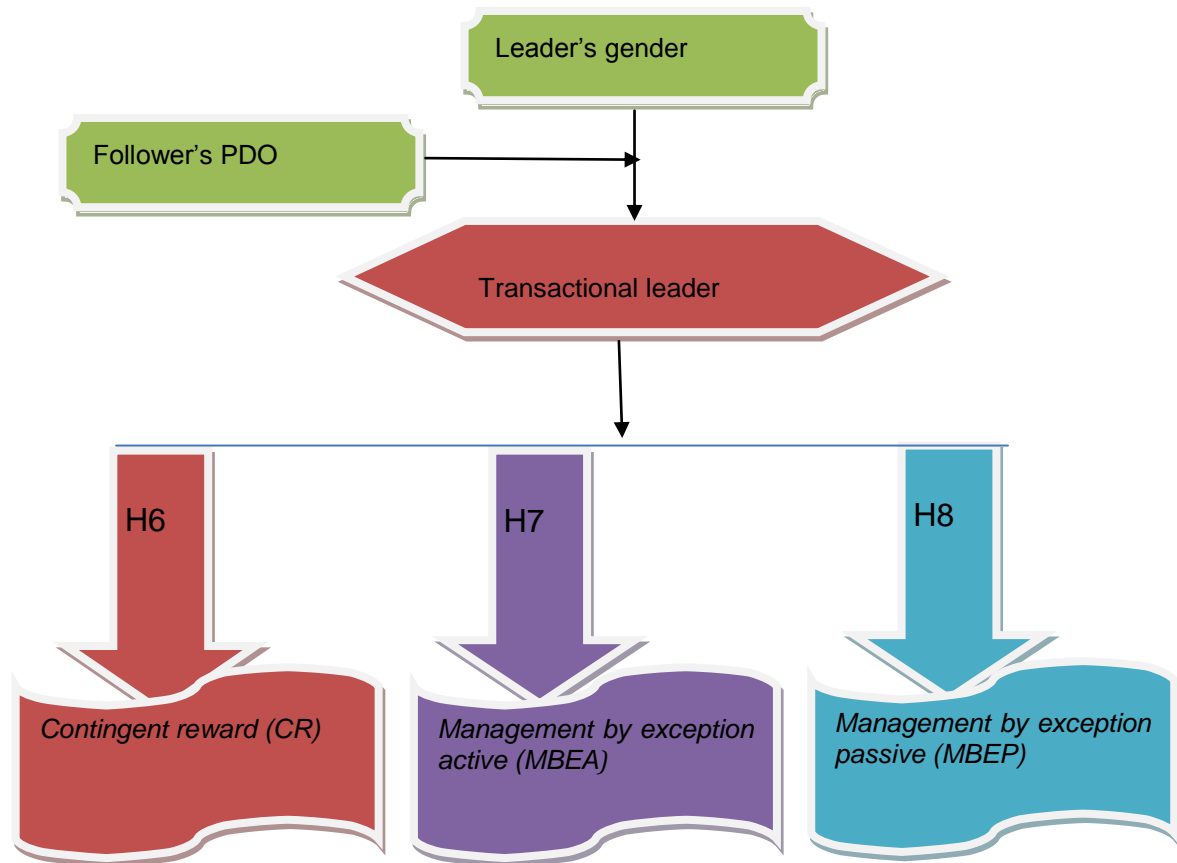
H6: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' *contingent reward* (a leader who provides followers with assistance in exchange for their efforts, discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets, makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved, expresses satisfaction when followers meet expectations). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transactional style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

H7: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' *management by exception: active* (a leader who focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards, concentrates his (her) full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures, keeps track of all mistakes, directs his (her) attention toward failures to meet standards). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transactional style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

H8: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' *management by exception: passive* (a leader who fails to interfere until problems become serious, waits for things to go wrong before taking action, shows that he (she) is a firm believer in "if it isn't broke, don't fix it", demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transactional style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

The hypothesized model designed for this research (transactional leadership style) is shown as Figure 3.2 below:

Figure 3.2: Hypothesized research model (transactional leadership style)



Source: Developed for the study

3.11 SUMMARY

In this chapter, many main issues related to culture in general and culture in the Arab world in particular, transformational/transactional leadership styles, and gender were discussed. Hofstede (1980, 2001) identified four dimensions that compose a national culture (*uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity, and power distance*), which became the basis of his characterisations of culture for each country (Hofstede, 1980; Dorfman and Howell, 1988: 129; Schneider and Barsoux,

1997: 79). A following study conducted by Hofstede and Bond (Hofstede and Bond, 1984; Hofstede and Bond, 1988; Hofstede, 1991b) introduced the fifth dimension which is called *Confucian Dynamism or long/short term orientation*, which was an attempt to fit the *uncertainty avoidance* dimension into the Asian culture. In 2010 he added a sixth and new dimension called *indulgence versus restraint* (Hofstede, 2011). The validity of Hofstede's dimensions has been questioned and those criticisms were dissuessed, as was Hofstede's approach to culture and Arabian culture. Culture and the issue of leadership in relation to this were discussed. In this, Hofstede's culture dimensions and leadership behaviour, *power distance* research and leadership, levels of analysis, *power distance research* at the *individual* level of analysis were introduced. Transformational and transactional leadership and culture were discussed. In this, a systematic review of the literature was conducted to show studies which were interested with testing the relationship between transformational/transactional leadership styles and culture at both levels (social and individual). Additionally, the influence of culture and gender on evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders was addressed.

Also addressed were leadership, gender and women in the Middle East Arab countries. The topic of gender in leadership is of particular importance in the Arab world or in the Middle East region (Megheirkouni, 2014). This might be because gender is sensitive issue in leadership and that these regions are underpinned by different perspectives, namely, religious, social, economic, and political views that constitute the motor nerve of daily life (Megheirkouni, 2014). Many studies of women managers and qualified professionals focus on the negative and relatively disqualifying aspects of women in Muslim countries, in the Arab Middle East (Al Kharouf and Weir, 2008). Generally, the role of women in the workplace across all organizational levels has been expanding steadily worldwide (Powell, 2012). The Arab region has the world's lowest ratios of women representation not only in managerial positions but also in employment in general, and in politics (WEF, 2013). Recent studies (McElwee and Al-Riyami, 2003; Jamali et al, 2005; Tlaiss, 2010; Karam and Afioni, 2013) suggested that Arab women's career barriers were similar to those of Western women, in addition to the impact of patriarchy. Women in the Middle East, like women in many different parts of the world, struggle against inequality and restrictive practices in education, economic participation and family

roles (Hattab, 2012). With Arab society tradition and culture dictating the type of work women do, there is a clear case of gender difference, even discrimination, arising out of some form of socially constructed gender stereotyping where the dominant and self interested nature of men and the mental and emotional traits of women idealize roles (Yaseen, 2010).

Transformational and transactional leadership in the Middle East Arab countries was addressed as “Compared to other parts of the world, the Middle Eastern region has less available literature related to the field of human resources management” (Yahchouchi, 2009: 127). Recently, there have been some studies conducted in the Arab countries concerning transformational and transactional leadership styles (Shahin and Wright, 2014; Yahchouchi, 2009; Al abduljader, 2012; Yassen, 2010; Taleb, 2010; Sikdar and Mitra, 2012; Bin Zahari and Shurbagi, 2012; Metwally, 2014). Although the popularity of transformational and transactional leadership research is uncontested, there are very few studies which have been conducted in Syria to address transformational and transactional leadership styles (Alamir, 2010; Hammad, 2011). Also discussed were gender-role stereotypes in the Arab world. It was argued that there is little evidence to suggest that Arab men are equipped with personal characteristics that make them more suitable than women for management (Kauser and Tlaiss, 2011). However, the ‘think male/think manager’ attitude continues to prevail in Arab cultures.

The rationale for this study was argued for and presented. Based on the extensive review of the literature on gender, culture, and the transformational and transactional leadership styles, it is evident that literature is scarce when it comes to the Middle East Arab World context and generally knowledge is scant when it comes to the interaction influence of culture at the *individual* level of analysis and gender on evaluation of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. Although the literature on transformational and transactional styles of leadership is essentially those derived from studies carried out in the West cultures/countries which according to Hofstede (1980), score low on the power distance dimension, there are some recent studies on the transformational and transactional leadership styles in the Middle East Arab countries (e.g, Shahin and Wright, 2004; Yassen, 2010; Taleb, 2010; Al abduljader, 2012; Sikdar and Mitra, 2012; Bin Zahari and Shurbagi, 2012;

Metwally, 2014). So, there is clearly a need to enrich and extend the literature on transformational and transactional leadership styles in this geographic area in the world. Yet, due to the gendered nature of leadership, it is clear that we must not only place greater importance on the joint influence of gender and culture on transformational and transactional leadership behaviors but also that much more research is needed if we are to better understand this important aspect of leadership in today's organizations. There is little research done on leadership across cultures in the Middle East Arab World and Syria is no exception (Elsaid and Elsaid, 2012). If we are to encompass the views and experiences of leadership on a worldwide scale, it is clear that there are other cultural and geographical areas that merit our attention. Therefore, the research described in this study, which takes as its context Syria, in the Middle East Arabic countries, will make its contribution to the scant knowledge that currently exists on the influence of culture at the *individual* level of analysis and gender on evaluation of the transformational/transactional leadership in general and in the Middle East Arabic countries in particular.

The final section of this chapter discussed the hypotheses of this study within the Syrian context. Those hypotheses included power distance orientation as a cultural value and how this interacts with gender of the leader to influence evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders. In these hypotheses, special focus was given to *power distance orientation* and its effects on evaluations of leaders.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND CONTEXT

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous two chapters, the literature related to leadership, transformational/transactional leadership, gender, gender role stereotyping, and culture issues was reviewed, and based on this eight hypotheses (five for transformational leadership style, and three for transactional leadership style) were created. Here, we first discuss the philosophical approach. Second, the research hypotheses are presented. Third, the research context and the organization context are addressed. Four, the research methods used to test the proposed hypotheses are described. Finally, the data analysis techniques used are discussed in detail.

4.2 PHILOSOPHICAL APPROACH

4.2.1 Research Paradigms

In this section, the main research paradigms (philosophies) used in business and management research are discussed. Before concentrating on research philosophies, a short reference is made to the difference between the research method and the methodology. Methodology is the general approach to the research process (Collis and Hussey, 2003). It is concerned with the following issues including why we gathered certain data, what data we gathered, from where we gathered it, when we gathered it, how we gathered it, and, finally, how we will analyse it (Collis and Hussey, 2003). However, a research method is defined as a special way for gathering data, and it needs a specific tool such as a self-administrated questionnaire or structured interviews, or participant observations (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

The term paradigm has become as a popular method among social scientists, especially during the work of Kuhn (1962) who utilised this term to describe the

achievements of scientific facts in practice, rather than how they are subsequently produced in books and academic journals (Easterby-Smith et al, 2008). Paradigm is defined as “cluster of beliefs and dictates which for scientists in a particular discipline influence what should be studied, how research should be done, and how results should be interpreted” (Bryman, 1988: 4). In addition, Saunders et al (2006) defined the term paradigm as a method of testing a social phenomenon from which specific understandings of this phenomenon can be got and explanations attempted (Saunders et al, 2006).

Philosophers for many centuries hotly debated the relationship between data and theory (Easterby-Smith et al, 2008). There are two contrasting views which explain how social science research should be carried out. These are known as positivism and social constructivism. Positivism’s main concept is that the social world exists externally and its characteristics must be assessed by objective ways, rather than these characteristics form statements which are influenced by personal opinions through feelings, reflection or intuition (Easterby-Smith et al, 2008). The positivistic approach searches the causes of the social phenomena (Collis and Hussey, 2003). Moreover, positivism assumes that the social reality does not depend on us and it exists if or not we are aware of it (Collis and Hussey, 2003). The philosophical assumptions of positivism paradigm are shown in the next Table:

Table 4.1: Philosophical assumptions of positivism

Independence: the observer must be independent from what is being observed
Value-freedom: the choice of what to study, and how to study it, can be determined by objective criteria rather than by human beliefs and interests
Causality: the aim of the social sciences should be to identify causal explanations and fundamental laws that explain regularities in human social behavior
Hypothesis and deduction: science proceeds through a process of hypothesizing fundamental laws and then deducing what kinds of observations will demonstrate the truth or falsity of these

hypotheses
Operationalization: concepts need to be operationalized in a way which enables facts to be measured quantitatively
Reductionism: problems as a whole are better understood if they are reduced into the simplest possible elements
Generalization: in order to be able to generalize about regularities in human and social behavior, it is necessary to select samples of sufficient size, from which inferences may be drawn about the wider population
Cross-sectional analysis: such regularities can most easily be identified by making comparisons of variations across samples

Source: Easterby-Smith et al (2008)

Social constructivism (sometimes called interpretivism) is a paradigm which develops as a result of the view that reality is not based on facts, but it is socially formed and given meaning by people (Easterby-Smith et al, 2008). According to Watzlawick (1984) and Shotter (1993), the notion of social constructivism concentrates on the methods that individuals make sense of the world particularly due to having experiences in common with other people by the medium of language. Hence, the social scientist is not so much concerned about collecting facts and assessing to what extent certain patterns happen, but to realize the different constructions and meaning that individuals put on their experience (Easterby-Smith et al, 2008). Finally, it is worth mentioning that the methods of social constructionist paradigm are directly different from the eight features of the methods of the positivism paradigm (Easterby-Smith et al, 2008). The eight features of both positivism and social constructivism are summarized in the next Table:

Table 4.2: Constructing implications of positivism and social constructivism

	Positivism	Social constructivism
The observer	Must be independent	Is part of what is being observed
Human interests	Should be irrelevant	Are the main drivers of science
Explanations	Must demonstrate	Aim to increase general

	causality	understanding of the situation
Research progress through	Hypotheses and deductions	Gathering rich data from which ideas are induced
Concepts	Need to be defined so that they can be measured	Should incorporate stakeholder perspectives
Units of analysis	Should be reduced to simplest terms	May include the complexity of 'whole' situations
Generalization through	Statistical probability	Theoretical abstraction
Sampling requires	Large numbers selected randomly	Small numbers of cases chosen for specific reasons

Source: Easterby-Smith et al (2008)

4.2.2 Research Strategy

The quantitative and qualitative research strategies are distinguished by many in methodological subjects (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Quantitative research strategy stresses calculating the value of variables and expresses them as numbers or amounts in collecting and analysis of data, and this strategy uses a deductive approach regarding the relationship between theory and research (Bryman and Bell, 2007). In contrast to quantitative research strategy, qualitative research strategy stresses words rather than numbers or amounts in collecting and analysis of data, and this research strategy uses an inductive approach with respect the relationship between theory and research (Bryman and Bell, 2007). The main distinctions between the quantitative and qualitative research strategies are shown in Table 4.3 as follows:

Table 4.3: Fundamental differences between quantitative and qualitative research strategies

	Quantitative	Qualitative
Principal orientation to the role of theory	Deductive; testing of theory	Inductive; generation of theory

in relation to research		
Epistemological orientation	Natural science model, in particular positivism	Interpretivism
Ontological orientation	Objectivism	Constructionism

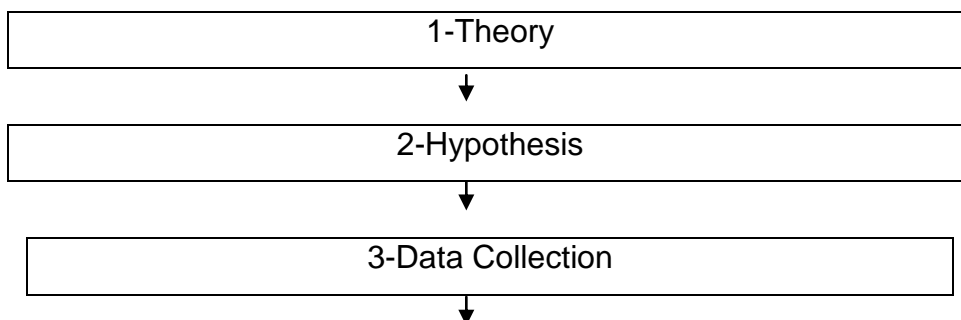
Source: Bryman and Bell (2003)

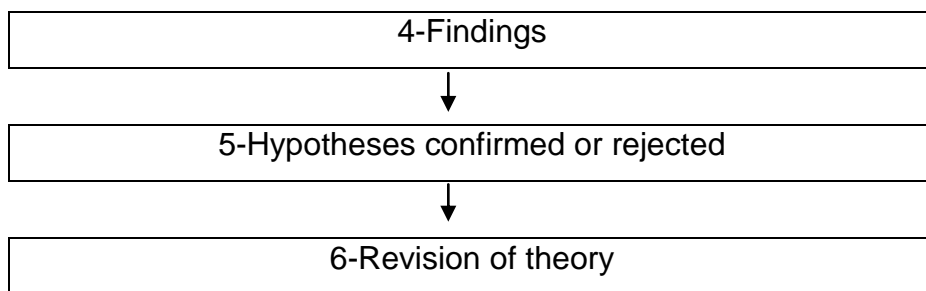
It could be concluded that the research strategy specifies the direction of business research and then the research approach. So, it is now time to shed light on the research approach in the following section.

4.2.3 Research Approaches

In this section, the most common approaches in the research methods are displayed. There are two main research approaches: deductive and inductive research. The deductive research is a study in which the researcher uses the empirical observation to develop and then test the theoretical and conceptual structure; thus particular instances are deduced from general inferences (Collis and Hussey, 2003). In this regard, the deductive approach moves from the general to the particular. On the other hand, inductive research is a study in which the theory developed from the observation of empirical reality (Collis and Hussey, 2003). In contrary to the deductive research, the inductive approach moves from the particular to the general. The sequence of deduction process is described in the following Figure:

Figure 4.1: The process of deduction





Source: Bryman and Bell (2007)

Contrary to the deductive approach, the connection is reversed according to inductive approach. The connection is as follows: Observations/findings→ theory (Bryman and Bell, 2003). Finally, we can say that if the researcher must follow the deductive approach, in which to develop a theory, they formulate the hypothesis, and lastly design their research strategy, or the inductive approach, in which the researcher will gather data and develop theory as a result of their data analysis (Saunders et al, 2006). The main differences between deductive and inductive approaches are shown in the next Table:

Table 4.4: Major differences between deductive and inductive approaches

Deductive emphasises	Inductive emphasises
Scientific principle	Gaining an understanding of the meanings humans attach to events
Moving from theory to data	A close understanding of the research context
The need to explain causal relationships between variables	The collection of qualitative data
The collection of quantitative data	A more flexible structure to permit changes of research emphasis as the research progresses
The application of controls to ensure validity of data	A realisation that the researcher is part of the research process
The operationalisation of concepts to ensure clarity of definition
A highly structured approach

Researcher independence of what being researched
The necessity to select samples of sufficient size in order to generalise conclusions.

Source: Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2006)

4.2.4 Research Design

Research design is the science of planning procedures to conduct studies for getting the results (Vogt, 1993: 196 in Collis and Hussey, 2003). The chosen research design indicates the decisions about the priority being given to various dimensions of the research process (Bryman and Bell, 2007). Moreover, Collis and Hussey (2003) claim that determining the research design gives the researcher a detailed plan that they can use it for guiding and focusing on the research. More simply, research design is finding answers to the research questions (Lee and Lings, 2008). The research design is overviewed as shown in the following Figure:

Figure 4.2: Overview of research design

Identify research problem
Determine purpose of research
Develop theoretical framework
Define research questions/hypotheses
Define terms
Identify limitations of study
Decide methodology
Determine expected outcome

Source: Collis and Hussey (2003)

Although a qualitative research design seems more suitable for research concerning perceptions and attitudes, methods of qualitative research, such as case studies and phenomenological studies, and qualitative research techniques, such as observations and interviews, allow researchers to observe, study, and inquire in a direct way about individuals' perceptions of others (Ary et al, 2006). However, such kinds of research are very limited because the individuals' real attitudes in qualitative research may lie in their subconscious and only surface in a quantitative study that allows freedom to respond.

Leadership research has long been associated mainly with a quantitative research approach that is epistemologically steered primarily by positivistic assumptions and preferences (Ospina, 2004; Jackson and Parry, 2008). Indeed, by reviewing the philosophical approach in general, we can now specify under which philosophical approach this research is classified. This study aims to investigate the interaction influence of follower's *power distance orientation* and gender of the leader on evaluation on transformational and transactional leaders. As such, it is an explanatory study hoping to find out and explain the relationship between gender, culture as measured by *power distance orientation*, and evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders. Therefore, this research is categorised under the positivistic research paradigm using the quantitative method because the aim of this research is to find out how followers with high or low *power distance orientation*, feel about transformational and transactional leaders. This research is also deductive rather than inductive using a questionnaire design to test the eight formulated hypotheses.

The questionnaire is a field of research which has been chiefly related to a particular method of data collection (Bryman, 2011). For instance, Friedrich et al (2009: 57) point out to "the questionnaire-based approach as the typical leadership study". Since the early 1950s, many of the core traditions of leadership research have comprised the measurement of constructs through scales derived from questionnaires (Bryman, 2011). For instance, research on transformational leadership and charismatic leadership associated with the new leadership tradition (Bass, 1985; Conger and Kanungo, 1999). Therefore, using the questionnaire as a

source of data for this study is not surprising given the suitability and extensive use of the method in the leadership research.

4.2.5 Ethical Issues

This study followed the Code of Research Ethics of Brunel University, which requires ethical form to be submitted to the Business School's Research Ethics Committee via Ulink for approval prior to data collection. The ethical form and the final version of the questionnaire were attached. Since the research involves human participants, a research consent form was also presented (see appendix 1). It showed the title of the research, the researcher's details. The purpose of this research, what it involved and the confidentiality and the voluntary nature of participation were presented in the beginning of the questionnaire (see appendices 7, 8, 9, 10 (English versions) and 11, 12, 13, 14 (Arabic versions)). Approval was granted prior to the research being conducted.

4.3 RESEARCH AND ORGANIZATION CONTEXT

4.3.1 Syrian Culture

Syria is one of the key countries in the world because of its historical legacy, religious legacy, geographical location and features of tourist attraction before its political and religious conflicts in 2011 (Megheirkouni, 2014). Syria as a non-Western country is categorised, according to Hofstede (1980, 2001), as having a *collective* culture, high in *power distance*, moderately *masculine*, and high in terms of *uncertainty avoidance*. Syria ranks 108 out of 157 on the global human development index (HDI), and in terms of the gender development indicator (GDI), ranks 96 from 157 (Human Report 2007-2008), placing it well within the category of 'medium human development'. Syria's overall Gender Gap Index (GGI) in 2008 was 107 out of 130 countries, scoring .618.

Syria is an Arab republic; Syria borders Turkey to the north, Iraq to the east, Jordan to the south, and Lebanon and the Mediterranean Sea to the West. Its population in July 2012 was 22,530,746. It is 71,000 square miles (183,900 square kilometres) in area. The major industries are oil, agriculture, and textiles. Wheat is the largest crop followed by cotton, vegetables, beans, and fruits. Since the late 1990s, Syria has been a net exporter of many agricultural products while at the same time it imports significant amounts of staple products, such as sugar, rice, vegetable oil, maize, dairy products and meat. The social culture of Syria is characterised by Islamic beliefs, traditions, and norms of behaviours. Syria is an Islamic country. 90.3% of people are Arab, while it is estimated that between 3 and 9 percent of the population are Kurds. In Syria, the most important part of life is family; many generations of the same family live together. Moreover, elderly members of the family are respected and have many family persons to look after them (Lonelyplanet.com). Women in Syria enjoy more rights than in most Arab and Islamic countries (Jabbour, 2006). While women have now been given the right to receive the same level/type of education as that available to men and to look for employment, traditional attitudes view women as 'lesser' beings. A woman is viewed as a follower to a man rather than a person in her own right. Although Syrian family, school, and society tend to look at both genders in the same way, the traditional and classical rules which relate to habits, traditions, and social norms make male members the second leader in the context of the family. In this regard, strict rules are applied with regard to sisters' behaviors (Megheirkouni, 2014).

In the National Human Development Report of 2005, a survey was carried out on male and female students regarding the relation between education and women's work. The results indicate that the stereotypical view of the role of women is held; 84% of those interviewed believe that women's main role is within the home and 89% believe that there are certain jobs suitable only for women. It is noted that perceptual changes in Syria toward women from decades ago served to help women to compete with men strongly in all aspects of life education and employment, not only in state and non-profit organizations supported or managed by governments, but it is seen in for-profit sector organizations that have been raised to the surface from all directions and nationalities, which increased the opportunities to design,

adopt, implement leadership development for Syrian women leaders (Megheirkouni, 2014).

Labor force participation rates in Syria vary substantially by age, gender, and socio economic status (Buckner and Saba, 2010). There is a considerable gender imbalance in the labor market due to both women's low labor force participation rates and their higher rates of unemployment (Buckner and Saba, 2010). Consequently, young women make up only 15.1 percent of all working youth, while young men account for 84.9 percent (UNFPA/SCFA, 2008). While the labor force participation rate for men remains above 90 percent between the ages 25-45, women's labor force participation rate peaks in their late 20s at 21.3 percent and then falls back into the teens for women over 30. This is most likely the effect of marriage, as married women are much less likely to work than single women (Buckner and Saba, 2010). Consequently, women under age 30 make up 58 percent of women in the workforce (Abdel-Wahid, 2009). According to the 2005 school-to-work transition survey, the most common reasons for female inactivity are: family refusal (33.3 percent), housework (31.5 percent), and child care commitments (12.2 percent) (Alissa, 2007). Socio economic status also affects young people's decision to work (Buckner and Saba, 2010). A 2008 survey by the Syrian Commission for Family Affairs (SCFA) found that youth from poorer families tend to enter the labor market earlier. The average age that youth from poor families enter the labor market is 13, while those from middle class tend to start working at age 15 and those from wealthy families start at age 17. This is attributable to the fact that most youth state financial need as the primary factor behind their decision to search for work (UNFPA/SCFA, 2008). The types of jobs young people find also differ by class and region (Buckner and Saba, 2010). Of employed youth between the ages of 15-24, 53.6 percent are employed in full-time jobs, 33.2 percent part-time and 13.2 percent as seasonal employees. Rural youth, however, are much more likely to work in part-time or seasonal jobs, while urban youth are more likely to work full-time. For example, 61 percent of working urban youth have full-time jobs, but only 42 percent of employed rural youth do. In comparison, 21 percent of employed rural youth work seasonally, compared to only 7.7 percent of working urban youth (UNFPA/SCFA, 2008).

4.3.2 Public Sector in Syria

Many young people are drawn to work in the public sector, considering that wages in the public sector tend to be higher on average than those in the private sector, while also offering more job security and better benefits (Buckner and Saba, 2010). However, rates of public sector employment differ by gender and education level. In 2007, 31 percent of all employed females (15-29) and 13 percent of employed males worked in the public sector (Kabbani, 2009). Moreover, only 2 percent of females with less than a primary education worked in the public sector, as compared to 90 percent of females with a degree from an Intermediate Institute (two-year vocational college) and 68 percent of females with a university education. These figures indicate that higher education helps women access the public sector to a greater extent than it helps males. In 2007, 61 percent of males with a degree from an intermediate institute and 59 percent of those with a university education worked in the public sector (Kabbani, 2009). Recognizing the inability of the public sector to absorb more workers, however, the Syrian government has been trying to promote employment in the private sector for the past few years (Buckner and Saba, 2010). The Syrian government is expanding the private service sector and encouraging local investment. This sector is experiencing apparent growth accounting for 60 percent of the human capital of the Syrian economy, as noted in the Country Commercial Guide: Syria (US Dept of Commerce, 1998). In 2003, over 80 percent of the unemployed youth and 90 percent of unemployed young women were interested in public sector work; yet, a 2009 poll indicates that only 55 percent of Syrian youth say they prefer public sector jobs (Gallup, 2009). These findings could suggest changing public opinion about public sector work. At the public universities, men and women account for equal percentages of enrolments, 50.5 percent men to 49.5 percent women (Buckner and Saba, 2010). Prior to the crisis, the majority of the Syrian workforce was employed in the services sector, including the public sector, tourism, financial services and transport. Apart from the public sector, all services in Syria face major disruptions in productivity due to the on-going conflict (SNAP, 2013).

The public sector, covering all government services including civil administration, public health services and the military, is the largest single employer in Syria,

accounting for around 30% of the country's workforce and continues to be an important source of income for many households (SNAP, 2013). The sector offers the highest average salaries. (ILO, 2009; ODI, 2011; MEPC, 2013). Although little information is available on the subject, it seems that public sector employees continue to receive salaries, even in areas controlled by opposition forces. The exception is in Ar-Raqqa, where government salaries have reportedly not been paid since the city fell to opposition groups. In parts of the country it is increasingly difficult to receive government salaries, normally distributed via bank accounts, as the banking system has been severely disrupted and insecurity is hampering access to the limited number of functioning ATMs (Tishreen 2013/07/02, Assafir 2013/07/02). Some experts suggest that public expenditure has risen as the government tries to maintain its support base and payment of its employees, reportedly allocating SYP 497 billion for the salaries of state employees (military and civil) in 2013. The public sector accounted for 30% of the workforce in 2011. Public sector salaries increased from 10.8% of GDP in 2010 to 19.3% in the first quarter of 2013. The 2013 budget revealed a 13% rise in public sector wages. Employees in a large part of the country continue to receive their salary. A presidential decree issued at the end of June 2013 offered a raise for the public sector, which could reach up to 40% depending on the salary of the civil servant. (Syrian Centre for Policy Research 2013/01, SANA 2013/06/13, Al Monitor 2013/04/23, Daily Star 2013/06/30). Post the crisis in Syria, Moderet Al Tarbia in Latakia city, which is part of the public service sector in Syria, still, exists and is fine and the employees get their incomes monthly and regularly. More details about Moderet Al Tarbia in Latakia city in Syria is provided next.

4.3.3 Moderet Al Tarbia

Syrian organizations are in a period of rapid change (Alamir, 2010). It is noted that organizations, regardless of their types, state, for-profit and non-profit sectors rapidly become to pay attention to human resource development including leadership by increasing the development budgets on training and development and for designing leadership development programs in order to develop leaders, but these efforts are still not enough for helping to ensure effective and successful leadership development and the efforts placed for developing leaders across all leadership

positions are seen as one of the most critical barriers in this regard (Madsen, 2008), and Moderet al Tarbia, as an organization, is no exception in Syria.

Moderet al Tarbia is a public service organization which is neither dominated by males or by females, that is, it is an organization not dominated by either gender. The number of employees is about 500 employees (257 male and 243 female). This organization is located in Latakia, a city which is the principal port city of Syria. In addition to serving as a port, the city is a manufacturing centre for surrounding agricultural towns and villages. It is the fifth largest city in Syria after Aleppo, Damascus, Homs and Hama, and it borders Tartus to the south, Hama to the east, and Idlib to the north. The employees in the organization show higher levels of loyalty. The main jobs of the manager of the Moderet al Tarbia is to supervise the organization's policies and strategies, make face to face visits to the schools in Latakia to be sure that the process of education in schools is going well and matched to the plans, supervise the examination process in all schools in the city, issue students' certificates for primary, secondary and high schools, invigilation and so on. It organizes the job of more than 1000 schools in the city. The structure of the organization is reflected in the Appendix 24 (Arabic version) and Appendix 25 (English version).

4.4 RESEARCH METHODS

4.4.1 Measures

Three measures are used in this study. One, *power distance orientation* is assessed by using an eight-item individual-level measure taken from Earley and Erez (1997). Two, two vignettes are used to describe a leader's behavior in a particular situation. Three, the transformational and transactional leadership behaviors are measured by using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Avolio and Bass, 2002b). The original questionnaire used was developed in English so translation and back-translation was followed to avoid changing meaning for all the questions.

One: Power Distance Orientation

Power distance was originally conceptualized and has often been considered as a country-level dimension (Hofstede, 2001). Our use of the *power distance dimension* at the *individual* level of analysis is consistent with other research (Dorfman and Howell, 1988; Earley, 1999; Brockner et al, 2001; Kirkman et al, 2006; Chen and Aryee, 2007; Farh et al, 2007; Kim and Leung, 2007; Kirkman et al, 2009) for a review of *individual level power distance orientation* studies. Following previous individual-level research (Earley, 1999; Kim and Leung, 2007, Kirkman et al, 2009), we assessed follower's *power distance orientation* using a measure presented by Earley and Erez (1997) based on Hofstede's (1980) construct definition (Earley, 1999). Prior to reading their vignettes, to evaluate the expected cultural difference in *power distance*, participants completed a self-report measure of their *power distance* beliefs. The items were:

- 1-In most situations, managers should make decisions without consulting their subordinates.
- 2-In work-related matters, managers have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates.
- 3-Employees who often question authority sometimes keep their managers from being effective.
- 4-Once a top-level executive makes a decision; people working for the company should not question it.
- 5-Employees should not express disagreements with their managers.
- 6-Managers should be able to make the right decisions without consulting with others.
- 7-Managers who let their employees participate in decisions lose power.
- 8-A company's rules should not be broken-not even when the employee thinks it.

Responses to each item were ranged from (1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree.

Two: Vignettes

Vignettes, such as the one used in this study have often been used effectively in research on gender and leadership (Powell et al, 2008). Some vignettes have included a description of a leader's behavior (Griffin, 1992), while others have included a leader operating in the context of a real-world situation (Embry et al, 2008; Powell et al, 2008; Welty and Burton, 2010).

Griffin (1992) used a vignette in her study of gender and leadership; her vignette featured a description of a leader as having specific leadership characteristics and measured participants' evaluation of male and female leaders exhibiting either an authoritative or authoritarian leadership style. Her results revealed that leaders who exhibited a gender-consistent leadership style were rated more positively than leaders who did not.

Embry et al (2008) used a vignette to study gender and leadership in which an androgynously named sales leader showed characteristics associated with either a masculine or a feminine leadership style. In part, participants were asked to rate the leader and specify whether the leader was female or male based on the leader's behaviors in the vignettes. They found that the leader exhibiting a feminine leadership style of leadership as female and the leader exhibiting a masculine leadership style was identified as male.

The vignette used in this thesis was adapted from the vignette used by Powell et al (2008) to test gender and leadership in the context of a fictional financial services company by describing a male and female leader exhibiting either a transformational or a transactional leadership style. Powell et al (2008) asked participants to rate the leader both on gender and leadership style with the gender of the participant serving as an additional variable. Their results showed that female transformational leaders were rated more positively than male leaders exhibiting the very same leadership style. Welty and Burton (2010) similarly used the same vignettes to examine both gender and leadership style, successfully adapted the vignettes to the context of a collegiate athletic department. Their results were similar to Powell et al (2008) in that the transformational leadership style was viewed more positively than the transactional leadership style. Dean (2013) adapted the same vignette to the context

of a community college and, because gender was the primary focus of that research, the transformational leadership style was used as a control only. Both leaders exhibit a transformational leadership style and evaluations of the leader were being analyzed according to the gender of the leader and the interaction of the leader's gender with the participant's gender.

“Since context is especially important in understanding gender effects (Butterfield and Grinnell, 1999), as well as leadership in general (Porter and McLaughlin, 2006), the context chosen in an experimental study needs to avoid being either male-typed (e.g. manufacturing and construction) or female typed (e.g. health care and education)” (Powell et al, 2008: 162). Powell et al (2008) vignettes were placed in the financial services industry, a field not dominated by either sex (U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2006). Powell et al (2008) vignettes were used in different contexts. For examples: Welty and Burton (2010) used those vignettes successfully in collegiate athletic department and Dean (2013) used those vignettes in a community college in North Carolina. Those vignettes are used in the Moderet al Tarbia organization in Latakia in Syria.

As discussed earlier in the literature review, a large body of research has examined transformational and transactional leadership beyond a North American context. For example, Yokochi (1989) in Japan, Dorfman and Howell (1996) examined the display of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors in Mexico, as did Den Hartog et al (1999) in 62 cultures including Africa, Asia, Europe (central, Eastern and Northern), Latin America, North America, Middle East (Qatar, Turkey, Egypt, and Kuwait), and the Pacific Rim, Kuchinke (1999) in Germany, Ardichvili (2001) in Russia, Georgia, Kazakhstan and Kyrgystan, Ardichvili and Gasparishvili (2001) in Eastern Europe, Ardichvili and Kuchinke (2002) in Russia, Georgia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgystan, Germany and USA, Dastoor et al (2003) in Thailand, Spreitzer et al (2005) in Asia and North America, Ergeneli et al (2007) in Turkey, Pakistan and Kazakhstan, Jogulu and Wood (2008) in Malaysia and Australia, Kirkman et al (2009) in China and United states, Rohmman and Rowold (2009) in Germany, Jogulu (2010) in Malaysia and Australia, Yassen (2010) in UAE, Taleb (2010) in Saudi Arabia, Leong and Fischer (2011) in Australia, Canada, China, France, Germany, Greece, India, Italy, Kenya, Korea, South Netherlands, New Zealand,

Singapore, Spain, Taiwan, UK, and USA, Al abduljader (2012) in Kuwait, Bin Zahari and Shurbagi (2012) in Libya, Metwally (2014) in Egypt, in all these studies, researchers found evidence for the existence of transformational leadership behaviors in each culture.

Zakzouk (2001) argues that the West and the East are not separated as there has been always religious and cultural communication between them. However, Bass (1997: 130) states: "There is universality in the transactional-transformational leadership paradigm. That is, the same conception of phenomena and relationships can be observed in a wide range of organizations and cultures. The paradigm is sufficiently broad to provide a basis for measurement and understanding that is as universal as the concept of leadership itself. Here, universal does not imply constancy of means, variances, and correlations across all situations but rather explanatory constructs good for all situations". Bass (1997) suggests a universal position regarding the cross-cultural transferability of transformational leadership. This kind of culture-free approach assumes that core leadership constructs should be similar or invariant across cultures. Bass (1997) believed that transformational leadership should travel well across cultures (Muenjohn and Armstrong, 2007). Dorfman and Howell (1997) have found support for the conceptual and measurement equivalence of a variety of different leader constructs. In addition, the path breaking GLOBE research program (a network of 170 social scientists in 61 cultures around the world) (House et al, 1999) also provides important empirical evidence for the universal perspective on the effectiveness of transformational behavior. They found that some leadership behaviors characteristic of transformational leadership appear to be universally endorsed across the 61 cultures in their study: 'encouraging', 'positive', 'motivational', 'confidence builder', 'dynamic', 'excellence-oriented' and 'foresight.' Dastoor et al (2003) conducted a study in Thailand and their results supported Bass's (1998) claim of universal applicability for his model. As the landmark of research GLOBE announced it as a niversal leadership style in the cross cultural context (Deveshwar and Aneja, 2014).

