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The Relationship Between Culture, Manager's Leadership Styles, and Employees' Motivation Level in a Bahraini Service Organisation Environment

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**UNIVERSITY OF
PLYMOUTH**

**The Relationship Between Culture,
Manager's Leadership Styles, and Employees' Motivation Level
in a Bahraini Service Organisation Environment**

by

Abdulla Naser AlNoaimi

A thesis submitted to University of Plymouth

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AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

At no time during the registration for the degree of *Doctor of Business Administration* has the author been registered for any other University award without prior agreement of the Doctoral College Quality Sub-Committee.

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**UNIVERSITY OF
PLYMOUTH**

**The Relationship between Culture, Managers' Leadership
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Organisation Environment**

ABSTRACT

The study explored the interrelation between leadership styles, employee motivation, and culture among Bahraini employees and managers in Victory Training Development Institute (VTDI) - a vocational training organization located in the Kingdom of Bahrain. Using a pragmatic case study design, the study employed a mixed method approach to address the research problem. The theoretical framework, which was developed through the guidance of leadership, motivation, and culture theories, posited that cultural constructs may affect the manager's adoption of leadership approaches, as well as the employees' work values. Because Arab culture is characterized by respect for authority, strict enforcement of rules, and tribalistic values and belief, it was expected to affect leadership negatively, as most managers would prefer a traditional passive approach over modern ones. On the contrary, the results of the study revealed that most Bahraini employees apply a combination of transactional and transformational elements in their leadership style, while only few maintains a traditional passive style. Results also showed that Bahraini employees value intrinsic factors more than extrinsic ones. The results also confirmed that a combination of transactional and transformational leadership elements were more effective in motivating employees than a traditional passive laissez-faire approach. Additional findings suggest that cultural factors affect both the manager's leadership style and the employee's perception of leadership effectiveness. A new theoretical framework based on the conceptual framework and the results was presented to explain in details the discovered phenomenon as well as the research's contribution to knowledge.

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Employees Under Transactional-Transformational
Managers

FIGURE 8.5

New Theoretical Framework on the Interrelation
Between Culture, Leadership, and Motivation in
Bahrain Setting

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CHAPTER 1- INTRODUCTION

1.1. BACKGROUND

The Kingdom of Bahrain, situated on the east coast of Saudi Arabia, is an archipelago comprising 36 islands, with an estimated population of 1.2 million as of July 2013 (CIA, 2013). Bahrain's two major cities, Manama and al-Muharraq, are home to the majority of the country's population. The Kingdom used to have a large number of foreign workers. In 2010, expatriates roughly made up 38 percent of the workforce (Country Watch, 2010). However, because of the government's "Bahrainisation" campaign, the number of foreign workers decreased to 18 percent by 2010. Bahrainisation is the government's efforts to increase the presence of Bahraini citizens in the workplace and significantly reduce the number of expatriates.

Bahrain is a member of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC), which binds together the six nations in the Arab Peninsula through cooperation, coordination, and integration (Cooperation Council for the Arab States of the Gulf, 2012). Economically, Bahrain is the smallest market in the GCC, only contributing 2 percent of gross domestic product (GDP). This is particularly small as compared to Saudi Arabia's 42 percent GDP and the United Arab Emirates' 27 percent GDP. However, Bahrain has the most diversified economy among the GCC members because of a strong non-oil sector. In 2011, the non-oil sector accounted for as much as 70 percent of the country's GDP (Qatar National Bank, 2012). Specifically, Bahrain has a strong financial service sector, which employs more than 14,000 workers. Other sectors that contribute to Bahrain's GDP

include mining and quarrying, manufacturing, construction, trade, and real estate. The Kingdom has been diversifying its economy mainly because of the limited energy reserves (Bahrain Economic Development Board, 2013).

Bahrain's diverse economy makes it one of the most important countries in the Gulf region. Aside from serving as a financial hub to the rest of the region and the world, Bahrain also caters a wide array of services that range from communication to education (Hajee & Al Hashemi, 2012). Further, Bahrain welcomes direct leverage investments. As part of its economic strategy, the Kingdom has developed not only a keen understanding of foreign businesses' needs, advanced business infrastructures, and modern international business designs, but also a liberal business environment to attract foreign investors (Bahrain Economic Development Board, 2013).

With a focus on the service sector and a positive attitude toward foreign investors, Bahrain's organisational structures are expected to have already been aligned with Western strategies. That is, Bahraini managers' leadership styles should have already been influenced by those of their Western counterparts, thereby showing less coercive, authoritative, and laissez-faire characteristics. However, a study conducted by Hajee and Al Hashemi (2012) revealed that most managers in Bahrain still prefer coercive and authoritative leadership over a democratic, pacesetter, coaching, and affiliative style. A coercive style is one that imposes the leader's approach on the subordinate's behaviour. Motivation under a coercive leadership is usually cultivated by threats of disciplinary action or punishment (Ahlstrom & Bruton, 2009; Kumar & Meenakshi, 2009). On the other hand, an authoritative leadership refers to an autocratic style that uses a

firm but fair grip over subordinates, and uses unilateralism to achieve objectives (Brym & Lie, 2009). Both styles can be classified as laissez-faire, which is basically leadership that is autocratic yet passive (Einarsen et al., 2010). A laissez-faire leader is “hands-off” when it comes to guidance and motivation, but is quick to give threats and punishments for mistakes, causing employees to feel uninspired and dissatisfied (Exantus, 2012; Donaldson-Feilder et al., 2013). Bass and Avolio’s (1994) Full-Range Leadership Model (FRLM) stressed the ineffectiveness of laissez-faire in motivating employees, but promoted a combination of transactional and transformational approaches that focus on inspiring, engaging, and stimulating ideas from employees.

Results from the Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE) leadership survey, conducted by House and associates in 1991, revealed that Arab and Western leadership styles were completely the opposite (Brodbeck et al., 2013). GLOBE was a study that took influence from Hofstede’s cross-cultural dimension theory to explore the differences in culture of at least 62 countries. It included data from managers in Egypt, Kuwait, Morocco and Qatar, sought to determine the characteristics of an effective leader. Interestingly, compared to their Western counterparts, Arab managers gave lower scores on participative, charismatic, and team-oriented qualities for effective leadership (Brodbeck et al., 2013). In contrast, characteristics that Arab managers viewed as effective were reliance on procedure, self-centredness, face-saving, status-consciousness, and conflict induction. Findings of the 1991 study are plausible because saving face and giving extreme importance to one’s status are often said to be important values in traditional Arab culture. Overall, the study suggested that the leadership characteristics of Arab managers were leaning more towards the creation

of more rules to avoid uncertainty, the high separation between managers and employees, and the promotion of values that give importance to power, authority, and saving face. Western cultures were found to have the opposite characteristics as they were more lenient on rules, more open to closing the gap between leaders and employees, and more focused on developing the intrinsic qualities of employees (Brodbeck et al., 2013).

The GLOBE results, however, are in contrast with other early studies on Arab managers' decision making styles. For instance, the study by Ali (1989) revealed that the decision-making style of most Arab managers was either pure consultative or pseudo-consultative. This means that despite their authoritative figure, Arab managers made it a point to consult their peers and subordinates before making any decisions. Another study that explored this subject was Bossiff's (2010) investigation on the decision-making style of Arab executives in Tunisia. Interestingly, the study reported that most of the study's participants preferred a pseudo-consultative style. Bossiff (2010) argued that because of the influence of Islamic and tribalistic values and beliefs, the need to consult with kinship and community networks before making any major decision had been reinforced. Other studies conducted in the United Arab Emirates confirmed the consultative and consensual approaches of Arab manager (Butler, 2009; Randeree & Chaudhry, 2012). In addition, several literatures conducted in Arab and non-Arab Islamic settings reported the widespread practice of modern leadership approaches that contrast stereotypes in Arab leadership (Chaudhry et al., 2012; Chaudhry & Javed, 2012; Raman & Rajan, 2012; Birasnav et al., 2013; Khalifa & Ayoubi, 2015; Hadalwar et al., 2016; Prabhakar et al., 2016).

Few studies report a relationship between leadership style and employee motivation (Masi & Cooke, 2000; Hassan et al., 2010; Chipunza et al., 2011; Shibru & Darshan, 2011). For instance, Masi and Cooke (2000) found that transformational leadership was positively related to individual motivation, whereas transactional leadership was negatively related to the latter. Hassan et al. (2010) concluded that even at the training stage, transformational leadership can have a significant positive effect on the employees' satisfaction. This was because trainees in transformational leadership courses had been found to develop a more positive attitude toward leading their subordinates compared to other executives who had no such training. Chipunza et al. (2011) found that transformational leadership yielded a greater positive correlation with employee motivation than transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles. A study by Shibru and Darshan (2011), conducted in Ethiopia, also reported a positive relationship between transformational leadership and employee motivation—a finding suggesting that a positive relationship between leadership style and employee motivation can also be found in non-Western settings. Shibru and Darshan's work is one of the rare investigations on the effects of leadership style on motivation in a non-Western country context. Nonetheless, several studies conducted in Arab and non-Arab Islamic countries suggested the influences of Islamic leadership and work ethics on employee motivation (Fakhar Zaman et al., 2013; Sulaiman et al., 2014; Ghannad et al., 2016; Heyrani and Hamehkhani, 2017). A number of literatures claimed that Islamic leadership contains elements from transactional-transformational approaches as it is also based on the leader's charisma and ability to inspire (Ahmad, 2009; Ali, 2009). Similar to modern leadership approaches, Islamic leadership was reported to have characteristics that can

enhance the intrinsic motivation of employees (Ali, 2009). As stressed in Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory (Herzberg et al., 1959) and Deci's Cognitive Evaluation Theory (Fernet et al., 2012), intrinsic motivation, or the capability to internalize one's desire to work, is as equally important as extrinsic rewards in motivating employees. However, studies that directly explores the effects of transactional-transformational approaches on the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of employees remains underexplored in Bahrain and other Arab countries.

