An Investigation into Cultural and Demographic Factors relating to Leadership in Vocational Education and Training Institutions in Saudi Arabia

Being a thesis submitted for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy
in
The University of Hull

by

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July 2014

Abstract

The importance of good leadership and management for educational institutions is well established among educational scholars and practitioners alike. It is reflected in a trend to incorporate generic theories from broader fields of leadership and management scholarship into educational settings. Among them, few have gained more acceptance and popularity than the transformational leadership (TL) model and, as a result, an extensive body of literature has emerged. Yet, despite considerable advancements in these studies, the understanding of how key antecedents such as important social and cultural determinants shape and influence these leadership styles has remained elusive. This thesis predominantly investigates the impact of sociocultural factors on educational leadership in vocational education and training (VET) institutions in Saudi Arabia. It also seeks to discover the dominant leadership styles in this specific context. Given that the focus of this study is on a specific educational setting (VETs), a further aim of this thesis is to understand better the development and current status of Saudi VET.

To accomplish these aims, a two-phase mixed-method design was adopted. Quantitative data collection and analysis was applied in the first stage of data collection. A questionnaire incorporating Dorfman and Howell's (1988) Cultural Values scale to measure the cultural values and Bass and Avolio's (1995) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5-x short form) instrument to explore the dominant leadership styles was distributed to Deans/Heads and Vice-Deans/Heads (n=173) and subordinates (n= 593) in 112 VET institutes. In the second stage of data collection and analysis, qualitative data were gathered by means of semi-structured interviews with a stratified purposive sample of 11 of the questionnaire respondents. A further analysis was undertaken to examine the extent to which the results of qualitative data corroborate culturally-sensitive leadership (CSL) models.

The findings revealed that the perceived dominant leadership styles were transformational leadership, especially Inspirational Motivation, and the Contingent Reward dimension of transactional leadership. The interviews provided locally meaningful understanding of these leadership styles. Small to moderate effects were found for gender, education and work experience. Culture showed small impacts; Power Distance was the strongest predictor of transformational leadership and Uncertainty Avoidance contributed to certain dimensions of transactional and transformational leadership. Overlapping was found between transformational leadership dimensions and CSL models.

Dedication

In memory of my dad and Norah Alaumyrah, who passed away during my journey.

May Allah have mercy on you and place your souls among those of the believers.

I also dedicate this

..To my Mother Norah Alsaeed, to my cousin and friend Amal Altamimi and to my sister Razan for their love and support.

..To my husband Khalid Albattal, my son Hisham, and my daughters Ghaida, Raghda and Judy, for their love and patience amidst all hardship.

Acknowledgements

Thank Allah, whose grace is righteous, the Most Compassionate and Most Merciful, for His blessing and enabling me to complete this long journey.

This thesis would not have been possible without the support, helpful comments, constant advice, and remarkable patience of my supervisor, Mr. Nigel Wright.

I would like to thank Prof. Mike Bottery and Dr. John Smith for their constructive feedback during the upgrade process. A big thank you goes to Suzy O'Connor and Elisha Butler from the Graduate School. From the Centre of Education Studies, I would also like to thank Janet Cuthbertson, Clare McKinlay, Sam Wood, and Jessica Stubbins for their help and kindness. My deep appreciation goes to Mrs. Kathryn Spry for her sincere effort in proof reading and checking several drafts of the thesis and improving my English writing and style.

I would like to thank Dr. Badr Al-Otibi and Dr. Mohammed Al-Yahia from King Saud University, and Dr. Abdullmohsen Al-Luhaid from the Institute of Public Administration, and Dr. Hamad Alogla from the Technical and Vocational Training Corporation for all their help and support. I would like to thank all the participants; without their corporation this research would not exist. Special thanks to Gamila Faitur, Judy Richardson and Sana Binali for their care and support.

I would like to thank all my relatives and friends who have supported me through this process. There are too many to name individually. I hope you realize how much your support and encouragement meant to me.

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List of Abbreviations

CO	Collectivism
CR	Contingent Reward
CSL	Culturally Sensitive Leadership
CV	Cultural Values
CVS	Cultural Value Survey
EL	Educational Leadership
ETL	Educational Transformational Leadership
GLOBE	Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour
GOTEVOT	General Organization for Technical Education and Vocational Training
IA	Idealized Influence (Attributes)
IB	Idealized Influence (Behaviour)
IC	Individualized Consideration
IM	Inspirational Motivation
IND	Individualism
IS	Intellectual Simulation
IV	Independent variable
LF	Laissez faire
MAS	Masculinity
MBEA	Management-by-Exception Active
MBEP	Management-by-Exception Passive

MLQ	Multi-factor Leadership Questionnaire
TEL	Transformational Educational Leadership
TC	Technical College
TCG	Technical College for Girls
UA	Uncertainty Avoidance
TVTC	Technical and Vocational Training Corporation
VET	Vocational Education and Training
VI	Vocational Institute

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Background

There is a widespread agreement among educational scholars, policy makers and practitioners that successful educational institutions require good leadership and management. This recognition has triggered an increasing interest in the study of the role and impact of leadership in educational settings in the past decades (Leithwood et al., 2008). More than three decades ago Bridges (1982) proclaimed that, as Vernon (1964) had asserted previously, “the utility of such research is simply underwhelming in relation to its volume” (Bridges, 1982:26). However, since Bridges’ observation, there has been sizeable improvement in the scope and quality of educational leadership scholarship (Hallinger, 2011). This advancement can be demonstrated in a recent meta-analysis of educational leadership studies (Leithwood and Jantzi, 2005; Chin, 2007; Hallinger, 2010; Hallinger, 2011; Sun and Leithwood, 2012). Following a comprehensive reviewing of literature on educational leadership published over the past 40 years, Hallinger (2010: 126) concluded that “this body of empirical research has matured to the point where it offers a sounder foundation for leadership practice [in educational settings]”. In particular, educational scholars have increasingly incorporated generic theories from broader fields of management and leadership scholarship into their studies (Lagemann, 2000), a significant step that reduced the isolation of the field from the mainstream literature on management and social science (Robinson, 2006). An important trend in studying educational leadership is the formulation of a number of competing leadership models appropriate to educational settings. Among the educational leadership and management models that emerged over the past 20 years, few have gained more acceptance and popularity than the application of transformational leadership (TL). As a recent extensive review of studies of transformational educational leadership (TEL) in school contexts indicates, these models of leadership behaviours have generally positive and meaningful effects on students (Sun and Leithwood, 2012).

Furthermore, the TL model, known as the full-range leadership theory (Bass and Avolio, 1997; Bass and Riggio, 2006; Avolio, 2011), sets forth an arguably comprehensive framework for understanding a wide range of possible leadership styles by differentiating among three different categories of behaviours that leaders might exhibit: transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire. As a result, the application of this model contributes to the broader understanding of dominant leadership styles in educational settings. Given that the primary objective of this thesis is to make sense of leadership styles in the educational setting under the study (Saudi Vocational Education and Training), the application of the TL model contributes to accomplishment of this objective. In the application of TL into educational contexts, two important approaches are identified within this literature: those studies that used generic TL instruments such as the Multi Factor Leadership Questionnaires (MLQ) and those studies that applied a modified version of the TL idea that suits the EL context (Firestone and Robinson, 2010). Both approaches have advantages and limitations but this thesis follows the former approach by using MLQ to address its primary objective; the rationale for this is explained in Chapter Two.

1.2 The Researcher, the Research Problem and Contributions

1.2.1 Researcher's Position

I am working in King Saud University as a lecturer at the Education College. I am therefore an outsider to vocational education and training. In teaching in the Education College through two models which gives students an overview of all types of education in the Kingdom, I became aware that the information on VET was insufficient. I was in interested to do this research to have more information and to understand this sector better, and in turn to provide a clear view of this sector to students, teachers, and policy makers. Mixed methods were used to obtain a rich data which will enhance our understanding.

1.2.2 Research Problem and Contributions

Revisiting the literature on TEL, it becomes evident the authors have predominantly strived to define TEL constructs, as well as to examine if and how leadership impacts students' achievements (Leithwood et al., 1996; Leithwood and Jantzi, 2005; Chin, 2007; Leithwood and Sun, 2009). An apparent gap or deficiency in the literature is that it largely focused on conceptualization and consequences of this leadership style. The understanding of how key antecedents such as important social and cultural determinants shape and influence these leadership styles has remained elusive (Leithwood and Jantzi, 2005). Dimmock and Walker (2005:74) highlighted this important gap in the literature by contending that: "leadership models developed in Western countries, including transformational leadership … are insufficient in themselves to take account of the complexities of … cultural diversity across organizations located in different societies influenced by contrasting traditions and educational values”. This concern was echoed by Sun and Leithwood (2012:440), who suggested that “many recent TEL scholars largely accept, as necessary, the original emotional and inspirational purpose of TEL but consider them to be insufficient because they do not acknowledge the context in which leaders work”.

Indeed, there is systematic failure to consider or discuss the potential impact of larger macro-societal cultural factors as the main antecedents of EL. The importance of considering these determinants was first highlighted two decades ago, almost simultaneously by Cheng (1995) and Hallinger (1995). Cheng (1995:99) maintained that ‘‘the cultural element is not only necessary, but essential in the study of educational administration’’. He continued to argue that the literature on organizational culture should lead to intercultural understanding, ‘‘if (the) external cultural factors are taken into account’’. This recognition prompted some educational scholars to consider the influence of cultural factors on ETL. The limited available studies responding to the call for further studies in this area (Begley, 2000; Walker and Dimmock, 2005; Walker, 2010), in particular have examined the potential impacts of cultural values developed by Hofstede (1980, 2001) on the MLQ developed by Bass and Avolio (1995). For instance, Walker and Dimmock (2005) argued that a combination of high power distance and collectivism generates a rigorous interplay when applied to conceptions like transformational leadership, which implies shared leadership seeking for empowerment. However, this literature is fragmented, sparse and incomplete. This represents a major gap in the current literature and thus the most significant contribution of this study is to narrow this gap by furthering our understanding of the cultural antecedents that are key to shaping and influencing TEL.

A major factor causing this deficiency is that these studies were conducted in isolation from advances that cross-cultural studies on leadership have recently witnessed. The current cross-cultural studies on leadership particularly made a distinction between two dominant approaches in this area of studies, being culture universal (etic) and culture specific (emic). The etic approach assumed that the core idea of TL is a universal phenomenon that should be similar or invariant across cultures. On this basis, the proponents of this approach argued that Western instruments such as MLQ or Hofstede's national culture dimensions can be simply translated and applied to a non-Western culture. Having said that, it becomes apparent that those studies considering the effects of culture on TEL have followed largely an etic approach. The emic approach reflects the view that certain leadership components are likely to be unique to a given culture (Dorfman et al., 1997) and thus the many leadership theories developed in a Western context may not be generalizable to leaders with different cultural orientations, due to cultural contingencies (Hofstede, 2001; Smith et al., 1989). The advocates of this approach particularly contend that for the investigation of leadership, researchers should conduct in-depth and rich qualitative research in the cultural context within which it occurs and looks at the phenomenon through the eyes of the people native to a particular culture. Given that both approaches have been the subject of several criticisms, there is a tendency among scholars to combine these two approaches. Reviewing 10 articles in *Leadership Quarterly's* special issue on cross-cultural leadership, Hunt and Peterson (1997) maintained that all 10 articles, in one way or another, combined both approaches.

Among the studies that sought to combine emic and etic approaches, the Global Leadership and Organisational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE) project developed by House et al. (2004) stands alone as the most comprehensive. This research combined traditional questionnaire techniques with complementary ethnographic evidence. The GLOBE's authors suggest, therefore, that it would be valuable if a combined approach were adopted.

Given these developments in broader cross-cultural studies on leadership, there is a pressing need to utilise similar effective approaches in educational settings. In order to achieve this, this thesis seeks to combines etic and emic approaches that adopt a mixed method to investigate the potential role of culture on leadership in its specific context. This is an important value that this study adds to knowledge.

Another important contribution of this thesis is to apply this conceptual framework in a less-understood educational setting, namely, Vocational Education and Training (VET). One reason for the limited understanding in this area is that the institutional setting of VETs is extremely diverse. Karmel (2010:229) observed, "It is the most diverse education sector, delivered in both the classroom and the workplace, and organized in a variety of ways internationally". Although this thesis is primarily concerned with the examination of the potential impact of culture on leadership, it nevertheless attempts to offer some insights on understanding of this specific sector in Saudi Arabia by looking at its origins and evolution and particularly its current organizational arrangement. The related studies on VET have pointed to a number of challenges associated with VET, such as low status compared with higher education (Anlezark et al., 2006). However the evidence as to leadership challenges of VET to date remains inconclusive. Those limited studies considering VET leadership have scarcely addressed substantial questions of VET leadership such as the dominant leadership style in VET and the main demographic and cultural antecedents shaping and influencing VET leadership (Boateng, 2012; Daughtry and Finch, 1997; Moses et al., 1992; Muijs et al., 2006). It should also be reiterated that the boundary for the research has been set at the cultural and social antecedents of VET leadership. Other VET challenges have, therefore, not been included. Given that a generally accepted theory that will explain VET leadership does not yet exist, this thesis makes a significant contribution to knowledge to narrow this gap.

1.3 Research Objectives

In light of the above discussions, the main objectives of this thesis are: (1) to discover the dominant Saudi VET leadership styles based on the TL full range theory, this includes three subsidiary objectives; a) to determine any differences between self and rater perceptions of leadership, b) to ascertain the impact of managerial level (defined as dean and vice-dean), and c) to ascertain the impact of participants' institutional affiliation to the three different Saudi VET institutes. (2) To examine the possible association of demographic variables (gender, age, educational level, and work experience) of the leaders and subordinates with Saudi VET leadership styles; (3) to investigate socio-cultural factors that may be associated with VET leadership style in Saudi Arabia; and finally ; (4) to further our understanding of the development and current situation of VET in Saudi Arabia.

A literature review is conducted in Chapter Two and precise research questions are stated at the end that chapter, because they arise from a close reading of the literature.

1.4 Methodology

Drawing on an etic approach, quantitative data collection and analysis was applied in the first stage of data collection, using Dorfman and Howell's (1988) CV instrument to measure the cultural values in Saudi Arabia. This instrument was adopted largely because it measures those dimensions of culture that have direct impact on work-related and management process issues and values. This particularly reduces the ecological fallacies associated with Hofstede's instrument (Bond, 2002; Dorfman and Howell, 1988). The MLQ was also used to explore the dominant leadership styles in educational settings based on Bass and Avolio (1995). Then, through an extensive statistical analysis the impact of culture (based on data gathered though Dorfman and Howell's (1988) CV instrument) on dominant leadership styles (based on data collected by the MLQ instrument) was examined.

In the second stage of data collection and analysis this thesis draws on an emic approach using qualitative data gathered by means of in-depth interviews/semi structured interviews. The findings of the qualitative data shed further and different light on the dominant leadership styles in the context under study. There also exists a body of literature that sought to address the problem of cultural specificity by devising leadership models for organizations in Muslim countries. Following an emic approach, these studies predominantly focused on specific historical, cultural, and social factors of these countries to generate culturally sensitive leadership (CSL) models ((Mimouni and Metcalf, 2011). A further analysis undertaken in this thesis is to examine the extent to which the results of qualitative data corroborate the CSL models. Ultimately, the overall results of qualitative and quantitative analysis are merged together. To date, this methodology has not been applied to leadership in an educational context.

1.5 Thesis Outline

Following this brief introductory chapter, the organization of this thesis is as follows: Chapter 2 surveys the extensive literature on ETL and cross-cultural studies on leadership and VET. Chapter 3 focuses specifically on the status of VET in Saudi Arabia. This contextual chapter is placed here after the literature review because the context draws upon conceptual ideas explicated by Hofstede, which are explained first in Chapter Two. Chapter 4 captures the research methodology adopted, based upon the specific data collection needs of this study. Chapters 5 and 6 report on the experimental investigation conducted on quantitative and qualitative data. The data presented in Chapters 5 and 6 are collated in Chapter 7, which presents an integrated analysis of the data in the light of the research questions. The Conclusion provides summaries of the findings and a discussion of their implications, as well as the conclusions to be drawn from the Saudi Arabian experience.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to situate the main research question within broader literature. As indicated in the introduction, the primary goal of this thesis is to discover the potential impact of cultural and demographic antecedents on Saudi Arabian VET leadership styles based on transformational leadership theories. To do so, this thesis intends to provide new insight to the literature by bringing together a number of interconnected strands of literature within leadership and educational studies. It also seeks to apply a conceptual framework based on these trends of studies into a specific sector of education, namely, VET. As such, the research envisages several subjects that span a number of sub-disciplines, so there are elements of cross-over among all sections within this chapter, as shown in Figure 2.1. The main areas that constitute the building blocks for this literature review include Educational Leadership (EL), Transformational Leadership (TL), and Cross-Cultural Studies in Organizational Research and VET studies. In order to gain a clear picture of the subject under study, in the following lines each main area of study is first discussed and then the areas where they interconnect with one another are highlighted.

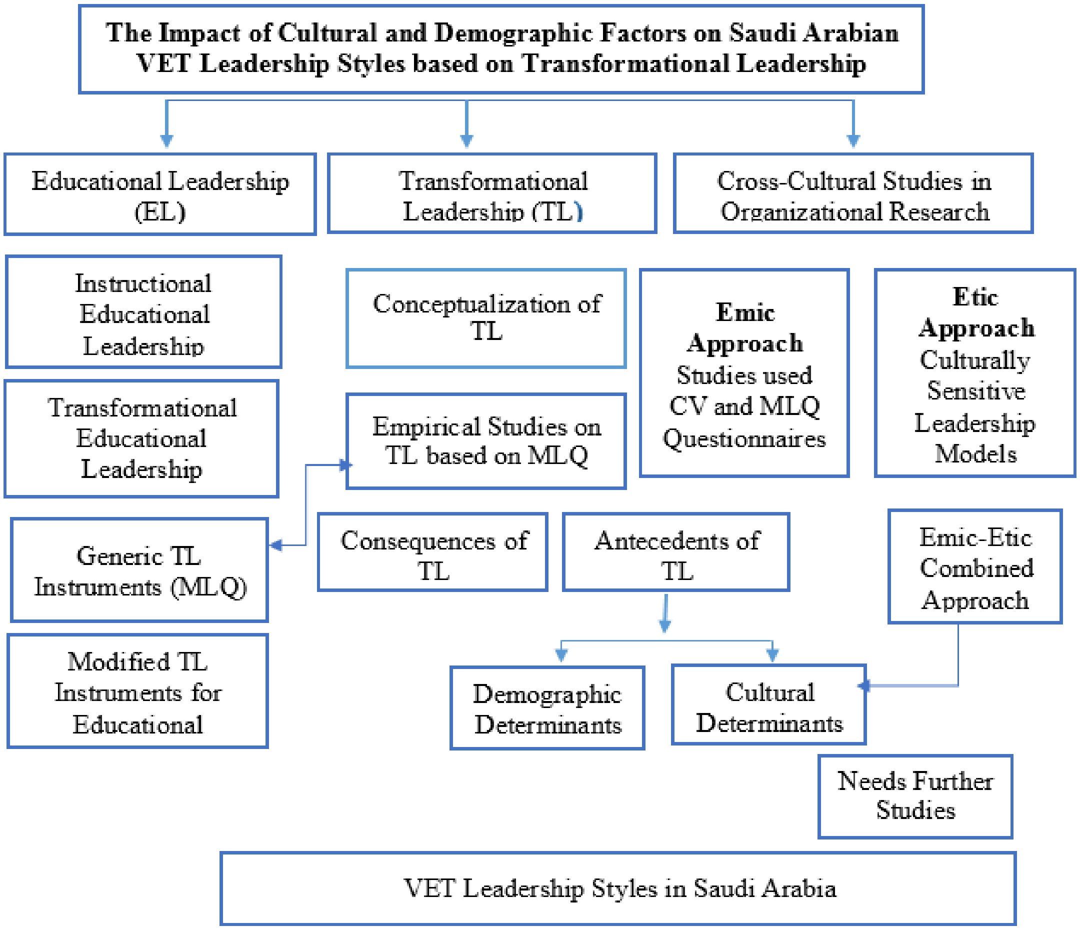
The departure point for this research is general educational leadership (EL) studies. Thus, section 2.2 first outlines the genesis and evolution of EL. Before proceeding to transformational_educational leadership (TEL), which is the main focus of this study, it reviews the conventional approach to educational leadership, instructional leadership, in section 2.2.3. The argument is that reviewing these backgrounds will contribute to better understanding of TEL. Then the literature on TEL is discussed in further detail. In particular, two important approaches are identified within this literature: those studies that used generic TL instruments such as MLQ and those studies that applied a modified version of the TL idea that suits the EL context. It will be discussed that both approaches have advantages and limitations but this study follows the former approach by using MLQ. Another striking conclusion that can be drawn from this literature is that the majority of these works focused on the consequences of these leadership styles. Antecedents of TEL, such as specific cultural context remains as an area that requires further research.

Given that there is a general gap in the understanding of cultural antecedents of TEL and that the required conceptual underpinnings are not developed within the educational studies field, the next step is to lay a conceptual framework based on broader literature on TL. Section 2.3 deals with this by unfolding general concepts and exploring the main dimensions of TL as developed within this field. It then discusses how these dimensions have evolved in the past years and how they relate to one another. Once a thorough understanding of the TL concept and dimensions has been established, the chapter turns to the main antecedents of TL. Section 2.4 captures such factors as gender, age, education and managerial level as the most important demographic determinants of TL by citing the results of individual early studies and of recently conducted meta-analysis.

Section 2.5 constitutes a major part of the chapter and is devoted to the second antecedent of TL along with broader discussion on different approaches to cross-cultural studies on leadership. This section firstly points out the dominant approaches to cross-cultural studies in leadership as etic, emic and combined approaches and argues that the majority of studies considering the effects of culture on TL have followed an etic approach. Section 2.5.1 particularly reviews this literature, which predominantly applied Hofstede's CV and MLQ instruments. Given the domination of Hofstede's dimensions in this trend of literature, it is imperative to gain a better understanding of these dimensions and thus this section goes further to make sense of Hofstede's dimensions in section 2.5.2. Section 2.5.3 seeks to shed some light on the studies conducted drawing on the second approach of cross-cultural studies, by reviewing culture-sensitive leadership models devised for organizations in Muslim countries.

Section 2.6 seeks to make sense of vocational education and training as a distinct educational sector and to revisit the emerging literature on VET in order to situate the main question of research, VET leadership, within this literature. To understand VET better, this section begins with a general discussion on the genesis and evolution of VET by tracing the historical roots that shaped the contemporary VET and discussing the intellectual debates that have justified the need for it. It then outlines the diverse terminology on and varied institutional settings of VET in different countries. Finally, based upon these discussions a working definition of VET is offered for the purpose of this study. This section is followed by a brief overview of the promises and challenges of VET. Section 2.6.2 reviews the challenges of VET, in particular highlighting the increasing importance of VET leadership. The rest of the section is devoted to reviewing the limited attempts made to examine VET leadership. A map of literature is presented in figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: Literature map of thesis



Source: Author

2.2 Educational Leadership

2.2.1 Leadership and educational leadership defined

Before proceeding further, it is necessary to shed some light on the concept of educational leadership. It is particularly significant because the new trends in educational leadership challenged the older understanding of leadership. A practical strategy in defining a compound term such as educational leadership is to break the term into its components. Accordingly, the concept of leadership is first defined. As with other terms in social science, the definition of leadership is neither easy nor straightforward. In an extensive review of leadership definitions in 1974, Stogdill proclaimed that the number of leadership definitions is as many as the people who have attempted to define it. This is largely because these definitions echo the "individual perspectives and the aspects of the phenomenon of most interest to them" (Yukl, 2012:18). Despite this disparity, there have been some attempts to offer a practical definition by identifying a series of generally agreed components of leadership. In particular, three key defining components of leadership are identified: (1) leadership is an 'influence process', (2) it occurs within a group, (3) the group is working to attain a goal (Yukl, 2012; Leithwood and Riehl, 2005). This definition is reflected in Northouse's (2013:5) definition of leadership as: "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a goal." The GLOBE definition of leadership follows the same logic by defining leadership as "the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organizations of which they are members" (House et al., 2004:15).

These definitions, however, are not immune from criticisms. They seem to be too general, because influence may take a variety of forms such as force, coercion, or manipulation, which would be beyond the scope of leadership. Indeed, in contrast to other forms of influence, leadership is essentially consensual and subordinates agree to do what is asked of them for a number of reasons. Subordinates may consider that leaders are in a specific status position which automatically grants them the authority to dictate a plan of action. Or, subordinates may believe that a person possesses all the necessary personal attributes of a leader, or that the leader is trying to implement a course of action that is right or reasonable (Fay, 1987).In this sense, the distinctive characteristic of leadership is that the basis of the leader's influence is either positional authority (the authority given to a person or institution to require things of others is accepted) or the rationality of what is accepted (Fay, 1987).

In defining leadership, an important distinction should also be made between leading and managing. The overwhelming willingness of leaders to bring about change is the most distinguishing feature of leadership, which sets it apart from managing. As Bertocci and Bertocci (2009) assert, managers seek to coordinate day-to-day operations and routines, while leaders tend to provide support for the reconsideration and adjustment. Nevertheless, these two concepts overlap in many ways as managers require leadership skills (to be influential) and leaders require management skills to push their daily routines towards organizational goals.

Now that the concept of leadership has been somewhat clarified, it is time to offer a definition of leadership in an educational context. One simple definition of educational leadership is that it is a type of leadership carried out by persons in an educational context. However this definition is too simplistic because there are many leadership activities in educational settings that are very similar to those in several other organizational settings. An important feature of educational leadership that distinguishes it from other forms of leadership is that it is concerned with leadership activities that are aimed specifically at educational goals (Hallinger, 2005). In this sense, as stated by Firestone and Robinson (2010:741) educational leadership captures those leadership activities that "improve the quality of teaching and learning, either through direct intervention into teachers' work or through creating school conditions that do so indirectly". This notion of educational leadership places large emphasis on teaching and learning as the main issues. Hence educational leadership is closely linked to improvements in teaching and learning (Elmore, 2000).

Another important consideration in the definition of educational leadership is the distinction between conventional positional and distributed leadership in educational settings. The majority of studies on educational leadership focused only on those educational managers who hold the highest formal positions in educational organizations. This notion of educational leadership concerns a predominantly instructional leadership approach that assumes a single heroic leader. As will be discussed in further detail in the following section, however, the distributed leadership style, which overlaps with transformational leadership, views leadership as a series of activities in which "the initiators and recipients of influence are constantly changing depending on the task at hand, the available expertise, and the willingness and skill of those involved" (Firestone and Robinson, 2010:744).

2.2.2 Genesis and evolution of EL

The history of educational leadership can be traced back to as early as the first decades of the twentieth century when education management as a profession gained importance in the United States. In those early years, educational scholars for the first time drew attention to the managerial aspects of principals, as opposed to their instructional roles, a conflict between the key responsibilities of school leaders that continues to this day. Among the studies conducted in the subsequent years, the extensive research carried out by Gross and Herriott (1965) in the study of elementary school principals in the United States stands above others. The authors of this research proposed a series of criteria as the key elements of executive professional leadership (EPL) and applied the related measures in empirical research. The results of this study paved the way for subsequent research on the role of principals in school change and reform during the 1970s. However it was not until the 1980s that these studies gained more sophistication in terms of both theory and methodology (Hallinger and Heck, 1996a). Following a review of the literature on educational administrators in the early 1980s, Bridges (1982) cast doubt on the value of such research, compared to its quantity. However, since Bridges' observation, there has been sizeable improvement in the scope and quality of educational leadership. Educational scholars have increasingly incorporated generic theories from broader fields of management and leadership scholarship into their studies (Lagemann, 2000).

These developments have been as a result of and in response to the changing demands of educational society. In the early 1980s, the main concern of the educational community was to implement successful changes in order to improve the overall quality of schools and ultimately to sustain effective schools. It was soon realised that skilful leadership of school principals was an integral element of school effectiveness. In line with this concern, the early studies of educational leadership grew out of the effective schools literature (e.g. Andrews and Soder, 1987; Hallinger and Murphy, 1986; O'Day, 1983). This strand of literature, which was later known as instructional leadership, identified a direct connection between principals who exerted a powerful form of instructional leadership and schools that were instructionally effective (Hallinger and Murphy,1985, 1987; Leithwood and Montgomery, 1982). Drawing on the findings of these studies, policymakers in Western countries encouraged school leaders to adopt instructional leadership characteristics in order to build more effective schools. Although different aspects of this approach have been subject to a number of criticisms (e.g., Barth, 1986; Cuban, 1988), nonetheless, this approach was dominant throughout the 1990s in several Western countries.

With the advent of school restructuring, especially in North America, in the early 1990s, a series of new educational leadership concepts and ideas such as empowerment, shared leadership, and organizational learning came to the fore. These concerns necessitated an innovative leadership style in educational contexts that fosters continuous change in the organization's normative structure (Leithwood, 1994). Once again, the research on educational leadership kept pace with these developments. The application of the concept of transformational leadership to the related studies was a timely response to that growing demand (e.g. Bass, 1997; Leithwood and Jantzi, 2000; Silins and Mulford, 2002). Transformational educational leadership (TEL) has gained unprecedented popularity and worldwide acceptance in educational settings since then. The subsequent empirical researches reveal that adoption of a transformational leadership qualities style is associated with greater student attainment than reliance solely on instructional leadership elements (Marks and Printy, 2003). The following sections give a brief review of instructional leadership and transformational leadership.

2.2.3 Instructional leadership

To understand better transformational leadership in education, it is imperative to have a clear idea of the conventional approach to educational leadership, instructional leadership. This section reviews briefly some theoretical aspects of this approach. The potential role of the principal in developing curriculum and promoting instruction in the school is the focal point of instructional leadership (Hallinger and Huber, 2012). The instructional leadership concept has its roots in studies on effective elementary schools or poor urban schools where 'strong, directive leaders' were an advantage (Hallinger and Murphy, 1986; Leithwood and Montgomery, 1982). Instructional leaders were characterised as heroic leaders who combined expertise and charisma, focusing on the improvement of student academic outcomes and seeking to generate a culture fostering high expectations and standards for students and teachers (Hallinger, 2003). Several conceptualisations were developed for instructional leadership during the 1980s (see Andrews and Soder, 1987; Leithwood and Montgomery, 1982), but the most frequently used was the one proposed by Hallinger and Murphy (1987). According to Hallinger and Murphy (1987) there are three key areas of 'instructional leadership': clarifying the mission of the school, running a programme of instruction, and facilitating an environment dedicated to positive learning. The three areas cited include another ten functions which together create ‘instructional leadership’. Firstly, clarifying the mission of the school serves both to create a structure for the goals of the school and to effectively communicate those goals. Via this function the heads of schools can be sure that the school has a well-defined academic purpose which is conveyed to the teachers. Secondly, running a programme of instruction involves supervising and synchronizing all instruction and the implementation of the curriculum. This area includes three functions of leadership: overseeing and assessing instruction, synchronizing the curriculum, following the progress of students. On the basis of these functions, heads can be very closely involved in the ‘instructional development’ of their schools. Thirdly, facilitating an environment dedicated to positive-learning comprises a number of functions: safeguarding time for instruction with the aim of encouraging professional training, creating incentives for staff and making sure that they are made fully aware of any employee rewards schemes that are available, designing employee incentives schemes to improve performance (Hallinger and Heck, 1996a and b).

Due to the widespread acceptance of this leadership model during the 1980s, a substantial body of research was generated (Bamburg and Andrews, 1990; Goldring and Pasternak, 1994; Leitner, 1994). In their extensive review of the literature on instructional leadership and its consequences, Hallinger and Heck (1999) contended that instructional leadership was the most commonly studied model of school leadership in the 1980s and the 1990s. The birthplace of instructional leadership was in the United States; however the related studies have been widespread and spanned the continents (Hallinger and Heck, 1999).

Although instructional leadership corresponded well to the requirements of the 1980s and the 1990s and lived up to the expectations of the public and the decision-makers concerned with educational leadership, it was not free from criticisms. One of the repeated criticisms of this model is that instructional leadership does not indeed define the singular role of a school principal (Cuban, 1988). Instead, principals are expected to serve a variety of managerial, political, instructional, institutional, human resource, and symbolic roles within educational contexts (Bolman and Deal, 1992; Cuban, 1988). As a result, some scholars argued that overemphasis on this single role as the most important factor shaping student performance will have negative impacts for the principal (Barth, 1986; Cuban, 1988). Above all, the critics called into question the capacity of principals to fulfil the defined heroic role. They argued that the majority of principals lack the necessary combination of 'will and skill' to exercise the function of instructional leadership (Barth, 1986). More importantly, the findings of several empirical researches in educational settings revealed that the specific contextual and structural constraints of schools require a less directive and more participatory role for principals (Barth, 2004; Ogawa and Bossert, 1995). This fact is underscored by Lambert (2002: 37) who argued that nowadays no-one expects a school to be run with one person as the 'instructional leader'. It is now recognized that a sole functionary cannot take on the instructional leadership of a whole school without the involvement of other educational professionals. Thus, a number of authors have attempted to incorporate the elements of engagement and participation into the current conceptualisation of instructional leadership, calling it 'shared instructional leadership' (Donaldson, 2001; Jackson, 2000; Lambert, 2002; Marks and Printy, 2003). Although the new conceptualization of instructional leadership has had some advancement, nonetheless it failed to provide a sound theoretical basis for teaching and learning. To overcome the theoretical deficiencies, educational leadership researchers chose to reach out to broader organizational theories. The formulation of the rival concept of transformational leadership is a significant attempt which is unfolded in the next section.

2.2.4 Educational transformational leadership (ETL)

The practical and theoretical shortcomings of instructional leadership in the mid-1995 led educational scholars and practitioners to infuse generic leadership skills and knowledge with educational content to address these shortcomings. Transformational leadership theories that had originated in studies of political and corporate leadership proved to offer a sound theoretical foundation for educational settings as well (Hallinger, 2003). Sergiovanni (1990) was among the pioneers who examined the TL style of school principals and concluded that a moral authority arises that transcends giving directions in an autocratic manner and joins subordinates in striving towards higher-level aims, resulting in commitment and performance that surpass expectations.

Subsequent studies similarly contended that the core elements of transformational leadership, including principals' vision, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation, contribute to improve teachers' practices and students' achievements. Similar conclusions were reached about the positive association between effectiveness and the elements of transformational leadership for chairpersons of university academic departments (Brown and Moshavi, 2002), private school principals (Hoover, 1987) and vocational education administrators (Daughtry and Finch, 1997).

As will be detailed in section 2.3.1 transformational leadership is a very complex and multi-faceted concept (e.g., Yukl, 1989). To overcome this complexity, several attempts have been made to break down the concept into its constituent components and measure them individually. A large body of literature on TL in non-educational contexts has been devoted to the measurement of transformational leadership drawing on Bass's work (1985). In educational contexts, the extant literature has focused on either Bass's (1985) work or that of Leithwood and his colleagues (1999). Leithwood et al. (1999) have developed a set of TL elements which enriched and extended Bass's model in order to better explain TL in specific educational contexts. Without denying the merits of Leithwood, et al.'s model, this study relies explicitly on Bass's model and uses Bass's Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Avolio and Bass, 2004) and thus this literature review does not go into details of Leithwood et al.'s (1999) model. There are a number of reasons for relying on the MLQ. Its applicability, reliability and validity are well attested in a variety of cultural and institutional settings. Also MLQ has been the subject of study and the data collection method in numerous doctoral dissertations, theses, and research investigations in Europe, Asia, Africa, and elsewhere (Avolio and Bass, 2004) including various aspects of the Saudi context.

In an extensive review of literature on ETL between 1995 and 2005, Leithwood and Jantzi (2005) identified five specific trends concerning this type of leadership: (1) the particular meanings transformational leadership has acquired in schools; (2) the factors involved in the development of transformational leadership; (3) situations in which transformational leadership is either facilitated or made difficult; (4) the ways in which transformational leadership practices make their effects felt and (5) the quantifiable results of transformational leadership in school (Leithwood and Jantzi, 2005). Inspired by this classification, the literature on ETL will be reviewed in the following lines under two main headings of the conceptualization TL in educational settings: the consequences of ETL and the antecedents of ETL.

2.2.4.1 Consequences of ETL

Given that the improvement of student achievement has become the primary goal of policymakers in many countries across the world, the focus of many studies that considered ETL has been the extent to which these types of leadership are effective for this purpose (Witziers et al., 2003). Examining several studies on the impact of the principal adopting ETL, Leithwood and Jantzi, suggested that:

> transformational leadership had strong direct effects on school conditions (.80) which, in turn, had strong direct effects on classroom conditions (.62). Together, transformational leadership and school conditions explain 17% of the variation in classroom conditions, even though the direct effects of transformational leadership on classroom conditions are negative and non-significant. Transformational leadership has a weak (.17) but statistically significant effect on student identification: its effects on student participation are not significant.
> (Leithwood and Jantzi, 1999:467)

Another comprehensive literature review by Leithwood and Sun (2009) provided a synthesis of several studies examining the effects of transformational leadership practices on four sets of outcomes—teachers' emotions and beliefs, teachers' practices, school conditions, and student achievement among which studies concerned with students' achievement are abundant. Generally speaking, two types of student achievements were conceptualized as dependent variables: students' academic results and students' engagement. Academic achievement takes different forms: academic scores, attendance, college-going rates, dropout rates, and graduation rates. The evidence about ETL effects on student achievement is “mixed but tending toward positive” with a quite promising but limited amount of evidence (Leithwood and Sun, 2009:23).

The following table shows the results from six studies into the effects of ETL on students’ achievement scores. The dependent measures included different types of tests in a variety of subjects.

Table 2-1: Results of the effects of ETL on students' achievement scores

	Dependent measures	Findings
Ross (2004) and Leithwood et al. 2004).	Maths and language results on state, province or national tests.	ETL had significant positive effects on maths and language scores (Ross, 2004). Leithwood et al. (2004) found non-significant effects.
Heck and Marcoulides (1996).	A standardized national achievement test Achievement measured across a number of curricular areas.	ETL was found to have non-significant effects on student achievement.
Silins and Mulford (2002)	An examination at end- of-high school with results across five subjects.	ETL was found to have a significant indirect relationship with student attainment
Marks and Printy (2003)	Student scores in social studies and mathematics when averaged out.	ETL was found to have significant positive effects on attainment.
Griffith (2004)	The performance progress of students on standardized test scores when averaged out in each school.	Positive effects were recorded.
Day et al. (2001a; 2001b)	Test scores at both local and national level.	Schools (and heads) that had been selected yielded above average scores using national and local measures of attainment.

Source: information taken from Leithwood and Jantzi (2005), Leithwood and Sun (2012).

The engagement of schools (participation and identification) provides a key variable in itself and evidence indicates that it can also reliably predict student attainment as noted by Fredricks et al. (2004). A number of studies have looked at the ways in which transformational leadership has an effect on the engagement of school students. For example Leithwood et al. (1998); Leithwood and Jantzi (1999); Leithwood et al. (2003) and Leithwood and Sun (2012) students were asked to respond to a questionnaire as the method by which their engagement was measured. The questionnaire was based on a model of student engagement comprising two dimensions: a behavioural dimension (which focused on student engagement with activities in school and in class) and a psychological dimension (which measured whether students identified the school as a productive and meaningful environment).

2.2.4.2 Antecedents of ETL

Unlike literature on the consequences of ETL mentioned above, studies on the antecedents of transformational leadership are limited and sparse. From a review of the literature it becomes clear that only a very limited range of variables has been explored to date and there is insufficient evidence about social and national variables that foster or hinder ETL effects. Reviewing 32 studies conducted between 1995 and 2005 on different aspects of ETL, Leithwood and Jantzi (2005) found only seven considering antecedents to ETL. They reported that among them, only two studies provided indicated leader's gender and only one study described social and cultural context. Dimmock and Walker highlighted this important gap in the literature by contending that:

> Leadership models developed in Western countries, including transformational leadership and human resource management, are insufficient in themselves to take account of the complexities of: (a) cultural diversity within organizations; (b) cultural diversity across organizations located in different societies influenced by contrasting traditions and educational values.
> (Dimmock and Walker, 2005:74)

The limited available studies in particular have shown that the cultural dimensions developed by Hofstede (1980, 2001), such as individualism/collectivism and power distance, can generate national variations in ETL. The core in these studies is that transformational leadership is more likely to appear in collectivistic cultures and those with lower power distance. For instance, Koh (1990), after examination of school principals' transformational leadership style in Singapore, where the dominant culture is collectivist, argued that in this context the leaders more readily identify with a group, share responsibility for goal fulfilment, try to retain a harmonious group, and support mutual interdependence in organizations. He then concluded that these behaviours are consistent with what a transformational or charismatic leader seeks to achieve.

In the mid-1990s, the need for the recognition of the impact of larger macro-societal cultural factors as the main antecedents of EL attracted the attention of more and more educational scholars. Cheng (1995) and Hallinger (1995) were among the pioneers who underscored the value of societal culture and its potential influence in furthering our understanding of the complexity of educational leadership. Cheng (1995:99) maintained that ‘‘the cultural element is not only necessary, but essential in the study of educational administration’’. He continued to argue that the literature on organizational culture should lead to intercultural understanding, ‘‘if (the) external cultural factors are taken into account’’. This recognition encouraged educational scholars to consider the influence of societal culture on ETL. In line with these studies, Walker and Dimmock (2005) argued that a combination of high power distance and collectivism has strong implications when applied to notions like transformational leadership, which implies shared leadership seeking for empowerment. They contended that high power distance enhances the formal authority given to educational leaders, while collectivist features determine the exercising of that power. In the educational setting, such interaction can be viewed as a way of consensus-building adopted by educational leaders within the dominant values and norms of their communities that generate the legitimacy required to act. The actual manifestation of the interaction of these two cultural dimensions, according to Walker and Dimmock (2005) is a smooth interaction of leaders with teachers without engaging in open disagreement.

In another strand of research, Begley (2000) lamented the application of current Western notions of democratic learning encouraged by the transformational leadership concept in societies with large power distance, which emphasize vertical relationships. He argued that in these contexts, democracy holds very different meanings and at best it may result in confusion for school leaders. Similarly, Walker (2010) contends that high power distance can have strong influence on social relations in educational organizations, where subordinates accept differences in power as a normal characteristic of social life. In these contexts, leaders and followers proved to be more respectful of status and hierarchy than those in Western contexts.

2.2.4.3 General criticisms of ETL

It is generally argued that the normative beliefs encouraged by ETL may not be fully translated into practice (Dimmock and Walker, 2000). A number of studies have revealed that many teachers are fairly resistant to the idea of leadership participation (Bishop and Mulford, 1996; Sheppard and Brown, 1996). This finding seems to be highlighted when ‘cooperation’ is a necessary factor in achieving ‘empowerment’ and ‘shared leadership’. According to Sheppard and Brown, (1996) transformational leadership and instructional leadership are both equally difficult to carry out. Jackson (2000) offers an additional caution regarding the characteristically uncertain nature of shared leadership. Jackson warns that the personal abilities seen as integral to the notion of transformational leadership are potentially more difficult to develop via a training programme. In addition, as indicated in section 2.2.4.2 the cultural context is a determining factor. Appropriate forms of leadership must adapt to them adequately (Bottery, 2001; Dimmock and Walker, 2000).

2.2.5 Summary and implications for further research

Despite apparent pitfalls, transformational leadership, a well-recognised leadership style that has been around for four decades, appears better-suited to the recent requirements of educational settings such as empowerment and shared leadership. This is partly because it offers a rather inclusive framework for examining a wide array of potential leadership models by proposing three primary categories of leadership behaviours and partly because the voluminous research literature on the multiple consequences of this leadership style attests to a positive association between ETL and school effectiveness. It was also indicated that the studies on the antecedents of ETL are few and far between. Demographic factors have long been regarded as important determinants of leadership behaviours. More importantly, the cultural context of education, which differs from one nation to another, is of great importance. It is of special importance, not least because any cross-cultural research into leadership will always come up against the apparently intractable issue of cultural difference. This raises the fundamental question of the extent to which social and cultural factors play a determining role in leadership behaviour. The next section seeks to develop a rigorous conceptual framework for the study of the influence of contextual factors on transformational leadership based on general literature on transformational leadership and cross cultural studies.

2.3 Transformational Leadership Unfolded

2.3.1 Conceptualization of transformational leadership

The idea of leaders as agents of change was first coined as transformational leadership by Downton (1973, cited in Barnett et al., 2001) to capture a variety of leaders' characteristics ranging from reformist to rebellious and revolutionary. However, the concept of transformational leadership as it is widely known today is rooted in James McGregor Burns' (1978) leading book, *Leadership*. In this seminal work, Burns (1978) identified three main characteristics of transforming leaders as a tendency of leaders to

- raise the followers' level of consciousness about the importance and value of designated outcomes and ways of reaching them;
- get the followers to transcend their own self-interests for the sake of the team, organization, or larger polity; and
- raise the followers' level of need from lower-level concerns for safety and security to higher-level needs for achievement and self-actualization.

(Burns, 1978:38)

This understanding of leadership overlaps Weber's (1947) concept of *"charisma*" as the essence of both is a form of leadership that motivates followers to work toward moral values rather than immediate self-interest. Indeed, the main characteristic of charismatic leadership as defined by Weber is increasing focus of leaders on their emotional appeal in directing their subordinates (Conger, 1999). Most recent interpretations of transformational leadership take into consideration at least one dimension reflecting some sort of charisma. Only a few conceptualizations of transformational theory differ considerably from the charisma concept. A notable example is Tichy and Devanna (1990), whose main concern was the capability of institutions around the world to transform continuously in order to succeed in global competitiveness, the process through which transformation of the organization takes place and the potential role of leaders in this change process. According to these authors, organizational transformation could be brought about in terms of a ‘three act play.’ This three-act “drama” includes recognizing the need for change (Act I), creating a new vision (Act II), and institutionalizing change (Act III). This conceptualization of transformational leadership, however, is not followed in this thesis.

Another important contribution of Burns’ (1978) work in conceptualization of transformational leadership is the identification of transactional leadership as opposed to transformational leadership. In this notion of leadership, which was later known as “two-factor theory,” Burns places transformational and transactional leadership practices at two opposite ends of a continuum. According to Burns, transactional leaders are those leaders who commonly use exchange of rewards for services rendered and seek to maintain stability by encouraging consistent performance to meet agreed goals (Bryant, 2003; Lussier and Achua, 2004; Barnett, 2003). This conceptualisation has been drawn largely from the use of rewards and punishments in the form of economic exchange transactions (Barnett, 2003; Gellis, 2001).

Inspired by Burns's leading work, a considerable amount of literature emerged to explore different dimensions of this leadership type conceptually and theoretically. Examples of significant attempts to develop the transformational leadership concept are abundant, some of which are listed in the table below, although further details on them are obviously beyond the scope of this thesis.

Table 2-2: Some examples of attempts to develop the transformational leadership concept.

Author	The core of attempts
Bennis and Nanus (1985)	Focused on leader behaviour strategies (e.g. communication, developing trust, empowering), traits (e.g., confidence, orientation toward empowerment, vision), and organizational culture.
Kouzes and Posner (1995)	Emphasized specific leader behaviours (e.g. challenging the process, inspiring, enabling others to act)
Jaques and Clement, (1991)	Concerned with leader cognitive capability and the match between cognitive capability and organizational system or factors
Kotter and Heskett (1992)	Unpacked especially how leaders build and change organizational cultures
Conger and Kanungo (1988)	Focused on charismatic leadership behaviours (e.g. visioning, going against the status quo) and characteristics (e.g. sensitivity to environment and followers' needs, willingness to take risks)
Sashkin (1990)	Proposed the concept of visionary leadership, which examines leadership behaviours (i.e. communication, trust building, caring, empowering) and characteristics (e.g. self-efficacy, empowerment)

Source: Sun and Leithwood (2012)

Drawing on the work of Burns and others, Bass (1985) introduced the concept of transformational leadership to business organizations. The works carried out by Bass and his colleagues stand out for being fully developed and well elucidated (e.g. Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 1994; Bass and Riggio 2006). Like Burns, Bass (1985) draws on “two-factor theory,” viewing the dimensional constructs of transformational leadership as opposite ends of the same continuum. However, unlike Burns’ (1978) original view, Bass (1985) claimed that transformational leadership supplements rather than substitutes for transactional leadership. In this sense, most leaders can engage in practices at both ends of the spectrum. As clarified by Yukl and Van Fleet (1992: 176), “Bass views transformational and transactional leadership as distinct but not mutually exclusive processes”. Bass (1985) contended that evidence has suggested that “the leadership of great men (and great women) of history has usually been transformational, not transactional” (Bass, 1985: 26). He notes, "[t]ransformational leaders can be directive or participative, authoritarian or democratic" (Bass and Riggio, 2006:13). He points to Nelson Mandela, who was directive and transformational when he encouraged followers to forget the past. He was participative and transformational when he was supportive, consultative, and actively involved with his followers’ activities. He was directive and transactional "when he promises blacks better housing in exchange for their votes and is participative and transactional when he reaches mutual agreements about sharing power with the white minority" (Bass and Riggio, 2006: 13). Waldman et al. (1990) argued that transformational and transactional leadership are complementary rather than polar opposites. In other words, the same leader can play all these roles.