On the other hand, some researchers suggest that both simple universal and culture-specific perspectives are relevant to transformational leadership (Spreitzer et al, 2005). Dickson et al (2001) review how Hunt and Peterson's (1997) assessment of

the articles in the special issue of the *Leadership Quarterly* on cross-cultural leadership found that all 10 articles emphasized both culture-specific and simple universal results. For example, Dorfman and Howell (1997) found that there are commonalities and differences in effective leadership across cultures. The results of their study in two Western and three Asian countries support Bass's (1990) contention about the validity of both the simple universal and the culture-specific perspectives of several leadership behaviors. Two behaviors tangentially related to transformational leadership (leader supportiveness and charisma) showed simple universal endorsement in all five countries; and two leader behaviors tangentially related to transformational leadership (participativeness and directiveness) had positive endorsements only in the Western countries. Boehnke et al (2003) also found commonalities and differences in a study of executives from America, Northern Europe, Southern Europe, Latin America, the Far East, and the Commonwealth. They found that key transformational leadership behaviors are universal; however, the applications of these behaviors appear to be tailored to national differences. For example, Americans reported more team building behaviors than their Far East colleagues and more stimulating behaviors than southern Europeans. Jung et al (1995) offer theoretical arguments on the functional universality of transformational leadership behaviors. They suggest that transformational leadership is not only generalizable but also that it is more important in collectivistic societies, such as Syria the scope of this study which is classified according to Hofstede (1980, 2001) as a collective culture, than in individualistic ones, because the cultural values that followers hold in a collectivistic society are often more aligned with transformational leaders' focus on collective mission, goals, and responsibilities. Although some studies emphasized a 'culture-specific' perspective of leadership effectiveness (Dickson et al, 2003), recent empirical research has found the effectiveness of transformational leadership across cultures, supporting Bass's (1997) 'universal' perspective (Dastoor et al, 2003; Madzar, 2005; Wang et al, 2005; Muenjohn and Armstrong, 2007). Following the work of (Dastoor et al, 2003; Madzar, 2005; Wang et al, 2005; Muenjohn and Armstrong, 2007), we assume that the behaviors of transformational and transactional leadership are meaningful across Eastern and Western cultures. Therefore, the universality of transformational and transactional leadership model give us confidence in applying

the Powell et al (2008) vignettes which were used in the USA context in the Syrian context.

The argument here for using those vignettes in an Arab Middle East country such as Syria is that human beings are similar all over the world, and thus human beings' behaviors ought to be the same in terms of their leadership styles and concepts.

The vignette technique gives respondents one or more scenarios and then questions them on how they believe that those within the vignettes would respond when dealing with the circumstances presented to them in those scenarios (Bryman and Bell, 2007). When the subject of research is a sensitive one, such as how women or men think or behave in the context of work, as here, if people are asked for their views on their own experiences, there is a likelihood that respondents may see the questions as a threat to them and/or respondents may feel that they are being judged by the responses that they give (Bryman and Bell, 2007). When the questions are about imaginary people, as in the vignette technique, there is a suitable distance between those being asked and their own experiences and it provides for a less threatening context (Bryman and Bell, 2007). The vignette technique has long been utilised in research about leadership (Bartol and Butterfield, 1976). Evidence from studies which have gathered data using paper person approach in vignettes provide results which are the same as those results obtained from direct observation (Woehr and Lance, 1991). This explains the selection of vignettes and an associated questionnaire for the purpose of this study.

In the vignettes, either a male or a female manager exhibited either a transformational or a transactional leadership style. Male transformational leader vignettes (N=120), female transformational leader vignettes (N=114), male transactional leader vignettes (N=110) and female transactional leader vignettes (N=93). These (male and/or female) vignettes were identical in terms of actual content but 'different' in that, say, the word 'he did x' or 'he said y' was changed to 'she did x' or 'she said y'. That is, respondents were presented with identical scenarios save only that the gender of the leader described within the scenario was given a male or female name and all words such as 'he', 'his', 'him' and similar were

changed to 'she', 'her' and similar. An example (transformational leadership vignette) is as follows:

Male transformational leader vignette is: 'One area where Sameer has been particularly successful is in calming the tattered nerves of the organization's stockholders. During a recent meeting of the major stockholders, Sameer demonstrated his excellent communication skills'.

The other vignette, for the female, is: 'One area where Sarah has been particularly successful is in calming the tattered nerves of the organization's stockholders. During a recent meeting of the major stockholders, Sarah demonstrated her excellent communication skills'.

Another example (transactional leader vignette) is as follows:

Male transactional leader vignette is: 'One area where Sameer has been particularly successful is in calming the tattered nerves of managers during the annual performance review/business planning cycle. Sameer demonstrated that the organization is better off when it implements incentives for good performance and addresses performance problems before they get out of hand'.

The other vignette, for the female, is 'One area where Sarah has been particularly successful is in calming the tattered nerves of managers during the annual performance review/business planning cycle. Sarah demonstrated that the organization is better off when it implements incentives for good performance and addresses performance problems before they get out of hand'.

Three: The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

To assess the leader's behavior in the vignette, participants who were asked to read the vignette; completed the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ-Form 5X, Avolio and Bass, 2002b). The study administered a multifactor leadership questionnaire because transformational and transactional leadership theories were

argued to have universal application, and as such this Questionnaire is suitable for use in any cultural setting, including that of Syria (Avolio and Bass, 2004). The instrument, as with any instrument, has been criticized in some areas of its measurement factors (Northouse, 1997; Yukl, 1998; Charbonneau, 2004; Muenjohn, 2008). The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) assesses nine leadership facets. The instrument, however, is often criticized as the five transformational facets cannot be empirically distinguished and contingent reward a transactional aspect shows high correlations with the transformational scales (Muenjohn and Armstrong, 2008). After acknowledging the MLQ criticisms by refining several versions of the instruments, the version of the MLQ, Form 5X (Avolio and Bass, 2002), is considered to be fit for purpose in terms of adequately capturing the full leadership factor constructs of transformational leadership theory. The questionnaire uses five main scales for measuring transformational leadership: *idealized influence attributes*, *idealized influence behavior*, *inspirational motivation*, *individual consideration*, and *intellectual stimulation*. Also, it uses three scales for measuring transactional leadership: *contingent reward*, *management-by-exception: active*, and *management-by-exception: passive*. One scale was described as non-leadership (*laissez-faire*). Although the MLQ had been criticized in some areas for its conceptual framework, it is considered as the most popular used measure of transformational and transactional leadership (Eagly et al, 2003; Kirkbride, 2006), and “is considered the best validated measure of transformational and transactional leadership” (Ozaralli, 2003: 338, Northouse, 2004).

The questionnaire has a well-established reliability and validity as a leadership instrument for both industries and service settings (Muenjohn and Armstrong, 2008). Therefore, this should provide us with confidence in using the MLQ 5x version to measure the leadership factors representing transformational, and transactional, leadership behaviors in a public service organization such as Moderet al Tarbia in Latakia in Syria. There are many reasons for choosing the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire for this study. The first reason is that the MLQ was utilized as a questionnaire instrument in most of the research on leadership styles (Sribenjachot, 2007), and this questionnaire has been used historically as the main quantitative instrument to test the transformational and transactional leadership style (Lowe et al, 1996). The second reason is that almost 200 research programs, master’s theses,

and doctoral dissertations around the world used the MLQ (Avolio et al, 1995). Participants evaluate the transformational leader's behavior on five dimensions, namely, *idealized influence-attributes*, *idealized influence-behavior*, *inspirational motivation*, *intellectual stimulation*, and *individualized consideration*. Responses for the transformational leadership dimensions are reported on a 5-point Likert-type scale, which is one of the most frequently encountered formats for measuring attitudes (Bryman and Bell, 2007). 20 items were used for transformational leadership style (items 1 to 4 provide information about *idealized influence attributes*, items 5 to 8 provide information about *idealized influence behavior*, items 9 to 12 provide information about *inspirational motivation*, items 13 to 16 provide information about *intellectual stimulation*, items 17 to 20 provide information about *individualized consideration*).

Also, participants evaluate the transactional leader's behavior on three dimensions, namely, *contingent reward*, *management by exception: active*, and *management by exception: passive*. 12 items were used for transactional leadership style (items 1 to 4 provide information about *contingent reward*, items 5 to 8 provide information about *management by exception: active*, and items 9 to 12 provide information about *management by exception: passive*). Respondents value whether the leader (4) frequently, if not always, (3) fairly often, (2) sometimes, (1) once in a while, or (0) not at all. The vignette and the questionnaire items are in the Appendices. The eight scales are summarized in the Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Scales of transformational and transactional leadership styles

Scales of transformational leadership	Description of leadership style
Idealized influence attribute	Instilling pride in and respect for the leader
Idealized influence behavior	Representation of a trustworthy and energetic role model for the follower
Inspirational motivation	Communication and representation of a vision; leader's optimism and enthusiasm
Intellectual stimulation	Followers are encouraged to question established ways of solving problems

Individualized consideration	Understanding the needs and abilities of each follower; developing and empowering the individual follower
Scales of transactional leadership	Description of leadership style
Contingent reward	Defining the exchanges between what is expected from the follower and what the follower will receive in return
Management-by-exception active	To maintain current performance status; the focus is on detecting and correcting errors or problems
Management-by-exception passive	Addressing problems only after they have become serious

Source: Rohmann and Rowold (2009)

The original questionnaire was in the English version. Therefore, as the subjects are Arabic speakers, an Arabic version is needed. According to Usunier (1998), there are many techniques to translate the source questionnaire. The advantages and disadvantages of these techniques are shown in Table 4.6. In this Table, the questionnaire is called the source questionnaire, and the translated questionnaire is called the target questionnaire.

Table 4.6: Translation techniques for questionnaire

	Direct translation	Back translation	Parallel translation	Mixed techniques
Approach	Source questionnaire to target questionnaire	source questionnaire to target questionnaire; comparison of two new source	Source questionnaire to target questionnaire by two or more independent translators; comparison of two target	Back-translation undertaken by two or more independent translators; comparison of two new

		questionnaires ; creation of final version	questionnaires ; creation of final version	source questionnaire s, creation of final version
Advantages	Easy to implement, relatively inexpensive	Likely to discover most problems	Leads to good wording of target questionnaire	Ensures best match between source and target questionnaire s
disadvantages	Can lead to many discrepancies (including those relating to meaning) between source and target questionnaire	Requires two translators, one a native speaker of the source language, the other a native speaker of the target language	Cannot ensure that lexical, idiomatic and experiential meanings are kept in target questionnaire	Costly, requires two or more independent translators, implies that the source questionnaire can also be changed

Source: Developed from Usunier (1998)

According to the advantages of the back translation technique, it was used to develop an equivalent Arabic version of the instrument. The source questionnaire (English version) was translated to the target questionnaire (Arabic version) by the researcher; the Arabic version was translated to English by an Arabic PhD student at Brunel University in the UK. Then, the target questionnaire was checked by another native Arabic speaker, and comparison between the source questionnaire and the translated questionnaire from Arabic to English language was done by a native English speaker to find out whether there was any mistranslation and to ensure that no changing of any meaning had taken place. During this process, the emphasis was on the concept rather than the exact words. By doing so, unintended variations in

items, which can cause problems during data collection, were resolved. The Arabic version of the questionnaire was distributed personally, face to face, during visits made to the employees at their workplace.

4.4.2 Participants

A total of four hundred and forty four Syrian employees returned a complete and useable questionnaire in this study. The employees were working in Moderet al Tarbia in Latakia in Syria. 51.57% (n=229) of participants of whom were male, most participants 48.19% (n=214) were between 20 and 30 years old, and the majority of the respondents 70.04% (n=311) were working at the operational level (see Table 4.7).

Table 4.7: Demographic characteristics of participants

Demographic	Category	Frequencies
Gender	Male	229
	Female	215
Age	20-30	214
	31-40	145
	41-50	64
	51-60	20
	60 and above	1
Employment level	Operational level	311
	Managerial level	118
	Strategic management level	15

Source: Developed for the study

4.4.3 Procedures

First, a pilot study was conducted to improve the questionnaire used in the main study so that there was not any problem in completing the questionnaire by respondents and there would be no problems during the recording of the data. To be informed about problems during completing the self-administered questionnaires, the respondents were given a further short questionnaire (Saunders et al, 2000). The further short questionnaire was designed by using Bell's (2005) suggestion to find out:

The spent time for completing the questionnaire.

If the instructions were clear.

Which, if any, questions were unclear.

Which, if any, questions the respondent felt difficult to answer.

Whether the respondent felt the layout was clear and attractive.

Any other comments.

Each completed questionnaire was checked to be sure that participants had understood, had answered questions without any problems and had followed the instructions correctly (Fink, 2003b). The questionnaire was randomly distributed to forty employees by the researcher. Four forms of vignettes, either male or female transformational vignette, or male or female transactional vignette, were used. Thirty seven were completed and returned which reveals a response rate of 92.5%. The minimum time taken to complete the questionnaire was 10 minutes and the maximum time taken to complete it was 20 minutes. Two words were suggested to be replaced. One, the word 'organization'. Two, the word 'leader'. The word 'organization' was replaced by 'company' because this is/was more easily understood by respondents. The word 'leader' was replaced by 'manager' because the word 'leader' carries with it the notion or underpinning of a political leader, a leader in the sense of either a country, or in a war situation. In addition, whilst the English language has two, different, words for what is, often, the same position in a company/organization ('leader' and 'manager' are terms often used interchangeably for the same person), there is no such distinction or two different words in Arabic; there is only one in the business context, that is, 'manager'. Given that Syria is currently politically unstable, and that no distinction exists between 'leader' and 'manager' in the business area, a less emotive and more easily understood word,

'manager' was selected, for ease of understanding. Having looked at the company/organization in question, the duties of the people involved are considered those of either a 'leader' or 'manager' in the Western sense of the word, so using only the word 'manager' does not dilute or change its meaning in the Syrian context. It should be noted that the word 'leader' in the vignettes has, in other studies, been amended in order to better fit the cultural context (see, for example, Dean, 2013, who used the same vignettes but who had changed the word 'leader' in the MLQ to the word 'president').

The main study was done in October 2010. The participants were asked if they would not mind doing the study from December 2009, so approval from that time was obtained. The questionnaire was distributed personally and face to face in visits to 470 employees. Four hundred and forty four usable questionnaires were returned which reveals a high response rate of 94.5%. All participants were free to complete the questionnaire at a time and place of their own choosing and then the completed questionnaires were collected. To encourage respondents to participate and to increase the response rate, a covering letter emphasising the confidentiality of their responses was provided. The participants were instructed to answer as directed, and were told that there was no need to spend a long time pondering on the 'right' response to a question and instead to simply go with their first thoughts. They were also assured that this study was only for academic purposes and confidentiality was guaranteed. Before distributing the questionnaire, participants were told that they would be participating in one out of four forms of questionnaire; the four forms of the questionnaire were randomly and personally distributed to employees.

The participants were first asked to give information about their gender, age range, and employment level. Prior to reading the vignette, participants completed a section of the questionnaire designed to measure their own power distance orientation. Each participant then read the vignette and then completed the questions which followed.

4.5 DATA ANALYSIS TECHNIQUES

Five main steps were carried out by using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 18.2 for Windows. First, screening data prior to analysis was done. Second, scales were validated by using exploratory factor analysis (EFA). Third, reliability of the scales is tested by using Cronbach's Alpha. Fourth, ANOVA was conducted to test the effect of leader's gender on evaluation of transformational/transactional leadership. Fifth, hierarchical multiple regressions analysis was used to test the eight hypotheses (the first five hypotheses are concerning the transformational leadership style and the last three hypotheses are concerning the transactional leadership style).

4.5.1 Screening Data Prior to Analysis

Many issues such as missing data, outliers, normality, linearity and homoscedasticity of variance were conducted before running the main data analysis.

First, missing data is one of the most pervasive problems in data analysis (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2006). Its seriousness depends on the pattern of missing data, how much is missing, and why it is missing that is, the pattern of missing data is more important than the amount missing, for example, missing values scattered randomly through a data matrix pose less serious problems (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2006). SPSS MVA (Missing Value Analysis) was applied to highlight the pattern of missing values.

Second, outlier is a score very different from the rest of the data and biases the mean and inflate the standard deviation and screening data is an important way to detect them (Field, 2009). However, the outlier could be a univariate outlier which is a case with such an extreme value on one variable, or a multivariate outlier such a strange combination of scores on two or more variables that it distorts statistics (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2006). Univariate outliers can be detected graphically by applying Box plots (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2006; Field, 2009), or by applying a z scores test, where univariate outliers are cases with very large standardized scores, z scores, on one or more variables, that are disconnected from the others z scores. Cases with standardized scores in excess of 3.29 ($p < .001$, two-tailed test) are

potential outliers (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2006). However, the extremeness of a standardized score depends on the size of the sample; with a very large n , a few standardized scores in excess of 3.29 are expected (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2006). Detecting variables for univariate outliers and multivariate outliers was applied in this study.

Third, screening variables for normality is an important early step in almost every multivariate analysis. Although normality of variables is not always required for analysis, the solution is usually quite a bit better if the variables are all normally distributed (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2006). Screening variables for normality were applied by using graphical method such as histogram.

Fourth, the assumption of linearity is that there is a straight-line relationship between two variables. Linearity is important in a practical sense because Pearson's r only captures the linear relationships among variables (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2006). This assumption means that as you go through levels of one variable, the variance of the other should not change, in correlational designs, this assumption means that the variance of one variable should be stable at all levels of the other variables (Field, 2009). Hence, Pearson's correlations were applied to test the assumption of linearity.

4.5.2 Scales Validity

The need for developing theoretically as well as empirically sound measurement scales to measure unobservable constructs in management research is of paramount importance (Brahma, 2009). Campbell (1982) comments if there is no evident construct validity for the questionnaire measure or..., I am biased against the study and believe it contributes very little, this indeed encourages us to give a deeper attention to this aspect.

It is essential to test the validity and reliability of the the MLQ instrument in this empirical research, in the context of Syria, being a non-Western and Arabic context for several reasons (Flynn et al, 1994). First, analysis of validity provides confidence that the empirical findings accurately reflect the constructs. Second, empirically

validated scales can be used directly in other studies in the field for different population and longitudinal studies. From the measurement view point, four types of validity (face validity, convergent validity, discriminant validity, and nomological validity) were applied in this study using exploratory factor analysis technique (EFA).

“Factor analysis provides the tools for analyzing the structure of the interrelationships (correlations) among a large number of variables (e.g, test scores, test items, questionnaire responses) by defining sets of variables that are highly interrelated, known as factors” (Hair et al, 2006: 104). According to Hair et al (2006), factor analytic techniques can achieve this purpose from either an exploratory or confirmatory perspective, many researchers consider that only exploratory factor analysis is useful in searching for structure among a set of variables or as a data reduction method. However, exploratory factor analysis technique is used for ‘take what the data give you’.

To verify the applicability of the factor analysis, KMO test and Barlett’s test of Sphericity was used. All exploratory factor analysis was performed using the principle components method and varimax rotation with the Kaiser normalisation.

Adequacy of Sample Size

The Kaiser’s Meyer-Olkin (KMO) was used to measure sampling adequacy. Kaiser (1974) recommends a bare minimum of .5 and those values between .5 and .7 are mediocre, values between .7 and .8 are good, values between .8 and .9 are great and values above .9 are superb (Hutcheson and Sofroniou, 1999).

Factor Extraction

Many ways are available for factor extraction and rotation in SPSS. Among these, the principal component method is the most common method and a default in SPSS programs to extract maximum variance from the data set with each component (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). Given that the components method of extraction will

be used, the next decision is to select the number of components to be retained for further analysis. According to Hair et al (2006), the researcher should employ a number of different criteria to determine the number of factors to be retained for interpretation, ranging from the more subjective (e.g, selecting a number of factors a priori or specifying the percentage of variance extracted) to the more objective (latent root criterion or scree test) criteria. Not all factors are retained in analysis, and there is debate over the criterion used to decide whether a factor is statistically important (Field, 2009).

Communality

Communality is the total amount of variance an original variable shares with all other variables included in the analysis (Hair et al, 2006). To assess whether the variables meet acceptable levels of explanation, the communalities will be viewed, by specifying that at least one-half of the variance of each variable must be taken into account (Hair et al, 2006). By using this guideline, all variables above .50 are having a sufficient explanation. Items communalities are considered high if they are all .8 or greater (Velicer and Fava, 1998) but this unlikely to occur in real data (Costello and Osborne, 2005). More common magnitudes in the social sciences are low to moderate communalities of .4 to .7.

Factor Loading

Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) cite .32 as a good rule of thumb for the minimum loading of an item, which equates to approximately 10% overlapping variance with the other items in that factor. Given the sample size of 234, factor loadings of .364 and higher will be considered significant for interpretative purposes (Field, 2009). However, according to Hair et al (2010), factor loading of .4 and higher will be considered significant concerning the sample size 200 or more, (see Table 4.8), therefore, factor loading of .4 is considered to be significant.

Table 4.8: Guidelines for identifying significant factor loadings based on sample size

Factor Loading	Sample Size Needed for Significance
.30	350
.35	250
.40	200
.45	150
.50	120
.55	100
.60	85
.65	70
.70	60
.75	50

Significance is based on a .05 significance level (alpha), a power level of 80 percent, and standard errors assumed to be twice those of conventional correlation coefficients.

Source: Hair et al (2010)

4.5.3 Scales Reliability

Reliability is an assessment of the degree of consistency between multiple measurements of a variable (Hair et al, 2010). The most commonly used measure to assess the internal consistency of constructs is Cronbach's alpha (Cronbach and Meehl, 1955; Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994; Hair et al, 2010; Bryman and Bell, 2011). The generally agreed value of Cronbach's alpha is .70 or higher, although it may decrease to .60 in case of exploratory research (Hair et al, 2010). One issue in assessing Cronbach's alpha is its positive relationship to the number of items in the scale because increasing the number of items, even with the same degree of intercorrelation, will increase the reliability value (Hair et al, 2010). Furthermore, with short scales (e.g, scales with fewer than ten items), it is common to find quite low Cronbach's Alpha values (e.g, .5) (Pallant, 2007). This study applied Cronbach's alpha to calculate the internal consistency.

4.5.4 The One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

A one-way between subjects ANOVA is conducted to test the effect of gender of the leader on evaluation of the five dimensions of transformational leadership, namely, *idealized influence attributes*, *idealized influence behavior*, *inspirational motivation*, *intellectual stimulation*, and *individualized consideration*. ANOVA is also conducted to test the effect of gender of the leader on evaluation of the three dimensions of transactional leadership, namely, *contingent reward*, *management by exception: active*, and *management by exception: passive*.

4.5.5 Multiple Regression

Typically, multiple regressions are used as a data-analytic strategy to explain or predict a criterion (dependent) variable with a set of predictor (independent) variables (Petrocelli, 2003). In this research, the claim is that follower's power distance orientation interacts with gender of the leader to predict the level of transformational leadership on five dimensions (*idealized influence attributes*, *idealized influence behaviors*, *inspirational motivation*, *intellectual stimulation*, and *individualized consideration*), and to predict the level of transactional leadership on three dimensions (*contingent rewards*, *management by exception: active*, and *management by exception: passive*). However, sometimes we may be much surer about the causal importance or hierarchy of our variables (Miles and Shevlin, 2003). So, hierarchical multiple regression was used as a primary data analytic procedure by taking a close look at the logic that is used when using this method.

One: Hierarchical Multiple Regression

Hierarchical multiple regression is typically used to examine specific theoretically based hypotheses (Aron and Aron, 1999; Cohen, 2001). Hierarchical regression involves theoretically based decisions for how predictors are entered into the analysis (Petrocelli, 2003). In hierarchical multiple regression (also called sequential regression), the independent variables are entered into the equation in the order

specified by the researcher based on theoretical grounds. Variables or set of variables are entered in steps (blocks), with each independent variable being assessed in terms of what it adds to the prediction of the dependent variable after the previous variables have been controlled for (Pallant, 2010). When using hierarchical regression as the data-analytic strategy, it is important to consider that findings may depend largely on the order in which variables are entered into the analysis (Cohen and Cohen, 1983). Thus, the researcher should not ignore the causal priority in the ordering of predictor variables. So, how variables were entered in the equation is discussed next.

Two: Hierarchical Variable Entry

The literature review reveals that gender of the leader is a significant predictor to value/rate the transformational and transactional leaders. We are interested in determining if knowing a follower's *power distance orientation* adds any real predictive value over just knowing the leader's gender. A hierarchical multiple regressions were carried out. This entire means is that we enter variables into the regression model in an order determined; we will enter variables in so-called 'blocks'. In this research, it is believed that a female (transformational/transactional) leader would be rated/evaluated less than a male (transformational/transactional) leader by a follower who scores high or low on *power distance orientation*. In this case, we need to enter the main effects on the first step, and then any interaction terms in the second step. So we enter the independent variable (GOL) on the first step, followers' *power distance orientation* on the second step, and then GOL*PDO interaction on the third step. The important thing is to have the two main effects entered before the interaction term.

Gender of the leader must be considered to be primary cause of differences in evaluation of transformational/transactional leaders. But what we are really interested in is the effect that follower's power distance orientation has above and beyond the effect of leader's gender. And then to test the interaction effect of follower's power distance orientation and leader's gender on evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders. Therefore, to do this three separate

regression analyses were carried out, first with only gender of leader as the independent variable, and second with gender of leader and follower's power distance orientation as the independent variables, and finally with gender of leader and follower's power distance orientation as the independent variables plus interaction product term (i.e, the interaction between gender of leader and follower's *power distance orientation*).

So we can say, instead of only two effects to be estimated (the effects of independent variables), there are now three (the effects of the independent variables plus the effect of the interaction). Finally, before carrying out the three separate regression analyses we must first perform three steps as shown in the next section.

Three: Steps Involved in Analysing Data.

Before we analyse data, creating or transforming predictor and moderator variables (e.g, coding categorical variables, centring or standardizing continuous variables, or both), creating product terms are needed (Frazier et al, 2004).

1-Representing Categorical Variable with Code Variable

If either the predictor or moderator variable is categorical, the first step is to represent this variable with code variable. Because we have categorical variable (GOL), we need to code this variable. The number of code variables we need is the number of levels of the categorical variable minus one (Frazier et al, 2004). In the study, gender has 2 levels (being female or being male), so we need 1 code variable 1 for female, 0 for male.

2-Centering or Standardizing Continuous Variable

The second step in formulating the regression equation needs centering or standardizing the moderator variable which is measured on a continuous scale (Frazier et al, 2004).

Simulation studies have shown that hierarchical multiple regression procedures that retain the true nature of continuous variables result in fewer type 1 and type 2 errors for detecting moderator effects relative to procedures that involve the use of cut points (Bissonnette et al, 1990; Stone-Romero and Anderson, 1994; Mason et al, 1996). For that reason, retaining the continuous nature of PDO variable was preferred rather than using cut points (e.g, median splits) to create artificial groups to compare correlations between groups or examine interaction effects using ANOVA (Cohen, 1983; Jaccard et al, 1990; Aiken and West, 1991; Maxwell and Delaney, 1993; Judd et al, 1995; West et a, 1996; MacCallum et al, 2002; Cohen et al, 2003). This is because the use of cut points to create artificial groups from variables actually measured on a continuous scale results in a loss of information and a reduction in power to detect interaction effects (Frazier et al, 2004; Froslic et al, 2010).

Concerning centering or standardizing predictor and moderator variables that are measured on a continuous scale (Frazier et al, 2004). Statisticians advise that these variables have to be centered (i.e, put into deviation units by subtracting their sample mean to produce revised sample means of zero). This is because predictor and moderator variables generally are highly correlated with the interaction terms created for them. Centering reduces problems associated with multicollinearity (high correlations) among the variables in the regression equation (Cronbach, 1987; Jaccard et al, 1990; West et al, 1996; Cohen et al, 2003). However, there may be further advantages to standardizing (z scoring) rather than centering continuous predictor and moderator variables (Friedrich, 1982; Aiken and West, 1991). For example, standardizing these variables make it easier to plot significant moderator effects because convenient representative values can be substituted easily into a regression equation to obtain predicted values for representative groups when the standard deviations of these variables equal one(Cohen et al, 2003). In addition, Z scores are very easy to create within standard statistical packages. Standardizing also make it easier to interpret the effects of the predictor and moderator (Frazier et al, 2004). Centering or standardization of predictor variables is easy ways to improve the interpretability of regression coefficients (Schielzeth, 2010). “Centering will make main effects biologically interpretable even when involved in interactions and thus avoids the potential misinterpretation of main effects” (Schielzeth, 2010: 103). So,

the continuous variable (*power distance orientation*) was standardized so that it had a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1.

3-Creating Product Terms

After coding variable has been done to represent gender variable and the power distance orientation variable measured on a continuous scale have been standardized, a product term needs to be created that represents the interaction between gender and power distance orientation. To get product term, one simply multiplies together the predictor and moderator variables using the newly coded categorical variable and standardized continuous variable (Jaccard et al, 1990; Aiken and West, 1991; West et al, 1996; Cohen et al, 2003). Finally the interaction term (GOL*PDO) was created. This product term does not need to be centred or standardized (Frazier et al, 2004).

4.6 SUMMARY

The first purpose of this study was to test gender differences in evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders. Then this study examine the interaction effect of leader's gender (GOL) and follower's cultural value as measured by *power distance orientation* (PDO) at the individual level of analysis on evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders in a Syrian context. The emphasis was to explain the relationship between gender, culture, and evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders, in other words, to find out the relationship between those variables. A questionnaire was administered to a sample organization (Moderet al Tarbia) in Latakia in Syria in order to collect a large amount of data. The questionnaire research design was based on three sections. The first section includes three demographic variables (gender, age, and employment level). The second section measures the *power distance orientation* for each respondent. The third section measures transformational and transactional leaders' behavior. The original version of the questionnaire was translated from English version to an Arabic language.

A pilot study was first conducted to improve the questionnaire used in the main study. Forty questionnaires were randomly and personally distributed to employees who were working in public sector in Moderet al Tarbia in Latakia city in Syria. Thirty seven were completed and returned which reveals a response rate of 92.5%.

The main study analysis was conducted by using the improved questionnaire. Four hundred and seventy questionnaires were distributed randomly during personal visits to employees who were working at the same organization in which the pilot study was conducted. Four hundred and forty four usable questionnaires were obtained, which reveal a high response rate of 94.5%.

Finally, five data analysis techniques including screening data prior to analysis, scale validity, scale reliability, a one way of ANOVA, and multiple regressions were explained in this chapter. Chapter five discusses purification/treatment of data prior to analysis.

CHAPTER FIVE: TREATMENT/PURIFICATION OF DATA

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The literature review in chapter two and chapter three addressed gender differences in transformational and transactional leadership styles, the relationship between culture and transformational and transactional leadership behaviors, and the impact of cultural values on evaluation of leaders. The research methodology chapter explained the methods used in this study, and that the quantitative research method has been used to collect data and that the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 18.2 for Windows has been used to analyze the data. This chapter details the screening of data prior to analysis, the testing of construct validity using exploratory factor analysis (EFA), and the testing of reliability using Cronbach's alpha.

5.2 SCREENING DATA PRIOR TO ANALYSIS

This section is concerned with resolving many issues such as missing data, outliers, normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity of variance after collecting data but before running the main data analysis. Although careful consideration of these issues consume considerable time, consideration and resolution of these issues before the main analysis are fundamental to an honest analysis of data (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2006).

5.2.1 Missing Data

SPSS MVA (Missing Values Analysis) was applied to highlight the pattern of missing values. All missing data values were less than 5% of the total data set. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2006), if only a few data, say, 5% or less, are missing in a random pattern from a large data set, the problems are less serious and almost any

procedure for handling missing values yields similar results. Hence, deletion of all missing data, 7 samples out of 444 (1.57%), does not make for any problems during the main data analysis.

5.2.2 Outliers

Z scores statistics method was applied to detect univariate outliers and no univariate outliers were found in the transformational leadership sample and two outliers were found in the transactional leadership sample as shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Univariate outliers

Transformational leadership style		Transactional leadership style	
Variable Case		Variable Case	
PDO	no cases	PDO	no cases
IA	no cases	CR	158, 184
IB	no cases	MBEA	no cases
IS	no cases	MBEP	no cases
IM	no cases		
IC	no cases		

Note: PDO= power distance orientation; IA= idealized influence attributes; IB= idealized behaviors; IM= inspirational motivation; IS= intellectual stimulation; IC= individualized consideration; CR=contingent reward; MBEA=management by exception: active; MBEP= management by exception: passive.

Source: Developed for the study

Once univariate outliers have been identified, there are several procedures to reduce their influence. First, we check outliers to be sure that data are entered accurately, and outliers represent the population which we intend to sample. Then we have to decide that data are entered correctly and outliers are part of the target population, so they remain in the analysis, but steps are done to reduce their influence, variables are transformed and scores are changed (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2006). Transformation was done to reduce the impact of outliers, but the transformation

failed. Therefore, the scores of variable (CR) were changed in both cases (158, 184) to the next most highest/lowest (no outlier) number, and univariate outliers were detected again to be sure there is none.

Reducing the influence of univariate outliers is done prior to the search for multivariate outliers because the statistics used to reveal them (Mahalanobis distance and its variants) are also sensitive to failures of normality (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2006). The criterion for multivariate outliers is Mahalanobis distance at $p < .001$. Mahalanobis distance is evaluated as X^2 with degrees of freedom equal to the number of variables. Regarding the transformational leadership sample, degrees of freedom was equal to six so any case with a Mahal Distance greater than $X^2(6)=22.458$ is a multivariate outlier. With respect to the transactional leadership sample, degrees of freedom was equal to four so any case with a Mahal Distance greater than $X^2(4)=18.467$ is a multivariate outlier. As a result, no case is a multivariate outlier among these variables in the transformational and transactional data set.

5.2.3 Normality

Normality of variables is assessed by a graphical method. Histogram was used to show how variables are normally distributed as shown in Figures 5.1, 5.2, 5.3, 5.4, 5.5, 5.6, 5.7, 5.8, 5.9, and Figure 5.10. Those graphical methods showed that all variables are normal distributed.