1.2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

The conceptual framework of the study presented in Figure 1.2 shows the potential impact of leadership styles on motivation. As stressed in the Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM), lack of transactional and transformational approaches in leadership could lead to lack of motivation among employees (Iszatt -White & Saunders, 2014). Leaders who lack these traits are referred to as traditional passive leaders or laissez-faire. They do not usually engage in crucial decision-making, avoiding conflicts by not confronting decisions and often showing a lack of interest on several organisational issues and disputes (Nolette et al., 2012). They also exert authority at all cost, detaching themselves from their employees. As a result, employees are often uninspired, lack vision, unguided, unmotivated, dissatisfied, and unproductive (Nolette et al., 2012). On the other hand, leaders who utilize transactional approaches use rewards and incentives as tools to gain employee loyalty and compliance (Lucier & Achua, 2012). The transactional leader negotiates with followers, explaining to them the rewards for good performances and the punishment for poor performances (Lucier &

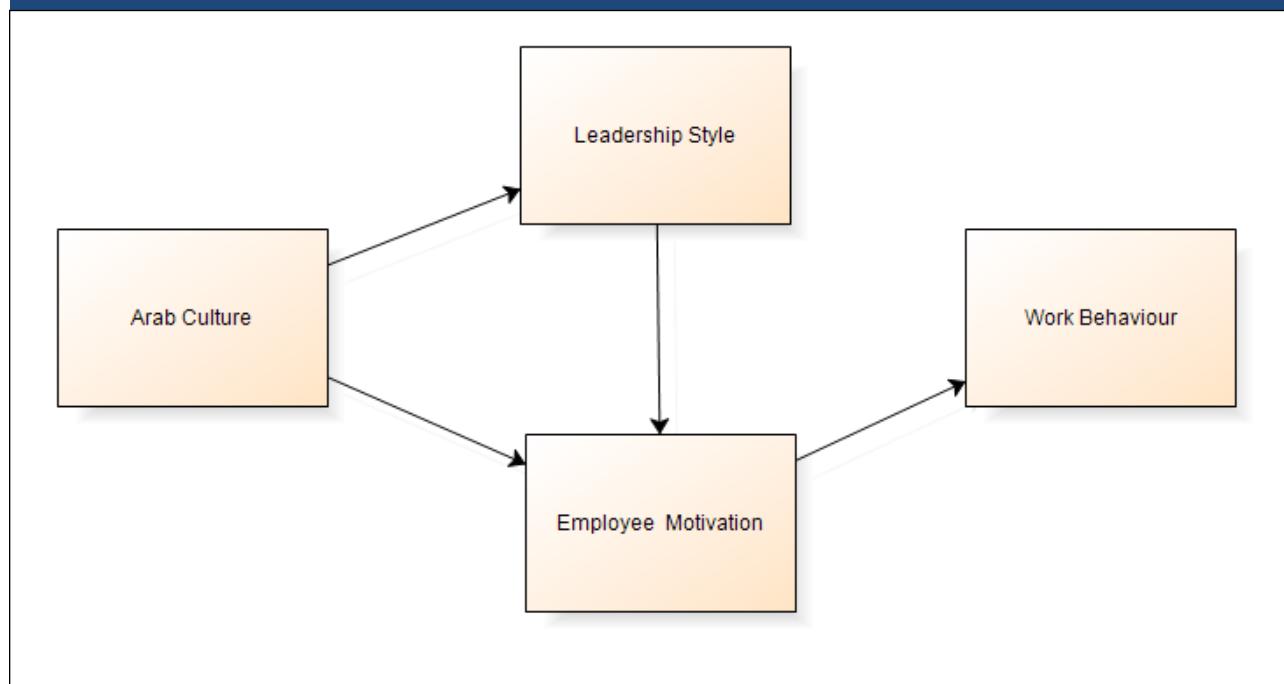
Achua, 2012). Nonetheless, leaders that are limited to transactional styles may lack the ability to motivate employees intrinsically because of their overreliance on extrinsic rewards (Winkler, 2010). Thus, fully motivating employees may require the adoption of transformational leadership traits that consider employees' individual characteristics and stimulates their creative and innovative sides (Winkler, 2010). Transformational traits allow a leader develops and shares the vision for the advancement of the organisation with the employees, and also encourages the employees to reach high goals and express important values (Winkler, 2010).

Aside from theoretical explanations, several studies on leadership found evidences on the impact of transformational elements on employee motivation (Barbuto Jr., 2005; Ilies et al., 2006; Rowold & Scholtz, 2009; Chaudhry et al., 2012; Chaudhry & Javed, 2012; Beck-Tauber, 2012; Lidong & Xinxin, 2013; El-Salam, 2013; Callier, 2014). Notable findings include higher correlation with both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation than any other types of leadership (Barbuto Jr., 2005), least correlation with employee stress (Rowold & Scholtz, 2009), and ability to empower employees and stimulate their creative side (Beck-Tauber, 2012). Literatures conducted in Arab and non-Arab Islamic settings found evidences on the existence of transformational leadership elements in Arab leadership styles (Shahin & Wright, 2004; Khalifa & Ayoubi, 2015; Prabhakar et al., 2016). Several studies conducted in Bahrain not only found transformational leadership elements, but also their positive effects on several organizational variables such as knowledge management (Raman & Rajan, 2012), and product and process innovation (Birasnav et al., 2013). In contrast, other studies found negative leadership

traits among Arab managers, which include self-preservation (House et al., 2004), authoritarian and bureaucratic rule (Shahin & Wright, 2004), and the existence of a blame culture wherein managers choose not be accountable to their mistakes (Al-Shabbani, 2015). In addition, studies that found the existence of transformational and transactional leadership traits among Arab managers also found evidences on the existence of traditional passive approaches. Further, although some transformational leadership elements can be found in Islamic values (Ahmad, 2009; Ali, 2009), most of its elements appear to be incompatible with Arab culture's highly authoritative, bureaucratic, collective, and masculine nature (Hofstede, 1981; House et al., 2004).

Figure 1.2

Conceptual Framework on the Interrelation Between Culture, Leadership Style, and Employee Motivation



The conceptual framework of the study also includes motivation as a theoretical element, specifically its relationship with leadership styles. Apparently, motivation can either be intrinsic or extrinsic as suggested by Herzberg in the 1950s through his two-factor theory (Herzberg et al., 1959) and later adopted by Deci and associates to develop the cognitive evaluation theory and self-determination theory (Fernet et al., 2012). Referring to factors that do not offer any development for employees, extrinsic motivation is usually associated with tangible and material rewards (e.g., salary and company policies), satisfaction toward management and supervision, working conditions, safety, and relationship with co-workers (Herzberg et al., 1959; House & Wigdor, 1967). On the other hand, intrinsic motivation or “motivators” refer to feelings such as achievements, importance within the team, self-worth, and recognition (Furnham et al., 2009). Intrinsic motivation is basically the attraction of the employee toward oneself and not on the material or tangible rewards that will be obtained from the workplace (Dewett, 2007). Intrinsic motivation can be internalised through an employee’s perceived competence and capability to achieve specific goals (Shroff & Vogel, 2009). This motivation type can also be triggered through the person’s perceived autonomy, control, and use of skills (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Ke et al., 2013).

Drawing from the concepts of intrinsic motivation, the theoretical elements in the conceptual framework can be further expanded to show a more detailed relationship between leadership and motivation. Basically, it is expected that combining transformational and transactional leadership elements is more effective in extrinsically and intrinsically motivating employees than utilizing a traditional laissez-faire approach.

Several studies found that employees who are extrinsically motivated but also have high intrinsic motivation are more satisfied with their jobs, more creative, and more engaged to their work as compared to those who are only extrinsically motivated (Salge et al., 2009; Fakhar Zaman et al., 2013; Miniotaite & Bucioniene, 2013; Ke et al., 2013; Yun et al., 2014). In contrast, employees who lack motivation may be working under a passive leader that fails to provide any attractive rewards or internal fulfilments through inspiration and recognition (Nolette et al., 2012).

The study's conceptual framework also posits the potential effects of cultural factors on relationship between leadership and motivation. Specifically, cultural factors can be categorized into different dimensions that may influence every aspect of the organization, from the distribution of power to how employees relate with one another (Fiske, 1990; Schwartz, 1994; Trompenaars, 1994; Hofstede, 2001; Smolarek, 2006; Rethi, 2012). As discussed in Hofstede's cultural dimensions model, there are five dimensions of culture, which include: (1) power distance; (2) uncertainty avoidance; (3) gender orientation; (4) collectivism, and; (5) time orientation. Power distance is a cultural dimension that refers to the degree of separation between leaders and followers within a society (Hofstede, 2001). Societies with high power distance have leaders who assert their authorities, while those with low power distance have leaders who work with their employees on equal terms. The uncertainty avoidance dimension, meanwhile, is the degree of risk taking allowed within a particular culture. Strong uncertainty avoidance focuses on stability instead of creativity, whereas weak uncertainty avoidance focuses on the opposite. Another dimension, gender orientation, refers to the

masculinity or femininity of a society. A masculine society is success-oriented and has high regards to achievements, while a feminine society is care-oriented and has high regards to humanistic principles. The collectivism dimension is the degree of loyalty to the in-group. High collectivism means strong conformity to group norms, whereas high individualism refers to nonconformity and the individual attainment of goals. The last dimension, time orientation, pertains to a society's focus on the past, present or future. Short-term orientation focuses on traditions that originated from the past and on current goals that should be achieved. Conversely, long-term orientation emphasises careful planning and the attainment of long-term goals (Hofstede, 2001).

Several studies have provided suggestions on the effects of culture on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, specifically among Arab and non-Arab Islamic countries (Abboushi, 1990; Yasin & Stahl, 1990; Al-Hazmi, 2010; Sadi & Al-Ghazi, 2012; Fakhar Saman et al., 2013; Lim, 2013; Sulaiman et al., 2014). The results generally revealed the more authoritative a state is (e.g. Saudi Arabia), the higher the intrinsic motivation of employees over their extrinsic motivation. The results suggest that more democratic Arab states such as UAE and Bahrain generally have employees that may prioritize extrinsic factors over intrinsic factors.

Aside from motivation, research also suggests that cultural orientation may affect the development and adoption of leadership styles among managers (Al Jafary et al., 1989; House et al., 1995; Smith et al., 2007; Zaraket, 2014; El-Majid & Cohen, 2015; Jackson et al., 2015). One example was the findings on the GLOBE study conducted by House

et al. (1995), which revealed that some of the cultural traits of Middle Eastern countries such as high collectivism, low gender egalitarianism, and low future orientation, may affect how leaders perceive their responsibilities. For instance, low future orientation may indicate an overemphasis on short term goals, while neglecting future ones. On the other hand, lack of female representatives in management may reflect the leaders' self-protecting nature, as well as their value for male dominance, power and authority. The GLOBE results also revealed that Arab managers possess self-protective traits, such as face-saving, overreliance on procedures and rules, status-consciousness, and self-centeredness (House et al., 1995; Smith et al., 2007). Interestingly, these traits are commonly found among laissez-faire leaders as they are known to put self-interest first before the interest of the group (Bass & Aviola, 1994). Based on these insights, the conceptual framework stresses the important role of culture in leadership development and adoption. Specifically, it is assumed that a culture that overemphasizes authority, traditions, power, rules, collective actions, and short term goals are more likely to produce laissez-faire leaders than transactional or transformational ones. In contrast, cultures that narrow the gap between leaders and employees, and promote individual growth, are more likely to produce transactional and transformational leaders.

Overall, this discussion on the study's conceptual framework is a tentative initial evaluation of the research problems and attendant theories. A more detailed discussion which focuses in the context of Arab culture is provided in Chapter 5. Naturally, the discussion on each theoretical variable will be more effectively articulated and explained as more literatures will be explored and reviewed.