Together, transactional and transformational leadership constitute the core components of what is known as the full-range leadership theory (Avolio, 2011). The full-range leadership theory differentiates between three different categories of behaviours that leaders might exhibit: transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire. The theoretical underpinning of full-range leadership theory seems to be independent (Bass, 1999) and at the same time overlaps several traditional theories of leadership. Reviewing the development of leadership research, Horner (1997) referred to a number of theories as conceptual and theoretical underpinnings of transactional and transformational leadership including Maslow's hierarchy, Herzberg's motivation theory, expectancy theory, equity theory, goal setting, and reinforcement theories. Bass and Riggio (2006) particularly describes the Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) as the main theory underlying transformational theory when he states,

> LMX unfolds in several stages in which trust, loyalty, and respect develop. In the first stage, LMX is transactional. If the last stage is reached, it is transformational. (Bass and Riggio, 2006:14).

This thesis, however, does not intend to enter into lengthy debates about the theoretical underpinnings of transformational leadership. Of importance to this study is the way transformational leadership is operationalized and measured, which will be considered in the following section.

2.3.2 Transformational and transactional leadership dimensions

In order to effectively measure transactional and transformational leadership, Bass (1985) identified four dimensions serving transformational purposes – charisma or idealized influence, inspirational leadership, individualized consideration, and intellectual stimulation. He also referred to three main dimensions as the main defining elements of transactional leadership. Shortly after publication of Bass's 1985 book, Bass and Avolio published the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), to measure the component factors of transactional and transformational leadership, illustrated in Table 2.3 below. This section summarizes these dimensions of transactional and transformational leadership as outlined by Bass (1985) in his model of leadership and its subsequent developments. The MLQ instrument will be discussed in further detail in the chapter on methodology.

Table 2-3: The main components of MLQ

Transformational Leadership	**Transactional Leadership**	**Laissez-Faire Leadership**
Factor 1 Idealized influence Charisma	**Factor 5** Contingent reward Constructive transactions	**Factor 7** Laissez-faire Nontransactional
Factor 2 Inspirational motivation	**Factor 6** Management-by-exception Active and passive Corrective transactions	
Factor 3 Intellectual simulation		
Factor 4 Individualized consideration		

Source: Bass (1985)

Leaders characterised by **Idealized Influence** demonstrate conviction, focus on trust, commitment, and resolution even when they confront difficult challenges (Bass, 1997). Such leaders draw on deeply held personal values such as justice and integrity (Humphreys and Einstein, 2003). Idealized influence can be classified into two key groups: attributes and behaviour (Antonakis et al., 2003). When followers perceive the leader as powerful, confident, ethical and consistent in a focus on higher-order ideals, this is referred to as idealized influence (attributes). Idealized influence (behaviour) is characterized as the charismatic actions that elicit alignment between leader-follower values, beliefs and sense of mission (Antonakis et al., 2003).

Leaders provide **Inspirational Motivation** when they demonstrate enthusiasm, encouragement, and consistency in their communication of high standards and an appealing vision of the future (Bass, 1997). As a companion to charisma (Conger and Kanungo, 1988), the inspirational leader excites and transforms employees to a mindset that greatness is attainable (Modassir and Singh, 2008). Whereas Idealized Influence refers to motivating individuals, Inspirational Motivation refers to the motivation of an entire organization (Hay, 2007) by communicating high expectations and increasing team spirit and enthusiasm (Northouse, 2013).

In addition to building trust and inspiring followers, transformational leaders also provide **Intellectual Stimulation** of the values and big ideas of others (Avolio and Bass, 2004). Through this stimulation, norms of operation are continually reviewed and questioned so that new and creative methods for accomplishing the mission can be explored (Barbuto, 2005). As it relates to the trust established through idealized influence, followers are empowered to craft and propose new and even controversial ideas without fear of ridicule (Stone et al., 2004). Followers are moved out of conceptual ruts through a reformulation of the problem (Bass and Bass, 2008).

The fourth dimension of transformational leadership is **Individualized Consideration**, which involves considering each person's individual needs, abilities and aspirations (Bass, 1997; Bass and Bass, 2008). The transformational leader who uses Individualized Consideration listens, advises, teaches and coaches in order to further develop followers.

People are treated differently and individually based upon their talents, knowledge and experience (Shin and Zhou, 2003). The individually considerate leader attends to differing needs for growth and achievement by personalizing interactions, encouraging two-way communication, delegating tasks to develop shared leadership and recognizing qualities in each person regardless of cultural differences (Bass and Bass, 2008).

According to Burns (1978), transactional leadership is the exchange relationship between leader and followers aimed at satisfying their own self-interests. Its factors in Bass (1985) were contingent reward and management by exception. The latter factor was subsequently divided into active management by exception and part of passive leadership and laissez-faire, the avoidance of leadership. **Contingent reward** is a constructive transaction. The leader assigns a task or obtains agreement from the follower on what needs to be done and arranges for psychological or material rewards of followers in exchange for satisfactorily carrying out the assignment (Bass, 1998). It is argued that contingent reward can be interpreted as a transformational leadership element when the reward is psychological, such as praise (Bass and Riggio, 2006). **Management by exception** is a corrective transaction. With active management by exception, the leader monitors deviances, mistakes, and errors in the performance of the followers and takes corrective action if a follower fails to meet standards. With passive management by exception, the leader takes no corrective action until a problem comes to his or her attention that indicates unsatisfactory follower performance (Bass, 1998). In fact, in this situation, the leader waits for problems to arise in the follower's performance before taking corrective action in the belief that ‘If it ain't broke, don't fix it’ (Avolio and Bass, 2004). The corrective action may be negative feedback, reproof, disapproval, or disciplinary action. Studies of management by exception show that the behaviours fall into one of three categories including autocratic, status quo maintenance and overregulation (Denston and Gray, 1998).

Since its introduction, Bass's explanation of the dimensions of leadership types has gained an unprecedented acceptance. Enormous numbers of dissertations, theses, and research articles have been written, applying these dimensions in research on leadership (Goethals et al., 2004). Bass's initial work on transformational and transactional leadership dimensions continued to be modified in the subsequent years. Antonakis et al., (2003) proposed that Idealized Influence should be used instead of Charisma and that it should be subsumed into two parts: Attributes and Behaviour. Hater and Bass (1988) suggested that Management-By-Exception should be divided into two parts: Active and Passive. Another important advancement in this conceptualization was the identification of Laissez-Faire Leadership as a form of leadership separate from transformational and transactional leadership (Antonakis et al., 2003). Laissez-faire leadership is the avoidance or lack of leadership. Leaders characterised as laissez-faire frequently avoid responsibilities and shirk duties (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998).

Judge and Piccolo's (2004) meta-analysis particularly contends that transformational and transactional leadership are so highly related that it is not easy to separate their unique effects. This is consistent with Yukl and Van Fleet's (1992: 176) proclamation in that "Bass views transformational and transactional leadership as distinct but not mutually exclusive processes". This calls into question studies which measure leaders as either transformational or transactional.

Several authors who reviewed hundreds of related researches over the past twenty years in the form of meta-analysis revealed that there has been consistent support for the four main dimensions of transformational leadership (Lowe et al., 1996; DeGroot et al., 2000; Dumdum et al., 2002; Judge and Piccolo, 2004). However, there is some disagreement on the dimensions of transactional leadership. Avolio and Bass (2004), Avolio et al. (1999), Geyer and Steyrer (1998), and Den Hartog et al. (1997) suggested that Management-By-Exception (active) was more consistent with transactional leadership, while Management-By-Exception (passive) was a better fit with laissez faire as two subscales under the third type of leadership and used the term Passive/Avoidant to describe this type of leadership. The results of multivariate tests on the relationships between transformational and transactional leadership revealed that these two major types of leadership were highly distinct but not mutually exclusive from one another (Yukl, 1999). These results also increasingly support the idea that laissez-faire leadership is sub-optimal, transactional leadership is a medium level of acceptable leadership, and transformational leadership is characterised as the highest level of leadership and the most effective type. Given that laissez-faire leadership is viewed as a highly ineffective leadership style it is rarely considered in these studies. Rather, the main focus of literature revolves on the comparison between transactional and transformational leadership styles.

2.4 Antecedents of TL (I): Demographic Determinants

The effects of demographic qualities have long been an integral part of research surveys examining the leadership styles. The differences between men and women and the effect of ethnic minorities are the most researched demographic issues in transformational leadership studies. The latter, however, is less applicable to countries with a less diverse ethnic makeup, like Saudi Arabia.

Initial findings of MLQ suggested that women tend to score higher in transformational and lower in transactional leadership than men (Bass et al., 1996). The results of study conducted on 23 New Zealand business and public agency managers in 1984, by their direct reports applying an earlier form of the MLQ (Form 4), showed that female managers were rated higher on each of the four respective transformational leadership components compared to their male counterparts (Bass, 1985). These results were irrespective of whether the subordinates were men or women. However, Yammarino et al. (1997) suggested that the perception of the transformational or contingent style of each female leader varied from one individual subordinate to another and could not be applied to her group of subordinates as a whole. Southwick (1998) reported that a large sample of female managers surveyed with the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) scored higher than men on all the transformational leadership scales and on contingent reward (which contains a transactional component), whereas men scored higher than women on all the transactional leadership scales.

In general, the results of existing studies are consistent with this pattern, with slight differences among different components of transformational and transformational leadership. For instance, the results of Bass’s (1985) observation mentioned above indicates that subscale scores of charismatic leadership were higher among women than men. This was consistent with Grove's (2005) finding that women leaders were higher in charisma on Conger and Kanungo's (CK) scale. Telephone interviews of more than 100 state and national elected officials and legislators ascertained that the women were more transformational but they also rated themselves higher in active managing by exception, which the men practised more passively (Bass and Harding, 1999 cited in Bass and Bass, 2008). Tucker (1994) obtained similar results for 430 of the 1,517 women serving in U.S. state legislatures in 1993-1994. Gillett-Karam (1994) reported similar findings, determining that women were significantly more likely than men to exhibit four transformational leadership behaviours: risk-taking, demonstrating caring and respect, acting collaboratively, and building trust.

Two meta-analyses conducted in the following years confirmed these preliminary results. The first, conducted by Eagly et al. (2003), was based on 45 studies included large studies with thousands of managers as well as several smaller studies capturing specific organizations or groups of organizations from business or educational settings, using the MLQ to measure transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership factors. Their findings exhibited that female leaders engaged more in transformational behaviour and contingent reward (from the transactional scale) than male ones. Male leaders were more likely to be transactional and laissez- faire in style (Eagly et al., 2003). The authors argued that the rationale behind the tendency of women to engage in transformational leader behaviour is that it provides them

> with a means of overcoming the dilemma of role incongruity—namely, that conforming to their gender role can impede their ability to meet the requirements of their leader role. (Eagly et al., 2003: 573)

Another large-scale study involving largely business leaders, which was conducted around the same time, generated quite similar results (Antonakis et al., 2003). A review of literature found that

> The characteristics of transformational leadership relate to female values developed through socialization processes that include building relationships, communication, consensus building, power as influence, and working together for a common purpose. (Trinidad and Normore, 2005: 574)

In Mandell and Pherwani's (2003) study of 32 managers, female and male managers did not have significantly different transformational leadership scores on the MLQ. However, these authors did find that emotional intelligence predicted transformational leadership style, and that female managers had significantly higher emotional intelligence scores than male managers. Still, gender and emotional intelligence did not statistically interact to predict transformational leadership style, implying that emotional intelligence distinct from gender influences transformational leadership style. However, this study's small sample causes its findings to be less credible than meta-analyses of other research on gender and transformational leadership.

There exist comparatively very few researches on the effects of age or educational level on TL styles (Barbuto et al., 2007) as most studies on age and leadership are largely concerned with either retirement (e.g. Cusack, 1994) or adolescence (e.g. Zacharatos et al., 2000). Avolio (1994) conducted research on TL development by focusing on the associations between leadership ratings and life events and experiences (e.g., high school extracurricular activities, school experience, and positive work experiences). The findings showed some correlations between some early life experiences and self and raters' scores of transformational leadership; however, the correlations were much weaker than anticipated. Regarding age, tenure, and years in current position, Carmeli et al. (2011) argued that older employees who have been with an organization longer are more likely to have developed a higher quality of relationships with leaders, and therefore rate them more favourably. Barbuto et al. (2007) examined the effects of gender, age, and education individually, in addition to the interaction of education and age with gender, to explain differences in TL style. The findings of this study indicated that gender and age alone did not affect TL styles, but there were gender- influenced differences at the lowest level of education (high school).

Finally, managerial level of the leaders has been viewed as a potential important demographic factor influencing TL. The results of a research based on MLQ (Form 4) conducted on 56 New Zealand first-level supervisors and their second-level management superiors by Bass et al. (1987) revealed that higher level leaders exhibited more transformational leadership and contingent reward and slightly less management-by-exception. Regarding organizational level of the manager, a meta-analysis conducted by Lowe et al. (1996) reported that leaders at higher organizational levels are rated as more transformational, while lower level leaders are more likely to be rated as more transactional.

2.5 Antecedents of TL (II): Cultural Determinants of Transformational Leadership

One of the primary questions raised in the study of TL is whether and to what extent the concept and dimensions of TL as they were developed in Western countries are generalizable to culturally different contexts; in other words if the phenomenon is universal or culturally contingent (Dorfman, 1996; Dickson et al., 2003). This is a fundamental question in cross-cultural studies and three primary approaches have been developed to address this question: etic or “culture universal”, emic or “culture specific” and combined or etic-emic approaches (Schaffer and Riordan, 2003). The rationale behind the culture universal approach is that abstract concepts such as leadership are generalizable across cultures. In this sense, the core idea of leadership is viewed as a universal phenomenon that should be similar or invariant across cultures. On this basis, Western instruments such as MLQ or Hofestede’s national culture dimensions can be simply translated and applied to a non-Western culture. This approach has been called imposed etic (Berry, 1969) because the applicability of the theory is imposed, rather than tested, from one culture to another. An extended and modified approach is to consider the universality of a concept as an empirical issue. Rather than assuming that instruments developed in the West are entirely applicable to non-Western cultures, researchers can adapt these instruments and test their validities.

The culture specific perspective, which is consistent with an insider perspective (Berry, 1990), reflects the notion that certain leadership components may be specific to a given culture (Dorfman et al., 1997; Leung and Su, 2004). This approach is concerned especially to examine the leadership concept in the cultural context within which it occurs and looks at the phenomenon from the perspective of the inhabitants of a particular culture. The core idea of this approach is that many leadership theories developed in a Western context may not be generalizable to leaders with different cultural orientations, due to cultural contingencies (Hofstede, 2001; Smith et al., 1989). As a result, researchers should develop theories and instruments sensitive to local contexts in order to enhance ecological validity.

The etic and emic approaches have both been subject to several criticisms. The etic approach is criticised on the ground that it takes the uniqueness of a given culture for granted, while the emic approach is called into question because it falls short of developing generalizable principles. Given these pitfalls, several scholars tended to combine these approaches (e.g., Hui and Triandis, 1985). In doing so, they used both approaches for data collection or scale development and ultimately combined data or scales (e.g., Boyacigiller and Adler 1991).

Reviewing 10 articles in *Leadership Quarterly's* special issue on cross-cultural leadership, Hunt and Peterson (1997) maintained that all 10 articles, in one way or another, combined both approaches. Dorfman and Howell (1996) used both the culture specific and culture universal approaches in an attempt to develop culture-based predictions as to the incidence and effect of culture universal dimensions of leaders' behaviour. Their findings revealed that there are similarities and differences in effective leadership across cultures. Their results in two Western and three Asian countries support Bass's (1990) contention about the validity of both the universal and the culture-specific perspectives of several leadership behaviours. Two dimensions related to transformational leadership (leader supportiveness and charisma) revealed universal confirmation in all five countries; and two dimensions related to transformational leadership (participativeness and directiveness) appeared to exist only in the Western countries. Boehnke et al. (2003) obtained similar inconsistent results in their research on executives from America, Northern Europe, Southern Europe, Latin America, the Far East, and the Commonwealth. They concluded that the main transformational leadership behaviours are universal, but their applications proved to be in line with national differences. For example, Americans showed more team building behaviours than their Far Eastern colleagues and more stimulating behaviours than southern Europeans.

Among the studies that sought to combine emic and etic approaches the GLOBE project developed by House et al. (1999) represents the most intensive long-term study. This comprehensive and ambitious research programme conducted with the contribution of a network of 170 social scientists in 61 cultures across the continents (House et al., 1999), used this approach to combine traditional questionnaire techniques with complementary ethnographic evidence. The findings of the project supported a universal perspective on the effectiveness of TL. The findings also indicated that some specific features of TL appeared to be similar across the 61 cultures included in the study. These features include "encouraging," "positive," "motivational," "confidence builder," "dynamic," "excellence-oriented" and "foresight". Reviewing the GLOBE project, Northhouse (2013) maintains that the combination of etic and emic approaches allowed the GLOBE researchers to unfold new understandings about cross-cultural influences and how culture impacts leader effectiveness and in a way that is generalizable between and within different nations across the world.

2.5.1 The impact of cultural values on transformational leadership: an etic approach

Given the existence of these commonalities and differences in TL prototypes across cultures, a fundamental question that arises here is how cultural variations can account for this discrepancy. A number of studies examined the impact of cultural dimensions on

TL. These studies followed an etic approach as they predominantly used universally accepted instruments such as MLQ and Hofstede’s national culture dimensions to examine the possible impact of culture on TL. Based on Hofstede’s (1991) cultural dimensions, Jung et al. (1995) noted that transformational leadership is more likely to develop in some cultures than in others.

Yan and Shi (2003, cited in Bass and Bass, 2008) set forth that each of Hofstede's (2001) five dimensions differentially relates to the adoption of Bass's (1985) original dimensions of transformational leadership and acceptance by followers. Jung et al. (1995) argued that transformational leadership was more likely to appear in collectivistic than individualistic cultures because the cultural values of subordinates in a collectivistic society are often more consistent with transformational leaders’ concern with collective mission, goals, and responsibilities. In collectivist cultures like those of China, Japan, and Korea, individuals more readily identify with a group, share responsibility for goal attainment, try to maintain a harmonious group, and emphasize mutual interdependence in organizations. These behaviours are consistent with what a transformational or charismatic leader tries to accomplish.

Chiu (1997, cited in Bass and Bass, 2008) compared results obtained with 233 part-time MBA students working in collectivist Hong Kong and the sample of individualist Americans used by Bycio et al. (1995). He also compared in-group members in Hong Kong, those who looked out for the welfare of each individual member in the group, with out-group members. Hong Kong Chinese leaders were more likely to use intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration with their in-group members. American leaders were less likely than Chinese leaders to show individualized consideration to their subordinates. Compared to Americans, Hong Kong Chinese subordinates and members of the in-group were more likely to perceive their leaders as charismatic. Howell et al. (1994) reported that charismatic leadership correlated with subordinate satisfaction in Korea, Taiwan, Mexico, and the United States, but not in Japan.

According to Yokochi (1989), in collectivist Japan, managers at the chief executive officer CEO level and several rungs below are much more transformational than transactional. Their subordinates are likely to indicate on the MLQ that their leaders take full responsibility for their actions (as a matter of tradition) and are generous in giving concrete guidance. Leaders are highly respected and trusted. They encourage sacrifice by subordinates and at the same time make extra efforts to assure subordinates of their feelings and concern for the welfare of the subordinates and their families. Subordinates are challenged with new ideas and tasks. As noted elsewhere, it is the firm or agency, not the leaders, that provides unspoken rewards and promotions. Pereira (1986) found similar results in collectivist India for 58 senior and middle-level managers from Larsen and Toubro, an engineering firm. Again, Echavarria and Davis (1994, cited in Bass and Bass, 2008) in the collectivist Dominican Republic reported similarly high correlations of transformational leadership with effectiveness, satisfaction, and extra effort for 402 employees from two newspapers.

Walumbwa and Lawler (2003) collected survey data from 745 employees in banking and finance in China, India, Japan and Kenya. They confirmed that transformational leadership contributed to job satisfaction and commitment in all four collectivist countries. In low-power-distance countries such as Australia, transformational leaders are participative in style (Ashkanasy and Falkus, 2004). In high-power-distance countries, they tend to be more directive (Den Hartog et al., 1999). Howell and Dorfman (1988 cited in Bass and Bass, 2008) suggested that charismatic leadership has a significant impact on Mexican and American employees' satisfaction with work and with supervision. The expected effects were positive on both samples although the impact of charismatic leadership was greater on the American employees. They assumed that some of the negative consequences of charismatic Mexican political leaders in the past may have accounted for these results in the Mexican sample. This may partly explain why Ardichvili and Kuchinke (2002) found more country specificity than universality in transformational leadership in Georgia, Kazakhstan, Russia, and the Kyrgyz Republic. The other study conducted by Kuchinke (1999) measured the relationship between leadership styles MLQ and Hofstede's VSM 94 between the USA and Germany. The results revealed that cultural values have a small effect on leadership styles.

Although Australia and the United States belong to the same Anglo-American cluster of countries, Australians put even more of a premium on equality and individualism. Transformational leadership had the same effects in both countries, but Australians varied more in attributing it to their leaders. Transformational factors in Australia were 0.7 to 1.1 lower in standard deviation (Parry, 1994). However, according to Parry (1996), Australians, more than Americans, expect charismatic leaders to take an interest in the welfare of their followers—to be individually considerate. Australians expect far more from their leaders than do Americans. High status is not enough to create respect; respect has to be earned. Several studies on Asian people confirmed that the effects of transformational leadership are positive and strong in Asia. These results were aligned with traditional values of these countries such as power-distance orientation, collectivism, and conservatism (Jung et al., 2009; Schaubroeck et al., 2007).

2.5.2 Cultural dimensions unfolded

Taking a cursory look at the literature reviewed above, it becomes clear that the related scholars focused on these general cultural predictions of national variations to examine how and to what extent these cultural variations shape and influence TL. As such, it is imperative to gain some knowledge about the way the culture is measured along these distinctive dimensions.

2.5.2.1 National and organizational culture dimensions

From a brief review of cross-cultural studies in the management and business field, it is evident that these studies focused on the specific effects of cultural values or dimensions rather than culture per se. Indeed, culture in a broader sense is a single term capturing a complex myriad of meanings. It includes a complex web of norms, values, assumptions, attitudes, and beliefs that are distinguish a particular group from others, and that are strengthened and continued through socialization, training, rewards, and sanctions (Lytle et al, 1995). In order to conceptualise and measure this multifaceted concept, scholars have grouped common societal values and beliefs within a number of specific categories termed as cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1991), and it is commonly held that individuals can belong to these given categories (Kostova, 1997). Hofstede (1980) is regarded as the seminal study in this area. Hofstede's (1980) study differentiated national cultures in terms of the following dimensions: power distance, individualism (versus collectivism), masculinity (versus femininity), and uncertainty avoidance. Another dimension specific to Asian values was subsequently added: long- (versus short-) term orientation (Hofstede and Bond, 1984). Two further dimensions (humane orientation and performance orientation) were added as part of the GLOBE project by House et al. (2004). With reference to Hofstede's axis of collectivism versus individualism, House et al. (2004) created an additional distinction between societal level and group level norms. With reference to the single axis masculinity versus femininity, the researchers altered the single dimension by creating two distinct axes for gender egalitarianism and assertiveness. A third modification was made by Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) as part of their study of managers in twenty-three countries. Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998:44) added the following dimensions to identify national cultures: universalism (versus particularism); individualism (versus collectivism); neutral (masking feelings, versus affective or emotional); specific (emphasis on shared and public space, versus diffuse or emphasis on private space); and achievement (versus ascription). Finally, Schwartz (1994) made his assessments of cultural values at the individual level and then summed up these differences at the national level. Schwartz was aiming to create a more nuanced multidimensional to show the inter-relations between each axis. To this end, Schwartz identified three polar value dimensions: autonomy versus embeddedness, egalitarianism versus hierarchy, and mastery versus harmony.

It is noteworthy that the increasing body of empirical research into national levels of cross-cultural differences provided the impetus for subsequent research attempts to assess the effects of culture at the organizational level. Organizational culture is generally understood in terms of the shared system of norms that is adhered to by individuals within the organization. This system of norms is frequently combined with work-related environments and, as a result, it conveys the essence of a specific management culture. There are a number of studies that provide frameworks for distinguishing different features of organizational or management culture.

The initial cohort of studies emphasizes the cultural aspects of the work process. Rousseau (1990) serves as one example here. Rousseau identified three distinct markers of organizational values as follows: task-related values, interpersonal values, and personal, or self-growth values. In a similar study Deal and Kennedy (1982) suggest that organizational culture can be understood in terms of specific categories including feedback response, risk-taking, and work hard or play hard tendencies. A study by Hofstede et al. (1990) provides a number of categories for understanding organizational culture. Hofstede et al. (1990) suggest that organizational culture can be thought of in terms of process or results orientation, employee or job orientation, closed or open system approach, tight or loose control, and normative or pragmatic orientation. By contrast, in the second cohort of studies the researchers are examining the normative behaviour of individual employees in specific cultural contexts. A study by O'Reilly et al. (1991) can provide an example here. The researchers suggest that cultural values in organizations can be understood in terms of nine categories which include innovation and risk-taking, attention to detail, outcome orientation, assertiveness, and supportiveness, emphasis on rewards, team orientation, and decisiveness. A third cohort of studies offers an ontological perspective on organizational culture. An example here is Schein (2004). Schein (2004) classifies cultures in terms of how they understand the universe and time. This framework is intended to convey specific cultural understandings about the nature of truth, control, and human essence.

These studies imply that cultures are multi-layered. The studies into organizational culture that were conducted by Hofstede and his fellow researchers revealed that the national context of the organization was a significant factor in determining all of the cultural value orientations within the organization. However, due to the distinction made in the literature between the concepts of organizational and national culture, this study specifically focuses on national culture concepts. Among these, Hofstede's cultural dimensions have been widely used by TL scholars to explain the effects of cultural variations. In the following sections, Hofstede's conceptualization of cultural dimensions is unfolded in further detail.

2.5.2.2 Hofstede's cultural dimensions

Hofstede's (1980) initial work drew on some 116,000 IBM employees in forty countries and used factor-analytic techniques to summarise four main dimensions of culture related to work organizations, including uncertainty avoidance, power distance, masculinity-femininity, and individualism-collectivism. Later, he added a fifth dimension, long-term orientation, which is a part of Confucian Dynamism (Hofstede and Bond, 1984). In the following lines each dimension is explained in further details.

Hofstede (1994: 28) defined the cultural dimension of **power distance** as "the extent to which the less powerful members of institutions and organizations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally". The dimension responds to how a society deals with levels of status or social power. Areas of inequality include physical characteristics, social prestige, position, wealth, power, and rights or rules. They can manifest in places such as work, politics, social norms, or school (Hofstede, 1994).

Hofstede et al. (2010) developed a power distance index (PDI) from the mean scores of Hofstede's IBM research and composed country PDI scores, which

> inform us about dependence relationships in a country. In small-power-distance countries, there is limited dependence of subordinates on bosses, and there is a preference for consultation (that is, interdependence between boss and subordinate). The emotional distance between them is relatively small: subordinates will rather easily approach and contradict their bosses. In large-power-distance countries, there is considerable dependence of subordinates on bosses. Subordinates respond by either preferring such dependence (in the form of an autocratic or paternalistic boss), or rejecting it entirely. (Hofstede et al., 2010: 46)

Power distance in the workplace usually manifests in the type of relations existing between boss and subordinate. In large-power-distance cultures, superiors and subordinates consider themselves unequal, power is centralized to a few, and there is a significant hierarchy with a lot of supervisory personnel (Hofstede et al., 2010). Management is entitled to privileges, and the leadership style is often loaded with emotions.

In a small power distance workplace, management and employees perceive themselves as equals. The levels of management are designed for the system and appropriate roles. Organizations tend to be flatter; they are less centralized and hold fewer supervisory positions. Privileges for senior roles are frowned upon, and everyone uses the same parking lots, toilets, and cafeteria. Management should be approachable and available to subordinates. Unlike in high-power-distance cultures, young managers are usually more appreciated than older bosses (Hofstede et al., 2010).

Hofstede's (1997) second cultural dimension focused on individual- and group-related cultural tendencies; he categorized them as **Individualism/Collectivism**:

> Individualism pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family. Collectivism as its opposite pertains to societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty.
> (Hofstede, 1997:51)

In collectivist societies the interest of the group is most important, and the opposite is true for individualist societies, where the interest of the individual prevails (Hofstede et al., 2010). According to Dahl (2006), Individualism/Collectivism is one of the most popular dimensions; however, while it is easy to grasp, it is sometimes confused with other dimensions.

Hofstede et al. (2010:119) described the working relationship of an individualist culture, where people are "expected to act according to their own interest, and work should be organized in such a way that this self-interest and the employer's interest coincide". The relationship between employer and employee in individualistic societies is highly transactional, as in business; collective cultures see a moral commitment to the group, similar to a family relationship. Loyalty becomes a critical characteristic of collectivism, and poor performance is not enough reason for dismissal, as it is with individualism, where "poor performance on the part of the employee or a better pay offer from another employer are legitimate and socially accepted reasons for terminating a work relationship" (Hofstede et al., 2010: 120).

Hofstede's et al’s third dimension was categorized as **masculinity/femininity** and culled a society as

> masculine when gender roles are clearly distinct: men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success whereas women are supposed to be modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life. A society is called feminine when emotional gender roles overlap: both men and women are supposed to be modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life.
> (Hofstede et al, 2010: 140)

Hofstede et al. (2010) claimed that masculinity-femininity is the most controversial of the cultural dimensions and is easily confused with individualism and collectivism. One of the main reasons that masculinity-femininity is less acknowledged is because it is the only dimension with no correlation to wealth; Hofstede et al. (2010: 145) stated, "There are just as many poor as wealthy masculine, or feminine countries".

Regarding the workplace, Hofstede et al. (2010: 166) noted that "historically, management is an Anglo-Saxon concept, developed in masculine British and American cultures". They point out that the traditional American philosophy of leadership

> distinguished two dimensions: initiating structure versus consideration, or concern for work versus concern for people. Both are equally necessary for the success of an enterprise, but the optimal balance between the two differs for masculine and feminine cultures.
> (Hofstede et al., 2010: 166).

In masculine cultures, it is believed that conflict should be resolved by fighting, winning or losing, while in a feminine culture conflict is resolved through compromise and negotiation. The feminine workplace will reward more on a basis of equality for everyone's needs, while masculine societies use equity to recognize individual performance. Hofstede et al. (2010) found in their research that industrial masculine countries do well in manufacturing, whereas feminine cultures perform better in service industries such as consulting, transport, high-end agriculture, and biochemistry (Ibid).

Uncertainty avoidance is Hofstede's (1994: 113) fourth dimension, defined as "the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations". The term came from American organization sociology familiar with such trends of handling uncertainty in American organizations. The concept centres on the cultural acceptance of uncertainty and how people choose to control or prevent personal or shared anxiety, also referred to as the degree of tolerance a culture has for ambiguity (Hofstede et al., 2010). Societies high in uncertainty avoidance seek to control factors as much as possible in order to prevent uncertainties; therefore, Hofstede et al. (2010) found

> uncertainty avoiding societies have more formal laws and informal rules controlling the rights and duties of employers and employees. They also have more internal regulations controlling the work process.
> (Hofstede et al, 2010:209)

In countries with low uncertainty avoidance, the opposite was true; people abhorred formal rules. Hofstede et al. (2010:182) discovered that in such societies, "rules should only be established in case of absolute necessity". The culture of workplaces in low uncertainty avoidance societies is normally associated with lower anxiety. Hofstede et al. (2010) described workplaces with strong uncertainty avoidance by explaining that in such workplaces, "people like to work hard or at least to be always busy. Life is hurried, and time is money" (p.210). Hofstede et al. (2010) described weak uncertainty avoidance workplaces as those where people

> work hard if there is a need for it, but they are not driven by an inner urge toward constant activity. They like to relax. Time is a framework to orient oneself in, but not something one is constantly watching.
> (Hofstede et al., 2010: 210).

Hofstede's original 1980 research, however, did not incorporate China. Hofstede added a fifth dimension based on the philosophy of Confucius. The dimension is known as **long- or short-term orientation**. Long-term is defined by Hofstede et al. (2010:239) as "the fostering of virtues oriented toward future rewards — in particular, perseverance and thrift". Short-term is defined as "the fostering of virtues related to the past and present - in particular, respect for tradition, preservation of face, and fulfilling social obligations". According to Dahl (2006), Hofstede collaborated with Michael Bond on the Confucian philosophical dimension.

In a long-term-oriented environment, work and family are interrelated and are not separated (Hofstede et al., 2010). In these cultures, extended networks involving business and family are common. Long-term orientation is often associated with East Asian countries and is uniquely suited to doing globalized business. Hofstede et al (2010) found an East Asian trend toward de-emphasizing respect for tradition and face because too much emphasis on traditional practices and face saving can impede innovation and agility to move with changing markets.

Hofstede et al. (2010) studied a group of 60 senior business leaders from East Asia and an equivalent group from the United States. Both groups were asked to rank their work values. The top seven values chosen by the Asian leaders were “hard work, respect for learning, honesty, and openness to new ideas, accountability, self-discipline, and self-reliance" (Hofstede et al.: 244). The American leaders chose "freedom of expression, personal freedom, self-reliance, individual rights, hard work, personal achievement, and thinking of oneself'" (Ibid: 244). Hofstede et al. (2010) found that managers of long-term oriented cultures are allowed to build strong market positions at the expense of short-term results, whereas in short-term-oriented cultures the recent bottom line results are the constant focus.

2.5.2.3 Dorfman and Howell's Critique of Hofstede's cultural dimensions

Despite the widespread application of Hofstede's cultural dimensions in cross-cultural studies in the business and management field, they suffer from important shortcomings. A commonly cited shortcoming associated with Hofstede's cultural dimensions is that Hofstede presents culture as a homogenous phenomenon throughout a nation. This fallacious assumption regarding cultural homogeneity led to ignoring of intra-national diversity that often exists in many nations. It is widely held that a wide range of cultural norms and values can co-exist within a country (Lytle et al., 1995; Dickson et al., 2001). The critics of Hofstede's work faulted his findings on the ground that they can hardly be generalized to the whole of a nation like the United States, characterised as a mélange of different cultures. On this basis, Sondergaard (1994) stressed that Hofstede's results only represent 'artifacts of his particular sample' rather than a whole nation like the United States. The same is true for other culturally "loose" countries (Triandis, 1995) like South Africa with multiple cultures, or the former East Germany, where different cultural norms from the former West Germany still exist.

In practice, this fallacious assumption led scholars to draw conclusions on individual behaviour based on group- or aggregated data on a country level, which is commonly known as ‘ecological fallacy’ (Bond, 2002; Dorfman and Howell, 1988). Dorfman and Howell (1988:130) highlighted this problem, arguing that “the ecological level of analysis severely restricts the meaningfulness and usefulness of the scales for those researchers who operate at the micro-level of analysis”. In order to remedy this problem, Dorfman and Howell proposed another instrument that is appropriately applicable to the individual level or micro level of analysis (Dorfman and Howell, 1988). These individual-level cultural orientation scales are more reliable than Hofstede's dimensions in capturing work-related and management process issues and values (Grenness, 2012). This method of measurement of cultural values bears resemblance to those methods used by micro-level organizational behavioural scholars (Morris et al., 2000) in which they conceptualize culture as existing on an individual basis rather than in overall national structures and artefacts (Triandis, 1995; Dorfman and Howell, 1988).

2.5.3 Locally meaningful leadership styles in the Muslim world: an emic approach

As indicated before, a number of authors contend that certain leadership components are likely to be unique to a given context due to cultural contingencies (the emic or culture-specific approach). They argue that the term management originated in Western countries and the way in which the concept is understood and theorized is specific to that context. Organizations and institutions are man-made and they reflect the dominant beliefs and values of the wider society, which in turn affect the behaviour of individuals within the organization. Therefore they must take into account the history, religion and specific social contexts and produce culturally sensitive and locally meaningful leadership styles. The following lines review the literature that sought to address the problem of cultural specificity by devising leadership models for organizations in Muslim countries. Almost all the references in the following lines are from Metcalf Mimouni and Metcalf's (2011) seminal work, as it is currently the only substantial work dealing with this issue. In the following sub-sections this literature is first reviewed and then is the extent to which it substantiates the core dimensions of transformational leadership theory is discussed.

2.5.3.1 Review of literature on culturally sensitive leadership models in Muslim countries

The early works within this tradition were conducted by Khadra (1985) and Hawi (1982). They argue for a model of leadership that is inspirational, based on the idea of a heroic or prophetic leader. Underlying this model of leadership is the belief that the Arab people need a heroic male to set an example and to encourage them to maximise their potential. Sharafuddin (1987) suggests that an Islamic theory of organization should incorporate both the material (socioeconomic) needs and the spiritual (humanistic and spiritual) needs of individuals. Kalantari (1998) argues that the way to improve Saudi public organizations is by ensuring that the fundamental Islamic values are integral to the culture of administration in the Middle East. Kalantari contends that the majority of public organizations in the Middle East have not maintained acceptable levels of efficiency and accountability despite the lengthy history of administration and the rich cultural heritage.

Similarly, Abuznaid (2006) puts forward the view that the core Islamic values are vital to improving the behaviour of managers. The five pillars of Islam are as follows: faith, prayers, giving alms, fasting and pilgrimage. According to Abuznaid (2006), observance of the five pillars can also, in turn, have a beneficial effect on organizational practices. The author goes on to state that God's Divine Names can provide an inspirational resource for Muslim managers.

The model of leadership devised by Ali (2005) centres on the inherent characteristics of a Muslim leader in an exemplary cultural context. According to Ali, in both the Quran and the teachings of the Prophet there is a focus on how things are (social cooperation) and how things should be in a perfect world, or rather what individuals should strive towards (idealism). Ali contends that models of leadership in the Muslim world need to take account of this twofold message by reflecting the essence of Islamic teachings whilst at the same time acknowledging the real nature of leadership in a Muslim context.

The model devised by Ali provides an explanation of how and why it is possible to identify two main types of leaders in the Muslim context. The model comprises four components: "personalism, idealism, great expectation, and culture" (Ali, 2005: 148). Ali identifies personalism as one characteristic component of Muslim social relations. Individuals generally interact with each other in a friendly and very familiar manner. Ali is of the view that this style of interaction should be supported and commended. Idealism can be understood as an aspiration towards an improved social community of

Muslims. Idealism also pertains to character and behaviour in the sense that it can describe the attitude of an individual who believes that it is possible to live in accordance with high standards of honesty and moral behaviour. These ideals are exemplified in the teachings of the Quran and in the behaviour of the Prophet. Great expectation is a reference to the ideal state of affairs that will result from an improvement in social relations and a cultural identity that is aspirational, based on Islamic teachings. Ali contends that the prophetic model of leadership, which emphasizes the ideal human characteristics and attributes, is the one most likely to create a management culture that will ensure the longer-term development and success of organizations.

By contrast, the caliphal model is unlikely to ensure the sustainability of organizations. The caliphal leader is “a type of ordinary man” who does not display any special qualities and is therefore not seen as an exemplar (Ali, 2005: 151). Caliphal leadership is authoritarian and coercive and relies on submission from subordinates to maintain power. Hence, within the institution, law and order is maintained through an exercise of will on the part of the leader. This style of leadership results in a lack of institutionalism. The caliphal model is frequently found in government organizations but is not commonly found in business organizations. Variants of caliphal leadership can be found in family-owned or small-business type organizations (Ali, 2005). Although it is not easy to assess the effectiveness of each model, if the goal is institutionalism then prophetic leadership is preferred. According to Ali, there are “deeply rooted shortcomings in Arab institutional structures” (2005: 151). As a consequence, Muslim countries suffer economic stagnation and the absence of technological innovation and these problems have been traced to the will of the leaders, an absence of institutionalism and little or no public participation (Ali, 2005).

The model devised by Ali provides a very neat link between the personal attributes of leadership and the reciprocal dynamics of social relations. As far as the organization itself is concerned, however, Ali fails to give an account of how the practices within the institution contribute to its longer-term effectiveness (Mimouni and Metcalf, 2011). In different aspects of his research Ali does examine certain practices such as power and decision making in modern Arab societies. However, this aspect of his research contemplates the Qur'anic teachings and the life of the Prophet: an approach which serves to emphasize the contrast between a past that was 'glorious' and a present that is paradoxically 'backward'. Ali uses this analysis as a basis for theorizing about the ways in which the basic tenets and core values of Islam can provide a foundation on which to build societies that are healthier because justice and happiness prevail.

Ali's research provides an important source of scholarship on management from an Islamic perspective and of the social dynamics within a Muslim organization. The weakness in his approach can be attributed to the fact that he concentrates mainly on social psychology. His interest lies in identifying the individual attributes of leaders. He has frequently been critical of the political and social influences on the behaviour of Muslim leaders both past and present. Ali's critique is based on his belief that it is vital to uphold the fundamental Islamic values and work ethic as the means by which the Muslim world transforms itself into a modern developed nation (Mimouni and Metcalf, 2011).

Noor (1999) is arguably the first author on modern management systems in the Muslim world to devise an integrated model for organizational effectiveness that uses the Prophet Mohammed as its leadership paradigm. Noor proposes three elements of this paradigm as follows: alignment which originates from Tawhid and promotes a sense of mission and purpose; attunement to the purpose and mission of the system: which includes communal values such as commitment, trust, mutual respect and working for the overall good; and empowerment, which attributes the leader with greater responsibility and accountability for the community. On this view the leader is seen to embody the role of the vicegerent (khalifah) of God on earth. Having identified the main elements of the integrated model for leadership effectiveness, Noor (1999) suggests a 'set of competencies' and a code of conduct to help leaders manage their staff effectively and with good results. Noor sets out the eight competencies as follows: "mutual consultation, justice, freedom of expression, personal integrity, the enhancement of relationships, leadership efficacy, ethical conduct, and moral uplift through spiritual knowledge" (Quoted in Mimouni and Metcalf, 2011: 184). Noor (1999) uses a sequence of events and major stages in the history of Islam to illustrate how Islamic beliefs and values have been embodied in the actions of past leaders; these leaders are exemplary because their decisions and behaviours have led to beneficial outcomes for the majority Muslim community.

Noor's (1999) leadership model is similar to the model devised by Ali's in that the emphasis is on social psychology, behavioural competencies and the basic tenets of Islam. Noor's model consistently uses Quranic ideals as the primary source and then develops explanations based on assessing their contemporary relevance and their possible effects within modern organizations. Noor does discuss the need to ensure that organizational vision flows down from the top to the bottom and the need for continual monitoring. Again, Noor (1999) refers to the life and times of the Prophet Mohammed and later events in Islamic history to reinforce his arguments. One problem with Noor's (1999) model is that it does not include any practical means for implementing these requirements. Despite its shortcomings, Noor's (1999) model continues to provide a vital resource for dealing with certain management issues in the Islamic belief system (Mimouni and Metcalf, 2011).

Musa and Saleh (2003) examined the notion of total quality management and came up with an Islamic alternative: the Model of Islamic Total Quality. The Model of Islamic Total Quality comprises nine parts which are classified into three dimensions: the Process dimension includes process and design; the Implementation dimension includes management and employees; the Guidance dimension includes rules/regulations, clients, public and environment. The Model of Islamic Total Quality is founded on the belief that an Islamic organization must have an internal system that is robust and an overall responsibility for its external environment. The Model of Islamic Total Quality focuses on the need for an understanding of the religious principles which are a pre-requisite of the Guidance dimension and it emphasizes the work ethic, in which work becomes synonymous with an act of worship (Mimouni and Metcalf, 2011).

Beekun and Badawi (1999) have also tried to examine the theory and practice of leadership from an Islamic perspective. Beekun and Badawi (1999: 66) are primarily concerned with the "ethical and moral aspects of leadership practice". As a result, these authors are interested in 'core values' which include Birr (fair dealing), Amanah (trust), 'Adil (justice), Mujahadah (self-improvement), and "Ahd (integrity and keeping one's word). The main argument put forward here is based on emphasizing the enduring relevance of Islamic core values and their role in Islamic history. Again it is the Muslim leaders of the past (at the time of the Prophet Muhammad) who are seen as providing role models for leaders in the modern world.

Beekun and Badawi (1999) have an interesting approach which uses an Islamic concept of leadership whilst simultaneously acknowledging the specific context in which the leader takes action. The authors refer to the attributes of leaders, the attributes of followers and the attributes of the situation or context. According to Beekun and Badawi, if these three areas correspond and synchronize, as if in a 'locus of three circles' (Beekun and Badawi 1999), then this ideal balance of attributes enables the leader to take action in ways that are more productive (Mimouni and Metcalf, 2011). Although Beekun and Badawi (1999) provide an analysis of leadership attributes, it should be noted that their model lacks an integrated framework for organizational effectiveness. Their analysis of leadership attributes is based on a type of heroic ideal: the men and women who were instrumental figures in the birth of the Islamic nation (Mimouni and Metcalf, 2011). Nevertheless Beekun and Badawi's (1999) work continues to provide a significant resource for researchers who are investigating the impact and potential relevance of the Islamic belief system on management studies and practice in the Muslim world.

2.5.3.2 Comparison between CSL and TL models

The previous section offered a general account of the better-known CSL models for the Muslim countries. This section discusses the degree to with these models are consistent with TL core dimensions. As indicated in section 2.3.2 the first dimension of TL is idealised influence. This dimension includes a number of components. Interestingly, CSL authors referred to a number of leadership characteristics that are to a great extent similar to the core components of this dimension.

An important component of this dimension is that the leaders appear as role models for their followers. The idea of a heroic leader who sets an example (Kalantari, 1998; Hawi, 1982), the Prophetic model of leadership which emphasizes the ideal human characteristics and attributes (Ali, 2005) and role models for leaders in the modern world based on the Prophet's tradition (Beekun and Badawi, 1999) bear closest resemblance to this component. The second important component of idealised influence is that leaders should be admired, respected and trusted. Attunement, a leadership characteristic introduced by Noor (1999), which includes communal values such as commitment, trust, mutual respect and working for the overall good, is akin to this component. Another important component of leadership within this category is conduct with high moral standards and in an ethical manner. The recommendation of CSL authors to incorporate fundamental Islamic values and ethics to the culture of administration (Kalantari, 1998; Abuznaid, 2006) is reminiscent of this component of idealised influence. Other examples from CSL models that are more or less similar to this component are the idealism principle set forth by Ali (2005), which encourages living in accordance with high standards of honesty and moral behaviour based on the teachings of the Quran and the behaviour of the Prophet, as well as the Model of Islamic Total Quality suggested by Musa and Saleh (2003), which emphasizes the work ethic in which work becomes synonymous with an act of worship. Finally, leaders displaying idealised influence were viewed as those leaders having a sense of purpose and clear vision and mission. Again, Noor (1999) proceeds very much in the same way as to this component, by suggesting a sense of mission and purpose to capture the term alignment as a key characteristic of leaders.

The second dimension of TL is inspirational motivation. This characteristic of leadership, which encompasses talking optimistically about the future and enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished and is visionary in the sense that leaders articulate a compelling vision of the future, is not detailed by CSL authors. The third dimension of TL is intellectual stimulation. The main component of this dimension is to be creative and innovative and to challenge one's own beliefs and values. The heroic model of leadership, which encourages subordinates to maximise their potential (Kalantari, 1998; Hawi, 1982), is more or less identical to this component. The fourth dimension of TL is individualized consideration. The core idea of this dimension is to treat subordinates differently according to each individual's different needs. The empowerment principle introduced by Noor (1999), which confers on the leader greater responsibility and accountability for subordinates, very much follows what is indicated in this dimension.

The fifth dimension of TL which is identified as the key characteristic of transactional leadership and focuses on providing followers with psychological or material rewards in exchange for their efforts, is essentially the same as what is suggested by Sharafuddin (1987) as the Islamic theory of organization, in which he urged Islamic organizations to incorporate both the material (socioeconomic) needs and the spiritual (humanistic and spiritual) needs of individuals. Finally management by exception (active and passive) were identified as other main characteristics of TL theory, which encourage monitoring and keeping track of mistakes and errors. There are some similarities with Caliphal leadership, which is authoritarian and coercive and relies on submission from subordinates to maintain power (Ali, 2005). In light of the above discussion, it is evident that many aspects of TL can be found in the studies of those authors who sought to formulate culturally sensitive leadership models for Islamic countries.

2.5.4 Summary and implications for further research

It has been indicated that cross-cultural studies on leadership have recently witnessed several theoretical and methodological advances. An important development in these studies has been the combination of etic and emic approaches and the adoption of mixed methods to examine the possible impacts of culture on leadership behaviour (House et al., 1999; Northhouse, 2013).