Figure 5.1: Histogram for transformational leadership style (PDO)

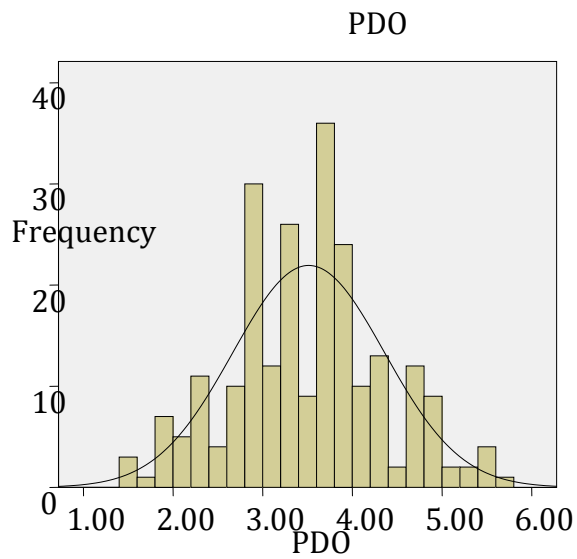


Figure 5.2: Histogram for transformational leadership style (IA)

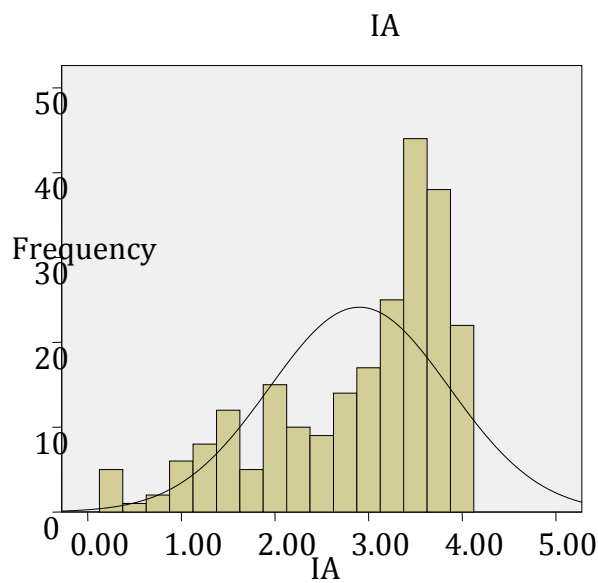


Figure 5.3: Histogram for transformational leadership style (IB)

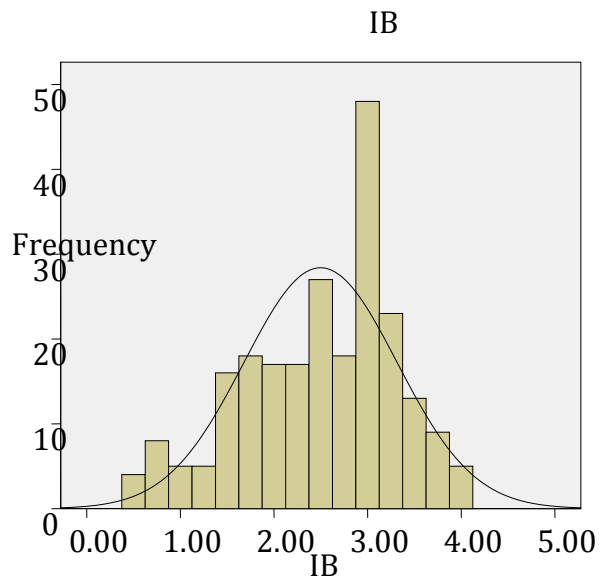


Figure 5.4: Histogram for transformational leadership style (IM)

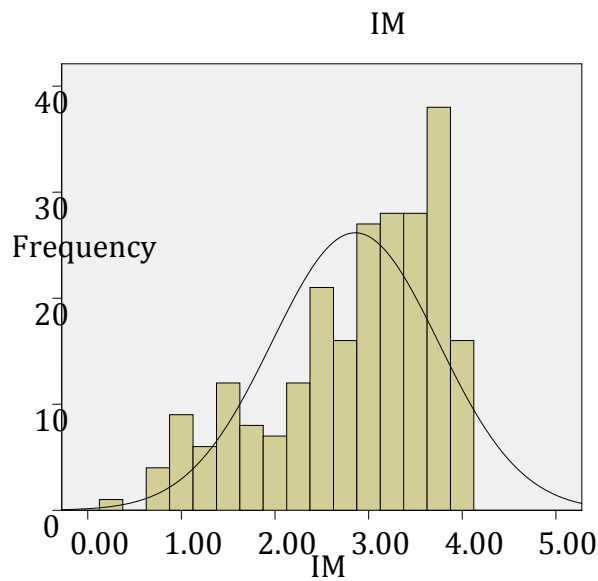


Figure 5.5: Histogram for transformational leadership style (IS)

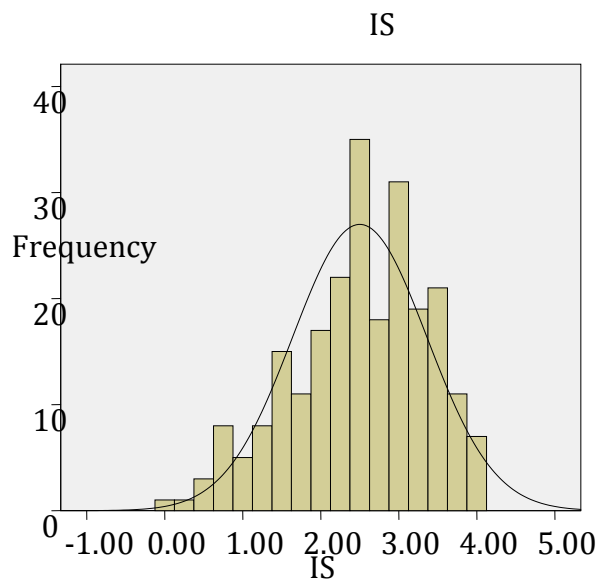


Figure 5.6: Histogram for transformational leadership style (IC)

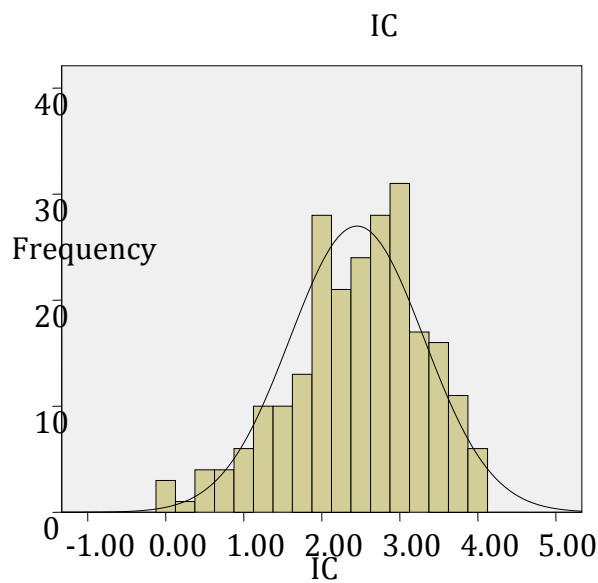


Figure 5.7: Histogram for transactional leadership style (PDO)

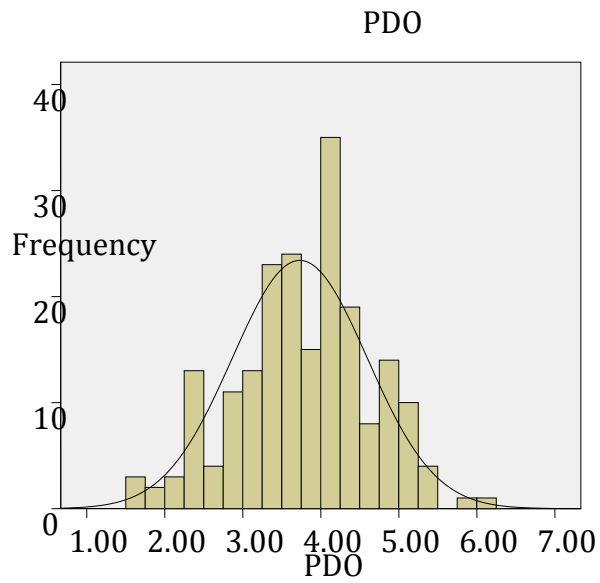


Figure 5.8: Histogram for transactional leadership style (CR)

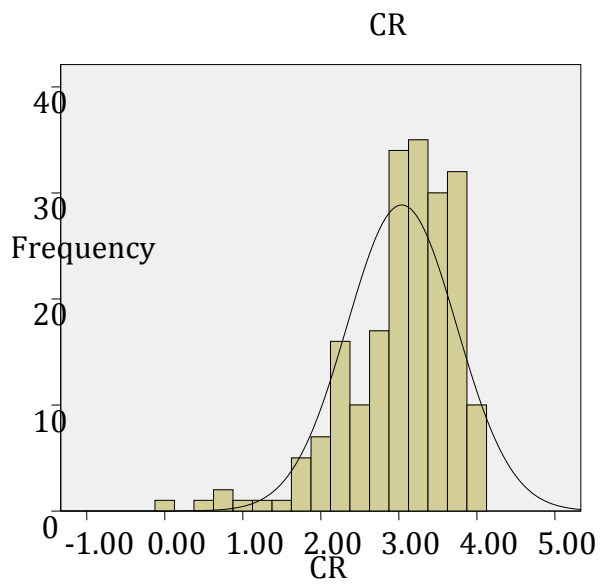


Figure 5.9: Histogram for transactional leadership style (MBEA)

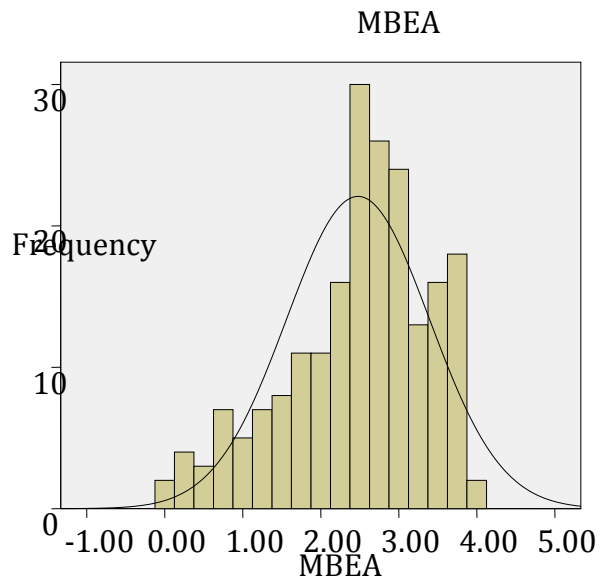
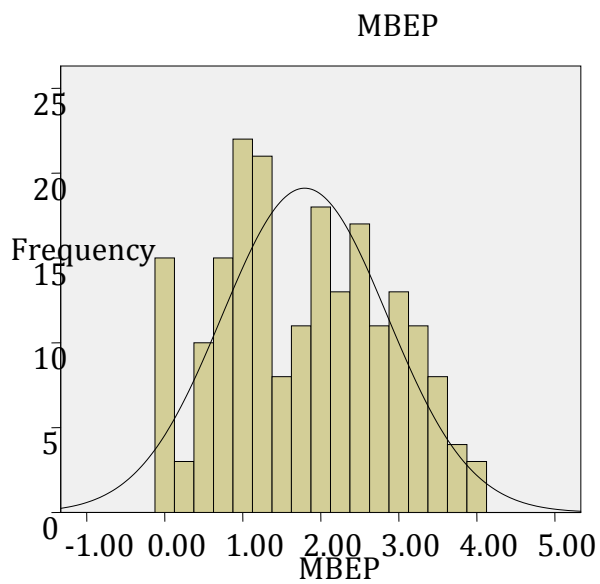


Figure 5.10: Histogram for transactional leadership style (MBEP)



5.2.4 Linearity

A Pearson correlation was applied and all variables were found to be significantly positively and linear with each other as shown in Table 5.2 for transformational leadership style and Table 5.3 for transactional leadership style.

Table 5.2: Pearson's correlations (transformational leadership sample)

Correlations		PDO	IA	IB	IM	IS	IC
PD O	Pearson Correlation	1	.549**	.211**	.376**	.238**	.226**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.001	.000	.000	.000
	N	234	234	234	234	234	234
IA	Pearson Correlation	.549**	1	.365**	.505**	.308**	.286**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	234	234	234	234	234	234
IB	Pearson Correlation	.211**	.365**	1	.390**	.248**	.340**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.000		.000	.000	.000
	N	234	234	234	234	234	234
IM	Pearson Correlation	.376**	.505**	.390**	1	.225**	.306**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000		.001	.000
	N	234	234	234	234	234	234
IS	Pearson Correlation	.238**	.308**	.248**	.225**	1	.318**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.001		.000
	N	234	234	234	234	234	234
IC	Pearson Correlation	.226**	.286**	.340**	.306**	.318**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	234	234	234	234	234	234

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

Note: PDO= power distance orientation; IA= idealized influence attributes; IB= idealized behaviors; IM= inspirational motivation; IS= intellectual stimulation; IC= individualized consideration

Source: Developed for the study

Table 5.3: Pearson's correlations (transactional leadership sample)

Correlations					
		PDO	MBEA	MBEP	CR
PDO	Pearson Correlation	1	.007	.004	.143*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.921	.953	.041
	N	203	203	203	203
MBEA	Pearson Correlation	.007	1	.028	.042
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.921		.694	.555
	N	203	203	203	203
MBEP	Pearson Correlation	.004	.028	1	.048
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.953	.694		.499
	N	203	203	203	203
CR	Pearson Correlation	.143*	.042	.048	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.041	.555	.499	
	N	203	203	203	203

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

Note: PDO=power distance orientation; CR=contingent reward; MBEA=management by exception: active; MBEP= management by exception: passive

Source: Developed for the study

5.2.5 Homoscedasticity of Variance

For ungrouped data, the assumption of homoscedasticity is that the variability in scores for one continuous variable is roughly the same at all values of another continuous variable (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2006). Homoscedasticity is “related to the assumption of normality because when the assumption of multivariate normality is met, the relationships between variables are homoscedastic” (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2006: 85). Therefore, the assumption of homoscedasticity is met for both transformational and transactional leadership samples.

5.3 CONSTRUCT VALIDITY THROUGH FACTOR ANALYSIS

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed to test validity of the constructs (factors). The applicability of the factor analysis was verified by KMO test and Barlett’s test of Sphericity. All exploratory factor analysis was performed using the principal components method and varimax rotation with the kaiser normalization.

5.3.1 Adequacy of Sample Size

The results of these tests are summarized in Table 5.4 for transformational leadership sample and Table 5.5 for transactional leadership sample.

Table 5.4: Adequacy of transformational leadership sample size

	<i>KMO</i>	<i>Barlett’s test of sphericity: significance</i>
Overall questionnaire	.804	.000
Transformational leadership scale	.801	.000

Power distance orientation scale	.678	.000
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Source: Developed for the study

For the transformational leadership style’s data, the value of (KMO) is .804, which falls into the range of being great, the Bartlett’s test of Sphericity was significant (1968.989, .000), confirming the multivariate normality of data (see Table 5.4). However, the values of (KMO) for the transformational leadership scale was .801 which falls into the range of being great and *power distance orientation* scale was .678 that falls into the range of being mediocre. So, there is great confidence that the sample size of transformational leadership style is adequate for conducting exploratory factor analysis. KMO can be calculated for multiple and individual variables. The KMO values for individual variables are produced on the diagonal of the anti-image correlation matrix. The value should be above .5 for all variables (Field, 2009). The KMO test was applied for individual variables as well, by checking anti-image correlations matrix; it was found that IB1 has value less than .5. Then, this variable was excluded and after removal the anti-image correlation matrix was checked again to be sure that all variables have values >.5 and all values are well above .5.

Table 5.5: Adequacy of transactional leadership sample size

	KMO	Barlett’s test of sphericity: significance
Overall questionnaire	.634	.000
Transactional leadership scale	.643	.000
Power distance orientation scale	.708	.000

Source: Developed for the study

For the transactional leadership style’s data, the value of (KMO) is .634, which falls into the range of being mediocre, the Bartlett’s test of Sphericity was significant (544.099, .000), confirming the multivariate normality of data (see Table 5.5).

However, the values of (KMO) for the transactional leadership scale and power distance orientation scale were .643 and .708 respectively; that falls also into the range of being mediocre. Hence, there is confidence that the sample size of transactional leadership style is adequate for conducting exploratory factor analysis. The KMO test was applied as well for individual variables. For those data all values are well above .5, which is good news.

5.3.2 Factor Extraction

With respect to (eigenvalue >1) the Kaiser's criterion, which is found as a default in the SPSS program, this criterion can be accurate when the number of variables is less than 30 and the resulting communalities (after extraction) are all greater than .7. It can also be accurate when the sample size exceeds 250 and the average communality is greater than or equal to .6 (Field, 2009). By applying Kaiser's criterion on data, the average communality after extraction was .623 for transformational leadership constructs (20 variables). For transactional leadership construct, the sample size was less than 250 and the average communality after extraction was .462. Therefore, this criterion could not be applied in this present research.

However, the number of factors to be retained in analysis was already known, so this was chosen as a priori criterion. This is a simple criterion under certain circumstances. When applying it, the researcher already knows how many factors to extract before undertaking the factor analysis. We simply instruct the computer to stop the analysis when the desired number of factors has been extracted (Hair, et al, 2006). Therefore, this study extracted transformational leadership construct on five factors, namely, *idealized influence-attributes*, *idealized influence-behavior*, *inspirational motivation*, *intellectual stimulation*, and *individualized consideration*. The transactional leadership construct was extracted on three factors, namely, *contingent reward*, *management by exception: active*, and *management by exception: passive*.

Table 5.6: Total variance explained (transformational leadership sample)

Component	Initial Eigenvalue			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.309	28.726	28.726	4.309	28.726	28.726	2.677	17.850	17.850
2	1.721	11.470	40.196	1.721	11.470	40.196	2.286	15.238	33.088
3	1.309	8.726	48.922	1.309	8.726	48.922	1.676	11.173	44.260
4	1.147	7.649	56.571	1.147	7.649	56.571	1.483	9.887	54.148
5	1.099	7.330	63.901	1.099	7.330	63.901	1.463	9.753	63.901
6	.898	5.987	69.888						
7	.755	5.033	74.920						
8	.651	4.337	79.257						
9	.583	3.885	83.142						
10	.576	3.842	86.985						
11	.488	3.251	90.235						
12	.461	3.075	93.310						
13	.382	2.549	95.860						
14	.329	2.192	98.051						
15	.292	1.949	100.00						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Source: Developed for the study

Principal components analysis showed the presence of five components with eigenvalues exceeding 1. Before rotation, factor 1 accounted for considerably more variance than the remaining five (28.726% compared to 11.470%, 8.726%, 7.649% and 7.330%), but after extraction it accounted for only 17.850% of variance compared to 15.238%, 11.173%, 9.887% and 9.753% respectively.

Table 5.7: Total variance explained (transactional leadership sample)

Component	Initial Eigenvalue			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.309	28.726	28.726	4.309	28.726	28.726	2.677	17.850	17.850
2	1.721	11.470	40.196	1.721	11.470	40.196	2.286	15.238	33.088
3	1.309	8.726	48.922	1.309	8.726	48.922	1.676	11.173	44.260
4	1.147	7.649	56.571	1.147	7.649	56.571	1.483	9.887	54.148
5	1.099	7.330	63.901	1.099	7.330	63.901	1.463	9.753	63.901
6	.898	5.987	69.888						
7	.755	5.033	74.920						
8	.651	4.337	79.257						
9	.583	3.885	83.142						
10	.576	3.842	86.985						
11	.488	3.251	90.235						
12	.461	3.075	93.310						
13	.382	2.549	95.860						
14	.329	2.192	98.051						
15	.292	1.949	100.00						

Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.087	17.395	17.395	2.087	17.395	17.395	1.976	16.466	16.466
2	1.867	15.557	32.952	1.867	15.557	32.952	1.891	15.758	32.224
3	1.595	13.293	46.245	1.595	13.293	46.245	1.682	14.021	46.245
4	.997	8.310	54.554						
5	.944	7.863	62.417						
6	.806	6.721	69.137						
7	.762	6.351	75.488						
8	.695	5.789	81.278						
9	.684	5.699	86.977						
10	.576	4.797	91.774						
11	.510	4.251	96.025						
12	.477	3.975	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Source: Developed for the study

Principal components analysis showed the presence of three components with eigenvalues exceeding 1. Before rotation, factor 1 accounted for considerably more variance than the remaining three (17.395% compared 15.557% and 13.293%), but after extraction it accounted for only 16.466% of variance compared to 15.758%, and 14.021% respectively.

5.3.3 Communalities

One: Transformational Leadership

Concerning the transformational leadership construct, variables with communalities above value .4 were applied. Results showed that all variables retained in the factor loading have communalities above .4. Results confirmed the high variation from .434 to .794, which showed high variance among the variables.

Table 5.8: Communalities (transformational leadership constructs)

	Initial	Extraction
IA1	1.000	.584
IA2	1.000	.434
IA3	1.000	.702
IA4	1.000	.676
IB2	1.000	.706
IB3	1.000	.794
IB4	1.000	.705
IM1	1.000	.708
IM2	1.000	.434
IS1	1.000	.705
IS2	1.000	.704
IC1	1.000	.541
IC2	1.000	.750
IC3	1.000	.560
IC4	1.000	.584
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.		

Note: IA= idealized influence attributes; IB= idealized behaviors; IM= inspirational motivation; IS= intellectual stimulation; IC= individualized consideration

Source: Developed for the study

Table 5.9: Communalities (power distance orientation construct/transformational sample)

	Initial	Extraction
In most situations, leaders should make decisions without consulting their subordinates.	1.000	.189
In work-related matters, leaders have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates.	1.000	.614
Leaders should be able to make the right decisions without consulting with others.	1.000	.606

A company's rules should not be broken-not even when the employee thinks it.	1.000	.589
--	-------	------

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Source: Developed for the study

Two: Transactional Leadership

With variables fewer than 20, many variables with low communalities (<.4) can occur (Stevens, 2002). For the purpose in this study, variables of transactional leadership construct with low communalities were retained (see Table 5.10 and Table 5.11), but the researcher may consider deletion of such variables in other research contexts.

Table 5.10: Communalities (transactional leadership constructs)

	Initial	Extraction
CR1	1.000	.271
CR2	1.000	.466
CR3	1.000	.558
CR4	1.000	.313
MBEA1	1.000	.610
MBEA2	1.000	.551
MBEA3	1.000	.595
MBEA4	1.000	.238
MBEP1	1.000	.336
MBEP2	1.000	.516
MBEP3	1.000	.554
MBEP4	1.000	.542

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Note: CR=contingent reward; MBEA=management by exception: active; MBEP=management by exception: passive

Source: Developed for the study

Table 5.11: Communalities (power distance orientation construct/transactional sample)

	Initial	Extraction
Power distance orientation 1	1.000	.393
Power distance orientation 2	1.000	.275
Power distance orientation 5	1.000	.261
Power distance orientation 6	1.000	.491
Power distance orientation 7	1.000	.317
Power distance orientation 8	1.000	.309
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.		

Source: Developed for the study

5.3.4 Factor Loading

One: Transformational Leadership

Table 5.12 shows factor loading of the transformational leadership style. Results reveal those factors with a loading of less than .4 is excluded.

Table 5.12: Rotated component matrix (transformational leadership construct)

	Components				
	1	2	3	4	5
IA1	.682				
IA2	.486				
IA3	.807				
IA4	.797				
IM1		.718			
IM2		.559			
IS1			.812		
IS2			.758		
IB2				.571	
IB3				.843	

IB4				.533	
IC1					.614
IC2					.835
IC3					.408
IC4					.662

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 11 iterations

Note: IA= idealized influence attributes; IB= idealized behaviors; IM= inspirational motivation; IS= intellectual stimulation; IC= individualized consideration

Source: Developed for the study

Factor 1-*Idealized influence attributes (IA)*: This factor covers the first dimension of transformational leadership behavior. A four-item scale was applied based on Avolio and Bass (2002b). All items were included by applying factor loading at .4 (see Table 5.12).

Factor 2-*Inspirational motivation (IM)*: This factor covers the fourth dimension of transformational leadership behavior. A four-item scale was applied based on Avolio and Bass (2002b). Two items were excluded by applying factor loading at .4 (see Table 5.12).

Factor 3-*Intellectual stimulation (IS)*: This factor covers the fifth dimension of transformational leadership behavior. A four-item scale was applied based on Avolio and Bass (2002b). Two items were excluded by applying factor loading at .4 (see Table 5.12).

Factor 4-*Idealized behaviors (IB)*: This factor covers the third dimension of transformational leadership behavior. A four-item scale was applied based on Avolio and Bass (2002b). Three items were included by applying factor loading at .4 (see Table 5.12).

Factor 5-*Individualized consideration* (IC): This factor covers the second dimension of transformational leadership behavior. A four-item scale was applied based on Avolio and Bass (2002b). All items were included by applying factor loading at .4 (see Table 5.12).

Table 5.13: Rotated component matrix (power distance orientation construct)

	Component
	1
In most situations, leaders should make decisions without consulting their subordinates.	.435
In work-related matters, leaders have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates.	.783
Leaders should be able to make the right decisions without consulting with others.	.779
A company's rules should not be broken-not even when the employee thinks it.	.768

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

a. 1 components extracted

Source: Developed for the study

Power distance orientation (PDO): This factor the degree to which each person believes that the authority is distributed equally, so it distinguishes between an individual with high power distance and an individual with low power distance. An eight- item scale was applied based on Early and Erez (1997). Applying factor loading at .4 and four items which loaded less than .4 were excluded as shown in Table 5.13.

Two: Transactional Leadership

A factor loading of .4 is considered here as being significant. Table 5.14 shows factor loading of transactional leadership style. Results reveal that all factors had a loading more than .4; so, they were all retained for further analysis.

Table 5.14: Rotated component matrix (transactional leadership construct)

	Components		
	1	2	3
MBEP1	.576		
MBEP2	.716		
MBEP3	.743		
MBEP4	.743		
MBEA1		.772	
MBEA2		.723	
MBEA3		.680	
MBEA4		.470	
CR1			.447
CR2			.676
CR3			.741
CR4			.542

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 4 iterations

Note: CR=contingent reward; MBEA=management by exception: active; MBEP=management by exception: passive

Source: Developed for the study

Factor 1-*Management by exception: passive* (MBEP): This factor covers the *passive management by exception* dimension of transactional leadership behavior. A four-item scale was applied based on Avolio and Bass (2002b). All items were included by applying factor loading at .4 (see Table 5.14).

Factor 2-*Management by exception: active* (MBEA): This factor covers the *active management by exception* dimension of transactional leadership behavior. A four-item scale was applied based on Avolio and Bass (2002b). All items were included by applying factor loading at .4 (see Table 5.14).

Factor 3-*Contingent Reward* (CR): This factor covers the *contingent reward* dimension of transactional leadership behavior. A four-item scale was applied based on Avolio and Bass (2002b). All items were included by applying factor loading at .4 (see Table 5.14).

Table 5.15: Component matrix (power distance orientation construct)

	Component
	1
In most situations, managers should make decisions without consulting their subordinates.	.627
In work-related matters, managers have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates.	.524
Employees who often question authority sometimes keep their managers from being effective	.511
Once a top-level executive makes a decision, people working for the company should not question it	.701
Employees should not express disagreements with their managers	.563
Managers who let their employees participate in decisions lose power.	.556

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 1 components extracted.

Source: Developed for the study

Power distance orientation (PDO): This factor measures the degree to which each person believes that the authority is distributed equally, so it distinguishes between an individual with high power distance and an individual with low power distance. An eight-item scale was applied based on Earley and Erez (1997). Applying factor loading and two items which loaded less than .4 were excluded as shown in Table 5.15.

5.3.5 Construct Validity

Construct validity is the extent to which a set of measured items actually reflects the theoretical latent construct those items are designed to measure (Hair et al, 2010). To assess construct validity, we examine face, convergent, discriminant, and nomological validity.

One: Transformational Leadership

1-Face Validity: In the study, all the scales of the transformational leadership scale and the power distance orientation scale were used from previous research. Therefore, as these had been created and tested by experts, face validity was established.

2-Convergent validity: The items that are indicators of a specific construct should converge or share a high proportion of variance in common, known as convergent validity. The significance of the factor loading is one important consideration in the case of high convergent validity (Hair et al, 2006). As seen in Table 5.13 and Table 5.14, the convergent validity is achieved because all the factor loadings of the measurement items are significant and range from .408 to .843 (Hair et al, 2010).

3-Discriminant Validity: Is the extent to which a construct is truly distinct from other constructs (Hair et al, 2010). In other words, the individual items should represent only one construct (factor), so the existence of cross-loading indicates a discriminant validity problem. To prove the discriminant validity in the transformational leadership sample, EFA was carried out for both of the constructs (transformational leadership construct and power distance orientation construct) at the same time, to see if they are truly distinct from each other and then discriminant validity is provided. In this research, there was not any cross-loading factor which supports the discriminant validity (see Table, 5.16).

Table 5.16: Discriminant validity of transformational leadership sample

	Components					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
In most situations,			.610			

leaders should make decisions without consulting their subordinates.						
In work-related matters, leaders have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates.			.693			
Leaders should be able to make the right decisions without consulting with others.			.719			
A company's rules should not be broken- not even when the employee thinks it.			.434			
idealized influence attributes 1	.669					
idealized influence attributes 2	.432					
Idealized influence attributes 3	.805					
Idealized influence attributes 4	.778					
Idealized Behaviors 2					.617	
Idealized Behaviors 3					.805	
Idealized Behaviors 4					.529	
Inspirational Motivation 1		.702				
Inspirational Motivation 2		.536				

Intellectual Stimulation 1				.819		
Intellectual Stimulation 2				.755		
Individual Consideration 1						.647
Individual Consideration 2						.771
Individual Consideration 3						.402
Individual Consideration 4						.673

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 13 iterations

Source: Developed for the study

4-Nomological Validity: Is a test of validity that examines whether the correlations between the constructs in the measurement theory make sense (Hair et al, 2010). The results in Table 5.2 support the prediction that these constructs are positively related to one another and these relationships make sense.

Two: Transactional Leadership

1-Face Validity: In this study, all the scales of the transactional leadership scale and the power distance orientation scale were used from previous research. Therefore, as these had been created and tested by experts, face validity was established.

2-Convergent validity: As seen in Table 5.14 and Table 5.15, convergent validity is achieved because all the factor loadings of the measurement items are significant and range from .447 to .772 (Hair et al, 2010).

3-Discriminant Validity: To prove the discriminant validity in transactional leadership sample, EFA was carried out for both of the constructs (the transactional leadership

construct and the power distance orientation construct) at the same time, to see if they are truly distinct from each other and then discriminant validity is provided. In this research, there is not any cross-loading factor which supports the discriminant validity (see Table 5.17).

Table 5.17: Discriminant validity of transactional leadership sample

Rotated Component Matrix ^a				
	Components			
	1	2	3	4
Power distance orientation 1	.619			
Power distance orientation 2	.481			
Power distance orientation 5	.488			
Power distance orientation 6	.696			
Power distance orientation 7	.562			
Power distance orientation 8	.565			
Contingent reward 1				
Contingent reward 2				.594
Contingent reward 3				.747
Contingent reward 4				.576
Management-by-exception:active1			.766	
Management-by-exception:active2			.701	
Management-by-exception:active3			.669	
Management-by-exception:active4			.492	
Management-by-exception:passive1		.576		
Management-by-exception:passive2		.711		

Management-by-exception:passive3		.736		
Management-by-exception:passive4		.744		

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations

Source: Developed for the study

4-Nomological validity: The results in Table 5.3 support the prediction that power distance orientation and transactional leadership constructs are positively related to one another and these relationships make sense.

5.4 RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

5.4.1 Transformational Leadership

The alpha values of the constructs are shown in Table 5.18. The alpha value of the constructs ranged from .697 for *idealized influence behavior* to .861 for *idealized influence attributes*.

Table 5.18: Alpha values of the constructs (transformational leadership sample)

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha
Power distance orientation	.759
Idealized influence attributes	.861
Idealized influence behavior	.697
Inspirational motivation	.738
Intellectual stimulation	.736
Individual consideration	.700

Source: Developed for the study

5.4.2 Transactional Leadership

The alpha values of the constructs are shown in Table 5.19. *Contingent rewards* showed an Alpha value of .683 whereas *management by exception: passive* showed an Alpha value of .747. In spite of a low value of *contingent rewards* it was included for further analysis as it was an important construct.

Table 5.19: Alpha values of the constructs (transactional leadership sample)

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha
Power distance orientation	.708
Contingent rewards	.683
Management by exception: active	.703
Management by exception: passive	.747

Source: Developed for the study

Compared with other studies which used this measure to evaluate power distance dimensions, for example, the reliability (Cronbach's α) for this measure in a study conducted by Earley (1999) was .81. The reliability (Cronbach's α) for this measure in a study conducted by Kirkman et al (2009) was .71. In this study the coefficient alpha was .759 for the transformational leadership sample and .708 for the transactional leadership sample means that power distance orientation has good internal consistency.

5.5 SUMMARY

First, screening data prior to analysis was done in order to prepare for further analysis. Second, accuracy of data was performed through linearity, normality and homoscedasticity test to get accurate results. Third, the exploratory factor analysis technique was done to test construct validity for each sample (transformational leadership and transactional leadership). Fourth, reliability of the constructs was tested by applying Cronbach's Alpha.

CHAPTER SIX: RESULTS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The first aim of this research was to examine gender differences in the evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders in Syria. The second aim was to test whether follower's *power distance orientation* interacts with the *gender of the leader* to predict transformational leadership style on five dimensions, namely, *idealized influence attributes, idealized influence behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration*, and transactional leadership style on three dimensions, namely, *contingent reward, management by exception: active, and management by exception: passive*. In this research, it was hypothesized that a female (transformational or transactional) leader would be rated/valuated less favorably than a male (transformational or transactional) leader by a follower who scores high on *power distance orientation*. Purification of data prior to analysis was presented in the previous chapter. In this chapter, the findings are presented and an evaluation of the research hypotheses and their significance are provided. First, ANOVA was done to test gender differences in evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders in Syria. To test the hypotheses, multiple regression analysis was conducted for evaluation of the transformational leader depicted in the transformational leader vignette and for evaluation of the transactional leader depicted in the transactional leader vignette. In each case, hierarchical multiple regression analyses were performed using the Statistical Package for Sciences SPSS (18.2) to detect the main effects of *leader's gender, evaluator's power distance orientation*, and the interaction influence between *evaluator's power distance orientation and leader's gender (ZPDO*GOL)* on evaluation each of the five transformational leadership dimensions and on evaluation each of the three transactional leadership dimensions.

6.2 THE ONE WAY OF ANALYSIS (ANOVA)

In this study, ANOVA is conducted to test the effect of (GOL) on evaluation of transformational leaders on five dimensions, namely, *idealized influence attributes*, *idealized influence behavior*, *inspirational motivation*, *intellectual stimulation*, and *individualized consideration*. ANOVA is also conducted to examine the effect of (GOL) on evaluation of transactional leaders on three dimensions, namely, *contingent reward*, *management by exception: active*, and *management by exception: passive*.

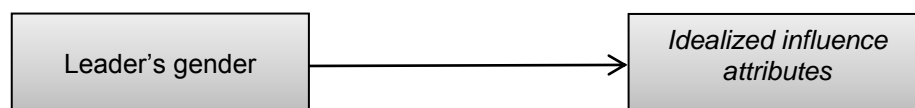
6.2.1 Transformational Leadership Style

It is suggested here that female transformational leaders are evaluated more favorably than male leaders who exhibit the same leadership style.

1-The Idealized Influence Attributes Dimension

The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' idealized influence attributes (a leader who instils pride in followers for being associated, goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group, acts in ways that build followers' respect for, and displays a sense of power and confidence). It is argued here, that female leaders are evaluated more favorably on idealized influence attributes dimension of transformational leadership style than male leaders who exhibit the same style.

Figure 6.1: The influence of (GOL) on IA scale of transformational leadership



Source: Developed for the study

As shown in Table 6.1, a one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to test the effect of *gender of the leader* (GOL) on evaluation of the transformational leader on the *idealized influence attributes* scale.

Table 6.1: ANOVA for IA

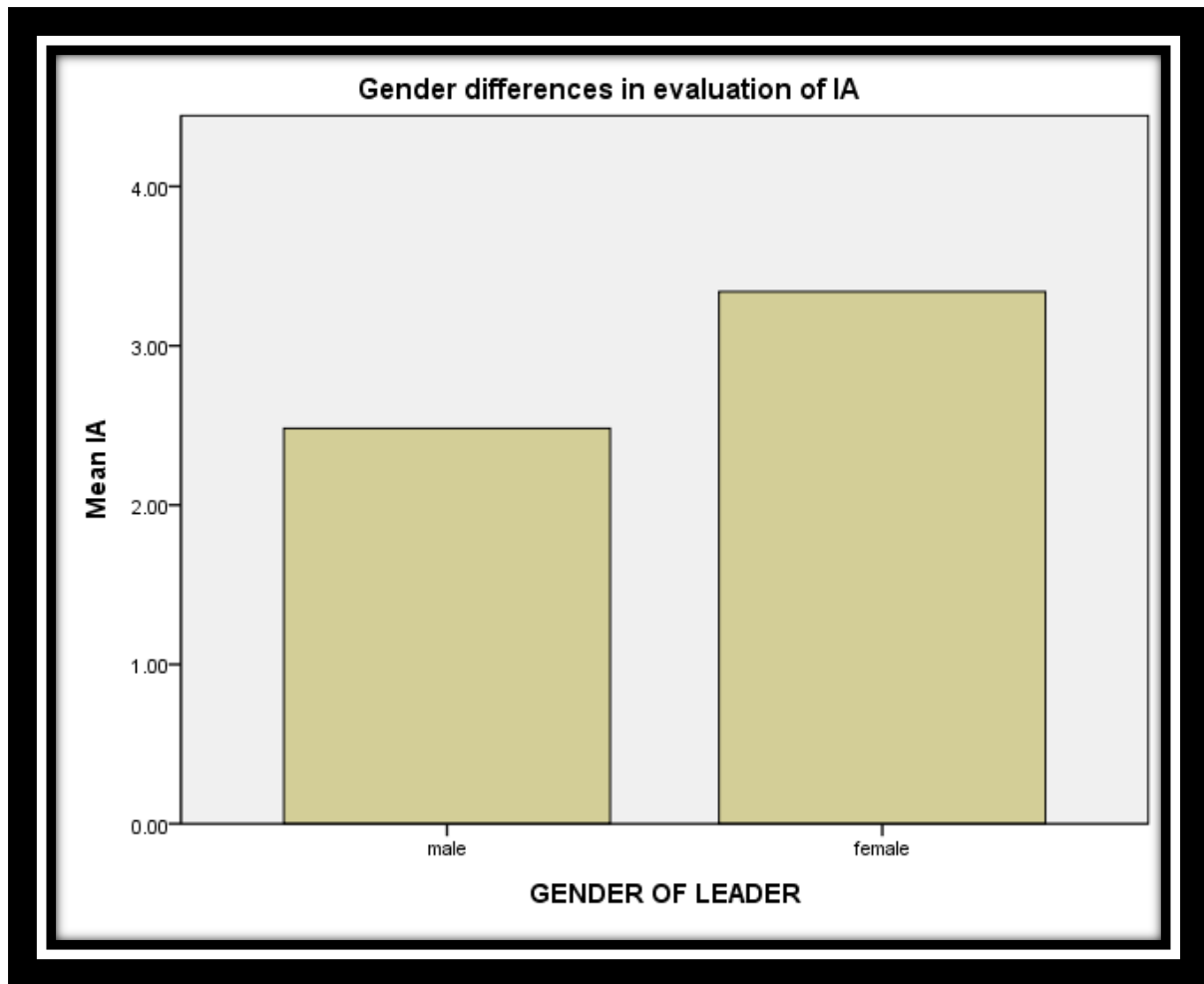
IA					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	43.057	1	43.057	58.104	.000
Within Groups	171.919	232	.741		
Total	214.976	233			

IA= idealized influence attributes

Source: Developed for the study

There was a significant effect of the gender of the leader (GOL) on evaluation of transformational leader on the *idealized influence attributes* scale at the $p < .05$ level for male and female leaders [$F(1,232)=58.10, P=.000$]. Now that it has been determined that *leader's gender* has an effect on the evaluation of the transformational leader on the *idealized influence-attributes* scale, we need to show this influence by drawing a graph. The significant effect of (GOL) is graphically represented in Figure 6.2.

Figure 6.2: The significant effect of (GOL) on IA scale of transformational leadership.



IA= idealized influence attributes

Source: Developed for the study

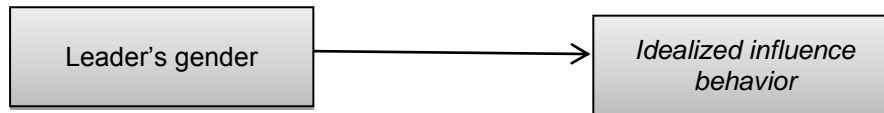
In the graph above, we can see that female transformational leaders are evaluated more favorably on the scale of idealized influence attributes than male leaders who use the same style of leadership.

2-The Idealized Influence Behavior Dimension

The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' *idealized influence behavior* (a leader who talks about most important values and beliefs, specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose, considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions, emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission). It is argued here, that female leaders are evaluated

more favorably on *idealized influence behavior* dimension of transformational leadership style than male leaders who exhibit the same style.

Figure 6.3: The influence of (GOL) on IB scale of transformational leadership



Source: Developed for the study

As shown in Table 6.2, a one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to test the effect of *gender of the leader* (GOL) on evaluation of the transformational leader on the *idealized influence behavior* scale.

Table 6.2: ANOVA for IB

IB					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	7.101	1	7.101	8.586	.004
Within Groups	191.888	232	.827		
Total	198.990	233			

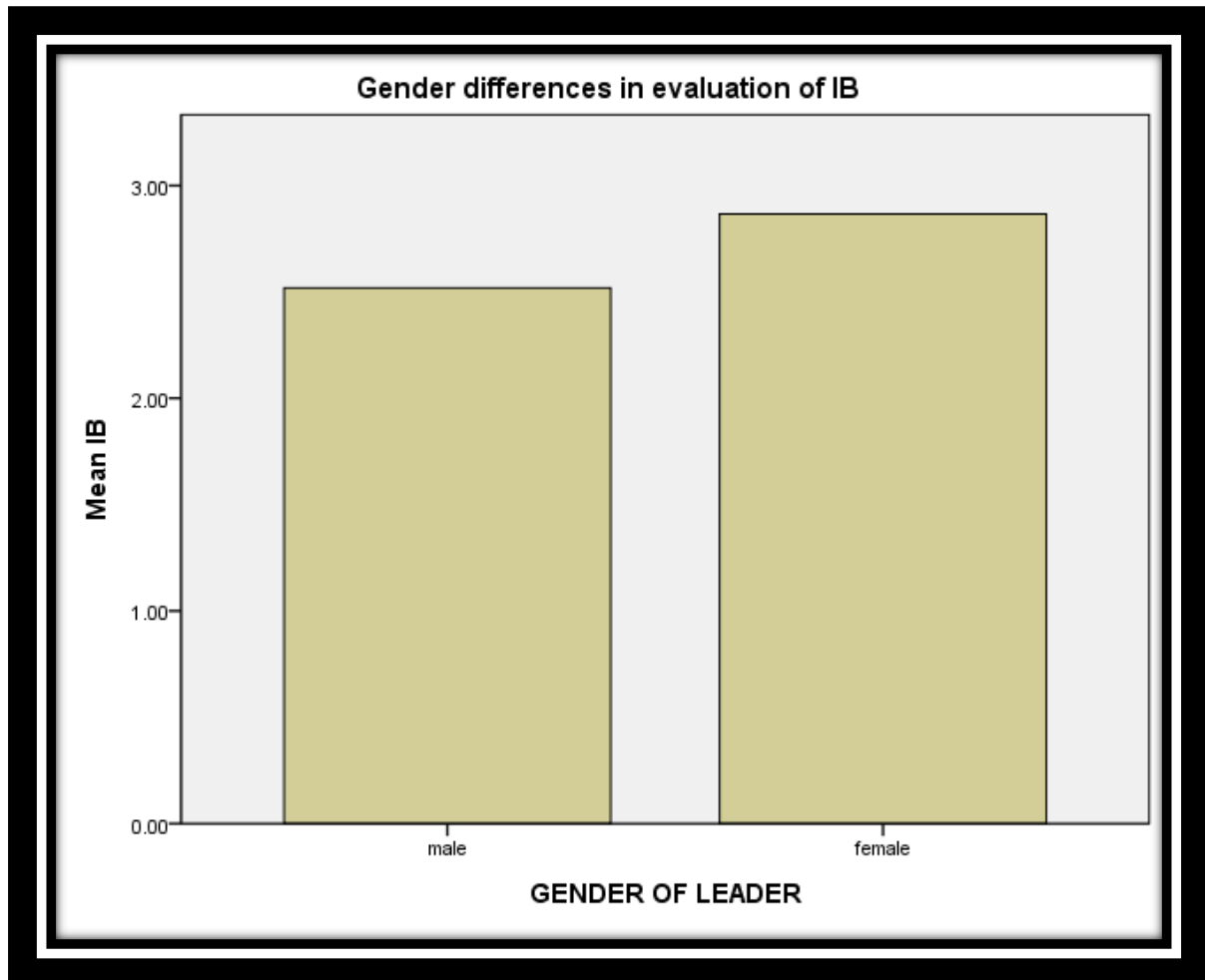
IB= idealized influence behavior

Source: Developed for the study

There was a significant effect of the gender of the leader (GOL) on evaluation of transformational leader on the *idealized influence behavior* scale at the $p < .05$ level for male and female leaders [$F(1,232) = 8.59, P = .004$]. Now that it has been determined that *leader's gender* has an effect on the evaluation of the transformational leader on the *idealized influence behavior* scale, we need to show

this influence by drawing a graph. The significant effect of (GOL) is graphically represented in Figure 6.4.