1.3. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Bahrain's diversified economy and focus on "Bahrainisation" in its labour force requires effective leadership strategies that enable balanced employee management and control. Bahrainisation refers to the Kingdom's effort to eventually replace the skilled segment of the expatriate workforce with Bahraini nationals (Bertelsmann Stiftung's Transformation Index, 2016). This was further strengthened in Kingdom's 2013 labor reforms, which aim was to increase the number of Bahraini employees in the private sector by requiring private companies to prioritize Bahraini applicants over non-Bahrainis. The Kingdom's Labour Market Regulatory Authority (LMRA) enforces this policy and ensures that each private sector meets the required Bahrainisation quota. Failure to adhere to this quota would require the company to pay fines or have its work permit cancelled (Labour Market Regulatory Authority, 2016).

Because of "Bahrainisation," expatriate managers and employees are significantly decreasing in number. In turn, the increase in local managers and leaders is showing an upward trend in the use of the traditional leadership styles. Previous government reports showed that companies were reluctant to hire Bahrainis because of the shortfall of workplace skills and their unwillingness to take unskilled jobs (Donn & Al Manthri, 2010). This implies that some private and public companies may have to settle for a less skilled manager over a skilled expatriate in order to meet LMRA's Bahrainisation demand, especially since the LMRA has been strict in the implementation of quotas as they praise those that meet the required rate, but incur penalties to those that do not (Arabian Business, 2016).

Aside from the issue of being forced to hire less skilled workers, companies in Bahrain are also faced with severe disparity in the distribution of wealth and levels of income inequality (Bertelsmann Stiftung's Transformation Index, 2016). Sectarian exclusion, which includes gender and ethnic inequality, were found to be ingrained in Bahraini society. Interestingly, despite the Bahrainisation efforts, a large percentage of low skilled employees were Asian migrants, but were unfairly excluded in the Kingdom's minimum wage policies. Further, women only make up 30 percent of the labor workforce and faces discrimination in terms of wages and senior representations (Bertelsmann Stiftung's Transformation Index, 2016).

Overall, these socioeconomic factors shape the employee relation dynamics in Bahrain, affecting not only the dominant leadership styles, but also the motivation of employees under such styles. Since companies are forced to meet quotas, they usually settle for less skilled managers that have little knowledge of modern leadership styles. Further, the socioeconomic condition in Bahrain makes it practical to hire low skilled labour from other countries, which may produce issues in skill efficiency and motivation. With the lack of studies covering this type of dynamic in Bahrain employee relation, there is an immediate concern to investigate the leadership styles of Bahraini managers and their effects on the motivation of the lower level workforce. The "unfairness" embedded within Bahrain's socioeconomic situation, combined with its strong authoritarian culture, could concoct a workplace situation where employees are less empowered and that leaders have too much authoritative power. This may result in low motivation among workers, which may lead to several negative repercussions. Nonetheless, it should be noted that

Western expatriates have been entering Bahrain and other Gulf countries for decades, which presents the possibility that many Bahraini managers have already been influenced by modern leadership styles (Hunt & At-Twajiri, 1996). In addition, majority of the research on leadership and motivation in the Gulf region is widely dispersed. Despite sharing the same religion and language, Arab nations differ in terms of ethnicity, tradition, history, politics, and socioeconomic condition (Smith et al., 2007). The current study aims to explore these contradictions through a pragmatic mixed method research approach. Specifically, the study will identify the effects of culture on the leadership styles of selected Bahraini managers, and the effectiveness of those styles in motivating employees intrinsically and extrinsically.

1.4. RATIONALE OF THE STUDY

The relevance of this research is to discover the determinants of employee motivation and how they relate to leadership style within the context of a Bahraini organisation, specifically the Vocational Training and Development Institute (VTDI). Another research purpose is to determine the prevalent leadership style of managers at VTDI and assess whether such a style motivates the employees to give their best at the workplace. This research can contribute to the growth of peer-reviewed literature on the topic of leadership and employee motivation, particularly on the relationship between the two variables. Further, the research will explore critical issues surrounding VTDI managers' leadership and how they can be addressed to improve employee motivation.

A number of studies have confirmed the positive significant relationship between transformational leadership and employee motivation (Tyagi, 1985; House et al., 1995; Barbuto Jr., 2005; Ilies et al., 2006; Rowold & Scholtz, 2009; Ledlow & Coppola, 2010; Beck-Tauber, 2012; Chaudhry et al., 2012 Chaudhry & Javed, 2012; Northouse, 2012; Lidong & Xinxin, 2013; El-Salam et al., 2013; Callier, 2014). However, the findings of such studies are limited to several industries, demographic areas, and theories on leadership and motivation. Some studies openly include leadership as an independent variable, but fail to distinguish the impact of leadership style on employee motivation. Also, given the large diversity of motivation theories, studies on certain elements of motivation and how these elements are affected by different leadership behaviours lack sufficient representation in the leadership-motivation research field. For instance, few studies have explored the relationship between motivation and leadership using self-determination and equity theory. Finally, quantitative research studies in leadership-motivation relationship outnumber the qualitative. Exploring the relationship using a pragmatic mixed method design can provide compelling, in-depth results and understanding on the influence of leadership styles on the motivation of the followers.

1.5. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This research aims to explore the relationship between leadership style and employee work motivation in VTDI. As mentioned, leadership styles, employee motivation, and the relationship between the two variables are still underexplored in Arab settings. Further, investigating these variables and how they relate to each other has been deemed necessary because there are not only unexplored areas in the diverse field of leadership

and motivation theories, but also an underrepresentation of qualitative paradigm studies in this space. Thus, this research's primary question has been developed and defined as:

“Is there a significant relationship between leadership styles, cultural orientation, and employee motivation at a service sector organisation in Bahrain?”

Specifically, the study will explore the following secondary research questions:

1. What are the most and least prevalent leadership styles among Bahraini managers?
2. What are the work values (intrinsic and extrinsic motivation) of Bahraini employees under specific leadership styles?
3. What are the Bahraini managers' cultural orientations?
4. How do the leadership styles of Bahraini managers influence the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of employees?
5. How do cultural constructs affect Bahraini managers' adoption of leadership styles?
6. How do cultural constructs affect Bahraini employees' intrinsic and extrinsic work values?
7. How do cultural constructs affect the influence of Bahraini managers' leadership approaches on the motivation of employees?

1.6. RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

Based on the research question, the study's primary objective is to determine if there are significant relationships between leadership styles, cultural orientation, and motivation in a service sector organisation based in Bahrain. Based on the primary research question, the secondary objectives, therefore, include: (1) to study the predominant leadership styles of Bahraini managers; (2) to explore the motivational values of Bahraini employees; (3) to examine the different leadership strategies of Bahraini managers, and; (4) to examine their cultural orientation.

The study begins by expanding the knowledge on managers' leadership styles and how they affect employee motivation through initial and succeeding literature reviews.

Literature search begins with the investigation of motivation, leadership, and culture theories to gain understanding on the basic concepts of these variables, as well as their contribution to management research. Then, literature search continues with the exploration of studies that attempted to connect these variables together by exploring their relationships, or how one variable affect the other. Initial research revealed that both transformational and transactional leadership styles are effective in motivating employees intrinsically and extrinsically, while traditional styles are akin to non-leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass & Avolio, 2004). However, it is still unclear how culture affects the relationship between these variables, especially the Arab culture, which is underrepresented in leadership and motivation literature. Gaps in literature will be addressed through a pragmatic research that combines quantitative and qualitative approaches. Data will be analyzed to produce results that may provide insights on the

relationship between leadership and motivation in Arab settings, and the influence of culture on the interaction between the two variables.

1.7. RESEARCH PARADIGM, DESIGN, AND METHODS

The current study adopts a pragmatism paradigm as it aims to address problems related to leadership, culture, and motivation through existing theories and mixed method investigation. Whereas popular social science paradigms such as positivism and positivism promote antecedent conditions, pragmatism emphasizes the importance of action, situations, and consequences in solving problems (Patton, 1990). Its ontological position rests on the acceptance of an external reality wherein the researcher can always select explanations that may best produce the desired outcomes (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). Pragmatists disagree that the nature of reality determines the kinds of knowledge that are possible, but instead emphasizes the importance of continual interaction between action and beliefs in producing experiences (Morgan, 2014). The epistemological stance of pragmatism, unlike positivism and constructivism, is flexible enough to combine both subjective and objective points of view. It contests the view that scientific research is formalistic epistemologically, and instead asserts the freedom of the researcher to use both quantitative and qualitative method in accordance with the research question or the ongoing process of the research cycle (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; Creswell, 2013).

Pragmatism is selected for the study because it abstains from metaphysical concepts, which have been the subject of long and gruelling debates between other social science

paradigms such as positivism and constructivism (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). As discussed earlier, the relationship between leadership and motivation is almost unexplored in Arab settings, and with the tensions in Bahrain caused by socioeconomic conditions, it can be assumed that the dynamics between these two variables may be problematic. With these complications, using quantitative investigations alone may not meet the expected results as data will be limited and confined only with the ontology of positivism. On the other hand, using pragmatism will free the researcher from these restrictions and will allow subjective interpretations that are necessary to provide a clearer picture on the actions, beliefs, and experiences of the respondents. Pragmatism allows this approach because it refuses to treat the differences in research approach as abstract philosophical systems, but rather as social contexts for inquiries (Morgan, 2014).

In terms of research design, a descriptive design is adopted in the study because the results of the initial literature review imply that many leadership phenomena and characteristics remain undefined. This design should provide useful means to clearly define leadership in the Arab context, as well as its influence on the level of employee motivation. Descriptive research also sits well with the variables being investigated as leadership and motivation have already been explored numerous times and a wealth of theories that explain the two concepts have already been presented. Instead of investing a huge amount of time exploring variables or controlling them for causal relationships, descriptive research make use of existing theories to describe the results in details and address the research question.

Exploratory research is inappropriate for the current study because it is only limited to exploring research questions to a certain depth without providing any conclusive evidences. Since the objective of exploratory research is to guide the final research design, specifically to look for the most appropriate method to collect and analyze data for the study (Shields & Rangarjan, 2013), it focuses more on the discovery of new ideas rather than the descriptive confirmation of existing ideas. As for the current research, the idea of leadership, motivation, culture, and the relationship between these variables have long been explored and various theories have already been presented. This contradicts the current aim of the study, which is to investigate these relationships with the guidance of established theories. Similarly, causal research is not appropriate because of the huge amount of variables that should be controlled first before arriving at a definitive conclusion about the causal relationship between leadership and motivation. A descriptive design is the most appropriate because the relationship between leadership and motivation in Arab settings still lacks a clear description. There is little knowledge regarding the prevailing leadership styles of Arab managers, on whether they have changed or improved over the years, or have remained traditional. Further, the relationship between leadership styles and employee motivation is also not yet established in Bahrain, considering the country has undergone serious political and socioeconomic tensions over the past years.