However, it was also indicated that most studies followed the etic approach, as they predominantly used universally accepted instruments such as MLQ and Hofstede's CV dimensions to examine the possible impact of culture on TL. Given the prevalence of Hofstede's CV dimensions, these dimensions were unfolded and it was indicated that they suffer from ecological fallacies. Other scholars such as Dorfman and Howell's (1988) have developed some instruments that seemingly reduce this problem (Bond, 2002; Dorfman and Howell, 1988). It was also indicated that there is a body of literature seeking to address the problem of cultural specificity by devising leadership models for organizations in Muslim countries. Following an emic approach, these studies predominantly focused on specific historical, cultural, and social factors of these countries to generate culturally sensitive leadership (CSL) models. The insights from CSL models were compared with the dimensions of TL. It was shown that these two models overlap in many ways.

2.6 Vocational Education and Training (VET)

2.6.1 Making sense of VET

VET would be difficult to comprehend without some knowledge of its history and philosophical underpinnings. For many centuries, education has been divided into two types: education for work and education for culture. Generally, this distinction has been maintained by separation through social class. Education for the purposes of work has usually been delivered via hands-on experience using tools, and materials, while education for the purposes of cultural acquisition was delivered via the medium of books and formal training by tutors (Scott and Sarkees-Wircenski, 2001). More recently educational professionals and policymakers have recognized that the distinction between education for work and education for culture cannot be rigidly maintained. With some exceptions all education can be regarded as ‘vocational’ in the sense that it is preparation for entry into the workplace (Wallin, 2010). In practice, formal vocational education established itself as an independent sector of education. Some authors have dated the origins of formal vocational education back to organized apprenticeships. In England and France, and later in America these early apprenticeships were funded by guilds. The earliest vocational instructors were craftsmen in self-organized groups who passed on their skills (Wallin, 2010). In the beginning of the twentieth century, in the USA, the industrialization process had brought major changes in the rural countryside of the last century. The majority of students had access to universal education until grade eight. The school timetable was mainly organized around preparing students to enter tertiary level colleges and universities, although in reality, only a few students reached their high school graduation. Perhaps it was in response to this situation that a movement known as ‘the manual-arts movement’ began to gain favour as a way of trying to address the subsequent social and economic problems. The manual-arts movement was founded on the belief that people who are given training will work for wages. People who earn wages can then afford to buy goods and services; hence they become members of society who can contribute financially (Gordon, 2003, Wallin, 2010). Thus the ‘manual-arts movement’ can be viewed as offering a pragmatic solution to a problem. The movement was in line with the pragmatism in which the concrete and practical takes precedence over the abstract. Viewed from this perspective, which was the dominant philosophical ideal in the USA at the time, education becomes more scientific, and the staff can give students specific problem-solving tasks which require the practical application of skills (Wallin, 2010). In Europe, the same way of thinking encouraged the development of VET. The European sector of VET acknowledges that hands-on experience is necessary in order for students and staff to develop professional skills (Leney and Green, 2005; Wallin, 2010). In discussing the benefits of VET in Europe, Leney and Green (2005:269) clarified that "learning is not committing to memory or fragmented and de-contextualized knowledge, but learning by doing".

When compared with other educational settings, the VET sector is not well understood (Misko et al., 2010; Karmel, 2010). Many other sectors of early childhood education, primary and secondary schooling, and university education have a commonly established terminology and create an immediate impression of specific activities and institutional contexts. However, the same cannot be said of vocational education and training (Misko et al., 2010). The variety of terms used to describe this sector of education results from this general lack of understanding. For example, in Australia and most of Europe, the term vocational education and training (VET) is used. The term TAFE, which stands for technical and further education, has also been used in Australia. The term CTE, which refers to career and technical education and vocational education, is used in the USA. In the United Kingdom the term FE for further education is the term used. In South Africa FET is used for further education and training, whereas the majority of Asian countries commonly refer to TVET for technical and vocational education and training. The same acronym TVET is used by UNESCO for technical and vocational education and training. Similarly, the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development uses the acronym TVET (Karmel, 2010; Misko et al., 2010).

Another symptom of the lack of understanding of VET is that its institutional contexts are extremely diverse. As Karmel (2010:229) observed, “It is the most diverse education sector, delivered in both the classroom and the workplace, and organized in a variety of ways internationally”. The sector is linked to the final years of secondary schooling in certain countries, whereas in other countries it is available through post-school education. It can be either classroom or work-based but might also be split between the two settings. The level can range from elementary to advanced level (Karmel, 2010). This discrepancy has made it difficult to offer a globally recognized classification for VET. The most comprehensive and exhaustive typology of VET systems is the one proposed by Leney et al. (2004) based on three criteria of their structure, processes and outcomes. Drawing on these criteria, Ruth and Deitmer (2010) identified four distinct categories of VET presented in Table 2.4. According to the classification, a structural analysis reveals one group of countries with a mainly apprenticeship system. This approach has been named the ‘dual system’ because it uses both theory and practice-based learning in both school and workplace. Here, Germany, Austria, Denmark, and Switzerland can be given as examples. However, some Asian countries including Malaysia, Thailand, and Taiwan can provide international examples of a ‘dual-system’ model. The second group of VET schemes is made up of school-based systems. The international standard classification of education (ISCED) suggests that these systems can be distinguished in a number of ways. For example, one ‘sub cluster’ (e.g., Finland, Sweden, France, and China), takes a vocational route ending in a qualification that is acknowledged by the labour market. A different ‘subsector’ (e.g., Ireland and Greece) takes a prevocational route towards a general level of education but with no acknowledgement by the labour market. A fourth group (e.g., the UK, Netherlands, and Italy) is distinguished by a combination of 'school-based and apprentice-ship/dual systems' (Ruth and Deitmer, 2010).

Table 2-4: Typology of VET

Predominantly dual system/apprenticeship routes Examples: Austria, Germany, Swiss, and Denmark	Mix of school-based and apprenticeship routes Examples: UK, the Netherlands, and Italy
School-based (mainly vocational) Examples: Finland, France, Sweden, and China	School-based (mainly prevocational) Examples: Ireland and Greece

Source: Ruth and Deitmer, (2010:426)

This system of classification provides an account of the different routes towards a common goal 'employability'. It also lets us think about the possible outcomes of different routes. For example, it would be reasonable to assume that individuals who followed the dual system/apprentice-ship programme would achieve both practical and theoretical competencies which in turn, would support processes of improvement and development.

To this point, some discussion has been presented to clarify some aspects of VET. In the light of these clarifications, a working definition of VET is now being offered for the purpose of this study. It was indicated that the foundation of vocational education and training is the apprenticeship, in which workplace experience and training is combined with a programme of formal education. In this sense, the goal of vocational education and training is to provide a skilled workforce for the labour market at a sub-professional level. It was also shown that institutional settings of VET are extremely wide-ranging and it takes place in both school and work environments and on an international scale it can be planned in diverse ways. On this basis, this study will use the term VET to indicate education and training aimed at imparting skills useful in the labour market below the level of professional skills and delivered in diverse ways internationally.

2.6.2 Promises and challenges of VET

Apart from the inherent necessity of VET in view of its focus on skills needed for the workforce, there exists an extended literature considering several other promises of VET. It is suggested, for example, that there is a skills shortage in the labour market – VET is expected to find a solution (Saatti, 2007; Carneiro et al., 2010,) VET is given the task of dealing with the struggle faced by disadvantaged groups in the labour market (Taylor, 2010; Kriechel, 2010; Ferrier and Smith, 2010). It is called on to address demand for a more sustainable economy (Pavlova, 2005). Yet, whilst VET is a necessary sector in educational systems, it not free from disadvantages. For one thing, when compared with higher education it is always perceived as low status. This situation does not seem set to change, not least because jobs at management and professional level are more highly rewarded financially. Hence, such jobs are held in greater esteem than those occupied by tradespersons and para-professionals (Anlezark et al., 2006). An added challenge is that when structural change does occur, it does not tend to advantage traditional VET sectors. The demand for higher levels of education has put pressure on the VET sector. For example, para-professional groups are hoping to become professionals, and one way to facilitate this shift is for the higher education sector to take over VET training. Therefore the VET sector may need to broaden the range of qualifications on offer to avoid a decrease in its share of the market (Karmel, 2010).

Rapid changes in technology pose another threat to the direction of VET. The skills that are needed must keep pace with changes in technology. Generally speaking, analytic skills are more easily transferable and easier to update than technical skills and VET aims to develop the latter rather than the former (Hayward, 2010). Therefore VET is facing many obstacles. The success of VET depends on its ability to constantly overcome these obstacles and keep pace with changes.

2.6.3 VET Leadership

To this point, this section has examined what is considered to be VET as a sector of education and what are the potential benefits and risks of this educational sector. This sub-section seeks to situate the main concern of this thesis, VET leadership, within existing literature on VET. As indicated in the introduction, for many disciplines and fields of practice, leadership and leadership development have evolved into a significant ongoing area of concern. VET also reflects this concern and leadership and leadership development is an important issue in this specific educational setting as well. In the mid-1970s, a committee in the USA organized to review and assess the research and development activities of American VET concluded that "…a lack of coherent policy, administration, and leadership in vocational education programs" as the most important source of VET deficiency (CVERD, 1976: 2). Around three decades later McMurtry (2005), in a comprehensive book on the status of VET leadership in USA titled *Leadership in Career and Technical Education: Beginning the 21st Century*, echoed this concern by saying that "it is clear the field [of VET] is in a situation nearing a crisis" *(*McMurtry, 2005:108). He then called for an immediate reconsideration for new VET leadership in order to survive. Despite this importance, the studies on educational leadership in VET are few and far between. Examining the status of further education in UK, Muijs et al. (2006) emphasised the lack of sufficient studies in this respect and called for more research into leadership development based in empirical data in this area.

Reviewing the existing literature, it becomes evident that most of the studies that sought to examine VET leadership have been the result of government funded projects. For instance, research in Australia in this area is predominately supported by the Australian National Training Authority (ANTA) and The National Centre for Vocational Education Research (NCVER). These studies revealed two predominant themes in VET leadership: change management and the requisite skills for professional development of VET leaders (Crossman, 2012). An important issue that is widely discussed in VET leadership research is whether formal methods of professional development including short courses and postgraduate certificate were more effective than informal professional development such as meetings and self-directed reading for VET leaders (Coates et al., 2010; Callan et al., 2007; Mulcahy, 2003). The results of these studies are mixed but a more recent study found that often these leaders can lead very effectively with no prior formal training and "[l]eadership can be both learned and taught" (Coates et al., 2010:14).

The UK further education (FE) sector has only a small number of executive managers with formal management qualifications, professional development programmes are scarce and there is limited research into what factors are involved in their effective leadership development (Loots and Whelan 2000; Loots and Ross 2004; Muijs et al., 2006). A large proportion of British research originated in the managerialist reforms during the early 1990s. This research was often in conflict with prevailing educational values and generally reflected an organisational culture perspective (Briggs 2005; Lumby 2001; Simkins and Lumby 2002). In Britain, gender studies tend to be popular with researchers and many authors take the view that FE tends to be ‘masculine, paternalistic and competitive’ (Cole, 2000; Hughes, 2000; Kerfoot and Whitehead 2000). On the other hand, Deem et al. (2000) regard FE institutions as comprising by both feminine and masculine characteristics. Muijs et al. (2006) considered the leadership styles of FE in UK and concluded that transformational leadership seemed well supported by respondents in these organizations, followed by distributed leadership. However, he stressed that these results might reflect the perceived desirability of traits rather than actual behaviours (Muijs et al., 2006).

In contrast to Australia and the United Kingdom, the United States has a substantial amount of literature on leadership in its community colleges. Crossman (2012) divided the trends of these studies into five main groups: (a) participation; (b) gender and equity; (c) managing change; (d) professional development and (e) the status of leadership. The first group on participation plus the second group (particularly research focused on Hispanic equity issues) are hardly generalizable to VET in the other parts of the world but the other three groups could be significant. The group on change noted different change models mostly taken from the corporate world and the need for effective communication was also mentioned (Ayers 2005, 2009; Eddy 2010). With respect to professional development, the USA literature was mainly given over to defining necessary leadership skills and how to acquire them. When compared with Britain and

Australia, American community colleges have a vast number of short courses and postgraduate degrees in leadership (Haynes 2009; Wallin 2006). In the US, it is increasingly the case that senior leaders are expected to hold postgraduate degrees. However, questions have been raised regarding the relevance of certain doctoral study areas (Brown et al., 2002; Hull and Keim 2007).

The National Centre for Research in Vocational Education (NCRVE) in America carried out a comprehensive research examining the status of leadership in American VET. Although this research did not explicitly refer to leadership style, the leadership serotype it recommends as an effective VET leadership reflects in many ways the characteristics of transformational leadership. NCRVE viewed the issue of VET leadership as ‘both a process and as a property’ (Moss and Liang, 1990:27). ‘Leadership as a process’ can be described as recognising the need for change and exerting influence on a group in ways that are non-coercive such as ‘persuasion and example, in efforts towards goal setting and goal achievement’(Moss and Liang, 1990:10). Leadership as a property describes a situation in which group members regard an individual as a leader because they believe the person to be in possession of certain attributes or character traits. For example, group members will let an individual lead and influence them if the behaviour of the person in question corresponds with group notions about appropriate leadership behaviour in a particular situation. The notion of leadership as a property means that its power lies with the beholder, as noted above (Moss et al., 1994; Boateng, 2012a).

The NCRVE conceptualisation gives a further perspective on the role of leaders. A system for classifying leadership effectiveness was created, founded on NCRVE’s philosophical view of leadership and a literature review. The system comprises three main classifications founded on three types of 'outcomes or consequences' suggested by Yukl in 1989. The main classifications are as follows:

- The extent to which the leader's behaviour is perceived to improve the quality of the group process,
- The extent to which the leader's behaviour is perceived to have had a personal impact on followers , and
- The extent to which the leader's behaviour is perceived to have helped the group or institution perform its tasks successfully and attain its goals (Moss and Liang, 1990).

These three classifications were sub divided into categories of criteria and then each category was illustrated by a specific sample of criteria. In light of these criteria, when assessing whether or not leadership is effective in VET, it is vital to take into account how leaders are perceived by their potential followers or subordinates or peers, which is the essence of transformational leadership (Boateng, 2012a).

Based on these criteria, Moss et al. (1991) carried out a study to establish what types of criteria are used by VET instructors when judging the leadership effectiveness of their administrators. The findings indicated that out of a total of one hundred and fifty-four behavioural events, the criteria most often used by instructors when measuring leadership effectiveness were those that fulfilled the job-related needs of the instructor. The other four frequently used criteria were all group process outcomes. Based on these findings, the researchers stated that leadership by consultation, persuasion, and inspiration is the way to achieve maximum group productivity (Moss et al., 1991). Therefore, the role of a leader is to give clarity to the vision, mission, and values of an organization so that it can adapt to the environment; to ensure that individuals are committed to the organization and to encourage their development through personal motivation (Moss et al., 1991; Boateng, 2012a).

Moss et al. (1994) stated that if VET is to remain a relevant form of education in a changing environment, then it must begin a process of transformation. The authors contend that in a rapidly changing context, VET needs leaders who can plan new pathways and influence others. Hence, transformational leadership is a necessity.

In another contribution to this trend of studies, Daughtry and Finch (1997) used MLQ to reveal both self and rater's perceptions of effectiveness and leadership style. An interesting finding of this study was that the women teachers were seen as more transformational. However, VET leaders in this study engage in transformational leadership behaviours more often than transactional behaviours regardless of their gender or ethnicity. Given that gender and ethnicity did not significantly influence the leadership style or behaviours of VET leaders in this study, the researchers concluded that gender and ethnicity did not contribute to the leadership style of VET leaders. Indeed the results show that women and people of colour in this study utilized the same leadership styles as white men.

Another finding of this study was that VET leaders used both leadership styles, transactional as well as transformational. This result led the researchers to conclude that effective leadership provided by local vocational administrators is essential if educational change is to be successfully carried out. They suggest that if vocational administrators are to effectively lead and move others through the transformation, of vocational education, they need to adopt a creative approach to change and to create an ethos conducive to opportunity for all.

Finally Boateng (2012b), in a recently published study, examined the effective leaders needed to manage vocational technical educational institutions in Ghana. The main motivation of Boateng (2012b) in conducting this study was to provide some insights into leadership development programmes for vocational technical leaders in this context. The results of this study showed that the VET leaders were perceived in general to be carrying out leadership roles effectively using a mixture of transformational and transactional leadership styles in performing their roles. However, most were rated as more transactional than transformational.

2.6.4 Summary and implications for further research

This section first underlined that the VET sector is not widely understood in view of diversity in terminology, institutional setting and conceptualization of VET. Yet, based upon descriptive accounts of the development and typology of VET, this section has succeeded in offering a working definition for the purpose of this thesis. This section also reviewed literature that highlighted the promises and challenges of VET. An important conclusion that can be drawn from these discussions is that although VET has turned out to be a necessary educational sector, it is not free from pitfalls, which result from several sources. This discussion points to the crucial role of leadership as an important factor in overcoming these challenges. The case was made that there exist only limited studies on this specific sector of education. What is known about VET is largely based on government sponsored research projects and their main focus has been the practical implications of these researches for development of VET in the respected countries. Taken together, although these studies have gone some way towards enhancing the understanding of VET leadership, they did not provide any definite answers to substantial questions of VET leadership, such as the dominant leadership style in VET and the main demographic and cultural antecedents shaping and influencing VET leadership. Bearing in mind these limitations, the discussions unfolded in previous sections on educational leadership will be used as a conceptual basis to address these questions in the VET setting.

2.7 Summary and Main Questions of Research

This chapter concludes with a discussion serving to recapitulate briefly those aspects of the sections most directly pertinent to the conduct of the original research captured in this thesis. The chapter has revealed that educational leadership scholarship has gone through several advancements by incorporating theories and insights from the mainstream literature on management and social science (Robinson, 2006). An important step in line with these developments has been the application of TL model to educational settings. It was argued that the TL model, also known as the full-range leadership theory (Avolio and Bass, 1991, Avolio, 1999; Avolio, 2011), sets forth an arguably comprehensive framework for understanding a wide range of possible leadership models by differentiating among three primary leadership styles: transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire. Given this fact, it is plausible to use this framework to identify and explore the dominant leadership styles of the context understudy. On this basis the first main question of this thesis can be formulated as follows:

Q1: What are the dominant leadership styles of VET in Saudi Arabia based on the full range leadership model?

This question includes three ancillary questions:

a. Is there any statistically significant difference between the total scores of the self-assessment of leaders and the total scores from other-rater assessment on the MLQ (5XShort Form)?
b. Is there any significant difference in the leadership styles of Saudi VET in terms of the managerial level denoted as Dean and Vice-Dean?
c. Is there any significant difference in the leadership styles of Saudi VET in terms of the institutional affiliation of leaders to TC, VI or TCG?

Q2: Are the demographic characteristics (gender, age, educational level, and work experience) of leaders and subordinates related to their perceived leadership styles?

Moreover, it was indicated that despite these advances, serious shortcomings apply to studies in this field. In particular, these studies fail to consider the potential impact of larger macro-societal cultural factors as the main antecedents of ETL. It was discussed that it is particularly important because EL models developed in Western countries, including transformational leadership, scarcely capture the complexities of cultural diversity across countries (Cheng, 1995; Hallinger, 1995; Dimmock and Walker, 2005; Sun and Leithwood, 2012). Drawing on this discussion, the next research question is as follows:

Q3: Are national cultural factors in Saudi Arabia related to VET leadership styles and, if so, how and to what extent?

It was also indicated that the existing limited studies were conducted in isolation from theoretical and methodological advances that cross-cultural studies on leadership have recently witnessed. It was shown in section 2.5.1 that in the field of education the authors have mainly utilized an etic approach by using universally accepted instruments such as MLQ and Hofstede's cultural values dimensions to examine the possible impact of culture on TL (Begley, 2000; Walker and Dimmock, 2005; Walker, 2010). However, within broader cross-cultural leadership studies, the combination of etic and emic approaches and the adoption of mixed method have been used to examine this possible impact (House et al., 1999; Northhouse, 2013).

Having acknowledged the possibility of the application of insights from these studies to the context of educational setting, the next step was to discuss and consider this application to educational settings. As such, it was explained that drawing on an etic approach, in this study, quantitative data collection and analysis will be applied by using Dorfman and Howell's (1988) CV instrument to measure the cultural values in Saudi Arabia. This instrument was chosen because it particularly reduces the ecological fallacies associated with Hofstede's instrument (Bond, 2002; Dorfman and Howell, 1988). The MLQ will also be used to explore the dominant leadership styles in educational settings based on Bass and Avolio (1997). Then, through an extensive statistical analysis the impact of culture (based on data gathered though Dorfman and Howell's (1988) CV instrument) on dominant leadership styles (based on data collected by MLQ instrument) will be examined.

In addition, drawing on an emic approach, qualitative data will be gathered to offer locally meaningful insights on the dominant leadership styles in the context under study. It is also indicated that there is a body of literature seeking to address the problem of cultural specificity by devising leadership models for organizations in Muslim countries. Following an emic approach, these studies predominantly focused on specific historical, cultural, and social factors of these countries to generate culturally sensitive leadership (CSL) models ((Mimouni and Metcalf, 2011). A further analysis undertaken in this thesis is to examine the extent to which the results of qualitative data corroborate the CSL models. Ultimately, the overall results of qualitative and quantitative analysis are merged together. To date, this methodology has not been applied to leadership in educational context.

Finally it was indicated that this thesis focuses on a less-understood educational setting, namely, Vocational Education and Training (VET). Although this thesis is predominantly concerned with the examination of the cultural determinants of ETL, it nevertheless attempts to offer some insights on understanding of this specific sector in Saudi Arabia by looking at its origins and evolution and particularly its current organizational arrangement. Based on this argument, the next question can be formulated as follows:

Q4: How have VET institutions originated and evolved in Saudi Arabia?

This review has established an understanding of the main concepts of interest in this research. The research gaps were identified and the research questions formulated accordingly. Drawing partly on the cultural concepts introduced in this chapter, the next chapter provides a description of the context in which the research was carried out.

Chapter 3: Saudi Context and VET

3.1 Introduction

This chapter seeks to offer general insights on Saudi's Arabia national culture and educational systems and explore the evolution of VET in this context. In order to explain the context in which VET takes place, an overview will first be provided of Saudi Arabia's demographic and geographical location, as well as Saudi Arabia's national culture. This section proceeds with a brief description of the educational systems of Saudi Arabia. The historical background of vocational and technical training, as well as its evolution into its current state, will then be addressed in detail in subsequent sections. Two sections in particular focus on the institutional setting and managerial hierarchy in VET in Saudi Arabia. This discussion will conclude with particular attention to the challenges presently facing technical and vocational education in the Saudi context.

3.2 An overview of the Saudi Arabian context

3.2.1 Demographic and geographical background

The Kingdom of Saudi Arabia occupies the majority of the Arabian Peninsula, the original land of the Arab people and of Islam. The total population of Saudi Arabia for 2009 was estimated as 25,370,000 including 6,830,000 non-Saudi nationals who worked and resided in Saudi Arabia (Ministry of Economy and Planning, 2010). According to the Saudi Arabian Monetary Agency (SAMA, 2006), 60% of the Saudi Arabian population is below the age of 18. The same source reports that the number of employees in the government sector is slightly less than 783,300, while in contrast the number of employees in the private sector is 5.4 million. The majority of the employees in the private sector are expatriates who represent 88.4% of the labour in this sector, while the percentage of Saudis does not exceed 11.63%. This indicates that Saudi Arabia is extremely dependent on foreigners in all private and public sectors in order to fulfil the labour shortage. Therefore, in searching for a long-term remedy to this situation, the Saudi Government has focused on educating and developing the native human resources necessary for effective participation in national development and progress (Alzalabani, 2002).

Geographically, the kingdom is bounded to the north and north-east by Jordan, Iraq and Kuwait; to the east by the Arabian Gulf; to the west by the Red Sea; and to the south and south-east by Yemen, Oman, the United Arab Emirates and Qatar (see Fig. 3.1).

Figure 3.1: Map of Saudi Arabia

Source: The Saudi Network

Saudi Arabia occupies an area of approximately 868,730 square miles (2,250,000 square kilometres). The huge area of the Kingdom of Arabia, its varied topography and harsh geographical conditions in many areas, and the large distances between towns and cities all contribute to the difficulty of providing accessible education for all. This is particularly so as there is no railway network in the country, apart from a single line connecting Dammam and Riyadh.

In 1993, in order to facilitate administrative work and development across the Kingdom, Saudi Arabia was divided into 13 provinces. Each province is divided into governorates, of which there are 118 in total, including the 13 provincial capitals. The latter are classed as municipalities and are headed by mayors. Each governorate is further subdivided into sub-governorates. The Technical and Vocational Training Corporation has a council in each province that oversees technical and vocational training institutions across the governorates.

3.2.2 National culture

The national culture in Saudi Arabia is very unique and very different from those found in the other parts of the world. The existing studies on Saudi Arabia national culture can be divided into two important groups, which is in line with the approaches of cross-cultural studies discussed in section 2.5. The first strand of studies, which adopt a culture-specific approach, focuses predominantly on three elements of Islamic, tribal and family values and oil culture as the main determinates of Saudi Arabia national culture. The second strand of literature, which is consistent with the culture universal approach, uses Hofstede's cultural dimensions to explore Saudi Arabia national culture. For the purpose of this thesis, these two important strands of studies will be reviewed briefly in the following lines.

3.2.2.1 Culture specific studies on Saudi Arabia National Culture

The studies that considered Saudi Arabia's national culture largely argued that the socio-cultural values and attributes of the country are deeply rooted in Middle Eastern Islamic and Arab and tribal history, as well as the oil-boom experience (Badawy, 1980; Anastos et al., 1980; Al-Twaijiri, 1989; Yavas and Yasin, 1999). For the purpose of this thesis, the three elements of Islam, tribal and Arab tradition and oil culture are reviewed briefly.

It should be noted that the boundary between Islamic and tribal and family values in Saudi Arabia is blurred as most tribal and Arab values in Saudi Arabia are shaped and influenced by Islamic teachings.

a) The Influence of Religion (Islam)

In Saudi Arabia the Islamic religion provides the overarching framework for shaping managerial attitudes and practices. Islamic teaching places a high value on obedience to leaders and this is greatly encouraged. As a result, it is taken for granted that leaders or managers will have the right to exercise power and that subordinates will respond by being respectful and obedient to those above them. Islam also places great significance on the ability to forgive, kindness and sympathy. According to Atiyyah (1999) the values of Islam focus on harmonious, collaborative and fraternal associations. Dissent is not encouraged and is avoided or repressed. Al-Habshi and Ghazali (1994:38) identified the central values of Islamic management as follows: every act should be accompanied by intention (niyat); conscientiousness and knowledge in all endeavours (itqan); proficiency and efficiency (ihsan); sincerity (ikhlas); passion for excellence (al falah), continuous self-examination; constant mindfulness of the Almighty - piety {taqwa), justice (adl); truthfulness (amanah); patience (sabr); moderation; keeping promises; accountability, dedication; gratefulness; cleanliness; consistency; discipline; and cooperation.

Relationships between management and employees are also influenced by the practices of Islam. Prayer meetings provide an example here. Muslim managers and workers at all levels of the organizational hierarchy gather together to pray on two or more occasions throughout the day. To date, no observational and verifiable research has been undertaken to discover how these daily meetings affect the individuals concerned. It seems reasonable to contend that this type of social interaction might narrow the physical and psychological gap between management and employees Al-Habshi and Ghazali (1994).

b) The Influence of Arab culture and tribal traditions

According to Badawy (1980) and Abdalla (1997), Arab culture is shaped by traditional beliefs and values and, as such, it fosters reliance on family members and friends (Hofstede, 1984). Historically, Arab tribes were nomadic and ruled by the basic need to ensure their animals were fed and watered and to find food for other tribal members. During this time very little manual labour was available. In order to ensure their physical safety the early Arab nomads relied on the strength of their tribal clan networks. A person's tribal origins are seen to confer self-respect and social position and great pride in tribal origins is still widely held in contemporary Saudi society; the majority of Saudi families continue to use their tribal name as a surname. Manual work has acquired a stigma because it is regarded as an occupation that is only undertaken by individuals who do not have tribal roots. This view of manual labour prevails despite the fact that the teachings and values of Islam encourage manual labour. A motivation towards manual labour is in keeping with the behaviour and principles of Mohammed (peace be upon him). Nevertheless, in many areas it seems that tribal norms and customs have greater influence than the teachings of Islam.

C) Oil culture

One of the most significant contemporary issues affecting Saudi social attribute and overall national culture is the oil culture. Before societal changes began fifty years ago, most of the Saudi population were nomadic or semi-nomadic. They lived by agriculture and subsistence farming, manual work, animal husbandry and serving the pilgrims who come to visit the holy places. The discovery of oil played a major role in the modernization process. The sudden wealth generated by oil rapidly changed society and created new values; particularly important in this context is the capacity for fast earning and wealth without effort, coupled with the absence of an appreciation for technical and manual work. This has meant that Saudi society lacks industrial values, such as a work ethic and respect for time. Instead, it has developed into a consuming, non-producing culture that does not yet accept the need for manual, vocational and industrial work (Urabi and Al Umri, 2001). This effect of oil culture has been changed somewhat by the development and increase of education and the size of the workforce, but the above mentioned values have not been entirely eroded.

3.3.2.2 Culture universal studies on Saudi Arabia National Culture

Those studies that explored Saudi national culture from a culture-universal perspective have largely used Hofstede's cultural values. The first study by Hofstede surveyed a sample of seven Arabic-speaking countries (the United Arabic Emirates, Egypt, Lebanon, Libya, Kuwait, Iraq, and Saudi Arabia) in 1969 and in 1972. When he tried to extend the country list in 1982, it emerged that IBM had not only inadvertently wiped the tape with the raw survey data; it had destroyed the data printouts as well. The only data printouts that were saved pertained to the region as a whole, so Hofstede was forced to treat these countries as one cluster (Hofstede, 2001). The table below show the results of all studies related to cultural values using Hofstede's Values Survey Model (VSM94).

Table 3-1: Studies on Saudi Arabia national culture based on Hofstede cultural values

Study	Sample and place	Cultural Values Dimensions Scores			
		PD	UA	IND	MAS
Hofsede (1980)	141,Egypt, Lebanon, Libya, Saudi Arabia, Iraq, Kuwait and UAE	80	68	38	53
Bjerke and Al-Meer. (1993)	38, MBA students (KFUPM) 21 co-workers	73	74	41	43
At-Twaijri and Al-Muhaiza(1996)	204, oil company	61	88	41	53

Sources: Hofsede (1980), Bjerke and Al-Meer. (1993) At-Twaijri and Al-Muhaiza (1996)

Possible scores for each dimension range from zero to 100, with 50 as the mid-point. From the table it can be seen that the PD score was 80 (1980), 73(1993), 61 (1996). The differences could be attributed to the differences in places and dates when the research was conducted, and could be also related to changes in the Saudi economy, which led the country to engage in business with most countries, especially the West. Political developments may also help to explain the change in PD. The Kingdom used to be ruled by royal decrees, which are considered to have the force of law, especially when they depend on religious principles. At-Twaijri and Al-Muhaiza (1996) pointed out that the result is centralized politics, which encouraged power distance. In 1993, however, the

Consultative Council, called the Majlis Al-shura, was established. It is composed of a chairman and 120 members who are chosen by the king, with a four-year tenure renewable for a further period. Its main purpose is to monitor the working of the government, to interpret laws, and to suggest policies and plans in order to improve and develop the Kingdom (Al-Farsy, 1996). This means that issues will be debated by groups before a decision is made (At-Twaijri and Al-Muhaiza, 1996). This step has helped Saudi Arabia to move toward decentralizing. Moreover, Saudi Arabia is inevitably affected by globalization. Albsher (2008) indicated that the social movement in Saudi is moving rapidly towards a generally positive reception to the latest developments of globalization. This can be measured by comparing the positive reactions compared to twenty or thirty years previously.

Another consideration in interpreting differences in PD findings between the studies is that Bjerke and Al-Meer's (1993) and At-Twaijri and Al-Muhaiza's (1996) studies were carried out in King Fahad University of Petroleum and Minerals and an Oil company respectively. Employees in such locations usually have a high education and chances to study abroad, which can contribute to reduce the PD. The more exposure to Western education and multinational management they have, the less likely native Saudi supervisors are to behave entirely according to the cultural patterns (Moran et al., 2011, At-Twaijri and Al-Muhaiza (1996). Despite these trends, however, the PD in Saudi Arabia remains relatively high. The high power distance in Saudi culture shapes the behaviours of the whole community; administrators, teachers, students, and parents, so they must always express high respect towards those of senior status in all social relationships.

The findings can be suggested to reflect a strong respect for authority amongst Muslims, which is characteristic of Islamic societies. Islamic and Arabic social structures are hierarchical in nature. As a result, Muna (1980) suggested that the decision-making processes of Saudi managers are likely to be autocratic and paternalistic as opposed to consultative and democratic. This point needs further explanation, because it is true that Arabic/Islamic tradition and custom requires managers to consult with business colleagues, friends and relatives within the organization or on a day-to-day basis. It is also correct to say that Arab managers are highly averse to rigid and bureaucratic concepts such as "business is business". Instead, they favour a more casual and personal manner. However, Muna (1980) asserts that this “open-door policy” does not apply to everyone equally. The consultation process usually includes only a chosen few and this practice is not likely to be openly challenged by lower ranking individuals. In light of this situation, there seems little chance that the policies and practices of Arab management systems will be changed to allow for more equitable decision-making (Muna, 1980).

High uncertainty avoidance is confirmed by all three studies, and is higher in the Arabic studies than in Hofstede’s study. High uncertainty avoidance indicates that Saudi people are strongly bound by traditions, rules, and regulations. They show a stronger tendency to maintain stability than to be creative. There is a common proverb, “Something you know is not like something you do not know”. People in high UA cultures find change disruptive and more disturbing than people in lower UA cultures. Hofstede (1991:112-113) confirms that uncertainty is a key concept in modern organisational theories. Technology, rules, and religion are among the means used to reduce uncertainty. Other mechanisms used in organisations for this purpose include memos and reports, accounting systems, planning systems, control systems, and consultation of experts. According to Adler and Gundersen (2008), employees in cultures characterized by high power distance and high uncertainty avoidance perceive their organisations in hierarchical terms rather than as families. There are formal vertical lines of communication and accountability which are known to everyone, and in this way management reduces uncertainty by emphasizing authority relationships; this is also the case in Saudi Arabia. People usually apply to the person with senior authority in order to get their papers processed, their needs fulfilled or complaints resolved.

The individualism scores of Saudi culture are low, indicating a tendency towards collectivism. Despite the slight change in scores in the later studies, Saudi culture remains collectivistic. Without a doubt, Islam plays a major rule in emphasizing unity. Individuals are encouraged to look after others and to give assistance when needed: the IDV findings revealed this aspect of Arabic/Islamic tradition as a key factor. Social ordering is also a significant factor because Arab society is categorized in terms of tribal origin, family name and geographical region. Arabs identify themselves in terms of these collective categorizations, which symbolize solidarity.

From the table above, the MAS scores for the three studies are 53, 43, and 53 which means that Saudi culture in Hofstede's study (1980) and in At-Twaijri and Al-Muhaiza (1996) study had the same score 53. This score indicates a somewhat masculine culture, which means Saudi culture is more masculine than feminine. On the other hand, Bjerke and Al-Meer's (1993) result indicated a somewhat feminine culture (43). Islamic teachings and the tribal system stress the concept of caring and cooperation among the people, which characterize feminine societies. At the same time, the Saudi Arabian culture ascribes distinct gender roles to men and women, which is more typical of masculine societies. These characteristics may explain why in all the studies, Saudi Arabia's MAS scores are relatively close to the mid-point.

3.2.3 Educational System in Saudi Arabia

Formal education in the Kingdom was established by King Abdul-Aziz, the founder of the Saudi state, and developed by subsequent rulers. The first phase, between 1899 and 1924, was characterised by a focus on religion and literacy. Education was traditionally conducted in mosques, in the form of "halagah", where students sat in circle with the teacher in the centre. The halagah varied in approach, course content, size and quality of teaching. Teaching methods typically relied on lectures and memorization. This form of education still occurs alongside official education in Saudi Arabia. Another approach to learning was the "kuttab", informal education provided in the majority of Islamic cities, under the patronage of city governors and wealthy philanthropists. Kuttabs were normally held in a room attached to a mosque or in a nearby house, and run by religious leaders. They varied considerably in regulation and course content, but commonly taught Arabic language, the Holy Quran, writing, mathematics and morals. Children studied for five to six years, in mono-gender environments. The idea that more kuttabs existed to provide for boys than girls (Bin Duhesh, 1986; Alnaiem, 1999) however, is a misconception, with nearly 339 kuttabs for girls being offered in cities across the peninsula (Al-Zahhar, 2003). This type of education was popular throughout the Islamic world. Its particular popularity in Mecca and Medina may have been because the Holy mosque and Prophet's mosque attracted scholars, and because Ottoman leaders and rich Muslims made endowments to support scholars and students in these cites (Uthaymin, 2009). King Abdul Aziz supported kuttabs through the provision of books and teachers (Aldhalaan, 1999).

The second phase of education, from 1924 until the death of King Abdul-Aziz in 1953, was marked by the creation of a Department of Education under the Ministry of the Interior (Ibrahem, 1985). In 1953, the Department of Education became the Ministry of Education, an independent body with vested power to develop education. However, the new Ministry faced challenges due to the huge size of the country, shortage of funds, and the need to import all educational resources, including textbooks (Ministry of Education, 1957). State primary education, for boys only, began in 1925. The first secondary school opened a year later. After four years of in secondary education, graduates could work as primary teachers. The first college was established in Mecca in 1949. Educational provision continued to expand under King Abdul-Aziz's successors. In 1960, formal education for girls was introduced under the supervision of the Presidency of Girls' Education, which remained separate from the Ministry of Education until 2002 (Al-Hamed, 2007). By 2012 there were 13845 primary schools, 8241 intermediate schools, and 5658 secondary schools in the Kingdom (Ministry of Education, 2012), in addition to 24 state universities and nine private universities.

Currently, general education in Saudi Arabia consists of three main levels: primary schools, secondary schools and high schools. Primary school education lasts for six years and is followed by three years of secondary schooling. At the secondary schools students receive the Secondary School Certificate, while those continuing at high school level receive the High School Certificate.

Having provided an overview of the Saudi context and the broad phases into which its education is divided, the next section of this chapter will address the specific areas of VET in this context.

3.3 VET in Saudi Arabia

3.3.1 The genesis of Vocational Education and Training in Saudi Arabia

This section will provide a detailed discussion of the historical development of vocational education within the kingdom, in order to provide a basis with which to fully understand the context of modern VET in Saudi Arabia. Some authors traced the genesis of vocational education as far back as the Al-Hejaz era, before King Abdul-Aziz unified the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in 1932 (Al-Shamekh, 1982, Aldhalaan, 1999; Al-Hamed, 2007). At the time, the Arabian Peninsula was under the ruler of the Ottoman Empire until 1916, during which the Ottoman government opened many schools to teach a range of subjects, including painting, book keeping, arithmetic, religious studies and social sciences. Unfortunately, because most of the teachers were from Istanbul (Al-Subaiy, 1987), the people resisted these schools in an effort to protect their identity (Alnaiem, 1999). During the subsequent Al-Hashmy era (1916-1924) many schools were established in Al-Hejaz, providing tuition in agricultural and military disciplines (Musleh, 1982).

Yet the beginning of actual vocational training in the Kingdom dates from 1963, when the International Labour Organisation established the first vocational centre in Riyadh (GOTEVOT, 1989; Aldhalaan, 1999). The emergence of VET was due primarily to the increased orientation of the Kingdom toward industrialisation and the desire to increase the well-being of citizens and help them to achieve self-sufficiency. The first VET institution was established in Jeddah in 1949, followed by agricultural education in 1955 (under the Ministry of Agriculture) (Albonyan, 1991). Since then, the VET sector has been under a process of constant change and revision, particularly through continued structural, regulatory and supervisory developments. The VET sector initially came under the auspices of the Ministry of Education, which supervised its three primary strands: industrial, commercial, and agricultural education. The last of these strands only came under the remit of the Ministry of Education in 1959, as prior to this time it was supervised by the Ministry of Agriculture (Alzalabani, 2002; Alkhateeb, 2008). Before 1980, the Ministry of Work and Social Affairs also played an important role in the supervision of technical education and vocational training. This arrangement was changed with the formation of the General Organization for Technical Education and Vocational Training (GOTEVOT), an independent agency with the responsibility for the regulation of financial and administrative matters in this area. Since 2007, this agency has been known as the Technical and Vocational Training Corporation (TVTC).

Taken together, six main phases of development in technical and vocational education in Saudi Arabia can be identified. The first phase was the foundation period between 1946 and 1964, characterised by the creation of nine technical schools, five agricultural intermediate schools and four industrial intermediate schools, which offered four year courses. Technical intermediate schools aimed to meet the need for specialised skilled workers (Aldhalaan, 1999). Examination of the Saudi Arabian educational system's abilities to respond to the needs of the country resulted in the growth of industrial activity in the Kingdom and an increased number of students in secondary industrial schools (Aldhalaan, 1999).

The second phase, from 1965 to 1969, involved the unification of supervisory bodies into one consolidated organisation, the General Administration of Technical Education under the Ministry of Education. Another key development was entry into cooperation treaties with the governments of France and then West Germany (as it then was) for the development of technical education and vocational training (Aldhalaan, 1999).

The third phase of educational development refers to the period of growth from 1970 to 1975, which coincided with the initiation of socioeconomic development planning. The government strove to further technical education and vocational training, in order to expedite the development process. Special emphasis was placed upon commercial and technical training in agriculture for boys (Aldhalaan, 1999).

In the fourth phase, from 1976 to 1980, increasing concern to meet the demand for a trained national workforce within the local market led the Saudi authorities to invest heavily in technical education, concentrating upon expansion of enrolment and specialisms, provision of evening classes in commercial education and the introduction of new programmes and topics in a number of disciplines, including electronics, technology, petro-chemistry and mechanics (Aldhalaan, 1999; Alkhateeb, 2008).

The main features of the fifth phase (1980-1985) were the creation of the GOTEVOT, as it seemed beneficial to consolidate all technical and vocational training areas under one umbrella. Therefore, the Royal Decree No. (30/M) in 1980 stated the establishment of the General Organization for Technical Education and Vocational Training, including all technical institutes and vocational training centres under this single organization. This was linked with the Saudization policy of programmes to replace administrative and supervisory staff with natives (Ministry of Planning, 1980; Ministry of Planning, 1985). Nevertheless, enrolment declined, with the majority of students preferring secondary general education (Ministry of Planning, 1980).

During the sixth phase (1985-onward) problems emerged. Companies reported that those workers who had graduated from the VET institutions were inadequately trained (Ministry of Planning, 1990). The government attributed this to the nature of the work of these companies, rather than the capacities of graduates. The problem was complicated by lack of studies of market needs (Ministry of Planning, 1990). Subsequently, the TVTC has made many changes in its plans, strategies, and programmes in an attempt to ensure that its goals are achieved (TVTC, 2009). As a result of these changes, all VET institutions in the Kingdom were merged into three main distinct institutions: separate Technical Colleges for boys and girls and Vocational Institutes for boys. These three types of institutions are the focus of this study.

3.3.2 Institutional setting of VET in Saudi Arabia

At all stages of general education indicated in section 3.2.3 students can join VET institutions which offer different ranges of vocational and technical courses. Table 3-2 explains the eligibility of students from general education to join vocational institutes and technical colleges.

Table 3-1: The relationship between general education and technical vocational and training

The general education stage	Type of certificate	Technical and vocational training unit				
		Vocational Institutes	Technical college			
			Diploma (boys)	Bachelor's degree (boys)	Diploma (girls)
Primary school Start age 6-12 6years	Primary	Studying 29 programmes			
Secondary school Start age 13 - 15 3years	Secondary	Studying 29 programmes			
High school Start age 16 to 18 3years	High school diploma				

Source: author

The courses offered by VET institutions are varied in terms of contents and duration. After the consolidation of VET institutions under the umbrella of GOTEVOT in the early 1980s, the institutions began to provide courses through two special training programmes. The first type of programme runs in the mornings over 12-18 months, in order to meet the needs of trainees in 21 different specialisms, including mechanical engineering, electrical engineering, electronics, audio-visual, printing, construction, hairdressing and sewing. The second type of programme runs in the evenings over 6 months and is designed to meet the needs of those who are already working, in either the private or public sector, and who wish to develop their professional skills (GOTEVOT, 1989). The evening programmes offer 15 specialisms, such as car mechanics, welding, carpentry, tin-smithing, and digital technology (GOTEVOT, 1994). In 2004, as a result of the development of GOTEVOT programmes, all vocational training centres were upgraded to vocational institutes (GOTEVOT, 2007). Earlier, in 1973/74, under the auspices of the General Presidency for Girls' Education, two training centres were established in Riyadh and Alhasa. These centres offered a two year course providing theoretical and practical training in cutting and sewing. These centres came under the supervision of GOTEVOT in 1980 (General Presidency for Girls' Education, 1999, Alkhateeb, 2008). In 2003, these centres were upgraded to Higher institutes for girls, which became technical colleges in 2007 (TVTC, 2009).

3.3.3 The status and level of managers in VET in Saudi Arabia

The highest authority in VET institutions is the dean or head teacher. Dean is a term basically used in technical colleges. Each dean has two deputies, one for training and the other one for trainees' services and a head of financial and administration services. In the vocational institutes, the term head teacher is used instead of dean, but they have the same hierarchy as the technical colleges; the only difference is in the terminology.

In 2011, as a result of the increasing numbers of vocational institutes and technical colleges, the General Directorate for Training Evaluation published a guide for all deans/ head teachers and the deputies of technical colleges and vocational institutes. This guide sought to guarantee the quality of leadership and training, as well as to ensure the convergence of performance by removing any confusion from the absence of uniform standards (TVTC, 2011). Head teachers and deans have widespread supervisory responsibilities for trainees' admission, teaching and assessments in accordance with pre-determined plans. They are accountable for ensuring that staff fulfil their duties, and for ensuring their training and development needs are met. They provide the institute's interface with other entities, receive and submit progress reports, and have general oversight of technical, financial and administrative issues. The vice-dean for training is responsible for planning and following up all aspects of training activities, including developing practice and identifying trainers' training needs. She/he monitors the maintenance of equipment and facilities, takes responsibility for occupational safety and prepares progress reports for the dean/head teacher (TVTC, 2011).

These include supervision of admissions procedures and preparation of training schedules, securing training and job opportunities for trainees, providing statistics on trainees including an annual report to the supervising training activities and dean/head teacher and solving trainees' problems. In 2002, GOTEVOT established 13 councils throughout Riyadh and other cities, based on an examination of other experiences around the world, particularly those of Australia and New Zealand, in the fields of technical education and vocational training (GOTEVOT, 2007).

The membership of these councils includes the leaders of training units (Technical Colleges, Vocational Institutes) and the representatives of joint training centres, national training centres and community services. Each council is presided over by the Dean of the Technical College in each city, county or region. The members of each council are expected to provide general supervision and follow-up of the training and educational processes in the local governmental training centres. They should also ensure the optimal utilization of these training centres and the provision of the best teaching and technical staff in the city (GOTEVOT, 2007).

3.4 The challenges of VET in Saudi Arabia

As indicated in section 3.2.1, the majority of the employees in the private sector are expatriates who represent 88.4% of the labour in this sector, while the percentage of Saudis does not exceed 11.63%. Given the fact that the history of technical and vocational training goes back more than fifty years, it seems that there has been little progress in technical education (Mellahi, 2006; Saatti, 2007). In this situation a question arises as to the reasons for the failure of VET institutions to meet its objective of preparing a technically skilled workforce able to fill the private sector posts currently occupied by expatriates and calls have been made for serious reform, starting with developing technical and vocational training (Achoui, 2009). The following sections outline some of the reasons suggested by critics for the continued difficulties facing such efforts. These challenges have adversely affected enrolment numbers in many technical schools, with students showing a clear preference for general and technical secondary education (Albonyan, 1991; Aleisa, 2002). Students enrolled in technical education fluctuate between 3-5% of the total number of students in general education (Alkhateeb, 2008; Metwalee, 2007).

3.4.1 Negative attitudes towards vocational jobs

In 1987, research revealed a lack of knowledge among both parents and students about technical education in the Gulf States. They found relatively little understanding of the link between technical education and the national development of the country, as well as ignorance about how technical education could fulfil the specific needs of the students themselves. It was generally perceived that technical education was intended for students who had failed to make the grade in general education (Albonyan, 1991). Saudi society still looks down on vocational jobs (Achoui, 2009; Alkhateeb, 2008; Metwalee, 2007; Saatti, 2007). Due to the widespread oil and tribal culture indicated in section 3.2.2 Saudi people have negative social and cultural perceptions and attitudes towards manual and low-status jobs (Ramadi, 2005; Alkhateeb, 2008; Metwalee, 2007; Achoui, 2009; Alameena, 2004). Indeed, Saudis generally regard working in management jobs in the public sector as being prestigious, which may be a reason why most Saudi people do not undertake technical jobs and the majority of these roles instead are held by low social status expatriates (Mellahi, 2006; Alkhateeb, 2008). Al-Salamah and Wilson (2001) claim that despite technological developments having changed the way these jobs are carried out, Saudi society still stereotypes them as menial and low status roles. Posts that are not of a managerial nature, such as technical jobs, are therefore not attractive to young Saudis (Alameena, 2004).