Figure 6.4: The significant effect of (GOL) on IB scale of transformational leadership.



IB= idealized influence behavior

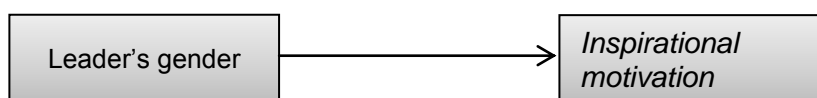
Source: Developed for the study

In the graph above, we can see that female transformational leaders are evaluated more favorably on the scale of idealized influence behavior than male leaders who use the same style of leadership.

3-The Inspirational Motivation Dimension

The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' *inspirational motivation* (a leader who talks optimistically about future, talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished, articulates a compelling vision of the future, and expresses confidence that goals will be achieved). It is argued here, that female leaders are evaluated more favorably on *inspirational motivation* dimension of transformational leadership style than male leaders who exhibit the same style.

Figure 6.5: The influence of (GOL) on IM scale of transformational leadership



Source: Developed for the study

As shown in Table 6.3, a one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to test the effect of *gender of the leader* (GOL) on evaluation of the transformational leader on the *inspirational motivation* scale.

Table 6.3: ANOVA for IM

IM					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	30.823	1	30.823	31.354	.000
Within Groups	228.070	232	.983		
Total	258.893	233			

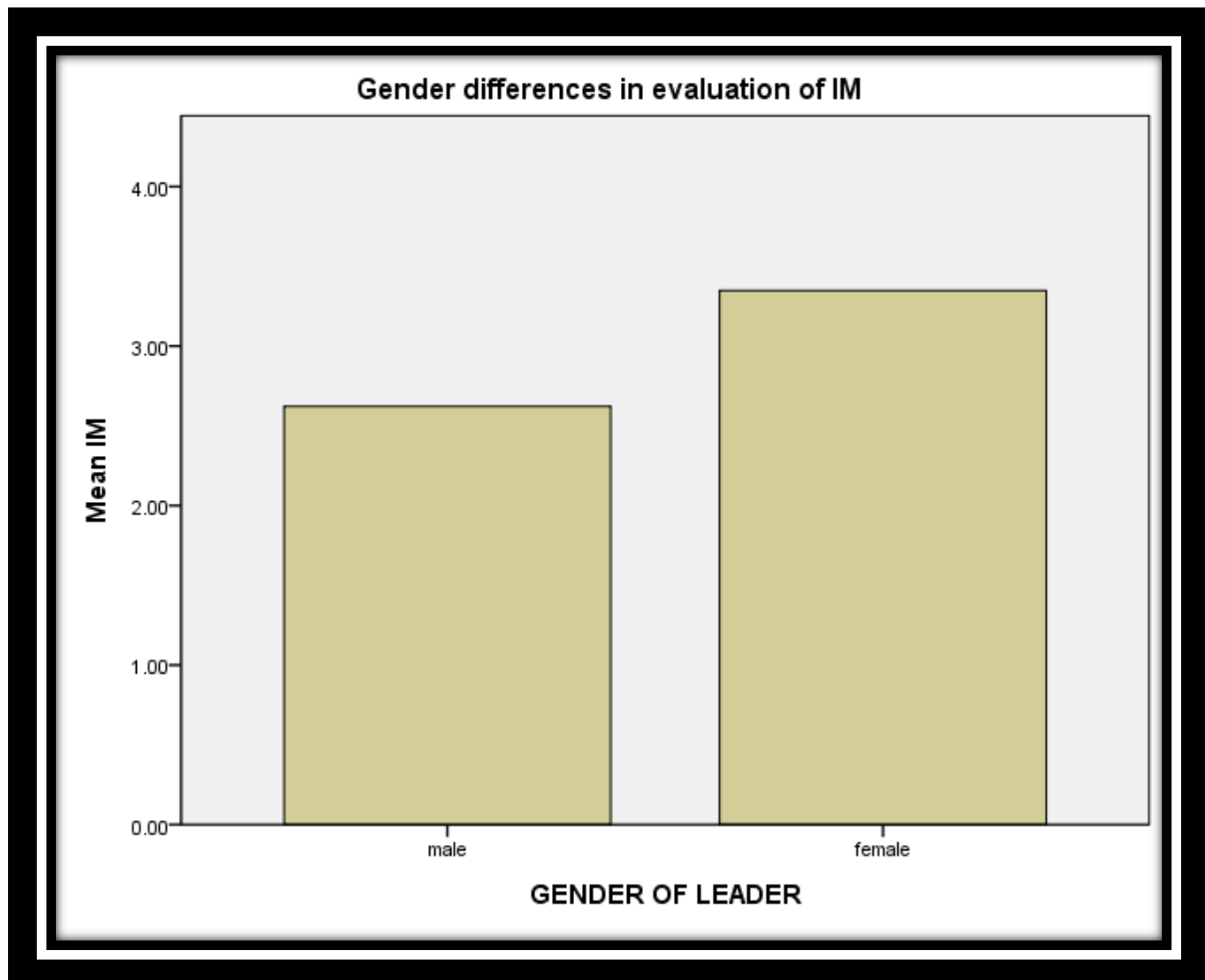
IM= inspirational motivation

Source: Developed for the study

There was a significant effect of the gender of the leader (GOL) on evaluation of transformational leader on the *inspirational motivation* scale at the $p < .05$ level for male and female leaders [$F(1,232)=31.35$, $P=.000$]. Now that it has been determined

that *leader's gender* has an effect on the evaluation of the transformational leader on the *inspirational motivation* scale, we need to show this influence by drawing a graph. The significant effect of (GOL) is graphically represented in Figure 6.6.

Figure 6.6: The significant effect of (GOL) on IM scale of transformational leadership.



IM= inspirational motivation

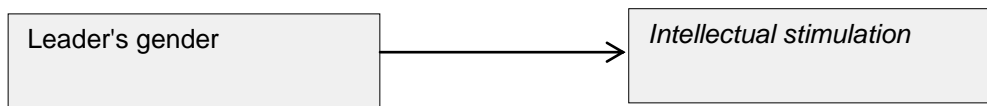
Source: Developed for the study

In the graph above, we can see that female transformational leaders are evaluated more favorably on the scale of *inspirational motivation* than male leaders who use the same style of leadership.

4-The Intellectual Stimulation Dimension

The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' *intellectual stimulation* (a leader who re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate, seeks differing perspectives when solving problems, gets followers to look at problems from many different angles, suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments). It is argued here that female leaders are evaluated more favorably on the *intellectual stimulation* dimension of transformational leadership style than male leaders who exhibit the same style.

Figure 6.7: The influence of (GOL) on IS scale of transformational leadership



Source: Developed for the study

As shown in Table 6.4, a one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to test the effect of *gender of the leader* (GOL) on evaluation of the transformational leader on the *intellectual stimulation* scale.

Table 6.4: ANOVA for IS

IS					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3.738	1	3.738	3.393	.067
Within Groups	255.591	232	1.102		
Total	259.329	233			

IS= intellectual stimulation

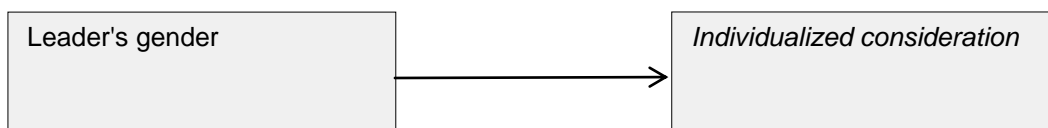
Source: Developed for the study

As shown in Table 6.4, there was no significant effect of the gender of the leader (GOL) on evaluation of transformational leader on the *intellectual stimulation* scale at the $p < .05$ level for male and female leaders.

5-The Individualized Consideration Dimension

The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' *individualized consideration* (a leader who spends time teaching and coaching, treats followers as individuals rather than as a member of a group, considers an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others, helps followers to develop their strengths). It is argued here that female leaders are evaluated more favorably on the *individualized consideration* dimension of transformational leadership style than male leaders who exhibit the same style.

Figure 6.8: The influence of (GOL) on IC scale of transformational leadership



Source: Developed for the study

As shown in Table 6.5, a one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to test the effect of *gender of the leader* (GOL) on evaluation of the transformational leader on the *individualized consideration* scale.

Table 6.5: ANOVA for IC

IC					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	5.246	1	5.246	7.207	.008

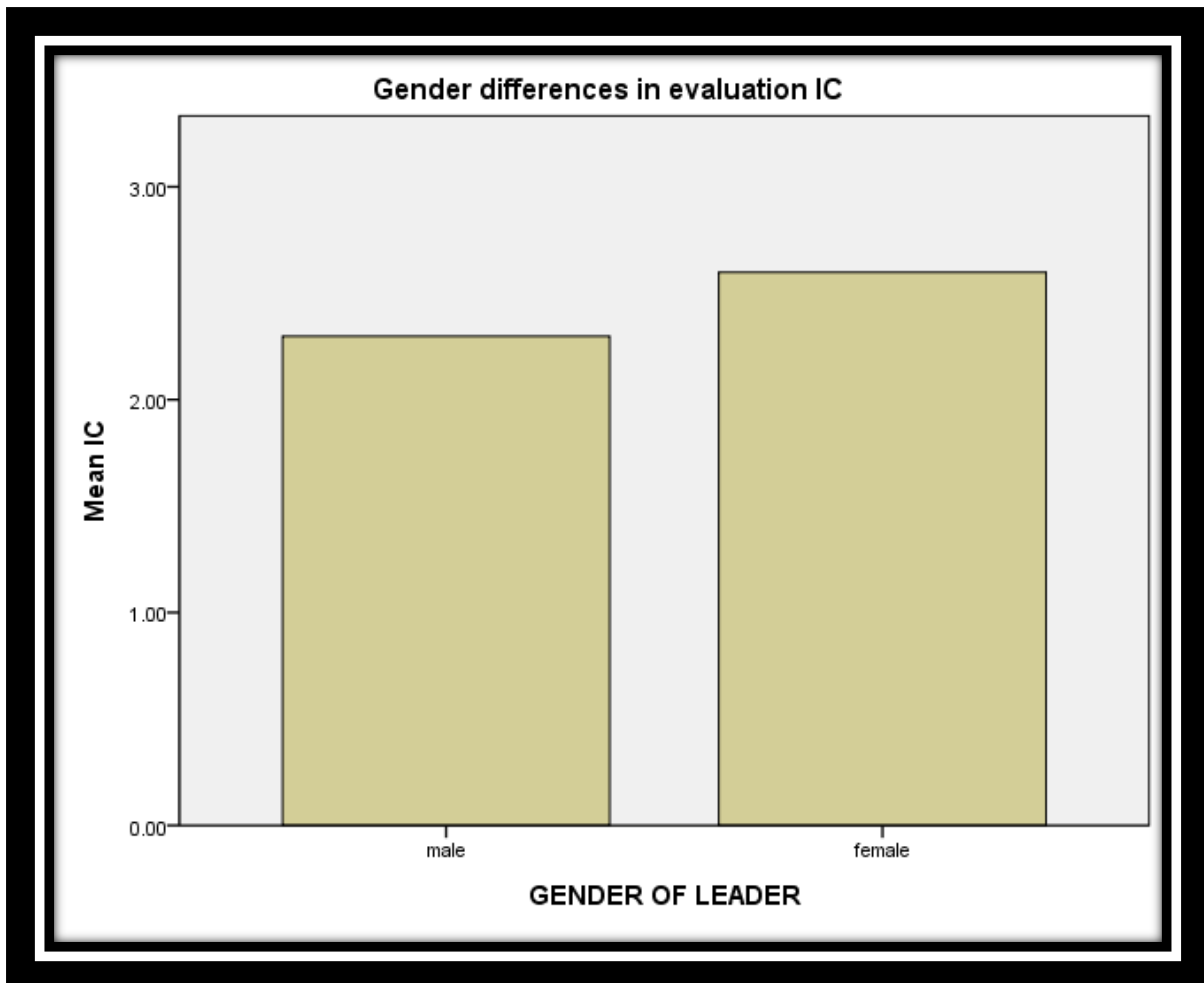
Within Groups	168.872	232	.728		
Total	174.118	233			

IC=individualized consideration

Source: Developed for the study

There was a significant effect of the gender of the leader (GOL) on evaluation of transformational leader on the *individualized consideration* scale at the $p < .05$ level for male and female leaders [$F(1,232)=7.21$, $P=.008$]. Now that it has been determined that *leader's gender* has a significant effect on the transformational leader on the *individualized consideration* scale, we need to show this influence by drawing a graph. The significant effect of (GOL) is graphically represented in Figure 6.9.

Figure 6.9: The significant effect of (GOL) on IC scale of transformational leadership.



IC=individualized consideration

Source: Developed for the study

In the graph above, we can see that female transformational leaders are evaluated more favorably on the scale of *individualized consideration* than male leaders who use the same style of leadership.

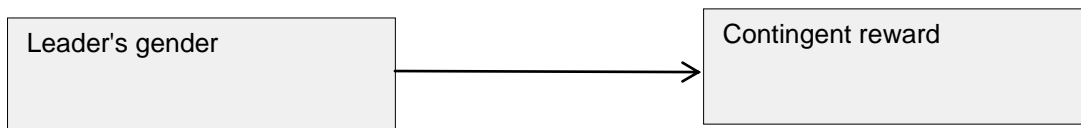
6.2.2 Transactional Leadership Style

It is suggested here that female transactional leaders are evaluated more favorably on *contingent reward* scale than male leaders who exhibit the same leadership style. Also, it is suggested here that male transactional leaders are rated more favorably on the *active management by exception* and the *passive management by exception* scales of transactional leadership behavior than female leaders who exhibit the same leadership style.

1-Contingent Reward Dimension

The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' *contingent reward* (a leader who provides followers with assistance in exchange for their efforts, discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets, makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved, expresses satisfaction when followers meet expectations). It is argued here that female leaders are evaluated more favorably on *contingent reward* dimension of transactional leadership style than male leaders who exhibit the same style.

Figure 6.10: The influence of (GOL) on CR scale of transactional leadership



Source: Developed for the study

As shown in Table 6.6, a one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to test the effect of *gender of the leader* (GOL) on evaluation of the transactional leader on the *contingent reward* scale.

Table 6.6: ANOVA for CR

CR					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	.760	1	.760	1.453	.229
Within Groups	105.176	201	.523		
Total	105.937	202			

CR= contingent reward

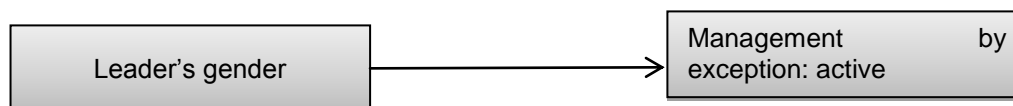
Source: Developed for the study

There was no significant effect of the gender of the leader (GOL) on evaluation of transactional leader on the *contingent reward* scale at the $p < .05$ level for male and female leaders ($p = .229 > .05$).

2-Management by Exception: Active

The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leader's *management by exception: active* (a leader who focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards, concentrates his (her) full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures, keeps track of all mistakes, directs his (her) attention toward failures to meet standards). It is suggested here, that male leaders are evaluated more favorably on *management by exception: active* dimension of transactional leadership style than female leaders who exhibit the same style.

Figure 6.11: The influence of (GOL) on MBEA scale of transactional leadership



Source: Developed for the study

As shown in Table 6.7, a one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to test the effect of *gender of the leader* (GOL) on evaluation of the transactional leader on the *management by exception: active* scale.

Table 6.7: ANOVA for MBEA

MBEA					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between	.369	1	.369	.438	.509

Groups					
Within Groups	169.406	201	.843		
Total	169.775	202			

MBEA= management by exception: active

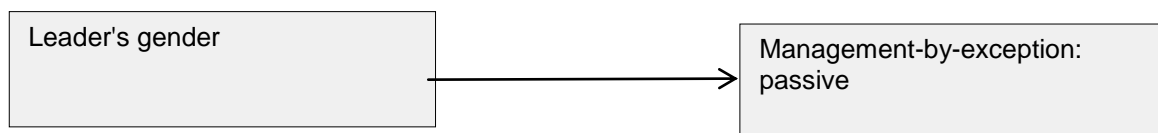
Source: developed for the study

There was no significant effect of the gender of the leader (GOL) on evaluation of transactional leader on the *management by exception: active* scale at the $p < .05$ levels for male and female leaders ($p = .509 > .05$).

3-Management by Exception: Passive Dimension

The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' *management by exception: passive* (a leader who fails to interfere until problems become serious, waits for things to go wrong before taking action, shows that he (she) is a firm believer in 'if it isn't broke, don't fix it', demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action). It is suggested here that male leaders are evaluated more favorably on *management by exception: passive* dimension of transactional leadership style than female leaders who exhibit the same style.

Figure 6.12: The influence of (GOL) on MBEA scale of transactional leadership



Source: Developed for the study

As shown in Table 6.8, a one-way between subjects ANOVA was conducted to test the effect of *gender of the leader* (GOL) on evaluation of the transactional leader on the *management by exception: passive* scale.

Table 6.8: ANOVA for MBEP

MBEP					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3.162	1	3.162	2.843	.093
Within Groups	223.564	201	1.112		
Total	226.726	202			

MBEP= *management by exception: passive*

Source: developed for the study

There was no significant effect of the gender of the leader (GOL) on evaluation of transactional leader on the *management by exception: passive* scale at the $p < .05$ levels for male and female leaders ($p = .093 > .05$).

To sum up, evaluation of the transactional leaders in the context of Syria on the three dimensions, namely, *contingent reward*, *management by exception: active* and *management by exception: passive* did not differ according to the gender of the leader.

6.3 MULTIPLE REGRESSION

Gender of the leader has an impact on evaluation of transformational leaders (being female leaders are viewed more transformational than male leaders who exhibit the same leadership style). If the follower scores high or low on *power distance orientation*, then that can alter the direction of the relation between a predictor variable (GOL) and an outcome variable (transformational leadership). Individuals

who live in a high *power distance* culture, such as Syria, are likely to not accept women's use of power compared to those who live in a more egalitarian culture since prevailing cultural norms would put women at a lower place within society (Simmons et al, 2012). So, it is argued in this dissertation/thesis that female leaders would be valued by followers with high or low *power distance orientation* less favorably than male leaders who exhibit the same leadership style. Typically, multiple regressions are used as a data-analytic strategy to explain or predict a criterion (dependent) variable with a set of predictor (independent) variables (Petrocelli, 2003). In this research, we are saying that a follower's *power distance orientation* interacts with gender of the leader to predict the level of transformational leadership on five dimensions (*idealized influence attributes, idealized influence behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration*), and to predict the level of transactional leadership on three dimensions (*contingent rewards, management by exception: active, and management by exception: passive*). However, sometimes we may be much surer about the causal importance or hierarchy of our variables (Miles and Shevlin, 2003). So, hierarchical multiple regression was used as a primary data analytic procedure by taking a close look at the logic that is used when using this method. Hierarchical multiple regression is used to assess the effects of a moderating variable. To test moderation, we will in particular be looking at the interaction effect between (GOL) and (PDO) and whether or not such an effect is significant in predicting transformational or transactional leadership style.

6.3.1 Evaluation of Assumptions

Prior to conducting a hierarchical multiple regression, a number of assumptions about the data were tested. The major assumptions for multiple regression are sample size, multicollinearity and singularity, independence of residuals, outliers, normality, linearity and homoscedasticity. Some of these assumptions, namely, *outliers, normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity* were detected in the treatment/purification of data chapter, and all those assumptions were met. The other assumptions, namely, *sample size, independence of residuals, multicollinearity and singularity* could and were checked as a part of multiple regression analysis.

One: Sample Size

The issue here is about generalisability. That means, with small samples, we cannot generalise our results (cannot be repeated) with other samples (Pallant, 2005). Tabachnick and Fidell (2001: 117) “give a formula for calculating sample size requirements, taking into account the number of independent variables that would be used in the analysis”:

$$N > 50 + 8m$$

n= number of participants

m= number of independent variables

A sample size of 234 (for transformational leadership) and a sample size of 203 (for transactional leadership) were adequate given two independent variables (GOL and PDO) to be included in the analysis (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2001).

Two: Independence of Errors

Another assumption testable through residuals analysis of multiple regression is that errors of prediction are independent of one another. “The Durbin-Waston statistic is a measure of autocorrelation of errors over the sequence of cases” (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2006: 128). The Durbin-Waston statistic inform us about whether independence of errors assumption is tenable, the closer to 2 that the value is, the better (Field, 2009). For these data, the value of Durbin-Waston for all models was closer to 2, which means the assumption has certainly been met (see appendix 15).

Three: Multicollinearity and Singularity

Multiple regression does not want to find multicolliearity or singularity between the independent variables, and if those exist, they certainly do not contribute to a good regression model, so it is essential to check for these problems before hierarchical multiple regression analysis is conducted.

Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity exists when there is a high relationship among the independent variables (Pallant, 2005). The situation when the independent variables are highly intercorrelated is referred to as multicollinearity. When the variables are highly intercorrelated, it becomes difficult to disentangle the separate effects of each of the explanatory (independent) variables on the explained variable (Maddala and Lahiri, 2009). The tolerance values are a measure of the correlation between the independent variables and this value may be between 0 and 1. The closer to 0 the tolerance value is the higher the relationship this variable and the other predictor variables and this means the higher the degree of collinearity. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), a tolerance value of .50 or higher is acceptable. The assumption of multicollinearity or collinearity was met, as the collinearity statistics (tolerance values) were all within the accepted limits. Therefore, the multicollinearity assumption (see appendices 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, and 23) was not violated.

Singularity

The situation when the variables are redundant, where one independent variable is actually a combination of two or more of the other independent variables, is referred to as a singularity (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2006). Singularity assumption was also met as the independent variables (GOL and PDO) were not a combination of other independent variables.

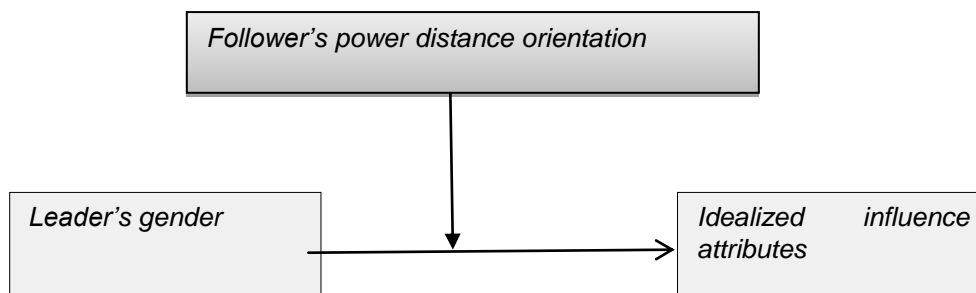
6.3.2 Hierarchical Multiple Regression (Transformational Leadership Style)

Hierarchical regression is used when we want to enter interaction terms into the regression equation. In this research, female leaders were viewed as more transformational than male's leaders who exhibit the same leadership style. Therefore, we are saying that follower's *power distance orientation* (PDO) interacts with the *gender of the leader* (GOL) to predict levels of evaluation of the transformational leader on five scales (*idealized influence-attributes, idealized*

influence-behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration scale). Therefore, *gender of the leader* (GOL) was entered at the first step, the follower's *power distance orientation* (PDO) at the second step, and then the interaction term (GOL*PDO) at the third step.

H1: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of the leaders' *idealized influence attributes* (a leader who instils pride in followers for being associated, goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group, acts in ways that build followers' respect for, displays a sense of power and confidence). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transformational style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

Figure 6.13: Research hypothesis 1



Source: Developed for the study

As shown in Table 6.9, hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to test the interaction effect of *gender of the leader* (GOL) and the follower's *power distance orientation* (PDO) on evaluation of the transformational leader on the *idealized influence attributes* scale.

Table 6.9: Results of hierarchical multiple regression (IA)

Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	Sig
Step1				
Constant	2.48	.08		.000

GOL	.86	.11	.45	.000
Step2				
Constant	2.63	.07		.000
GOL	.56	.11	.29	.000
Z score(PDO)	.43	.05	.45	.000
Step3				
Constant	2.68	.07		.000
GOL	.60	.10	.31	.000
Z score(PDO)	.58	.07	.61	.000
Interaction between PDO and GOL	-.41	.11	-.26	.000

$R^2=.200$ for step1; $\Delta R^2=.175$ for step2; $\Delta R^2=.038$ for step3

Note: IA= idealized influence attributes; GOL=gender of leader; PDO= power distance orientation

Source: Developed for the study

In the first step of hierarchical multiple regression, one predictor was entered (gender of the leader). This model was statistically significant ($F(1, 232)=58.104, P<.05$) and explained 20% of variance in *idealized influence attributes*. After entry of *power distance orientation* scale at step 2 the variance explained by the second model was 37.5% of the variance in *idealized influence attributes*. The second model was assessed as significant ($F(2, 231)=69.388, P<.05$). Finally, after entry of the interaction term (GOL*PDO) at the step 3, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 41.3%. The third model was assessed as significant ($F(3, 230)=54.003, P<.05$).

The standardized beta values tell us the number of standard deviations that the outcome will change as a result of one standard deviation change in the predictor. They provide a better insight into the importance of predictor in the model. The beta coefficient reflects the unique contribution of each independent variable.

The *gender of the leader*, the follower's *power distance orientation*, and the interaction term (GOL*PDO) were statistically significant, with the *gender of leader*

and follower's *power distance orientation* scales recording the same beta value (beta=.45, $p<.05$). This tells us that both of the predictor variables have the same impact on evaluation *idealized influence attributes* of the transformational leader. The interaction between *gender of the leader* and follower's *power distance orientation* was statistically negative significant recording (beta=-.26, $p<.05$). Therefore, we can say that the results of hierarchical multiple regression indicate a statistical significance in the relationships between each of 1-*gender of leader* and *idealized influence-attributes* ($p=.000<.05$). 2-follower's *power distance orientation* and *idealized influence-attributes* ($p=.000<.05$). 3-the interaction between gender of the leader and follower's *power distance orientation* and *idealized influence-attributes* ($p=.000<.05$).

Now that it has been determined that there is an interaction effect between the follower's *power distance orientation* and *leader's gender* on the evaluation of the transformational leader on the *idealized influence-attributes* scale, we need to identify the pattern of that interaction, as a basis for interpreting it. To do this the model is plotted, interpreted and demonstrates how these variables relate to the outcome variable (*idealized influence attributes*). To identify the precise nature of this interaction, two regression lines need to be put into a graph; one which shows how the level of the followers' *power distance orientation* predicts the level of the transformational leader on *idealized influence attributes* for female leaders, and another one which shows how the level of the followers' *power distance orientation* predicts the level of the transformational leader on *idealized influence attributes* for male leaders. *Power distance orientation* is positioned as high and low in participant responses following a common practice (recommended by Cohen et al, 2003), we choose groups at the mean and at low (-1 SD from the mean) and high (1 SD from the mean) values of the continuous variable (power distance orientation). Here we plotted scores for men and women at the mean and at low (-1 SD) and high (1 SD) levels of power distance orientation (see Figure 6.14).

Figure 6.14: The significant interaction effect of (GOL*PDO) on IA scale of transformational leadership

Note: GOL= gender of the leader, PDO= power distance orientation, IA= idealized influence attributes.

Source: Developed for the study

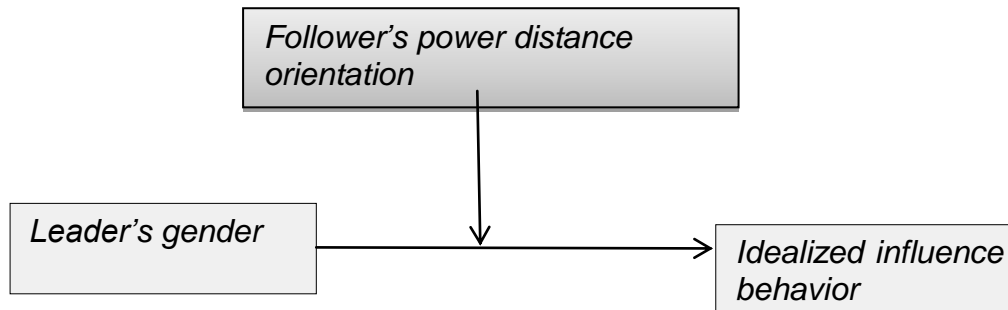
In the graph above, we can see that for female leaders, followers with a high power distance orientation evaluate female leaders less favorably than males, the higher *power distance orientation* the more transformational the leader. For male leaders, followers with a high *power distance orientation* evaluate male leaders more favorably than females, the higher *power distance orientation* the more transformational the leader. Overall, the graph shows that male leaders are more transformational on the *idealized influence attributes* scale than female leaders. The difference in evaluation between a male transformational leader and a female transformational leader on the *idealized influence attribute* scale by followers depends on how much the follower scores on *power distance orientation*.

Because the theoretical underpinning for this research specified that an interaction effect would occur (this research tries to predict level of the transformational leader from GOL, follower's PDO, and a GOL*PDO interaction), only the statistical significance of a GOL*PDO interaction should be considered in determining if the hypothesis had been supported (Bedeian and Mossholder, 1994). "The moderator hypothesis is supported if the interaction.....is significant. There may also be significant main effects for the predictor and the moderator, but these are not directly relevant conceptually to testing the moderator hypothesis" (Baron and Kenny, 1986: 1174). In other words, once the interaction effect is added, the more important issue is the significance of that interaction term not the terms which were used to compute the interaction product. Therefore, H1 is supported.

H2: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of the leader's *idealized influence behavior* (a leader who talks about most important values and beliefs, specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose, considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions, emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of mission). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transformational style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a

female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

Figure 6.15: Research hypothesis 2



Source: Developed for the study

As shown in Table 6.10, hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to test the interaction effect of *gender of the leader* (GOL) and the follower's *power distance orientation* (PDO) on the evaluation of the transformational leader on the *idealized influence behaviors* scale.

Table 6.10: Results of hierarchical multiple regression (IB)

Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	Sig
Step1				
Constant	2.52	.08		.000
GOL	.35	.12	.19	.004
Step2				
Constant	2.57	.09		.000
GOL	.24	.13	.13	.056
Z score(PDO)	.15	.06	.17	.016
Step3				
Constant	2.61	.09	.	.000
GOL	.27	.13	.15	.034
Z score(PDO)	.25	.08	.27	.002
Interaction between PDO and GOL	-.27	.13	-.17	.040

$R^2=.036$ for step1; $\Delta R^2=.024$ for step2; $\Delta R^2=.017$ for step3

Note: IB= idealized behaviors, GOL=gender of leader; PDO= power distance orientation

Source: Developed for the study

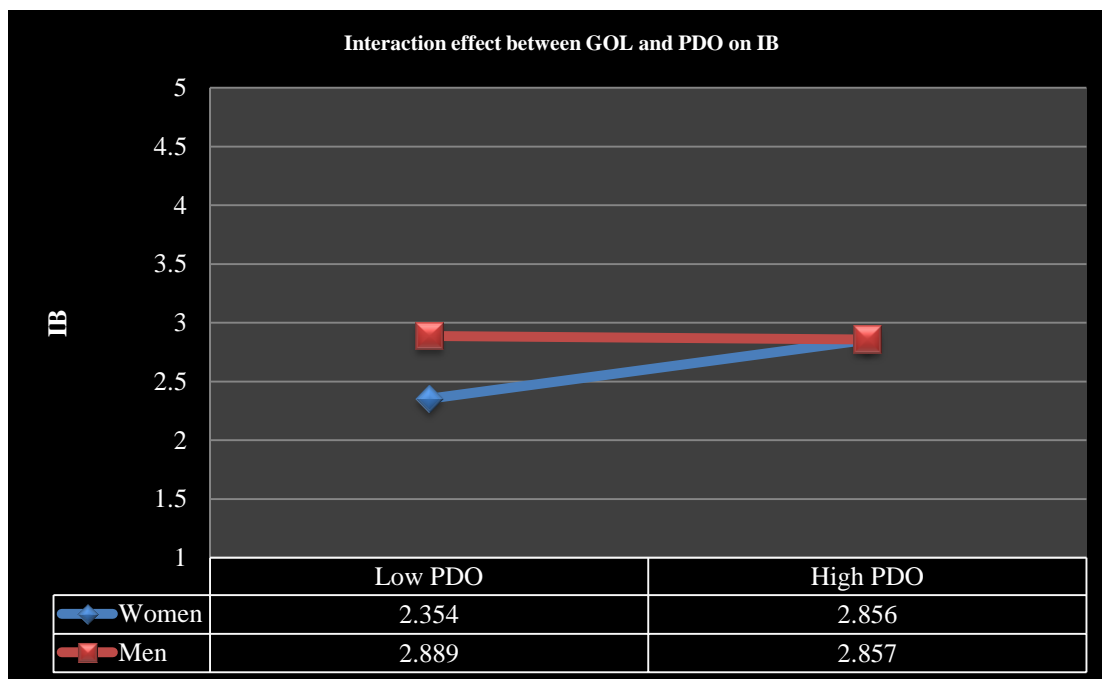
In the first step of hierarchical multiple regressions; one predictor (gender of the leader) was entered. This model was statistically significant ($F(1, 232)=8.586, P<.05$) and explained 3.6% of the variance in *idealized influence behaviors*. After entry of *power distance orientation* scale at step 2 the variance explained by the second model was 5.9% of the variance in *idealized influence behaviors*. The second model was assessed as significant ($F(2, 231)=7.305, P<.05$). Finally, after entry of the interaction term (GOL*PDO) at the step 3, the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 7.7%. The third model was assessed as significant ($F(3, 230)=6.354, P<.05$).

The *gender of the leader* (GOL), the follower's *power distance orientation* (PDO), and the interaction term (GOL*PDO) were statistically significant, with the gender of the leader recording a slightly higher beta value ($\beta=.19, p<.05$) than the *power distance orientation* scale ($\beta=.17, p<.05$). This tells us that the *gender of leader* has slightly more impact on *idealized influence behaviors*. Thus, the higher the beta value the greater the impact of the predictor (independent) variable on the criterion (outcome) variable. The interaction between *gender of the leader* and *power distance orientation* was statistically negative significant recording ($\beta=-.17, p<.05$). Therefore, the results of hierarchical multiple regression indicate a statistical significance relationship between each of 1-*gender of the leader* and *idealized influence-behavior* ($p=.004<.05$). 2-follower's *power distance orientation* and *idealized influence-behavior* ($p=.016<.05$). 3-the interaction between *gender of the leader* and follower's *power distance orientation* and *idealized influence-behaviors* ($p=.040<.05$).

Now that it has been determined that there is an interaction effect between the follower's *power distance orientation* and the *leader's gender* on evaluation of the transformational leader on the *idealized influence-behavior* scale, we need to identify the pattern of that interaction, as a basis for interpreting it. To do this, the model is plotted, interpreted and demonstrated how these variables relate to the outcome

variable (*idealized influence behavior*). To identify the precise nature of this interaction, two regression lines need to be put into a graph; one which shows how the level of the followers' *power distance orientation* (PDO) predicts the level of the transformational leader on *idealized influence behavior* for female leaders, and another one which shows how the level of the followers' *power distance orientation* (PDO) predicts the level of the transformational leader on *idealized influence behavior* for male leaders. To present the significant interaction effect of gender of the leader and follower's *power distance orientation* on evaluation of idealized influence attributes scale of transformational leadership, we plotted scores for men and women at the mean and at low (-1 SD) and high (1 SD) levels of *power distance orientation* (see Figure 6.16).

Figure 6.16: The significant interaction effect of (GOL*PDO) on IB scale of transformational leadership.



Note: GOL= gender of the leader, PDO= power distance orientation, IB= idealized influence behavior.

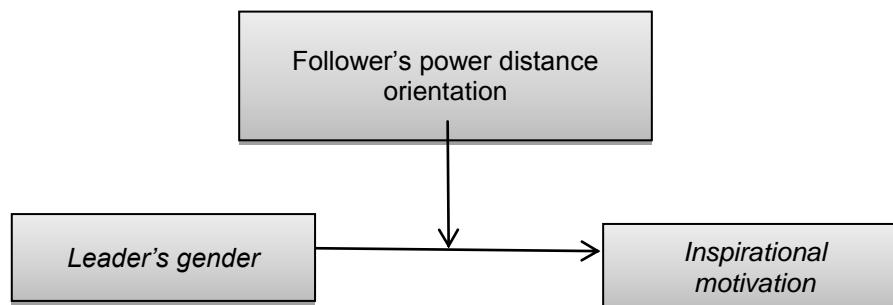
Source: Developed for the study

In the graph above, we can see that followers with a high *power distance orientation* evaluate female leaders less favorably than males. Overall, the graph shows that male leaders are more transformational on *idealized influence behaviors* scale than

female leaders. The difference in evaluation between a male transformational leader and a female transformational leader on *idealized influence behaviors* scale by followers depends on how much the follower scores on *power distance orientation*. Therefore, H2 is fully supported.

H3: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of the leader's *inspirational motivation* (a leader who talks optimistically about future, talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished, articulates a compelling vision of the future, and expresses confidence that goals will be achieved). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transformational style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

Figure 6.17: Research hypothesis 3



Source: Developed for the study

As shown in Table 6.11, hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to test the interaction effect of *gender of the leader* (GOL) and the follower's *power distance orientation* (PDO) on the evaluation of the transformational leader on the *inspirational motivation* scale.