Given the epistemological stance of pragmatism, both quantitative and qualitative methodologies are selected for the study. In this regard, both objective and subjective points of view, as well as inductive and deductive approaches, are allowed. Qualitative

methodology will involve interviews and observations through open-ended questions and observation goals. These approaches are expected to be both useful in creating a subjective picture of the phenomena, which would bring clarity and deeper understanding on certain dynamics and relationships between variables. On the other hand, a quantitative design in the form of survey questionnaires will also be utilised to provide supporting data on important variables that need further confirmation, such as attitudes and behaviours toward leadership styles and motivation levels. Specifically, the study will use the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), developed by Bass and Avolio to measure leadership (Bass & Bass, 2009), and a modified Work Values Questionnaire (WVQ), developed by Furnham and associates to measure motivation (Furnham et al., 1999; Furnham et al., 2009).

The Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was selected for the study to identify leadership traits because of its widespread use, high internal consistency, and cross-cultural applicability (Bass & Avolio, 1995; Bass & Avolio, 2004). It is based on the Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM), which posits that traditional styles of leadership are ineffective compared to the combination of transformational and transactional styles (Bass & Avolio, 1995). Since the current study focuses on obtaining leadership insights in Bahrain, the MLQ can be effectively used to confirm the respondents' traditional and authoritative traits, or discover new insights regarding the adoption and practice of modern leadership styles among Arab managers. Previous research has found that transformational leadership traits were most likely to result to motivation of subordinates than transactional leadership, but the latter was also found to be correlated with

effective leadership (Waldman et al., 1990; Yammarino & Bass, 1990; Deluga, 1991; Howell & Avolio, 1993).

Aside from the appropriateness of its function, the MLQ was also found to have high internal consistency across respondents from different cultures. For instance, the study of Pahi et al. (2015) on Pakistani employees showed that each retained item on the MLQ sufficiently met the criterion for individual item reliability. Further, the instrument's internal consistency ranged from .90 to .96, which ascertains its reliability (Pahi et al., 2015). Similarly, Bushra et al. (2011) also successfully used the questionnaire among Pakistani employees and confirmed its high internal consistency. MLQ was also successfully used among Kuwaiti (Arami, 2016), Egyptian (Metwally et al., 2014), and Libyan (Shurbagi & Bin Zahari, 2012), indicating the cross-cultural functionality and efficiency of the instrument.

The revised WVQ was also selected for the study because of its capability to identify intrinsic and extrinsic work values (Furnham et al., 1999; Furnham et al., 2009). The WVQ, which was derived from the concepts of work values (Super, 1970, Wollack et al., 1971; Elizur, 1984) and hygiene-motivators (Herzberg et al., 1959), can be used to determine the factors that motivate employees and categorize their importance to hygiene and motivators. As explained in Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory, hygiene refers to extrinsic factors that are grounded within the context of the job (e.g. physical working conditions, salaries, compensations, etc.), whereas motivators refer to intrinsic factors such as achievements and recognitions (Herzberg et al., 1959). These intrinsic and

extrinsic factors can be reflected on different personal values that can be found from each individual (Elizur, 1984), or from standards of motives that prompt action and thoughts (Feather, 1982).

Instruments that aim to measure work values have been used over years and have been found to be viable in cross-cultural settings (Super, 1970; Wollack et al., 1971; Gay et al., 1971; Elizur, 1984). For instance, Elizur's (1984) WVQ was replicated across different studies and have been successfully used in studies that include cross-cultural respondents (Elizur, 1987; Borg, 1986; Selmer, 2000). This particular WVQ also showed high consistency across all gender (Elizur, 1984). A study conducted by Cennamo (2005) also revealed through factor analysis that the instrument was fit as the ratio of sample size to parameters were adequate, and that all variables were linearly related. Similarly, the modified WVQ used by Furnham and associates was also successfully used in cross-cultural settings, and was found to have high internal consistencies (Furnham et al., 1999; Furnham et al., 2005; Furnham et al., 2009). Overall, literature shows that WVQ can be efficiently used in gathering insights concerning the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of employees.

1.8. OUTLINE OF THE THESIS

The present research attempts to address the research aims and objectives through a careful analysis of data produced from a mixed method approach. In Chapters 2, 3, and 4, several literatures are explored and reviewed to evaluate the important variables of the study. This includes traditional and modern leadership concepts, motivation, and

theories on cultural orientation. It also includes several studies that attempted to explore the interrelation between these variables.

In Chapter 5, the theoretical framework in the context of Arab setting is discussed. This includes discussions on Arab leadership, work values, motivation, and culture. Further, it also presents the quantitative hypotheses of the study and qualitative inductive aims in relation to the theoretical framework.

In Chapter 6, the methodology of the research is presented. It presents the study's paradigm of inquiry, research design, and methodologies. It also presents the study's data collection and analysis on both quantitative and qualitative phases.

In Chapter 7, the results of the study are presented and interpreted. It includes separate sections on quantitative and qualitative results, which also includes tables to highlight the findings. It also includes the discussion of the results, wherein which the findings are interpreted and triangulated. Finally, the conclusions and recommendations are presented in Chapter 8.

1.9. CHAPTER SUMMARY

The political and socioeconomic condition of Bahrain has basically created a situation wherein migrant low wage employees are under-prioritized in labour law, and that the government pressures companies to hire Bahraini managers over the more skilled and experienced foreign expatriates. This mainly promotes "Bahrainisation", but companies

complying are at risk of hiring managers that have limited skills, and employees that are demotivated by the imbalances in the labour law. Further, research shows that the authoritative and self-preserving nature of Arab culture may lead to a laissez-faire leadership style, which is not ideal in promoting either extrinsic or intrinsic motivation among employees. However, insights from literature offer only a partial view of leadership and motivation in the Arab region as it still underrepresented in research as compared to Western respondents. Since many professional expatriates have entered the region over the years, it is possible that a number of local managers have adopted Western management values and may have these values over to the succeeding generation. The aim of the study is confirm these assumptions in Bahrain, by determining the leadership styles of managers, the motivation values of employees, and the effect of culture on the relationship between leadership style and motivation. Further, the current research also aims to determine the historical background of generally accepted leadership styles, particularly the influence of politics, culture, bureaucracy or organisation policies, and culture. Results will be compared to determine the historical significance of leadership in Bahrain, and how this historical significance helped formed the generally accepted notion of leadership in the country today. The research will be conducted using a pragmatic mixed research design comprising quantitative and qualitative research methods. Results will be used to develop a new conceptual framework that would help promote transactional and transformational leadership among Arab managers.

CHAPTER 2 –THE IMPORTANCE OF MOTIVATION

2.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter introduces the research problem, objectives, purpose, significance, and important theories guiding this study's thesis. The current and two succeeding chapters present a review of the related literatures essential to the development of this study's thesis. To provide sufficient basis for understanding the study's underlying themes, literatures about leadership and employee motivation are reviewed. Reviewed literatures in employee motivation include the history of motivation theories, the different theories of motivation, and the studies on the relationship between employee motivation and leadership. Meanwhile, reviewed literatures in leadership include the history of leadership theories in relation to business management, and the various studies that explored the effects of leadership on management, especially on employee motivation.

The literature review is divided into three chapters. Dedicated to the subject of motivation, Chapter 2 begins by defining this vital research variable and providing insights on the evolution of motivation theories. Ancient definitions of motivation, pragmatism and instinct theory, psychoanalytic explanations, behaviourism, humanism, cognition, and other content theories of motivation are presented. The discussion then shifts to the importance of intrinsic motivation, referencing important theories such as the two-factor theory and the self-determination theory. Further, several studies exploring the effects of intrinsic motivation to employees are also discussed.

2.2. DEFINITION AND EVOLUTION OF MOTIVATION THEORIES

The concept of motivation has garnered many definitions over the years. Some of the first definitions can be traced to the ancient world. Particularly, as described in Plato's dialogue, Socrates stated that motivation is a result of humans doing something in order to pursue what is good (Plato et al., 1992; Ahbel-Rappe & Kamtekar, 2009). In addition, Plato described human motivation as contemplation between human's reason and passion (Plato et al., 1992; Goodin & Tilly, 2008). Another philosophical explanation is that a human being's motivational set consists of non-rational desire and belief going together (Georgios, 2008). Aside from the Greeks, the ancient Chinese also perceived human motivation when Confucius stated that motivation is driven by a person's perfect virtue (Ang & Low, 2012). The ancient Chinese believed in the person's clear understanding of virtues so as to foster a calm and tranquil mind, which, in turn, results in a strong will to achieve a certain goal (Ang & Low, 2012). Further, the ancient Chinese also perceived that motivation is determined by the person's moral obligations (Makeham, 2001). These early views on motivation show that since the ancient times, people were already questioning what drive them to do certain things, or why they commit into goals that are risky and have no clear-cut rewards. However, a simple comparison between Western and Asian view on motivation reveal several differences on how two different worlds view the concept. The Chinese view on motivation is tied with virtue, while Western view on motivation is tied with human rationality and non-rationality. This shows that even the ancient perceptions toward human motivation were divided by culture. The addition of the traditional Islamic perspective toward motivation further expands this division. Accordingly, the traditional Islamic view toward human

motivation is rooted in the belief that spiritual and materialistic beliefs and desires are interrelated with each other (Ali, 2009). In general, Islamic motivation is determined by controlling one's stimuli to avoid desires that are forbidden, and fulfilling those that are accepted (Alawneh, 1998). Generally, these philosophical views on motivation show the complexity of human behaviour, and the influences of external factors such as virtues, religion, and society into one's way of thinking.

2.2.1. William James' Intrinsic Motivation

The modern world introduced some new and more scientific ways in explaining human motivation. One of the earliest notions on motivation in the modern world was William James' pragmatic thinking toward motivation (James, 1907). As a pragmatist, James believed that objective and subjective evidences are both necessary and that a pluralistic approach to knowledge must be incorporated in order to have even a bit of understanding about the truth (White, 2010). Pragmatism can be perceived as philosophical psychology because it attempts to explore different subjects related to the human mind through a combination of philosophy's subjectivity and psychology's objectivity (Heinamaa & Reuter, 2008). It views the human thought as the internalisation of action (Hsin, 2014), and thus, every human thought developed is first experienced through action and perception (Fodor, 2008). The contribution of this way of thinking into the perception of human motivation is the role of instincts in motivating humans to act. Accordingly, instincts are motives that originated from human's survival and procreation instincts, and thus embedded into human's genetic passages (Pastorino & Doyle-Portillo, 2011). James basically argued, as a pragmatist, that instincts are learned by humans through experience and passed down by generations, thus becoming

embedded into one's genes (Nevid, 2008). As such, every impulse is instinct, which basically changes through experience (Petri & Govern, 2009). James borrowed the idea of instincts from Darwin's (1871) commentary on the similarities of instincts between man and animals, and expanded them to a list, which include pugnacity, hunting, sympathy, appropriation, emulation, vocalization, imitation, sociability, modesty, shyness, jealousy, secretiveness, curiosity, constructiveness, play, cleanliness, fear, and acquisitiveness (Arena et al., 2009). James' conceptions on human instincts were continued by William McDougall in the 1920s, providing a more detailed definition. McDougall defined instinct as an innate psycho-physical disposition that enables an individual to perceive an object on an impulse, which also involves emotional excitement (Kenrick & Shiota, 2008). McDougall linked instinct to seven types of emotions, which include pride, humiliation, curiosity, anger, fear, parental instincts, and disgust (Kenrick & Cohen, 2012). In a pragmatic view, these instincts are learned over the years through experience, which are then externalized into thoughts, and which are acted out as impulses. Thus, man's motivation to do certain things can be generally explained through these lists of instincts presented by James and McDougall.