3.4.2 Lack of focus towards the future market requirement

The mismatch between the skills developed and the skills needed by the economy is another factor in the many changes occurring in VET. One of these changes was the involvement of the Chambers of Commerce in the development of the vocational curriculum, which was ineffective in ensuring the provision of the skilled workforce required by the country (Mellahi, 2006). VET curricula still remain inadequate, causing many companies to be reluctant to employ graduates from these types of institution (Metwalee, 2007; Alkhateeb, 2008). Furthermore, many programmes offered by technical colleges award a diploma, rather than graduate qualifications, which disadvantages technical college graduates in the job market (Alkhateeb, 2008).

Some experts have suggested separating technical education from vocational training, which led the TVTC to change its name and its stated aims. There has been much debate regarding this issue in the newspapers, with discussions between those who are satisfied with and optimistic about these changes and those who assert the importance of just technical education (Alrshood, 2009). It has been claimed that the TVTC should not have isolated technical education without ensuring that another party or authority would assume responsibility for the provision of this kind of education (Ibid).

Another possible reason for a lack of focus could be the rapid development of global economics, which has meant that the plans for infrastructure development require a huge number of skilled workers. This puts technical education under pressure to respond, leading to many changes being made to solve the shortage of skilled and semi-skilled indigenous workers. It has been claimed that imbalances can be seen in the structure of education, particularly in terms of technical and vocational training, leading to the failure of graduates from this sector to achieve the skills necessary to meet the demands of the Saudi job market (Achoui, 2009; Alkhateeb, 2008; Metwalee, 2007; Saatti, 2007). In contrast, Al-Masnad (1999) has claimed that Saudi Arabia suffers from shortages in skilled and unskilled personnel. According to Achoui (2009), this could be due to cultural issues such as traditional values. Social values are also believed to hamper the human resource development strategy of Saudi Arabia (Alkhateeb, 2008; Mellahi, 2006; Metwalee, 2007).

3.4.3 Absorptive capacity

The technical education and vocational training institutions do not currently have sufficient capacity to meet the continually increasing need for workers to update their skills. In 2008, the absorptive rate was estimated as being almost 51% of total applications, including enrolments across a variety of training courses. In terms of enrolment, the TVTC statistics for 2008 show that only 32% of male applicants and 8% of girls were admitted to vocational training units (Ministry of Planning, 2010).

3.5 Summary

This chapter has provided a general background to Saudi Arabia, looking at its location and population, the particular geographic context and climate, and its education. It was discussed that the Kingdom has seen considerable development in technical and vocational education, especially in terms of the range of available specializations and the number of institutions that have opened. However it was indicated that despite this long history of technical and vocational training, VET has witnessed little progress in technical education. A number of concerns have arisen regarding the quality of education provided and the proficiency of its graduates, as illustrated in numerous efforts to restructure these technical educational provisions. This has been complicated by significant challenges, such as the widespread oil culture, negative cultural attitudes, inadequate absorptive capacity and poor overall and efficiency. These obstacles have led the government to announce ambitious plans for the development of this field of education, including restructuring the TVET. To this end, educational leaders have been assigned a variety of administrative and supervisory roles in VET institutions, although these seem to be more focused on bureaucratic duties than on the provision of educational leadership. For these reasons, it is imperative to reconsider the VET leadership in Saudi Arabia by application of the latest leadership theories and styles developed in the broader educational leadership discipline. The next chapter will discuss the philosophical underpinning of this research, and the methods by which data were collected.

Chapter 4: Methodology

4.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to describe the research methodology chosen in this thesis, providing a rationale for choosing a particular mixed method design and its philosophical underpinnings required to critically examine the issues under study. Once these are established, the appropriate methods and procedures for collection and analysis of information are provided in two quantitative and qualitative strands. It is discussed that the underlying research philosophy for this thesis is pragmatism and a two-phase mixed model was adopted in which collection of quantitative data was followed by collecting qualitative data. It is also indicated that the priority is given to quantitative data and the qualitative only used to shed further light on the quantitative results.

This chapter therefore starts with a brief review of the research philosophy that provides a basis for the research design. It then proceeds with discussions on the main research objectives and questions. This is followed by a section (4.4) on the issues related to the population and sampling. The two next subsequent sections (4.5 and 4.6) deal with the instruments, quantitative and qualitative, used for data gathering. The rest of the chapter discusses the detailed procedures in collection and analysis of data.

4.2 Research Philosophy

It is widely established that the choice of methods is determined by philosophical (ontological and epistemological) assumptions (Brannen, 2005) and thus the very first task of the researchers in a given research is to clarify their basic philosophical stance. This concept is often aligned with the term 'paradigm' which tells us how science should be done and it includes aspects of epistemology, philosophy, theory and methods (Hussey and Hussey, 1997). In line with other fields in social science, in educational studies, three dominant paradigms or philosophical stances are usually identified: positivism, phenomenology (or interpretivism) and pragmatism.

A distinction is commonly made between the positivist and phenomenological paradigms. A researcher who adopts a positivist paradigm will assume that it is possible to obtain direct knowledge of the world. It is assumed that the world exists independently of the researcher and that it can be measured and seen: positivism is based on a realist ontology/positivist epistemology. In contrast, a researcher who adopts a phenomenological paradigm will assume that it is not possible to obtain direct knowledge of the world. From a phenomenological perspective, the world is constructed through accounts and observations. Thus, ‘knowledge’ is gained through a process of interpretation and the researcher is part of this process: a phenomenological paradigm is based on a constructivist ontology/interpretive epistemology (Collis and Hussey, 2009). The underlying beliefs concerning what constitutes reality and how we acquire knowledge will have implications for the research process. For example, a researcher who uses a positivist paradigm will concentrate on facts and will try to establish causal relationships or identify fundamental patterns that can be tested. A researcher who uses a phenomenological paradigm will try to form a complete understanding of the research phenomena by immersing him/herself in the research context. This approach acknowledges that there are multiple realities which are mind-dependent and have meaning within a specific context but are not objectively verifiable. The task of the researcher is to understand how people interpret their experiences; this requires a process of interpretation which often requires multiple methods of data collection (see Table 4.1).

Table 4-1: Key Features of Positivist and Phenomenological Paradigms

Aspects	Positivist Paradigm	Phenomenological Paradigm
Basic belief:	The world is an objective reality. Researcher exists separately Science is neutral.	The world is a social construction and mind-dependent. Researcher interacts with what is being researched. Science is value laden and biased
Researcher should:	Concentrate on facts. Establish relationships of cause and effect. Phenomena should be reduced to fundamental parts. Hypotheses should be developed and tested	Concentrate on interpretation Make an effort to comprehend events. Observe the situation holistically. Use induction to generate concepts from findings.
Preferred methods include:	Concepts should be put into operation so that they can be assessed Large samples should be obtained.	Adopting multiple methods to provide multiple views of research subject/object. Small scale in-depth investigations over a long duration.

Source: Easterby-Smith et al. (1991:27)

In the field of social research, positivist and phenomenological paradigms tend to be associated with two different research methods: quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative studies tend to rely on larger quantities of data because the aim is to measure and analyse relationships of cause and effect between variables. Quantitative studies are not concerned with processes (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000). Quantitative research methods use mathematical models, graphs and statistical tables. By contrast, qualitative research studies are usually undertaken in specific contexts and the aim is to understand phenomena using a variety of empirical methods. Qualitative research methods utilize case studies, observations or interviews (Saunders et al., 2009; Bryman, 2012). Quantitative research tends to be based on a positivist paradigm, whereas qualitative research tends to be based on a phenomenological paradigm. However, Hussey and Hussey (1997) point out that the two are not mutually exclusive and a positivist approach may come up with qualitative results and the reverse applies. A number of researchers including Creswell and Clark (2011) assume that a quantitative paradigm will inevitably be positivist and a qualitative paradigm will inevitably be interpretivist: an approach which automatically implies an acceptance of the respective axiological, rhetorical and methodological assumptions that characterize the two paradigms (see Table 4.2).

Table 4-2: Assumptions characterizing the quantitative and qualitative paradigms

Assumption	Question	Quantitative	Qualitative
Ontological	What is the form of the social world?	Reality is singular and it exists separately from the researcher.	Reality is mind dependent. There is more than one reality and it depends upon individual perceptions.
Epistemological	What relationship does the researcher have to the research subject/object?	Researcher is separate from what is being researched.	Researcher is part of research process
Axiological	What role does value play?	Not value laden and therefore unbiased.	Value-laden and biased.
Rhetorical	What type of language is used in the research?	Formal. With rigid definitions. Uses words specific to quantitative research.	Informal. Decisions emerge. Uses qualitative words.
Methodological	What procedure is being followed?	Works by deduction Seeks causal relationship. Fixed design categories singled out before study. Non-contextual. Relies on generalisations to make predictions. Accurate and reliable through validity and reliability.	Inductive process. Context-specific. Design-categories not pre-planned but emerge as part of research process. Accurate and reliable through verification.

Source: Creswell and Clark (2011:24).

Interest in the paradigm debates had begun to wane by the mid-1990s and this situation continued into the 21st century (Patton, 2002). According to Smith (1996) this lack of interest was due to the fact that the majority of researchers were focused on finding practical ways to facilitate their research. As a research philosophy, pragmatism is concerned with finding practical solutions to problems (Patton, 2002). Pragmatists advise that rather than focusing on theory or principle, researchers should concentrate on the research problem and use all the practical resources that are available. From a pragmatic perspective it is entirely appropriate to combine quantitative and qualitative approaches.

Indeed, a pragmatic approach provides one way of justifying bringing together qualitative and quantitative approaches. In this sense, pragmatism is almost an 'anti-philosophical' philosophy, which fosters dealing with the research rather than philosophizing. This notion of research philosophy, in essence, provides a pragmatic justification for adopting a realist stance (Rescher, 2000). Robson (2011) underscored two features of the realist approach as follows:

> First, a general issue research very commonly seeks to provide explanations. Answers to 'how' or 'why' questions — how or why did something happen? Realism addresses these issues directly, providing a helpful language for this task. Secondly, an issue which looms particularly large in real world research. This is that virtually all real world research takes place in 'field', rather than laboratory, situations. Realism provides a way of approaching such open, uncontrolled situations.
> (Robson, 2011:50).

A distinctive feature of the realist-pragmatist approach is its association with mixed method research designs. Indeed, this approach is very important in mixed research designs because it gives flexibility and practicality to the researcher to integrate the quantitative and qualitative aspects at different stages of the research process (Bryman, 2006). According to Creswell et al. (2003), integration can be defined as the mixing of quantitative and qualitative research methods within a given stage of research an investigation.

In light of the above discussion, it can be argued that the present research lies somewhere between positivism and phenomenology and thus it adopts a pragmatist-realist philosophy which is aligned with a mixed method design. There are several justifications for choosing this approach as the research paradigm for this study. According to Antonakis, et al. (2004), leadership researchers often use a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods. A mixed methods approach provides a more complete framework for understanding the complicated nature of leadership. As indicated in section 2.5 this thesis combined etic and emic approaches which required combining traditional questionnaire techniques with complementary ethnographic evidence (House et al., 1999). This is in line with the recommendation of many scholars who viewed this approach as the most appropriate method for the study of leadership (Bryman et al., 1996; Bryman, 2004; Antonakis et al., 2004; Currie and Lockett, 2007). In examining research methods, Bryman (2004) found that quantitative methodology was dominant as compared to qualitative methodology with respect to research in leadership. Nonetheless, Bryman (2004) believes that qualitative researchers on leadership are able to make their findings more credible by combining them with quantitative methods. He went on to argue that a small number of leadership studies had employed the mixed methods approach and every single mixed methods study has enhanced our understanding of the leadership phenomenon from multiple perspectives and methodologies. Antonakis et al. (2004) particularly argue that leadership is context specific and also complex. Therefore it is important to use both the qualitative methods which produce indigenous theories and the quantitative methods which are used to test theories. They particularly argued that this is the most suitable method for studying leadership across nations (Antonakis et al., 2004).

The importance of the application of mixed methods is clearly recognized when it comes to the study of the effect of culture on leadership. The GLOBE project explained in section 2.5 is an example of the studies on culture and leadership (House et al., 1999) which adopts a predominantly quantitative approach for the purposes of scientific validity, but simultaneously, within a multi-phase, multi-method project, incorporates qualitative data from interviews, focus groups, and published media to offer richly descriptive culture-specific interpretations of the cultural influences on leadership (House et al., 1999). Considering the GLOBE project, Northhouse (2013) argued that a purely quantitative approach would not provide such a rich understanding of cultural context, and that many aspects of leadership studies could benefit from the results of such contextualized understandings.

4.3 Research Design

4.3.1 The variants of research designs

Several classifications can be offered to describe the different forms of mixed method designs. These classifications are largely based upon two criteria: (1) the sequence of and (2) the priority given to the data collections methods. Based on the first criterion, Tashakkori et al. (2009) identified four families as the most basic forms of mixed method designs including parallel (or concurrent), sequential and convergent. A fourth family (fully integrated) includes combinations of these three basic types (Tashakkori et al., 2009). In parallel or concurrent designs, two sets of data (one qualitative and one quantitative) are collected and analysed independently at the same time, or with an interval, and then compared or related to one another in order to answer a mixed-research question. In sequential designs, the second round of data collection and analysis follows up or is built on the results of the first set. In convergent mixed designs, qualitative data are transformed (quantified) into numerical indicators that may be analysed separately using statistical techniques. Alternatively, in these studies, quantitative indicators (e.g. test results) might be transformed (qualitised) to deliver qualitative data (e.g. profiles) that can then be analysed separately as if originating from a separate sample (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). In practical terms, many mixed-methods studies are a combination of the three approaches. The term for this particular study design is fully integrated mixed studies using an iterative mixed-methods design (Ibid).

Based on the second criterion, the priority, also, mixed method designs, can take different forms. The priority is defined as the greatest emphasis the researcher places on one type of data than on other types of data in the research and the written report (Creswell, 2010). Johnson and Christensen (2012) called it ‘paradigm emphasis’ and classified mixed methods research designs according to this criterion and the timing or sequence of data collection. Figure 4.1 represents mixed methods research designs.

Figure 4.1: Four-dimension matrix of research designs.

		Time Order Decision		
paradigm emphasis		Concurrent		Sequential
	Equal Status	QUAL + QUAN		QUAL → QUAN QUAN → QUAL
	Dominant Status	QUAL + quan QUAN + qual		QUAL → QUAN qual → QUAN QUAN → QUAL quan → QUAL

Source: Johnson and Christensen (2008:242). Note: + indicates the simultaneous or concurrent collection of quantitative and qualitative data. → shows the sequential collection of quantitative and qualitative data. Upper case letters indicate a priority for either the quantitative or qualitative data. Lower case letters indicate a lower priority for either the quantitative or qualitative data.

Creswell (2010) divided the sequential design based on the sequence of qualitative and quantitative data collection methods and the priority or increased weight given to them. On this basis, two important sequential designs can be identified: explanatory sequential and exploratory sequential design (Creswell, 2010). The explanatory sequential design, which is also called a two-phase model (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011), consists of first collecting quantitative data and then collecting qualitative data to help explain or elaborate on the quantitative results. Creswell (2010) suggested that the primary justification for using this type of study is that a generalized picture of the research problem can be obtained using data from quantitative analysis. However, data from quantitative analysis can be added to provide a more in-depth and refined understanding of the problem.

In the exploratory sequential design type of study, qualitative data collection takes precedence. The design sequence is as follows: the first stage involves collecting qualitative data in order to explore a research problem. The second stage involves gathering quantitative data to provide an explanation for whatever relationships were discovered in the qualitative data. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) indicated that this design is usually applied to explore a phenomenon, find out themes, design an instrument, and afterwards test it. Researchers use this design when existing instruments, variables, and measures may not be known or available for the population under study. In this design the greater emphasis is placed on the qualitative data collection.

This research adopts an explanatory sequential design because, as discussed in further detail in section 4.5, two existing predefined questionnaires (MLQ and Dorfman and Howell's (1988) Cultural Values) were employed to collect the majority of the data. This stage serves to offer a generalized picture of the research problem. In addition a number of interview questions were formulated to gather qualitative data in order to enrich the quantitative ones and shed further light on the results.

4.3.2 The implications for research questions

An important implication of design form in mixed methods is the way in which the research questions are formulated.

Creswell (2014:149) identifies three methods for formulating mixed method research questions as follows:

i) To write separate quantitative questions or hypotheses and qualitative questions.

ii) To write separate quantitative questions or hypotheses and qualitative questions and follow them with a mixed methods question.

iii) To write only a mixed methods question that reflects the procedures or the content rather than include separate quantitative and qualitative questions.

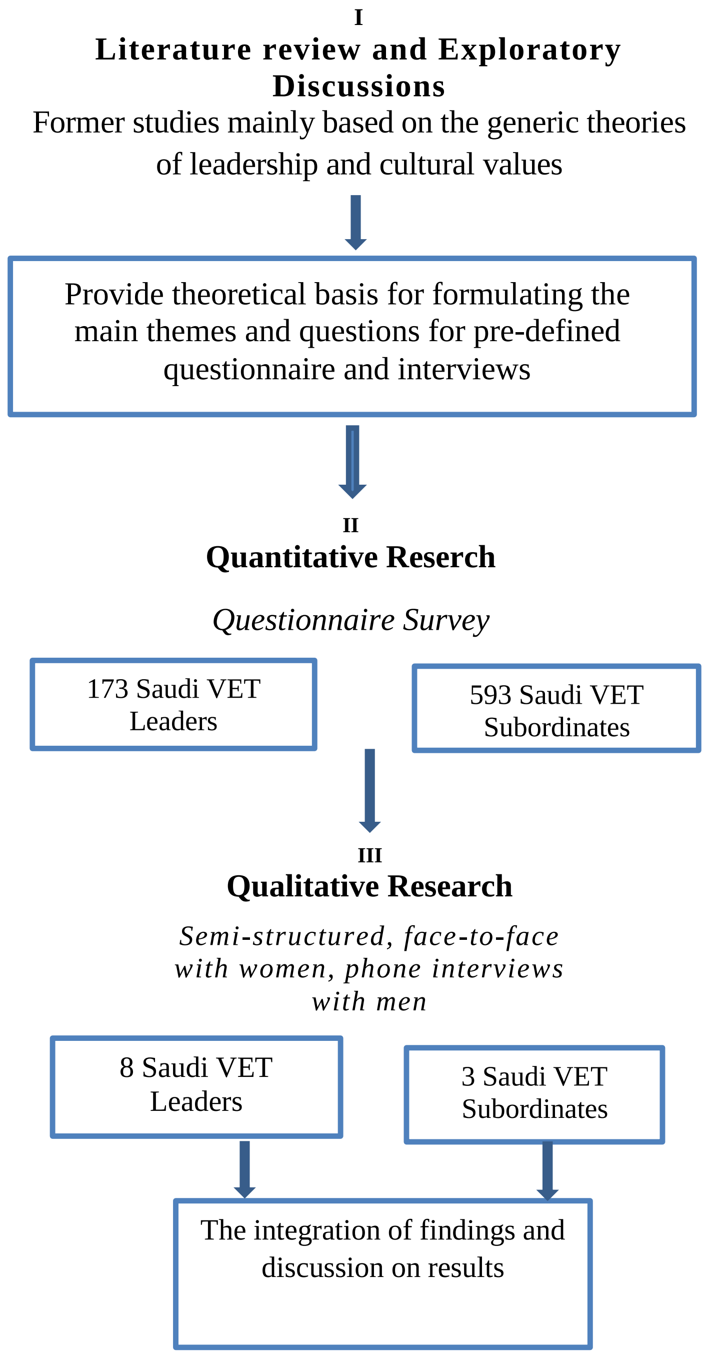
Tashakkori and Creswell (2007) stated that writing mixed method questions, which they called “hybrid” or “integrated” questions, is more common in parallel or concurrent studies than in sequential ones. Given that this research adopted a variant of sequential mixed design, it does not formulate an integrated question and instead, following the first classification set out by Creswell (2014), separate quantitative questions and qualitative questions are formulated. Table 4-3 outlines the main objectives of the research, as indicated in chapter 1, along with qualitative and quantitative questions.

Table 4-3: The main objectives of the research, along with qualitative and quantitative questions

Research main objectives	Quantitative research questions	Qualitative research questions
To identify and explore the dominant leadership styles of VET in Saudi Arabia	What are the dominant leadership styles of Saudi VET Leaders based on MLQ (5X-Short Form)?	How do VET Saudi leaders and raters perceive the leadership styles?
To determine any differences between self and rater perceptions of leadership, to ascertain impact of managerial level (defined as dean and vice-dean), as well as their institutional affiliation to the three different Saudi VET institutes.	Are there any significant differences in the perception of Saudi VET leaders and raters as to leadership styles?	In what ways are VET Saudi leaders and raters' perceptions on leadership styles consistent or otherwise with TL and CSL models?
To examine the possible association of demographic characteristics (gender, age, educational level, and work experience)	What is the difference between demographic groups of Saudi VET leaders and subordinates in perceptions of leadership styles based on MLQ (5X-short Form?	N.A.
To examine the possible association of cultural factors with Saudi VET leadership styles.	What are the dominant Saudi Arabia national culture dimensions based on Dorfman and Howell's CV as perceived by Saudi VET leaders? What is the correlation between Saudi Arabia national culture based on Dorfman and Howell's CV and Saudi VET leadership styles based on MLQ (5X-short Form)?	How do Saudi VET leaders and raters perceive cultural values dimensions and their association with Saudi VET leadership styles?
To further our understanding of the development and current situation of VET in Saudi Arabia.	NA	How have VET institutions originated and evolved in Saudi Arabia?

Figure 4.1 (below) presents a schematic view of the research process. The first stage comprised a literature review to make sense of generic cross-cultural studies in leadership and their application in education settings. A couple of exploratory conversations were also conducted with key respondents, which helped to provide a better understanding of the context under study. These ultimately helped to furnish the study with an initial framework. As discussed earlier in this section, the adoption of mixed methods required qualitative and quantitative data to be collected in a sequential order. Quantitative data were collected through a structured questionnaire survey of 173 Saudi VET leaders and 593 Saudi VET subordinates, while qualitative data were collected in 11 semi-structured interviews, conducted with Saudi VET leaders and subordinates. The remainder of this chapter provides details of the various stages of the data gathering process, both quantitative and qualitative, beginning with the instruments used in the quantitative survey, followed by the semi-structured interviews.

Figure 4.2: Schematic view of the research process



Source: author

4.4 Population and Sampling

An important component of conducting empirical research in social science is to make sense of its target population, which is "the entire set of individuals to which findings of the survey are to be extrapolated" (Levy and Lemeshow, 2008:11). This target population is considered to be the ideal population to be studied, but this ideal is hardly ever achieved in practice, largely because of cost constraints associated with conducting research with a large number of cases. Instead, researchers choose to study a desired number of units, which is technically termed a sample of the population. To execute a real-life social research, researchers also need a sampling frame, which is a listing of elements in the population from which a sample can be drawn. Both quantitative and qualitative research involves sampling people. The main ideas are the population (the target group about whom the researcher is trying to say something) and the sample (the group of people who are the subject of the study and from whom the data is collected). The quantitative sample enables the researcher to analyse the data collected from the sample and to generalize the results to the target population. A sample might be a household or just one person, an administrative record such as a mailing list or a record of telephone numbers. An institution could also provide a sample. "Sampling frames" are usually taken from existing records, which is beneficial for the researcher because the information is easily accessible (Bautista, 2012). However, the findings are based on the research sample, which raises concerns about the extent to which they can be generalized to the target population. Also a researcher might not be able to access a "sampling frame", in which case information would need to be collected from print resources and/or digital databases.

The present study was conducted in several selected VET units: Technical Colleges (TC), Technical Colleges for Girls (TCG) and Vocational Institutes (VI) in Saudi Arabia. Before embarking on the data collection process, the researcher had to first identify the target population for the study and sampling frame. As discussed in greater details in Chapter Three, technical and vocational education in Saudi Arabia is provided under the umbrella of TVTC. The researcher found TVTC very supportive and helpful (see appendix A). The Directorate for Research and Studies of TVTC provided the researcher with a complete list of VET institutions' leaders and subordinates, and their institutional affiliation (2011). In total there are 112 VET units in Saudi Arabia, which had 336 leaders (Dean\Head teacher and Vice-Dean\Vice-Head teacher) and 7447 trainers at the time of conducting the research (September 2011). These constituted the main sampling frame of the study.

Table 4-4: The sampling frame and sample size

		Leaders		Subordinates	
Institutional Category	Level of managers	Population	Sample size	Population	Sample size
TC	Dean of TC	35	35	3650	350
	Vice-Dean for TC	70	70		
VI	Head for VI	63	63	2907	378
	Vice-Head for VI	126	126		
TCG	Dean of TCG	14	14	580	140
	Vice-Dean for TCG	28	28		
Total		336	336	7137	868

Once the target population and sampling frame had been broadly defined, the next step was to carry out the sampling. In mixed methods research, the specific sample should be adopted that suit this design best. The sampling for mixed methods is commonly known as a mixed sampling design and several mixed methods authors offered broad guidelines appropriate to the different mixed methods designs. For instance, Teddlie (2009) suggests that sequential mixed methods sampling involves a sequential use of probability and purposive sampling strategies (QUAN → QUAL), or vice versa (QUAL → QUAN). Similarly Kemper et al. (2003) noted that in sequential mixed models studies, information from the first sample (typically derived from a probability sampling procedure) is often required to draw the second sample (typically derived from a purposive sampling procedure).

However, Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007) warned that most researchers have fallen into the notion of false dichotomy because they often tend to associate random sampling techniques with the quantitative strand, and non-random sampling techniques with the qualitative strand, while the most common combination in mixed methods research is that of non-random sampling techniques (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007). Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007) have presented a matrix of types of sampling scheme that represents how often mixed methods research and researchers combine random sampling techniques with non-random sampling techniques. This is shown in Figure 4.3.

Figure 4.3: Matrix crossing type of sampling scheme

Quantitative Components	Qualitative Components: Random sampling	Qualitative Components: Non-random sampling
Random sampling	Rare combination (Type 1)	Occasional combination (Type 2)
Non-random sampling	Very rare combination (Type 3)	Frequent combination (Type 4)

Source: Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007:284)

Onwuegbuzie and Collins (2007) emphasized that Type 4 is the most common combination of sampling schemes used in current mixed methods studies. Similarly, Teddlie (2009) stated that a well-known mixed method sampling type is stratified purposive sampling. The stratified nature of this sampling procedure is similar to probability sampling, and the small number of cases it generates is characteristic of purposive sampling. In this technique,

> the researcher first identifies the subgroups of the population of interest and then selects cases from each sub group in a purposive manner. This allows the researcher to discover and describe in detail characteristics that are similar or different across the strata or subgroups.
> (Teddlie, 2009:186).

Another common mixed method sampling technique is random purposive sampling which involves taking a random sample of units in the purposefully selected target population (Kemper, et al., 2003). The logic behind using random sampling with purposive sampling is to add trustworthiness, and not generalizability, to the findings.

In order to address the focus of the thesis comprehensively, an attempt was made by the researcher to make the sample as inclusive and as representative as possible. For the leaders, the number of cases in the population was 336 leaders in total. Therefore it was manageable to send a total number of 336 questionnaires to all leaders and thus the sampling design was not considered. For the raters, however, random purposive sampling was employed. This particular technique of sampling allows the researcher to specify some demographic features such as institutional affiliation (TC, VI and TCG).

With respect to the qualitative strand, a stratified purposive sampling technique was used. Stratified purposive sampling involves dividing the purposefully selected target population into strata with the goal of discovering elements that are similar or different across sub-groups (Kemper et al., 2003). According to Patton (2002) ‘a stratified purposeful sample’ aims to reveal variations in data as opposed to revealing a common core. However, whilst stratification produces random samples, it might also produce samples which are quite homogeneous.

Another important consideration for mixed method sampling is the relationship between the samples of quantitative and qualitative strands, which is called the ‘sample relationship criterion’ (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007; Johnson and Christensen, 2012). Four different relationship criteria between the quantitative and qualitative samples are involved in a mixed methods study: identical relationship, parallel relationship, nested relationship and multilevel relationship. The samples involved in this study had a nested relation, which means that “the participants selected for one phase of the study represent a subset of those participants who were selected for the other phase of the study” (Johnson and Christensen, 2012:238). In this thesis, first a survey was conducted with a large number of leaders and subordinates in the quantitative strand of analysis and then a subset of those participants with particular characteristics was chosen for further qualitative investigation. This will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter Six. At the end of all questionnaires, respondents who were willing to participate further were invited to give their contact details or contact the researcher by email or mobile phone.

4.5 Survey Instruments

In this study, the researcher used two main research instruments for collecting quantitative data: the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X rater form) and Dorfman and Howell's (1988) Cultural Values.

4.5.1 Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X rater form)

A short time after Bass's 1985 book was published, Bass teamed up with Avolio and the authors published the "Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)". Since its publication the MLQ has been subject to a number of revisions in order to improve its evaluation of the constituent parts of transactional and transformational leadership. It was instrumental in revitalizing the existing literature and it made a substantial impact on the field, as it provided researchers with improved access to an easy to use and well-tested questionnaire. The MLQ has been widely criticized but nevertheless it has become the key leadership questionnaire amongst researchers (Bass and Avolio, 1989). The MLQ has been revised three times and the current version (MLQ-5X), has been implemented in all imaginable organizational settings, at all levels, and across most continents. It would be accurate to state that hundreds of dissertations, theses, and research articles on leadership have been based on the MLQ (Goethals et al., 2004, Avolio and Bass, 2004).

The first published version of the MLQ contained 67 items measuring the full range of leadership model, which includes the components of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. Included in this model were 37 items assessing transformational leadership, along with nine items measuring outcomes. The current version of the MLQ is the MLQ (5-X Form). There are two versions of this survey instrument: (a) the short version and (b) the long version. The MLQ (5-X Short Form) version contains 45 items and is recommended for organizational surveys and research purposes (Avolio and Bass, 2004). The MLQ 5-X Long version contains 63 items and is recommended for leadership development and training programmes, as well as for providing feedback to individuals during these programmes (Avolio and Bass, 2004; Bass and Riggio, 2006).

The instrument selected for this study is the MLQ (5-X Short Form). In comparison to the first published version of the MLQ, the MLQ (5-X Short Form) has been refined substantially. Of its 45 items, the first 36 evaluate the nine leadership components that were also included in the first published version (Avolio and Bass, 2004), four items for each component. These leadership components also represent the independent variables in this study. The nine leadership components include (a) idealized influence (attributed charisma), (b) idealized influence (behaviour), (c) inspirational motivation, (d) intellectual stimulation, (e) individualized consideration, (f) contingent reward, (g) management-by-exception (active), (h) management-by-exception (passive), and (i) laissez-faire (Avolio and Bass, 2004).

Table 4.5 describes the components of transformational leadership and the item number in the MLQ (5-X Short Form) linked to these transformational components. A sample item that the leader answers is also provided for the first three components (Avolio and Bass, 2004).

Table 4-5: MLQ (5-X Short Form) Items Linked to the Components of Transformational Leadership in the Leader Form

Transformational Leadership Component	Item Number	Sample Item
Idealized Influence (Attributed Charisma)	10, 18, 21, 25	I instil pride in others for being associated with me.
Idealized Influence (Behaviours)	6, 14, 23, 34	I talk about my most important values and beliefs.
Inspirational Motivation	9, 13, 26, 36	I talk optimistically about the future.
Intellectual Stimulation	2, 8, 30, 32	
Individualized Consideration	15, 19, 29, 31	

Table 4.6 describes the components of transactional leadership and the item numbers in the MLQ (5-X Short Form) linked to these transactional components. A sample item that the leader answers for two components is also provided (Avolio and Bass, 2004).

Table 4-6: MLQ (5-X Short Form) Items Linked to the Components of Transactional Leadership in the Leader Form

Transactional Leadership Component	Item Number	Sample Item
Contingent Reward	1, 11, 16, 35	I express satisfaction when others meet expectations
Management-by-Exception (Active)	4, 22, 24, 27	I keep track of all mistakes
Management-by-Exception (Passive)	3, 12, 17, 20	

In addition to these 36 items, there are nine additional items that measure three leadership outcome scales. They include (a) the leader's effectiveness, (b) satisfaction with the leader, and (c) extra effort on part of the followers (Antonakis et al., 2003; Avolio and Bass, 2004; Bass and Riggio, 2006). These, however, were not included in this research, as the outcomes they measure are outside the scope of the research questions.

The MLQ (5-X Short Form) uses a five point rating scale, "with anchors ranging from 0 = Not at all to 4 = frequently, if not always" (Bass and Riggio, 2006: 20). The MLQ (5-X Short Form) scale scores are “average scores for the items on the scale. The score can be derived by summing the items and dividing by the number of items that make up the scale” (Avolio and Bass, 2004:107). For example, the average score for intellectual stimulation would be the total sum of the items divided by four.

The short and long versions of the MLQ 5-X are available in two formats. The first form is the Leader Form, where the leader rates his/her own leadership behaviours. The second form is the Rater Form, where the leader's associates rate the frequency of the leader's behaviours. Both leader and rater forms use the same five point rating scale to assess the leader's transformational, transactional, and *laissez-faire* leadership behaviours (Bass and Riggio, 2006).

It is important to note that in order to fully examine the leadership styles, both Leader and Rater Forms should be completed. Bass and Riggio (2006: 20) state that “research has shown that self-ratings of one's own leader behaviour are prone to bias. Therefore, the more important version of the MLQ is the Rater Form" (Bass and Riggio, 2006:20). They continued, "The Rater Form is most commonly used in research to measure transformational and transactional leadership" (Bass and Riggio, 2006: 20). Interestingly, this bias is the result of a phenomenon referred to as the Hawthorne effect. The effect is named after the famous Hawthorne Factory Studies conducted in the late 1920's. Researchers found that factory workers performed better because they knew they were being observed (Cooper and Schindler, 2006; Von Ber, 2004). The same effect applies to the administration of survey questionnaires. Von Ber (2004:47) states that "just because subjects agree to participate and know that you are observing them, their performance might improve". Therefore, in order to minimize the Hawthorne effect in this study, it was important to survey both leaders and raters with the respective MLQ (5-X Short Forms).

The researcher obtained the copyright to reproduce the MLQ 5X (rater form) from Mind Garden Incorporated, which holds the licence to distribute the questionnaire. Due to the copyright control over the questionnaire, the researcher was only able to show five sample items in this thesis. The questionnaire was designed in English. However, an Arabic version of the questionnaire was already available.

Avolio and Bass (2004) suggest that the greater mean score on any of the leadership dimensions would most likely represent the preferred leadership style of the groups or individuals being investigated. For optimal leadership, a mean of 3.0 or higher should be reflected on all of the five transformational leadership dimensions (Bass and Riggio, 2006). The mean rating of CR and MBEA should ideally be about 2.5, while the MBEP and LF leadership should average 1.0 or below (Bass, 1998).

Avolio and Bass (2004) also state that the MLQ has been thoroughly scrutinized regarding reliability and validity. During tests, MLQ Form 5X revealed

> good to excellent internal consistency, with alpha coefficients above the .80 level for all MLQ scales, using the most recent version of the MLQ across a large sample.
> (Bass and Riggio, 2006:22)

This study used the Arabic version of MLQ. Consequently, the researcher was of the opinion that internal reliability checks were crucial. The details of a reliability check using alpha coefficients for this study are indicated in Chapter Five under section 5.3.1.

4.5.2 Dorfman and Howell's (1988) Cultural Values Scale

Dorfman and Howell's (1988) scales measure five cultural dimensions. Four of these are similar to the first four dimensions identified by Hofstede (1980): power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism, and masculinity/femininity (see Appendix D).The most obvious difference is the formulation of a paternalism dimension, added to Hofstede's classification. In addition, as indicated in section 2.5.2, Hofstede's survey was formulated predominantly to measure cultural values at the national (macro) level while Dorfman and Howell's (1988) cultural values scales can measure different levels of analyses.

The instrument is a revised version of the culture scale reported in a 1989 article in *Advances in International Comparative Management*. Items use a 5-point response format ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Six items measure power distance; five items, uncertainty avoidance; six items, individualism/collectivism; five items, masculinity/femininity (gender roles), and seven items, paternalism (which was not used in this study).

In addition to the original study, in which Dorfman and Howell's (1988) used this instrument to measure the cultural dimensions of Chinese, American in Taiwan, Mexican, and American in Mexico nationalities, the instrument was validated by Segal et al. (1998) on data collected from six distinct nationalities of students in the United States: American, Columbian, Filipino, Haitian, Trinidadian., and West Indian. Furthermore, Robertson and his colleagues (2002) have utilised Dorfman and Howell's (1988) instrument to discover the relationship between Arab values and work beliefs in three Arab countries, Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Oman. Factor means of these studies by cultural group and cultural dimensions are presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4-7: Studies using Dorfman and Howell's (1988) instrument to measure cultural differences

	Cultural Groups	PD	UA	IND/CO	MAS/FAM
Dorfman and Howell (1988)	Chinese	2.99 (.80)	4.71 (.57)	4.25 (.65)	3.69 (81)
	US in Taiwan	2.52 (.59)	3.67 (.67)	2.25 (.27)	1.69 (.84)
	Mexican	2.58 (.65)	4.18 (.70)	3.32 (.70)	2.65 (.86)
	US in Mexico	1.86 (.62)	3.41 (.96)	2.19 (.47)	2.78 (.77)
Segal et al. (1998)	US	2.13	4.17	3.29	1.86
	Columbian	3.01	4.27	3.73	2.96
	Filipino	2.39	4.55	3.79	2.64
	Trinidad	2.12	4.42	3.44	1.63
	West Indian	2.24	4.48	3.16	1.48
Robertson et al. (2002)	Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Oman	2.61 (.83)	4.49 (.54)	4.07 (.72)	3.02 (1.12)

Sources: Dorfman and Howell (1988:137), Segal et al. (1998), Robertson et al. (2002)

The scale's reliability has been satisfactory and consistent in studies performed with both Mexican and Chinese managers. The reliabilities (Cronbach's α) for the current study, and those for Dorfman and Howell's 1988 study of Chinese managers (in parentheses) are as follows: individualism/ collectivism .57 (.63), masculinity .77 (.80), power distance .62 (.63), and uncertainty avoidance .62 (.73). Segal et al. (1998) examined the instrument's reliability using coefficient alpha for the instrument as a whole and by cultural group. The results appear in Table 4.8. Overall reliabilities ranged from a low of .69 for power distance to high of .90 for sex roles. They report that the reliability estimates for the scales across cultures are relatively consistent.

Table 4-8: Reliability Analysis Coefficient Alpha by Scale and Cultural Group in Segal et al. (1998)

	PD	UA	IND/CO	MAS
All Cultures	.69	.80	.73	.90
American	.57	.75	.79	.85
Columbian	.90	.84	.68	.95
Filipino	.69	.62	.76	.87
Haitian	.69	.79	.56	.78
Trinidad	.76	.76	.77	.84
West Indians	.54	.70	.69	.93

Source: Segal et al. (1998:38)

There is no need for permission from the authors to use Dorfman and Howell's (1988) CVS. The English–language questionnaire was professionally translated into Arabic then translated back from Arabic to English by the Department of Translation in the Public Administration Institute, and reviewed voluntarily by Translation Department in King Saud University, to ensure that the terminology corresponded to that used by the target population.

4.6 Interview

The interview is a sort of conversation with a purpose. It is ranked the method most used for gathering data in social research. This could be because the interview appears to be a quite straightforward and non-problematic approach to finding things out (Robson, 2011). This method of data collection involves oral questions by the interviewer and oral response by the interviewee (Gillham, 2005). The main goal of interviewing is to realize what is in and on someone else's mind (Collis and Hussey, 2009). In social research there are four forms of interview used. These forms are the group interview (focus group), structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews. In moving from the structured interview to unstructured interview, researchers move from a situation where the researcher controls the interview through predetermining questions, to a more natural style of conversation in which the respondent is encouraged to answer a question in his or her own words (May,2001).

A structured interview is similar to a questionnaire and has similar advantages and disadvantages. The main advantage of semi-structured and unstructured interviews, in contrast is their flexibility. They allow the researcher to adapt and alter interview questions to suit the situation or respondent. In addition, there are sufficient opportunities to explain the overall research aims, issues, and clarify any vaguest points. The flexibility of this method allows questions to be changed, omitted or added as required, which is not possible in the case of a questionnaire.

The second advantage to this method is that the researcher can gain many detailed responses to the questions which will contribute to meaningful results because it gives the respondents ability and freedom to think aloud and reflect on events by expressing their opinion. Thirdly, it allows the researcher to ask follow up questions, which is not possible with a questionnaire (Collis and Hussey, 2009).

On the other hand, the interview method has disadvantages. The whole process of the interview could be labelled as costly and time consuming, especially if there are a large number of respondents to be interviewed in dispersed geographical locations. It needs analytical skills and patience; due to the rich data from this method, it can be extremely difficult to analyse and tabulate. Transcription takes many times the duration of the interview. Researchers should not underestimate the amount of time needed to transcribe the data. Finally, a number of data quality issues can be identified in relation to the use of semi-structured and in-depth interviews, related to reliability; forms of bias; validity and generalizability (Collis and Hussey, 2009; Hall and Hall, 1996).

4.6.1 The Semi-Structured Interview Schedule

In this study, the semi-structured interview was chosen as an appropriate approach to obtain the deep data needed to complement the questionnaire. Interview participants consisted of 11 Saudi VETs leaders and subordinates. Drawing on the main research aims, two strands of questions were formulated. The first strand of questions sought to elicit information on leadership practices and styles from the perspective of the leaders themselves. Drawing on Herman and Egri's (2002) approach to constructing interview questions, the researcher developed the questions with the focus on eliciting respondents' opinions on what they believed would be the most important leadership styles and skills needed to be effective and successful in their units. These questions were largely intended to gain insight into their behaviour and leadership styles. It was hoped that the interviews would provide information on a culturally contingent concept of the leadership styles as perceived by Saudi VET leaders and subordinates. The second strand of questions concerned cultural factors. They first asked respondents about their perceptions of cultural values in the workplace, and the extent to which they thought these shape and influence their leadership styles. These questions asked about issues related to the core concepts of cultural values dimensions (excluding paternalism) as developed by Dorfman and Howell (1988). The list of interview questions is included in Appendix E and F.

4.6.2 Translation of interview schedule

When the semi-structured interview was ready, it was translated from English into Arabic, because the intended participants of this study were native Arabic speakers. The technique of back-translation was used. The researcher benefited from the expert translator working in the translation department in the King Saud University.

4.6.3 Conducting pilot interviews

A pilot test of the semi-structured interview schedule was conducted in order to find out whether it was usable and could provide the needed information. Researchers have argued that all types of questionnaires and interviews must be pilot tested (Fink and Kosecoof, 1998). When the draft of the schedule was completed, the researcher distributed copies of it to selected staff and PhD students in the field of management in Hull University and in the Institute of Public Administration in Saudi Arabia. The researcher asked them to give their opinion as to whether the schedule was clear and easy to understand, and whether they had suggestions or recommendations to improve it.

Similarly, copies of the schedule were given to two academics specialising in management after completing the translation from English to Arabic. One of them was from King Saud University and the other one from the Institute of Public Administration. They were asked to assess the content of the schedule and whether the interview questions were appropriate for the people who were to be interviewed. Also, they were asked whether they had any additional comments or suggestions. Two pilot interviews were conducted to help estimating the length of time interview would take and to find out whether there were any ambiguities. These measures were taken to revise the contents and formats of questions as well as to improve the researcher's knowledge and skill in using the voice recorder (i.e. how to open files in the recorder, record the interview, pause when disturbed by visitors or incoming calls, gauge the average recording time and related issues).

4.6.4 Quality Issues of Semi-Structured Interviews

Using semi-structured interviews has been identified with some quality issues related to reliability, validity and forms of bias (Saunders et al., 2009). Semi-structured interviews may demonstrate or permit a lack of standardisation (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). The lack of standardisation of semi-structured interviews leads to reliability concerns, such as the issue of bias (Easterby-Smith et al., 2002). Saunders et al. (2009) pointed out three types of bias. The first is related to researcher or interviewer bias, which includes comments, tone or non-verbal behaviour of the interviewer. These could create bias in the way that respondents respond to the questions being asked. The second type is related to interviewee bias, which could result from prejudging the interviewer. The last type is related to the nature of individual or organizational participants.

In this study, every effort was made to avoid interviewer bias due to the comments, tone or non-verbal behaviour which could influence the way that respondents responded to the questions being asked. Interviewees' bias was also reduced by gaining their trust and emphasising confidentially. It is worth mentioning that all the participants were given freedom to answer questions in their own way, with no constraints imposed. The researcher probed and asked the respondents to elaborate on certain responses and asked the same questions in different ways in order to validate their earlier responses. The researcher controlled the time with care, as advised by Ghauri and Grouhaug (2002).

Moreover, since the researcher works outside the VET sector, she had no vested interest in presenting a particular pattern of responses, and no power to affect participants' careers or work conditions. Thus, participants had no reason to fear the consequences of expressing their views, and no incentive to give supposedly 'desirable' answers.

Bryman and Bell (2007) pointed out that whereas reliability in the positivist paradigm, quantitative research, aims to determine whether a similar interpretation would be made on different occasions, by different observers, there are arguments regarding the concept of reliability in qualitative research. The reasons behind this debate are related to the nature and complexity of the phenomenon under investigation. Easterby-Smith et al. (1991) assert that reliability is concerned with whether alternative interviews would disclose similar information. However, the general consensus among qualitative researchers is that it is preferable to apply alternative criteria, as dependability, trustworthiness and authenticity (Collis and Hussey 2009; Bryman and Bell 2007). Dependability is about merit and trustworthiness in qualitative research. Trustworthiness concerns the degree to which a study can be checked. Authenticity is related to the ability of the investigation to grasp a consensus of interpretations (views) on what is to be regarded as truth.

Overall, these criteria reflect the soundness of qualitative research, which is like the concept of reliability in quantitative research. Also, they improve the validity of the research, as pointed out by Creswell and Miller (2000). Indeed, throughout the whole investigation, all measures were taken to ensure that these criteria were met. Every effort was made in this study to eliminate or minimize bias.

Another problem associated with qualitative data collection and analysis is internal consistency which arises because of the possibility of bias and error in the data (Ward and Street, 2010). This can be caused because an individual has a biased view that produces inaccuracies in the collected data. In a qualitative analysis, such problems can be reduced by the use of multiple sources and types of data (Yin, 2008). In this thesis, the qualitative and quantitative data were gathered through interviews and questionnaires collected from a number of different VET institutions and from leaders in two different managerial levels, as well as raters. In this way, the problem of internal consistency is minimised.

4.7 Data Collection Procedure

This section explains the data collection procedure involved in this study. The researcher carried out a field trip to Saudi Arabia for the data collection process. The data collection process for the survey lasted four months and for the interviews took one month to complete. Because the research utilised the sequential mixed methods research design, the data for the quantitative strand was followed by the qualitative strand within the time period.

4.7.1 Ethics

Any researcher has a responsibility to ensure the physical, social and psychological well-being of research participants, along with their interests, sensitivity and privacy. Burgess (1989) mentions some ethical principles: whether there is harm to participants; lack of informed consent; invasion of privacy; and deception. In this study, some people might view the topic as sensitive. Therefore, at the data collecting stage the researcher ensured that in the cover letter accompanying the questionnaire and before conducting the interview, the purpose of the study and the importance of its contribution were pointed out. Also, the meaning and limits of confidentiality were made clear to participants. In addition, the researcher gave assurances that the identity of individuals would be separated from the information they gave. The procedure that the researcher used to ensure anonymity was not to require names and other means of identifying participants to be given in questionnaire responses. The researcher tried to establish trust and credibility. Participants were assured that the information would be used for academic purposes, and that they had the right to withdraw at any time. Moreover, the researcher promised to protect the participants' identity and place of work. Confidentiality was assured at the very outset of the research process. The researcher worked consistently throughout all stages in the research process to ensure high standards in all these areas.

The researcher provided her telephone number and e-mail address on the cover letter of the questionnaire to enable respondents to call her if they had any questions or wished to clarify any ambiguity.

4.7.2 Pilot Study

Johnson and Christensen (2008) recommend that questionnaires should be piloted to make sure they work before they are used as part of the research study. Cohen et al. (2011:402) state that a pilot questionnaire can add to the "reliability, validity and practicability of the questionnaire." A pilot study can also help to clarify any questions that are unclear or ambiguous.