Table 6.11: Results of hierarchical multiple regression (IM)

Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	Sig
Step1				
Constant	2.62	.09		.000
GOL	.73	.13	.35	.000
Step2				
Constant	2.73	.09		.000
GOL	.51	.13	.24	.000
Z score(PDO)	.31	.07	.29	.000
Step3				
Constant	2.77	.09		.000
GOL	.54	.13	.26	.000
Z score(PDO)	.43	.08	.40	.000
Interaction between PDO and GOL	-.32	.14	-.18	.019

$R^2=.119$ for step1; $\Delta R^2=.074$ for step2; $\Delta R^2=.019$ for step3

Note: IM= inspirational motivation; GOL=gender of leader; PDO= power distance orientation.

Source: Developed for the study

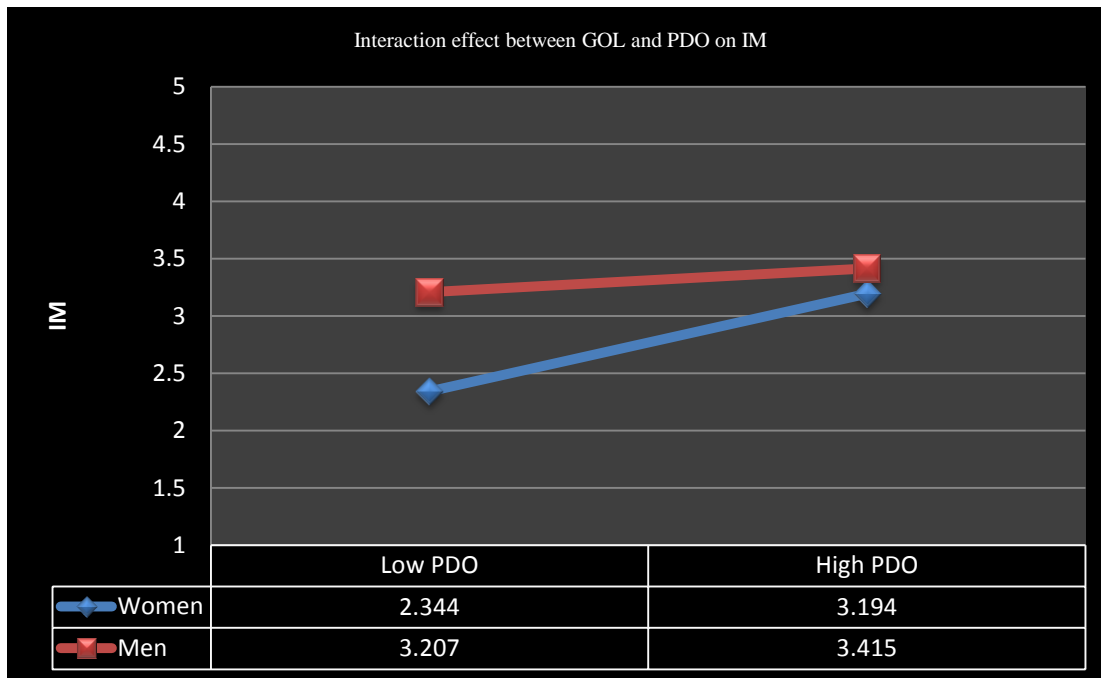
In the first step of hierarchical multiple regression, one predictor (gender of the leader) was entered. This model was statistically significant ($F(1, 232)=31.354$, $P<.05$) and explained 11.9% of the variance in *inspirational motivation*. After entry of the *power distance orientation* scale at step 2 the variance explained by the second model was 19.3% of the variance in *inspirational motivation*. The second model was assessed as significant ($F(2, 231)=27.660$, $P<.05$). Finally, after entry of the interaction term (GOL*PDO) at step 3 the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 21.2%. The third model was assessed as significant ($F(3, 230)=20.647$, $P<.05$).

The *gender of the leader*, the follower's *power distance orientation*, and the interaction term (GOL*PDO) were statistically significant, with the *gender of leader* recording a higher beta value ($\beta=.35$, $p<.05$) than the *power distance orientation*

scale ($\beta=.29$, $p<.05$). This tells us that *gender of leader* has more impact on *inspirational motivation*. The interaction between *gender of the leader* and *power distance orientation* was statistically negative significant recording ($\beta=-.18$, $p<.05$). Therefore, the results of hierarchical multiple regression indicate a statistical significance relationship between each of 1-gender of leader and *inspirational motivation* ($p=.000<.05$). 2-follower's *power distance orientation* and *inspirational motivation* ($p=.000<.05$). 3-the interaction between *gender of leader* and follower's *power distance orientation* and *inspirational motivation* ($p=.019<.05$).

Now that it has been determined that there is an interaction effect between the follower's *power distance orientation* and the *leader's gender* on evaluation of the transformational leader on the *inspirational motivation* scale, we need to identify the pattern of that interaction, as a basis for interpreting it. To do this, the model was plotted, interpreted and demonstrated how these variables relate to the outcome variable (*inspirational motivation*). To identify the precise nature of this interaction, two regression lines were put into a graph form; one which shows how the level of the followers' *power distance orientation* predicts the level of the transformational leader on *inspirational motivation* for female leaders, and another which shows how the level of the followers' *power distance orientation* predicts the level of the transformational leader on *inspirational motivation* for male leaders. To present the significant interaction effect of gender of the leader and follower's *power distance orientation* on evaluation of *inspirational motivation* scale of transformational leadership, we plotted scores for men and women at the mean and at low (-1 SD) and high (1 SD) levels of power distance orientation (see Figure 6.18).

Figure 6.18: The significant interaction effect of (GOL*PDO) on IM scale of transformational leadership.



Note: GOL= gender of the leader, PDO= power distance orientation, IM= inspirational motivation

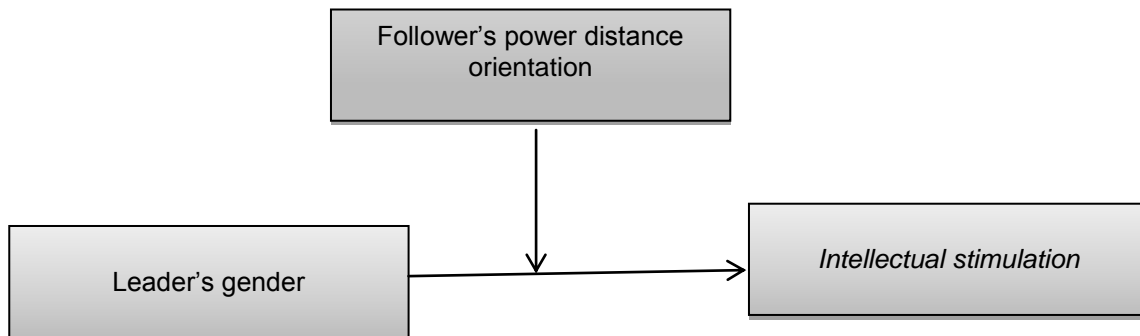
Source: Developed for the study

In the graph above, we can see that followers with a high *power distance orientation* evaluate female leaders on the *inspirational motivation* scale less favorably than male leaders. Overall, the graph shows that male leaders are more transformational on the *inspirational motivation* scale than females. The difference in evaluation between a male transformational leader and a female transformational leader on *inspirational motivation* scale by followers depends on how much the follower scores on *power distance orientation*.

H4: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of the leader's *intellectual stimulation* (a leader who re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate, seeks differing perspectives when solving problems, gets followers to look at problems from many different angles, suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transformational style of leadership. Will such followers

rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

Figure 6.19: Research hypothesis 4



Source: Developed for the study

As shown in Table 6.12, hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to test the interaction effect of *gender of the leader* (GOL) and the follower's *power distance orientation* (PDO) on evaluation of the transformational leader on the *intellectual stimulation* scale.

Table 6.12: Results of hierarchical multiple regression (IS)

Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	Sig
Step1				
Constant	2.27	.10	.	.000
GOL	.25	.14	.12	.067
Step2				
Constant	2.35	.10		.000
GOL	.09	.14	.04	.544
Z score(PDO)	.24	.07	.22	.001
Step3				
Constant	2.37	.10		.000
GOL	.10	.14	.05	.478
Z score(PDO)	.29	.09	.28	.001

Interaction between PDO and GOL	-.16	.15	-.09	.295
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R²=.014 for step1; ΔR²=.044 for step2; ΔR²=.004 for step3

Note: IS= intellectual stimulation; GOL=gender of leader; PDO= power distance orientation.

Source: Developed for the study

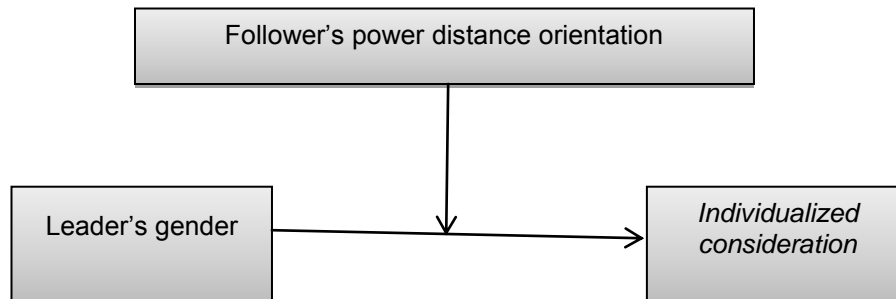
In the first step of hierarchical multiple regression, one predictor (gender of the leader) was entered. This model explained 1.4% of the variance in *intellectual stimulation*. After entry of the *power distance orientation* scale at step 2 the variance explained by the second model was 5.8% of the variance in *intellectual stimulation*. The second model was assessed as significant (F2, 231=7.138, P<.05). Finally, after entry of the interaction term (GOL*PDO) at step 3 the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 6.3%. The third model was assessed as significant (F3, 230=5.128, P<.05).

The results of hierarchical multiple regression indicate a statistical significance relationship between only the follower's *power distance orientation* and *intellectual stimulation* (p=.001<.05). The follower's *power distance orientation* was found to be the only independent variable with a significant impact on evaluation of the transformational leader on the *intellectual stimulation* scale (beta=.22, p<.05). Because only the statistical significance of the interaction term must be considered in determining whether the hypothesis had been supported (Bedeian and Mossholder, 1994), H4 is not supported.

H5: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of the leaders' *individualized consideration* (a leader who spends time teaching and coaching, treats followers as individuals rather than as a member of a group, considers an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others, helps followers to develop their strengths). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transformational style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female

leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

Figure 6.20: Research hypothesis 5



Source: Developed for the study

As shown in Table 6.13, hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to test the interaction effect of *gender of the leader* (GOL) and the follower's *power distance orientation* (PDO) on the evaluation of the transformational leader on *individualized consideration* scale.

Table 6.13: Results of hierarchical multiple regression (IC)

Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	Sig
Step1				
Constant	2.30	.08		.000
GOL	.30	.11	.17	.008
Step2				
Constant	2.36	.08		.000
GOL	.19	.12	.11	.117
Z score(PDO)	.16	.06	.19	.006
Step3				
Constant	2.37	.08		.000
GOL	.19	.12	.11	.104
Z score(PDO)	.19	.07	.22	.010
Interaction between PDO	-.08	.12	-.06	.512

and GOL

$R^2=.030$ for step1; $\Delta R^2=.031$ for step2; $\Delta R^2=.002$ for step3

Note: IC= individualized consideration GOL=gender of leader; PDO= power distance orientation

Source: Developed for the study

In the first step of hierarchical multiple regression, one predictor (gender of the leader) was entered. This model was statistically significant ($F(1, 232)=7.207, P<.05$) and explained 3% of the variance in *individualized consideration*. After entry of the *power distance orientation* scale at step 2 the variance explained by the second model was 6.1% of the variance in *individualized consideration*. The second model was assessed as significant ($F(2, 231)=7.543, P<.05$). Finally, after entry of the interaction term (GOL*PDO) at the step 3 the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 6.3%. The third model was assessed as significant ($F(3, 230)=5.160, P<.05$).

The results of hierarchical multiple regression indicate a statistical significance relationship between 1-gender of the leader and *individualized consideration* ($p=.008<.05$). 2-follower's *power distance orientation* and *individualized consideration* ($p=.006<.05$). The gender of the leader and the follower's *power distance orientation* were statistically significant, with the *power distance orientation* scale recording a slightly higher beta value ($\beta=.19$) than the *leader's gender* ($\beta=.17$). This tells us that follower's *power distance orientation* has more impact on *individualized consideration*.

Once again, hierarchical multiple regression was used to assess the effects of a moderating variable. To test moderation, we shall particularly be interested in the interaction effect between (PDO and GOL) and whether or not such an interaction is significant in predicting the transformational leader on *individualized consideration* scale. Therefore, H5 is not supported.

In this research, only three significant interaction terms between *gender of the leader* and the *follower's power distance orientation* were found. The test of hypotheses

four and five does not support that the interaction between the *gender of the leader* and the *follower's power distance orientation* has a direct impact on the evaluation of the transformational leader on *intellectual stimulation* scale and *individualized consideration* scale.

6.3.3 Hierarchical Multiple Regression (Transactional Leadership Style)

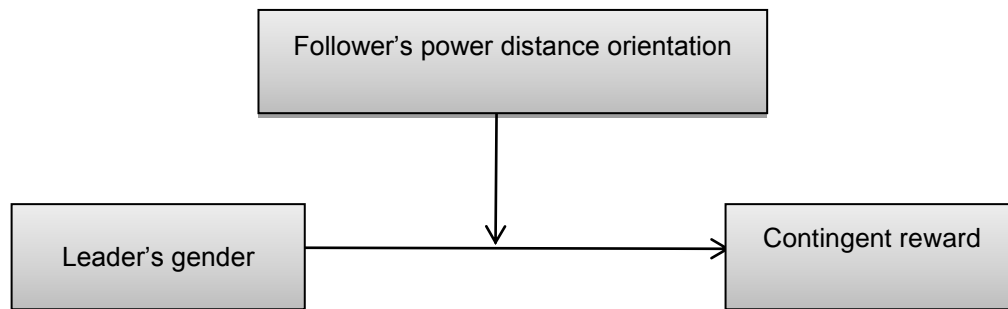
In this study, there were no significant gender differences between male and female transactional leaders. So it is argued here that *power distance orientation* will interact the relation between the predictor variable (GOL) and the outcome variable (transactional leadership) to change the relation. The question is: Does follower's *power distance orientation* make any difference in the evaluation between male and female transactional leaders? It has been suggested here that followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation* will rate/evaluate such a female transactional leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male transactional leader.

Hierarchical multiple regressions were used to assess the interaction effect of the two independent variables (*gender of the leader* and the follower's *power distance orientation*) on the evaluation of the transactional leader on three scales (*contingent reward, management by exception: active and management by exception: passive*). Gender of the leader was entered at step 1, the follower's *power distance orientation* was added at step 2 and finally the interaction term (GOL*PDO) at step 3 was added.

H6: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of the leaders' *contingent reward* (a leader who provides followers with assistance in exchange for their efforts, discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets, makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved, expresses satisfaction when followers meet expectations). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transactional style of

leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

Figure 6.21: Research hypothesis 6



Source: Developed for the study

As shown in Table 6.14, hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to test the interaction effect of *gender of the leader* (GOL) and the follower's *power distance orientation* (PDO) on the evaluation of the transactional leader on *contingent reward* scale.

Table 6.14: Results of hierarchical multiple regression (CR)

Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	Sig
Step1				
Constant	3.15	.07		.000
GOL	-.12	.10	-.09	.229
Step2				
Constant	3.16	.07		.000
GOL	-.13	.10	-.09	.193
Z score(PDO)	.11	.05	.15	.036
Step3				
Constant	3.34	.17		.000
GOL	-.54	.35	-.37	.128
Z score(PDO)	.05	.07	.06	.530
Interaction between PDO	.22	.18	.31	.230

and GOL

$R^2=.007$ for step1; $\Delta R^2=.022$ for step2; $\Delta R^2=.007$ for step3

Note: CR=contingent rewards, GOL=gender of leader; PDO= power distance orientation.

Source: Developed for the study

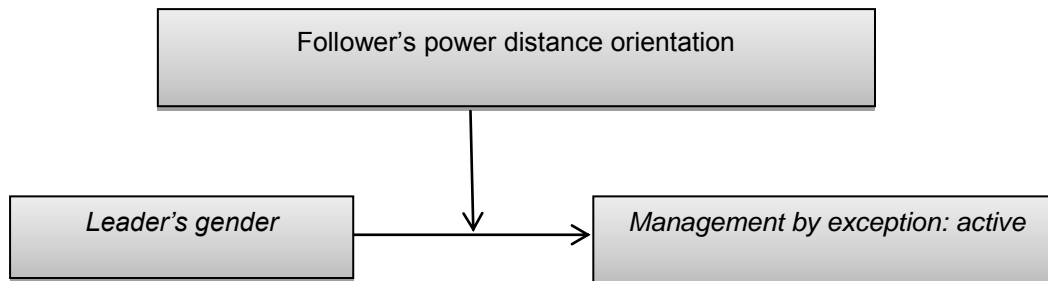
In the first step of hierarchical multiple regression, one predictor (gender of the leader) was entered. This model explained 7% of the variance in *contingent reward*. After entry of the *power distance orientation* scale at step 2 the variance explained by the second model was 2.9% of the variance in *contingent reward*. Finally, after entry of the interaction term (GOL*PDO) at step 3 the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 3.6%. Using the enter method, the second model was close to being significant ($F_{2, 200}=2.975$, $P=.053$).

The results of hierarchical multiple regression indicate a statistically significant relationship between only the follower's *power distance orientation* and *contingent reward* ($p=.036<.05$). The follower's *power distance orientation* was found to be the only independent variable with a significant impact on the evaluation of the transactional leader on *contingent reward* scale ($b=.11$). The study has revealed that followers higher, rather than lower, in cultural value of *power distance orientation* differentiate in their evaluation of the transactional leader on the *contingent reward* scale.

H7: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of the leader's *management by exception: active* (a leader who focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards, concentrates his (her) full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures, keeps track of all mistakes, directs his (her) attention toward failures to meet standards). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transactional style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they

rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

Figure 6.22: Research hypothesis 7



Source: Developed for the study

As shown in Table 6.15, hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to test the interaction effect of *gender of the leader* (GOL) and the follower's *power distance orientation* (PDO) on the evaluation of the transactional leader on *management by exception: active* scale.

Table 6.15: Results of hierarchical multiple regression (MBEA)

Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	Sig
Step1				
Constant	2.44	.09		.000
GOL	.09	.13	.05	.509
Step2				
Constant	2.44	.09		.000
GOL	.09	.13	.05	.512
Z score(PDO)	.01	.07	.01	.944
Step3				
Constant	2.69	.22		.000
GOL	-.46	.45	-.25	.307
Z score(PDO)	-.08	.09	-.09	.395
Interaction between PDO and GOL	.30	.24	.33	.207

$R^2=.002$ for step1; $\Delta R^2=.000$ for step2; $\Delta R^2=.008$ for step3

Note: MBEA=management by exception: active, GOL=gender of leader; PDO=power distance orientation.

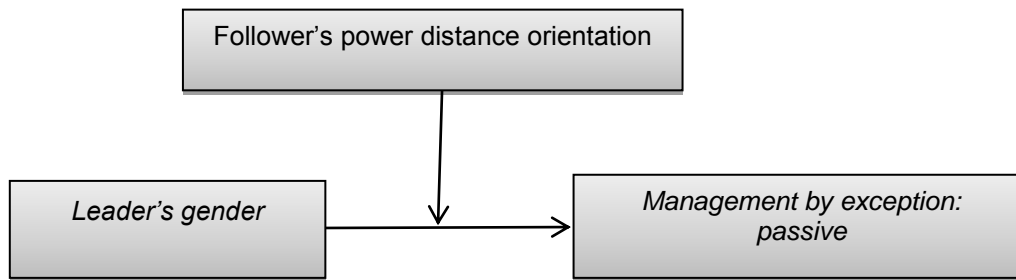
Source: Developed for the study

In the first step of hierarchical multiple regression, one predictor (gender of the leader) was entered. This model explained 2% of the variance in *management by exception: active*. After entry of the *power distance orientation* scale at step 2 the variance explained by the second model still was .2% of the variance in *management by exception: active*. Finally, after entry of the interaction term (GOL*PDO) at step 3 the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 1%. Using the enter method; none of the three models was significant.

Neither the first model (GOL variable alone) nor the second model (GOL plus PDO) predicted scores on the dependent variable (the evaluation of the transactional leader on *management by exception: active* scale) to a statistically significant degree. Furthermore, *gender of leader* and the evaluator's *power distance orientation* showed no significant interaction effect. Therefore, the hierarchical multiple regression analyses do not support hypothesis 7.

H8: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of the leader's *management by exception: passive* (a leader who fails to interfere until problems become serious, waits for things to go wrong before taking action, shows that he (she) is a firm believer in 'if it isn't broke, don't fix it', demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transactional style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?

Figure 6.23: Research hypothesis 8



Source: Developed for the study

As shown in Table 6.16, hierarchical multiple regression was conducted to test the interaction effect of gender of the leader (GOL) and the follower's *power distance orientation* (PDO) on the evaluation of the transactional leader on *management by exception: passive* scale.

Table 6.16: Results of hierarchical multiple regression (MBEP)

Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	Sig
Step1				
Constant	1.91	.10		.000
GOL	-.25	.15	-.12	.093
Step2				
Constant	1.91	.10		.000
GOL	-.25	.15	-.12	.093
Z score(PDO)	.01	.07	.01	.895
Step3				
Constant	2.06	.25		.000
GOL	-.57	.52	-.27	.269
Z score(PDO)	-.04	.11	-.04	.711
Interaction between PDO and GOL	.18	.27	.17	.516

$R^2=.014$ for step1; $\Delta R^2=.000$ for step2; $\Delta R^2=.002$ for step3

Note: MBEP=management by exception: passive, GOL=gender of leader; PDO=power distance orientation.

Source: Developed for the study

In the first step of hierarchical multiple regression, one predictor (gender of the leader) was entered. This model explained 1.4% of the variance in *management by exception: passive*. After entry of the *power distance orientation* scale at step 2 the variance explained by the second model still was 1.4% of the variance in *management by exception: passive*. Finally, after entry of the interaction term (GOL*PDO) at step 3 the total variance explained by the model as a whole was 1.6%. Using the enter method; none of the three models was significant.

Neither the first model (GOL variable alone) nor the second model (GOL plus PDO) predicted scores on the dependent variable (the evaluation of the transactional leader on *management by exception: passive* scale) to a statistically significant degree. Furthermore, gender of the leader and the evaluator's *power distance orientation* showed no significant interaction effect. The hierarchical multiple regression analyses do not support hypothesis 8.

6.4 SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS

The aim of this study was to investigate the interaction influence of culture at the *individual* level of analysis as measured by *power distance orientation* and gender of the leader on the evaluation of transformational/transactional leadership behaviors in the Middle East, a non-Western context. There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation*. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transformational and a transactional style of leadership. The eight hypotheses were tested. The first five hypotheses were would such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership, along the five dimensions identified (*idealized influence attributes, idealized influence behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration*)? It has been argued here that, at the *individual* level of analysis, *power distance orientation* interacts with *gender of the leader* influencing how followers evaluate leaders who exhibit a transformational style of leadership. The remaining three out of the eight hypotheses were would such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader

less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership, along the three dimensions identified (*contingent rewards, management by exception: active, and management by exception: passive*)? It has been argued here that, at the *individual* level of analysis, *power distance orientation* interacts with *gender of the leader* influencing how followers evaluate leaders who exhibit a transactional style of leadership.

In looking at the three out of the five dimensions of transformational leadership, namely, *idealized influence attributes* (a leader who instils pride in followers for being associated, goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group, acts in ways that build followers' respect for, displays a sense of power and confidence), *idealized influence behavior* (a leader who talks about most important values and beliefs, specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose, considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions, emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of mission) and *inspirational motivation* (a leader who talks optimistically about future, talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished, articulates a compelling vision of the future, expresses confidence that goals will be achieved), the results show a significant interaction effect of *the gender of the leader* and the follower's *power distance orientation* on the evaluation of a transformational leader. That is, followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation* rate/evaluate a male and a female leader who exhibits a transformational style of leadership very differently indeed, rating/evaluating a female leader significantly less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader when it comes to these three aspects.

In looking at the remaining two out of the five dimensions of transformational leadership, namely, *intellectual stimulation* (a leader who re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate, seeks differing perspectives when solving problems, gets followers to look at problems from many different angles, suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments) and *individualized consideration* (a leader who spends time teaching and coaching, treats followers as individuals rather than as a member of a group, considers an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others, helps followers to develop their strengths), the results show no significant interaction effect of the

gender of the leader and the follower's *power distance orientation* on the evaluation of the transformational leader. That is, followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation* do not rate/evaluate a male and a female leader who exhibits a transformational style of leadership differently, rating/evaluating a female leader no less (or no more) favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader when it comes to these two aspects.

Finally, in looking at the three dimensions of transactional leadership, namely, *contingent reward* (a leader who provides followers with assistance in exchange for their efforts, discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets, makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved, expresses satisfaction when followers meet expectations), *management by exception: active* (a leader who focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards, concentrates his (her) full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures, keeps track of all mistakes, directs his (her) attention toward failures to meet standards), and *management by exception: passive* (a leader who fails to interfere until problems become serious, waits for things to go wrong before taking action, shows that he (she) is a firm believer in 'if it isn't broke, don't fix it', demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action), the results show no significant interaction effect of the *gender of the leader* and the follower's *power distance orientation* on the evaluation of a transactional leader. That is, followers who, as individuals, score high or low on *power distance orientation* do not rate/evaluate a male and a female leader who exhibits a transactional style of leadership differently, rating/evaluating a female leader no less (or no more) favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader when it comes to these three aspects of the transactional leadership style. The summary of the results of hypotheses testing is presented below in Table 6.17.

Table 6.17: Results of hypotheses testing

Hypotheses	Results
H1: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' <i>idealized influence attributes</i> (a leader who instils pride	Accepted

<p>in followers for being associated, goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group, acts in ways that build followers' respect for, displays a sense of power and confidence). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on <i>power distance orientation</i>. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transformational style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?</p>	
<p>H2: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' <i>idealized influence behavior</i> (a leader who talks about most important values and beliefs, specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose, considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions, emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of mission). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on <i>power distance orientation</i>. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transformational style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?</p>	Accepted
<p>H3: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' <i>inspirational motivation</i> (a leader who talks optimistically about future, talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished, articulates a compelling vision of the future, expresses confidence that goals will be achieved). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on <i>power distance orientation</i>. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transformational style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?</p>	Accepted
<p>H4: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of</p>	Rejected

<p>leaders' <i>intellectual stimulation</i> (a leader who re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate, seeks differing perspectives when solving problems, gets followers to look at problems from many different angles, suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on <i>power distance orientation</i>. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transformational style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?</p>	
<p>H5: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of the leader's <i>individualized consideration</i> (a leader who spends time teaching and coaching, treats followers as individuals rather than as a member of a group, considers an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others, helps followers to develop their strengths). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on <i>power distance orientation</i>. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transformational style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?</p>	Rejected
<p>H6: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' <i>contingent reward</i> (a leader who provides followers with assistance in exchange for their efforts, discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets, makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved, expresses satisfaction when followers meet expectations). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on <i>power distance orientation</i>. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transactional style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less</p>	Rejected

<p>favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?</p>	
<p>H7: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' <i>management by exception: active</i> (a leader who focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards, concentrates his (her) full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures, keeps track of all mistakes, directs his (her) attention toward failures to meet standards). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on <i>power distance orientation</i>. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transactional style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?</p>	<p>Rejected</p>
<p>H8: The dimension of leadership being explored here is that of leaders' <i>management by exception: passive</i> (a leader who fails to interfere until problems become serious, waits for things to go wrong before taking action, shows that he (she) is a firm believer in 'if it isn't broke, don't fix it', demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action). There are followers who, as individuals, score high or low on <i>power distance orientation</i>. There are both male and female leaders who exhibit a transactional style of leadership. Will such followers rate/evaluate such a female leader less favorably than they rate/evaluate a male leader, even though they exhibit the very same style of leadership?</p>	<p>Rejected</p>

Source: Developed for the study

6.5 SUMMARY

The findings showed statistically significant relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable with respect to the transformational leadership;

the results of significant relationship between constructs were as expected. Results demonstrate that the two independent variables (*gender of the leader* and the follower's *power distance orientation*) are important variables to consider when evaluating the transformational leaders on *idealized influence-attributes* scale, *idealized influence-behavior* scale, *inspirational motivation* scale, and *individualized consideration* scale. *Gender of the leader* variable and follower's *power distance orientation* variable have the same effect on the evaluation of the transformational leader on *idealized influence attributes* (see Table 6.9). The effect of *leader's gender* variable was stronger than the effect of follower's *power distance orientation* variable on the evaluation of the transformational leader on *idealized influence-behavior* scale and *inspirational motivation* scale (see Table 6.10 and Table 6.11). Finally, the effect of the follower's *power distance orientation* variable was stronger than the effect of *gender of the leader* on the evaluation of the transformational leader on *individualized consideration* scale. However, there is no significant relationship between *gender of the leader* and the evaluation of the transformational leader on *intellectual stimulation* scale (see Table 6.12). On the other hand, the results showed no statistical significant relationship between the independent variables and dependent variable regarding transactional leadership sample except for the *contingent reward* dimension. There was a significant relationship between the follower's *power distance* dimension and the evaluation of the transactional leader on *contingent reward* scale. The surprising finding was that *the gender of the leader* was not statistically related to the evaluation of the transactional leader. That means this study exhibits no support for the hypothesized effect of *gender of the leader* on the evaluation of the transactional leader on the three scales (*contingent reward*, *management by exception: active* and *management by exception: passive*). Accordingly, it can be concluded that followers feel the same way about female leaders in the vignettes as they do about male leaders described in the vignettes. To sum up, females are valued as equally as males on the three scales of transactional leadership style and on the *intellectual stimulation* scale of the transformational leadership style.

CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSIONS

7.1 SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH

Throughout history, leadership has predominantly been associated with men. However, more recently, given that there are nowadays far more women in the workplace, at all levels, than their used to be, studies and interest has focused on examining the difference(s), if any, in leadership styles between men and women. Whilst there are many leadership styles, those concerning transformational and transactional leadership theory are the focus of the study described in this dissertation/thesis given their prominence in the literature (e.g, Bass, 1985; 1990; 1997; Pastor and Mayo, 2006; Coleman, 2007). Since the 1980s, the main focus of research contributing to theories on leadership has been that of *transformational* and *transactional* leadership behaviors (Bass, 1998; Judge and Bono, 2000; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Avolio, 2007; Appelbaum et al, 2013; Hunt and Fitzgerald, 2013; Antonakis, 2012). The research in these two leadership behaviors dominates, regardless of whether or not this is justified. Transformational and transactional leadership theory (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985, 1990, 1997) attempts to explain the extraordinary impacts that certain leaders have on their subordinates (Pastor and Mayo, 2008). Generally, transformational-transactional leadership theory is concerned with explaining how leaders influence their followers and the heart of these two types of leadership is the leader follower relationship (Metwally, 2014). In *transactional* leadership, leaders and followers consider each other as a tool for achieving their goals. Specifically, leaders use followers to achieve specific work goals. In return, followers consider achieving the specified goals as the main source for receiving rewards. Because of that, transactional leadership achieves specified goals. *Transformational* leadership, on the other hand, exceeds expected outcomes because the nature of the relationship between leaders and followers is more than an exchange relationship (Metwally, 2014). Whilst one is not 'better' than another, and nor could it be so given that the behavior of a single human being cannot be pigeonholed in such a way (human beings are complex beings), it is recognised that both transformational and transactional leadership behaviors are necessary to a

leader's success and that they are not mutually exclusive (Bass, 1985, 1990, 1997; Yaseen, 2010; Tibus, 2010).

Those in a leadership role, whether male or female, who demonstrate a *transformational* style of leadership are said to lead/manage by way of establishing, as the name suggests, relationships with their subordinates which involve a great deal of time in communicating with them, and they do not necessarily lead from the front as they tend to delegate responsibility to their teams (Bass, 1996). Much of the literature has been concerned with studying and defining transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Sashkin, 1987; Kouzes and Posner, 1988; Tichy and Devanna, 1990; Bass, 1996; Dvir et al, 2002; Eagly and Carli, 2003; Avolio and Bass, 2004; Pastor and Mayo, 2006; Powell et al, 2008; Jin, 2010; Ali et al, 2013; Metwally, 2014). There is some evidence to support a female advantage in leadership when women demonstrate transformational leadership behavior (Eagly and Carli, 2003; Powell et al, 2008). Transformational leadership behaviors are positively associated with nurturance and agreeableness (a stereotypically feminine trait) and negatively associated with aggression (a stereotypically masculine trait) (Ross and Offermann, 1997; Powell, 2012).

Transformational leadership theory can be subdivided into five factors (Bass, 2002a). One, *idealized influence attributes* which is described as instilling pride in and respect for the leader; the followers identify with the leader. Two, *idealized influence behavior* which is defined as the representation of a trustworthy and energetic role model for the follower. Three, *inspirational motivation* which is defined as the communication and representation of a vision; leader's optimism and enthusiasm. Four, *intellectual stimulation* which is described as followers are encouraged to question established ways of solving problems. Five, *individualized consideration* which is defined as understanding the needs and abilities of each follower, developing and empowering the individual follower.

Those in a leadership role, whether male or female, who demonstrate a *transactional* style of leadership are said to lead/manage by way of establishing, as the name suggests, relationships with their followers which involve clarifying followers' responsibilities, monitoring their work, rewarding them for meeting objectives and

correcting them when they fail to meet objectives (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985, 1998; Avolio, 1999). Transactional leadership is an exchange-based relationship between leaders and followers (Burns, 1978; Bass 1985; 1990; 2000; 2008; Pearce and Sims, 2002; Huberts et al, 2007). It is based on using rewards to motivate employees and accomplish specified goals, i.e. complete tasks on hand (Pearce and Sims, 2002; Huberts et al, 2007). In this type of leadership, followers are expected to perform their tasks according to given instructions (Huberts et al, 2007; Rohmann and Rowold, 2009). Transactional leadership allows followers to fulfill their own self-interest, minimize workplace anxiety, and concentrate on clear organizational objectives such as increased quality, customer service, reduced costs, and increased production (Sadeghi and Pihie, 2012). Transactional leadership is more closely linked with stereotypical masculine characteristics (Powell et al, 2008). Transactional leadership theory is subdivided into three factors (Avolio and Bass, 2002a). One, *contingent reward* which is described as defining the exchanges between what is expected from the follower and what the follower will receive in return. Two, *management by exception: active* which is defined as to maintain current performance status, the focus is on detecting and correcting errors or problems. Three, *management by exception: passive* which is defined as addressing problems only after they have become serious.

While since the early 1990s some studies have revealed gender differences regarding leadership style preferences, research has not supported real differences between men and women leaders. When men and women show the same leadership behavior, men are often evaluated more positively than women (Nieva and Gutek, 1980; Seifert and Miller, 1988; Butler and Geis, 1990; Shimanoff and Jenkins, 1991; Eagly and Carli, 2003a; Jogulu and Wood, 2006, 2008; Eagly, 2007). Studies which showed gender differences in leadership styles have concentrated on how leadership is perceived differently. Gender and leadership literature showed that researchers have taken many different ways towards the subject of gender and leadership. One way focuses on the differences between women and men leaders, claiming that female leaders are inherently different from male leaders. The second way claims that there is not any difference between men and women in the leadership positions. Finally, others stressed on small differences between men and women leaders. Therefore, if we are to better understand the achievements,

experiences, and performance of women as leaders, we must take into account the essential factor of the culture in which women (and men) live and work. National culture has a significant effect on leadership behavior according to gender socialisation and the expectations determined by that culture (Gibson, 1995).

Socially constructed gendered roles and gender-role schemas (Efthim et al, 2001) “are now generally accepted as identity resources that people draw upon in everyday lives” (Mavin, 2009: 2). Due Billing and Alvesson (2000) question notions of masculinity and femininity, recognizing these categories are gendered, grounded within culture and not by biological necessity they are not one’s sex. Masculinity and femininity are not fixed but constantly changing; culturally and historically dependent on the meanings we ascribe to them. They are forms of subjectivities (orientations in thinking, feeling and valuing), that recognize that “men as well as women are capable of acting in what may be labelled masculine and feminine ways, based on instrumentality as well as feelings, dependent on the situation” (Due Billing and Alvesson, 2000: 152). Eagly and Diekmann (2003) extend social role theory and argue that the role behavior of men and women shape the stereotype assigned to them e.g. perceptions and beliefs about the behaviors and traits possessed by men and women may change in response to perceived change in behavior elicited by their life circumstances” (Powell et al, 2008: 158).

Although some researchers supported the notion that men and women nowadays do not differ, there are many statistics that prove they are still far from the top leadership positions and they still struggle to get top positions. For example, in most Western nations, primarily Europe and North America, women account for nearly half of the workforce, according to government statistics. In the United States, for example, 52 percent of workers are women, and in Europe the number of women averages slightly less than 45 percent of workers. Yet when it comes to the number of women holding corporate leadership roles, the percentages are much lower. An analysis of compensation surveys released by Mercer on Feb. 21, 2012, found that women held 29 percent of senior-level management jobs in Europe. A report released by Catalyst in December 2011 showed that women held just 14 percent of the executive-level jobs at *Fortune* 500 companies in the U.S. “For a gender comprising over half the global population, women’s representation in senior

corporate roles is woeful,” said Sophie Black, a principal for Mercer’s executive remuneration team, in a statement. “The causes are complicated. It’s cultural, social; in some cases it is intentional discrimination, but it can also be an unconscious and unintentional bias,” she explained. “The end result of these issues is the creation of a ‘pyramid of invisibility’ for women in corporate life” Mercer researchers analyzed 264,000 senior-management jobs at approximately 5,300 companies in 41 countries and found that countries in the former Soviet bloc had the highest percentages of women in senior-level positions. The researchers found that women held 44 percent of the senior management jobs in Lithuania, followed by Bulgaria (43 percent) and Russia (40 percent). However, Spain, the United Kingdom and France each had a female representation level of 28 percent, while the Netherlands had the lowest level of female executives in Europe at 19 percent. (<http://www.weknownext.com>, Leonard, 2012). According to the Grant Thornton International Business Report (2012), women hold 21 percent of senior management positions globally. Russia has the highest percentage of women in leadership roles, well ahead of the EU and North America. The US, UK and Germany are all among the bottom 10 economies when it comes to the percentage of women in senior management roles. Japan 5%, Germany 13%, India 14%, Denmark 15%, UAE 15%, USA 17%, Netherlands 18%, Mexico 18%, Argentina 20%, and UK 20%. So this study draws upon social role theory (Eagly, 1987; Eagly et al, 2000), Eagly and Carli (2007, 2008) an agentic and communal leadership framework, and the work of Bosak and Sczesny (2011). That means that this study builds on the distinction between two gender-roles including the agentic gender-role which is associated with transactional leadership behavior, and the communal gender-role which is associated with the transformational leadership behavior.