The instinct theory of motivation gained popularity during the late 1800s and the early 1900s (Hampton, 2010; Mangal, 2013), but was later sidestepped because of several criticisms. First, it was criticized for failing to clearly separate the differences between learned behaviour patterns and instinctive behaviour, as well as the differences between learned and acquired behaviour (Mangal, 2013). Basically, it was perceived as intolerant on environmental inputs, and therefore was perceived to be incompatible with

learning (Kenrick & Cohen, 2012). Second, instinct theory was criticized for not being able to provide the point to which instinct can be identified in its purest and unaltered form, since it was the consensus that environmental factors can alter instincts (Sharma & Sharma, 2006). Third, it was criticized for nominal fallacy (Petri & Govern, 2009), which is the tendency to use a phenomenon to describe itself (Weathington et al., 2010). For instance, it can be used to conveniently conclude that an individual's sexual deviation is a result of his sexual instincts, and so forth (Nevid, 2008; Petri & Govern, 2009).

Aside from the theory of instinct, another early contribution of William James to motivation theory was his notion of the 'self', which encompasses a man's total possession, including material and intrinsic things (James, 1890). He emphasized the connection between the individual and the 'self', and how the latter promotes connectedness and a sense of continuity to the former (Swann & Bosson, 2010). James' (1890) concept of the self has several constituents, which include the material self, the social self, the spiritual self, and pure ego. The material self includes material things that the individual can consider his or her own. This may include the individual's body, family members, wealth, and other physical possessions. That is why people feel devastated when they lose a part of their material wealth, or when a close part of their family dies. On the other hand, the social self refers to one's perception of his or her social status, which roughly centres on the recognition that the individual obtains from his or her circle (James, 1890). This includes a myriad of roles, but focuses more on protecting one's dignity and honour, or any other means to protect one's social image.

In contrast, the spiritual self of the individual is more on the intrinsic side as it lies beyond one's consciousness or feelings. The spiritual self is one's inner subjective being, which may include thought patterns, beliefs, or the entire stream of personal consciousness (James, 1890). This is basically similar to Maslow's (1943) self-actualization theory, which is the individual's desire to grow based on his inner subjective perceptions. This and other theories that include intrinsic factors are further discussed in the later part of the literature review.

The combination of the material, social, and spiritual self arouses certain feelings and emotions, which James' coined as 'self-feeling'. This sums up the individual's overall perception of self, specifically on issues of self-satisfaction and self-worth. James posits that the individual constantly uses his or her 'self' as a point of references when faced with certain types of emotions (James, 1890; Oyserman et al., 2012; Brown, 2014). For instance, one's feelings of pride and vanity originate from one's wealth and strong social status, while one's feelings of worthlessness and despair originate from lack of material possessions or lack of social circle. Thus, positive self-feelings are highly dependent on one's self-esteem (Baker, 2013), which is the product of one's success and pretensions (Farnham et al., 1999; Brown, 2014). On the other hand, negative self-feelings are associated with emotions such as shame and guilt (Oyserman et al., 2012; Brown, 2014). Self-feelings are tied with the individual's material self, social self, and spiritual self, in a sense that these selves will evoke strong emotions if ever they are adorned or attacked (Beaglehole, 1932). This includes not only the individual's body, but the sum total of material, social and spiritual things that the individual owns and is associated

with. Further, in the search for more positive self-feelings, individuals engage in material, social, and spiritual self-seeking as a means of self-preservation since negative self-feelings would lead to negative emotions that could be self-destructive in nature (James, 1890). For instance, humans instinctively seek more friends in order to preserve their social survival, and also seek for more moral merits to ensure salvation in the afterlife.

Overall, these elements presented by James suggest that human motivation is rooted from one's self and the desire of the individual to improve his or her self-worth and self-esteem (James, 1890). Thus, all human motivation, be it extrinsic or intrinsic, centres around the 'self', particularly on the need to self-seek and self-preserve. In addition to the material, social, and spiritual selves that James called as the 'phenomenal self', motivation may also lie within the concepts of pure ego, or one's concepts of personal identity (Brown, 2014). This means that only the individual is familiar with one's ego, including its desires and motivations, and the changes that took place within it over the years. Therefore, motivation can either be shallow and materialistic, or deep and personal, depending on the individual's ego and phenomenal self (Oyserman et al., 2012). However, similar to his theory of instincts, James' concept of the 'self' has failed to arouse academic and scientific interest during its time due to its highly subjective nature, and opposition to the principles of positivism (Swann Jr. & Bosson, 2010). Nonetheless, Neo-Jamesian theories of 'self' have emerged in the last few decades, albeit 'self' is still not the mainstream concept when it comes to decoding and explaining human motivation (Swann Jr. & Bosson, 2010). Since 'self' is a personal and abstract

concept, especially the issue of the pure ego, the phenomenon is considered too complex to unravel scientifically, and may be limited only to subjective interpretations.

2.2.2. Psychoanalytic Explanation of Human Motivation

Similar to James and McDougall, Sigmund Freud's (1930) theory on human motivation also used instinct to explain motivation, particularly attributing one's motivation to one's sexual drive and aggression (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Feist & Feist, 2009).

Specifically, Freud explained that humans emit a psychic energy, wherein all forms of motivation are drawn (Larsen & Buss, 2012). Freud called this the human libido, which is basically the combination of sexual instincts and self-preservation (Larsen & Buss, 2012). According to Freud, motivation is an unconscious phenomenon wherein many factors come into play. This may include man's primordial nature to the most refined dimensions of thoughts such as culture, individualisation, and subjectivity in society (Durmaz & Diyarbakırlıoğlu, 2011). Kotler et al. (1999) explained that Freud's notion of motivation is so subtle and buried deep within the human mind that people will not actually understand why they do certain things unless they look deep inside their subconscious thoughts. For instance, a man buying a guitar may justify that he acted out of pursuing a hobby. But looking deep inside, the man may just want to learn and impress people, or to feel a certain kind of sensation associated with the object (Durmaz & Diyarbakırlıoğlu, 2011). Nonetheless, Freud emphasized that all of these subconscious motivational factors can be rooted in sexual drive, which is basically present from the moment an individual is born and remain until the final stage of life (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Feist & Feist, 2009).

Sexual drives, along with aggression, are considered as irrational drives that reside within the individual's unconscious minds (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Feist & Feist, 2009). Basically, this perception possesses an obvious resemblance with the perceptions of Plato, who believes that non-rational drives within the unconscious depths of the minds conflict with the individual's conscious beliefs (Plato et al., 1992; Goodin & Tilly, 2008; Georgios, 2008). As Freud stressed, bringing these drives to the surface of the conscious mind can result to psychological resistance, which can result to psychological problem. Again, this coincides with Plato's notion that human reason may contradict passion (Goodin & Tilly, 2008), which is why individuals seek a middle-ground in order for these two contradictions to meet halfway. Nonetheless, Freud's concept of psychoanalysis was unfortunately limited only to sex drives and aggression, wherein which other early followers of psychoanalysis disagreed. One of these was Alfred Adler (1994), who introduced the more optimistic theory of individual psychology, which attributed human motivation to social influences and desires for power and success (Maslow, 1943; Feist & Feist, 2009). Adler rejected Freud's beliefs that humans are prisoners of their libidos, and instead promoted the autonomy of the human mind from such concepts through goal directedness and ego-psychology (Adler, 1994). Adler stressed that human motivation emanate from one's perseverance to become superior or successful. This desire is shaped by the individual's subjective perceptions of reality, which then shape his or her personality. The developed personality is basically unique to each person, strongly influenced by one's organ dialect and degree of realization of unconscious realities (Adler, 1956, 1964). Next, Adler stressed the importance of social interest, as the individual strives to fit his personality with his environment. Social

interest is basically Adler's barometer to psychological health, as those who strive for social interest perceive their final goals more clearly than those who strive for personal gain (Barlow et al., 2009; Feist & Feist, 2009; Frazer, 2011). Feelings of personal gain are developed from exaggerated feelings of inferiority, which a person may acquire from the inability to cope with one's physical deficiencies and environmental errors (Barlow et al., 2009; Feist & Feist, 2009; Frazer, 2011).

Other notable theorists who presented different perspectives on Freud's human motivation include Carl Jung and Clark Hull. Jung presented human motivation as a by-product of collective unconscious, which consists of instincts and archetypes rooted from the ancestral past of humanity (Walters, 2007). Thus, humans can be motivated either through the rational thoughts of the conscious mind, or the irrational instincts and archetypes that reside within the collective unconscious (McClelland, 1987). On the other hand, Hull believed that motivation arises from the individual's internal biological needs, which drive him or her to perform certain actions (Hull, 1943; Shaw et al., 2013). Drive theory also emphasizes the importance of a person's anxiety in performing a response to a particular drive (Spence & Spence, 1966). Overall, the drive theory was regarded as a necessary condition for reinforcement and energized behaviour (Hergenhahn & Henley, 2013).

The psychoanalytic approach to motivation basically offered a more systematic way of understanding human motivation, and explaining the effects of many underlying conscious and unconscious factors toward it. However, like previous instinct theories,

these explanations have also received the brunt of various criticisms. One of the most straightforward criticisms is the lack of quantitative evidences to support these theories, as Freud and others had mostly pushed their theories through persuasion and subjective explanations (Skinner, 1954). Later criticisms on Freud's concepts were similar, as critics pointed its lack of scientific value (Ahmed, 2012), and apparent imaginative trait (Rahim, 2002). Several studies, such as those conducted by Emde (1981) and Stern (1985), revealed contradictions on Freud's beliefs that infants to not have interest in the outside world, and instead focus on themselves. Freud was also known to have several failed experiments and therapies using his psychoanalytic approaches (Glymour, 1993). He was also obsessed with the roles of sexual desires and aggression in human motivation, as well as the role of unconscious mind in shaping these motivations. Adler was one of the firsts to criticize this and thus resulting to his departure from Freud's circle (Feist & Feist, 2009; Gehart, 2015). However, Adler's theory of individual psychology also received the same 'lack of scientific proof criticism' as Freud, being dubbed as more prescriptive than descriptive, and hardly offer any genuine understanding on the theory and the process of the therapies he performed (Mosak & Maniacci, 2013). Further, since Adler's theory is hypothetical in nature, its lack of measurable variables makes it difficult to investigate scientifically, which is a requirement in testing any hypothesis (Santrock, 2006). Similar criticisms were received by Jung on his analytical theory of psychology. Aside from its similar unscientific approach to psychology and lack of empirical support, it was also criticized for its lack of parsimony, low precision and vagueness of concepts, and logical inconsistencies (Walters, 2007). In general, although these psychoanalytic theories offered new and

interesting ways to comprehend human motivation, they failed to appeal into the academic and scientific community because of their vagueness and lack of descriptive means to measure variables.