According to Avolio and Bass (2004), the MLQ is easily administered and takes an average of 15 minutes to complete. Bearing this in mind, the researcher targeted a maximum of three days for the participants to answer the questionnaire. The Arabic versions of the MLQ Form5X leaders' and raters' questionnaires were also given to a number of trainers and PhD students. Also, Dorfman and Howell's (1988) Cultural Values forms were given to the same people who had the leaders' form. The pilot study was conducted mainly to ensure the clarity of the Arabic questionnaire items. Since no revision to the questionnaire was suggested, it was assumed that questions were clear and there was no need to change any words.

4.7.3 Administration of the Questionnaire

The researcher obtained a support letter from the Saudi Cultural Bureau, which identified her as a PhD student, and explained the purpose of this study and how the personnel of those departments could contribute significantly to this study by answering the questionnaire. With the aid of this letter, the researcher approached the Vice-governor for Planning and Development of TVTC. He agreed to allow the researcher to distribute the questionnaire and offered help from the Department of Research and Professional Studies (see appendix A). To help obtain the cooperation of respondents, a cover letter was also attached to the questionnaires. This was prepared bearing in mind that the cover letter should be

> eye-catching (yet professional), clear (but brief), and compelling (but neutral). The letter must stand out from the welter of junk mail most people receive and must speak for the researcher to the respondent, addressing the key obstacles to cooperation.
> (Czaja and Blair, 1996: 82).

Czaja and Blair (1996) recommend that a researcher should send a polite and well written covering letter including a personal greeting (whenever possible). The letter should give an outline of the proposed research study, an account of what is involved and the reason for approaching the specific stakeholders, clear guidance, an assurance that confidentiality and anonymity will be respected, and lastly details about how and where the researcher can be contacted should be given. For the purposes of this study, the confidentiality clause was highlighted as this served to protect anonymity and acted as a form of reassurance to participants, which in turn, increased their willingness to take part in the survey (Bryman and Bell, 2007; Saunders et al, 2009).

The issue of timing was a vital consideration because of its potential effects on response rate. Gillham (2000: 46) suggests that holiday times or times when organizations tend to be closed should be avoided, as should “exceptionally busy” periods. In this respect, the summer months seemed to be problematic, because all trainers and most leaders were likely to be away on holiday. The periods shortly before or after term exams might also cause problems, as most trainers would be preparing exams or marking the students' assignments. In the case of leaders, however, this timing seemed less problematic. In view of these observations and considering the timeframe of the study, it was decided to approach Saudi VET leaders and raters at the beginning of September 2011, thus avoiding both the summer months and exam times.

The method of delivery for the questionnaires was another issue to resolve. Delivery options included either in person or by post. The main method was by post. A package which included a covering letter, a questionnaire and a postage-paid return envelope, was sent to all respondents. This method was judged as the most efficient and it complies with the convenience factor as noted by Hague (1992). The mailing package included an endorsement letter from the TVTC Vice-governor for Planning and Development. The researcher was also very fortunate to have the informal support of the Council of Technical and Vocational Training in encouraging the VET institutions to complete the questionnaires. In fact, the Council pre-notified the managers of VET by telephone and emails. These procedures helped to reassure respondents and to increase the level of participation.

There were two distinct phases to administration of the questionnaires: preparation and posting. Lists were made of the addresses and names provided in the sample frame, then questionnaires, covering letters, requests forms and return envelopes were printed three weeks before distribution. A total of 1204 questionnaires, including MLQ Form5X leader plus Dorfman and Howell's (1988) Cultural Values questionnaire (336) and rater forms (868) were posted to the addresses of 112 VET institutions in Saudi Arabia in

September 2011. In the first instance, 234 completed questionnaires were returned, which was considered an unsatisfactory response rate. A record of names and addresses was compiled.

A number of authors including Hague (1992), Saunders et al, (2009) and Bryman and Bell (2007) have emphasized the importance of follow-up letters as a way of increasing levels of participation. Based on Hague (1992), the researcher produced a second cover letter designed specifically for the second mailing. The second letter reiterated that contributions from participants were highly valued and it restated the aims of the research. An apology was included with this letter as it was possible that the reminder might cross with a response to the first request. The second letters were all sent by post in late October 2011. The researcher contacted some units (from which, still, no responses were received) to ask about the questionnaires. Some of the units, located away from the main cities reported that the mail had only just arrived and the return might take a long time, so, some respondents scanned their questionnaires and sent it by email. After that, the overall response rate was satisfactory.

These measures resulted in the return of 532 additional questionnaires. All in all, 770 questionnaires were returned. Of 770 responses, 766 were usable. Four were eliminated because there were too many blanks (uncompleted items) in the questionnaire. The number of questionnaires distributed and the number of questionnaires received is presented in Table 4.9.

Table 4-9: The response rate for all participants in TVTC

	Surveys distributed	Surveys received	Response rate
Dean of TC	35	17	49%
Vice-Dean for TC	70	34	49%
Head for VI	63	34	54%
Vice-Head for VI	126	50	40%
Dean of TCG	14	14	100%
Vice-Dean for TCG	28	24	86%
Total of Leaders' Questionnaires	336	173	51%
TC Trainers	350	162	46%
VI Trainers	378	301	79%
TCG Trainers	140	130	92%
Total of Raters' Questionnaires	868	593	68%

As presented in Table 4.9, the response rate for leaders and raters in all the institutions involved in this study ranged from 49% to 100%, with a total of 51% for the leaders and 68% for the raters. Although a response rate of 70% and higher is considered desirable (Johnson and Christensen, 2008), Baruch (1999) examined 175 different studies and found that on average, most of them yielded a response rate of 55.6%, with a standard deviation of 19.7. Baruch (1999) suggested that the acceptable response rate for any study directed toward organizational personnel such as rank and file or middle level managers should be 36%, with a standard deviation of 13. Hence, the response rate for this study can be considered acceptable.

4.7.4 Interview Process

It was indicated that for the qualitative strand, a stratified purposive sampling technique was applied in which some subgroups in a population are first identified and then from each subgroup a number of cases are purposively selected. It was also discussed that the relation between the two stands of sampling is the nested one in that the respondents selected for one phase of the study represent a subset of those participants who were selected for the other phase of the study. Based on these principles, the information generated through the quantitative strand was used to select participants with particular characteristics for the qualitative strand. The interviews involved 11 participants. All participants answered the first category of interview questions concerning the perceptions of leaders and raters as to Saudi Arabia VET leadership styles. The participants were divided into two main sub-groups of leaders and raters. Based on the information gathered in the quantitative stage, four additional categories were identified among them: five leaders who had the highest scores on the self-perceived transformational leadership style; three leaders who had the highest scores on the self-perceived transactional leadership, two raters who gave the highest scores for perceived transformational style leadership style and one rater whose highest score was for perceived transactional leadership style.

Once the participants were chosen based on the criteria indicated above, the researcher asked permission from the Directorate for Research and Study of the TVTC to conduct some interviews with a number of men and women, as he had background information on the research and already had a copy of the questionnaire. As it was clear that further co-operation was needed from a number of participants, he said there was no need for permission as emails could be sent to arrange suitable times to interview women in their offices in their units, and men by phone. The researcher checked their availability by e-mail, detailing the position of the researcher, what the study was about and how the information obtained from the interview would be highly beneficial to the study. Copies of the interview schedules for leaders and raters are attached as Appendix E and F. The researcher made it clear that participation was voluntary. When the participants confirmed their agreement, the researcher arranged convenient dates, depending on their schedules. All interviews were conducted on different days.

Before each interview session began, the participants were given assurance that all information gathered from the interview would be analysed in such a way as to maintain the anonymity of the participants. The participants were also told that they could withdraw at any stage of the study without having to give any reasons, and that their withdrawal would not have any implications for them, their institutions or to this study.

The interviews were carried out over a three-week period, and conducted shortly after the results of quantitative analysis were available to the researcher. All interviews were conducted at the participants' offices for women and by phone for men and in strict confidentiality. No other person apart from the respective interview participant was present when the interviews were conducted. All interviews were audio taped except one, as the participant concerned preferred not to be recorded but this participant allowed note-taking. Field notes were also taken by the researcher to highlight some of the more important points of the interview. It is important for the researcher to record interviews by using a tape recorder or taking notes. The advantage of note taking is that it is straightforward without need for any technology, which may go wrong. Nevertheless, the interview notes should be written up immediately while the information is still fresh in the researcher’s mind. Another major advantage of taking notes is that the amount of data is reduced compared to what is that yielded by the tape recorder. However, the disadvantage of taking notes is that it makes the interview less interesting, with pauses for writing, and some silence. The writing up will be lost if there is a delay (Hall and Hall, 1996). The use of audiotape to record interviews was one of the techniques utilised by the researcher to improve rigour in this study. Mays and Pope (1995:110) believe that "one of the advantages of audiotaping or videotaping is the opportunity the tapes offer for subsequent analysis by independent observers". The disadvantage of using a tape recorder is that the data is in a mass, which then has to be transcribed fully. In some cases some people may find the tape recorder constraining/inhibiting and not wish to record conversation. Therefore, it is necessary to ask the permission of respondents before using a tape recorder (Collis and Hussey: 2009).

The researcher, after each interview, wrote out a transcript then sent it by email to the participant, asking them to check it and give approval or delete anything they did not approve.

4.8 Data Analysis Procedure

The data obtained from the questionnaires and interviews were analysed separately. The results of the analysis formed the basis of this study's discussion and conclusion.

4.8.1 Quantitative Analysis

The data obtained from the questionnaires was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 19 software. The analyses included:

1. Cronbach Alpha - to determine the internal consistency and reliability of the questionnaire.
2. Descriptive analysis - to analyse the demographics and background of the respondents.
3. T-test - to determine any significant differences between the leadership styles as perceived by leaders and raters
4. ANOVA test - to determine any significant differences in demographic characteristics of leaders and raters.
5. Simple Multiple Regression – to analyse the correlation between CV and leadership styles as perceived by leaders.

The details of quantitative data analysis are discussed in Chapter 5.

4.8.2 Qualitative Analysis

The process of data analysis for qualitative data gathered through interviews carried out through integrated three-step analysis detailed as follows:

Step 1: Transcription and translation

After the interviews had been carried out, the tapes were transcribed using word-processing software. The literature largely suggests that interviews can be transcribed by other people than the researcher. It is argued that it increases the 'interpretative validity of the study'. Interpretive validity refers to "accurately portraying the meaning attached by participants to what is being studied by the researcher" (Johnson and Christensen, 2012:587). However, all the interviews were transcribed by the author herself due to time and resource limitations and also in order to get a feeling for the data. The transcripts were then translated into English. Nikander (2008) described transcription and translation as a process of 'double rendering' which add an extra layer of complication to the accuracy of data. In order to remedy this problem, he recommended comparing and refining transcripts and translations in groups. Taking this advice in mind, in the second version of these transcripts, the service of two postgraduate students majoring in linguistics and TESOL were used to verify the original transcripts with the audio taped interview and translated transcripts.

Step 2: Coding and categorising

The transcribed interviews were read through several times to familiarise the researcher with the data and the content. Once the researcher had made sense of the data, the coding process commenced. Gibbs (2007) distinguished between two different approaches as to coding: concept-driven and data-driven coding. Concept driven codes come from the research literature and are applied to data while in data-driven coding a researcher does not start with such preconceptions but rather seeks to build concepts from data (Gibbs, 2007). Although qualitative research typically focuses on data-driven coding, in practice researchers tend to take an iterative analytical stand which lies somewhere between pure inductive data-driven coding on one extreme and pure deductive concept-driven coding on the other extreme. As Chamberlain (2012) notes social researchers

> tend to start inductively before gradually moving backwards and forwards between their empirical data and the research literature surrounding their topic as data analysis progresses and they seek to refine their emerging analytical framework.
> Chamberlain (2012:83)

For the purpose of this study an iterative process was used which combined concept-driven and data driven coding methods.

Step 3: Developing interpretations by comparing and contrasting

The individual statements or constructs coded within specific categories were then compared with each other in order to filter differences and/or similarities. In cases in which categories were broad, they were refined. While some researchers prefer to define a category so narrowly as to ensure one-for-one mappings to a single construct, at times defining a category as a word or set of words was not possible and thus the researcher chose to define a category as a coherent group of sentences. It was largely because this exposes the coder to the broader context of the discussion and is more likely to yield reliable coding. In some cases it was also impossible to disentangle a category into leadership dimensions or cultural dimensions without breaking important linkages. As practitioners can generally not be expected to use advanced academic language (as used in specialist discussion on leadership or cultural values) to describe their world, in field research, it was the researcher who related specific practices to underlying technical terms. It should also be mentioned that, on several occasions, the researcher tracked back and forth between transcripts and literature to inform later interviews.

4.5 Summary

This chapter has examined the methodological considerations applicable to a study of this kind and described in detail the choices made and procedures followed at each stage of the research design and implementation. It began by discussing the central conceptual issues, taking research philosophy and design. The choices made at each level were set out and explained. It was indicated that the main research design adopted here was an explanatory sequential design in which extensive quantitative data collection was followed by collecting qualitative data to help explain or elaborate on the quantitative results. There was then a description of the qualitative and quantitative data collection methods used, including the selection of a research sample for the fieldwork and the administrative procedures followed. After a description and justification of the data analysis procedures which were adopted, the chapter ended with a consideration of the data analysis procedure. The results of the data analysis are set out in detail in the two chapters which follow, beginning with the quantitative data gathered by questionnaires with VET leaders and raters in Saudi Arabia.

Chapter: 5 Data Analysis and Results

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter explained that this follows a mixed method design based on quantitative and qualitative methods. Analysis of the quantitative data will be provided in this chapter, with aim of addressing the quantitative aspects of the research questions. The subsequent chapter deals with the qualitative data analysis, which primarily pertains to qualitative aspects of the research questions, As detailed in Chapter 1, the objectives of this thesis are: (1) to discover the dominant Saudi VET leadership styles based on the TL full range theory, this includes three subsidiary objectives; a) to determine any differences between self and rater perceptions of leadership, b) to ascertain the impact of managerial level (defined as dean/head teacher and vice-dean/head teacher), and c) to ascertain the impact of participants' institutional affiliation to the three different Saudi VET institutes. (2) To determine of the possible impact of the demographic variables of the leaders and subordinates. This was divided into four objectives: (a) to determine whether, and to what extent, the gender of both leaders and subordinates is related to self-perceived leadership style, (b) to determine whether, and to what extent, the age of both leaders and subordinates is related to self-perceived leadership style, (c) to determine whether, and to what extent, the educational level of both leaders and subordinates is related to self-perceived leadership style. (d) To determine whether, and to what extent, the work experience of both leaders and subordinates is related to self-perceived leadership style. To address the three objectives of thesis, the self and rater versions of the MLQ (5XShort Form), with added demographic questions, were used (see Appendix B and C).

(3) To ascertain the relationship of cultural values to leadership styles to address the aim of this thesis, Dorfman and Howell's (1988) modification of Hofstede's (1980) cultural values survey was used for leaders. In summary, 173 leaders (including 65 deans and 108 vice-deans of VET institutions) and 593 raters (all drawn from VET trainers) completed the self and rater versions of the MLQ (5XShort Form), respectively. 173 leaders (including 65 deans and 108 vice-deans of VET institutions) also responded to the cultural values survey.

5.2 Characteristics of VET Leaders and Raters

Demographic information was collected from both leaders and subordinate Saudi VET. While the demographic questions were voluntary, all of the related questions were completed by all of the participants. These demographic characteristics were utilised for leaders: level of management (dean/head teacher or vice-dean/head teacher), institutional affiliation, gender, age, level of education, and years of experience. The same demographic characteristics except level of management were used for subordinates. The following sections profile simple descriptive statistics in terms of frequency and percentage on these demographic variations of VET leaders and subordinates who participated in this study.

5.2.1 The demographic characteristics of leaders and subordinates

Perhaps the most distinctive demographic characteristic of Saudi VET leaders is their current position as Dean or Vice-Dean. As shown in Table 5.1, 65 (37.6 percent) of participants were deans, while the remaining 108 (62.4 percent) were vice-deans.

Table 5-1: The current position of Saudi VET leaders who participated in the study

Category	*n*	Percent
Dean/Head teacher	65	37.6
Vice-Dean/- Head teacher	108	62.4
Total	173	100.0

An important demographic characteristic of the Saudi VET leaders and subordinates is their institutional affiliations. As explained in Chapter 3, there are three major VET forms in the Kingdom: Technical Colleges (TC), Vocational Institutes (VI) and Technical Colleges for Girls (TCG). The majority of leaders who participated in this study were from VI (n=84, and 48.6%) followed by TC (n=51, and 29.5%) and TCG (n=38, and 22.0). Similarly the majority of raters who responded to the questionnaires were from VI (n=301, and 50.8%) followed by TC (n=162, and 27.3%) and TCG (n=130, and 21.9%) (See Table 5.2).

Table 5-2: The institutional affiliations of VET leaders who participated in the study

Category	Leaders		Subordinates	
	N	%	N	%
TC	51	29.5	162	27.3
VI	84	48.5	301	50.8
TCG	38	22.0	130	21.9
Total	173	100	593	100

Table 5.3 presents a cross tabulation of Saudi VET leaders based on their managerial level and institutional affiliation. Under this classification, the most common participants were Vice-Head of VI (n=50, 28.9%), followed by Head of VI and Vice-Dean of TC (n=34, 19.7%).

Table 5-3: A cross tabulation of Saudi VET leaders based on their managerial level and institutional affiliation

Category	*n*	Percent/Leaders
Dean of TC	17	9.8
Vice-Dean of TC	34	19.7
Head of VI	34	19.7
Vice-Head of VI	50	28.8
Dean of TCG	14	8.1
Vice-Dean of TCG	24	13.9
Total	173	100.0

Two other key demographic characteristics of Saudi VET leaders and subordinates are gender and age. Of the 173 Saudi VET leaders and the 593 Saudi VET subordinates who participated in the study, the majority (78%) were male and 22% were female. The largest proportion (43.9%) of Saudi VET leaders in this study were 30 to 39 years of age and similarly, the largest proportion (40.3%) of Saudi VET subordinates fell within this age group (Table 5.4).

Table 5-4: The gender and age of Saudi VET leaders and subordinates who participated in this study

Category	Leaders		Subordinates	
	N	%	N	%
Male	135	78	463	78.1
Female	38	22	130	21.9
20-29 years	21	12.1	168	28.3
30-39 years	76	43.9	239	40.3
40-49years	62	35.8	151	25.5
50 and above	14	8.1	34	5.7
Total	173	100	593	100

With respect to educational degree, the majority of Saudi VET leaders who participated in this study held post-high school diploma degrees, with 48.6% possessing a bachelor’s degree, and 30.6% holding a master’s level degree.

Table 5-5: The educational level of Saudi VET leaders and subordinates who participated in this study

Category	Leaders N	Leaders %	Subordinates N	Subordinates %
Secondary	3	1.7	10	1.7
Diploma after secondary school	28	16.2	126	21.2
Bachelor	84	48.6	358	60.4
Master	53	30.6	87	14.7
Doctor	5	2.9	11	1.9
Total	173	100	592	100

Of the 173 Saudi VET leaders who took part in this study, the length of time they had spent in the role was relatively constant across all categories. While almost one third (28.3%) had been employed as a leader (dean or vice dean) for over 17 years, a similar percentage (30.1%) had three or fewer years of experience. The same pattern was repeated for the 593 Saudi VET subordinates that answered the questionnaires (Table 5.6).

Table 5-6: The work experiences of Saudi VET leaders and subordinates who participated in this study

Category	Leaders		Subordinates	
	N	%	N	%
<= 3	52	30.1	186	31.4
4 - 8	42	24.3	122	20.6
9 - 16	30	17.3	152	25.6
17+	49	28.3	133	22.4
Total	173	100.0	593	100.0

5.3 Preliminary Analytical Issues

5.3.1 Reliability

There are a number of different reliability coefficients available. One of the most commonly used is Cronbach's Alpha (Coakes and Steed 2003, p. 140), which is a "widely used measurement of the internal consistency of a multi-items scale in which the average of all possible split-half coefficients is taken" (Hair et al. 2000:652).

The minimum acceptable reliability for Cronbach's α is above 0.70 which is the point that represents 'acceptable reliability'. Above 0.80 is good reliability and above .90 is excellent reliability (Nunnally, 1978). In this study, the overall reliability of the MLQ (5XShort Form) instrument based on the data collected from the all respondents (Leaders and Raters) was .72, which can therefore be deemed to be acceptable (Table, 5.7). To improve the reliability, an internal consistency analysis (Briggs and Cheek, 1986) was conducted. This measure revealed that dropping one item (MBEP) would improve the Cronbach's α of the measure to 0.82 (Table 5.7). As indicated in Chapter 2, MEBP is closely related to LF and therefore its removal does not significantly alter the leadership concepts based on the definition provided by Avolio and Bass (2004). As a result, the MBEP dimension was removed from the analysis of this study.

Table 5-7: The reliability scores of leadership dimensions based on Cronbach's α before and after internal consistency analysis

Category	Cronbach's Alpha (before deleting) MBEP item	Cronbach's Alpha (after deleting) MBEP item
IA	0.63	0.77
IB	0.64	0.78
IM	0.63	0.77
IS	0.62	0.76
IC	0.62	0.76
CR	0.62	0.76
MBEA	0.68	0.81
MBEP	0.82	Deleted
LF	0.82	0.92

With respect to Dorfman and Howell's (1988) instrument of cultural values, Cronbach's α was .62/.62/.57/.77 for the subscales of Power Distance (PD), Uncertainty Avoidance (UA), Individualism (IND) and Masculinity (MAS) respectively, based on the perceptions of 173 leaders who responded to the questionnaires. These values are not very high, but they are acceptable compared with the previous results of Dorfman and Howell's (1988) instrument (Table 5.8).

Table 5-8: Reliability analysis coefficient alpha of studies using Dorfman and Howell's (1988) instrument

		PD	UA	IND/CO	MAS
Dorfman and Howell (1988)	Chinese	0.51	0.73	0.63	0.80
	Mexican	0.63	0.71	0.63	0.84
	US	0.57	0.75	0.79	0.85
	Columbian	0.90	0.84	0.68	0.95
Segal et al. (1998)	Filipino	0.69	0.62	0.76	0.87
	Haiti	0.69	0.79	0.56	0.78
	Trinidad	0.76	0.76	0.77	0.84
	West Indians	0.54	0.70	0.69	0.93
Robertson et al. (2002)	Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Oman	0.63	0.73	0.63	0.80

Sources: Dorfman and Howell (1988) ;Segal et al. (1998); Robertson et al. (2002)

5.3.2 Normality assumption

The most critical assumption of many parametric statistics, such as t-test and ANOVA, is a certain type of distribution of the data in which the samples should be randomly selected from normal populations and the populations should have equal variance (Cooper and Schindler, 2003, 2006). This precondition of data distribution, which is commonly called the normality assumption, needs to be met in order for parametric statistics to be legitimately used.

A common method often used to examine normality is to examine skewness and kurtosis. According to Hair et al (2006: 37), skewness refers to the "measure of symmetry of a distribution; in most instances the comparison is made to a normal distribution," while kurtosis refers to the "measure of the peakedness or flatness of distribution when compared with a normal distribution". SPSS offers these tests for any given variable along with standard error measures. In this formulation, both skewness and kurtosis should be zero for a perfectly normally distributed variable; authors vary in the rules of thumb they propose to determine the extent to which these measures can deviate from perfect normality. Some researchers are satisfied to accept variables with skewness and kurtosis values in the range +2 to -2 as near enough normally distributed for most purposes, while values outside this range indicate a normality problem. Others are slightly stricter and use a +1 to -1 range (Hair et al, 2006). Still other scholars (e.g. Brown, 1997) argue that to assess whether a distribution is normal one should consider not only the values of skewness and kurtosis but more importantly their respective standard errors. Thus, if kurtosis or skewness exceeds twice the absolute value of the standard error of skewness/kurtosis, the normality of the data is problematic.

SPSS version 19 was used to check both skewness and kurtosis, showing that the absolute values of Skewness were not within acceptable levels (Table 5.9). Instead, the results of this study revealed that the data related to all dimensions, excluding TMBA and LF were substantially negatively skewed. Data for the TMBA dimension were almost normally distributed (see Table 5.9). The violation of normality is best illustrated by Normal Q-Q diagrams, in which the data did not fit well along the lines (figure 5.1).

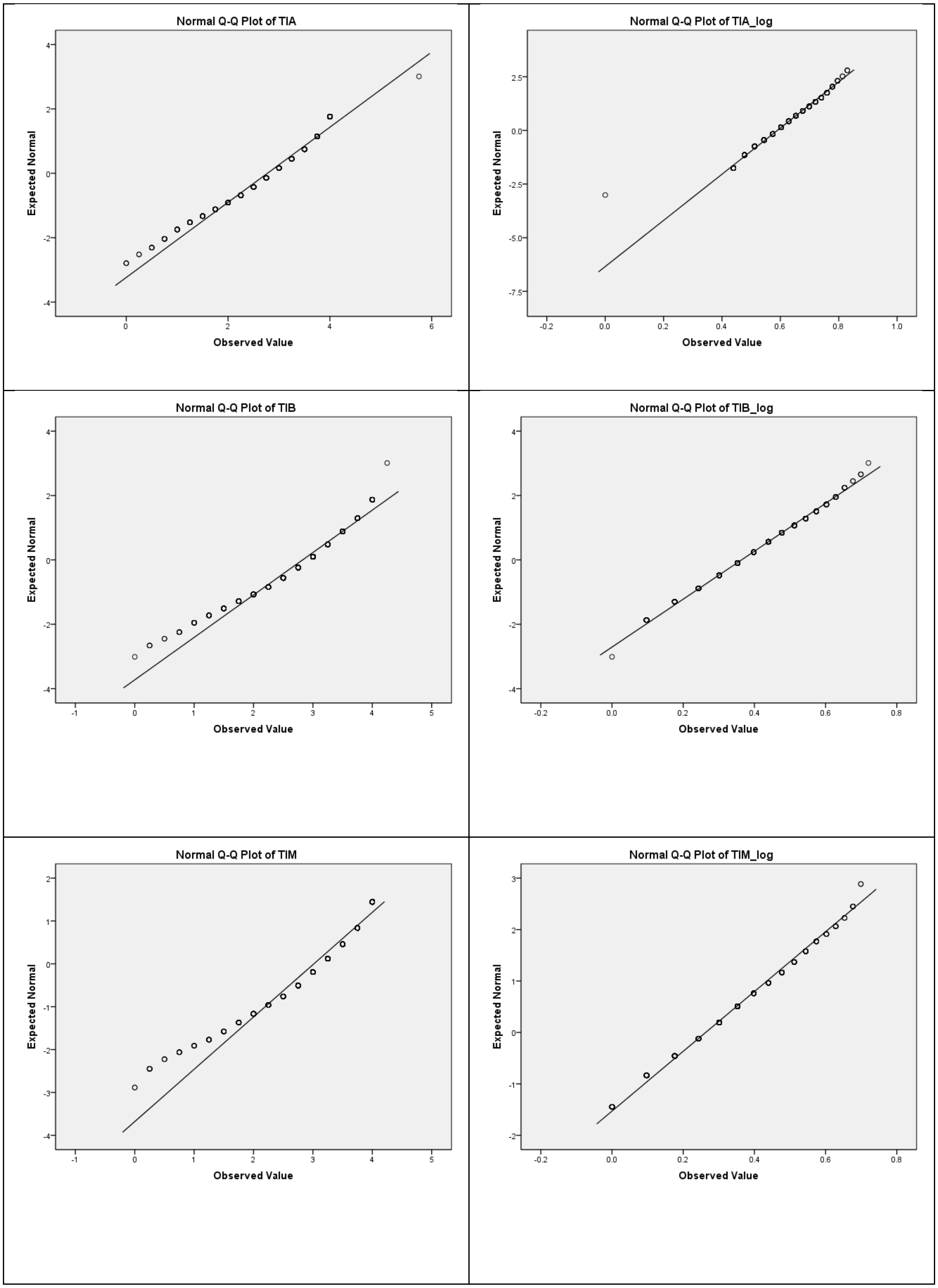
Table 5-9: The normality of leadership dimensions before and after transformation

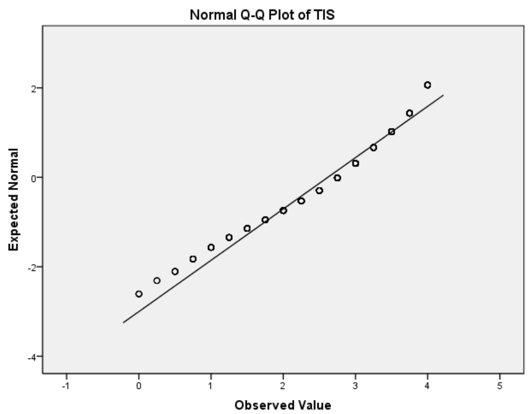
	Before transformation		After transformation	
	Skewness	*Std. Error*	*Skewness*	*Std. Error*
IA	-.66	.09	-.13	.09
IB	-.77	.09	-.10	.09
IM	-1.04	.09	.16	.09
IS	-.67	.09	-.13	.09
IC	-.65	.09	-.12	.09
CR	-.78	.09	-.03	.09
MBEA	-.18	.09	NA	NA
LF	.63	.09	-.09	.09

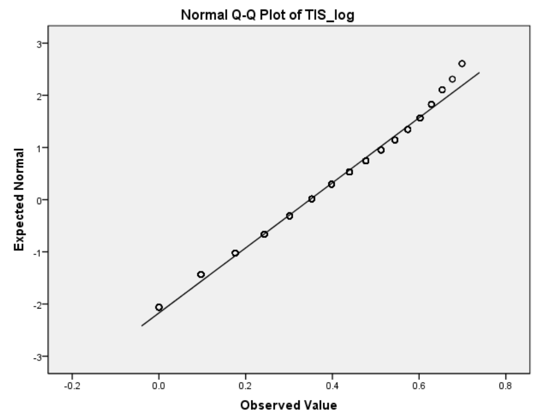
A clean solution for those data that violate the assumption of normality is to use alternative nonparametric statistics. While nonparametric statistics are widely accepted statistical methods of analysis, many scholars have nonetheless suggested that the transformation of data is a perfectly legitimate remedy to improve distributions to be more normal. For instance, Tabachnick and Fidell (2012) argue that transformation does not seriously hinder later interpretation when using a scale that has little intrinsic meaning and designed an excellent table that gives recommendations for what kinds of transformations to use when data appear in various shapes. They suggested the formula of NEWX=LG10 (K - X) for substantial negative skews, in which K is usually equal to the largest score +1.This method was used to transform the data of this study, resulting in substantially more normal data (Table 5.9; Figure 5.1).

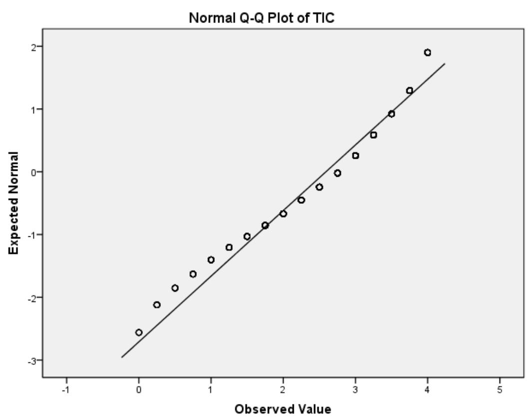
Figure 5.1: Normal Q-Q Plot of variables

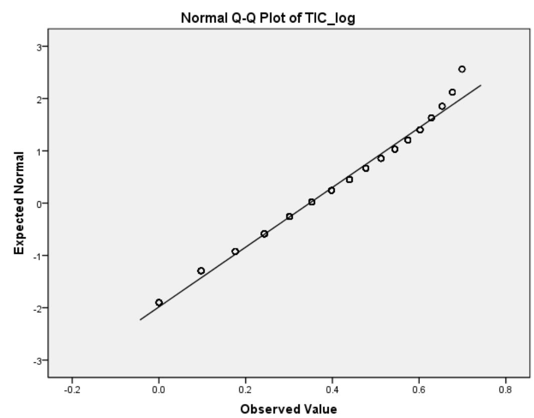
Before transformation | **After transformation**

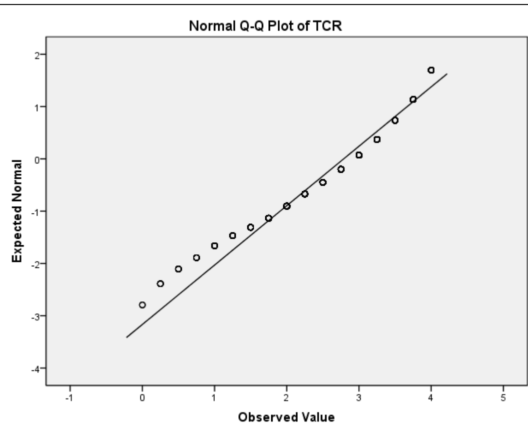


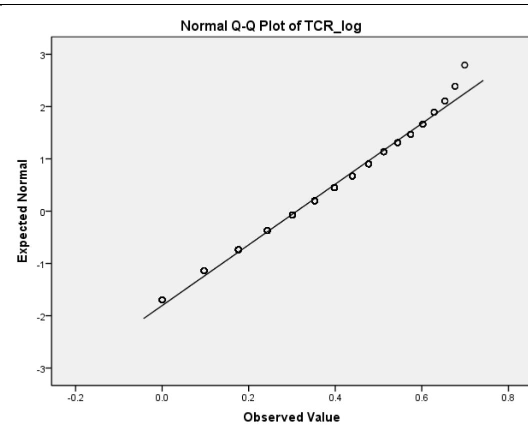

Normal Q-Q Plot of TIS
Expected Normal
Observed Value

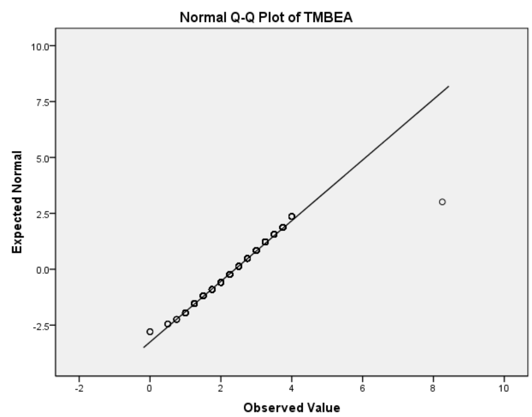

Normal Q-Q Plot of TIS_log
Expected Normal
Observed Value

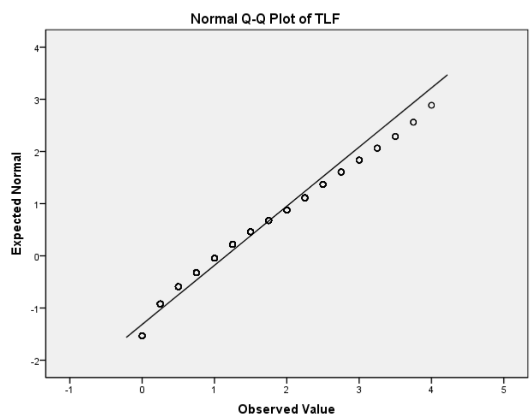

Normal Q-Q Plot of TIC
Expected Normal
Observed Value

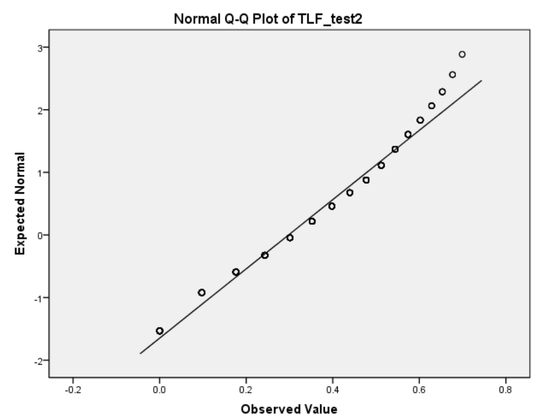

Normal Q-Q Plot of TIC_log
Expected Normal
Observed Value


Normal Q-Q Plot of TCR
Expected Normal
Observed Value


Normal Q-Q Plot of TCR_log
Expected Normal
Observed Value







5.3.3 Homogeneity assumption

Another critical assumption for several of the parametric statistical tests employed in this study, such as t-test and ANOVA, is homogeneity of variance. This means that either the variability of scores for each of the groups should be similar or that samples should be obtained from populations of equal variances (Stevens 1996). A common method for determining homogeneity of variance is Levene’s test. The significance value (Sig.) for Levene’s test reveals the extent to which a dependent variable violates the homogeneity. SPSS performs Levene's test for equality of variances as part of the t-test and variance analyses. For t-tests, SPSS provides two sets of results, for situations where the assumption is not violated and for situations when it is violated. On the condition that the assumption is violated, the alternative appropriate data can therefore be used (Pallant, 2011). Where appropriate, the homogeneity tests are explained in the following analysis.

5.4 The dominant leadership style of Saudi VET

The first main objective of this thesis is to determine the dominant leadership styles of Saudi VET leaders, as measured by the total scores on the MLQ (5X-Short Form). The main question formulated to address this objective was: what are the dominant leadership styles of Saudi VET Leaders based on MLQ (5X-Short Form)? This question includes three ancillary questions:

a) Is there any statistically significant difference between the total scores of the self-assessment of leaders and the total scores from other-rater assessment on the MLQ (5XShort Form)?

b) Is there any significant difference in the leadership styles of Saudi VET in terms of the managerial level denoted as Dean and Vice-Dean?

c) Is there any significant difference in the leadership styles of Saudi VET in terms of the institutional affiliation of leaders to TC, VI or TCG?

In order to address the main question, descriptive statistical analysis was conducted by comparing the means. An analysis using t-test was also used to determine whether a statistically significant difference exists between leader and rater assessment of leadership style. A one-way, within-subjects ANOVA test was also used to examine the extent to which the leadership styles of Saudi VET leaders vary based on their affiliation to the three different VET institutes of the Kingdom.

5.4.1 Dominant leadership styles of Saudi VET leaders

Chapter 2 detailed that MLQ denotes the three main styles of leadership: the transformational style, which includes five core dimensions: idealized influence attributed (IA), idealized influence (IB), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual simulation (IS) and individual consideration (IC); the transactional style including three dimensions: contingent reward (CR), management-by-exception (active) (MBEA), management-by-exception (passive) (MBEP); and finally laissez fair, characterized by one dimension (LF). Table 5.10 lists the results of this study based on the above mentioned dimensions.

Table 5-10: The rank of highest scores based on leaders and subordinates' perceptions

MLQ Dimensions	Leaders' Scores		MLQ Dimensions	Subordinates' Scores	
	Mean	SD		Mean	SD
IM	3.29	.53	IM	2.94	.87
CR	3.20	.58	IB	2.75	.79
IB	3.10	.56	IA	2.71	.89
IC	3.09	.57	CR	2.67	.92
IS	3.03	.57	IS	2.50	.91
IA	2.97	.67	IC	2.45	1.00
MBEA	2.49	.70	MBEA	2.37	.71
LF	1.00	.79	MBEP	1.30	.90
MBEP	.80	.74	LF	1.21	.90

As presented in Table 5.10, both leaders (M = 3.29, SD=0.53) and subordinates (M = 2.94, SD=0.87) ranked the IM dimension of transformational leadership as the most dominant dimension in Saudi VET. However, leaders and subordinates ranked the second dominant leadership style differently. The leaders perceived CR, the main dimension of transactional leadership, as being the second most important leadership dimension (M = 3.20, SD = 0.58). In contrast, the subordinates ranked two other dimensions of transformational leadership, IB and IA, as second (M = 2.75, SD = 0.79) and third (M = 2.71, SD = 0.89) respectively. Both leaders and subordinates also perceived laissez-faire to be the least common leadership style.

The dimensions of transformational leadership were shown to be very consistent with one another, while there was a clear difference between CR and the other components of transactional leadership. Based on this understanding of leadership dimensions, four distinct leadership styles were defined: the first style consisted of five dimensions of transformational leadership, while the second, third and fourth styles were characterised by CR, MBEA and LF respectively. The MBEP dimension was excluded from analysis, largely because this dimension was very closely related to LF and because its removal increased the overall reliability of the whole analysis. Based on this classification, the Saudi VET leaders ranked style 1 (CR) as the most common leadership style (M = 3.20, SD = .58), followed by style 2 (M = 3.09, SD = .43) (five components of transformational leadership), while the subordinates gave the highest scores to styles 1 and 2 (M = 2.67, SD = .78 and .92) (Table 5.11).

Table 5-11: Leadership styles of leaders and raters

	Self-Report n = 173		*Rater-Report n=593*	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
Style1(IA, IB, IM, IS, IC)	3.09	.43	2.67	.78
Style2 (CR)	3.20	.58	2.67	.92
Style3 (MBEA)	2.49	.70	2.37	.71
Style4 (LF)	1.00	.79	1.21	.90

5.4.2 The differences between self and rater assessment

Descriptive statistics in the form of means demonstrated the differences between the perceptions of leaders and subordinates. However, a more accurate understanding of the relationship between the assessments that the two groups made of leadership dimensions required a further independent-samples t-test. This t-test required a number of assumptions to be met. The first assumption is the normal distribution of the data. Given that the data violated the normality assumption, the transformed data detailed in section 5.3.2 were used. The second critical assumption for a t-test is the equality of variances, otherwise known as homogeneity. The Levene test was used to determine if the variances were equal, with the results showing that all dimensions except MBEA violated the assumption of equality of variance. To overcome this problem ($p < .05$), the equal-variances-not-assumed t-test was interpreted.

Consistent with the findings of descriptive analysis, the results of the t-test (presented in Table 5.12) demonstrate that there are statistically significant differences between rater and self-assessments of leadership dimensions. Once the existence of differences was determined, the next step was to calculate the 'effect size', or the relative magnitude, of the differences between means, or the amount of the total variance in the dependent variable that is predictable from knowledge of the levels of the independent variable (Tabachnick and Fidell 2007: 54). The most commonly used formula for the calculation of the magnitude of the differences is eta squared Cohen's d.[1]

With respect to the magnitude of the differences, IC (mean difference = -.11, 95% CI: / -.09 to .09) ranked the first (eta squared =.09), followed by IS (mean difference = -.09, 95% CI: / -.07 to .08) eta squared = .08 and CR (mean difference = -.10, 95% CI: / -.08 to.07), eta squared=.07. The magnitude of the differences was shown to have only a modest effect, as eta was around .06 in all dimensions of transformational and transactional leadership. This effect was small in IA and LF dimensions, where the eta was around .01.

[1] SPSS does not provide eta squared values for t-tests. It can, however, be calculated by hand using the information provided in SPSS output using this formula: Eta squared (η2) = $\frac{t^2}{t^2+(N1+N2-2)}$ in which N1and N2 is the number of cases in each group. Cohen classifies .01 as a small effect, .06 as a medium effect and .14 as a large effect (Cohen, 1988).

Table 5-12: Differences between self and rater assessment

	Self		*Rater*		*t*	*p*	*95% CI:*		
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*			*Lower*	*Upper*	
IA	.28	.15	.33	.17	-3.16**	.00	-.07	-.01	0.01
IB	.32	.12	.38	.14	-5.67**	.00	-.09	-.04	0.04
IM	.21	.14	.28	.18	-5.10**	.00	-.09	-.04	0.03
IS	.28	.13	.37	.16	-7.94**	.00	-.12	-.07	0.08
IC	.26	.13	.37	.18	-8.87**	.00	-.13	-.09	0.09
CR	.23	.14	.33	.17	-7.80**	.00	-.13	-.08	0.07
MBEA	2.49	.70	2.37	.71	1.94	.08	.00	.24	
LF	.27	.16	.31	.19	-2.50*	.02	.01	-.06	0.01

Note. * = p < .05, ** = P < .001

5.4.3 The impact of managerial level

The second sub question was to determine whether any significant difference exists in terms of the leadership styles used at two distinct managerial levels of Saudi VET, denoted as Dean and Vice-Dean. A t-test was conducted to determine these possible differences. Conducting this test with transformed data requires the critical assumption of homogeneity to be met. The results of Levene test for homogeneity show that only the IM dimension (F= 4.17, p=.04) violated the assumption of equality of variance. To overcome this problem (p < .05), the equal-variances-not-assumed t-test was interpreted.

Table 5-13: Differences in MLQ scores by managerial level

	Dean n=65		*Vice-Dean n=108*					*95% CI:*		
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	*df*	*Lower*	*Upper*	*η2*
IA	.28	.16	.29	.14	-.40	.78	171	-.03	.02	
IB	.33	.13	.31	.11	.71	.48	171	-.02	.05	
IM	.18	.15	.23	.13	-2.17*	.03	171	-.09	.00	0.03
IS	.28	.12	.27	.13	.24	.81	171	-.03	.04	
IC	.26	.13	.27	.13	-.59	.56	171	-.05	.03	
CR	.26	.13	.24	.14	-.42	.67	171	-.05	.03	
MBEA	2.37	.68	2.56	.70	-1.28	.20	171	-.08	.02	
LF	.25	.17	.28	.16	-1.78	.08	171	-.41	.02	

Note. * = p < .05

The results of the t-test to compare the leadership dimensions scores for Saudi VET deans and vice-deans are presented in Table 5.13. These outcomes reveal that the only significant difference in scores for deans and vice dean are in the IM dimension: deans (M = .18, SD = .15) and vice-deans (M = .23, SD = .13; t (120) = -2.17, *p* = .03, (two-tailed). The magnitude of the differences in the means (mean difference = -.05, 95% CI: -.09 to.00), however, was extremely small (eta squared = .03).

5.4.4 Leaders' institutional affiliation

The third sub-question sought to determine whether any significant difference exists in the leadership styles in the Saudi VET, based upon the institutional affiliation of the leaders. In order to address this question, a one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was considered, because the independent variable (institutional affiliation) has three levels. Saudi VET leaders were therefore divided into three groups according to their institutional affiliations: Technical Colleges (TC); Vocational Institutes (VI) and Technical Colleges for Girls (TCG). As with the t-test, two critical assumptions of ANOVA are normality and homogeneity. The transformed data were used to overcome the problem of normality violation. The Levene test was conducted in order to determine the homogeneity. The results of the Levene test indicate that the precondition of normality is met, as the *p*-value of all dimensions is well above .05.

The results of the ANOVA suggest that there was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in IB [F (2, 170) = 7.48, $p = .00$], IM [F (2, 170) = 3.09, $p = .05$] and LF [F (2, 170) = 3.52, $p = .03$] scores for different Saudi VET institutions (see Table 5.14). Once the significant differences were identified the next step is to examine the effect size. As with t-test eta squared and Cohen's d will be used to examine the effect size.[2] Using these statistical methods, it was revealed that the actual difference in mean scores between the groups for IB is .08, which in Cohen's (1988, pp. 284–7) terms would be considered a moderate effect size, while for IM and LF the mean was .03, which Cohen defines as small (1988, pp. 284–7).

[2] SPSS does not have an option for calculating the effect size of the result for the one-way ANOVA, unless the analysis carried using the Univariate option of the General Linear Model for the analysis instead. It is easy enough, however, to calculate the effect size eta squared by hand using the following formula: eta squared = sum of squares between groups divided by total sum of squares.

Table 5-14: One-way between-groups analysis of variance for VET leaders' institutional affiliation

	TC	VI	TCG	F	η^2
IA	0.28 (0.13)	0.30 (0.15)	0.26 (0.16)	0.74	
IB	0.33 (0.08)	0.34 (0.13)	0.26 (0.11)	7.48**	0.08
IM	0.22 (0.12)	0.23 (0.14)	0.16 (0.14)	3.09*	0.03
IS	0.27 (0.1)	0.3 (0.14)	0.24 (0.12)	2.33	
IC	0.27 (0.12)	0.27 (0.13)	0.23 (0.13)	1.24	
CR	0.24 (0.14)	0.24 (0.14)	0.21 (0.14)	0.53	
MBEA	2.33 (0.74)	2.49 (0.71)	2.68 (0.57)	2.73	
LF	0.25 (0.3)	0.17 (0.16)	0.25 (0.3)	3.52*	0.03

Note. * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .001$. Standard deviations appear in parentheses below mean.

To determine exactly where the differences occur between the groups in dimensions with significant differences, post-hoc comparisons were conducted using the Tukey HSD test (Table 5.15). For the IB dimension, the results of the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for TC was significantly different from TCG, and that the mean score for VI was significantly different from TCG. For the IM dimension, the results of the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for VI was significantly different from TCG, while TC did not differ significantly from either VI or TCG. For the LF dimension, the results of the Tukey HSD test indicate that the mean score for VI was significantly different from TCG, while TC did not differ significantly from either VI or TCG.

Table 5-15: Post-hoc comparisons of VET leaders' institutional affiliation

	TC	VI	TCG
IB			
TC	-	0.01	.07*
VI		-	.08**
TCG			-
IM			
TC	-	-0.01	0.06
VI		-	.06*
TCG			-
LF			
TC	-	-0.05	0.03
VI		-	.08*
TCG			-

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .001.

5.5 The association of leaders' and subordinates' characteristics with the leadership style self-perception

The second research question was: Are the demographic characteristics of leaders and subordinates related to their perceived leadership styles?