Powell et al (2008) argue that as women and men are preparing for leader roles in more similar numbers, and as women have reached greater representation in middle management roles, then stereotypes assigned to them have become less differentiated. Mavin and Grandy (2011) contend “those individuals can perform exaggerated expressions of femininity or (masculinity) while simultaneously performing alternative expressions of femininity or masculinity” (cited in Mavin and Grandy, 2012: 219). By doing so, they agreed with Due Billing (2011, cited in Mavin and Grandy, 2012: 219) “who states that gender is a fluid concept that shifts over time and place”.

However, well-documented evidence shows that gender roles still differ considerably (Bosak and Sczesny, 2011). Communal attributes such as supportive, empathic, and gentle are more strongly ascribed to women. Agentic attributes, such as assertive, competitive, controlling, and dominant are more strongly associated with the male gender role. The distinction between communal and agentic attributes is also of central importance in the domain of leadership (Schuh et al, 2014). Recent work on leadership roles has confirmed that these are still mainly defined in masculine (i.e, agentic) terms-despite the growing number of female attributes that have become an integral part of the leadership role (Koenig et al, 2011). People's expectations about successful leadership behavior are strongly associated with attributes such as competitive, assertive, and decisive, which are traditionally regarded as male characteristics (Schuh et al, 2014).

The topic of gender in leadership is a renewed subject, at the very least, in the Arab world or in the Middle East region (Megheirkouni, 2014). This might be because gender is sensitive issue into leadership and in these regions from different perspectives: religious, social, economic, and political views that constitute the motor nerve of daily life (Megheirkouni, 2014). Many studies of women managers and qualified professionals focus on the negative and relatively disqualifying aspects of women in Muslim countries, in the Arab Middle East (Al Kharouf and Weir, 2008). Generally, the role of women in the workplace across all organizational levels has been expanding steadily worldwide (Powell, 2012). The Arab region has the world's lowest ratios of women representation not only in managerial positions but also in employment in general, and in politics (WEF, 2013). Studies (McElwee and Al-Riyami, 2003; Jamali et al, 2005; Tlaiss, 2010; Karam and Afiouni, 2013) suggested that the career barriers for Arab women were similar to those of Western women, in addition to the impact of the patriarchy. Women in the Middle East, like women in many different parts of the world, struggle against inequality and restrictive practices in education, economic participation and family roles (Hattab, 2012). With Arab society tradition and culture dictating the type of work women do, there is a clear case of gender difference, even discrimination, arising out of some form of socially constructed gender stereotyping where the dominant and self interested nature of men and the mental and emotional traits of women idealize roles (Yaseen, 2010).

“Compared to other parts of the world, the Middle Eastern region has less available literature related to the field of human resources management” (Yahchouchi, 2009: 127). Recently, there are many studies conducted in the Arab countries concerning transformational and transactional leadership styles (Shahin and Wright, 2014; Yahchouchi, 2009; Al abduljader, 2012; Yassen, 2010; Taleb, 2010; Sikdar and Mitra, 2012; Bin Zahari and Shurbagi, 2012; Metwally, 2014). Although the popularity of transformational and transactional leadership research is uncontested, there are limited studies which have been conducted in Syria to address transformational and transactional leadership styles (Alamir, 2010; Hammad, 2011). It was argued that there is little evidence to suggest that Arab men are equipped with personal characteristics that make them more suitable than women for management (Kauser and Tlaiss, 2011).

Hofstede (1980, 2001) identified four dimensions that compose a national culture (*uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism, masculinity/femininity, and power distance*), which became the basis of his characterisations of culture for each country (Hofstede, 1980; Dorfman and Howell, 1988: 129; Schneider and Barsoux, 1997: 79). A following study conducted by Hofstede and Bond (Hofstede and Bond, 1984; Hofstede and Bond, 1988; Hofstede, 1991b) introduced the fifth dimension which is called *Confucian Dynamism or long/short term orientation*, which was an attempt to fit the uncertainty avoidance dimension into the Asian culture. In 2010 he added a sixth and new dimension called indulgence versus restraint (Hofstede, 2011). Based on the extensive review of the literature on gender, culture, and the transformational and transactional leadership styles, it is evident that literature is scarce when it comes to the Middle East Arab World context and generally knowledge is scant when it comes to the interaction influence of culture at the individual level of analysis and gender on evaluation of transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. Although the literature on transformational and transactional styles of leadership is essentially those derived from studies carried out in the West cultures/countries which according to Hofstede (1980), score low on the *power distance dimension*, there are some recent studies on the transformational and transactional leadership styles in the Middle East Arab countries (e.g, Shahin and Wright, 2004; Yassen, 2010; Taleb, 2010; Al abduljader, 2012; Sikdar and Mitra, 2012; Bin Zahari and Shurbagi, 2012; Metwally, 2014). So, there is clearly a need to

enrich and extend the literature on transformational and transactional leadership styles in this geographic area in the world. Yet, due to the gendered nature of leadership, it is clear that we must not only place greater importance on the joint influence of gender and culture on transformational and transactional leadership behaviors but also that much more research is needed if we are to better understand this important aspect of leadership in today's organizations. There has been little research done on leadership across cultures in the Middle East Arab World and Syria is no exception (Elsaid and Elsaid, 2012). If we are to encompass the views and experiences of leadership on a worldwide scale, it is clear that there are other cultural and geographical areas that merit our attention. Therefore, the research described in this study, which takes as its context Syria, in the Middle East Arabic countries, has made its contribution to the scant knowledge that currently exists on the influence of culture at the *individual* level of analysis and gender on evaluation of the transformational/transactional leadership in general and in the Middle East Arabic countries in particular.

The aim of this study was to examine the interaction effect of follower's *power distance orientation* and *gender of the leader* on evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders in the non-Western culture of the Middle East. Based on the review of the literature, eight hypotheses were developed. This study applied a positivist approach methodology in which a questionnaire instrument and the use of vignettes were used to collect data to examine these hypotheses. The data was obtained from employees in the public service sector in Latakia in Syria. As an analytical method for 437 valid responses, ANOVA and a hierarchical multiple regression were selected (using SPSS 18.2 for Windows). The aim of this chapter is to outline the research' findings and arguments made in chapter two and chapter three, and link them to the objectives of this study. It further considers contributions of this study to theory, limitations, proposed future research, and finally concluding remarks of this research.

7.2 CONTRIBUTIONS TO THEORY

The research objective was to examine the interaction effect of *gender of the leader* and *follower's power distance orientation* on evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders in the non-Western culture of the Middle East (Syria).

7.2.1 Contribution to Knowledge about Transformational Leadership Style

In a review of the literature on transformational leadership, women are viewed as being more likely to exhibit a leadership style that is more transformational in nature than is the case for their male counterparts (Bass and Avolio, 1994; Bass et al, 1996; Doherty, 1997; Eagly and Carli, 2003; Eagly et al, 2003; Alimo-Metcalfe and Alban-Metcalfe, 2003; Turner et al, 2004; Powell et al, 2008; Chao, 2011; Appelbaum et al, 2013). It might be expected, however, that this might vary from culture to culture, and particularly so if that culture, such as the one explored in this study, that is, a Middle Eastern one, is believed to be 'so very different' to that of the West, and particularly so when it comes to the perceptions held about women in such a culture. The results from this study are in line with the literature, as they show that female transformational leaders described in the vignettes were evaluated more favorably than male leaders who use the same leadership style on four out of five dimensions, namely, *idealized influence attributes*, *idealized influence behavior*, *inspirational motivation*, and *individualized consideration*. This finding makes a substantial contribution to the knowledge of leadership in that the perception of women leaders are not different between the West and the Middle East; the perception is the same, regardless of the culture.

A further contribution is that women in the Middle East tend to adopt the transformational leadership style to a greater extent than men (Arab Women Leadership Outlook Survey, 2009-2011). The findings described in this dissertation/thesis means that Syria is not different from other Arab countries. This makes a substantial contribution to the knowledge not only of the Middle East as a region/culture but also in that the perception of women leaders is not different between the West and the Middle East; the perception is the same regardless of the culture.

A further, major, contribution to knowledge is how the study described in this dissertation/thesis adds to the knowledge about transformational and transactional leadership in the Middle East; a region/culture that has, to date, been the subject of little research. To date, it is known only that leadership in Lebanon tends to be more transformational than transactional (Yahchouchi, 2009), that women in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) exceeded men on four transformational scales: the attributes version of *idealised influence*, *inspirational motivation*, *intellectual stimulation* and *individualized consideration* (Yassen, 2010) and, finally, that evidence suggests that the female leaders in Saudi Arabia are inclined to adopt stereotypical attributes of feminine qualities of leadership and that they also tend to prefer a democratic, interpersonally-oriented and transformational style rather than autocratic, task-oriented or transactional style of leadership, although it should be noted that this study was carried out only in a a single-sex academic institution in Saudi Arabia (Taleb, 2010). The described in this dissertation/thesis makes its contribution given that it informs the literature about Syria; a country that has not before been the subject of study.

7.2.2 Contribution to Knowledge about Transactional Leadership Style

In a review of the literature on transactional leadership style, Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001), Eagly et al (2003), Yassen (2010) showed that women who exhibited transactional leadership behavior on the scale *contingent reward* were rated more favorably than men; also, it seems that women rewarded their followers for good performance more than men did. In contrast, men scored higher on two transactional leadership behaviors; *passive management by exception*, and *active management by exception* than women. Others, for example Powell et al (2008) and Metwally (2014), their results revealed that men using a transactional leadership style were not evaluated more favorably than women using that style. Therefore, the results reported in this thesis support the findings of some (Powell et al, 2008; Metwally, 2014), and contradict others (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Eagly et al, 2003; Yassen, 2010). The findings of this study indicate that *gender of the leader* has no impact on the evaluation of a transactional leader described in the vignette on the three dimensions, namely, *contingent reward*, *management by*

exception: active, and management by exception: passive. Female and male leaders described in the vignettes lead in the same way and this is consistent with other scholars who deny the existence of any gender differences in leadership styles (Donnell and Hall, 1980; Dobbins and Platz, 1986; Powell, 1990; Bass and Avolio, 1993; Maher, 1997; Lewis and Fagenson-Eland, 1998; Carless, 1998; Thompson, 2000; Van Engen et al, 2001; Manning, 2002).

Consequently, this is rather a surprising result, particularly in the light of previous studies which report that there are gender differences in the evaluation of transactional leaders (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Eagly et al, 2003). This empirical finding suggests that male and female transactional leaders described in the vignettes who use *contingent reward* scale are not evaluated differently by the followers used in this study. This result contrasts with that of Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001), Eagly et al (2003), and Yassen (2010) who reveal that females are evaluated more favorably than males on *contingent reward* as one scale of transactional leadership behavior. This suggests that female leaders described in the vignettes provide followers with assistance in exchange for their efforts, they discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets, they make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved, they express satisfaction when followers meet expectations in the same way that male leaders in the vignettes do.

Also, the results of this study are not in line with the results of previous studies (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Eagly et al, 2003; Yassen, 2010) which demonstrate that males are rated more favorably than females on the *active management by exception* and the *passive management by exception* scales of transactional leadership behavior. Those empirical findings suggest that male and female transactional leaders described in the vignettes who use *active management by exception* and *passive management by exception* scales are not evaluated differently by the followers used in this study. These findings suggest that female leaders described in the vignettes focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards, they concentrate their full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures, they keep track of all mistakes, they direct their attention toward failures to meet standards, they fail to interfere until

problems become serious, they wait for things to go wrong before taking action, they show that they are firm believers in 'if it isn't broke, don't fix it', they demonstrate that problems must become chronic before taking action in the same way as male leaders described in the vignettes do.

As mentioned earlier, interestingly, this study found no support for the notion that men are evaluated more favorably than women on two transactional leadership behaviors; *passive management by exception*, and *active management by exception* that many other studies have indicated (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Eagly et al, 2003; Yassen, 2010; Gartzia and Van-Engen, 2012). However, this study is in line with Powell et al, (2008) and Metwally (2014) results who revealed that gender of the leader did not significantly predict evaluations of leaders who exhibited a transactional leadership style. Powell et al (2008) explained why had the gender of the leader no effect on evaluations of transactional leaders. "The explanation may reside in two complementary notions. First, the transformational leadership style may indeed be more strongly associated with women than men. Second, the transactional leadership style may not be as closely linked with men as the transformational leadership style is with women. Although the active and passive management by exception dimensions of transactional leadership are associated with the male gender role (Bass et al, 1996), the contingent reward dimension may be construed as consistent with either the feminine gender role because its emphasis on recognizing and praising good performance involves being attentive and considerate to subordinates (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Eagly et al, 2003) or the masculine gender role because it is mainly task oriented and represents a rational exchange process (Bass et al, 1996; Kark, 2004). Further, Eagly et al (2003) found that actual female leaders were higher in contingent reward behaviors but lower in *active and passive management by exception* behaviors than actual male leaders, demonstrating inconsistency in the relationship between leader sex and dimensions of transactional behavior for actual leaders" (Powell et al, 2008: 168).

7.2.3 Contribution to Knowledge about Gender Role Stereotypes

Stereotypes are perceptions about the qualities that distinguish groups or categories of people (Jonsen and Maznevski, 2010). Gender-role stereotyping is the gender typing of jobs as predominantly masculine or feminine and is common in society (Miller and Budd, 1999). Both women and men are sex-role stereotyped; women to communal behaviors and men to agentic behaviors (Heilman, 2001; Prentice and Carranza, 2002; Eagly and Carli, 2007, 2008; Patterson et al, 2012). Mavin and Grandy (2011) contend “those individuals can perform exaggerated expressions of femininity or (masculinity) while simultaneously performing alternative expressions of femininity or masculinity” (cited in Mavin and Grandy, 2012: 219). By doing so, they agreed with Due Billing (2011, cited in Mavin and Grandy, 2012: 219) “who states that gender is a fluid concept that shifts over time and place”. However, well-documented evidence shows that gender roles still differ considerably (Bosak and Sczesny, 2011). Communal attributes such as supportive, empathic, and gentle are more strongly ascribed to women. Agentic attributes, such as assertive, competitive, controlling, and dominant are more strongly associated with the male gender role.

In a review of the literature, overall, the transformational leadership style appears to be more congruent with stereotypical feminine gender role than the stereotypical masculine gender role, whereas the transactional leadership style appears to be more congruent with the masculine than the feminine gender role (Bass et al, 1996; Ross and Offermann, 1997; Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Kark, 2004; Bono and Judge, 2004; Powell et al, 2008).

Dimensions of a transformational style of leadership are particularly related to stereotypes of females and how females are perceived or expected to act as leaders (Bass et al, 1996). Transformational leadership style has a positive relationship with nurturance, a feminine characteristic, and a negative relationship with aggression, a masculine characteristic (Ross and Offermann, 1997; Powell et al, 2008; Powell, 2012). Because of the supportive and considerate behaviors viewed in this model, the transformational style of leadership helps in encouraging people to believe that women may indeed be successful or even excellent as leaders or may encourage females to adopt such a style given its positive connotations (Eagly, 2003; Porterfield and Kleiner, 2005). While others stated that transformational leadership encompasses both masculine and feminine qualities, the masculine are related to

visioning and challenging and the feminine include behavior connected with rewarding, encouraging, and enabling others (Brandt and Laiho, 2013).

The results from the study reported in this dissertation/thesis demonstrate that female leaders described in the transformational leadership vignette were more transformational than their men counterparts. Therefore, this study is in agreement with female-gender role stereotyping. This is consistent with the idea that the transformational style of leadership is related to patterns of communal behavior which are determined for women due to gender stereotype (Galanaki et al, 2009). So the results of this study are in line with (Bass et al, 1996; Ross and Offermann, 1997; Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Kark, 2004; Bono and Judge, 2004; Powell et al, 2008; Powell et al, 2012).

However, contrary to gender role stereotypes, this study showed that male transactional leaders described in the transactional leadership vignette were not rated differently, by the followers used in this study, from female transactional leaders. So, this study is in line with (Powell et al, 2008) who explained that the transformational leadership style may indeed be more strongly associated with women than men. Second, the transactional leadership style may not be as closely linked with men as the transformational leadership style is with women.

The results of this study could reduce the conflict between gender stereotypes and leader expectations, where leadership was traditionally defined by masculine attributes. This is not in line with Marshall (1984) who states that in most societies generally leadership and particularly management tend to be considered as a masculine domain (one associated with men). In other words, this research suggests that the image of a typical leader which tends to be associated with male attributes has been changed (Schein, 1973). Although the notion that women and men come from different planets (Gray, 2008) and that they lead in different ways innately (Senge, 2008), transactional leadership findings seem to be particularly noteworthy. The findings of this thesis imply that there is no evidence to suggest that men make better leaders than women or otherwise. The results of this study are not in line with what was traditionally common, to the degree the leadership is seen as male in gender type; success requires characteristics that men have more commonly than

women do (Vecchio, 2002; Eagly et al, 2003; Schein, 2007). So the findings of this study disagree with that traditional gender stereotypes have been very resistant to change (Ruble et al, 1984; Dodge et al, 1995). However, the findings of this study are in line with Diekmann and Eagly (2000) who suggested that leadership roles have shifted, with leadership being viewed as less stereotypically masculine.

Finally, the results described in this thesis support the argument of Bass et al (1996), who state that this is a paradox because women and men are often perceived as having different strengths as well as liabilities, but whether those differences result in either perceived or actual variations in leadership styles is still a point of contention in the literature. Surprisingly, the findings in the study described in this dissertation are different from what has been commonly reported in the literature. So this research has made a valuable contribution to leadership research in that it demonstrates that the relationship between gender of the leader and the evaluation of transactional leaders cannot claim to be universal.

The findings of this study lead us to confirm that, to some extent, gender-role stereotyping in Syria has changed, or at least, it is going to be changed. In a review of the literature, the traditional view is that men are the breadwinners and that this further obstructs the employment of women and contributes to an increase in women's unemployment relative to men (UNDP, 2005). According to the findings of this thesis, we can say that the gender-role stereotyping, the man as the sole breadwinner and head of the household and that a woman's primary priority should be the family, and her economic participation will depend on her ability to combine work with family is not work, is still alive. The findings of this thesis revealed that participants used in the study view women leaders in the transformational vignettes more favorably than their men counterparts. Also, the findings of this study revealed that participants view women leaders as described in the transactional vignettes as equally good as their men counterparts (or otherwise). Therefore, this study makes a contribution in that breaking the gender role stereotyping in Syria is being made or is going to be made especially after the crisis in Syria which started in March 2011 and which has led women to work outside the house in the case of the absence of the husband. Finally, it is good to say that this study agrees with the Arab women

leaders interviewed in the Arab Women Leadership Outlook (2009-2011) survey who agreed to the gradually changing perception of women leaders in the Arab world.

Lastly, in the review of the literature, Mihail (2006) found out that occupational segregation between males and females still exists, and as such, stereotypes related to gender roles likely remain alive and well. The results of this study shows that gender role stereotypes may vanish in the future although some would argue that this is perhaps wishful thinking.

7.2.4 Contribution to Knowledge about Gender Theories and Models

The lack of fit model (Heilman, 1983; 1995) explained the 'think manager-think male' phenomenon. Heilman (1983, 1995) suggests that when individuals believe that men possess the characteristics that are best suited for the managerial role in greater abundance than women, they are likely to evaluate male managers more favorably than female managers, even if the managers being evaluated are exhibiting exactly the same behavior. The results of this study reveal that women transformational leaders described in the vignettes were rated more favorably than their men counterparts who show exactly the very same behavior. So the results of this study contradict those of Heilman (1983, 1995).

Research based on role congruity theory has revealed that the perceptions of women, especially of those in leadership positions, remain largely negative (Wittmer, 2001; Heilman et al, 2004; Ritter and Yoder, 2004; Garcia-Retamero and Lopez-Zafra, 2006; Simon and Hoyt, 2008; Isaac et al, 2010). The results of this study reveal that women transformational leaders described in the vignettes were rated more favorably than their male counterparts who show the same behavior. Also, the study shows that women and men transactional leaders described in the vignettes were not rated differently by the followers used in this study. Therefore, in both cases (transformational and transactional), the study is not in line with role congruity theory.

Status characteristics theory (Berger et al, 1998; Berger and Webster, 2006; Ridgeway, 1991, 2006) argues that unequal societal status is assigned to the sexes,

with men granted higher status than women. Status characteristics theory or expectation states theory (Berger et al, 1985; Berger et al, 1998) proposes that individuals shape expectations for others' behavior depending on the status given by the society to their personal traits (Powell et al, 2008). The results of this study reveal that women transformational leaders described in the vignettes were rated more favorably than their men counterparts who show the same behavior. Also, the study shows that women and men transactional leaders described in the vignettes were not rated differently by the followers used in this study. Therefore, we can say that the results of this study in both cases (transformational and transactional) contradict with status characteristics theory (Berger et al, 1998; Ridgeway, 1991, 2006; Berger and Webster, 2006).

Social role theory plays a great role in explaining gender-role stereotyping in evaluation of leaders (Welty, 2011). It is suggested that each gender has qualities and behavioral tendencies which are desirable, as well as expectations as to which roles men and women must occupy (Eagly and Karau, 2002). Social role theory describes the ways in which managers have expectations for individuals to comply with the tendencies and actions that are commensurate with their social roles (Skelly and Johnson, 2011). Social role theory argues that women and men's leadership behaviors are somewhat different because gender roles exert some effect in leadership roles in terms of the expectations that leaders and others hold (Eagly, 1987). Sex differences in social behavior are in part caused by the tendency of people to behave consistently with gender roles (Eagly and Karau, 1991). The interesting finding of this study, which implies that transactional men and women hypothetical leaders described in the vignettes are not evaluated differently by Syrian followers participated in this study, is not in line with social role theory. Therefore, the results of this study lead us to agree with Powell et al (2008) suggestion; "the need for re-evaluation of the theories that are commonly used to predict sex effects in leadership. Social role theory (Eagly, 1987; Eagly et al, 2000), role congruity theory (Eagly and Karau, 2002), and status characteristics theory (Berger et al, 1985, 1998) are based on traditional beliefs regarding social phenomena such as gender roles, the leader role, and status assessments that may be subject to modification over time (Eagly and Diekmann, 2003)" (Powell et al, 2008: 168).

To sum up, the role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders (Eagly and Karau, 2002) argues leadership is a male role and therefore leads to negative perceptions of and resistance to women who attempt to fill leadership roles. Research based on role congruity theory has shown that the perceptions of women, especially of those in leadership roles, remain largely negative (Wittmer, 2001; Heilman et al, 2004; Ritter and Yoder, 2004; Garcia-Retamero and Lopez-Zafra, 2006; Simon and Hoyt, 2008; Isaac et al, 2010). Also social role theory proposes the existence of a significant stereotype against females in leadership positions (Lyness and Heilman, 2006). While the results of this study do not align with those theories, the results from the study reported in this dissertation/thesis do show that female transformational leaders are valued as more favorably than male transformational leaders who exhibit the same leadership behavior on four out of five dimensions of transformational leadership style, namely, *idealized influence attributes, idealized influence behavior, inspirational motivation, and individualized consideration*. However, when the cultural value of power distance orientation was added to the analysis, the findings of this study do align with this theory; because when we added the cultural value of *power distance* to the analysis we have got a different conclusion. The results show more negative perceptions of the female leader than the male leader. In particular, female transformational leaders are viewed as being more favorably than male leaders who exhibit exactly the very same leadership style do not resolve the heated debate about whether there is a female advantage in leadership (Eagly and Carli, 2003a, b; Vecchio, 2002, 2003) because when we added the cultural value of *power distance* to the analysis we have got a different conclusion. Therefore, the results of this study suggest extension of theories of gender and leadership taking into account the culture factor on evaluation of leaders.

In essence, the findings of this study align with those of Due Billing (2011) and Mavin and Grandy (2012) in that gender is a fluid notion that changes over place and time. It could be concluded that whether those gender-role stereotypes continue to exist or if they exist today as strongly as they did in the past is still an open question and needs to be answered.

7.2.5 Contribution to Knowledge about Culture

In a review of the literature on culture, research has supported use of Hofstede's *collectivism* dimension at the *individual* level of analysis (Jackson et al, 2006). Additionally, Kirkman et al (2009) supported the validity of *power distance orientation* at the *individual* level of analysis; they found out that *individual*-level, but not *country*-level, differences in *power distance orientation* influenced the leadership processes they examined. Similarly, we argued and found support for the idea that individuals have different beliefs and cultural values about hierarchy and status in their organizations and such differences affect their evaluations, attitudes to leaders.

In a review of the literature, Bass (1997) suggests a universal position regarding the cross-cultural transferability of transformational leadership. This kind of culture-free approach assumes that core leadership constructs should be similar or invariant across cultures. Bass (1997) believed that transformational leadership should travel well across cultures (Muenjohn and Armstrong, 2007). Also, Kirkman et al (2009) were in line with Bass's (1997) arguments for the universal impact of transformational leadership, they did not detect *country-level* differences in transformational leadership effects. In this study using Powell et al, (2008) vignettes which were used in the USA context in a non-Western country such as Syria make a fundamental contribution by showing that the transformational leadership vignette and the transactional leadership vignette were culturally neutral. The results of this study are similar to Powell et al (2008) in that female transformational leaders were evaluated more positively than male transformational leaders, and men using a transactional leadership style were not evaluated more favorably than women using the very same leadership style. Therefore, perception of leadership revealing that female leaders are more transformational than male leaders, and there is no gender differences in evaluation of transactional leaders, is the same in a non-Western country such as Syria regardless of culture. This lead us to say that there is commonality between USA and Syria as an example of the Middle East Arab countries and this supports Bass (1997) suggestion in that transformational and transactional leadership behaviors is a kind of culture-free approach which assumes that core leadership constructs should be similar or invariant across cultures. Lastly, the results of this study provide a support for the argument that human beings are the same all over the world and then they behave similarly regardless of the culture which they live or work in.

In a review of the literature, the notion of the biological differences prescribed Arab gender relationships and roles (Metcalf, 2006, 2007) which assumes that a woman will marry early, her contribution to the family will be as homemaker and that the man leads, financially supports and protects his household (Metcalf, 2011). Abd El-Latif (1988) found a negative attitude towards women managers and women in top managerial and leadership positions. Additionally, the National Human Development Report of 2005 which was done on male and female students to find out if there is any relation between education and women's work. Report results showed a stereotypical vision of the role of women, where 84% of the students believe that the main role of women is at home. The results described in this dissertation show that women and men transactional leaders described in the vignettes are rated equally by Syrian participants used in this study. This means that women are viewed as being equally good as leaders as men and not just suitable for working/being in the home. Therefore, we can say that the results of this study are not in line with (Abd El-Latif, 1988; National Human Development Report, 2005; Metcalf, 2006, 2007, 2011). So, we can say that the Arab culture that defines the roles of men and women, where men are expected to support their families and women to take care of the house and family is a culture which promotes that the right place for a woman is her house is not valid any more. Nonetheless, the situation of women in the Middle East Arab world has seen lots of changes, all aiming at improving the overall status of women.

7.2.6 Contribution to Knowledge about Follower's Power Distance Orientation, Gender and Evaluation of Transformational Leaders

The review of the literature showed that there are females who exhibit a transformational leadership style; followers with a high *power distance orientation* were reluctant to accept that women exhibiting such a style could exercise sufficient use of their power in the workplace. *Power distance* affects how leaders and followers typically interact (Daniels and Greguras, 2014) and the *power distance* dimension influences perceptions of women and men, particularly in a business setting (Garcia et al, 2009; Caligiuri and Tung, 1999; Xiumei and Jinyinhg, 2011). Attitudes, especially attitudes about power, influence perceptions of women (Caligiuri

and Tung, 1999; Simmon et al, 2012). Discussion of *power distance* dimension in developing countries, such as Arab world suggests that *power distance* is related to the norms of acceptable work-related behaviors because Arab world consider women as less than compared to their counterparts men (Megheirkouni, 2014). The literature in the culture-leadership field suggests that people who have different cultural values could differ in terms of how they perceive leadership (Spreitzer et al, 2005). Cultural influences may affect the way females and males behave in their job, particularly when roles of power and authority are clear, and the way in which that behavior would be valued by others (Jogulu and Wood, 2008). So, when we added *power distance orientation* to the analysis, the perception of transformational leaders in the vignettes on the three dimensions out of five, namely, *idealized influence attributes, idealized influence behavior, and inspirational motivation*, has been changed, being female transformational leaders were viewed less favorably than their male counterparts by followers who score high or low on *power distance* dimension. The findings of the study reported in this dissertation/thesis support the findings of others which demonstrated that cultural value of *power distance orientation* influence evaluation of female leaders (Caligiuri and Tung, 1999; Jogulu and Wood, 2008; Garcia et al, 2009; Xiumei and Jinyinhg, 2011; Megheirkouni, 2014; Daniels and Greguras, 2014). Thus this research has established the significant effect of follower's cultural value as measured by *power distance orientation* on the rating/evaluation of female and male transformational leaders. Therefore, a key implication of this study is that *individual-level cultural value orientations, and particularly power distance orientation*, should not be ignored in studies of transformational leadership style across cultures.

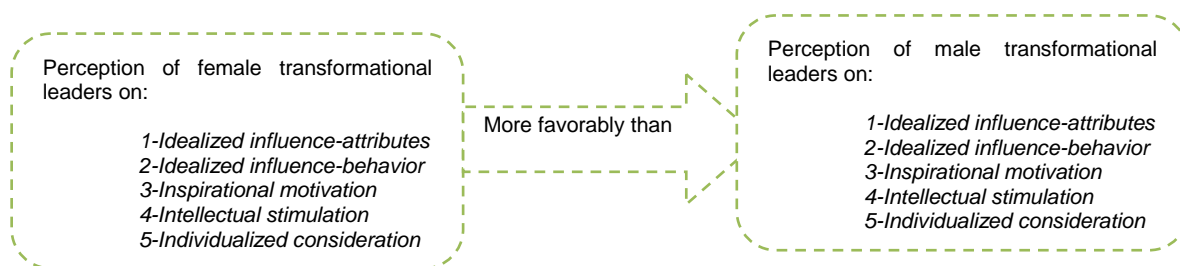
Finally, the results from the study reported in this dissertation/thesis agree with those who believe that gender is not the only factor that influences leadership style (Chemers et al, 2000; Morgan, 2004; Anderson et al, 2006, Metwally, 2014). Therefore, this research gives additional insight into the culture leadership research that means that the rating/evaluation of performance for transformational leaders is influenced by the cultural value of the follower's *power distance orientation*. Female transformational leaders were undervalued by followers with a *high or low power distance orientation*. Although the literature review showed that female leaders are no less likely to exhibit a transformational leadership style than are men, followers

with a cultural value of *power distance orientation* were reluctant to accept women's use of power in the workplace, and that the contribution to knowledge here is that the perception of women leaders is different between the West and the Middle East once *power distance orientation* has been considered; the perception is the not same regardless of the culture.

To conclude, the conceptual model of transformational leadership and gender in the literature review was as follows:

Figure 7.1: Transformational leadership conceptual model

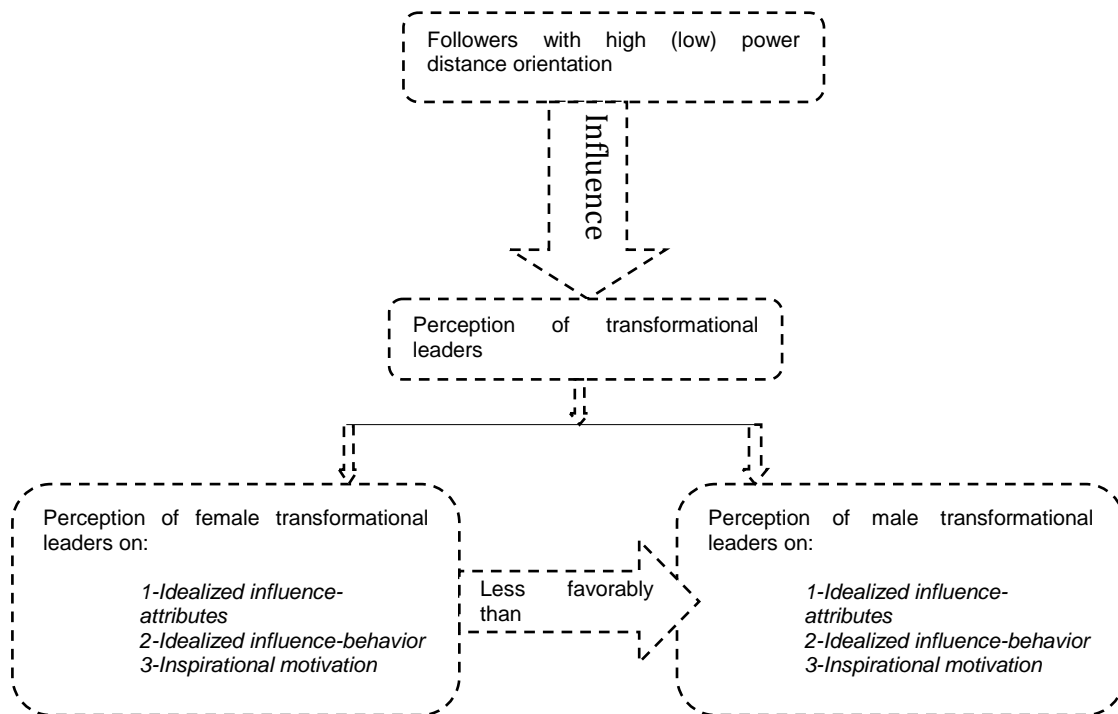
Perception of transformational leaders on five dimensions



Source: Developed for this study

The final contribution to knowledge when it comes to knowledge about *follower's power distance orientation, gender and evaluation of transformational leaders* is that it allows for a new conceptual model to emerge and which may form the basis for future research in this area when we added cultural value of *power distance orientation* to the analysis, female transformational leaders were undervalued by followers with a *high or low power distance orientation*. Therefore, the conceptual model of transformational leadership, gender, and cultural value of *power distance orientation* is presented in Figure 7.2 below:

Figure 7.2: Conceptual model of transformational leadership, gender and cultural value of power distance orientation



Source: Developed for this study

7.2.7 Contribution to Knowledge about *Followers' Power Distance Orientation, Gender and Evaluation of Transactional Leaders*

The literature on the culture-leadership field suggests that people who have different cultural values could differ in terms of how they perceive leadership (Spreitzer et al, 2005). The results do not support this suggestion when it comes to the three dimensions of the transactional leadership style, namely, *contingent reward*, *management by exception: active*, and *management by exception: passive*. The cultural value of *power distance orientation* does not have any impact on evaluation of female and male transactional leaders described in the transactional leadership vignettes. So, the empirical results of this study suggest that taking into account the culture factor in evaluation of transformational and transactional leadership styles is equally as important as the gender factor.

To sum up, this study makes a substantial contribution to gender and leadership in non-Western literature, particularly, literature to the Arab culture, by being the first piece of research to empirically assess the interaction influence between *gender of the leader* and follower's *power distance orientation at the individual level of analysis* on the evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders in general and in the non-Western culture, in this case, that of the Middle East (a Syrian context) in particular. This study serves as a contribution to the very limited research on transformational and transactional leadership in Syrian context. Hence, the results of this study bring empirical evidence from a relatively new cultural context, making a significant contribution to the culture-leadership literature. The perception of women leaders is different between the West and the Middle East once *power distance orientation* has been considered; the perception is the not same regardless of the culture.

Second, this study uses a transformational and transactional leadership model which was developed in the USA and has applied it in non-Western country such as Syria, so that can serve to examine the universality of this model. The main contribution to knowledge is that it is the first study of its nature based on data from Syria. Finally, this study contributed to the limited knowledge on transformational and transactional leadership literature in the Middle East Arab context general and particularly in a Syrian Perspective.

The transformational leadership scales of *idealized influence-attributes, idealized influence-behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration*, and the transactional leadership scales of *contingent rewards, management by exception: active, and management by exception: passive* were valid and reliable. Therefore, the findings of this research may encourage researchers who may have avoided using the MLQ instrument in the Arab World because of concerns about its validity and reliability.

7.3 RESEARCH LIMITATIONS

This study has a number of important limitations which need to be considered in all research.

The first limitation is this study focused on ratings of hypothetical leaders (those described in vignettes) rather than real, live/living leaders.

It is acknowledged that the rating/evaluating of the performance of those exhibiting a transformational/transactional leadership styles was done by only employees who were working in a one kind of service sector; the analysis was conducted on data that was collected from one organization, this therefore limits generalisability. It is possible that employees who work in other sectors react and rate the leaders described in the vignettes differently.

Another limitation arises regarding the cultural context of this study. This research was conducted in Syria, which is considered to be a *high power distance* culture. Results may be different in cultures considered to be either lower or low in *power distance dimension*.

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and *power distance orientation* items were originally in English versions and were translated into Arabic. Translation of the questionnaire and also the deletion of certain items of transformational leadership constructs could affect the construct validity of the instrument used.

Another limitation is the contextual effect in the participants' responses. This research was done on a voluntary participation basis and respondents were given the choice to complete the questionnaire at a time and place of their choice. Therefore, it could be that participants have been affected by the environment or any other factors while they were completing the questionnaire.

Syria has been used as an example of a Middle Eastern Arab country. However, it should be noted that the Middle East includes countries with what are considered to be very different cultures, such as Iran and Turkey. It is therefore inappropriate to generalize the findings of the study to be representative of all of the countries which comprise the Middle East.

The size of population (444) could be a limitation in this study because we may be having different results if we do this study with bigger sample size. However, Latakia is considered as a small city compared to the capital city (Damascus), so it could be a limitation in this study because Latakia might be different from the capital city.

7.4 FUTURE RESEARCH

Future research will need to look at both different sectors within Syria and also more widely in the Middle East. This study acts as the foundation for future research on the issue of the influence of *gender and power distance orientation* on the rating/evaluating of those leaders who exhibit a more transformational leadership style or those leaders who exhibit a more transactional leadership style in the Middle East. Future studies should be focused not only on the Middle East context in order to add to our currently scant knowledge of the influence of *gender and power distance orientation* on the transformational/transactional leadership styles in this particular cultural context but also in other, equally less researched, cultures in the world.

Cross-cultural studies to validate the MLQ in other Arab countries would provide useful comparisons within the Arab region and would fulfil the knowledge gap on the differences and similarities between Arab countries which too often have been treated as one entity (Elamin and Omair, 2012).

Another suggestion for future research could be to test the proposal that the impact of gender on the rating/evaluating of leaders who exhibit a more transformational/transactional leadership style may change over time or may even disappear at some point in the future. If so, why that might be and what may have caused the change. Clearly, more research is needed to see if the differences between the perceptions of male and female leaders can be replicated and are reliable. By doing so, it will assist in moving the leadership literature forward.