2.2.3. Behaviourism and Motivation

As stated earlier, the drive theory is rooted from the concepts that humans are driven by their biological needs (Hergenhahn & Henley, 2013). To be more specific, Clark Hull posits that behaviour is a function of drive multiplied by habit (Graham & Weiner, 1996). Hull's (1943) notion on the relationship between drive and habit is mathematical as the former can be determined by the number of hours the individual is deprived of a commodity necessary for survival, whereas the latter can be determined by the number of rewards given to a particular response (Graham & Weiner, 1996). For instance, lack of water intake for a significant number of hours would form the habit of rushing to nearest location wherein water can be obtained and consumed (Weiten, 2012). On the other hand, sleep deprivation may lead to dizziness and attempts to sleep in order to reduce the drive to sleep. Hull coined these basic drives as the primary drives of individual, which are necessary to reduce in order to survive (Wang, 2008). On the other hand, Hull (1943) also emphasized the need for the individual to reduce secondary drives, which basically refer to desires that are beyond his or her biological needs. Apparently, humans are also driven by ambitions and achievements for various reasons, which may include increasing self-esteem or gaining recognition (Hull, 1943).

Overall, the drive-reduction theory provided early ideas on how primary drives motivate behaviour. However, its overtly scientific approach to motivation was also its downfall as

psychologists started to notice its sterility and little value when explaining motivation outside of laboratory experiments. Further, it was also criticized for the overabundance of parameters to be measured (Roeckelein, 1998), as well as special problems arising in each derivation (Bower & Hilgard, 1981). In addition, another problem identified was its inability to explain drive-enhancing behaviours that go against the concepts of drive reductions. For instance, several people constantly engage in dangerous activities in order to sustain or increase certain drives such as thrills, excitement, and suspense.

Because of these criticisms, the drive theory then slowly fell out of favour among psychologists. Interestingly, as Hull's theory was starting to lose popularity, B.F. Skinner's behaviour theory was ascending (Hergenhahn & Henley, 2013). Skinner introduced the reinforcement theory, which basically refers to the stimuli of a person triggered to produce a desired behaviour (Skinner, 1963; Adams, 2000; Wei & Yazdanifard, 2014). Skinner downplayed the importance of needs and choice to fulfil selected behaviours, and instead stressed the essential of evaluating the relationship between behaviour and consequences, and then the identification of variables that reinforce positive and negative behaviours (Lussier & Achua, 2015). For instance, variables that have rewarding and pleasing consequences can be used as positive reinforcement tools, whereas unpleasant consequences can be used as negative reinforcement tools (Daft, 2014).

Reinforcement theory and behaviourism in general, gained significant attention in the 1950s but was cut short by the advent of the cognitive revolution as notable proponents

of cognitive psychology rejected the behaviourist view (Smith, 2000; Seattler, 2004; Harris, 2010). Thus, one of the major criticisms thrown at behaviourists was basically its lack of explanation on human cognition, which basically includes the processing of information, the formation of concepts, problem solving, and thinking (Snelbecker, 1983; Ertmer & Newby, 2013). It was also criticized for ignoring the genetic origin of behaviour, as well as the influence of language on behaviour (Ikiugu & Ciaravino, 2007). Further, another criticism, which was pointed out by John Dewey, was that behaviourism ignored the role of society and institutions in shaping behaviours (Cassin et al., 2014). Another criticism is that since it is a simple stimulus-response model, it is overly mechanistic and dehumanizing (LePage & Courey, 2013). Finally, it underemphasized the role of the environment in shaping human behaviour (Auletta, 2011). For instance, in Pavlov's classical conditioning (Coon & Mitterer, 2012), the environment may affect an individual's immediate stimulus response, but does not explain its role in shaping the individual's behaviour through its synergy with the individual's cognitive abilities. It viewed humans as mechanical entities that are incapable to think and change their actions and responses.

2.2.4. Humanistic View on Motivation

Humanistic psychology, school of thought that emerged in the 1940s, is a branch of psychology that departed from the dominant mainstream psychological schools during that time, rejecting Freud's psychoanalysis and its focus on unconscious thoughts, as well as the behaviourists' emphasis on conditioning (Coon & Mitterer, 2008; Schneider et al., 2014). Rooted from phenomenology, existentialism, Gestalt psychology, and behaviourism, humanistic psychology stressed the need to "be more humanistic, more

concerned with the problems of humanity, and less with the problems of the guild” (Maslow, 1956, p.12). Humanistic psychology emphasized that humans have the capability to aspire for themselves and to realize their own full potentials (Medlock, 2012). They stressed that individuals have conscious awareness, and are thus aware of their personal responsibilities, choices, and needs (Lahey, 2009). It views humans as naturally good and positive, and may reach their full potential throughout their lifetime (Larsen & Buss, 2012).

The two notable proponents of humanistic psychology are Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers. Both acknowledge the importance of self-actualization, which is rooted on Hegel’s ethical theory (Wood, 1990). Hegel introduced the notion that humans have identities that are meant to be actualized and expressed in actions, driven by their value for freedom and rationalized selfhood (Hegel, 1967; Wood, 1990). Rogers’ (1963) view on self-actualization is that all human motivations can be traced from the person’s actualization tendency, which is generally moving toward the direction of positive and constructive pathways. This actualization tendency is unique to each individual, holistic, ubiquitous and constant, and vulnerable to environmental circumstances (Rogers, 1959; Rogers & Sanford, 1984). Maslow (1954) has similar views, but contended that a person must fulfil his or her basic needs first before realizing his or her full potential. Maslow then introduced the hierarchy of needs, which laid the foundation for the content motivation. It basically introduced a hierarchy of individual needs from the most important to the least important (Merrick & Maher, 2009; Plotnik & Kouyoumdjian, 2010). On the top of the hierarchy are physiological human needs that include working,

eating, playing, and sleeping (Kaur, 2013). It includes any factors that are necessary to make humans feel physiologically satisfied. Next to physiological factors is the security and safety, which refers to one's needs to be protected from any threat or danger (Jerome, 2013). Belongingness comes next, which refers to the need or desire to be loved, to have friends, or to share affection with another person (Pulasinghage, 2010). Next is the need to have self-esteem, which includes internal esteem factors such as self-respect, autonomy and achievement (Thielke et al., 2012). The final need in the bottom of hierarchy is self-actualization, which refers to achieving one's potential, and self-fulfilment (Merrick & Maher, 2009; Plotnik & Kouyoumdjian, 2010).

Self-actualization in Maslow's book is fundamentally different from the other basic needs as it does not emerge in order to reduce deficiencies (Heylingen, 1992). Rather, self-actualization refers to the need or desire of the individual to grow, which can be achieved through the enhancement of the other basic needs. This view is Hegelian as it contends the nature of humans to go against their biological urges in order to create a higher self (Hergenhahn & Henley, 2013). The self is not a fixed state, but rather a continuous process of unlocking one's potentials (Heylingen, 1992). Maslow (1943) posits that all the other basic needs are extrinsic in nature in a sense that they can be easily accomplished by reducing deficiencies in life. In contrast, self-actualization is the realization that there is more to life than just reducing deficiencies. Accordingly, self-actualizing people have realistic perceptions of things, accepting of their nature and the natural world, spontaneous, simple, have a sense of fulfilling various missions, detached from the crowd, autonomous, and constantly appreciating new things from

people and things (Maslow, 1943). Basically, self-actualizing individuals continuously seek for personal fulfilment beyond the other four basic needs (Coon & Mitterer, 2015). This concept of self-actualization is parallel to the concepts of intrinsic motivation that were emphasized in later theories, such as the Two-Factor theory and the Self-Determination Theory (Clegg et al., 2011).

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is considered as one of the most referenced and most discussed content motivation theory in management literature (Wahba & Bridwell, 1973; Berl et al., 1984; Yalch & Brunel, 1996). It is also worth noting that most of the later motivation theories used Maslow's needs theory as a starting point to develop their own theories (McGregor, 1960; McClelland, 1965; Alderfer, 1969; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Furnham et al., 2009). Further, recent studies on employee motivation still cite Maslow's needs theory to begin their discussion on motivation theories (Khan, 2012; Kim & Scullion, 2013; Korzynsky, 2013; Fomenky, 2015). Nonetheless, despite its status in motivation research, it is often criticized for its lack of empirical support, as Maslow's presentation was limited only to theory and Western literatures (Berl et al., 1984; Yalch & Brunel, 1996). Some of the tests conducted by various researchers also found lack of support for Maslow's hypotheses (Barling, 1977; Berl et al., 1984; Lester, 2013). Further, the self-actualization theory presented by both Maslow and Rogers were attacked for their disregard on the impact of society on human development (Maddi, 1973). It was criticized for being too self-centred and selfish in a sense that individuals can meet their full potentials just by self-realization, unscathed by the effects of the society and the environment, and other after-effects of multiculturalism (Williamson,

1965; Maddi, 1973; Schneider et al., 2014). Nevertheless, the contributions of self-actualization theory to the understanding of human motivation cannot be denied.

Maslow's needs theory influenced various motivation theories such as Herzberg's two-factor theory, McClelland's socially acquired needs theory, and Alderfer's ERG theory (Furnham et al., 2009; Koontz & Wehrich, 2010; Fiore, 2013). These motivation theories have individually made their mark in academic and business research.

2.2.5. Other Content Theories of Motivation

As stated earlier, Maslow's needs theory has led to the development of other theories of motivation that describes its nature or content (Furnham et al., 2009; Koontz & Wehrich, 2010; Fiore, 2013). Some examples of these theories include the X and Y Theory (McGregor, 1960), Two-Factor Theory (Herzberg et al., 1959), Achievement Theory (McClelland, 1961), and ERG Theory (Alderfer, 1969). These content theories of motivation mostly emerged when psychoanalysis was already losing its appeal, and the dominant forces in psychology were Rogers and Maslow's humanism, and Skinner's behaviourism (Smith, 2000; Seattler, 2004; Coon & Mitterer, 2008; Harris, 2010; Schneider et al., 2014).

McClelland's (1961) achievement theory and Alderfer's (1969) ERG theory are two theories that were admittedly based on Maslow's needs theory. As a means to expand Maslow's needs theory, McClelland presented three basic needs, which are: (1) need for achievement; (2) need for affiliation, and; (3) the need for power (Koontz & Wehrich, 2010). This contends that people have needs to achieve something, need to belong into certain groups, and need for power, recognition or authority (Borkowski, 2009). On the

other hand, Alderfer's ERG theory was also an extension of Maslow's needs theory, compressing it to just three categories, namely: (1) existence needs; (2) relatedness needs, and; (3) growing needs (Saks & Hacoun, 2010). These categories basically mean that humans have basic material needs such as safety and physiological needs, but also have desires for relationships, and growth, which are similar to Maslow's social needs and self-actualization needs respectively (Fiore, 2013).