This included the following ancillary questions:

a. To what extent is the gender of leaders and subordinates related to their self-perceived and other-perceived leadership style?

b. To what extent is the age of leaders and subordinates related to their self-perceived and other-perceived leadership style?

c. To what extent is the educational level of leaders and subordinates related to their self-perceived and other-perceived leadership style?

d. To what extent is the work experience of leaders and subordinates related to their self-perceived and other-perceived leadership style?

In the following sections, statistical analysis methods (t-test and ANOVA) will be used to examine the strength or otherwise of these possible relationships.

5.5.1 Leaders and subordinates' gender

To determine whether, and to what extent, the gender of Saudi VET leaders is related to their self-perceived leadership style, a t-test was conducted. As with the former test, it was important to meet the critical assumption of homogeneity before conducting this test with transformed data. The results of the Levene test for homogeneity indicate that the precondition of normality is met, as the *p*-value of all dimensions is well above .05. The results of the t-test compared against the leadership dimensions scores for male and female Saudi VET are presented in Table 5.16. A significant difference was found in scores for males and females in the IB, IM, MBEA and LF dimensions at the $p < .05$ level. IB: male ($M = .33$, $SD =.11$) and female ($M = .26$, $SD = .11$; $t (171) = 3.83$, $p = .00$, (two-tailed). IM: male ($M = .23$, $SD =.14$) and female ($M = .16$, $SD = .14$; $t (171) = 2.47$, $p = .01$, (two-tailed). MBEA: male ($M = 2.43$, $SD =.72$) and female ($M = 2. 68$, $SD = .57$; $t (171) = -1.94$, $p = .05$, (two-tailed). LF: male ($M = .28$, $SD =.17$) and female ($M =. 22$, $SD = .14$; $t (171) = 2.10$, $p = .06$, (two-tailed). The magnitude of the differences calculated by eta square shows that the mean difference is moderate, based on the definition provided by Cohen (1988, pp. 284–7) (IB=.08; IM=.06; MBEA=-.25and LF=.06)

Table 5-16: T-test for VET leaders' gender-based differences

	Male		***Female***					***95% CI:***		
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	*df*	*Lower*	*Upper*	η^2
IA	.29	.14	.26	.16	1.16	.14	171	-.02	.08	.01
IB	.33	.11	.26	.11	3.83**	**.00**	171	.04	.12	**.08**
IM	.23	.14	.16	.14	2.47*	**.01**	171	.01	.11	**.06**
IS	.29	.13	.24	.12	1.77	.08	171	.00	.09	.04
IC	.27	.13	.23	.13	1.58	.12	171	-.01	.08	.04
CR	.24	.14	.21	.14	1.01	.31	171	-.02	.08	.03
MBEA	2.43	.72	2.68	.57	-1.94*	**.05**	171	-.50	.00	**-.25**
LF	.28	.17	.22	.14	2.10*	**.04**	171	.00	.12	**.06**

Note. * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .001$

A similar t-test was conducted to examine whether, and to what extent, the gender of Saudi VET subordinates is related to their perception on leadership style of their leaders. The assumption of homogeneity was tested by using Levene's test. Only IS did not meet the homogeneity assumption and as a result the second line of the t-test table, which refers to 'Equal variances not assumed' was consulted. The results of the t-test compared against the leadership dimensions scores for male and female Saudi VET are presented in Table 5.17. Significant differences were found in scores for males and females in the IC and LF dimensions at the $p < .05$. IC: male ($M = .36$, $SD =.18$) and female ($M = .37$, $SD = .17$; $t (591) = -2.03$, $p = .04$, and LF: male ($M = .32$, $SD =.18$)

and female (M =. 25, SD = .18; t (591) = 4.23, p = .0). The magnitude of the differences calculated by eta square shows that the mean difference for IC (0.00) was very small and for LF (0.02) moderate, based on the definition provided by Cohen (1988, pp. 284–7).

Table 5-17: T-test for VET subordinates' gender-based difference

	Male n=463		***Female n=130***					***95% CI:***		
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*p*	*df*	*Lower*	*Upper*	η^2
IA	.33	.17	.32	.18	.19	.07	591	-.03	.04	
IB	.38	.13	.37	.14	.93	.35	591	-.01	.04	
IM	.28	.18	.27	.19	.44	.66	591	-.03	.04	
IS	.37	.16	.37	.17	-.14	.89	591	-.04	.03	
IC	.36	.18	.40	.17	-2.03*	.04	591	-.07	.00	.00
CR	.33	.17	.35	.18	-.98	.33	591	-.05	.02	
MBEA	2.35	.75	2.44	.72	-1.18	.24	591	-.23	.06	
LF	.32	.18	.25	.18	4.23**	.00	591	.04	.11	.02

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .001

5.5.2 Leaders' and subordinates' age

To determine the extent to which the age of leaders is related to their self-perceived leadership style, the ANOVA test was conducted. The Levene test confirmed the homogeneity precondition of ANOVA. The results of the ANOVA test revealed that there was no statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in all leadership scores for the different ages of the leaders (see Table 5.18).

Table 5-18: The ANOVA test for Saudi VET Leaders' age and leadership styles

	20-29	30-39	40-49	50 or over	F	η^2
IA	0.29 (0.16)	0.27 (0.14)	0.29 (0.14)	0.35 (0.17)	1.38	
IB	0.29 (0.12)	0.32 (0.11)	0.31 (0.13)	0.36 (0.07)	1.05	
IM	0.22 (0.14)	0.2 (0.14)	0.22 (0.14)	0.25 (0.09)	0.75	
IS	0.26 (0.13)	0.26 (0.13)	0.3 (0.13)	0.32 (0.1)	1.85	
IC	0.27 (0.13)	0.25 (0.14)	0.29 (0.12)	0.25 (0.11)	1.1	
CR	0.22 (0.14)	0.21 (0.14)	0.25 (0.15)	0.27 (0.12)	1.3	
MBE A	2.61 (0.51)	2.58 (0.71)	2.38 (0.74)	2.25 (0.6)	1.75	
LF	0.24 (0.18)	0.26 (0.16)	0.29 (0.17)	0.3 (0.13)	0.87	

Note. * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .001$. Standard deviations appear in parentheses below mean.

The same test was conducted to determine the extent to which the age of VET subordinates impacts upon their perceptions on the leadership style of VET leaders. Similarly, the Levene test confirmed the homogeneity precondition of ANOVA. The results of the ANOVA test revealed that a statistically significant difference exists at the $p < .05$ level in IC [F (3, 588) = 4.46, p = .00] and LF [F (3, 588) = 2.73, p = 04] scores for different age groups of Saudi VET subordinates (see Table 5.19).

Table 5-19: The ANOVA test for Saudi VET subordinates age and leadership styles

	20-29	30-39	40-49	50 or over	F	η^2
IA	0.33	0.33	0.31	0.28	1.10	
	(0.17)	(0.17)	(0.16)	(0.99)		
IB	.38	.39	.36	.36	1.31	
	(.14)	(.14)	(.13)	(.12)		
IM	.28	.29	.26	.27	0.75	
	(.18)	(.18)	(.17)	(.19)		
IS	.38	.38	.35	.36	0.78	
	(.17)	(.16)	(.16)	(.14)		
IC	.40	.39	.34	.32	4.46**	.02
	(.17)	(.18)	(.17)	(.22)		
CR	.35	.34	.32	.31	1.07	
	(.17)	(.18)	(.17)	(.19)		
MBEA	2.41	2.36	2.36	2.43	2.70	
	(.69)	(.68)	(.88)	(.78)		
LF	.28	.32	.32	.27	2.73*	.01
	(.17)	(.18)	(.20)	(.21)		

Note. * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .001$. Standard deviations appear in parentheses below mean.

To identify where the difference lies in IC and LF dimensions, post-hoc Tukey's HSD was run for each of these subscales.

Table 5-20: Post-hoc comparisons of VET subordinates' age

	20-29	30-39	40-49	50 or over
IC				
20-29		.01	.06*	.08
30-39			.05*	.07
40-49				.02
50 or over				
LF				
20-29		-.05*	-.04	.00
30-39			.01	.05
40-49				.04
50 or over				

5.5.3 Leaders and subordinates' educational level

The ANOVA test was conducted to determine the extent to which the educational level of the leaders is related to their self-perceived leadership style. The Levene test confirmed the homogeneity precondition of ANOVA. As illustrated in Table 5.21, the results of ANOVA suggest that a statistically significant difference exists at the $p < .05$ level in LF [F (4, 168) = 4.21, $p = .00$] scores for different levels of education of Saudi VET leaders. The actual difference in mean scores between the groups for LF is .10, which in Cohen's (1988, pp. 284–7) terms is medium.

Table 5-21: The ANOVA test for Saudi VET Leaders' educational level and leadership styles

	Secondary school	Diploma after secondary school	Bachelor	Master	Doctor	F	η^2
IA	0.47 (0.15)	0.30 (0.13)	0.28 (0.16)	0.28 (0.13)	0.23 (0.13)	1.85	
IB	0.29 (0.11)	0.34 (0.14)	0.32 (0.12)	0.3 (0.1)	0.32 (0.09)	0.42	
IM	0.29 (0.11)	0.25 (0.13)	0.21 (0.15)	0.2 (0.13)	0.22 (0.13)	0.87	
IS	0.44 (0.04)	0.28 (0.14)	0.28 (0.13)	0.25 (0.11)	0.29 (0.09)	1.74	
IC	0.44 (0.04)	0.28 (0.14)	0.28 (0.13)	0.25 (0.11)	0.29 (0.09)	0.2	
CR	0.26 (0.09)	0.24 (0.16)	0.24 (0.14)	0.22 (0.14)	0.22 (0.12)	0.32	
MBEA	2.17 (0.14)	2.46 (0.77)	2.57 (0.66)	2.42 (0.74)	2.15 (0.52)	0.92	
LF	0.44 (0.19)	0.37 (0.12)	0.25 (0.16)	0.24 (0.17)	0.27 (0.16)	4.21*	0.10

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .001. Standard deviations appear in parentheses below means

A similar test was conducted to determine the extent to which the educational level of the subordinates is related to their perceptions of the leadership style of VET leaders. The Levene test confirmed the homogeneity precondition of ANOVA. As illustrated in Table 5.22, the results of ANOVA suggest that a statistically significant difference exists at the $p < .05$ level in IS [F (4, 587) = 2.50, p = .04], IC [F (4, 587) = 3.07, p = .02] and LF [F (4, 587) = 2.66, p = .03] scores for different levels of education of Saudi VET subordinates. The actual difference in mean scores between the groups for IS, IC and LF is .02, which in Cohen's (1988, pp. 284–7) terms is small.

Table 5-22: The ANOVA test for Saudi VET subordinates' educational level and leadership styles

	Secondary school	Diploma after secondary school	Bachelor	Master	Doctor	F	η^2
IA	.32	.33	.32	.34	.32	.53	
	(.20)	(.16)	(.17)	(.19)	(.28)		
IB	.38	.40	.37	.40	.35	2.07	
	(.10)	(.13)	(.14)	(.14)	(.13)		
IM	.25	.28	.27	.32	.23	1.60	
	(.20)	(.16)	(.18)	(.19)	(.18)		
IS	.32	.38	.36	.42	.34	2.50*	.02
	(.14)	(.15)	(.17)	(.15)	(.18)		
IC	.26	.36	.37	.42	.36	3.07*	.02
	(.20)	(.18)	(.18)	(.17)	(.15)		
CR	.24	.33	.33	.37	.28	2.12	
	(.21)	(.18)	(.17)	(.18)	(.19)		
MBEA	2.18	2.28	2.44	2.27	2.27	1.90	
	(.77)	(.72)	(.77)	(.62)	(1.02)		
LF	.17	.33	.29	.34	.30	2.66*	.02
	(.21)	(.18)	(.18)	(.19)	(.23)		

Note. * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .001$. Standard deviations appear in parentheses below mean.

To identify where the difference lies in IS, IC and LF dimensions, post-hoc Tukey's HSD was run for each of these subscales.

Table 5-23: Post-hoc Tukey's HSD comparison of subordinates' educational level

	Secondary school	Diploma after secondary school	Bachelor	Master	Doctor
IS					
Secondary school		-.06	-.04	-.10	-.02
Diploma after secondary school			.02	-.04	.04
Bachelor				-.06*	.02
Master					.08
Doctor					
IC					
Secondary school		-.10	-.11	-.16	-.10
Diploma after secondary school			-.01	-.07*	.00
Bachelor				-.06	.01
Master					.06
Doctor					
TL					
Secondary school		-.16	-.13	-.17*	-.13
Diploma after secondary school			.03	-.01	.02
Bachelor				-.04	-.01
Master					.03
Doctor					

5.5.4 Leaders' and subordinates' work experience

To determine the extent to which the work experience of the leaders is related to their self-perceived leadership style, the ANOVA test was conducted. The Levene test confirmed the homogeneity precondition of ANOVA. The results of ANOVA are presented in Table 5.24 and suggest that a statistically significant difference exists at the $p < .05$ level in IB [$F(3, 169) = 3.14$, $p = .03$] and LF [$F(3, 169) = 5.08$, $p = .00$] scores for the work experience of Saudi VET leaders. The actual difference in the mean scores between the groups for IB is .05 and for LF is .08, which are both deemed to be medium in Cohen's (1988, pp. 284–7) terms.

Table 5-24: The ANOVA test for Saudi VET Leaders' work experience and leadership styles

	3 years or less	Between 4 and 8	Between 9 and 16	More than 17	F	η^2
IA	0.29	0.25	0.29	0.31	1.33	
	(0.16)	(0.15)	(0.11)	(0.14)		
IB	0.29	0.3	0.35	0.35	3.14*	.05
	(0.12)	(0.11)	(0.11)	(0.11)		
IM	0.21	0.17	0.23	0.24	2.12	
	(0.13)	(0.13)	(0.15)	(0.14)		
IS	0.27	0.24	0.29	0.31	2.17	
	(0.13)	(0.12)	(0.13)	(0.12)		
IC	0.26	0.24	0.26	0.29	.83	
	(0.13)	(0.14)	(0.14)	(0.12)		
CR	0.24	0.22	0.19	0.27	2.06	
	(0.15)	(0.13)	(0.13)	(0.14)		
MBEA	2.59	2.4	2.42	2.49	0.71	
	(0.63)	(0.78)	(0.64)	(0.72)		
LF	0.23	0.22	0.33	0.32	5.08**	.08
	(0.17)	(0.12)	(0.16)	(0.17)		

Note. * = p < .05, ** = p < .001. Standard deviations appear in parentheses below mean.

A similar test was conducted to determine the extent to which the work experience of the subordinates is related to their perceptions of the leadership style of VET leaders. The Levene test confirmed the homogeneity precondition of ANOVA. The results of ANOVA are presented in Table 5.25 and suggest that a statistically significant difference exists at the $p < .05$ level only in IC [$F (3, 589) = 4.30$, $p = .05$] scores for the work experience of Saudi VET subordinates. The actual difference in the mean scores between the groups for IC is .02, which is deemed to be small in Cohen's (1988, pp. 284–7) terms.

Table 5-25: The ANOVA test for Saudi VET Subordinates' work experience and leadership styles

	3 years or less	Between 4 and 8	Between 9 and 16	More than 17	F	η^2
IA	.33	.33	.31	.32	.75.45	
	(.17)	(.19)	(.18)	(.16)		
IB	.38	.39	.37	.38	.40	
	(.14)	(.13)	(.14)	(.13)		
IM	.28	.29	.27	.26	.75	
	(.18)	(.19)	(.17)	(.17)		
IS	.38	.37	.36	.36	.85	
	(.17)	(.16)	(.17)	(.15)		
IC	.40	.40	.35	.34	4.30*	.02
	(.18)	(.17)	(.18)	(.18)		
CR	.35	.34	.32	.32	1.20	
	(.17)	(.17)	(.18)	(.17)		
MBE	2.41	2.35	2.41	2.29	0.88	
A	(.72)	(.68)	(.84)	(.72)		
LF	.28	.29	.32	.33	2.23*	.01
	(.18)	(.19)	(.18)	(.19)		

Note. * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .001$. Standard deviations appear in parentheses below mean.

5.6 The association of national culture dimensions with leadership style.

This section seeks to address the third research question, drawing on the quantitative data. The third question concerns whether and to what extent Saudi Arabia national culture is related to VET leadership styles. To examine the potential impact of cultural contingencies on Saudi VET leaders, the individual cultural dimensions proposed by Dorfman and Howell (1988) were used.

5.6.1 Descriptive Data on Cultural Values

The table below (5.26) illustrates the scores of Saudi VET leaders on cultural values. The results of UA and CO have the same St. Deviation (.49); at the same time they have the highest means.

Table 5-26: Descriptive Statistics (Means and St. Deviations)

	PD	UA	CO	MAS
Saudi Arabia VET Leaders	2.38 (.64)	4.25 (.49)	4.03 (.49)	3.08 (.79)

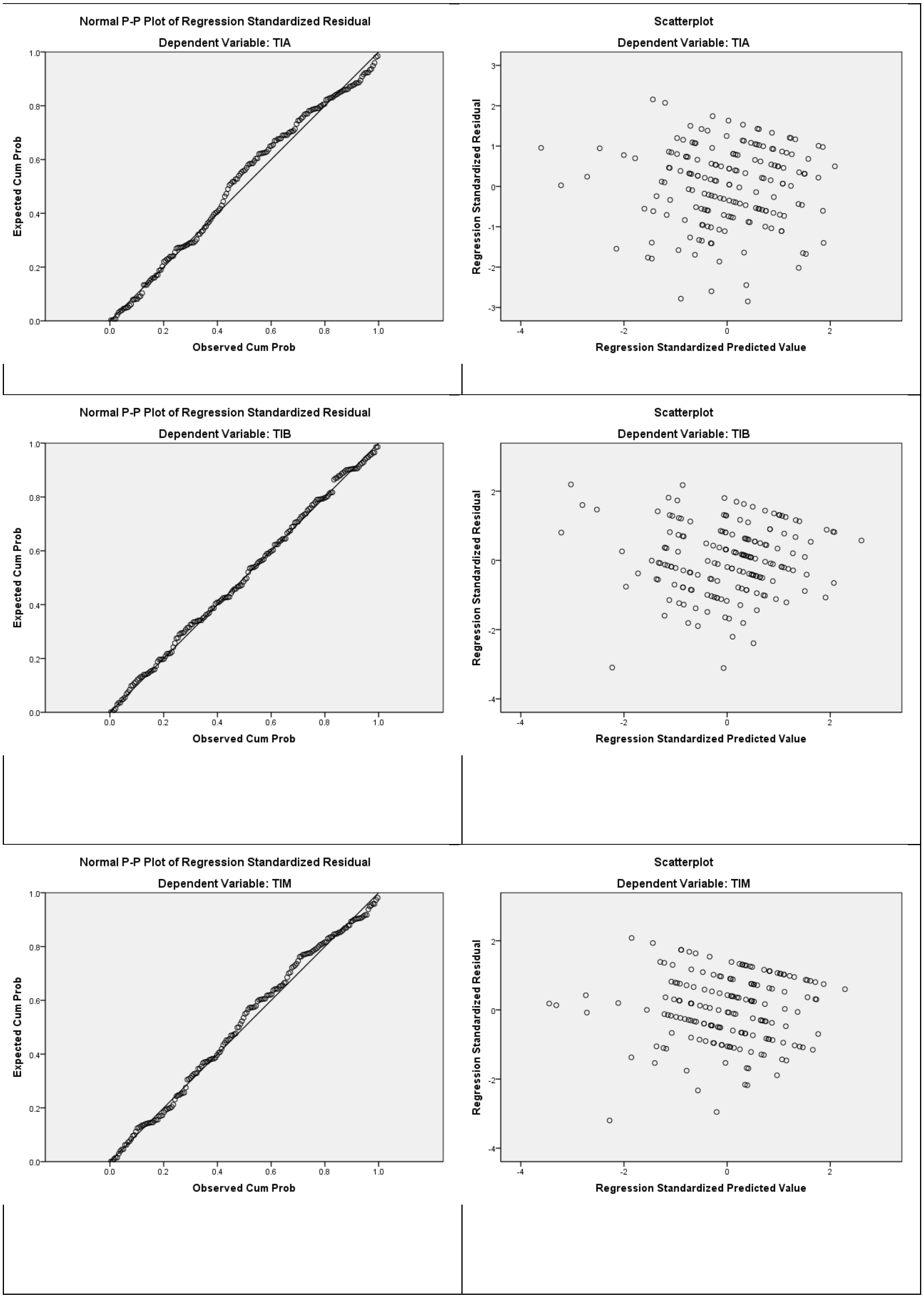
5.6.2 Multiple regressions

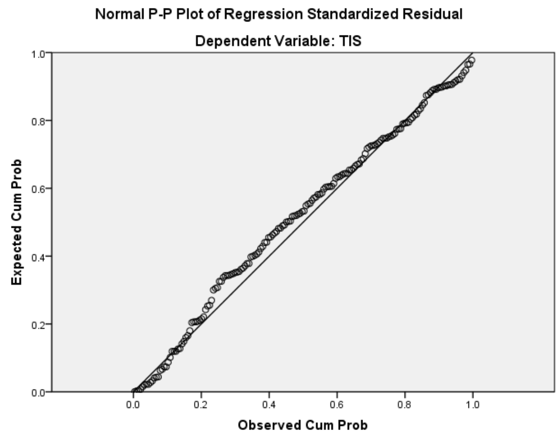
Multiple regressions were applied in this study to examine to what extent cultural values and leadership style dimensions are correlated. This section differs from the previous sections in that it only considers the perceptions of leaders, because the main premise of this thesis is to explore the potential relationship between of leaders' culture and their leadership style. As a result, the size of sample here is limited to the 173 respondents of Saudi VET leaders. Regression analysis is based on correlation, but it offers a more complex of the association among a series of variables. In particular, it offers a model as a whole (grouped correlation) and the relative contribution of each of the variables that make up the model (individual correlation) (Tabachnick and Fidell 2007). Regression analysis takes different forms but for this analysis the standard or simultaneous multiple regression, in which the independent (or predictor) variables are entered into the equation simultaneously, was conducted. The regression analysis seeks to determine if scores on leadership style dimensions (dependent variable) could be predicted from cultural values scores (independent variable). There are a number of assumptions that should be considered before performing regression analysis. In the following lines, some of the most important assumptions, including sample size, normality and linearity, multicollinearity and outliers, are examined.

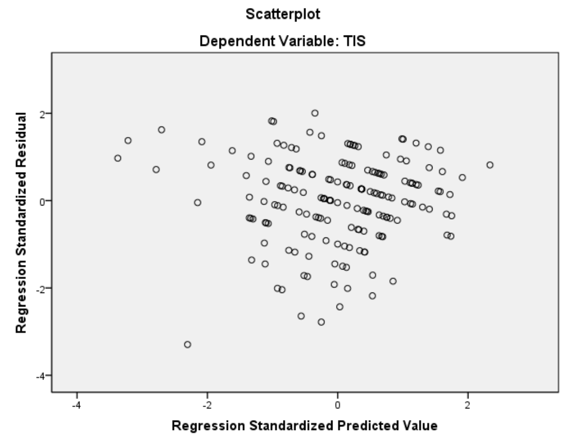
Sample size: Different criteria are offered regarding the sample size requirements for multiple regressions. Tabachnick and Fidell (2007, p. 123) proposed a formula for calculating sample size requirements based on the number of independent variables. This formula suggests $N > 50 + 8m$ (in which N = sample size and m = number of independent variables). For this analysis $N = 173$ and $m = 4$ which means that the sample size is well beyond the required criteria.

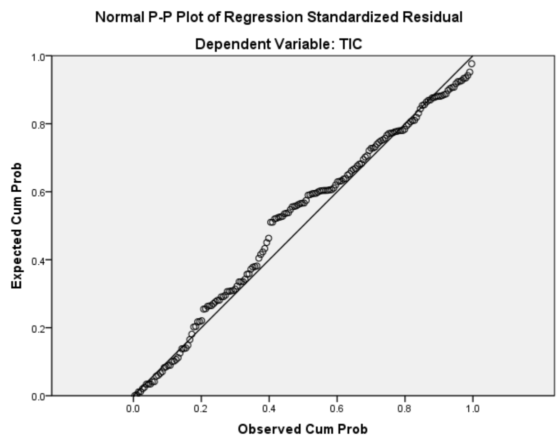
Normality and linearity: As indicated in 5.6.1 Q-Q plot and histogram tests were used to determine this assumption and the results suggested that the normality is reasonable as the diagrams in Figure 5.2 shows the points lay in a reasonably straight diagonal line. This suggests that no major deviations from normality occurred. The scatterplots of the independent variable and the dependent variable also indicate that the residuals were roughly rectangularly distributed, with most multiple regressions of the scores concentrated in the centre and as a result the assumption of linearity is not violated (Figure 5.2).

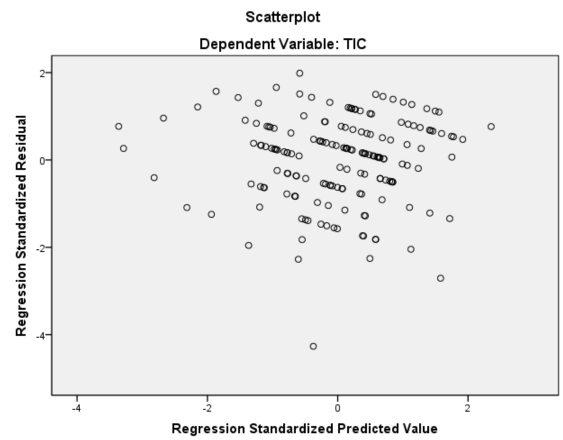
Figure 5.2: Q-Q and Scatter Plot of variables

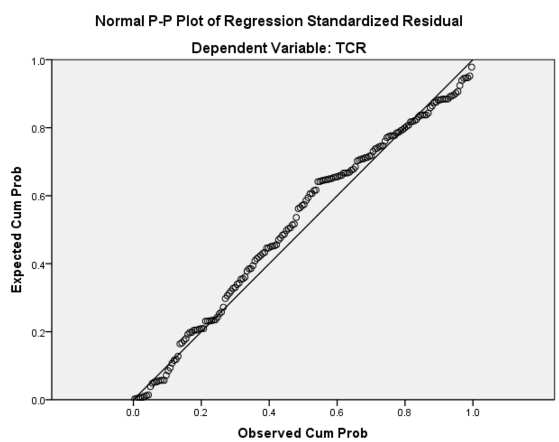


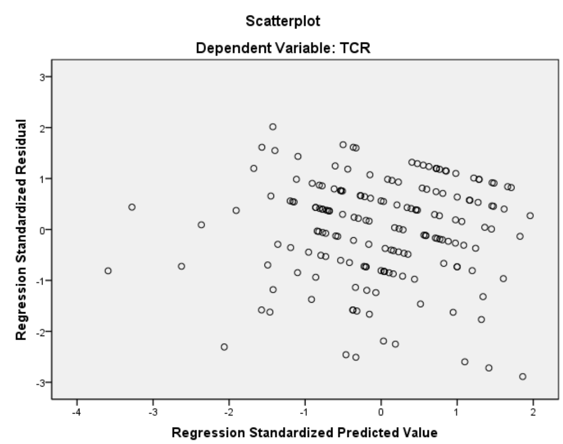

Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: TIS
Expected Cum Prob
Observed Cum Prob

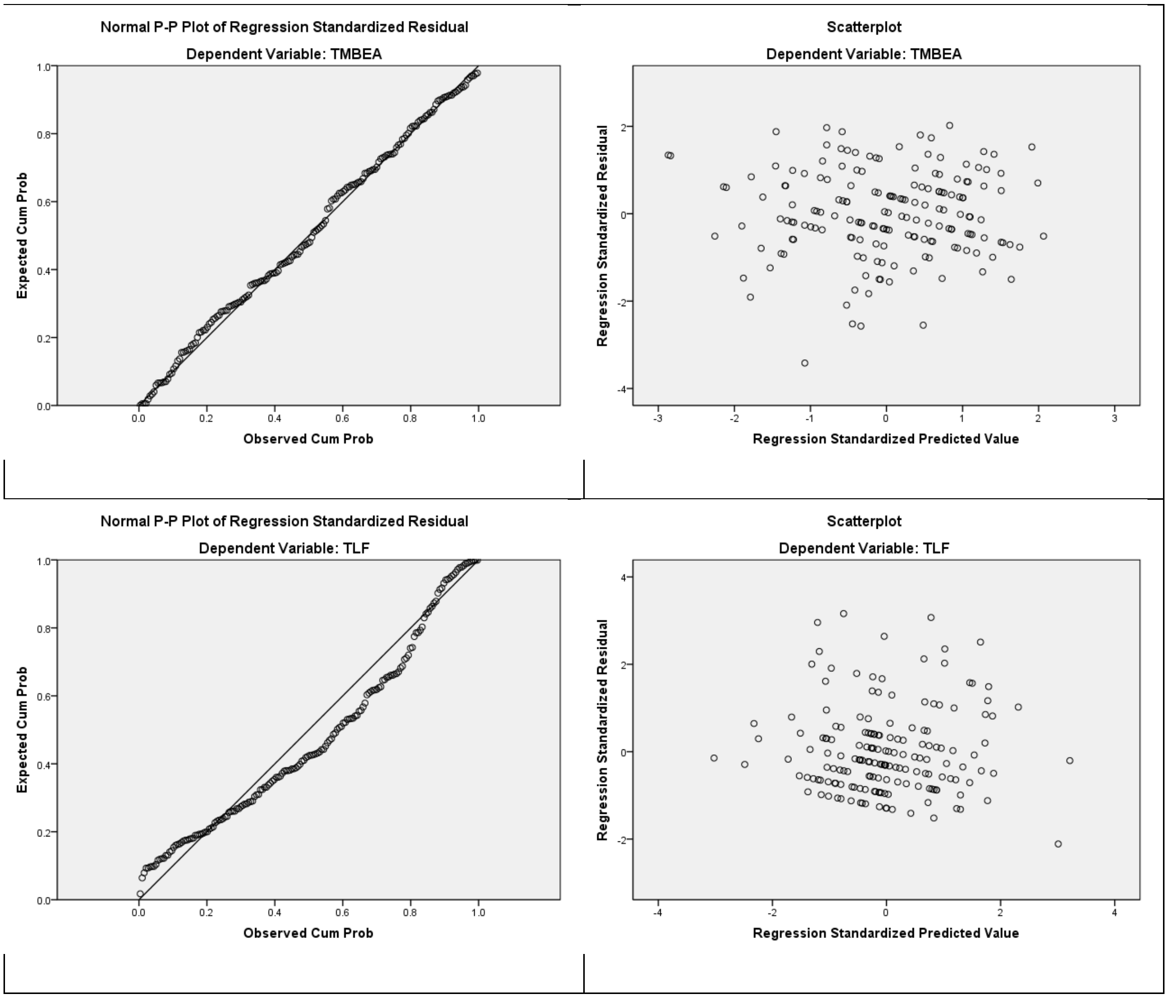

Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: TIS
Regression Standardized Residual
Regression Standardized Predicted Value


Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: TIC
Expected Cum Prob
Observed Cum Prob


Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: TIC
Regression Standardized Residual
Regression Standardized Predicted Value


Normal P-P Plot of Regression Standardized Residual
Dependent Variable: TCR
Expected Cum Prob
Observed Cum Prob


Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: TCR
Regression Standardized Residual
Regression Standardized Predicted Value



Multicollinearity: Multicollinearity (or collinearity) happens where there are "high inter-correlations among some set of the predictor variables" (Leech et al., 2005: 90). SPSS has a command for calculation of collinearity based on two values called as 'Tolerance' and 'VIF'. It is established that a Tolerance value of less than .10, or a VIF value of above 10 indicates the violation of the collinearity assumption (Meyers, et al., 2006). The examination of 'Tolerance' and 'VIF' in regression analysis revealed that all Tolerance values are above .10 and all VIF values are far below 10 (Table 5. 27). As a result, this analysis does not violate the assumption of collinearity.

Table 5-27: The test of multicollinearity of variables.

Collinearity Statistics	Tolerance	VIF
PD	.80	1.25
UA	.80	1.25
CO	.78	1.28
MAS	.76	1.32

Outliers: Outliers can also be detected by inspecting the Mahalanobis distances that are produced by SPSS program. The appropriate critical value for Mahalanobis varies depending on the number of independent variables. A full list of these values can be gained from statistics texts (see Tabachnick and Fidell 2007, Table C.4). For this analysis in which the number of independent variables is four, the critical value is 18.47. If the value of Mahalanobis exceeds the cut-off of 18.47, it means certain cases produced outliers and perhaps one should consider removing these cases from the analysis. The Mahalanobis value for this analysis was 34.06, which exceeded considerably the critical value of 18.47. As a result, the case with Id 43 was removed from the analysis, which reduced the number of cases to 172 and reduced the value of the Mahalanobis distance to 15.76 which is now below the critical value of 18.47.

Once the examinations of presumptions were conducted, the main regression analysis was carried out. A standard multiple regression was performed separately for each of 8 dimensions of MLQ leadership as the criteria of leadership styles while the dimensions of cultural values based on Dorfman and Howell's (1988) formulation served as cultural predictors.

First, multiple regression was conducted to determine the best linear combination of PD, UA, CO and MAS for predicting IA. The means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations are demonstrated in Table 5.28. The prediction model was statistically significant, $F(4, 167) = 6.02$, $p < .001$, with PD, UA and CO contributing to the prediction. However the direction of association of PD with IA is negative. This means that the highest level of PD associated with the lowest level of IA. The Beta values presented in Table 5.29 suggests that those VET leaders characterised by the highest levels of the three cultural values of PD, UA and CO also contribute to this prediction. However, the R squared value was .13. This indicates that 13% of the variance in IA was explained by the model. According to Cohen (1988), this is a small effect.

Table 5-28: Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for IA and Predictor Variables (N=172)

	Variable	**M**	**SD**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
	IA	2.96	.66	-.18**	.26**	.24**	.01
	Predictor variable						
1	PD	2.62	.58	1	.05	.06	.46**
2	UA	4.24	.47		1	.44**	.14*
3	CO	4.03	.49			1	.23**
4	MAS	3.08	.79				1

**p < 0.01 *p < 0.05

Table 5-29: Standard Multiple Regression Analysis Summary for PD, UA, CO and MAS Predicting IA

Variable	B	SEB	Beta
PD	-.25	.09	-.22*
UA	.27	.11	.19*
CO	.21	.11	.16*
MAS	.04	.07	.04
R^2	.13		

**p < 0.01 *p < 0.05

In the second analysis, a multiple regression was conducted to determine if IB (dependent variable) could be predicted from PD, UA, CO and MAS (independent variables). The means, standard deviations, and correlations are demonstrated in Table 5.30. The prediction model was statistically significant, $F (4, 167) = 9.20$, $p<.001$, with all four variables significantly contributing to the prediction. Yet, the direction of association of PD and MAS with IB is negative. The Beta values, presented in Table 5.31, suggest that those VET leaders characterised by the highest levels of the two cultural values of UA and MAS also contribute to this prediction. The R squared value was .18. This indicates that 18% of the variance in IB was explained by the model. According to Cohen (1988), this is a small effect.

Table 5-30: Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for IB and Predictor Variables (N=172)

	M	SD	1	2	3	4
IB	3.10	.55	-.20**	.32**	.18*	-.19*
Predictor variable						
PD	2.62	.58	1	.05	.06	.46**
UA	4.24	.47		1	.44**	.14*
CO	4.03	.49			1	.23**
MAS	3.08	.79				1

**p < 0.01 *p < 0.05

Table 5-31: Standard Multiple Regression Analysis Summary for PD, UA, CO and MAS Predicting IB

	B	SEB	Beta
PD	-.13	.08	-.13
UA	.37	.09	.31**
CO	.10	.09	.09
MAS	-.14	.06	-.20*
R^2	.18		

**p < 0.01, *p < 0.05

In the third analysis, the independent variables including PD, UA, CO and MAS were used in a multiple regression analysis to predict IM. The means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations are demonstrated in Table 5.32. The prediction model was statistically significant, F (4, 167) = 5.50, p<.001, with PD, UA and CO significantly contributing to the prediction. Again, PD showed a negative correlation with the dependent variables. The Beta values presented in Table 5.33 suggest that those VET leaders characterised by the highest levels of the two cultural values of PD and UA also contribute to this prediction. The R squared value was .12. This indicates that 12% of the variance in IM was explained by the model. According to Cohen (1988), this is a small effect.

Table 5-32: Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for IM and Predictor Variables (N=172)

		M	**SD**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
	IM	3.28	.53	-.18*	.26**	.20**	-.07
	Predictor variable						
1	PD	2.62	.58	1	.05	.06	.46**
2	UA	4.24	.47		1	.44**	.14*
3	CO	4.03	.49			1	.23**
4	MAS	3.08	.79				1

**p < 0.01, *p < 0.05

Table 5-33: Standard Multiple Regression Analysis Summary for PD, UA, CO and MAS Predicting IM

	B	**SEB**	**Beta**
PD	-.16	.07	-.17*
UA	.26	.09	.23*
CO	.13	.09	0.12
MAS	-.04	.06	-0.05
R^2	.12		

**p < 0.01, *p < 0.05

The fourth analysis similarly used multiple regression to determine the best linear combination of cultural values for predicting another dimension of transformational leadership, namely, IS. The means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations are demonstrated in Table 5.34. The prediction model was statistically significant, $F (4, 167) = 7.93$, $p < .001$, with PD, UA and CO contributing to the prediction. Again, the direction of the association of PD with IS is negative. It means that the highest level of PD is associated with the lowest level of IS. The Beta values, presented in Table 5.35, suggest that those VET leaders characterised by the highest levels of the three cultural values of PD and UA also contribute to this prediction. The R squared value was 0.16. This indicates that 16% of the variance in IA was explained by the model. According to Cohen (1988), this is a small effect.

Table 5-34: Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for IS and Predictor Variables (N=172)

		M	**SD**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
	IS	3.02	.57	-.22*	.29**	.21*	-.11
	Predictor variables						
1	PD	2.62	.58	1	.05	.06	.46**
2	UA	4.24	.47		1	.44**	.14*
3	CO	4.03	.49			1	.23**
4	MAS	3.08	.79				1

**p < 0.01, *p < 0.05

Table 5-35: Standard Multiple Regression Analysis Summary for PD, UA, CO and MAS Predicting IS

	B	SEB	Beta
PD	-.21	.08	-.21*
UA	.31	.10	.26**
CO	.15	.09	0.13
MAS	-.06	.06	-0.08
R^2	0.16		

**p < 0.01, *p < 0.05

In the fifth analysis, the independent variables including PD, UA, CO and MAS were used in a multiple regression analysis to predict IC. The means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations are demonstrated in Table 5.36. The prediction model was statistically significant, F (4, 167) = 7.75, p<.001, with PD, UA and CO significantly contributing to the prediction. Again, PD showed a negative correlation with the dependent variables. The Beta values presented in Table 5.37, suggest that those VET leaders characterised by highest level of two cultural values of PD and UA also contribute to this prediction. The R squared value was .16. This indicates that 16% of the variance in IC was explained by the model. According to Cohen (1988), this is a small effect.

Table 5-36: Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for IC and Predictor Variables (N=172)

		M	SD	1	2	3	4
	IC	3.08	.57	-.20*	.31**	.20*	-.11
	Predictor variables						
1	PD	2.62	.58	1	.05	.06	.46**
2	UA	4.24	.47		1	.44**	.14*
3	CO	4.03	.49			1	.23**
4	MAS	3.08	.79				1

**p < 0.01, *p < 0.05

Table 5-37: Standard Multiple Regression Analysis Summary for PD, UA, CO and MAS Predicting IC

	B	SEB	Beta
PD	-.18	.08	-.18*
UA	.26.	.09	.28**
CO	.15.	.09	0.11
MAS	-.06	.06	-0.09
R^2	0.16		

**p < 0.01, *p < 0.05

A sixth multiple regression was conducted to determine the best linear combination of PD, UA, CO and MAS for predicting CR as a main dimension of transactional leadership. The means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations are demonstrated in Table 5.38. The prediction model was statistically significant, F (4, 167) = 6.43, p<.001, with UA and CO contributing to the prediction. However the direction of association of PD with CR is negative. This means that the highest level of PD associated with the lowest level of CR. The Beta values presented in Table 5.39 suggest that those VET leaders characterised by the highest levels of two cultural values of UA and CO also contribute to this prediction. The R squared value was .13. This indicates that 13% of the variance in CR was explained by the model. According to Cohen (1988), this is a small effect.

Table 5-38: Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for CR and Predictor Variables (N=172)

		M	**SD**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
	CR Predictor variables	3.19	.58	-.11	.30**	.27**	.03
1	PD	2.62	.58	1	.05	.06	.46**
2	UA	4.24	.47		1	.44**	.14*
3	CO	4.03	.49			1	.23**
4	MAS	3.08	.79				1

**p < 0.01, *p < 0.05

Table 5-39: Standard Multiple Regression Analysis Summary for PD, UA, CO and MAS Predicting CR

	B	**SEB**	**Beta**
PD	-.14	.08	-0.14
UA	.28	.10	.23*
CO	.21	.10	.17*
MAS	.02	.06	0.03
R^2	0.13		

**p < 0.01, *p < 0.05

A seventh multiple regression was conducted to determine the best linear combination of PD, UA, CO and MAS for predicting MBEA as a main dimension of transactional leadership. The means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations are demonstrated in Table 5.40. The prediction model was statistically significant, $F(4, 167) = 9.25$, $p<.001$, with UA, CO and MAS contributing to the prediction. The Beta values presented in Table 5.41, suggest that those VET leaders characterised by the highest levels of the two cultural values of UA and CO also contribute to this prediction. The R squared value was .18. This indicates that 18% of the variance in CR was explained by the model. According to Cohen (1988), this is a small effect.

Table 5-40: Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for MBEA and Predictor Variables (N=172)

		M	**SD**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
	MBEA	.81	.74	.09	.38**	.32**	.15*
	Predictor variables	2.48	.69				
1.	PD	2.62	.58	1	.05	.06	.46**
2.	UA	4.24	.47		1	.44**	.14*
3.	CO	4.03	.49			1	.23**
4.	MAS	3.08	.79				1

**p < 0.01, *p < 0.05

Table 5-41: Standard Multiple Regression Analysis Summary for PD, UA, CO and MAS Predicting MBEA

	B	**SEB**	**Beta**
PD	.05	.09	.04
UA	.43	.11	.29**
CO	.25	.11	.18*
MAS	.05	.07	.05
R^2	0.18		

**p < 0.01, *p < 0.05

The final multiple regression was conducted to determine the best linear combination of PD, UA, CO and MAS for predicting LF as a main dimension of transactional leadership. The means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations are demonstrated in Table 5.42. The prediction model was statistically significant, F (4, 167) = 1.85, p<.001, with PD and MAS contributing to the prediction. The Beta values presented in Table 5.43 suggest no statistically significant prediction between LF and cultural values dimensions. The R squared value was .06. This indicates that 6% of the variance in CR was explained by the model. According to Cohen (1988), this is a small effect.

Table 5-42: Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for LF and Predictor Variables (N=172)

		M	SD	1	2	3	4
	LF	2.48	.69	.20*	-.04	-.03	.20*
	Predictor variables						
1.	PD	2.62	.58	1	.05	.06	.46**
2.	UA	4.24	.47		1	.44**	.14*
3.	CO	4.03	.49			1	.23**
4.	MAS	3.08	.79				1

**p < 0.01, *p < 0.05

Table 5-43: Standard Multiple Regression Analysis Summary for PD, UA, CO and MAS Predicting LF

	B	SEB	Beta
PD	.18	.11	.13
UA	-.07	.14	-.04
CO	-.10	.14	-.06
MAS	.16	.09	.16
R2	0.06		

**p < 0.01, *p < 0.05

In the foregoing analysis, the individual correlations between perceived leadership style dimensions (8 variables) and perceived national culture dimensions (4 variables) were investigated under the headlines of intercorrelations. These results are summarised in Table 5.44. In general, the results do not indicate a strong correlation between leadership dimensions and cultural values. The largest correlation is between MBEA and UA, r = .38, n = 172, p < .01 followed by MBEA and CO and IB and UA, r = .32, n = 172, p < .01. Based on Cohen's (1988, pp. 79–81) guidelines, this strength of correlation is medium. The coefficient of determination was calculated for these variables to understand how much variance the two variables share. The results suggested that there is not much overlap between the variables of cultural values and leadership dimension. The strongest was found between MBEA and MAS with 10 per cent which is a small amount of variance when compared with much of the research conducted in the social sciences.

The direction of correlations between PD and the leadership styles dimensions apart from MBEP and LF is negative. It means that high levels of PD perceived by VET leaders are associated with lower levels of all leadership components excluding LF and MBEP. The same pattern is evident between MAS and IB, IM, IS and IC. Yet the correlation between MAS and IB is statistically significant r = -.19, n = 172, p < .05 but small based on Cohen's (1988, pp. 79–81) guidelines.

Table 5-44: Summary of individual correlation results

	PD	UA	CO	MAS
IA	-.18**	.26**	.24**	.01
IB	-.20**	.32**	.18*	-.19*
IM	-.18*	.26**	.20**	-.07
IS	-.22*	.29**	.21*	-.11
IC	-.20*	.31**	.20*	-.11
CR	-.11	.30**	.27**	.03
MBEA	.09	.38**	.32**	.15*
LF	.20*	-.04	-.03	.20*

**p < 0.01, *p < 0.05

A summary of grouped correlations or regression results is provided in Table 5.45. The results of this analysis show that for all eight leadership dimensions, R^2 scores were comparatively low (ranging from 0.06 to 0.18), which suggests that variations in cultural dimensions account for only a modest level of variance in each leadership style. In other words, only a small proportion of the total variation in leadership scores was predicted by cultural values scores. UA proved to be the most significant predictor of all dimensions at $p < 0.01$ excluding LF; with IB the strongest (31) followed by MBEA (29) and IC (28). PD also emerged as a significant predicator of four dimensions of IA (22), IS (21), IC (18) and IM (17) at $p < 0.05$. CO predicted IA (16), CR (17) and MBEA (18) while MAS appeared to predict only IB (20) both at $p < 0.05$.

Table 5-45: Summary of regression results

	IA	IB	IM	IS	IC	CR	MBEA	LF
PD	-.22*	-.13	-.17*	-.21*	-.18*	-.14	.04	.13
UA	.19*	.31**	.23*	.26**	.28**	.23*	.29**	-.04
CO	.16*	.09	.12	.13	.11	.17*	.18*	-.06
MAS	.04	-.20*	-.05	-.08	-.09	.03	.05	.16
R^2	.13	.18	.12	.16	.16	.13	.18	.06

**$p < 0.01$, *$p < 0.05$

Finally, this analysis of comparison between the results of individual correlations, and grouped correlations, as shown in Table 5.46. The most substantial differences is demonstrated by CO and four dimensions of IB, IM, IS and IC. A substantial difference also appeared in PD and IB as well as PD and LF. The final substantial difference is identifiable in MAS and MBEA and LF.

Table 5-46: Comparison between the individual and grouped correlation results

	PD		UA		CO		MAS	
	Beta	r	Beta	r	Beta	r	Beta	r
IA	-.22*	-.18**	.19*	.26**	.16*	.24**	0.04	.01
IB	-0.13	-.20**	.31**	.32**	0.09	.18*	-.20*	-.19*
IM	-.17*	-.18*	.23*	.26**	0.12	.20**	-0.05	-.07
IS	-.21*	-.22*	.26**	.29**	0.13	.21*	-0.08	-.11
IC	-.18*	-.20*	.28**	.31**	0.11	.20*	-0.09	-.11
CR	-0.14	-.11	.23*	.30**	.17*	.27**	0.03	.03
MBEA	0.04	.09	.29**	.38**	.18*	.32**	0.05	.15*
LF	0.13	.20*	-0.04	-.04	-0.06	-.03	0.16	.20*

**p < 0.01, *p < 0.05

5.7 Summary

This chapter has provided a demographic profile of the research respondents, followed by a statistical analysis of data from the MLQ (5Xshort form) and a cultural values survey, to investigate the dominant perceived leadership styles of Saudi TVTC leaders, and the relationship between those perceptions of demographic variables and cultural dimensions. Issues of reliability normality and homogeneity of the data were addressed prior to the statistical analysis.

With regard to the perceived dominant leadership style, the IM dimension of transformational leadership was ranked highest by both leaders and subordinates. However, there were modest differences in their ratings of other styles. Differences related to managerial level and institutional affiliation were small.

With regard to the relationship between leadership style and demographic variables, small to moderate relationships were found for gender, education and work experience, for both leaders' and subordinates' perception of leadership styles, but no significant relationship was found for age.

Regarding the relationship between cultural dimensions and leadership style, only small relationships were found, with PD being the strongest predictor of transformational leadership, UA as a significant contributor to certain dimensions of transformational and transactional leadership. CO predicting IA and MBEA and MAS predicting IB.

Before further discussion and interpretation of these results, the qualitative aspects of the research questions will be addressed in the light of the interview data, in the next chapter.