Pounder and Coleman (2002) have presented probable influences on leadership behavior: gender, national culture, socialisation (society and workplace), nature of organization, and organizational demographics. This study explored two of these explanations, *gender of the leader and power distance dimension* (as one dimension of national culture) at *the individual level of analysis*. Therefore, the others (socialisation, nature of organization, and organizational demographics) are worthy of further research.

The perception of leadership as masculine also has consequences for how women think about themselves as potential leaders; they feel often less confident and comfortable in a leadership position than men do (Van Engen et al, 2001). For example, in a study including multiple perspectives, Carless (1998 a, b) showed that superiors evaluate female managers as more transformational than male managers, whereas subordinates evaluate their female and male leaders equally. This study asked followers to rate anticipated leaders who exhibit transformational/transactional leadership styles. Future research could be directed towards asking others, such as peers, to rate leaders who exhibit transformational/transactional leadership styles rather than just having them rated/evaluated by followers. According to Byrne and Neuman (1992), people make the most positive evaluations of, and decisions about, people whom they see as similar to themselves, so by doing so, that means, by asking peers to evaluate leaders who exhibit transformational/transactional leadership styles, the results may noticeably change. In addition, doing this research from a different perspective, for example, the perception of actual leaders by leaders themselves could give different conclusions.

Eagly and Johnson (1990) describe the topic of gender and leadership style as one of 'considerable complexity' and mention that it is capable of being analyzed from different perspectives. In this study, we analyzed gender from a leader perspective. So, it is reasonable to suggest testing the influence of gender of the follower in addition to the two predictor variables (*gender of the leader and follower's power distance orientation*) on evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders. If we use another variable to be tested (gender of the follower), it may be that females show more positive attitudes toward female leaders than their male counterparts and

males show more positive attitudes toward male leaders than their female counterparts. The findings might be different and more comprehensive.

It would be interesting in terms of empirical research to enlarge the sample to see if this study's findings would actually be replicated, and to target employees across other sectors in Syria. This would help to highlight discrepancies which may be sector specific.

As shown earlier, the quantitative approach has dominated the research in this area. Although it is uncontested that the quantitative approach into cross-culture leadership is valuable and that data gathered by this means may be more easily accessible, it is argued here that research which is qualitative in nature is needed if we are to attempt to capture other aspects and to have a more in-depth understanding of the influence of culture on transformational and transactional leadership which, we hope, may help us to provide an alternative viewpoint to the currently stereotypically treatment of empirical research in leadership and culture. In order to develop a better understanding of the empirical context under consideration, applying a different approach (for example, interviews) in measuring the influence of culture on evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders may show very different understandings within different circumstances and which may shed yet further or different light on our understanding of the influence of culture on transformational and transactional leadership.

During early leadership theories times, leadership styles were studied by *men* about *men*, they excluded women to be leaders. But this study showed no gender differences between men and women concerning transactional leaders, so this suggests studying leadership by *women*. The time has come for women to assume leadership theories. It is really a function of time to have more women in upper levels of leadership, and research within this field.

This study uses two measurement scales: the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and the *Power Distance Orientation* items (PDO) developed in Western cultures and used Syria which is culturally different from the West. According to the results of testing validity and reliability of the constructs, all scales generally appear

valid in their general content but the number of items in many purified scales is not the same as those of original scales. Regarding the transformational leadership style, after testing validity of *idealized influence behavior* scale that consisted of four items was purified with three items and it was found valid and reliable. Similarly in *inspirational motivation* scale that consisted of four items was purified only to two items, and *intellectual stimulation* scale that consisted of four items was purified only to two items. However, *idealized influence attributes* and *individualized consideration* were purified on their basic items. With respect to transactional leadership style, after testing validity of *contingent reward* scale which consisted of four items was purified with three items. *Management by exception active* scale and *management by exception passive* scale were purified on their basic items. Therefore, future cross-national research could benefit from further investigation about the essential conditions in which comparability of scale across countries is affected.

This study tested the influence of culture as measured by *power distance orientation* on evaluation of transformational/transactional leaders. It would be interesting to consider other aspects of culture such as masculinity/femininity and the new dimension called indulgence versus restraint when it comes to study the influence of culture on evaluation of leadership styles.

Post the crisis in Syria which started in March (2011), gender-role stereotyping may have been changed given that women have become more active outside the home and in particular in the work environment given the need to support her family in the case of the absence of husband who may be either engaged in some way in the war or perhaps having died as a result of the war, and so the woman is not classified as being only fit for just housework any more. The focus of gender role stereotyping on portraying Arab women as solely or mainly housewives and full time mothers is not 100% alive when it comes to either the home or to work. The gender-role of women has changed; women can participate in economic and/or political activity while maintaining a work-life balance and yet still be successful wives and mothers. Therefore, it could be of a great interest to examine if the new gender-role stereotyping has any impact on evaluation of transformational and transactional leaders in Syria following the end of the crisis/war. Future research in all aspects of

leadership and culture in Syrian context is recommended and needed-both quantitative and qualitative.

Finally, we stress the need for empirical research on women's leadership in specific Middle Eastern Arab countries which allow for theory development rather than attempting testing existing theories.

7.5 CONCLUDING REMARKS

It is clear that there is much to be done in order to ensure that gender does not negatively (or positively) impact how leaders are perceived by their followers in the workplace.

The traditional image of a leader has always been someone who is male, and some would argue that the workplace has either excluded women from being leaders in organizations or made it more difficult for them to be leaders. There is therefore a need to increase awareness of the fact that there are advantages of having leaders who are female or, more accurately, that there are no greater number of disadvantages to having a female leader than there are to having a male leader. Women represent half the labour force, after all, and if they are under-represented in management then presumably the organization is missing out on having some equally good leaders. It is tempting to write women should be given the opportunity to take their place in the leadership ranks but this carries with it the notion that someone has to give them that opportunity. As the leadership roles are for the most part held by *men*, it is *men*, then, in whose hands this decision making rests, regardless of the nature or type of the organization or wherever it might be, in terms of country or culture. More effort doubtless needs to be made to increase the percentage of women in leadership positions in business although it is recognised that child care facilities and other more 'female-centred' aspects will have to be improved in order to encourage women leaders to keep working whilst at the same time performing other key roles outside of the workplace, that is, juggling the demands of both home and work. Governments in all over the world have to

encourage organizations to implement practices to support and develop women leaders and should recognize the significance of women in the task of leadership, and to provide a suitable climate for change. That said, change is needed both for and within men and also for and within women. Like leadership itself, change involves everyone, regardless of gender, culture or any other aspect. The question which still needs to be answered is: if women are as good as men to be leaders then why do they continue to be underrepresented in positions of leadership?

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Research Consent Form

Required for research involving human participants

Title of Research: *Power Distance Orientation, Gender, and Evaluation of Transformational and Transactional Leaders*

Researcher: Suzan Naser, PhD Student, Brunel Business School, Brunel University

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Appendix 2: Participant Information Sheet



Brunel Business School

Research Ethics

Participant Information Sheet

Power Distance Orientation, Gender, and Evaluation of Transformational and Transactional Leaders

This survey aims to explore the influence of followers' cultural value of power distance orientation on their perceptions of transformational/transactional leadership styles. Please answer the questions freely. You cannot be identified from the information you provide.

All the information you provide will be treated in the strictest confidence

Please answer the questions as directed. Also, do not spend too long on any one question. Your first thoughts are usually your best.

We hope you find completing the questionnaire enjoyable, and thank you for taking the time to help us.

Thank you for your help.

Suzan Naser

PhD Researcher

Brunel Business School

Brunel University

Contact email: Suzan.naser@brunel.ac.uk

Appendix 3: Transformational Leadership Style Questionnaire Coding and Labelling

QUESTION CODE	QUESTION LABEL
Gender	Gender
Age	Age
Emp-level	Employment level
PDO1	Leaders should make decisions without consulting their subordinates
PDO2	Leaders have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates
PDO3	Leaders should be able to make the right decisions without consulting with others
PDO4	A company's rules should not be broken-not even when the employee thinks it
PDO5	Employees who often question authority sometimes keep their leaders from being effective
PDO6	Once a top-level executive makes a decision, people working for the company should not question it
PDO7	Employees should not express disagreements with their leaders
PDO8	Leaders who let their employees participate in decisions lose power

IA1	Instils pride in followers for being associated
IA2	Goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group
IA3	Acts in ways that build followers' respect for
IA4	Displays a sense of power and confidence
IB1	Talks about most important values and beliefs
IB2	Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose
IB3	Considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions
IB4	Emphasise the importance of having a collective sense of mission
IM1	Talks optimistically about future
IM2	Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished
IM3	Articulates a compelling vision of the future
IM4	Expresses confidence that goals will be achieved
IS1	Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate
IS2	Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems
IS3	Gets followers to look at problems from many different angles
IS4	Suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments
IC1	Spends time teaching and coaching
IC2	Treats followers as individuals rather than as a member of a group
IC3	Considers an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others
IC4	Helps followers to develop their strengths

Source: Developed for the study

Appendix 4: Transactional Leadership Style Questionnaire Coding and Labelling

QUESTION CODE	QUESTION LABEL
Gender	Gender
Age	Age
Emp-level	Employment level
PDO1	Leaders should make decisions without consulting their subordinates
PDO2	Leaders have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates
PDO3	Leaders should be able to make the right decisions without consulting with others
PDO4	A company's rules should not be broken-not even when the employee thinks it
PDO5	Employees who often question authority sometimes keep their leaders from being effective
PDO6	Once a top-level executive makes a decision, people working for the company should not question it
PDO7	Employees should not express disagreements with their leaders
PDO8	Leaders who let their employees participate in decisions lose power
CR1	Provides followers with assistance in exchange for their efforts
CR2	Discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets
CR3	Makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved
CR4	Expresses satisfaction when followers meet expectations
MBEA1	Focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes,

	exceptions, and deviations from standards
MBEA2	Concentrates his full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures
MBEA3	Keeps track of all mistakes
MBEA4	Directs his attention toward failures to meet standards
MBEP1	Fails to interfere until problems become serious
MBEP2	Waits for things to go wrong before taking action
MBEP3	Shows that he is a firm believer in 'if it isn't broke, don't fix it'
MBEP4	Demonstrates that problems must become chronic before taking action

Source: Developed for the study

Appendix 5: Transformational Leadership Questions Coding and Labelling

VARIABLE NAME	VARIABLE CODE	QUESTION NUMBERS
Demography	Demography	1-3
Power distance orientation	PDO	1-8
Idealized influence attributes	IA	1-4
Idealized behaviors	IB	5-8
Inspirational motivation	IM	9-12
Intellectual stimulation	IS	13-16
Individualized consideration	IC	17-20

Source: Developed for the study

Appendix 6: Transactional Leadership Questions Coding and Labelling

VARIABLE NAME	VARIABLE CODE	QUESTION NUMBERS

Demography	Demography	1-3
Power distance orientation	PDO	1-8
Contingent reward	CR	1-4
Management by exception: active	MBEA MBEP	5-8 9-12
Management by exception: passive		

Source: Developed for the study

Appendix 7: Full Questionnaire as Presented to the Participants (Male Transformational Leadership Style)

This questionnaire aims to take the employees' opinions about the leadership styles. Could you please feel free to answer the questions? You will not be recognized from the provided information. This study is only for academic purposes and confidentiality is guaranteed. Could you please answer the questions as directed and there is no need to spend a long time pondering on the right response to a question and instead to simply go with your first thoughts. We hope that you enjoy taking part in this questionnaire.

Thank you very much.

Suzan Naser

PhD Researcher

Brunel University

Email Address: suzan.naser@brunel.ac.uk

Could you please provide the required information? Tick as appropriate

1-Gender:

Male

Female

2-Age:

- 20-25 yrs
- 26-30 yrs
- 31-40 yrs
- 41-50 yrs
- 51-60 yrs
- 60 and above yrs

3-Employment status:

- Operational position
- Middle position
- High position

Now, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements:

Draw a circle around one of the seven numbers below the item to show the answer you have selected.

RATER FORM

Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Somewhat disagree 3	Neither agree or disagree 4	Somewhat agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly agree 7
------------------------	---------------	------------------------	--------------------------------	---------------------	------------	---------------------

1-In most situations, managers should make decisions without consulting their subordinates

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2-In work-related matters, managers have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3-Employees who often question authority sometimes keep their managers from being effective.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4-Once a top-level executive makes a decision, people working for the company should not question it.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5-Employees should not express disagreements with their managers.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6-Managers should be able to make the right decisions without consulting with others.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7-Managers who let their employees participate in decisions lose power.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8-A company's rules should not be broken-not even when the employee thinks it.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Now, could you please read a vignette that describes a male transformational leader's behavior in a particular situation?

After several years of mounting losses, the Board of Directors of Tripod Financial Group hired Sameer as its CEO. Sameer has long been recognized by friends, family, and business acquaintances as highly optimistic individual. Generally speaking, those who spend any period of time with him become infected by his optimistic vision. As one associate remarked:

Whenever you're around Sameer you can't help but feel good. He pays close attention to your personal needs for achievement and growth. Moreover, Sameer encourages you to be innovative and creative in your work; he says that you should never rely on the 'tried and true' and always approach old problems in new ways. As a result, Sameer makes you feel like you can accomplish anything.

Others report that they have never worked for an organization so devoted to its leader and his vision. For example, prior to Sameer’s taking over Tripod Financial Group, most managers were confused and hoping that the mounting financial crisis would somehow ‘work its way out’. Since Sameer took over the organization, however, people have become inspired about what the future will bring. Tripod still faces serious financial problems, but the top- management team has rallied around Sameer’s radically different and inspirational vision.

One area where Sameer has been particularly successful is in calming the tattered nerves of the organization’s stockholders. During a recent meeting of the major stockholders, Sameer demonstrated his excellent communication skills. One major investor related the experience as follows:

Just before the meeting was about to start, the mood was extremely dour, explosive I might add. So then in comes Sameer, calmly and confidently walking up to the podium. By the end of her 45-minute address we were all mesmerized. Now, as I think about the meeting, we didn’t get the answers that we wanted, but most people are excited about the direction in which Sameer wants to take the organization.

Now, could you please rate the leader by answering the following questions?

Draw a circle around one of the five numbers following the item to show the answer you have selected.

Item	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
1-Sameer instils pride in others for being associated with him	0	1	2	3	4
2-Sameer goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group	0	1	2	3	4
3-Sameer acts in ways that	0	1	2	3	4

build others' respect for him					
4-Sameer displays a sense of power and confidence	0	1	2	3	4
5-Sameer talks about his most important values and beliefs	0	1	2	3	4
6-Sameer specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	0	1	2	3	4
7-Sameer considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions	0	1	2	3	4
8-Sameer talks optimistically about future	0	1	2	3	4
9-Sameer talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	0	1	2	3	4
10-Sameer articulates a compelling vision of the future	0	1	2	3	4
11-Sameer expresses confidence that goals will be achieved	0	1	2	3	4
12-Sameer re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	0	1	2	3	4
13-Sameer seeks differing perspectives when solving problems	0	1	2	3	4
14-Sameer gets others to look at problems from many different angles	0	1	2	3	4

15-Sameer suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	0	1	2	3	4
16-Sameer spends time teaching and coaching	0	1	2	3	4
17-Sameer treats others as individuals rather than as a member of a group	0	1	2	3	4
18-Sameer considers an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others	0	1	2	3	4
19-Sameer helps others to develop their strengths	0	1	2	3	4
20-Sameer gets others to do more than they expected to do	0	1	2	3	4

Source: Developed for this study

Appendix 8: Full Questionnaire as Presented to the Participants (Female Transformational Leadership Style)

This questionnaire aims to take the employees' opinions about the leadership styles. Could you please feel free to answer the questions? You will not be recognized from the provided information. This study is only for academic purposes and confidentiality is guaranteed. Could you please answer the questions as directed and there is no need to spend a long time pondering on the right response to a question and instead to simply go with your first thoughts. We hope that you enjoy taking part in this questionnaire.

Thank you very much.

Suzan Naser

PhD Researcher

Brunel University

Email Address: suzan.naser@brunel.ac.uk

Could you please provide the required information? Tick as appropriate

1-Gender:

- Male
- Female

2-Age:

- 20-25 yrs
- 26-30 yrs
- 31-40 yrs
- 41-50 yrs
- 51-60 yrs
- 60 and above yrs

3-Employment status:

- Operational position
- Middle position
- High position

Now, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements:

Draw a circle around one of the seven numbers below the item to show the answer you have selected.

RATER FORM

Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Somewhat disagree 3	Neither agree or disagree 4	Somewhat agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly agree 7
------------------------	---------------	------------------------	--------------------------------	---------------------	------------	---------------------

1-In most situations, managers should make decisions without consulting their subordinates

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2-In work-related matters, managers have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3-Employees who often question authority sometimes keep their managers from being effective.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4-Once a top-level executive makes a decision, people working for the company should not question it.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5-Employees should not express disagreements with their managers.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6-Managers should be able to make the right decisions without consulting with others.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7-Managers who let their employees participate in decisions lose power.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8-A company's rules should not be broken-not even when the employee thinks it.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Now, could you please read a vignette that describes a female transformational leader's behavior in a particular situation?

After several years of mounting losses, the Board of Directors of Tripod Financial Group hired Sarah as its CEO. Sarah has long been recognized by friends, family, and business acquaintances as highly optimistic individual. Generally speaking, those who spend any period of time with her become infected by her optimistic vision. As one associate remarked:

Whenever you're around Sarah you can't help but feel good. She pays close attention to your personal needs for achievement and growth. Moreover, Sarah encourages you to be innovative and creative in your work; she says that you should never rely on the 'tried and true' and always approach old problems in new ways. As a result, Sarah makes you feel like you can accomplish anything.

Others report that they have never worked for an organization so devoted to its leader and her vision. For example, prior to Sarah's taking over Tripod Financial Group, most managers were confused and hoping that the mounting financial crisis would somehow 'work its way out'. Since Sarah took over the organization, however, people have become inspired about what the future will bring. Tripod still faces serious financial problems, but the top- management team has rallied around Sarah's radically different and inspirational vision.

One area where Sarah has been particularly successful is in calming the tattered nerves of the organization's stockholders. During a recent meeting of the major stockholders, Sarah demonstrated her excellent communication skills. One major investor related the experience as follows:

Just before the meeting was about to start, the mood was extremely dour, explosive I might add. So then in comes Sarah, calmly and confidently walking up to the podium. By the end of her 45-minute address we were all mesmerized. Now, as I think about the meeting, we didn't get the answers that we wanted, but most people are excited about the direction in which Sarah wants to take the organization.

Now, could you please rate the leader by answering the following questions? Draw a circle around one of the five numbers following the item to show the answer you have selected.

Item	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
1-Sarah instils pride in others for being associated with her	0	1	2	3	4
2-Sarah goes beyond self-interest for the good of the group	0	1	2	3	4
3-Sarah acts in ways that build others' respect for her	0	1	2	3	4
4-Sarah displays a sense of power and confidence	0	1	2	3	4
5-Sarah talks about her most important values and beliefs	0	1	2	3	4
6-Sarah specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	0	1	2	3	4
7-Sarah considers the moral and ethical consequences of decisions	0	1	2	3	4
8-Sarah talks optimistically about future	0	1	2	3	4
9-Sarah talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	0	1	2	3	4
10-Sarah articulates a compelling vision of the future	0	1	2	3	4
11-Sarah expresses confidence that goals will be achieved	0	1	2	3	4
12-Sarah re-examines critical assumptions to question	0	1	2	3	4

whether they are appropriate					
13-Sarah seeks differing perspectives when solving problems	0	1	2	3	4
14-Sarah gets others to look at problems from many different angles	0	1	2	3	4
15-Sarah suggests new ways of looking at how to complete assignments	0	1	2	3	4
16-Sarah spends time teaching and coaching	0	1	2	3	4
17-Sarah treats others as individuals rather than as a member of a group	0	1	2	3	4
18-Sarah considers an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others	0	1	2	3	4
19-Sarah helps others to develop their strengths	0	1	2	3	4
20- Sarah gets others to do more than they expected to do	0	1	2	3	4

Source: Developed for this study

Appendix 9: Full Questionnaire as Presented to the Participants (Male Transactional Leadership Style)

This questionnaire aims to take the employees’ opinions about the leadership styles. Could you please feel free to answer the questions? You will not be recognized from the provided information. This study is only for academic purposes and

confidentiality is guaranteed. Could you please answer the questions as directed and there is no need to spend a long time pondering on the right response to a question and instead to simply go with your first thoughts. We hope that you enjoy taking part in this questionnaire.

Thank you very much.

Suzan Naser

PhD Researcher

Brunel University

Email Address: suzan.naser@brunel.ac.uk

Could you please provide the required information? Tick as appropriate

1-Gender:

- Male
- Female

2-Age:

- 20-25 yrs
- 26-30 yrs
- 31-40 yrs
- 41-50 yrs
- 51-60 yrs
- 60 and above yrs

3-Employment status:

- Operational position
- Middle position
- High position

Now, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements:

Draw a circle around one of the seven numbers below the item to show the answer you have selected.

RATER FORM

Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Somewhat disagree 3	Neither agree or disagree 4	Somewhat agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly agree 7
------------------------	---------------	------------------------	--------------------------------	---------------------	------------	---------------------

1-In most situations, managers should make decisions without consulting their subordinates

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2-In work-related matters, managers have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3-Employees who often question authority sometimes keep their managers from being effective.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4-Once a top-level executive makes a decision, people working for the company should not question it.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5-Employees should not express disagreements with their managers.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6-Managers should be able to make the right decisions without consulting with others.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7-Managers who let their employees participate in decisions lose power.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8-A company's rules should not be broken-not even when the employee thinks it.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Now, could you please read a vignette that describes a male transactional leader's behavior in a particular situation?

After several years of mounting losses, the Board of Directors of Tripod Financial Group hired Sameer as its CEO. Sameer has long been recognized by friends, family, and business acquaintances as a highly focused individual. Generally speaking, those who spend any period of time with him feel that they have been appropriately rewarded or disciplined depending on the adequacy of their performance. As one associate remarked:

When we work with Sameer, we know that we will be rewarded if (and only if) we meet our assigned objectives. Sameer always follows through on promises of rewards when we successfully complete our assignments. Sameer also lets us know when we do not meet performance standard. He doesn't do anything further about little slips on our parts, preferring to let us resolve minor problems on our own. On the other hand, when problems become serious, we know that he will step in and take whatever corrective action is needed.

Others report that they have never worked for an organization with a leader who is so focused on subordinate performance. For example, prior to Sameer's taking over Tripod Financial Group, most managers were feeling that the mounting financial crisis would somehow 'work its way out'. Since Sameer took over the organization, however, people have begun to think that the difficulties will be resolved, one way or another. Tripod still faces financial problems, but the top-management team has rallied around Sameer's deliberate management style.

One area where Sameer has been particularly successful is in calming the tattered nerves of managers during the annual performance review/business planning cycle. Sameer demonstrated that the organization is better off when it implements

incentives for good performance and addresses performance problems before they get out of hand. One manager said:

I felt my meeting with Sameer went well. The objectives we set for next year are reasonable. His criticisms about some low points last year were fair, and I got positive strokes for the high points. I like knowing where I stand, and being rewarded accordingly.

Other managers agreed.

Now, could you please rate the leader by answering the following questions? Draw a circle around one of the five numbers following the item to show the answer you have selected.

	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
1-Sameer provides others with assistance in exchange for their efforts	0	1	2	3	4
2-Sameer discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	0	1	2	3	4
3-Sameer makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved	0	1	2	3	4
4-Sameer expresses satisfaction when others meet expectations	0	1	2	3	4

5-Sameer focuses attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards	0	1	2	3	4
6-Sameer concentrates his full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures	0	1	2	3	4
7-Sameer keeps track of all mistakes	0	1	2	3	4
8-Sameer directs his attention toward failures to meet standards	0	1	2	3	4
9-Sameer fails to interfere until problems become serious	0	1	2	3	4
10-Sameer waits for things to go wrong before taking action	0	1	2	3	4
11-Sameer shows that he is a firm believer in 'if it isn't broke, don't fix it	0	1	2	3	4
12-Sameer demonstrates that problems must become chronic before he take action	0	1	2	3	4

Source: Developed for this study

Appendix 10: Full Questionnaire as Presented to the Participants (Female Transactional Leadership Style)

This questionnaire aims to take the employees' opinions about the leadership styles. Could you please feel free to answer the questions? You will not be recognized from the provided information. This study is only for academic purposes and confidentiality is guaranteed. Could you please answer the questions as directed and

there is no need to spend a long time pondering on the right response to a question and instead to simply go with your first thoughts. We hope that you enjoy taking part in this questionnaire.

Thank you very much.

Suzan Naser

PhD Researcher

Brunel University

Email Address: suzan.naser@brunel.ac.uk

Could you please provide the required information? Tick as appropriate

1-Gender:

- Male
- Female

2-Age:

- 20-25 yrs
- 26-30 yrs
- 31-40 yrs
- 41-50 yrs
- 51-60 yrs
- 60 and above yrs

3-Employment status:

- Operational position
- Middle position
- High position

Now, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements:

Draw a circle around one of the seven numbers below the item to show the answer you have selected.

RATER FORM

Strongly disagree 1	Disagree 2	Somewhat disagree 3	Neither agree or disagree 4	Somewhat agree 5	Agree 6	Strongly agree 7
------------------------	---------------	------------------------	--------------------------------	---------------------	------------	---------------------

1-In most situations, managers should make decisions without consulting their subordinates.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2-In work-related matters, managers have a right to expect obedience from their subordinates.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3-Employees who often question authority sometimes keep their managers from being effective.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4-Once a top-level executive makes a decision; people working for the company should not question it.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5-Employees should not express disagreements with their managers.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6-Managers should be able to make the right decisions without consulting with others.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7-Managers who let their employees participate in decisions lose power.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8-A company's rules should not be broken-not even when the employee thinks it.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Now, could you please read a vignette that describes a female transactional leader's behavior in a particular situation?

After several years of mounting losses, the Board of Directors of Tripod Financial Group hired Sarah as its CEO. Sarah has long been recognized by friends, family, and business acquaintances as a highly focused individual. Generally speaking, those who spend any period of time with her feel that they have been appropriately rewarded or disciplined depending on the adequacy of their performance. As one associate remarked:

When we work with Sarah, we know that we will be rewarded if (and only if) we meet our assigned objectives. Sarah always follows through on promises of rewards when we successfully complete our assignments. Sarah also lets us know when we do not meet performance standard. She doesn't do anything further about little slips on our parts, preferring to let us resolve minor problems on our own. On the other hand, when problems become serious, we know that he will step in and take whatever corrective action is needed.

Others report that they have never worked for an organization with a leader who is so focused on subordinate performance. For example, prior to Sarah's taking over Tripod Financial Group, most managers were feeling that the mounting financial crisis would somehow 'work its way out'. Since Sarah took over the organization, however, people have begun to think that the difficulties will be resolved, one way or another. Tripod still faces financial problems, but the top- management team has rallied around Sarah's deliberate management style.

One area where Sarah has been particularly successful is in calming the tattered nerves of managers during the annual performance review/business planning cycle. Sarah demonstrated that the organization is better off when it implements incentives

for good performance and addresses performance problems before they get out of hand. One manager said:

I felt my meeting with Sarah went well. The objectives we set for next year are reasonable. Her criticisms about some low points last year were fair, and I got positive strokes for the high points. I like knowing where I stand, and being rewarded accordingly.

Other managers agreed.

Now, could you please rate the leader by answering the following questions? Draw a circle around one of the five numbers following the item to show the answer you have selected.

Item	Not at all	Once in a while	Sometimes	Fairly often	Frequently, if not always
1-Sarah provides others with assistance in exchange for their efforts	0	1	2	3	4
2-Sarah discusses in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	0	1	2	3	4
3-Sarah makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved	0	1	2	3	4
4-Sarah expresses satisfaction when others meet expectations	0	1	2	3	4
5-Sarah focuses attention on	0	1	2	3	4

irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards					
6-Sarah concentrates her full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures	0	1	2	3	4
7-Sarah keeps track of all mistakes	0	1	2	3	4
8-Sarah directs her attention toward failures to meet standards	0	1	2	3	4
9-Sarah fails to interfere until problems become serious	0	1	2	3	4
10-Sarah waits for things to go wrong before taking action	0	1	2	3	4
11-Sarah shows that she is a firm believer in 'if it isn't broke, don't fix it	0	1	2	3	4
12-Sarah demonstrates that problems must become chronic before she take action	0	1	2	3	4

Source: Developed for this study

Appendix 11: Full Questionnaire as Presented to the Participants (Male Transactional Leadership Style/Arabic Version)

يهدف هذا الاستبيان لأخذ آراء الموظفين حول أساليب الإدارة

من فضلك أجب على الأسئلة بكل حرية. سوف
لن تكون محددًا من خلال المعلومات التي تزودها
المعلومات التي تقدمها سوف تكون معالجة بمنتهى السرية.

من فضلك أجب على الأسئلة كما هو موجه. لا تنفق أيضاً وقتاً طويلاً على سؤال واحد. أفكارك الأولى هي الأفضل بالعادة.

كلنا أمل أن تجد المتعة في الإجابة على الاستبيان.

ولكم جزيل الشكر لتعاونكم

سوزان ناصر

طالبة دكتوراه

جامعة بروزل

من فضلك زود المعلومات التالية:

ضع سهماً على ما تراه مناسباً

١- الجنس:

○ ذكر

○ أنثى

٢- ما هو عمرك:

○ ٢٥-٢٠

○ ٣٠-٢٦

○ ٤٠-٣١

○ ٥٠-٤١

○ ٦٠-٥١

○ ٦٠ وما فوق

٣-الوضع الوظيفي:

○ المستوى الوظيفي

○ المستوى الإداري

○ المستوى الإداري الأعلى

إلى أي مدى توافق أو تخالف العبارات التالية

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

١- في معظم المواقف, على المدراء أن يتخذوا القرارات بدون استشارة موظفيهم.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

٢- في الأمور المتعلقة بالعمل, للمدراء الحق بأن يتوقعوا الطاعة من قبل موظفيهم.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

٣- ينبغي على المدراء أن يكونوا قادرين على اتخاذ القرارات الصحيحة بدون استشارة الآخرين.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

٤- لا يجب على الموظف أن يفكر باختراق قوانين الشركة.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

٥- الموظفون الذين على الأغلب يعترضون قرارات مدراءهم و يستوضحونها, أحيانا يجعلون مدراءهم غير فعالين.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

٦- حالما المدير الأعلى يتخذ قرار, لا يجب على العاملون في الشركة أن يناقشوه.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

٧- لا يجب على الموظفين أن يعبروا عن عدم موافقتهم لمدراءهم.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

٨- المدراء الذين يدعون موظفيهم يشاركون في اتخاذ القرارات, يفقدون السلطة.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

اقرأ السيناريو التالي الذي يصف سلوك المدير سمير في موقف معين

بعد عدة سنوات من الخسائر المتزايدة تدريجياً، مجلس مدراء المجموعة المالية , جعل سمير المدير التنفيذي الأعلى . سمير تميز لمدة طويلة من خلال الأصدقاء، العائلة، وعلاقات العمل كفرد عالي التركيز. هؤلاء الذين ينفقون أي فترة من الوقت معه يشعرون أنهم سوف يحصلون على جائزة أو معاقبون بما يتناسب مع فعالية أدائهم. قال أحد زملائه:

عندما نعمل مع سمير , نعرف أنه سوف نحصل على مكافأة إذا (فقط إذا) عندما نحقق الأهداف المطلوبة. سمير دائماً يتبع أسلوب المكافآت عندما ننهي أعمالنا بنجاح. سمير أيضاً يدعنا نعرف متى لا نحقق مستوى الأداء المطلوب. سمير لا يفعل أي شيء بخصوص الأخطاء الصغيرة, مفضل أن نحل المشاكل الثانوية بأنفسنا. من الناحية الثانية, عندما تصبح المشاكل خطيرة, نعرف أنها سوف يتخذ الإجراءات التصحيحية المطلوبة.

آخرون يقولون: إنهم لم يعملوا أبداً مع مدير مهتم على درجة عالية بأداء الموظفين مثل سمير . على سبيل المثال, قبل أن يستلم سمير المجموعة المالية, كان يشعر معظم المدراء أن الأزمة المالية سوف تنتهي بطريقة ما . و لكن منذ استلام سمير الشركة, بدأ الناس يعتقدون أنهم سوف يتغلبون على الصعوبات بطريقة أو بأخرى. ما تزال المجموعة المالية تواجه مشاكل مالية, لكن فريق الإدارة العليا التقى حول أسلوب الإدارة المخططة لسمير كان سمير ناجح خصيصاً في تهدئة الأعصاب المشدودة لمالكي الشركة. خلال مراجعة الأداء السنوي للشركة, أظهر سمير أن الشركة تكون بوضع أفضل بكثير من قبل عندما يستخدم الحوافز من أجل الأداء الجيد و يتعامل مع مشاكل الأداء قبل أن تخرج تلك المشاكل عن السيطرة

قال أحد المدراء: أنا أشعر أن اجتماعي مع سمير كان ممتازاً. الأهداف التي وضعناها من أجل السنة القادمة معقولة. انتقاده لبعض النقاط السلبية في السنة الماضية كانت عادلة, و لقد حصل على مديح إيجابي من أجل النقاط العالية. أحب أن أعرف أين أفء, و بالتالي الحصول على الجوائز.

مدراء آخرون وافقوه الرأي.

الآن, قيم سلوك المدير سمير , من خلال إجابتك على الأسئلة التالية, ضع دائرة على ما تراه ملائماً

بشكل متكرر إن لم يكن دائماً	على الأغلب	بعض الأحيان	مرة كل فترة	أبداً	العبارة
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يبادل الموظفين الذين يبذلون الجهد في أعمالهم بالمساعدة
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يناقش بشكل محدد من هو المسؤول عن إنجاز الأهداف
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يوضح ماذا يتوقع الفرد أن يتقاضى عندما ينجز عمله.
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يعبر عن رضاه عندما يحقق الموظفون ما هو متوقع منهم.
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يركز انتباهه على الشواذ و الأخطاء و الانحرافات عن المعايير
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يركز كامل انتباهه على كيفية التعامل مع الأخطاء و التذمر و الفشل
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يقوم بتسجيل كل الأخطاء
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يوجه انتباهه باتجاه الأخطاء ليحقق المطلوب
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير لا يتدخل حتى تصبح المشاكل خطيرة
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير ينتظر حتى تسير الأمور في مسارها الخاطئ قبل القيام بأي فعل
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يبدي تصديقه القوي للعبارة التالية: إذا هو ليس معطلا فلا تصلحه
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يوضح أن المشاكل يجب أن تصبح خطيرة قبل أن يتخذ أي إجراء

Source: Developed for this study

Appendix 12: Full Questionnaire as Presented to the Participants (Female Transactional Leadership Style/Arabic Version).

يهدف هذا الاستبيان لأخذ آراء الموظفين حول أساليب الإدارة

من فضلك أجب على الأسئلة بكل حرية. سوف
لن تكون محددًا من خلال المعلومات التي تزودها
المعلومات التي تقدمها سوف تكون معالجة بمنتهى السرية.
من فضلك أجب على الأسئلة كما هو موجه. لا تنفق أيضا وقتا طويلاً على سؤال واحد. أفكارك الأولى هي الأفضل
بالعادة.

كلنا أمل أن تجد المتعة في الإجابة على الاستبيان.

ولكم جزيل الشكر لتعاونكم

سوزان ناصر

طالبة دكتوراه

جامعة برونل

من فضلك زود المعلومات التالية:

ضع سهماً على ما تراه مناسباً

١- الجنس:

○ ذكر

○ أنثى

٢- ما هو عمرك:

○ ٢٥-٢٠

○ ٣٠-٢٦

○ ٤٠-٣١

○ ٥٠-٤١

○ ٦٠-٥١

○ ٦٠ وما فوق

٣-الوضع الوظيفي:

- المستوى الوظيفي
- المستوى الإداري
- المستوى الإداري الأعلى

إلى أي مدى توافق أو تخالف العبارات التالية

أوافق بقوة ٧	أوافق ٦	إلى حد ما أوافق ٥	لا أوافق و لا أخالف ٤	أخالف إلى حد ما ٣	أخالف ٢	أخالف بقوة ١
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١- في معظم المواقف, على المدراء أن يتخذوا القرارات بدون استشارة موظفيهم.

أوافق بقوة ٧	أوافق ٦	إلى حد ما أوافق ٥	لا أوافق و لا أخالف ٤	أخالف إلى حد ما ٣	أخالف ٢	أخالف بقوة ١
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٢- في الأمور المتعلقة بالعمل, للمدراء الحق بأن يتوقعوا الطاعة من قبل موظفيهم.

أوافق بقوة ٧	أوافق ٦	إلى حد ما أوافق ٥	لا أوافق و لا أخالف ٤	أخالف إلى حد ما ٣	أخالف ٢	أخالف بقوة ١
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٣- ينبغي على المدراء أن يكونوا قادرين على اتخاذ القرارات الصحيحة بدون استشارة الآخرين.

أوافق بقوة ٧	أوافق ٦	إلى حد ما أوافق ٥	لا أوافق و لا أخالف ٤	أخالف إلى حد ما ٣	أخالف ٢	أخالف بقوة ١
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٤- لا يجب على الموظف أن يفكر باختراق قوانين الشركة.

أوافق بقوة ٧	أوافق ٦	إلى حد ما أوافق ٥	لا أوافق و لا أخالف ٤	أخالف إلى حد ما ٣	أخالف ٢	أخالف بقوة ١
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٥- الموظفون الذين على الأغلب يعترضون قرارات مدراءهم و يستوضحونها, أحيانا يجعلون مدراءهم غير فعالين.

أوافق بقوة ٧	أوافق ٦	إلى حد ما أوافق ٥	لا أوافق و لا أخالف ٤	أخالف إلى حد ما ٣	أخالف ٢	أخالف بقوة ١
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٧	٦	أوافق ٥	أخالف ٤	ما ٣	٢	١
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٦- حالما المدير الأعلى يتخذ قرار, لا يجب على العاملون في الشركة أن يناقشوه.

أوافق بقوة ٧	أوافق ٦	إلى حد ما أوافق ٥	لا أوافق و لا أخالف ٤	أخالف إلى حد ما ٣	أخالف ٢	أخالف بقوة ١
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٧- لا يجب على الموظفين أن يعبروا عن عدم موافقتهم لمدراءهم.

أوافق بقوة ٧	أوافق ٦	إلى حد ما أوافق ٥	لا أوافق و لا أخالف ٤	أخالف إلى حد ما ٣	أخالف ٢	أخالف بقوة ١
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٨- المدراء الذين يدعون موظفيهم يشاركون في اتخاذ القرارات, يفقدون السلطة.