The Achievement Theory and ERG Theory both received a share of praises and criticisms. McClelland's achievement theory was tested in several studies and was found to support that notion that individuals possess achievement, power, and affiliation needs (Singh, 1968; Zinkhan, 1999; Nandi, 2008; Moore et al., 2010). Singh (1968) that progressive behaviours among workers were associated with achievement-oriented attitudes. Further, Zinkhan (1999) found that achievement factors are important in determining consumers' decision to purchase products. Finally, Nandi (2008) also confirmed the existence of achievement needs among front-line managers. However, studies often fail to find any support on McClelland's hypothesis that high achievement orientation can result to economic growth (Singh, 1968; Freeman, 1976). Freeman (1976) stated that the relationship between achievement and economic growth based on McClelland's model is not conclusive because it does not take into account other variables that contribute to economic growth. Further, the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) used to measure achievement motivation is also being criticized for being more on the subjective side when interpreting responses (Aswathappa, 2005). On the other hand, Alderfer developed the ERG was considered as the more valid version of

Maslow's needs theory (Luthans, 1998) because it addressed the needs theory's empirical limitations by suggesting that needs are more of a continuum than hierarchy (Gupta, 2009) and aligning them to empirical research (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2002). Unfortunately, it has failed to generate more empirical research as compared to other motivation theories (Ivancevich and Matteson, 1999). This is regardless of the ERG theory's compatibility with any working environment (Arnolds & Boshoff, 2002). Nonetheless, most contemporary research on work motivation supports the ERG more than Maslow's needs theory (Jain, 2005).

Taking into consideration the mechanistic style of scientific management during the industrial period (Taylor, 1911), and Maslow's needs theory during the humanism period of psychology (Maslow, 1957), McGregor suggested that there are two ways to motivate people, and one of them may be more effective than the other (Mohamed & Nor, 2013). He introduced Theory X, which is based on traditional management way of motivating employees, and Theory Y, which is based on the humanistic side of psychology (Mohamed & Nor, 2013). Theory X basically posits that humans are naturally evil, greedy, lazy, and self-centred. Because of this, they should strictly monitored and managed as lax in management can lead to misdeeds and mischief (Madueke, 2010; Porter et al, 2012). On the other hand, Theory Y refers to the notion that people may possess negative traits, but they are naturally good and are capable of wanting to do well and achieve more for them, as well as contribute more to their respective companies (Madueke, 2010). However, in order for them to grow and realize their

worth, they must be directed, supported, coached, and motivated (Rothwell et al., 2009).

The main contribution of McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y is that it was one of the firsts to question the traditional thinking of management toward employee motivation (Sapru, 2013). It contributed to the humanistic side of motivation, emphasizing the need of employees to realize their goals (Andrews, 1988). It basically pushed Maslow's self-actualization theory into the areas of business management by suggesting its applicability to employees. However, it has also been subjected to several criticisms. First, critics argued that both X and Y are oversimplified and offers no gray area between the two concepts (Sharma & Chandra, 2004; Ghuman, 2010). Second, critics pointed out that Theory Y is condescending and manipulative (Mehta, 2009). Finally, it was criticized for tying up motivation with the job itself, when later studies found that motivation can be outside of the job and that managers still need to motivate their employees (Sharma & Chandra, 2004).

Another content motivation theory that gained popularity in the 1950s is Herzberg's two-factor theory (Herzberg et al., 1959). Herzberg offered an alternative explanation on McGregor's Theory Y via his distinctions between hygiene and motivators. Hygienes are basically those that do not offer any growth to employees, such as relations with co-workers, working conditions, management and supervision, salary, and company policies (Herzberg et al., 1959; House & Wigdor, 1967). Hygienemotivates employees but cannot be used as leverages to move up in the organisational ladder (Robbins,

2009). On the other hand, motivators are motivational factors that promote growth to the employees (Dartey-Baah & Amoako, 2011). It includes the need of a person to be recognized based on his or her own achievements, the need to feel important by taking responsibilities, and the need to feel fulfilled through the achievement of goals (Furnham et al., 2009).

Because Herzberg was the first to emphasize the importance of intrinsic motivation in work, his theory is still considered valid in the present day (Bassett-Jones & Lloyd, 2005). He was called the father of job design theory (Slipp, 1982), or the father of job enrichment, because of his contributions to strategies that boost employee performance through his two-factor theory (Miner, 2015). However, similar to Maslow and McGregor's theories, critics also found several faults on the two-factor theory. The first criticism is basically on the operational nature of the two-factor theory in research. For instance, the self-report of Herzberg's respondents can be subjected to research bias. Also, many demographics were underrepresented in the samples Herzberg used, which questions the generalisability of the two-factor model (Tulsian & Pandey, 2002). Another criticism of Herzberg's theory is basically the lack of middle ground on the distinction between extrinsic and intrinsic motivators. For example, some critics contend that some aspects of the work environment can also serve as motivators as they lead to intrinsic motivations related to the job (De Leon, 2005). Other criticisms of the two-factor include inconsistencies in the categorization of job factors, disregard on the difference between individual needs and values, and lack of empirical support on several studies (Mottaz, 1985; Malik & Naeem, 2013). One study conducted by Evans and Olumide-Aluko

(2010) also found that the theory was not applicable in the Nigerian context. The main problem found by Evans and Olumide-Aluko (2010) was that Herzberg's theory may not be applicable in a society that has high job insecurities as employees will most likely reverse the effects of the motivator-hygiene variables. Interestingly, Herzberg's study had many sample biases, which include the surveying of only highly-paid employees (Slipp, 1982).

2.2.6. The Cognitive Revolution

In the early 1960s, research interest in psychology has generally shifted away from mechanistic nature of psychoanalysis and behaviourism toward cognition (Graham & Wiener, 1996). Behaviourism was basically losing its place as more and more theorists found the stimulus-response notion as fairly limiting (Smith, 2000). Study on cognition was on the rise, as psychologists started to stress the importance of information processing, or the mental processes behind people's interactions and activities (Zunshine, 2010). Some of the proponents of cognition that pushed cognitive psychology to its place include Noam Chomsky, Norbert Wiener, Marvin Minsky, John McCartney, Alan Newell, and Herb Simon. These experts presented and defended different areas in cognition, which include linguistics, cybernetics, artificial intelligence, and cognition processes respectively (Miller, 2003). Generally, cognitive psychologists argued that mental processes affect behaviour, and that people actually create a cognitive map in order to learn and apply what they learned to their behaviour (Schreuder, 2014).

This shift in psychological research has affected many disciplines and concepts, including the development of motivation theories. New motivation theories such as the Expectancy Theory (Vroom, 1964), Cognitive Evaluation Theory (Deci & Ryan, 1980), Self-Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2000), Goal Theory (Locke, 1968), and Equity Theory (Adams, 1963) were introduced. These theories stressed the roles of cognition on the development of the individual's motivation. For instance, Expectancy Theory posits that motivation develops once the individual perceives that the outcome of a particular goal will be worth the effort and time, and if they have the confidence to give the extra effort to reach that particular goal (Palestini, 2011; Zoogah & Beugre, 2012). On the other hand, Cognitive Evaluation Theory and Self-Determination Theory both expanded Herzberg's concept of intrinsic motivation by including autonomy and control as intervening variables (Fernet et al., 2012). Finally, Goal Theory focuses on the development of motivation at the goal-setting stage (Sears et al., 2010), while Equity Theory focuses on the comparison of distribution of outcomes between two or more people (Griffin & Moorhead, 2009). These process theories of motivation basically emerged as a means to explain the phenomena wherein rewards do not necessarily lead to motivation as they trigger various cognitions on the subject (Graham & Weiner, 1996). In contrast, material rewards can backfire as the employee may feel that he or she is being coerced. Another cognitive realization on the development of motivation is that choices and perseverance play important part in the development process and journey toward a particular behaviour that would translate to actions (Graham & Weiner, 1996). In general, authors of process theories realized that men are not passive human

beings that only react to impulses, but also thinking beings that explore every cognitive pathway before reaching to a decision.

2.3. THE IMPORTANCE OF INTRINSIC MOTIVATION

Process theories of motivation basically departed from the traditional approach of needs theories in order to fully explain the cognitive antecedents that lead to the development of motivation (Lunenburg, 2011). One of these antecedents is the importance of values, which are basically the key reasons for engaging in a particular activity (Eccles & Wigfield, 2002). One example of an important value is intrinsic value, which refers to a person's personal choice to engage in an activity because of feelings of enjoyment and fulfilment (Guay et al., 2010). Intrinsic values, which were first introduced by Herzberg et al. (1959) as motivators, explain the intrinsic motivation of a person. As defined by Dewett (2007), it "refers to the motivational state in which an individual is attracted to their work in and of itself, not due to any external outcomes that might result from task engagement" (p.198). Similarly, Pakdel (2013) defined it as an intrinsic experience that is driven by the individual's tools to reach a particular target, temperament, situation, and sense of purpose and attitude toward life goals. The cognitive activities that could lead to the development of intrinsic motivation may include the person's perceived competence of himself, perceived challenges in achieving a particular goal, and feedback from those involved in the process of achieving a goal (Shroff & Vogel, 2009). Other important factors to consider are the perceived autonomy and control of the person, which basically affects his or her perceptions toward intrinsic rewards (Reeve & Deci, 1996). Cognitive Evaluation Theory and Self-Determination Theory introduced by

Deci and his associates further explain the importance of these variables (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

Several studies using Herzberg's two-factor theory, and Deci and Ryan's Self-Determination Theory have confirmed the existence of intrinsic motivation among employees and their importance in the workplace. Interestingly, despite coming from the humanistic psychology era, current studies are still exploring Herzberg's two-factor theory in as an attempt to differentiate intrinsic motivation from extrinsic motivation and explore their significance in the workplace. For instance, a recent study conducted by Sinha and Trivedi (2014) revealed the existence of intrinsic motivation among employees, and even found the significance of qualifications in intrinsic motivation expectations. Another recent study by Vevoda et al. (2011) found evidences on the importance of both hygiene and intrinsic motivators among outpatient nurses. Further, Yun et al. (2014) found evidences on the existence of intrinsic motivation among employees, the positive effects of developmental feedbacks on intrinsic motivation, and the significant positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and job satisfaction. Salge et al. (2009) also found that intrinsic motivation can enhance creativity and decision to act, while Fakhar Zaman et al. (2013) found that work ethics based on religion can enhance intrinsic motivation, which could then lead to job satisfaction. On the other hand, Janus (2014) reported that an employee's relationship to work was the biggest driver of intrinsic motivation, while relationship to organisation could negatively affect intrinsic motivation.

Similarly, there are still current studies that explore intrinsic motivation based on the Self-Determination Theory. One example is the study of Ke et al. (2013) on the relevance of intrinsic motivation under enterprise systems environment. The findings revealed that job autonomy and socialization strategies positively affect the intrinsic motivation of employees. Further, they also found that intrinsic motivation positively affects the exploration behaviour of employees, which then positively affects their job satisfaction.