Chapter 6: Qualitative Findings

6.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to present an analysis of the qualitative data gathered during the study, which provided further information related to the first and fourth objectives of study (see Chapter four Table n, 4.3). Drawing on these objectives, the interview responses are grouped into two main subject areas, each covering several major themes. The first research objective was to identify and explore the dominant leadership styles of VET in Saudi Arabia. Thus, section 6.3 examines data on the Saudi VET leadership styles as perceived by their leaders and raters. As indicated in the methodology chapter, two groups of questions were formulated to address this aim. The first group sought to build concepts by asking questions on leadership styles as perceived by respondents. The second group of questions related to their preconceptions of transformational-transactional leadership. These questions concern the constituent elements of transformational and transactional leadership. Based upon these questions, several themes and quotations are identified in section 6.3. These offer further and different insights into the data previously gathered in the quantitative strand.

The third objective was to investigate socio-cultural factors that may be associated with VET leadership style in Saudi Arabia; this objective was addressed based upon four constructs from Dorfman and Howell's (1988) cultural values dimensions. Interviews were conducted to explore the possible impact of culture on VET leadership styles. Several questions were formulated to elicit data concerning these aims. These questions first asked respondents about their perceptions of cultural values in the workplace and the extent to which they shape and influence their leadership styles. These themes are explored in section 6.4. Given that the leadership styles of each respondent were identified previously through qualitative and quantitative data, this section also seeks to explore the potential connections between the perceived national culture and leadership of respondents. First, however, the characteristics of the interview respondents will be introduced.

6.2 Characteristics of Respondents

As indicated in the methodology chapter in section 4.4, the sample of this study is called a nested mixed-method sample (an explanatory sequential design) in which information generated through the quantitative strand was used to select participants with particular characteristics for the qualitative strand. The interviews involved 11 participants divided into two main subgroups of leaders and raters. Based on the information gathered in the quantitative stage, four additional categories were identified among them: five leaders who gave the highest scores in self-perceived transformational leadership styles (coded as LTF-1, LTF-2, LTF-3, LTF-4 and LTF-5); three leaders who gave the highest scores in self-perceived transactional style leadership styles (coded as LTA-1, LTA-2 andLTA-3); two raters who gave the highest scores in perceived transformational leadership (coded as RTF-1 and RTF-2); and one rater who gave the highest score in perceived transactional style leadership styles (coded as RTA-1). The detailed demographic profiles of the participants and the codes that represent them are shown in Table 6.1.

Table 6-1: The demographic profiles of the interview participants

Codes	Gender	Age group	Work experience	The educational level	Institutional affiliation
LTF-1	Female	40-49	4-8	Master	Vice Dean of TCG
LTF-2	Male	40-49	≤ 3	Doctor	Dean of TC
LTF-3	Female	20-39	≤ 3	Bachelor	Vice Dean of TCG
LTF-4	Female	30-39	≤ 3	Bachelor	Vice-Dean of TCG
LTF-5	Male	30-39	4-8	Bachelor	Vice Head of VI
LTA-1	Female	20-29	4-8	Bachelor	Vice-Dean of TCG
LTA-2	Male	40-49	17+	Bachelor	Head of VI
LTA-3	Male	40-49	17+	Bachelor	Head of VI
RTF-1	Female	30-39	4 - 8	Bachelor	Trainer in TCG
RTF-2	Male	40-49	17+	Bachelor	Trainer in VI
RTA-1	Male	30-39	9-16	Bachelor	Trainer in TC

6.3 Leadership Dimensions

The following subsections will explore in detail the important themes emerging from the interviews according to two main leadership styles of transformational leadership, transactional leadership. Those characteristics of leadership that do not fall within either transformational or transactional categories were classified as emergent leadership styles specific to the context of study.

6.3.1 Transformational Leadership

As indicated in section 2.3.2, transformational leadership outlined by Bass and Avolio (1985) in the MLQ instrument comprises four dimensions: idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. These dimensions were emphasised as the main leadership characteristics of Saudi VET leaders.

6.3.1.1. Idealised Influence

Different elements of this dimension were identified by respondents as important characteristics of Saudi VET leaders. It was indicated in section 2.3.2 that there are a number of constituent elements that characterise leaders as high in idealised influence.

One of the most important elements of this dimension was a quality that allows the leaders to appear as **role models** for their followers. LTF-4 stated, *"For a leader, it is crucial to demonstrate and exercise high-standard leadership qualities because the followers inevitably emulate behaviours of their leaders"*. This respondent referred to her personal experience, explaining, *"I personally stepped into my former manager's shoes and applied her leadership style, which I believe is the most suitable method in this context"*. LTF-1 also underscored the ways in which followers emulate supervisors' behaviours, stating that "*it is very important for leaders to behave appropriately because if the leaders go out of the correct path their followers may also be led astray."*

Apart from LTF-1 and LTF-4, no other respondent mentioned the importance of being a role model as an important element of this dimension. Instead, three of them referred to being **admired, respected and trusted** as qualities of Saudi VET leaders, which are also the main elements of idealised influence. LTF-2 stated, "*When a manager is assigned as a dean of a VET college, it is crucial for him to gain a large extent of legitimacy and support from subordinates".* He stressed, *"I do not like my followers to obey me only because I am officially their manager, but most importantly they should develop a relationship with me based on respect and trust"* (LTF-2). RTF-2 shared this sentiment, stating that "*our relationship with our head teacher is based on a bond of trust and respect rather than organisational constraints and formal binding by-laws".* In line with these statements, LTA-2 stated that

> *trust and respect are integral parts of leaders-subordinates relations ... I tried to develop a sense of trust and confidence with my subordinates as soon as I was appointed as a head of VI because I strongly believe that leadership sooner or later will halt if subordinates do not trust the leader.*

Another element closely associated with the previously mentioned dimensions was that of enjoying **high moral standards** and conducting oneself in an **ethical** manner. These characteristics were emphasised by almost all respondents. For instance, LTF-4 stated that, as the Vice-Dean of a TCG, she always attempted to demonstrate the best leadership style based on the highest ethical values. LTA-1, on the other hand, contended that she believed in obedience to the rules and regulations of the organization. Several other respondents asserted that they should be good leaders based on their shared ethical beliefs, drawing on Islamic ethical principles.

Another element that falls within this dimension is that of displaying **a sense of power and confidence**. Three of the respondents, all of whom were from TCG, highlighted this characteristic. LTF-3, for instance, stated that a leader should always appear very confident and bring everything under her control. LTF-3 added that *"the lack of determination and confidence of the leader would inevitably lead to chaos in organisation and confusion in decision-making*" (LTF-3). LTF-1 similarly said, *"The strength of leadership is evident through the decisions made by leaders… uncertainty in decision-making is an important indication of weak leadership".* LTF-1 went on to say:

> *I accepted this responsibility in the VET institution (TCG) because I have already gained much relevant experience and knowledge like curriculum development...and assessment. As a result I can perform my duties well and I am very confident in whatever I do (LTF-1).*

The final element of idealised influence underscored by two respondents is the importance of having a **sense of purpose and clear vision and mission**. LTF- 4 stated that, as long as the leader has a clear understanding of her goals and missions, she will be confident of accomplishing them. Similarly, LTF-1 reiterated that an organisation will not succeed unless a leader has a solid understanding of its vision. She particularly emphasised that, *"without a clear understanding of the long- and short-term goals of the organisation, it is impossible to direct it onto the correct path"*. However, some respondents (LTF-4, LTF-2, LTF-3, LTF-5, and RTF-1) referred to a number of obstacles that prevented them from acquiring a clear idea of their missions. The most commonly perceived difficulty in this respect was the instability of general policies of TVTC in Saudi Arabia. LTF-3, for instance, stated:

> *What worries us is that policies have become short-term and are rapidly changing. Changing the system without taking into consideration the requirements for such a change leads to increased psychological and physical pressures… Indeed, in the beginning, the vision was clear, but due to the rapid changes and non-commitment by the executive manager to a long-term plan, it turned out blurry (LTF-3).*

Similarly, RTF-1 stated, "*As a trainer, I have clear tasks, but the college's changing strategy causes ambiguity"* (RTF-1).

When the respondents were asked to describe their perceptions of their institution's vision, they stated more or less general goals. Among the most common visions were *"reaching out to the largest band of trainees"* (LTF-1), *"training the trainees at the best levels in order to meet requirements of the labour market"* (LTF-2), and "*focus[ing] on quality training to secure job opportunities for trainees"* (LTA-3). These can be divided into two important groups: those visions that are derived from the general policies stipulated by TVTC and those visions set out by managers according to their trends. LTF-2 clarified:

> *The vision of the organisation is not limited to the one mentioned in the basic documents and circulated by bylaws from the higher authorities… each manager should be qualified enough to set out the specific visions of his own institution. For example, I have drawn up a vision and mission statement of my own institution and set a target period of a few years in order to accomplish that mission and to realise that vision.*

6.3.1.2. Inspirational Motivation

As indicated in section 2.3, inspirationally motivated leaders tend to motivate and inspire subordinates by **talking optimistically** about the future and **enthusiastically** about what needs to be accomplished. Such leaders can also be regarded as **visionary** in the sense that they articulate a compelling vision of the future and confidence that their goal will be achieved (Bass and Riggio, 2006). LTF-3 stated that *"motivation is an important element of human communications; however, when it comes to leader-subordinates relationships it becomes acute"* (LTF-3). Due to this importance, LTF-3 stated, *"I regularly use motivational rhetoric during meetings with trainers and heads of departments in order to enhance their sense of confidence".* Similarly, LTF-1 stressed that motivation is crucial. She narrated her recent personal experience, stating,

> *Recently one of our trainers was awarded certificates of gratitude because her students' project gained the highest results within this college. I sent her a letter of appreciation and congratulated her on the award. I believed that this letter would actually enhance her motivation because, along with the certificate she received, her good job should be appreciated personally (LTF-1).*

Talking optimistically about the future and being **enthusiastic about** what needs to be accomplished were key elements of inspirational motivation and were stressed by three respondents. LTF-1, for instance, stated that *"conveying pessimistic messages about the future to subordinates looks like planting the seeds of failure".* She added:

> *I always appear optimistic about everything in my behaviour and speech because whatever you believe in, it will happen to you ... I always encourage my subordinates to trust in God in positive ways and keep them optimistic (LTF-1).*

LTF-3 stated that she always talked very energetically and tried to appear full of enthusiasm with subordinates. She explained, *"I arrange regular meetings with my subordinates and these meetings are the main forum for me to disseminate a positive image about the future of their work to subordinates*". LTF-5, on the hand, stressed that a leader should be very positive and enthusiastic in conducting leadership and, more importantly, he should be able to communicate these values perfectly to subordinates. To support this notion in this context, he referred to a well-known saying of Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him), "[The] Optimistic [One] goodness shall find" as an important principle of leaders' beliefs.

Another important element of inspirational motivation is a characteristic labelled **visionary,** meaning a leader who provides followers with a vision and a sense of mission. Once a leader has a good understanding of the vision, the next step is to articulate it to the subordinates. LTF-4 stated, *"We should first have a clear understanding of its [TCG's] goals and missions in order to persuade the subordinates to materialise that"*. LTF-1 similarly argued that *"a leader should be visionary and possess a clear indication of how the vision can be recognised and carried out effectively by the subordinates"* (LTF-1). LTF-3 shared this view. She felt the need to be very clear about her own personal vision and mission as the leader of the organisation because she would be held accountable. She stated that *"in order to avoid any ambiguity or unwanted behaviour, the employee's conduct will be in harmony with the whole organisation*" (LTF-3).

The respondents identified a number of methods for the articulation of vision. For instance, LTF-3 said,

> *As a Vice-Dean and former trainer, the vision is very clear and I focus on showing this in several ways: at meetings and at the beginning of each training semester; and through issuing leaflets and bulletins to illustrate the vision and reasons for our presence (LTF-3).*

Similarly, LTA-3 noted,

> *At the start of each training semester, a meeting is held among the Institute's employees in which all requirements are clarified. Among many other things, we stress the Institute's vision and it should be clear for all…We always stress the vision, objectives, bylaws and regulations, especially with fresh trainers and at the beginning of each semester. We also hold awareness campaigns using leaflets and posters that are distributed among all sections. In addition, a board is hung in each section, on which the organisation's vision and objectives are stated (LTA-3).*

However, the respondents found it hard to spell out adequately all employees' responsibilities and expectations. LTA-1, for instance, said, *"The hardest thing I encounter is the difficulty in conveying my ideas on mutual responsibilities of trainers and the whole College"*.

6.3.1.3. Intellectual Stimulation

As indicated in section 2.3, this dimension describes those leaders who encourage the followers to be **creative and innovative** and to **challenge** their own beliefs and values as well as those of the leader and the organisation. These leaders consider problems **from different angles** and allow the followers to **engage** in careful problem-solving.

LTF-1 believed that it is crucial for a leader to encourage the subordinates to be innovative and creative in their daily routines. She gave an example of how relying on this principle improved the efficiency of their organisation. She said:

> *The student annual enrolment was a difficult task that used to take several hours and provoked many complaints from most students. One of our heads of department, who was familiar with the operational management field, proposed a plan that could speed up the whole process. Initially, her plan was rejected by my deputy but I insisted on giving her a chance to try these new ideas. Once the new process based on the plan was implemented, almost all students and officers were surprised as the whole process of enrolment was reduced to only one hour and a half (LTF-1).*

LTF- l then reiterated that *"it is necessary to encourage and support the subordinates to bring about new ideas"*. Similarly, LTA-2 believed that it is a good idea to give followers a chance to bring about new ideas; however, he emphasised that at the same time there should be some degree of control. He used the metaphor of driving and stressed that the leader should use both accelerator and brake at the appropriate times. This element of intellectual stimulation was also stressed by LTF-2 who stated that

> *one of the features of an efficient leader is to overcome any problems in an innovative way…I always expect my followers to follow tested and well established procedures but at the same time I give them this leeway to approach problems with their own personal creativity* (LTF-2).

In contrast, LTA-3 explained that the important aspect of his work was to ensure his subordinates follow the exact tasks of their roles. He stated, *"I usually remind my employees that the most important thing for me to follow the regulation step by step. I do not want more than them doing their exact work".*

Another element that characterises a leader with intellectual stimulation is the **soliciting of new ideas** from subordinates. LTF-4 said

> *I would often use the meetings with open discussions and brainstorming with heads of department in order to make decisions…this sort of decision-making is rooted in our long-standing tradition of consultation [Shura] which encourages the leader to invite the followers to open meetings to share concerns and solicit ideas.*

LTF-4 believed that, despite years of experience and knowledge, she would still seek advice from her subordinates because she knew that they were experts in their own right. Therefore, before LTF-4 finalised her decision, her subordinates were given the opportunity to look at the issue and give their opinions on the matter. Another respondent, LTF-3, referred to a famous Arab proverb, "The one who consults does not fail", as an important principle of her leadership and clarified her decision-making procedure as follows:

> *I study the problem from different perspectives. I should define what type it belongs to, and whether it is related to regulations, such as behavioural and disciplinary problems. Afterwards, I consult with those around me to take a decision so as to resolve the problem after discussing all possibilities. However, if we don't find a solution, we refer the problem to TVTC if it is not a personal problem. Yet, if it is a personal one, I seek a solution to it after holding a discussion with the one involved in it from all perspectives (LTF-3).*

6.3.1.4. Individualised Consideration

As with idealised influence, individualised consideration was highlighted by all the respondents as an important characteristic of their leadership styles. One of its elements, underscored by all respondents, was the tendency to view every subordinate as having **different needs and abilities;** thus, they should be **treated differently**. When RTF-l, one of the trainers, was asked about how she was treated by her manager, she was very optimistic. She explained:

> *I was lucky to have such a considerate manager in the beginning of my career because she did not expect me to be a master in all relevant affairs. Rather, she considered both my strengths and weakness and helped me to put my capabilities into use and overcome my weakness (RTF-l).*

Another respondent explained,

> *Here in this vocational institute we have trainers with high academic training and low work experience as well as trainers with high work experience and low academic credentials. I believe it is an added advantage rather than a pitfall because the VET trainers should combine both knowledge and skill…. regardless of their academic background and work experience, there would be no difference for me because they complement one another by learning from one another (LTF-5).*

In order for LTF-5 to gain a good understanding of his subordinates' abilities and skills, he wanted them to provide a full CV. He stated,

> *As a leader, it is necessary for me to have a comprehensive knowledge of my employees including their academic certificates or training, their additional skills and experience and also general things about their family and personal commitments. This information helps me to assign them to the appropriate positions that suit them well. We should know our subordinates very well if we want to lead them perfectly (LTF-5).*

Similarly, LTA-2 referred to the fact that VET is a specific training institution in which both skills and knowledge matter. He said that failure to recognise the strengths and weaknesses of followers would lead to inefficient leadership. He also stated that those with different levels of knowledge and skills would complement the strength of the institution and the leader. LTA-2 continued, *"I treat my subordinates based on the* *principle of justice rather than equality. I never compare the abilities of beginners with those of senior ones".*

The leadership of the VET institution was a new experience for LTF-2, as he found a substantial gap among trainers in terms of knowledge and skills. Prior to his appointment as the Dean of a VET institution, he was working in a private company. He stated, "*I view every trainer as having different abilities and thus treat them on individual basis".* LTF-2 admitted that

> *VET trainers with high academic achievements were good at scientific and analytical aspects of courses, particularly in giving lectures, while those with high work experience have mastery of conducting practical workshops (LTF-2).*

As with LTF-2, LTF-4 stated that she would never discriminate between the trainers merely on the basis of their academic achievements. In her view, all trainers should be treated with equal respect. The most important issue for her was the extent to which each trainer could make a contribution to the organisation. Similarly, LTF-3 noted that

> *All of my trainers were considered assets to the Institution regardless of their fields of expertise, but what mattered most were their different knowledge and skills… I made great efforts to help and guide the trainers from different backgrounds who were expert in their own field, to enhance their abilities. For instance, the head of the tailoring and dress-making department was very senior and experienced in practical jobs; however, her knowledge about theoretical aspects of tailoring was modest. What I had to do was to give her a chance to attend related courses to gain related knowledge (LTF-3).*

In line with the above statements, LTF-1 said that trainers have different needs and, thus, the leader should individualise the level of support given to their subordinates. She said that the prerequisite of this is the recognition of the differences among the subordinates. LTF-1 specifically stated that she divided trainers into three different levels in terms of their abilities: high-quality, medium-quality and minimum-quality. She continued:

> *As a leader I have to deal with each level in different ways. I will spend little time with high-quality performers. Instead, I will spend much time on getting the best from the second level because I believe that, with proper guidance and training, they could reach the standard levels. The third level represents the biggest challenge to me because they exhibit little motivation and low discipline. As a leader I do not want to use my authority to severely reprimand them. Rather, I try to understand what their problems are and how I might be helpful to assist followers in becoming active and effective in their work (LTF-1).*

Another element of individualised consideration, shared by two of the respondents, was that of acting as coach and mentor. LTF-3, for instance, strongly believed in the need for leaders to regularly guide and advise their followers. LTF-3 said that, as a leader, it was her duty to guide and mentor her followers. She said,

> *To fulfil this responsibility I act in two ways: for some I personally act as coach and adviser and for others I use delegation to help them grow through personal* challenges (LTF-3).

On the other hand, LTF-5 stressed that a leader should act as the point of reference for his followers. Leaders should not be selective in the knowledge they convey to their subordinates.

6.3.2 Transactional Leadership

Three important dimensions were also identified for transactional leadership, which are contingent reward, management by exception active, and management by exception passive.

6.3.2.1 Contingent Reward

Contingent reward is transactional when the leader assigns a task or obtains agreement from the follower on what needs to be done and arranges for psychological or material rewards for followers in exchange for satisfactorily carrying out the assignment (Bass, 1998). It was also indicated that contingent reward bears a resemblance to the features of transformational leadership when the reward is psychological, such as praise and recognition (Bass and Riggio, 2006). LTF-3 explained that there are a number of psychological rewards in TVTC. She noted that,

> *At the unofficial level, the trainer may receive certificates of gratitude and their behaviour may be described as meticulous or industrious. This gives the trainer a feeling that her skills and efforts towards trainees are appreciated (LTF-3).*

LTF-1 also said,

> *I use immediate letters of appreciation in any situation I like and in which I find that the employee truly deserves praise. I also distribute certificates of appreciation, shields and letters of gratitude at the end of the training year (LTF-1).*

The efficient use of financial rewards was underscored by RTA-1, LTA-1 and LTA-3. However, LTF-3 said that, while rewarding her followers with anything material was effective, when she rewarded them with praise and recognition she noticed a better effort from them. Similarly, LTF-2 felt that non-monetary rewards would indirectly influence the behaviours of subordinates in a positive manner. When questioned about rewarding their followers in exchange for effort, all participants except LTF-5 and LTF-4 believed that rewards would act as a motivational factor for their subordinates.

The most common form of reward identified by respondents, however, was not financial rewards but those in the form of annual appraisal of employee performance. The respondents highlighted the importance of these procedures as an important indication of contingent reward. They explained that each subordinate is rated according to his or her performance and contribution to the organisation. The annual appraisal is normally used as a basis for promotion and salary increase. A large part of the scores given in these appraisals was left to the discretion of the immediate managers.

RTF-1 clarified that, as long as trainers perform according to the regulations established in the VET institution, there was no reason why she would not "reward" her followers with the score they deserved. LTF-3 emphasised that the annual appraisal was used as a form of reward for her trainers. LTF-2 said he would use the yearly appraisal as a form of promise in return for good performance. He said:

> *I will share with the subordinates my expectations and, once satisfied, I have no hesitation in awarding the deserved scores in the subordinate's appraisal form ...I would never use this procedure as a tool to put unnecessary pressure on my subordinates. If I found that, in some cases, they did not perform according to the required standards, I would arrange a meeting in the middle of the year to advise and guide the subordinates and tell them that they need to perform better (LTF-2).*

Another form of reward highlighted by two of the respondents, LTF-2 and LTF-5, was to allow them to attend short courses. LTF-5 stated that training opportunities conducted locally or internationally have proved to be very beneficial for subordinates as they enhance the capabilities and speed up their promotions. LTF-3 similarly stated that,

> *Recently, two trainers wished to continue with their higher academic studies, but the higher authority rejected such demands. So, my role was to facilitate contact between the two instructors and the authority to look into reasons behind the refusal (LTF-3).*

LTA-2 also noted that "*we motivate employees and trainers by granting those training courses in their respective fields, in addition to awarding them Certificates of Appreciation"*. All respondents believed that the reward system of TVTC was unsatisfactory compared to other government sectors. As RTF-2 clarified,

> *Within the boundaries of the current system of VET in Saudi Arabia, the [monetary] remuneration is insufficient largely because the system here is tied to the civil service system. I truly hope that the system will allow more utilisation of remuneration according to exerted efforts.*

RTA-1, however, said,

> *The authority within the boundaries of the system and the TVTC are limited to presenting excellence rewards and certificates of gratitude. For instance, the trainers perform well and set up an excellent and outstanding project; thus, they deserve more than what is allowed by the current reward system.*

6.3.2.2 Management by Exception (Active and Passive)

It was indicated in section 2.3.2 that Management by Exception (Active) is a corrective leadership style in which the leader monitors deviances, keeps track of mistakes and errors in the performance of the subordinates, and takes corrective action if a subordinate fails to meet standards. In passive management by exception, the leader takes no corrective action until a problem comes to his or her attention indicating unsatisfactory follower performance. The corrective action may be negative feedback, reproof, disapproval or disciplinary action. Three respondents endorsed Management by Exception (Active). LTF-4 in particular indicated,

> *I usually focus on the positive aspects and highlight work progress. In the presence of negative aspects, I show means of avoiding them through reviewing other sections. I also recommend reading about the aspects in which there are some weaknesses (LTF-4).*

LTA-2, in contrast, stated that he kept the employees under constant surveillance. LTA-1 indicated that, according to the requirements of her job description, the intentional and serious mistakes made by subordinates should be highlighted in order that they might be avoided in the future. However, she reiterated, *"I did not focus only on the mistakes but was willing to provide the followers with a solution to overcome the mistake".* LTF-1 stated that she used some preventative methods to avoid potential mistakes. She said

> *We already have established pre-emptive measures. For example, signing in and out should be verified using the fingerprint machine at specific times. We are implementing a system that is different from those in schools, as we rely on fingerprints and not as in universities. Here, we receive salary privileges and thus we are required to be distinguished in our performance. So, signing in and out should be at definite times, even if the trainer has no lectures to give. She can enhance her capabilities during such unutilised times (LTF-1).*

The most common mistakes identified by respondents were delay, absence, and going out during working hours without permission.

6.3.3 Other Emergent Leadership Styles

The respondents also pointed out a number of leadership characteristics that cannot be explained adequately by transformational or transactional leadership models. One important leadership characteristic especially endorsed by the respondents is knowledge. LTF-1 noted that she was appointed as the Dean of College largely because she had vast knowledge and experience in the management of training. She stated that *"knowledge is indispensable for a leader as this serves as a key value that they want to impart to their subordinates".* LTF-2 maintained that "*with adequate knowledge, a leader would be in a good position to guide and be a point of reference to his followers".* LTF-3 noted that *"a leader should stand head and shoulders above her subordinates in terms of knowledge and experience but at the same time she should not underestimate their knowledge"*. LTF-3 noted that, in particular, leadership of VET institutions requires the leaders and subordinates to be knowledgeable and well-informed on issues related to both educational system and workplace. RTF-2, on the other hand, believed that leaders and subordinates should continuously share knowledge and experience and compensate one another's shortcomings. Leaders, according to LTF-3, should be always open to learning new ideas regardless of their vast experience.

Another characteristic identified by respondents when describing their leadership style was something similar to the concept of paternalism. In this sense, the leader acts as a father figure in taking a personal interest in workers' lives and helping them with their personal needs. RTF-2 said, "*My leader has developed a benevolent relationship with us as we all feel like the members of a family*". LTF-4 similarly said,

> *As a leader, I feel a responsibility to get to know all aspects of my subordinates' lives…I do not intend to break their privacy or interfere in their personal affairs but the main reason is to help them to deal with their personal problems as much as possible (LTF-4).*

LTF-2, said, *"I usually attend special events or ceremonies of my subordinates such as weddings and their relatives' funerals*". He also stated that *"the staff members, trainers and leaders are very close to one another. Our organisation holds social gatherings and I personally attend them"*. LTF-1 similarly said that she always participates in social gatherings such as dinners and special events of subordinates. She said, *"I don't ignore important events such as somebody going on Haj or having a new baby. These are not extra jobs for me and I love to be close to my members of staff"*. LTA-1 also said, *"I keep track of important days of my subordinates and encourage other trainers to join in and be a part of such events"*. The results showed that these leaders tended to solve the problems of their subordinates exactly as a father does. They even help their subordinates to overcome their personal problems. RTA-1 said,

> *One of our trainers was the only son of a family and his father was suffering from a chronic decease. Our leader reduced his working hours and let him leave early or go to work late in order to have more time to look after his ailing father in hospital. He was also given permission to leave work in case of any emergency call from the hospital.*

Similarly, LTF-3, said, *"When one of our staff has a baby, because the maternity leave is not enough, I try to give her fewer hours than usual."*

6.4 Cultural Values

The respondents were asked about their perceptions of different dimensions of cultural values based on the definitions developed by Dorfman and Howell (1988).

6.4.1 Power Distance

The first dimension of cultural values based on Dorfman and Howell's definition is power distance. This has to do with the type of relations existing between leaders and subordinates. This dimension usually demonstrates the ways in which important decisions are made in an organisation. It was also indicated that, in low power distance countries, there is a strong preference for consultation between leader and subordinate. Organisations tend to be flatter; they are less centralised and contain fewer supervisory positions. In such workplaces, the leaders tend to delegate important tasks to subordinates.

All respondents expressed a preference for consultation, less centralisation and fewer supervisory positions. LTF-1, for instance said, *"A leader should trust and allow subordinates to participate in solving particular problems"*. She said,

> *Each department should resolve its own problems. Yet, if the section cannot find a solution to a certain problem, we [as the Head of College] help it resolve such a problem. We also consult those with prior expertise in the face of any difficulty and we listen to all parties involved* (LTF-1).

LTF-2 also underscored the importance of listening to subordinates' opinions. He said, *"Each head of department should resolve problems with the staff members as it is not allowed to disregard the administrative hierarchy*". He clarified,

> *Day-to-day decisions are made in the department council. If they fail to find a solution, the head of department refers the problem to the College Council which comprises the Dean, Vice-Deans and heads of departments. All heads of departments are at the same time trainers, and as a result they represent the lowest-ranked employees, although they do not directly attend the meeting".*

LTF-3 similarly said,

> *Heads of departments take part in resolving problems. However, some of these problems are hard for them under their powers. Thus, the Vice-Dean or the Dean of the college is consulted in solving the problem* (LTF-3).

Referring to Shura, the principle of consultation in Islam, she strongly believed that it was important for leaders to involve the subordinates in the whole process of decision-making. She also indicated that many decisions should be voted on and then referred to the College's Council. RTF-1 similarly indicated that the decision-making process *"involves all administrative cadres, the Vice-*Dean, *and heads of administrative and training departments"* (RTF-1). LTF-5 similarly emphasised the importance of consultation in taking decisions in the organisation, stating,

> *The Institute employees take part in the decision-making process via the Institute Board. This Board comprises the Institute Secretary for Training (representing trainers and the training process), the Institute Secretary for Trainee Services (representing trainees and activities), heads of departments and some trainers (LTF-5).*

LTF-5 also indicated that the administrative hierarchy does not prevent trainers and some employees from taking part in decision-making as their viewpoints are expressed by their direct superiors to decision-makers.

Five respondents highlighted the importance of the delegation of power. LTF-5, for instance, said that the delegation of power *"helps followers become responsible, boosting their experience and reducing centralisation. Delegation should be gradual and should continue at all levels*". He said, "*On several occasions, I delegated some of my employees to perform work on my behalf. Yet, each employee is delegated according to the tasks that suit them".* Similarly LTA-2- indicated that *"delegation is one method of successful* *management"*. He noted, *"The Vice-Head is delegated if I'm engaged in a course or a meeting to carry out urgent dealings"*. LTA-2, however, while highlighting the importance of delegation of power, indicated that

> *There is no regulation stating the issue of delegating powers, and this move depends on the unit manager. I can authorise the Vice-Head to work on my behalf while I'm on an official mission so as to ensure work flow. As for financial inventory issues, I must perform them myself (LFT-3).*

Generally, the responses suggest that, in view of the organisation's hierarchical structure, leaders largely preferred a low power distance, branded by consultation and delegation. This turned out, however, to be more of a personal preference than an institutionalised procedure.

6.4.2 Uncertainty Avoidance

The second dimension of cultural values explained by Dorfman and Howell (1988) was uncertainty avoidance in the workplace. This dimension predominantly refers to the degree of tolerance a culture has for ambiguity, and it usually concerns the absence or existence of formal laws and informal rules controlling the rights and duties of leaders and subordinates. It was indicated that, in countries with low uncertainty avoidance, job requirements and instructions are spelled out in detail. Such workplaces are normally associated with lower anxiety because the subordinates have a clear understanding of what they are expected to do.

All respondents pointed out the importance of the existence of regulations or bylaws that spell out in detail the duties of employees. LTF-1 stated that it is crucial to have a good number of rules, regulations and instructions. She said,

> *The tasks assigned to me are on the whole clear, but since the understanding of some of them differs from on institute to another, we sometimes request exact clarifications from the higher authorities about a certain bylaw (LTF-1).*

LTF-3 similarly underscored the importance of the availability of descriptions for job requirements and instructions, stating,

> *I make an orientation for any new employee, where I clarify to her what the bylaws state. I do so in order to avoid any ambiguity or unwanted behaviour and, thus, the employee's conduct will be in harmony with the whole institution* (LTF-3).

LTF-1 also stated that "*as a leader, I have clear tasks, but the TVTC's changing strategy causes ambiguity*". LTF-5 also stated that *"we should have structure and rules in our organisation"*. He said that, in practice,

> *There may be some ambiguity but it fades away when we inquire about it more than once in order to implement it correctly. Vagueness in some of them [the rules] is natural and what we have to do is to clarify the vagueness as much as possible (LTF-5).*

Similarly, LTA-2 said, "*I believe that nearly 60-70% of job descriptions are clear but for the rest we have to seek the advice of higher authorities."* LTA-1 also noted that *"a successful organisation is built on stability and transparency of regulations."* However, she said, *"I feel worried when I see several changes in bylaws and guidelines issued by the executive managers. For example, a shift to the trimester training system raised my concerns because everyone became extremely pressured over the whole year".* LTA-3 also complained that *"the fact that the regulations require a longer time to be implemented causes work pressure".*

It is clear that all respondents expressed high uncertainty and were anxious about any ambiguity related to wider rules and regulations. Change causes of a lot stress, and uncertainty is correlated with a higher administrative load on leaders.

6.4.3 Individualism/Collectivism

Another important dimension of cultural values proposed by Dorfman and Howell (1988) is collectivism/individualism. Collectivism describes societies in which everyone is integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, and in the workplace the success and welfare of the group is more important than those of individuals. In such societies, managers encourage group loyalty even at the expense of individual goals. Individualism, in contrast, pertains to societies in which everyone is expected to look after him/herself and his or her immediate family. The results show that nearly all respondents felt that the interests of the group should be taken into consideration first. LTF-1 stated that *"success is a priority for the whole group rather than for me*". However, she reiterated that *"as a whole, in my opinion personal interests are not in contradiction to group ones"*. She continued

> *actually, the nature of the task and work is what defines whether work should be carried out individually or through teamwork. During teamwork, each one should do their work perfectly, which will help the success of teamwork. Trainers have their roles and the secretaries have their own and thus I believe that individual work is part of collective work (LTF-1).*

She said, "*I consider the success of my group to be my mine as well"* (LTF-1). LTF-2 similarly noted that

> *Collective or individual work is imposed on us according to the nature of the work. In most cases, work is done individually because performance evaluation is carried out for each individual. Yet, the individual's work ultimately pursues the collective goals of the whole group (*LTF-2).

LTF-5 shared the same perception, stating that *"the Institute's manager cannot achieve success without the success of employees. The manager's success stems from that of his employees".* He clarified that *"obviously, teamwork is a norm in our Institute through giving powers to all while carrying out indirect follow-up"* (LTF-5). LTA-3, in the same way, indicated, *"We believe in the Islamic principle of Yad Allah Ma'a Jama'ah, (God's hand (of protection) is with the group)…on this basis we encourage and support teamwork and group thinking."* Thus, on the whole the responses primarily express a collective culture in which each individual's attempts, interests and work are endeavours aimed at achieving the whole group's goals.

6.4.4 Masculinity/Femininity

Another CV dimension explained by Dorfman and Howell (1988) is Masculinity/Femininity. This dimension is the most controversial of the cultural dimensions and is easily confused with individualism and collectivism. Masculinity pertains to workplaces in which social gender roles are clearly distinct (i.e., men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success whereas women are supposed to be modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life); femininity pertains to workplaces in which social gender roles overlap (i.e. both men and women are supposed to be modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life). The central concern in this dimension is the preference for male managers over female managers.

Since the VET educational system in Saudi Arabia is gender-segregated, it is not possible to compare male and female leadership in a single workplace. LTF-3 (a female respondent), for example, said,

> *Most administrative activities are not measured according to the sex of the official, as it largely depends on his/her scientific culture as well as knowledge about daily and monthly needs of work, as well as medium- and long-term policies adopted by the official (LTF-3).*

Similarly, LTF-5 (a male respondent) noted that

> *It is not the gender of employees that matters in administrative work. However, what really matters is the ability to be interactive and integral. Whether the employee is male or female, they should be characterised by ease, meticulousness, organisation and respect for time (LTF-5).*

LTF-2 also contended that *"female leaders are caring and understand personal problems"*. LTA-2 believed that "*female leaders are more softly deliberate but may sometimes lack serious command power"*. However, he also declared that "*there is no difference between male and female and everything depends on training and experience"*.

From these responses it is difficult to categorise respondents in this dimension. Saudi culture in general assigns distinct roles to men and women, as well as certain personality characteristics, and this was reflected in some of the responses, such as those of LTA-2. However, a segregated work environment gives leadership opportunities to women and may blur the distinctions observed elsewhere in society.

6.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented an analysis of data gathered by means of interviews with eleven Saudi VET leaders and raters, reflecting the structure of the interview schedule. In particular, the findings from the qualitative strand of this study provided in-depth and rich information on leadership styles of Saudi VET leaders and helped the researcher to better understand these leadership styles. The respondents gave descriptions of leadership behaviour which they perceived as essential to them and which they felt represented their leadership styles. The findings were then summarised according to the dimensions of transformational, transactional and other relevant leadership styles. The main leadership dimensions indicated by respondents are represented in Table 6.2.

Table 6-2: A summary of key themes related to transformational, transactional and other relevant leadership styles

Leadership	**Dimensions**	**LTF-1**	**LTF-2**	**LTF-3**	**LTF-4**	**LTF-5**	**LTA-1**	**LTA-2**	**LTA-3**	**RTF-1**	**RTF-2**	**RTA-1**
Transformational	Idealised	✓		✓	✓		✓	✓			✓	✓
	Inspirational	✓		✓	✓				✓			
	Intellectual	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓					
	Individualised	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓		✓		✓
Transactional	Contingent	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓		✓
	MBE (Active)	✓			✓		✓	✓				
	MBE (Passive)							✓				
Other leadership		✓	✓	✓	✓		✓			✓	✓	

Chapter 7: Discussion

7.1 Introduction

This chapter presents an interpretation of all the data collected with reference to the relevant literature reviewed in Chapter Two. It was indicated earlier that the main research design adopted here was an explanatory sequential design in which extensive quantitative data collection was followed by collection of qualitative data to help explain or elaborate on the quantitative results. This chapter will analyse to what extent the research questions were addressed by evidence based on quantitative and qualitative data and integrate the results obtained. However, regarding the relationship between demographic factors and of leadership styles, the emphasis will be placed on quantitative data, largely because they were more appropriate to address these particular research questions.

The chapter will follow the order in which the research questions were presented in Chapter 2, addressing the results from both quantitative and qualitative findings, beginning with the dominant leadership styles of VET in Saudi Arabia, before examining the possible relationship between demographic characteristics of Saudi VET leaders and subordinates and their leadership styles. Finally, Saudi Arabia's national culture will be explored before a discussion of its relationship with Saudi VET leadership styles. The chapter will conclude with a summary of the findings in relation to the main questions.

7.2 The Dominant Leadership Styles of Saudi VET

The first research objective was to identify and explore the dominant leadership styles of VET in Saudi Arabia. It was indicated that TL, also known as the full range leadership theory (Avolio, 2011), offers an arguably comprehensive basis for understanding a wide range of different leadership styles. This model was used to identify and explore the dominant leadership styles of VET in Saudi Arabia. Given that this thesis adopted a mixed approach, data collected both through quantitative and qualitative phases of data collection are used to address this question. The data collected through the quantitative phase of the study draw on the concept and seek to examine the extent to which a universally accepted concept of TL based on the MLQ instrument is generalizable to the context of the study. The data collected in the qualitative phase focuses on the variants of leadership styles, based on the perception of the Saudi VET leaders and raters and the extent to which they are consistent or otherwise with Culturally Sensitive Leadership (CSL) models.

7.2.1 The prevalence of Saudi VET leadership styles based on the TL model

As indicated in section 2.3, theory particularly the TL theory, known also as the full range theory, differentiates among three different categories of behaviours that leaders might exhibit: transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire. The transformational style includes four main components, including idealized influence or charisma, inspirational motivation, intellectual simulation and individualized consideration, while transactional leadership comprises two main components of contingent reward or constructive transactions and management-by-exception. As indicated in section 4.5.1 the greater mean score on any of the leadership dimensions would most likely represent the preferred leadership style of the groups or individuals being investigated.

Table 7-1: The comparison of means and standard deviations of leadership dimensions between this and previous studies

	This study				Comparative studies			
	Self-Report *n* = 173		Rater-Report *n*=593		Self *n* =3,375		Lower Level *n* =4,376	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
IA	2.97	.67	2.71	.89	2.99	.53	2.93	.82
IB	3.10	.56	2.75	.79	2.99	.59	2.73	.76
IM	3.29	.53	2.94	.87	3.04	.59	2.97	.79
IS	3.03	.57	2.50	.91	2.96	.52	2.76	.75
IC	3.09	.57	2.45	1.00	3.16	.52	2.78	.88
CR	3.20	.58	2.67	.92	2.99	.53	2.84	.78
MBEA	2.49	.70	2.37	.71	1.58	.79	1.67	.92
MBEP	.80	.74	1.30	.90	1.07	.79	1.02	.79
LF	1.00	.79	1.21	.90	.61	.62	.66	.72

Note. IA = Idealized Influence (Attributed); IB = Idealized Influence (Behaviour); IM = Inspirational Motivation; IS = Intellectual Simulation; IC = Individualized Consideration; CR = Contingent Reward; MBEA = Management-by-Exception Active; MBEP= Management-by-Exception Passive; LF = Laissez faire; 0 = not at all, 1= once in a while, 2 = sometimes, 3 = fairly often, and 4 = frequently, if not always (Avolio and Bass, 2004).

Table 7.1 compares the results of this study (listed in the first column) with comparative studies that used the MLQ (5X-Short Form) (listed in the second column) (Avolio and Bass, 2004). A review of the table reveals that the mean ratings of all five dimensions of transformational leadership among Saudi VET leaders were between 2.97 and 3.29. The mean ratings for CR and MBEA were 3.20 and 2.49 respectively, which is well within the optimum range (Bass and Riggio, 2006). MBEP and LF showed mean ratings of 0.80 and 1.0 respectively. Overall, the transformational leadership style had a high mean score by leaders. This means that often, Saudi VET leaders exhibited a transformational leadership style. These results concur with the findings of Daughtry and Finch's (1997) research on effective leadership provided by local vocational administrators in the USA and Muijs et al.'s (2006) study on the leadership styles of FE in the UK, which both concluded that transformational leadership seemed well supported by respondents in these organizations.

Furthermore, with the fairly high mean score for transactional leadership style by leaders, the respondents agreed that the Saudi VET leaders sometimes exhibited transactional leadership as well. Similarly the results of qualitative data substantiate that the respondents practise both transformational and transactional styles. An overview of the participants who referred to TL dimensions as the main leadership style for VET in Saudi Arabia is presented in Table 7.2. As shown in Table 7.2, ten out of eleven respondents simultaneously identified CR and other transformational leadership dimensions as the dominant styles for Saudi VET leaders.

Table 7-2: The respondents' practice of Transformational and transactional behaviour based on interview results

TL Dimensions	**Transformational**				**Transactional**		
	IB and IA	IM	IS	IC	CR	MBEA	MBEP
Participants in Interviews							
LTF-1	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
LTF-2	✓		✓	✓	✓		
LTF-3	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		
LTF-4	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	
LTF-5	✓	✓		✓	✓		
LTA-1	✓		✓		✓	✓	
LTA-2	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓
LTA-3	✓				✓		
RTF-1	✓			✓	✓		
RTF-2	✓				✓		
RTA-1	✓			✓	✓		

This is in line with previous findings of Bass (2002), who found that it is possible for a person to exhibit characteristics that include both transformational and transactional leadership styles. These results particularly corroborate Boateng's (2012) findings, which indicate that the leaders of vocational technical educational institutions in Ghana use a combination of transformational and transactional leadership styles. This is very significant because of the argument by Waldman et al., (1990) that both transformational and transactional leadership behaviour are needed to accomplish the broad task of leadership in an organization such as a school, since both leadership styles complement each other.

As indicated in Chapter 4, the research has shown that self-ratings of one's own leadership behaviour are susceptible to bias (Cooper and Schindler, 2006; Von Ber, 2003) (see Chapter 4:139). Specifically, this problem was approached by Muijs et al. (2006) with regard to transformational leadership in FE in the UK, where they emphasised that their "*findings may reflect attributional bias as much as actual behaviours of leaders*". To avoid this problem Bass and Riggio (2006:20) suggested using the MLQ as a Rater Form. This study used both forms and the results were mixed. Both leaders and subordinates ranked the IM dimension of transformational leadership as the most dominant dimension in Saudi VET. However, leaders and subordinates ranked the second dominant leadership style differently. The leaders perceived CR, the main dimension of transactional leadership, as being the second most important leadership dimension. In contrast, the subordinates ranked two other dimensions of transformational leadership, IB and IA, as second and third respectively. Leaders perceived MBEP as the least common leadership style, while subordinates gave the lowest mean score to laissez-faire. A further independent-sample t-test demonstrated that there are statistically significant differences between rater and self-assessments of leadership dimensions. By the calculation of the magnitude of the differences between leaders' and subordinates' results it was revealed that IC ranked the first, followed by IS and CR. The magnitude of the differences was shown to have a modest effect in all dimensions of transformational and transactional leadership. This effect was small in the IA and LF dimensions.

7.2.2 Comparison of the perceptions of respondents with TL dimensions and CSL models

The second part of the first main research question sought to build a locally meaningful understanding of Saudi VET leadership styles by soliciting the perceptions of respondents in this regard. As indicated in Chapter Six (qualitative data), the respondents answered general questions on leadership styles and gave their view on their preconceptions of TL. Several themes and quotations were identified that offer further and different insights on the data previously gathered in the quantitative strand. In the following lines, these results and the extent to which they are consistent or otherwise with the TL dimensions and CSL models as developed in the relevant literature (see Chapter 2, sections 2.5.3, 2.5.3.1, and 2.5.3.2) are discussed.

7.2.2.1 Idealised influence dimension or charisma

The first important characteristic of leaders with idealised influence is to appear as **role models** for their followers. To describe the concept of role model the respondents noted that "the followers inevitably emulate behaviours of their leaders" and "step into former managers' shoes and apply their leadership style". That is why the managers should "demonstrate and exercise high standard leadership qualities" and "behave appropriately" to reflect this characteristic. One participant highlighted the crucial role of leaders as models for followers, arguing that "if the leaders go out of the correct path their followers may also be led astray". The role model's characteristics are more or less identical to the idea of a heroic leader described by Kalantari (1998) and Hawi (1982), who argued that Arab people need a hero to set an example. They also bear a close resemblance to Ali's (2005) Prophetic model of leadership, which emphasizes the ideal human characteristics and attributes for leaders. Similarly, authors like Beekun and Badawi (1999) have suggested the behaviours that leaders should model in the modern world based on the traditions introduced and practised by the Prophet Muhammad.

The second feature of leaders in this category is **being admired, respected and trusted.** The respondents emphasized that leaders need to "gain a large extent of legitimacy and support from subordinates" and also "develop a relationship with me based on respect and trust". They particularly noted that ideally "the relationship with leaders should be based on a bond of trust and respect rather than organizational constraints and formal binding by-laws". This feature of leadership is in line with a variation of the 'attunement' concept used by Noor (1999) to refer to the leader's communal values, such as commitment, trust, mutual respect and working for the overall good.

Another feature of an idealised or charismatic leader is to conduct him/herself with high **moral** standards and in an **ethical** manner. There was almost a consensus among respondents that leaders should follow ethical beliefs, drawing on Islamic values and principles. Several authors who considered leadership styles in Saudi Arabia suggested these characteristics for leaders. For instance Kalantari (1998) and Abuznaid (2006) strongly recommended that leaders incorporate fundamental Islamic values and ethics in the culture of administration. The idealism concept set out by Ali (2005) as the main feature of leadership pertains to a belief that it is possible to live in accordance with high standards of honesty and moral behaviour, based on the teachings of the Quran and the behaviour of the Prophet. Similarly, the Model of Islamic Total Quality of Musa and

Saleh (2003) emphasizes the work ethic, in which work becomes synonymous with an act of worship.

Idealised influence or charisma also characterises those leaders that **display a sense of power and confidence**. The findings of qualitative data were also in agreement with this feature. The respondents suggested that leaders should “take everything under control” and “demonstrate determination and confidence”. One suggested that “the lack of determination and confidence of the leader would inevitably lead to chaos in organization and confusion in decision making”.

Having **a sense of purpose** and **clear vision and mission** was the last feature of idealised leaders mentioned in the literature. The findings corroborate this characteristic of leadership in the context under the study. The respondents suggested that a leader should have a “clear understanding of her goals and missions” and “a solid understanding of vision” and “will be confident that they can be accomplished”. One said, “Without a clear understanding of the long and short term goals of the organization it is impossible to direct it on the correct path”. This property of idealised leadership is very similar to the concept of alignment proposed by Noor (1999), who recommended the promotion of a sense of mission and purpose for effective leadership based on the Prophet Muhammad’s leadership style and interaction with his followers.

The respondents referred to a number of obstacles that prevented them from acquiring a clear idea of mission. The most commonly perceived difficulty in this respect was instability of general policies of TVTC in Saudi Arabia. One respondent stated, “As a trainer, I have clear tasks, but the Institute’s changing strategy causes ambiguity”. The missions and visions described by respondents for their institution were more or less general goals. Among the most common visions were "reaching out to the largest band of trainees", "training the trainees at the best levels in order to meet requirements of the labour market" and "focus on quality training to secure job opportunities for trainees". In general it is possible to divide the responses about organizational visions into two main groups: the visions that are derived from the general policies stipulated by TVTC; and the visions set out by managers based on their own values and aspirations.