أوافق بقوة ٧	أوافق ٦	إلى حد ما أوافق ٥	لا أوافق و لا أخالف ٤	أخالف إلى حد ما ٣	أخالف ٢	أخالف بقوة ١
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اقرأ السيناريو التالي الذي يصف سلوك المدير سارة في موقف معين

بعد عدة سنوات من الخسائر المتزايدة تدريجياً, مجلس مدراء المجموعة المالية , جعل سارة المدير التنفيذي الأعلى. سارة تميزت لمدة طويلة من خلال الأصدقاء, العائلة, وعلاقات العمل كفرد عالي التركيز. هؤلاء الذين ينفقون أي فترة من الوقت معها يشعرون أنهم سوف يحصلون على جائزة أو معاقبون بما يتناسب مع فعالية أدائهم. قال أحد زملائها:

عندما نعمل مع سارة, نعرف أنه سوف نحصل على مكافأة إذا (فقط إذا) عندما نحقق الأهداف المطلوبة. سارة دائما تتبع أسلوب المكافآت عندما ننهي أعمالنا بنجاح. سارة أيضا تدعنا نعرف متى لا نحقق مستوى الأداء المطلوب. سارة لاتفعل أي شيء بخصوص الأخطاء الصغيرة, مفضلة أن نحل المشاكل الثانوية بأنفسنا. من الناحية الثانية, عندما تصبح المشاكل خطيرة, نعرف أنها سوف تتخذ الإجراءات التصحيحية المطلوبة.

آخرون يقولون: إنهم لم يعملوا أبداً مع مديرة مهتمة على درجة عالية بأداء الموظفين مثل سارة . على سبيل المثال, قبل أن تستلم سارة المجموعة المالية, كان يشعر معظم المدراء أن الأزمة المالية سوف تنتهي بطريقة ما . و لكن منذ استلام

سارة الشركة, بدأ الناس يعتقدون أنهم سوف يتغلبون على الصعوبات بطريقة أو بأخرى. ما تزال المجموعة المالية تواجه مشاكل مالية, لكن فريق الإدارة العليا التفّ حول أسلوب الإدارة المخططة لسارة كانت سارة ناجحة خصيصاً في تهدئة الأعصاب المشدودة لمالكي أسهم الشركة. خلال مراجعة الأداء السنوي للشركة, أظهرت سارة أن الشركة تكون بوضع أفضل بكثير من قبل عندما تستخدم الحوافز من أجل الأداء الجيد و تتعامل مع مشاكل الأداء قبل أن تخرج تلك المشاكل عن السيطرة

قال أحد المدراء: أنا أشعر أن اجتماعي مع سارة كان ممتازا. الأهداف التي وضعناها من أجل السنة القادمة معقولة. انتقادها لبعض النقاط السلبية في السنة الماضية كانت عادلة, و لقد حصلت على مديح إيجابي من أجل النقاط العالية. أحب أن أعرف أين أفء, و بالتالي الحصول على الجوائز. مدراء آخرون وافقوه الرأي.

الآن, قيم سلوك المديرية سارة, من خلال إجابتك على الأسئلة التالية, ضع دائرة على ما تراه ملائماً

العبرة	أبداً	مرة كل فترة	بعض الأحيان	على الأغلب	بشكل متكرر إن لم يكن دائماً
سارة تبادل الموظفين الذين يبذلون الجهد في أعمالهم بالمساعدة	٠	١	٢	٣	٤
سارة تناقش بشكل محدد من هو المسؤول عن إنجاز الأهداف	٠	١	٢	٣	٤
سارة توضح ماذا يتوقع الفرد أن يتقاضى عندما ينجز عمله.	٠	١	٢	٣	٤
سارة تعبر عن رضاها عندما يحقق الموظفون ما هو متوقع منهم.	٠	١	٢	٣	٤
سارة تركز انتباهها على الشواذ و الأخطاء و الانحرافات عن المعايير	٠	١	٢	٣	٤
سارة تركز كامل انتباهها على كيفية التعامل مع الأخطاء و التذمر و الفشل	٠	١	٢	٣	٤
سارة تقوم بتسجيل كل الأخطاء	٠	١	٢	٣	٤
سارة توجه انتباهها باتجاه الأخطاء	٠	١	٢	٣	٤

لتحقق المطلوب					
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سارة لا تتدخل حتى تصبح المشاكل خطيرة
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سارة تنتظر حتى تسير الأمور في مسارها الخاطئ قبل القيام بأي فعل
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سارة تبدي تصديقها القوي للعبارة التالية: إذا هو ليس معطلا فلا تصلحه
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سارة توضح أن المشاكل يجب أن تصبح خطيرة قبل أن تتخذ أي إجراء

Source: Developed for this study

Appendix 13: Full Questionnaire as Presented to the Participants (Male Transformational Leadership Style/Arabic Version).

يهدف هذا الاستبيان لأخذ آراء الموظفين حول أساليب الإدارة

من فضلك أجب على الأسئلة بكل حرية. سوف لن تكون محددًا من خلال المعلومات التي تزودها. المعلومات التي تقدمها سوف تكون معالجة بمنتهى السرية. من فضلك أجب على الأسئلة كما هو موجه. لا تنفق أيضا وقتا طويلاً على سؤال واحد. أفكارك الأولى هي الأفضل بالعادة.

كلنا أمل أن تجد المتعة في الإجابة على الاستبيان.

ولكم جزيل الشكر لتعاونكم

سوزان ناصر

طالبة دكتوراه

جامعة برونل

من فضلك زود المعلومات التالية:

ضع سهماً على ما تراه مناسباً

١- الجنس:

○ ذكر

○ أنثى

٢- ما هو عمرك:

○ ٢٥-٢٠

○ ٣٠-٢٦

○ ٤٠-٣١

○ ٥٠-٤١

○ ٦٠-٥١

○ ٦٠ وما فوق

٣- الوضع الوظيفي:

○ المستوى الوظيفي

○ المستوى الإداري

○ المستوى الإداري الأعلى

إلى أي مدى توافق أو تخالف العبارات التالية

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

١- في معظم المواقف, على المدراء أن يتخذوا القرارات بدون استشارة موظفيهم.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

٢- في الأمور المتعلقة بالعمل, للمدراء الحق بأن يتوقعوا الطاعة من قبل موظفيهم.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

٣- ينبغي على المدراء أن يكونوا قادرين على اتخاذ القرارات الصحيحة بدون استشارة الآخرين.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

٤- لا يجب على الموظف أن يفكر باختراق قوانين الشركة.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

٥- الموظفون الذين على الأغلب يعترضون قرارات مدراءهم و يستوضحونها, أحيانا يجعلون مدراءهم غير فعالين.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

٦- حالما المدير الأعلى يتخذ قرار, لا يجب على العاملون في الشركة أن يناقشوه.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

٧- لا يجب على الموظفين أن يعبروا عن عدم موافقتهم لمدراءهم.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

٨- المدراء الذين يدعون موظفيهم بشاركون في اتخاذ القرارات, يفقدون السلطة.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

اقرأ السيناريو التالي الذي يصف سلوك المدير سمير في موقف معين

بعد عدة سنوات من الخسائر المتزايدة تدريجياً، مجلس مدراء المجموعة المالية , جعلوا سمير المدير التنفيذي الأعلى سمير تميز لمدة طويلة من خلال الأصدقاء، العائلة، وعلاقات العمل كشخص متفائل إلى درجة عالية. هؤلاء الأشخاص الذين يقضون أي وقت معه أصبحوا متأثرين بنظرته المتفائلة. قال أحد زملائه:

في أي وقت تكون مع سمير لا تستطيع أن تقدم المساعدة و لكنك تشعر بالراحة. هو يهتم بحاجاتك الشخصية من أجل تحقيق الأهداف والنمو. علاوة على ذلك, يشجعك لتكون مبادرا و مبدعا في عملك, هو يقول أنه لا يجب أبداً أن تعتمد على مبدأ (مجرب وغير قابل للتغيير) وهو دائماً يتعامل مع المشاكل القديمة بطرق جديدة. بالنتيجة, سمير يجعلك تشعر أنه باستطاعتك أن تنجز أي شيء.

آخرون يقولون: إنهم لم يعملوا أبداً من أجل شركة بحيث يشعرون بالسعادة ليفعلوا أي شيء من أجل مديرها (مثل هذه الشركة), على سبيل المثال, قبل استلام سمير المجموعة المالية, معظم المدراء كانوا حائرين و متوقعين أن الأزمة المالية سوف تنتهي بطريقة ما.

و منذ استلام سمير للشركة, أصبح الناس متطلعين حول ماذا سيجلب المستقبل. ما تزال المجموعة المالية تواجه مشاكل مالية خطيرة, لكن فريق الإدارة العليا وافق على رؤية سمير الإيجابية, التشجيعية والمختلفة بشكل كامل عن رؤية المدراء الآخرين.

و لقد كان سمير ناجح خصيصاً في تهدئة الأعصاب المشدودة لمالكي أسهم الشركة. خلال اجتماع حديث للمالكين الرئيسيين, أظهر سمير مهارات اتصال ممتازة. أحد المستثمرين الرئيسيين يخبر التجربة كالتالي:

قبل أن يبدأ الاجتماع, كان المزاج جدي و غاضب إلى درجة كبيرة . أتى سمير بثقة و هدوء ليصعد المنصة حتى نهاية خطابه الذي استمر لمدة خمسة و أربعين دقيقة لم نستطع التوقف عن مشاهدته أو الاستماع له. الآن أعتقد, لم نحصل على الأجوبة المرغوبة , لكن معظم الناس حقاً سعيدون حول الاتجاه الذي يرغب سمير أن يأخذ الشركة فيه.

الآن, قيم سلوك المدير سمير من خلال إجابتك على الأسئلة التالية, ضع دائرة على ما تراه ملائماً

العبارة	أبداً	مرة كل فترة	بعض الأحيان	على الأغلب	بشكل متكرر إن لم يكن دائماً
سمير يجعل الموظفين مسرورين وفخورين لتعاملهم معه	٠	١	٢	٣	٤
سمير يذهب إلى ما بعد مصلحته من أجل صالح المجموعة	٠	١	٢	٣	٤

٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يتصرف بطريقة يجذب احترام الموظفين له
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يظهر إحساس القوة و الثقة بالنفس
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يتحدث حول أهم معتقداته و قيمه
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يحدد أهمية امتلاك إحساس قوي بالأهداف
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	-سمير يأخذ بعين الاعتبار العواقب الأخلاقية لقراراته
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يؤكد أهمية امتلاك إحساس جماعي لأهم أهداف الشركة
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يتكلم بتفاؤل حول المستقبل
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يتكلم بحماس حول ما هو مطلوب إنجازه
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يعبر عن رؤية مقنعة جدا للمستقبل
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يعبر بثقة أن الأهداف ستتحقق
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يعيد اختبار الافتراضات الهامة للتأكد من ملائمتها
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يبحث عن مناهج و أساليب مختلفة لحل المشاكل
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يحث الموظفين لينظروا في المشاكل من عدة زوايا مختلفة
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يقترح طرقا جديدة لإكمال الواجبات
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يمضي وقته في التعليم و التدريب
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يتعامل مع الموظفين على أنهم أشخاص أكثر مما هم أعضاء في مجموعة
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يعتبر كل فرد يمتلك حاجات ومقدرات مختلفة عن غيره
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سمير يساعد الموظفين ليطوروا نقاط القوة لديهم

Source: Developed for this study

Appendix 14: Full Questionnaire as Presented to the Participants (Female Transformational Leadership Style/Arabic Version).

يهدف هذا الاستبيان لأخذ آراء الموظفين حول أساليب الإدارة

من فضلك أجب على الأسئلة بكل حرية.
المعلومات التي تقدمها سوف تكون معالجة بمنتهى السرية.
من فضلك أجب على الأسئلة كما هو موجه. لا تنفق أيضا وقتا طويلاً على سؤال واحد. أفكارك الأولى هي الأفضل
بالعادة.

كلنا أمل أن تجد المتعة في الإجابة على الإستبيان.

ولكم جزيل الشكر لتعاونكم

سوزان ناصر

طالبة دكتوراه

جامعة برونل

ضع سهماً على ما تراه مناسباً

١- الجنس:

○ ذكر

○ أنثى

٢- ما هو عمرك:

○ ٢٥-٢٠

○ ٣٠-٢٦

○ ٤٠-٣١

○ ٥٠-٤١

○ ٦٠-٥١

○ ٦٠ وما فوق

٣-الوضع الوظيفي:

○المستوى الوظيفي

○المستوى الإداري

○المستوى الإداري الأعلى

إلى أي مدى توافق أو تخالف العبارات التالية

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١

		٥	٤	٣		
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١- في معظم المواقف, على المدراء أن يتخذوا القرارات بدون استشارة موظفيهم.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

٢- في الأمور المتعلقة بالعمل, للمدراء الحق بأن يتوقعوا الطاعة من قبل موظفيهم.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

٣- ينبغي على المدراء أن يكونوا قادرين على اتخاذ القرارات الصحيحة بدون استشارة الآخرين.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

٤- لا يجب على الموظف أن يفكر باختراق قوانين الشركة.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

٥- الموظفون الذين على الأغلب يعترضون قرارات مدراءهم و يستوضحونها, أحيانا يجعلون مدراءهم غير فعالين.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

٦- حالما المدير الأعلى يتخذ قرار, لا يجب على العاملون في الشركة أن يناقشوه.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

٧- لا يجب على الموظفين أن يعبروا عن عدم موافقتهم لمدراءهم.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

٨- المدراء الذين يدعون موظفيهم يشاركون في اتخاذ القرارات, يفقدون السلطة.

أوافق بقوة	أوافق	إلى حد ما	لا أوافق و لا	أخالف إلى حد	أخالف	أخالف بقوة
٧	٦	أوافق	أخالف	ما	٢	١
		٥	٤	٣		

Source: Developed for this study

اقرأ السيناريو التالي الذي يصف سلوك المدير سارة في موقف معين

بعد عدة سنوات من الخسائر المتزايدة تدريجياً، مجلس مدراء المجموعة المالية , جعلوا سارة المدير التنفيذي الأعلى .سارة تميزت لمدة طويلة من خلال الأصدقاء, العائلة, وعلاقات العمل كشخص متفائل إلى درجة عالية. هؤلاء الأشخاص الذين يقضون أي وقت معها أصبحوا متأثرين بنظرتها المتفائلة. قال أحد زملائها:

في أي وقت تكون مع سارة لا تستطيع أن تقدم المساعدة و لكنك تشعر بالراحة. هي تهتم بحاجاتك الشخصية من أجل تحقيق الأهداف و النمو. علاوة على ذلك, تشجعك لتكون مبادرا و مبدعا في عملك, هي تقول أنه لا يجب أبداً أن تعتمد على مبدأ (مجرّب و غير قابل للتغيير) و هي دائماً تتعامل مع المشاكل القديمة بطرق جديدة. بالنتيجة, سارة تجعلك تشعر أنه باستطاعتك أن تنجز أي شيء.

آخرون يقولون: إنهم لم يعملوا أبداً من أجل شركة بحيث يشعرون بالسعادة ليفعلوا أي شيء من أجل مديرتها (مثل هذه الشركة), على سبيل المثال, قبل استلام سارة المجموعة المالية, معظم المدراء كانوا حائرين و متوقعين أن الأزمة المالية سوف تنتهي بطريقة ما.

و منذ استلام سارة للشركة, أصبح الناس متطوعين حول ماذا سيحدث المستقبل. ما تزال المجموعة المالية تواجه مشاكل مالية خطيرة, لكن فريق الإدارة العليا وافق على رؤية سارة الإيجابية, التشجيعية و المختلفة بشكل كامل عن رؤية المدراء الآخرين.

و لقد كانت سارة ناجحة خصيصاً في تهدئة الأعصاب المشدودة لمالكي أسهم الشركة. خلال اجتماع حديث للمالكين الرئيسيين, أظهرت سارة مهارات اتصال ممتازة. أحد المستثمرين الرئيسيين يخبر التجربة كالتالي:

قبل أن يبدأ الاجتماع, كان المزاج جدي و غاضب إلى درجة كبيرة . أنت سارة بثقة و هدوء لتصعد المنصة حتى نهاية خطابها الذي استمر لمدة خمسة و أربعين دقيقة لم نستطع التوقف عن مشاهدتها أو الاستماع لها. الآن أعتقد, لم نحصل على الأجوبة المرغوبة , لكن معظم الناس حقاً سعيدون حول الاتجاه الذي ترغب سارة أن تأخذ الشركة فيه.

الآن قيم سلوك المدير سارة من خلال إجابتك على الأسئلة التالية, ضع دائرة على ما تراه ملائماً

العبرة	أبداً	مرة كل فترة	بعض الأحيان	على الأغلب	بشكل متكرر إن لم يكن دائماً
سارة تجعل الموظفين مسرورين و فخورين لتعاملهم معها	٠	١	٢	٣	٤
سارة تذهب إلى مابعد مصلحتها من أجل صالح المجموعة	٠	١	٢	٣	٤
سارة تتصرف بطريقة تجذب احترام الموظفين لها	٠	١	٢	٣	٤
سارة تظهر إحساس القوة و الثقة بالنفس	٠	١	٢	٣	٤
سارة تتحدث حول أهم معتقداتها و قيمها	٠	١	٢	٣	٤
سارة تحدد أهمية امتلاك إحساس قوي بالأهداف	٠	١	٢	٣	٤
-سارة تأخذ بعين الاعتبار العواقب الأخلاقية لقراراتها	٠	١	٢	٣	٤
سارة تؤكد أهمية امتلاك إحساس جماعي لأهم أهداف الشركة	٠	١	٢	٣	٤
سارة تتكلم بنقاؤل حول المستقبل	٠	١	٢	٣	٤
سارة تتكلم بحماس حول ما هو مطلوب إنجازه	٠	١	٢	٣	٤
سارة تعبر عن رؤية مقنعة جداً للمستقبل	٠	١	٢	٣	٤
سارة تعبر بثقة أن الأهداف ستتحقق	٠	١	٢	٣	٤
سارة تعيد اختبار الافتراضات الهامة للتأكد من ملائمتها	٠	١	٢	٣	٤
سارة تبحث عن مناهج و أساليب مختلفة لحل المشاكل	٠	١	٢	٣	٤

٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سارة تحث الموظفين لينظروا في المشاكل من عدة زوايا مختلفة
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سارة تقترح طرقا جديدة لإكمال الواجبات
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سارة تمضي وقتها في التعليم و التدريب
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سارة تتعامل مع الموظفين على أنهم أشخاص أكثر مما هم أعضاء في مجموعة
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سارة تعتبر كل فرد يمتلك حاجات و مقدرات مختلفة عن غيره
٤	٣	٢	١	٠	سارة تساعد الموظفين ليطوروا نقاط القوة لديهم

Source: Developed for this study

Appendix 15: Durbin-Watson Statistic

Model	Durbin-Watson
Idealized influence attributes (IA)	1.657
Idealized influence behavior (IB)	1.667
Inspirational motivation (IM)	1.663
Intellectual stimulation (IS)	1.954
Individualized consideration (IC)	2.009
Contingent rewards (CR)	2.112
Management by exception: active (MBEA)	1.868
Management by exception: passive (MBEP)	1.873

Source: Developed for the study

Appendix 16: Regression Results (Idealized Influence Attribute Scale of Transformational Leadership Style)

Variables Entered/Removed^b

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
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1	GENDER OF LEADER ^a	.	Enter
2	Zscore(PDO) ^a	.	Enter
3	interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL) ^a	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: IA

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. Change
1	.448 ^a	.200	.197	.86083	.200	58.104	1	232	.000
2	.613 ^b	.375	.370	.76248	.175	64.714	1	231	.000
3	.643 ^c	.413	.406	.74054	.038	14.889	1	230	.000

a. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER

b. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)

c. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO), interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)

ANOVA^d

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	43.057	1	43.057	58.104	.000 ^a

	Residual	171.919	232	.741		
	Total	214.976	233			
2	Regression	80.680	2	40.340	69.388	.000 ^b
	Residual	134.296	231	.581		
	Total	214.976	233			
3	Regression	88.845	3	29.615	54.003	.000 ^c
	Residual	126.131	230	.548		
	Total	214.976	233			

a. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER

b. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)

c. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO), interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)

d. Dependent Variable: IA

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.481	.079		31.441	.000
	GENDER OF LEADER	.858	.113	.448	7.623	.000
2	(Constant)	2.629	.072		36.375	.000
	GENDER OF LEADER	.557	.107	.290	5.227	.000
	Zscore(PDO)	.429	.053	.447	8.045	.000
3	(Constant)	2.682	.072		37.500	.000
	GENDER OF LEADER	.597	.104	.312	5.745	.000
	Zscore(PDO)	.582	.065	.606	8.924	.000

interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)	-.414	.107	-.257	-3.859	.000
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a. Dependent Variable: IA

Excluded Variables^c

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlatio	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	Zscore(PDO)	.447 ^a	8.045	.000	.468	.876
	interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)	.104 ^a	1.697	.091	.111	.910
2	interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)	-.257 ^b	-3.859	.000	-.247	.574

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)

c. Dependent Variable: IA

Source: Developed for this study

Appendix 17: Regression Results (Idealized Influence Behavior Scale of Transformational Leadership Style)

Variables Entered/Removed^b

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	GENDER OF LEADER ^a	.	Enter

2	Zscore(PDO). a	Enter
3	interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL) ^a	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: IB

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. Change
1	.189 ^a	.036	.032	.90945	.036	8.586	1	232	.004
2	.244 ^b	.059	.051	.90010	.024	5.846	1	231	.016
3	.277 ^c	.077	.064	.89384	.017	4.246	1	230	.040

a. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER

b. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)

c. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO), interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)

ANOVA^d

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	7.101	1	7.101	8.586	.004 ^a
	Residual	191.888	232	.827		
	Total	198.990	233			
2	Regression	11.837	2	5.919	7.305	.001 ^b
	Residual	187.152	231	.810		

Total	198.990	233			
3 Regression	15.230	3	5.077	6.354	.000 ^c
Residual	183.760	230	.799		
Total	198.990	233			

a. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER

b. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)

c. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO), interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)

d. Dependent Variable: IB

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.518	.083		30.205	.000
	GENDER OF LEADER	.348	.119	.189	2.930	.004
2	(Constant)	2.571	.085		30.129	.000
	GENDER OF LEADER	.242	.126	.131	1.921	.056
	Zscore(PDO)	.152	.063	.165	2.418	.016
3	(Constant)	2.605	.086		30.174	.000
	GENDER OF LEADER	.268	.126	.145	2.133	.034
	Zscore(PDO)	.251	.079	.271	3.186	.002
	interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)	-.267	.130	-.172	-2.061	.040

a. Dependent Variable: IB

Excluded Variables^c

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlatio n	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	Zscore(PDO)	.165 ^a	2.418	.016	.157	.876
	interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)	-.011 ^a	-.155	.877	-.010	.910
2	interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)	-.172 ^b	-2.061	.040	-.135	.574

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)

c. Dependent Variable: IB

Source: Developed for this study

Appendix 18: Regression Results (Inspirational Motivation Scale of Transformational Leadership Style)

Variables Entered/Removed^b

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	GENDER OF LEADER ^a	.	Enter
2	Zscore(PDO). ^a	.	Enter

3	interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL) ^a	Enter
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a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: IM

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.345 ^a	.119	.115	.99149	.119	31.354	1	232	.000
2	.440 ^b	.193	.186	.95090	.074	21.232	1	231	.000
3	.461 ^c	.212	.202	.94170	.019	5.536	1	230	.019

a. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER

b. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)

c. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO), interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)

ANOVA^d

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	30.823	1	30.823	31.354	.000 ^a
	Residual	228.070	232	.983		
	Total	258.893	233			
2	Regression	50.021	2	25.010	27.660	.000 ^b
	Residual	208.872	231	.904		
	Total	258.893	233			
3	Regression	54.930	3	18.310	20.647	.000 ^c
	Residual	203.963	230	.887		
	Total	258.893	233			

Residual	203.963	230	.887		
Total	258.893	233			

- a. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER
- b. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)
- c. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO), interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)
- d. Dependent Variable: IM

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.622	.091		28.846	.000
	GENDER OF LEADER	.726	.130	.345	5.599	.000
2	(Constant)	2.728	.090		30.260	.000
	GENDER OF LEADER	.511	.133	.243	3.845	.000
	Zscore(PDO)	.307	.067	.291	4.608	.000
3	(Constant)	2.769	.091		30.442	.000
	GENDER OF LEADER	.542	.132	.258	4.101	.000
	Zscore(PDO)	.425	.083	.403	5.125	.000
	interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)	-.321	.137	-.182	-2.353	.019

- a. Dependent Variable: IM

Excluded Variables^c

Model	Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlatio	Collinearity Statistics
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				n	Tolerance	
1	Zscore(PDO)	.291 ^a	4.608	.000	.290	.876
	interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)	.059 ^a	.908	.365	.060	.910
2	interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)	-.182 ^b	-2.353	.019	-.153	.574

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)

c. Dependent Variable: IM

Source: Developed for this study

Appendix 19: Regression Results (Intellectual Stimulation Scale of Transformational Leadership Style)

Variables Entered/Removed^b

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	GENDER OF LEADER ^a	.	Enter
2	Zscore(PDO) ^a	.	Enter
3	interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL) ^a	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: IS

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.120 ^a	.014	.010	1.04961	.014	3.393	1	232	.067
2	.241 ^b	.058	.050	1.02825	.044	10.741	1	231	.001
3	.250 ^c	.063	.050	1.02802	.004	1.101	1	230	.295

a. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER

b. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)

c. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO), interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)

ANOVA^d

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3.738	1	3.738	3.393	.067 ^a
	Residual	255.591	232	1.102		
	Total	259.329	233			
2	Regression	15.095	2	7.547	7.138	.001 ^b
	Residual	244.234	231	1.057		
	Total	259.329	233			
3	Regression	16.258	3	5.419	5.128	.002 ^c
	Residual	243.071	230	1.057		
	Total	259.329	233			

a. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER

b. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)

c. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO), interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)

d. Dependent Variable: IS

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.269	.096		23.581	.000
	GENDER OF LEADER	.253	.137	.120	1.842	.067
2	(Constant)	2.350	.097		24.112	.000
	GENDER OF LEADER	.087	.144	.041	.608	.544
	Zscore(PDO)	.236	.072	.224	3.277	.001
3	(Constant)	2.370	.099		23.873	.000
	GENDER OF LEADER	.103	.144	.049	.711	.478
	Zscore(PDO)	.294	.091	.278	3.241	.001
	interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)	-.156	.149	-.088	-1.049	.295

a. Dependent Variable: IS

Excluded Variables^c

Model		Beta In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	Zscore(PDO)	.224 ^a	3.277	.001	.211	.876
	interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)	.077 ^a	1.134	.258	.074	.910

2	interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)	-.088 ^b	-1.049	.295	-.069	.574
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- a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER
- b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)
- c. Dependent Variable: IS

Source: Developed for this study

Appendix 20: Regression Results (Individualized Consideration Scale of Transformational Leadership Style)

Variables Entered/Removed^b

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	GENDER OF LEADER ^a	.	Enter
2	Zscore(PDO) ^a	.	Enter
3	interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL) ^a	.	Enter

- a. All requested variables entered.
- b. Dependent Variable: IC

Model Summary

Model	R	R	Adju	Std. Error	Change Statistics
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		Square	Adjusted R Square	of the Estimate	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.174 ^a	.030	.026	.85317	.030	7.207	1	232	.008
2	.248 ^b	.061	.053	.84116	.031	7.672	1	231	.006
3	.251 ^c	.063	.051	.84220	.002	.431	1	230	.512

a. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER

b. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)

c. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO), interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)

ANOVA^d

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	5.246	1	5.246	7.207	.008 ^a
	Residual	168.872	232	.728		
	Total	174.118	233			
2	Regression	10.674	2	5.337	7.543	.001 ^b
	Residual	163.443	231	.708		
	Total	174.118	233			
3	Regression	10.980	3	3.660	5.160	.002 ^c
	Residual	163.138	230	.709		
	Total	174.118	233			

a. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER

b. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)

c. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO), interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)

d. Dependent Variable: IC

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.298	.078		29.387	.000
	GENDER OF LEADER	.300	.112	.174	2.685	.008
2	(Constant)	2.355	.080		29.529	.000
	GENDER OF LEADER	.185	.117	.107	1.575	.117
	Zscore(PDO)	.163	.059	.189	2.770	.006
3	(Constant)	2.365	.081		29.074	.000
	GENDER OF LEADER	.193	.118	.112	1.631	.104
	Zscore(PDO)	.193	.074	.223	2.596	.010
	interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)	-.080	.122	-.055	-.656	.512

a. Dependent Variable: IC

Excluded Variables^c

Model		Beta	In t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	Zscore(PDO)	.189 ^a	2.770	.006	.179	.876
	interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)	.078 ^a	1.145	.254	.075	.910
2	interaction between PDO and gol (FINAL)	-.055 ^b	-.656	.512	-.043	.574

- a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER
 b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)
 c. Dependent Variable: IC

Source: Developed for this study

Appendix 21: Regression Results (Contingent Reward Scale of Transactional Leadership Style)

Variables Entered/Removed^b

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	GENDER OF LEADER ^a	.	Enter
2	Zscore(PDO) ^a	.	Enter
3	interaction between pdo and gol (final) ^a	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: CR

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.085 ^a	.007	.002	.72337	.007	1.453	1	201	.229

2	.170 ^b	.029	.019	.71720	.022	4.471	1	200	.036
3	.189 ^c	.036	.021	.71640	.007	1.448	1	199	.230

a. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER

b. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)

c. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO), interaction between pdo and gol (final)

ANOVA^d

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.760	1	.760	1.453	.229 ^a
	Residual	105.176	201	.523		
	Total	105.937	202			
2	Regression	3.060	2	1.530	2.975	.053 ^b
	Residual	102.876	200	.514		
	Total	105.937	202			
3	Regression	3.804	3	1.268	2.470	.063 ^c
	Residual	102.133	199	.513		
	Total	105.937	202			

a. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER

b. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)

c. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO), interaction between pdo and gol (final)

d. Dependent Variable: CR

Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients	Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
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		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.152	.069		45.694	.000
	GENDER OF LEADER	-.123	.102	-.085	-1.206	.229
2	(Constant)	3.156	.068		46.129	.000
	GENDER OF LEADER	-.132	.101	-.091	-1.308	.193
	Zscore(PDO)	.107	.051	.147	2.114	.036
3	(Constant)	3.341	.168		19.865	.000
	GENDER OF LEADER	-.536	.350	-.370	-1.530	.128
	Zscore(PDO)	.045	.072	.062	.630	.530
	interaction between pdo and gol (final)	.222	.184	.306	1.203	.230

a. Dependent Variable: CR

Excluded Variables^c

Model		Beta	In t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	Zscore(PDO)	.147 ^a	2.114	.036	.148	.998
	interaction between pdo and gol (final)	.420 ^a	2.356	.019	.164	.152
2	interaction between pdo and gol (final)	.306 ^b	1.203	.230	.085	.075

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)

c. Dependent Variable: CR

Source: Developed for this study

Appendix 22: Regression Results (Management by Exception: Active Scale of Transactional Leadership Style)

Variables Entered/Removed^b

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	GENDER OF LEADER ^a	.	Enter
2	Zscore(PDO) ^a	.	Enter
3	interaction between pdo and gol (final) ^a	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: MBEA

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.047 ^a	.002	-.003	.91805	.002	.438	1	201	.509
2	.047 ^b	.002	-.008	.92033	.000	.005	1	200	.944
3	.101 ^c	.010	-.005	.91894	.008	1.604	1	199	.207

a. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER

b. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)

c. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO), interaction between pdo and gol (final)

ANOVA^d

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	.369	1	.369	.438	.509 ^a
	Residual	169.406	201	.843		
	Total	169.775	202			
2	Regression	.373	2	.187	.220	.803 ^b
	Residual	169.402	200	.847		
	Total	169.775	202			
3	Regression	1.728	3	.576	.682	.564 ^c
	Residual	168.047	199	.844		
	Total	169.775	202			

a. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER

b. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)

c. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO), interaction between pdo and gol (final)

d. Dependent Variable: MBEA

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2.439	.088		27.860	.000
	GENDER OF LEADER	.086	.129	.047	.662	.509
2	(Constant)	2.439	.088		27.780	.000
	GENDER OF LEADER	.085	.130	.046	.656	.512
	Zscore(PDO)	.005	.065	.005	.070	.944

3	(Constant)		2.688	.216		12.463	.000
	GENDER OF LEADER		-.460	.449	-.251	-1.023	.307
	Zscore(PDO)		-.079	.092	-.086	-.853	.395
	interaction between pdo and gol (final)		.299	.236	.327	1.267	.207

a. Dependent Variable: MBEA

Excluded Variables^c

Model		Beta	In	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
							Tolerance
1	Zscore(PDO)	.005 ^a	.070	.944	.005	.998	
	interaction between pdo and gol (final)	.170 ^a	.940	.348	.066	.152	
2	interaction between pdo and gol (final)	.327 ^b	1.267	.207	.089	.075	

a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)

c. Dependent Variable: MBEA

Source: Developed for this study

Appendix 23: Regression Results (Management by Exception: Passive Scale of Transactional Leadership Style)

Variables Entered/Removed^b

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	GENDER OF LEADER ^a	.	Enter
2	Zscore(PDO) ^a	.	Enter
3	interaction between pdo and gol (final) ^a	.	Enter

a. All requested variables entered.

b. Dependent Variable: MBEP

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	.118 ^a	.014	.009	1.05464	.014	2.843	1	201	.093
2	.118 ^b	.014	.004	1.05722	.000	.018	1	200	.895
3	.127 ^c	.016	.001	1.05875	.002	.424	1	199	.516

a. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER

b. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)

c. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO), interaction between pdo and gol (final)

ANOVA^d

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3.162	1	3.162	2.843	.093 ^a
	Residual	223.564	201	1.112		
	Total	226.726	202			
2	Regression	3.182	2	1.591	1.423	.243 ^b
	Residual	223.544	200	1.118		
	Total	226.726	202			
3	Regression	3.657	3	1.219	1.088	.355 ^c
	Residual	223.069	199	1.121		
	Total	226.726	202			

a. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER

b. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)

c. Predictors: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO), interaction between pdo and gol (final)

d. Dependent Variable: MBEP

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.909	.101		18.985	.000
	GENDER OF LEADER	-.250	.149	-.118	-1.686	.093
2	(Constant)	1.909	.101		18.935	.000
	GENDER OF LEADER	-.251	.149	-.119	-1.686	.093
	Zscore(PDO)	.010	.074	.009	.133	.895
3	(Constant)	2.057	.249		8.278	.000

GENDER OF LEADER					
Zscore(PDO)	-.574	.518	-.271	-1.109	.269
interaction between pdo and gol (final)	-.039	.106	-.037	-.371	.711
	.177	.272	.168	.651	.516

a. Dependent Variable: MBEP

Excluded Variables^c

Model	Beta	t	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics	
					Tolerance	
1	Zscore(PDO)	.009 ^a	.133	.895	.009	.998
	interaction between pdo and gol (final)	.100 ^a	.553	.581	.039	.152
2	interaction between pdo and gol (final)	.168 ^b	.651	.516	.046	.075

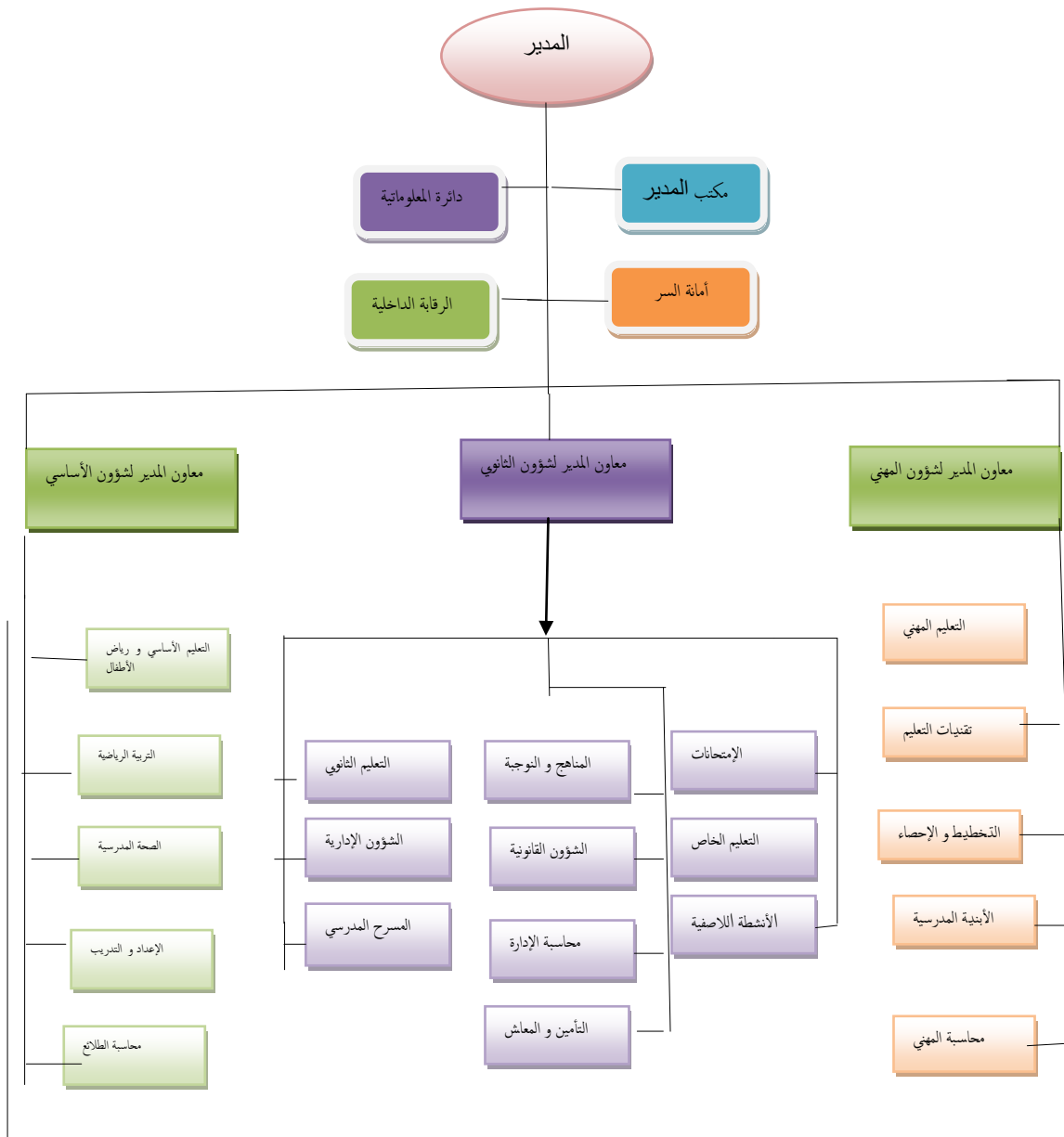
a. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), GENDER OF LEADER, Zscore(PDO)

c. Dependent Variable: MBEP

Source: Developed for this study

Appendix 24: The structure of the Moderet al Tarbia organization (Arabic version)



Source: Developed for this study

Appendix 25: The structure of the Moderet al Tarbia organization (English version)