Table 7.3 presents a summary of the above discussion. As it is shown in the table, there is almost a convergence among the characteristics of idealised influence as indicated in the literature, the characteristics of an ideal leader indicated in CSL models and the perceptions of respondents reflected in data collected through interview.

Table 7-3: A summary of discussion on Idealised influence

Idealised Influence		
MLQ/ Culture Universal	**CSL Models**	**Responses**
To appear as role models for their followers	The idea of a heroic leader, Arab people need a hero to **set an example** (Kalantari, 1998; Hawi, 1982) Prophetic model of leadership which emphasizes the ideal human characteristics and attributes (Ali, 2005). Role models for leaders in the modern world based on prophet tradition (Beekun and Badawi, 1999)	• To demonstrate and exercise high standard leadership qualities • To behave appropriately

To being admired, respected and trusted	Attunement to the purpose and mission of the system: which includes communal values such as commitment, trust, mutual respect and working for the overall good (Noor, 1999).	• To gain a large extent of legitimacy and support from subordinates • Trust and respect
To conduct with high moral standards and in line with ethical manner	To incorporate fundamental Islamic values and ethics to the culture of administration (Kalantari, 1998; Abuznaid, 2006) Idealism pertains to beliefs that it is possible to live in accordance with high standards of honesty and moral behaviour based on the teachings of the Quran and in the behaviour of the Prophet (Ali, 2005). Model of Islamic Total Quality which emphasizes the work ethic in which work becomes synonymous with an act of worship (Musa and Saleh. 2003)	• Ethical beliefs, drawing on the Islamic ethical principles
To display a sense of power and confidence		• To take everything under her control • Demonstrate determination and confidence
Having a sense of purpose and clear vision and mission	Alignment which promotes a sense of mission and purpose Noor (1999).	• A clear understanding of her goals and missions • A solid understanding of vision

7.2.2.2 Inspirational motivation

An important feature of this dimension mentioned in the literature is **talking optimistically** about the future and **enthusiastically** about what needs to be accomplished. The respondents stressed the importance of this feature of leadership by stating that leaders should *"use motivational rhetoric"* and "*disseminate a positive image about the future of their work".* One said, "*I regularly use motivational rhetoric during meetings with trainers and heads of departments in order to enhance their sense of confidence".* Another respondent noted that *"conveying pessimistic messages about the future to subordinates looks like planting the seeds of failure"*. They underlined that optimistic thinking has roots in the Islamic belief of trust in God, in the sense that if people trust in God in positive ways it keeps them always optimistic. This idea is actually firmly entrenched in the consciousness of Saudi Arabian people. One respondent referred to *"[The] Optimistic [One] goodness shall find",* a well-known saying of Prophet Muhammad (peace be upon him) as an important principle of leaders' beliefs.

Another characteristic of leaders in this category is being **visionary,** in the sense that they articulate a compelling vision of the future. The results of interviews offered considerable insight into this characteristic as well. The respondents underscored that leaders should be *"visionary and possess a clear indication of how the vision could be recognized"* and also "*avoid any ambiguity or unwanted behaviour"*. One particularly stated that *"we should first have a clear understanding of its [TVTC's] goals and missions in order to persuade the subordinates to accomplish that"*. The respondents identified a number of methods for the articulation of vision: (1) at meetings; (2) at the beginning of each training semester; (3) via the Institute and the executive managers; and (4) through issuing leaflets and bulletins to illustrate the vision and reasons for the institutions presence. One respondent pointed to his standard and accepted procedure in on-going articulation of the vision, objectives, bylaws and regulations, especially with fresh instructors and at the beginning of each semester. He also stressed that his institution held awareness campaigns in which leaflets and posters were distributed among all sections, along with holding specific meetings in each section, at which the Institute's vision and objectives were stated.

Table 7.4 presents a summary of the above discussion on inspirational motivation. As shown in the table 7.4, there is almost a complete agreement between the characteristics of inspirational motivation as indicated in the literature and the perceptions of respondents reflected in data collected through interview. CSL models, however, failed to refer to this characteristic as a component of Saudi Leadership style.

Table 7-4: A summary of the discussion on inspirational motivation

Inspirational motivation		
MLQ / Culture Universal	CSL Models	Responses
Talking optimistically about the future and enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished.		• Appear optimistic about everything by trusting in God • To use motivational rhetoric • To disseminate positive image about the future of their work
Visionary in the sense that they articulate a compelling vision of the future		• Visionary and possess a clear indication of how the vision could be recognized • To avoid any ambiguity or unwanted behaviour

7.2.2.3 Intellectual stimulation

This dimension describes those leaders who encourage the followers to be **creative** and **innovative**, consider problems from **different angles** and allow the **followers to engage** in careful **problem solving.** The findings from interviews corroborate these features for leaders in the study context. The respondents clearly stated that leaders should "*be innovative and creative in their daily routines"* and *"encourage and support the subordinates to bring about new ideas"*. However, one emphasised that *"at the same time there should be some degree of control"*. He used the metaphor of driving and stressed that the leader should use both accelerator and brake at the appropriate time. Similarly, another respondent stated that "*I always expect my followers to follow tested and well established procedures but at the same time I give them this leeway to* *approach problems with their own personal creativity".* This shows that the followers are not authorised to cross the established borderlines of the organization, although they are allowed to be creative and innovative.

Another element that characterises a leader with intellectual stimulation is soliciting new ideas from subordinates. The respondents confirmed that leaders constantly undertake consultation [Shura] which encourages the leader to invite the followers in open meetings to share concerns and solicit ideas. This is another entrenched tradition rooted in Islamic culture in Saudi Arabia. One respondent referred to a famous Arab proverb, "*The one who consults does not fail"*, to highlight the importance of this leadership behaviour. Only one respondent stated, "*I usually remind my employees that the most important thing is for me to follow the regulation step by step. I do not want more than them doing their exact work".* The tradition of consultation or Shura is also consistent with the Heroic model of leadership, which encourages subordinates to maximise their potential (Kalantari, 1998; Hawi, 1982).

Table 7.5 outlines a summary of the above discussion. As shown in the table, there is an overall convergence among the characteristics of intellectual stimulation as indicated in the literature and the perceptions of respondents reflected in data collected through interview. However, CSL models only mentioned the first component as a characteristic of an ideal leader.

Table 7-5: A summary of the above discussion on Intellectual stimulation

Intellectual stimulation		
MLQ / Culture Universal	CSL Models	Responses
To be creative and innovative and to challenge their own beliefs and values	Heroic model of leadership which encourage subordinates to maximise their potential (Kalantari, 1998; Hawi, 1982)	• To be innovative and creative in their daily routines • To encourage and support the subordinates to bring about new ideas
To consider problems from different angles		• To study the problem from different perspectives
To allow the followers to engage in careful problem solving soliciting new ideas from them		• To follow Islamic tradition of consultation of *Shura* • Running open meeting for consultation

7.2.2.4 Individualized consideration

The most important element of this dimension underscored in the literature is that every subordinate has **different needs** and abilities; thus they should be **treated differently**. The findings are in complete agreement on this feature. The respondents asserted the importance of these features for the leaders under study. They specifically stressed that it is necessary "*to consider both strengths and weakness of subordinates and help to put capabilities into use and overcome the weakness"* and also *"view every trainer as having different abilities and thus treat them on individual basis"*. Indeed in VET institutions, both skill and knowledge matter and as a result, two important archetypes of trainers are working these institutions: those with high academic training and low work experience, and those with high work experience and low academic credentials. However, one respondent noted that *“they complement one another by learning from each other”.* Another stressed that *“I never discriminate among the trainers only on the basis of their academic achievements”.* Another respondent said, *“My trainers are considered as assets to the institution regardless of their fields of expertise”.*

One respondent summarised this behaviour *as “treating subordinates based on the principle of justice rather than equality”.* This is in line with the recommendation of Ahd Beekun and Badawi (1999) who suggested applying the core values of Islamic teaching in the workplace. These include *Birr* (fair dealing), *'Adil* (justice) and *Mujahadah* (self-improvement). The respondents also placed emphasis on helping to improve the capabilities of trainers by individualizing the level of support given to them. One respondent noted that a prerequisite of this is the recognition of differences among subordinates. She specifically stated that she *“divided trainers into three different levels in terms of their abilities: high quality, medium quality and minimum quality… and* [gave] *different levels of attention to each category by spending little time for those with high quality performers but spending much time on getting the best from the second level”*. With respect to the third category she said, *“As a leader I do not want to use my authority to severely reprimand them. Rather, I try to understand what their problems are and how I could be helpful to assist followers in becoming active and effective in their work”*. The respondents also referred to two kinds of support that leaders commonly give to the subordinates to improve their capabilities: they act as coaches and points of reference and they use delegation to help subordinates grow. This way of helping followers concurs well with the empowerment concept introduced by Noor

(1999) for leadership in the Islamic world, which attributes to the leader a strong responsibility and accountability for the development of subordinates.

Table 7.6 presents a summary of the above discussion. As shown in the table, the characteristics of individualized consideration as indicated in the literature, the characteristics of an ideal leader indicated in CSL models and the perceptions of respondents reflected in data collected through interview are consistent with one another.

Table 7-6: A summary of the above discussion on Individualized consideration

Individualized consideration		
MLQ / Culture Universal	CSL Models	Responses
Treated differently (consider each individual) as having different needs.	Empowerment, which attributes the leader with greater responsibility and accountability for the subordinates (Noor, 1999). Core values which include Birr (fair dealing), 'Adi (justice), Mujahadah (self-improvement), and "Ahd Beekun and Badawi (1999).	• To consider both strengths and weakness and help to put capabilities into use and overcome my weakness • Treat subordinates based on the principle of justice rather than equality • Individualize the level of support given to their subordinates.

7.2.2.5 Contingent reward

This dimension was identified as an important constituent of transactional leadership in that the leader assigns a task or obtains agreement from the follower on what needs to be done and arranges for **psychological** or **material rewards** of followers in exchange for satisfactorily carrying out the assignment. The results of interviews reinforced the application of this leadership behaviour in the context under study. Almost all respondents confirmed the importance of the efficient use of financial reward and of rewarding subordinates with praise and recognition. The respondents specifically emphasised that *"non-monetary rewards would indirectly influence the behaviours of their subordinates in a positive manner".* They believed that *"reward would act as a motivational factor for their subordinates".* These views substantiate Sharafuddin's (1987) Islamic theory of organization, which takes account of both the material (socioeconomic) needs and the spiritual (humanistic and spiritual) needs of individuals. The respondents referred to a number of psychological rewards in TVTC, including certificates of gratitude, letters of appreciation that might be given immediately in any situation and certificates of appreciation, shields and letters of gratitude awarded at the end of the training year. They also emphasised that the annual appraisal was used as a form of reward for trainers. More interestingly, giving the followers a chance to attend short courses was used as a means of psychological reward. For example a respondent stated that *"training opportunities conducted locally or internationally have proved to be very beneficial for subordinates as they enhance the capabilities and speed up their promotions".* Nevertheless, the respondents complained that the reward system of TVTC was not satisfactory compared to other educational institutions. As one of them clarified, *"Within the boundaries of the current system of VET in Saudi Arabia, the [monetary] remuneration is insufficient, largely because the system here is tied to the civil service system"*.

Table 7.7 provides an overview of the above discussion. As shown in the table, there is an overall convergence among the characteristics of contingent reward as indicated in the literature and the perceptions of respondents reflected in data collected through interview. CSL models only mentioned the first component as a characteristic of an ideal leader.

Table 7-7: A summary of the discussion on Contingent reward

Contingent reward		
MLQ / Culture	CSL Models	Responses
Provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts	Sharafuddin (1987) suggests that an Islamic theory of organization should incorporate both the material (socioeconomic) needs and the spiritual (humanistic and spiritual) needs of individuals.	The efficient use of financial reward
Provide psychological reward such as praise and recognition		To reward subordinates with praise and recognition

7.2.2.6 Management by Exception (Active and Passive)

This dimension concerns a corrective leadership style in which the leader **keeps track of mistakes** and **takes corrective action** if a subordinate fails to meet standards. In passive management by exception, the leaders take no corrective action until a problem comes to their attention. The results of interviews lend some support to the prevalence of this leadership behaviour in the context under study. Some respondents endorsed the undertaking of this leadership style by stating that they *"keep the employees under constant surveillance"*, however, they stressed that they *"usually focus on the positive aspects and highlight work progress"* and *"provide the followers with a solution to overcome the mistake".* More importantly they stated that they "*take some preventative steps to avoid potential mistakes".* The most common mistakes identified by respondents were delay, absence, and going out during work hours without permission. Only one respondent referred to the characteristics of Management by Exception (Passive). He said, *"I usually express my dissatisfaction with mistakes through feedback depending on the situation itself. Sometimes I give feedback individually in a verbal form and at other times officially in a written form".* This characteristic of leadership is reminiscent of Caliphal leadership, which is authoritarian and coercive and relies on submission from subordinates to maintain power (Ali, 2005).

Table 7.8 provides an overview of the above discussion. As shown in the table, there is an overall convergence among the characteristics of MBE active and passive as indicated in the literature and the perceptions of respondents reflected in data collected through interview. CSL models only mentioned the first component as a characteristic of an ideal leader.

Table 7-8: A summary of the above discussion on Management by Exception (Active and Passive)

MBEA active and passive		
MLQ / Culture Universal	CSL Models	Responses
To monitor deviances and keeps track of mistakes and errors	Caliphal leadership which is authoritarian and coercive and relies on submission from subordinates to maintain power (Ali, 2005)	To keep the employees under constant surveillance
To take corrective action if a subordinate fails to meet standards		To provide the followers with a solution to overcome the mistake To establish pre-emptive measures

7.2.2.7 Other emergent leadership characteristics

The respondents also pointed to some leadership characteristics that cannot be explained well by transformational or transactional leadership models. For instance, they referred to knowledge as an important characteristic of a leader, suggesting that the leader should *"have vast knowledge and experience in the management of training institutions"* and also *"should stand head and shoulders above his subordinates in terms of knowledge and experience"*. They also highlighted the concept of paternalism, in the sense that the leader should *"act as a father, in taking a personal interest in workers' lives and meeting subordinates' personal needs"*.

7.3 The Association of Demographic Factors with Leadership Styles

This section sets out to interpret quantitative data to address the second main research question, in order to examine the possible relationship of the demographic characteristics of Saudi VET leaders and subordinates with their leadership styles. Gender, age, education level, work experience, managerial level and affiliation to different VET institutions were identified as the main demographic characteristics that might have potential impact on the leadership styles. The analysis in this section is based on both descriptive statistical analysis and inferential statistical analysis methods (t-test and ANOVA) and where appropriate a follow-up Tukey's HSD to examine the strength or otherwise of these possible relationships.

7.3.1 The potential impact of gender

The results of descriptive analysis based on means and SD on the extent to which the gender of Saudi VET leaders impacts upon their self-perceived leadership have shown that Saudi VET males are more likely to employ all dimensions of transformational leadership styles and CR than women. Further analysis by means of a t-test indicated that VET males are particularly more likely to employ two important dimensions of transformational leadership: IB and IM (with moderate magnitudes of differences). This is in contrast to the results of previous meta-analyses that indicated women scored higher than men on all the transformational leadership scales and on contingent reward (which contains a transformational component) (Eagly et al., 2003; Antonakis et al., 2003). However the results on the MBEA dimension of transactional leadership revealed that male VET leaders exhibit less MBEA behaviour than their female counterparts (with moderate magnitudes of difference).

A similar analysis was conducted to examine whether, and to what extent, the gender of Saudi VET subordinates determines their perceptions of leadership style of their leaders. This yielded different results. The results of descriptive analysis based on means and SD showed that Saudi VET males and female leaders were seen to employ the dimensions of transformational leadership styles and CR to almost the same degree, while female Saudi VET leaders were perceived to exhibit the IC dimension of transformational leadership more than their male counterparts. This result is partly consistent with, previous meta-analysis results (Eagly et al., 2003; Antonakis et al., 2003) which indicate that women exhibit more transformational leadership behaviours. The results also revealed that Saudi VET female leaders exhibit CR and MBEA behaviours more than their male counterparts, although the differences were not statistically significant.

7.3.2 The potential impact of age

The results of the ANOVA test on the extent to which the age of leaders impacts upon their self-perceived leadership style revealed that there was no statistically significant difference in all leadership scores for the different ages of the leaders. The same test was conducted to determine the extent to which the age of VET subordinates impacts upon their perceptions of the leadership style of VET leaders. The results of the ANOVA test revealed statistically significant differences in IC and LF scores for different age groups of Saudi VET subordinates. To determine exactly where the differences occur between the age groups, post-hoc comparisons were conducted using the Tukey HSD test. For the IC dimension, the results of the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for the age range of 40-49 is significantly different from the age ranges of 20-29 and 30-39. The argument of Carmeli et al. (2011), that older employees who have been with an organization longer are more likely to have developed a higher quality of relationships with leaders, and therefore rate them more favourably, may perhaps explain this result.

7.3.3 The potential impact of educational level

The results of the ANOVA test on the extent to which the educational level of the leaders impacts upon their self-perceived leadership style suggested that a statistically significant difference exists in LF scores for different levels of education of Saudi VET leaders. A similar test was conducted to determine the extent to which the educational level of the subordinates impacts upon their perceptions of the leadership style of VET leaders. The results suggested that statistically significant differences exist in IS, IC and LF scores for different levels of education of Saudi VET subordinates, although the actual difference in mean scores between the groups for IS, IC and LF in Cohen’s (1988, pp. 284–7) terms is small. The difference means that with increase in the level of education, the leader tends to exhibit these dimensions more. To determine exactly where the differences occur between the educational levels, post-hoc comparisons were conducted using the Tukey HSD test. The results of the Tukey HSD test for the IS dimension indicated that the mean score for respondents with a Master degree is significantly different from that of those with a Bachelor degree. For the IC dimension, these results indicated that the mean score for those with a Master degree is significantly different from that of respondents with a post-secondary school diploma and finally, for the LF dimension, the test indicated that the mean score for those with a Master degree is significantly different from that of respondents with a secondary school certificate. As indicated in Chapter (2) Barbuto et al. (2007) pointed out that the studies done to examine the relationship between leadership and educational level are limited.

7.3.4. The potential impact of work experience

The results of an ANOVA test to determine the extent to which the work experience of the leaders impacted upon their self-perceived leadership style suggest that there are statistically significant differences in IB scores of leaders with different work experience. A similar test was conducted to determine the extent to which the work experience of the subordinates is rebated to upon their perceptions of the leadership style of VET leaders and the results suggest that a statistically significant difference exists only in IC scores for the work experience of Saudi VET leaders. Although the actual difference in the mean scores deemed to be small, in Cohen's (1988, pp. 284–7) terms, for both results, the important implication of this result is that with increase of work experiences, these leaders tend to exhibit more IB and IC, which are important dimensions of transformational leadership. To determine exactly where the difference occurs between the age groups, post-hoc comparisons were conducted using the Tukey HSD test. The results indicated that there is no significant difference in mean score for different work experience groups.

7.3.5. The potential impact of managerial levels

Considering the results on mean scores of transformational leadership and transactional leadership revealed that lower level managers or Vice-Deans exhibit higher transformational behaviour and lower transactional behaviour compared to higher level managers or Deans. A t-test was also conducted to determine whether any significant difference exists between these two distinct managerial levels of Saudi VET. The results of the t-test reveal that there is a significant difference in scores between deans and vice-deans only in the IM dimension, although the magnitude of the difference in the mean was small. This is in contrast to the meta-analysis conducted by Lowe et al. (1996) regarding the organizational level of the manager; they reported that leaders at higher organizational levels are rated as more transformational, while lower level leaders are more likely to be rated as more transactional.

7.3.6 The potential impact of Leaders' institutional affiliation

Another ANOVA test was conducted to determine whether any significant difference exists in the leadership styles among the Saudi VET, based upon the institutional affiliation of the leaders. Saudi VET leaders were therefore divided into three groups according to their institutional affiliations: Technical Colleges (TC); Vocational Institutes (VI) and Technical Colleges for Girls (TCG). The results of the ANOVA suggest that there were statistically significant differences in IB, IM and LF scores for different Saudi VET institutions. The actual difference in mean scores between the groups for IB in Cohen's (1988: 284–287) terms would be considered a moderate effect size, while for IM and LF the mean was small. For the IB and IM dimensions, the results of the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for TCG was significantly less than that for VI and TC. Given that TCG are differentiated from VI and TC on a gender basis, this result confirms the previous results that male VET leader's exhibit more IB and IM behaviour than female VET leaders (see section n. 7.3.4).

7.4 The Possible Association of National Culture Dimensions with Leadership Style

7.4.1 Quantitative results of Cultural values based on Dorfman and Howell's (1988) instrument

As indicated in section 4.5.2, the cultural values dimensions developed by Hofstede (1980; 2001) are widely used in conceptualising and measuring the multifaceted concept of culture. However, it was underlined that this application is not free from difficulty. A widely established challenge associated with this approach was identified as 'ecological fallacy', which refers to a tendency to draw conclusions on individual behaviour based on group- or aggregated data on a country level. To avoid this problem, this thesis used Dorfman and Howell's (1988) adaptation of Hofstede's four national culture dimensions to the individual level. Dorfman and Howell's (1988) instrument has been used by a number of authors. Segal et al. (1998) reported the use of this instrument on data collected from six distinct nationalities of students in the United States. Robertson and his colleagues (2002) applied this instrument to discover the relationship between Arab values and work beliefs, in three Arab countries: Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Oman, while excluding the element of paternalism. The results of this study in terms of mean and standard deviations are strikingly similar to those of Robertson et al. (2002).

Table 7-9: Comparison of the findings of cultural values for this study with three other similar studies

		PD	UA	IND/CO	MAS
Dorfman and Howell (1988)	Chinese	2.99 (.80)	4.71 (.57)	4.25 (.65)	3.69 (81)
	US in Taiwan	2.52 (.59)	3.67 (.67)	2.25 (.27)	1.96 (.84)
	Mexican	2.58 (.65)	4.18 (.70)	3.32 (.70)	2.65 (.86)
	US in Mexico	1.86 (.62)	3.41 (.96)	2.19 (.47)	2.78 (.77)
Segal et al. (1998)	US	2.13	4.17	3.29	1.86
	Columbian	3.01	4.27	3.73	2.96
	Filipino	2.39	4.55	3.79	2.64
	Trinidad	2.12	4.42	3.44	1.63
	West Indians	2.24	4.48	3.16	1.48
Robertson et al. (2002)	Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and Oman	2.61 (.83)	4.49 (.54)	4.07 (.72)	3.02 (1.12)
This Study	Saudi Arabia VET Leaders	2.38 (.64)	4.25 (.49)	4.03 (.49)	3.08 (.79)

Source: Dorfman and Howell (1988); Segal et al. (1998); Robertson et al. (2002)

Compared with Hofstede's (1980) culture data on Saudi Arabia, the mean score of 2.38 on power distance was relatively low. The finding concerning low power distance may derive from cultural change since Hofstede's (1980) early data collection during the 1960's and 1970's. The findings may also be related to the ecological fallacy indicated in the literature review, as the respondents were highly educated and high in self-determination compared to the average population in Saudi Arabia.

7.4.2 Qualitative description of cultural values based on Dorfman and Howell's (1988) instrument

7.4.2.1 Power Distance

In cultures characterised as low in PD, there is a strong preference for **consultation** between leaders and subordinates. In these cultures, organizations are **less centralized** and hold fewer supervisory positions. Additionally, the leaders tend to **delegate** important tasks to subordinates.

Consistent with the quantitative data, the results from the interviews corroborate low PD for Saudi VET leaders. Several respondents expressed a preference for less centralization and fewer supervisory positions. The respondents noted that each department usually resolves its own problems and only on those occasions where they could not find a solution to a certain problem, was the Vice-Dean or the Dean of the unit consulted. Referring to the principle of consultation in Islam (Shura), they also indicated a preference for consultation through involving the subordinates in the whole process of decision making. They noted that the followers might be involved in the decision making process through the formal structure of the College Board, a body composed of the college secretary for training (representing trainers and the training process), the college secretary for trainee services (representing trainees and activities) and heads of departments and some trainers. Alternatively, they informally express their viewpoints to their direct superiors. As one respondent underscored, *"The administrative hierarchy does not prevent trainers and some employees from taking part in decision making as their viewpoints are expressed by their direct superiors to decision makers*".

Respondents also highlighted the importance of the delegation of power. Comments in this regard included, "*delegation should be gradual and should continue at all levels"* and *"each employee is delegated according to the tasks that suit them".*

Overall, the responses suggest that, despite the organisation's hierarchical structure, leaders generally favoured a low power distance, characterised by consultation and delegation. This seemed, however, to be more a matter of personal preference than institutionalised procedures.

7.4.2.2 Uncertainty avoidance

This dimension concerns **the absence or existence** of formal laws and informal rules controlling the leaders and subordinates, which reflects the degree of tolerance a culture has for ambiguity. It was indicated that in countries with low uncertainty avoidance, job requirements and instructions are **spelled out in detail**. Such workplaces are normally associated with **lower anxiety** because the subordinates have a clear understanding of what they are expected to do.

In line with the quantitative data, which indicated a rather high score for UA, the results of interviews indicated the importance of the existence of regulations or by-laws that spell out in detail the duties of employers. Participants stated that it is crucial to have a good number of rules, regulations as well as descriptions for job requirements and instructions. In practice however, there were some ambiguities in these regulations, as one respondent said, *"Nearly 60-70% of job descriptions are clear but for the rest we have to seek the advice of higher authorities".* They noted that the constant change in TVTC strategy was largely to blame for this ambiguity. As one respondent said, *"Recently, I feel worried when I see several changes in bylaws and guidelines issued by the executive managers".* However, as another respondent explained, *"Vagueness in some of them [rules] is natural and what we have to do is to clarify the vagueness as much as possible".*

Thus, generally, respondents expressed low tolerance for uncertainty and were anxious to clarify ambiguity, which could be a source of stress in times of change. Nevertheless, there was also some indication that extensive formalities, whilst removing uncertainty, also added to the administrative burden on leaders.

7.4.2.3. Collectivism/Individualism

Collectivism is defined as the main characteristic of societies in which everyone is **integrated into a group** and in the workplace, the **success of the group** is more important than that of individuals. In such societies, managers encourage **group loyalty,** even at the expense of individual goals. The results of interviews support previous findings in the quantitative data. Nearly all respondents felt that the interests of the group should be taken into consideration first. They clarified that *"success is a priority for the whole group rather than for me" and "The success of my group is mine as well".* They particularly highlighted the importance of team work. One said, *"Obviously teamwork is a norm in our college through giving powers to all while carrying out indirect follow-up".* Another respondent referred to the Islamic principle of Yad Allah Ma'a Jama'ah, (God's hand (of protection) is with the group) and noted that *"on this basis we encourage and support team work and group thinking."* However, it was clarified that team work depends heavily on the nature of the work. One responded explained, *"In most cases, work is done individually because performance evaluation is carried out for each individual. Yet, the individuals work ultimately to pursue the collective goals of the whole group"*.

The responses, then, predominantly reflect a collectivist culture in which individual efforts and interests are closely aligned with the objectives of the group.

7.4.2.4 Masculinity/Femininity

This dimension pertains to workplaces in which social gender roles are clearly distinct (i.e., men are supposed to be assertive, tough, and focused on material success, whereas women are supposed to be modest, tender, and concerned with the quality of life). The central concern in this dimension is the preference for having men managers over women. Since the VET educational system in Saudi Arabia is gender-segregated, it is not possible to compare male and female leadership in a single workplace. The respondents seemed to share the view that what is significant is not the gender of the individual but their ability to do the job, which *"depends on training and experience"*.

7.4.3 The association of CV with TL

The individual correlations between perceived leadership style dimensions (8 variables) and perceived national culture dimensions (4 variables) were investigated under the headline of inter-correlations. The direction of correlations between PD and the leadership styles dimensions apart from MBEP and LF is negative. This means that high levels of PD perceived by VET leaders are associated with lower levels of all leadership components apart from LF and MBEP. The same pattern is evident between MAS and IB, IM, IS and IC.

The results indicate a medium correlation between leadership dimensions and cultural values. The coefficient of determination calculated for these variables also suggested that there is not much overlap between the variables of cultural values and leadership dimensions. This result is in line with Kuchinke (1999) and Ardichvili and Kuchinke's (2002) observation that cultural values predicted leadership styles but accounted for only a small portion of the variance(see chapter 2: 50). The largest correlation is between MBEA and UA. This was followed by MBEA and CO, which is inconsistent with many studies (Jung et al., 1995; Chiu, 1997; Yokochi, 1989; Pereira, 1986; Echavarria and Davis, 1997) that found correlations between high CO and transformational dimensions.

The grouped correlations or regression results also suggest that variations in cultural dimensions account for only a modest level of variance in each leadership style. In other words, only a small proportion of the total variation in leadership scores was predicted by cultural values scores. UA proved to be the most significant predictor of all dimensions except LF; the correlation with IB was the strongest, followed by MBEA and IC. PD also emerged as a significant predicator of four dimensions: IA, IS, IC and IM. CO predicted IA, CR and MBEA while MAS appeared to predict only IB.

Finally, this analysis compared between the results of individual correlations, and grouped correlations. The most substantial differences were manifested by CO and the four dimensions, IB, IM, IS and IC. A substantial difference also appeared in PD and IB as well as PD and LF. The final substantial difference is identifiable in MAS and MBEA and LF. Generally, cultural values predicted leadership styles but accounted for only a small portion of the variance. This suggests that cultural values have an effect on leadership, but that other variables exert possibly stronger effects. The low effect sizes reflect the fact that leadership is a complex construct that is influenced by a number of variables other than the four dimensions of culture assessed in this study. Culture, at least as measured using Dorfman and Howell's (1988) instrument, might not be the most powerful predictor of leadership.

7.5 Summary

This chapter has offered an interpretation of the data collected during this study and presented in earlier chapters, addressing the research questions in turn by combining data from the qualitative and quantitative arms of the field study, supported by documentary evidence and aligned with the literature-based conceptual framework set out in Chapter Two. It has identified the dominant leadership styles exhibited most by Saudi VET leaders as a combination of transformational leadership dimensions and the contingent reward dimension of transactional leadership. The results of qualitative data offered a locally meaningful understanding of main dimensions of this leadership style in this particular educational sector. This chapter compared the insights driven from CSL model with the results of qualitative data and TL dimensions concepts as envisaged in the related literature. Interestingly, the result confirmed an overlapping among TL dimensions, qualitative findings and CSL models.

The rest of the chapter addressed the substantial questions of the main demographic and cultural antecedents associated with and potentially shaping VET leadership. To examine the role of demography, a number of factors such as gender, age, education level, work experience, managerial level and institutional affiliation were examined. With respect to the role of gender, the findings were in contrast to the results of previous meta-analyses, which indicated that women scored higher than men on all the transformational leadership scales and on contingent reward (which contains a transformational component). However, educational level and work experience showed significant positive correlations with the dimensions of transformational leadership. These results are in good agreement with previous meta-analyses. With respect to managerial levels, the findings revealed a significant negative correlation with the dimensions of transformational leadership and a positive correlation with the dimensions of transactional leadership. The results on cultural values have suggested an effect on leadership, but there is not much overlap between the variables of cultural values and TL dimensions.

The final chapter summarises the main points of the thesis, draws conclusions and offers pertinent recommendations.

Chapter 8: Conclusion

8.1 Introduction

The primary aims of this thesis were to discover the dominant Saudi VET leadership styles based on TL full range theory and also to investigate if and to what extent national culture and demographical factors are related to VET leadership styles in Saudi Arabia. Whilst these were the primary objectives, the thesis also sought to offer further insights on the current situation of VET in Saudi Arabia. The findings of the thesis have drawn on an extensive survey based on MLQ questionnaire (Bass, 1985; Bass and Avolio, 2004 and 2006) and Dorfman and Howell's (1988) cultural dimensions instrument, along with several semi-structured interviews to provide an in-depth explanation of leadership styles and cultural values, as well as insights derived from CSL models. This thesis particularly utilised the recent methodological and theoretical advancements of cross-cultural studies in leadership studies in educational settings. These findings offered considerable insights into this area of investigation. The following pages address a series of important issues: the contribution of the study, both theoretical and managerial, reflections on the research areas for further research and a concluding summary.

8.2 Contribution of the Study

A variety of conclusions can be drawn from this study, which contributes to knowledge in several ways. These conclusions are traditionally divided into three groups:

theoretical, practical and methodological. These contributions are explained in further detail in the following sections:

8.2.1 Theoretical contribution

An important theoretical contribution of this study is that full range leadership theory which is the culmination of many leadership theories has proved to provide an appropriate basis for understanding VET leadership. It provided further evidence to the applicability of generic leadership models to educational settings. The results particularly pointed towards the idea that a combination of transformational leadership dimensions and the Contingent Reward dimension of transactional leadership are exhibited most by Saudi VET leaders. In addition, the results of qualitative data, in particular, provided a locally meaningful understanding of main dimensions of this leadership style in this particular educational sector. Furthermore, the findings added value to a growing body of literature on VET educational setting and addressed the substantial questions of VET leadership such as the dominant leadership style in VET and the main demographic and cultural antecedents shaping and influencing VET leadership.

The thesis also sheds further and different light on Saudi Arabian national culture by using Dorfman and Howell’s (1988) cultural dimensions. The results revealed that compared with Hofstede's culture data on Saudi Arabia, the mean score on power distance was relatively low. There are two possible explanations for this result. One possibility is that the national culture went through some transformations since Hofstede's (1980) early data collection during the 1960's and 1970's. The second and most important reason, however, is ecological fallacy, in that the respondents in this specific sample were highly educated and high in self-determination compared to the average population in Saudi Arabia.

This thesis also reviewed thoroughly the works of those authors who sought to devise leadership models for organizations in Muslim countries based on broad concepts such as history, culture and tradition. Apart from some inevitable discrepancies, the result was confirmation of overlapping between TL and core ideas envisaged in these studies. This is an interesting conclusion that indicates the high value of application of TL in this specific context.

These findings also added substantially to our understanding as to the demographic factors and national culture as the main antecedents of ETL. To examine the role of demography, a number of factors such as gender, age, education level, work experience managerial level and institutional affiliation were examined. The most interesting result to emerge from the data was about the role of gender. The findings in general did not support the results of previous meta-analyses that indicated women scored higher than men on all the transformational leadership scales and on contingent reward (which contains a transactional component). The self-perceived results have shown otherwise, while the rater-perceived results are slightly more consistent with previous studies. These differences can be accounted for by the absolute gender segregation in VET educational settings in Saudi Arabia, which made this case very peculiar. The analysis did not identify any significant differences between the different categories of age and leadership style. However, there were significant positive correlations between educational level and work experience, and exhibiting the dimensions of transformational leadership. These results are in good agreement with previous meta-analyses. With respect to managerial levels, the findings revealed a significant negative correlation with the dimensions of transformational leadership and a positive correlation with the dimensions of transactional leadership. Indeed, the Deans/Heads were perceived to exhibit more transactional and less transformational behaviour than Vice-Deans/Heads. This is somehow in contrast to previous results. The results on the effect of institutional affiliation showed that those affiliated to girls' VET exhibit less transformational behaviours. This result has further strengthened our confidence in the previous results, that male VET leaders exhibit more transformational behaviour than their female counterparts.

With respect to cultural determinants, this thesis revealed that the direction of coefficient correlations between PD and the transformational dimensions and CR is negative. This means that high levels of PD perceived by VET leaders are associated with lower levels of these leadership components. The same pattern was also repeated between MAS and most dimensions of transformational leadership. The results also suggested largest correlation between MBEA and UA followed by MBEA and CO. which is inconsistent with many studies, which found correlations between high CO and transformational dimensions.

The results of grouped correlations or regression results also suggest that variations in cultural dimensions account for only a modest level of variance in each leadership style. In other words, only a small proportion of the total variation in leadership scores was predicted by cultural values scores. UA proved to be the most significant predictor of all dimensions except LF; the correlation with IB was the strongest, followed by MBEA and IC. PD also emerged as a significant predicator of four dimensions: IA, IS, IC and IM. CO predicted IA, CR and MBEA while MAS appeared to predict only IB.

Taken together, the results suggested that cultural values are related to leadership, but there is not much overlap between the variables of cultural values and TL dimensions. The modest correlation between leadership dimensions and cultural values can be attributed to the fact that leadership is a complex construct that is influenced by a number of variables other than the four dimensions of culture assessed in this study. Even though there is a lot of emphasis on cultural differences in the literature, this study suggested that cultural values have a relatively small relationship with leadership. This result would further strengthen our confidence in the universality of TL the model.

8.2.2 Practical contribution

The results of this research offer several ideas and insights for educational policy makers and scholars in Saudi Arabia and abroad. As it was argued before, although VET has turned out to be a necessary educational sector, it has been very susceptible to a number of risks and challenges. The most striking practical contribution of this thesis is that it raised awareness on the importance of leadership as a key source of challenges as well as an important vehicle helping VET stakeholders in overcoming these challenges.

This study also offered an understanding of the dominant leadership styles in this specific context. Given that undertaking any further step in educational planning and transformation is heavily dependent on having a clear idea of the current situation, these findings are very helpful for VET policy makers to gain a better understanding of the existing situation of VET leadership. The findings also confirmed that the combination of transformational leadership is well matched to this context. Another relevant result is that the cultural determinants are scarcely related to these leadership styles. Indeed this thesis underlined the thorough applicability of TL in this context. Given that multiple researches have confirmed the effectiveness of these leadership styles in educational settings, it is highly recommended to focus on these leadership styles in further attempts in leadership development measures in this specific educational sector. The findings related to the demographical factors also provide some practical contributions. For instance there was correlation between higher education levels and work experience and higher score transformational leadership. It means it is impractical to assign the leadership positions to the candidates with lower education levels and work experience.

8.2.3 Methodological contribution

This thesis has devised an innovative methodology that supports the main aims of this thesis. Inspired by methodological advancements in cross-cultural studies of leadership, this thesis combined etic and emic approaches and in line with this approach it has adopted mixed methods to investigate the potential role of culture in leadership. As indicated in section 4.3.1, mixed methods take a variety of forms. This research adopted an explanatory sequential design which consists of first collecting quantitative data and then collecting qualitative data to help explain or elaborate on the quantitative results. This was chosen because it is one of the most feasible ways to address the requirements of this research. This is the first research on this topic that has adopted this mixed method design. In addition to this adaptation of mixed method design which will be particularly interesting for educational scholars, both qualitative and quantitative methods of data collection included a number of methodological initiatives.

With respect to the quantitative phase of data collection and analysis, this thesis involved both leaders and raters with the respective MLQ (5-X Short Forms) in order to mitigate attributional bias attributed to self-ratings of one's own leader behaviour. Given that the data were not initially normally distributed for t-test and ANOVA, analysis, the transformation formula of data was used as a remedy to improve distributions to be more normal. Where differences were statistically significant in t-test and ANOVA, the ‘effect size’, or the relative magnitude was calculated based on eta squared Cohen’s d. To determine exactly where the differences occur between the groups in dimensions with significant differences, post-hoc comparisons were conducted using the Tukey HSD test.

With respect to qualitative data, there were also a number of important methodological considerations. The analysis took an iterative analytical stand which lies somewhere between inductive data-driven and deductive concept-driven coding. In addition the interview samples were taken from a number of different VET institutions and from leaders at two different managerial levels, as well as raters.

8.3 Reflection

This study has gone some way towards enhancing our understanding of VET leadership in Saudi Arabia. However, a number of potential limitations need to be considered. First and above all, since it is the first academic effort that explores leadership in a very particular educational setting (VETs) within a culturally different context, caution must be exercised in the generalization of the results. Indeed, the findings of this study on leadership styles and national culture characteristics are, at best, generalizable to the public sector institutions in Saudi Arabia. Saudi Arabia has an extremely heterogeneous demographic composition in terms of levels of education and cultural orientations and as result, the cultural dimensions for the sample of this study are hardly representative of the broader society of Saudi Arabia. In addition, as indicated before, both MLQ and CV instruments were slightly modified (as the translation from English to Arabic may to some degree affect the meaning). This also restricts the generalization of these results to other similar studies conducted based on these two instruments.

This research has also thrown up many questions in need of further investigation. An important area that deserves further investigation is the consequences of VET leadership in the Saudi Arabian context. Specifically, complementary studies are required to examine the potential association between the leadership styles and effectiveness of those leadership styles in terms of students' achievements. Another vital issue for future research is leadership development in Saudi VET. It is particularly necessary to investigate training programmes designed for leadership development to generate effective leaders. The results indicated an important overlapping between leadership characteristics suggested by CLS authors and the core components of TL. On a wider level, it is recommended that further qualitative research should be done on the locally meaningful concept of leadership which is rooted in Islamic principles and tribal tradition. Despite these limitations, this research will serve as a springboard for future studies on educational leadership in Saudi Arabia.

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Appendices

Appendix A: The permission letter from TVTC

١/٣/٣٩٧٥٢

٢٠٣٢/٩/١٨

سعادة الملحق الثقافي في بسفارة خادم الحرمين الشريفين   حفظه الله

بالمملكة المتحدة وايرلندا

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته.

أشير إلى الطلب المقدم من المبتعثة هدى راشد السعيد من جامعة الملك سعود التي تدرس الدكتوراه في مجال التربية والذي تطلب فيه موافقة المؤسسة العامة للتدريب التقني والمهني على تطبيق بحثها على المؤسسة.

نود الإفادة بأن المؤسسة ليس لديها مانع من إجراء البحث المقدم من الأخت هدى وفقاً للضوابط والأنظمة المعمول بها متمنين لها التوفيق والسداد، ولتذليل أي عقبات تتعلق بهذا الشأن نأمل التنسيق مع الإدارة العامة للبحوث والدراسات المهنية على هاتف رقم ١٢٨٩٦٥٢١ أو من خلال البريد الإلكتروني للإدارة، كما نأمل تزويدنا بنسخة من الرسالة بعد انتهائها.

وتقبلوا أطيب تحياتي ،،

نائب المحافظ للتخطيط والتطوير

صالح بن عبد الرحمن العمرو

ص/ لمكتبنا

ص/ للإدارة العامة للبحوث والدراسات المهنية مع الأساس

ص/ للاتصالات

Appendix B: Data Survey for leaders

Data Survey for Leaders

Please put a tick (√) in the box by the answer that best describes you, or write in your details on the dotted lines.

1. Current position

	Dean of Technical College
	Vice-Dean of Training Affairs
	Vice-Dean of Trainees Services
	Head of Vocational Institute
	Vice-Head of Training Affairs
	Vice-Head of Trainees services
	Dean of Technical College for Girls
	Vice-Dean of Training Affairs
	Vice-Dean of Training Services

2. Gender

	Male
	Female

3. Age

	20-29
	30-39
	40-49
	50-59
	60 and over

4. Education level

	Secondary school
	Diploma after secondary school
	Bachelor
	Master
	Doctor
	Other, please specify…

5. Please specify a number of years of your **work experience**: ☐

Appendix C: Data survey for raters

Data Survey for Raters

Please put a tick (√) in the box by the answer that best describes you, or write in your details on the dotted lines.

1. Current position

	Trainers at Technical College
	Trainers at Vocational Institutes
	Trainers at Technical college for girls (women)

2. Gender

	Male
	Female

3. Age

	20-29
	30-39
	40-49
	50-59
	60 and over

4. Education level

	Secondary school
	Diploma after secondary school
	Bachelor
	Master
	Doctor
	Other, please specify…

5. Please specify a number of years of your **work experience**: ☐

Appendix D: Dorfman and Howell's CV Scale

Dorfman and Howell's CV Scale

Instructions: Listed below are a number of statements that may represent possible feelings toward your organisation. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement, by circling the appropriate number, using the following scale.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

1	It is important to have job requirements and instructions spelled out in detail so that employees always know what they are expected to do.
2	Group welfare is more important than individual rewards.
3	Managers should make most decisions without consulting subordinates.
4	Meetings usually run more effectively when a man chairs them.
5	Group success is more important than individual success.
6	It is frequently necessary for a manager to use authority and power when dealing with subordinates.
7	It is more important for men to have a professional career than it is for women to have a professional career.
8	Rules and regulations are important because they inform employees what the organisation expects of them.
9	Being accepted by the members of your work group is very important.
10	Managers should seldom ask for the opinions of employees.
11	Solving organizational problems usually requires an active forcible approach, which is typical of men.
12	Standard operating procedures are helpful to employees on the job.

13	Employees should only pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group.
14	Managers should avoid off-the job social contacts with employees.
15	Men usually solve problems with logical analysis; women usually solve problems with intuition.
16	Instructions for operations are important for employees on the job.
17	Managers should encourage group loyalty even if individual goals suffer.
18	Employees should not disagree with management decisions.
19	Managers expect employees to closely follow instructions and procedures.
20	Managers should not delegate important tasks to employees.
21	Individuals may be expected to give up their goals in order to benefit group success.
22	It is preferable to have a man in a high level position rather than a woman.

Appendix E: Interview questions for Leaders

Thank you very much for participating in this research. The interview is scheduled to last no longer than one hour and is completely voluntary. You have been selected to speak with me because you have been identified as someone who exhibits transformational / transactional leadership qualities. This research focuses on the leadership styles in VET in Saudi Arabia, with particular interest in understanding how national culture affects your leadership. This study does not aim to evaluate your techniques or experiences

The first objective: Leadership styles

(A) The first group sought to build concepts by asking questions on leadership styles as perceived by respondents.

1- Generally speaking, what is your understanding of the term leadership?

2- In your opinion, what are the most important qualities that leaders should possess?

(B) The second group of questions related to their preconceptions of transformational-transactional leadership. These questions concern the constituent elements of transformational and transactional leadership.

Transformational and Transactional questions:

1- How do you encourage building teamwork among your staff toward shared goals and commitment?

2- What are the most important values for you to present to your staff? Why? And how?

3-Is it important for you to set an example for your staff that is consistent with VET institutions' values and expectations?

4- How do you inspire your employees as with a vision of a better future?

5- How do you build trust, respect, and confidence in your staff?

6- Is it important for you to be concerned about their personal needs, not just the organizational? How is this accomplished?

7- In what ways do you challenge your staff? How so?

8- Is it important to be flexible?

9- How do you encourage creativity?

10- Do you consider yourself as a role model?

11-What type of ethical principles do you believe in?

12- Can you explain how decisions are made in your organization?

13- How do you react to new experiences?

14- Do you feel it is important to mentor/coach your trainers? How? Why?

15- What is your policy on rewarding performance?

16- How do you reward performance within your institution?

17-To what extent are the rewards financial and psychological?

18- How do you work to maintain standards?

19-How do you act if you notice errors?

20- What rules have you established to avoid mistakes?

21- How often and when do you attempt to improve performance?

The Second objective: cultural values.

These questions first asked respondents about their perceptions of cultural values in the workplace and the extent to which they shape and influence their leadership styles.

1- Do you like to make decisions with your subordinates? Why?

2- How would you describe your relationship with your subordinates?

3-In your experience, how frequently are subordinates afraid to express disagreement with you? Why?

4-Do you like to work alone or as a team? Why?

5-What are your opinions about male leaders and female leaders?

6-How often do you feel unsure of how to behave? Why?

7- When do you feel anxiety? Why?

I would like to thank you for the opportunity to speak with you today. I appreciate the hard work that you do for your institution, trainees, and the community at large. I know how valuable your time is and I greatly appreciate it.

Appendix F: Interview questions for Raters

Thank you very much for participation in this research. The interview is scheduled to last no longer than one hour and is completely voluntary. You have been selected to speak with me today because you have been identified as someone who assessed his/her leader as having transformational / transactional leadership qualities. This research focuses on the leadership styles in VET in Saudi Arabia, and is interested in understanding how national culture affects your leader's leadership. It does not aim to evaluate your techniques or experiences or your leader.

These questions related to respondents preconceptions of transformational-transactional leadership. These questions concern the constituent elements of transformational and transactional leadership.

1- How does your leader encourage building teamwork among your staff toward shared goals and commitment?

2- What the most important value you think your leader is displays?

3- How does your leader inspire you and other employees?

4- How does your leader build trust, respect, and confidence with you?

5- Is your leader concerned about your personal needs, or just the organization? How?

6- In what ways does your leader challenge you? How so?

7- To what extent do you consider your leader is flexible?

8- Does your leader encourage creativity? Can you explain?

9- Do you consider your leader as a role model? Why? How?

10-What type of ethical principles does your leader appreciate? Do you agree with him/her? Why?

11- Can you explain how decisions are made in your organization?

12- How does your leader react to new experiences?

13- Does your leader mentor/coach you? How?

14- What is your leader's policy on rewarding performance?

15- How does your leader reward your performance?

16-To what extent are the rewards financial and psychological?

17- How does your leader work to maintain standards?

18-How does your leader act if he/she notice errors?

19- What rules have you established to avoid mistakes?

20-How often does your leader attempt to improve your performance?

I would like to thank you for the opportunity to speak with you today. I appreciate the hard work that you do for your institution, trainees, and the community at large. I know how valuable your time is and I greatly appreciate it.