Another study that produced similar results is the study of Miniotaite and Bucioniene (2013) on the effects of authentic leadership on the intrinsic motivation of employees. Not only did the study find the existence of intrinsic motivation, but they also found that the intrinsic motivation of leaders can result to the externalization of leadership values to employees. Intrinsically motivated employees were found to be more motivated and satisfied in their worked, and more engaged with their leaders. The study of Trepanier et al. (2013) produced similar positive results on the relationship between leadership and intrinsic motivation. The study found that increased autonomy and self-efficacy can result to intrinsic motivation, which results to better externalization of leadership styles.

Recent studies confirm that Herzberg's concept of intrinsic motivation is still relevant in the organisation. Generally, studies that explored intrinsic motivation confirmed its existence among people, including the different factors that influence it and its specific relationship with other variables. Intrinsic motivation was found to be important among employees, but it almost always coexists with extrinsic motivation. Particularly, several

studies also confirmed Deci and Ryan's (2000) assumptions on the importance of autonomy and control in the development of intrinsic motivation. Further, its significance with job satisfaction and leadership styles were also emphasised. Nonetheless, it can be observed that literatures about intrinsic motivation are widely dispersed in terms of demographics, and dependent variables. Basically, the studies showed that several countries or cultures are underrepresented in intrinsic motivation research, which adds more question regarding the generalisability of their results to other cultures and demographics. In other words, despite being one of the most explored motivation concepts, there is still much to be learned about intrinsic motivation, which still makes it a valid subject to be studied in the present day.

2.4. CONCLUSION OF THE CHAPTER

The current chapter suggests that perceptions on the concept of motivation evolved from a purely instinctive point-of-view to one that considers the importance of cognitive processes in human decision making. Throughout the years, it was found that human motivation is not entirely derived from instinct, but is rather affected and controlled by the many variables that surround each human experience. Basically, it is up to the person to pursue a particular goal given the obvious conditions that may affect the outcome. It is also up to the person on whether he or she would be satisfied with extrinsic rewards, or would pursue his or her full potential that may reap intrinsic rewards. Nonetheless, there are external factors that might shape the way a person view motivation, within which are arguably loosely based on the person's cultural upbringing. For instance, the high collectivistic culture among Arab managers appeared

to be their source of both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (Abboushi, 1990; Yasin & Stahl, 1990; Wis et al., 2011). There were also suggestions regarding the duality of Arab leadership approach, which might be attributed from their traditional culture and the influence of Western expatriates (Ali et al., 1995). Given the potential influence of leadership on motivation, this duality may provide variations on employee motivation in the Arab region. To understand more about culture and its potential role in the relationship between leadership and motivation, the succeeding chapter will tackle the subject in greater detail, including its definition and theories.

CHAPTER 3 – THE RELEVANCE OF CULTURE

3.1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 discusses the subject of culture and its effects within the organisation. The chapter begins by discussing the importance of culture, particularly on how different types of culture are related to different types of results. For instance, different types of culture may influence varied means for employees to feel intrinsically motivated. In addition, the chapter briefly discusses the evolution of culture theories, beginning from Taylor's (1871) scientific definition of culture to cultural dimension frameworks. It also explores the studies on the relationship between culture orientation and intrinsic motivation. Finally, it explores the work values that define the employees' intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

3.2. THE RELEVANCE OF CULTURE

As discussed earlier, there seems to be several differences on the way different cultures define motivation. For instance, the Chinese seems to be placing more emphasis on virtue (Makeham, 2001; Ang & Low, 2012), while Westerners were placing more emphasis on human rationality (Goodin & Tilly, 2008). Several studies on motivation confirmed the relevance of culture beyond the traditional definitions of different cultures. One particular example is the study of Eisenberg (1999), which explored the relationship between rewards and performance, and the difference of the relationship between two cultures – American and Japanese. Specifically, Eisenberg (1999) focused on the difference between individualistic and collectivistic culture, whereas Americans are known to be individualistic and Japanese are known to be collectivistic. An individualistic culture refers to one that places great importance on

personal interests and autonomy from group, while a collectivistic culture refers to one that places more importance on group interests and conformity with the group (Christiansen & Koeman, 2015). Based on these differences, Eisenberg (1999) proposed that collectivists will be more intrinsically motivated when motivated by extrinsic rewards administered by in-group members. In contrast, individualists will be more intrinsically motivated when working under perceived personal regulation of rewards. Hagger et al. (2014) conducted a study under these assumptions and found significant support for Eisenberg's (1999) hypotheses. They found that in individualistic culture, intrinsic motivation is higher when individuals are prescribed with personal choice of tasks. However, in collectivistic culture, it was found that intrinsic motivation is higher when the tasks of the individuals are prescribed by in-group members (Hagger et al., 2014). The study basically confirmed that intrinsic motivation can be affected by values, including the culture being endorsed by the group and the organisation.

3.2.1. Definition and Evolution of Culture Theories

The relevance of culture in business was first introduced in modern management when Taylor (1871) scientifically define it as a complex phenomenon that exists as a combination of habits formed and acquired by people within the society, such as morals, customs, religion, arts, association with fellow men, and many other practices. Further understanding of this phenomenon was then introduced in the early 1950's by Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952), who compiled and categorized culture in various definitions. The five main categories they discovered include: (1) regularly repeated patterns of behaviour; (2) mental state and process; (3) acquired through material and mental

acquisitions; (4) institutional concepts, and; (5) a by-product of human activities. These definitions posit that culture is combination of various habits, behaviours, mentality, communication skills, human activities, and institutions.

Following the categories of culture definition, Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) introduced a theory that presents culture as a by-product of human biology. Coined as the Value Orientation Theory, Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) model of culture argued that the biological nature of culture is displayed through societies' acceptance and rejection of solutions to problems. The people within a society formed their culture through their biological needs, which then produced acceptable and unacceptable ways of dealing with problems. In order to determine which ways are correct, they base their decisions on their answers to five value orientation questions, which concerns: (1) values on natural resources and human nature; (2) motive for behaving; (3) ways of relating to other people; (4) concept of time, and; (5) perception toward the nature of human nature (Hills, 2002). For instance, dealing with natural resources and human nature can either concentrate on mastery, harmony, and submission. Mastery emphasizes control on both nature and man, while harmony refers to balancing solutions in order to preserve nature. On the other hand, submission emphasizes total submission to the will of nature, which means not creating any solutions to control or manipulate it. Other categories of value orientations also have different solution options. Motive for behaving can either be focused on the self, small in-groups, or the society as a whole, while ways of relating to people can either be hierarchical, equal, or individualistic. Regarding the concept of time, Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck (1961) argued

that decisions of some societies are influenced by present circumstance, while others are either influenced by the past or future prospects. Finally, several societies also view humans as inherently evil, thus creating many rules, while others view humans as inherently good, which then focus on human development with looser types of regulations (Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck, 1961). Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) value orientation theory was able to provide simple explanations on variations of cultural traits. However, their model was criticized for the complexity of each dimension when it comes to scientific measurements. Aside from being limited only to values (Hills, 2002), the model was also difficult to test for more specific value differences among ethnicities within a particular society, as well as value differences within organisations (Sawang et al., 2006).

Despite its limitations, Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) value orientation theory was able to influence further researchers to develop more comprehensive and measurable culture theories. It paved way to emergence of culture dimension theories, which was led by Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions framework. This framework includes a total of 5 dimensions, which are: (1) collectivism versus individualism; (2) uncertainty avoidance; (3) power distance; (4) gender trait, and; (5) time orientation. Collectivism versus individualism is basically similar to Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) concepts of relating to individuals, in that societies can either find conformities with groups more acceptable than being individualistic, and vice-versa. In addition, Hofstede's (1980) time orientation was also similar to Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck's (1961) concept of time, whereas societies could either base their decisions on the past, present, or the future.

Nonetheless, Hofstede (1980) added several new concepts such as power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and gender orientation. Power distance refers to distance between powerful and powerless within the society. Apparently, cultures with high power distance find it unacceptable to question authority or to go against the wishes of those who have power. In contrast, cultures with low power distance find it acceptable to question authority and create avenue wherein people can voice their opinions and grievances to their bosses. On the other hand, uncertainty avoidance refers to society's way of dealing with risks (Hofstede, 1980). Cultures with high uncertainty avoidance have stricter rules and regulations to avoid uncertainties, whereas culture with low uncertainty avoidance have looser rules and are more tolerant of innovative ideas (Hofstede, 1980). Finally, gender orientation refers to whether the culture adores power or compassion. For example, a society that has a high masculine index values power and materialism, while a society with high feminine index values compassion and philanthropy (Linstead et al., 2014).

Several other theories followed Hofstede's (1980) model, which include Fiske's (1990) social reality forms, Schwartz' (1994) seven dimensions of culture, and Trompenaars' (1994) seven dimensions of culture. Fiske's (1990) social reality forms was meant to be an improved version of Hofstede's cultural dimensions model, which added the dimension of market pricing in culture. According to Fiske (1990), societies have different ways of rationalizing market pricing, which also transcends to rationalizing relationships with other people in accordance to possible economic benefits. On the other hand, Schwartz' (1994) seven dimensions of culture was an attempt to combine

certain elements of the value orientation model, cultural dimensions model, and social reality forms. However, one of its distinctive traits is that it added the concept of intellectual autonomy, which means certain cultures find it more acceptable to pursue intellectual experiences than affective experiences, be it individually or through groups. Finally, Trompenaars' (1994) model also borrowed concepts from previous theories but added new unique dimensions such as universalism versus particularism, and specific versus diffuse. According to Trompenaars (1994), a culture with high universalism relies heavily on accepted set of universal rules, while a particularistic society sees rules as something that can be changed over time and for the better. Meanwhile, a society with high specific culture tends to have people that can prefer to separate their working lives with their private lives. In contrast, high diffused cultures prefer to combine their working lifestyles with their private lives, which include family and hobbies (Smolarek, 2006; Rethi, 2012).

Among these modern culture models, Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimension framework is considered as the most widely used model in literature (Chanchani & Theivanathampillai, 2002). One of the reasons is because of its moderate empirical support of the framework. An example is Hofstede's (1980) early study, wherein four cultural dimensions were extracted from data about 117,000 IBM employees from 40 different countries. Other examples include Hofstede and Bond's (1984) reanalysis of Ng et al.'s (1982) data from nine Asia Pacific countries. The results revealed that the data can also be distinctly identified using Hofstede's cultural dimensions. Recently, Blodgett et al. (2008) conducted a study to test the validity of Hofstede's cultural

framework and found that the individualism-collectivism framework to be the most valid and reliable among the dimensions. Further, Huber (2001) was also able to use Hofstede's cultural dimensions to analyze corruption perceptions in 47 countries. Over a thousand studies published showed the extensive validity of Hofstede's cultural dimensions, as claimed in the research of Metcalf and Bird (2004). It was preferred because of its straightforward and systematic as compared to the other models that include more complex dimensions that are difficult to measure. In contrast, both Schwartz (1994) and Trompenaars' (1994) model were criticized for their lack of empirical support, and making some of the dimensions more difficult to examine. Similarly, Hofstede (1980) criticized Fiske's (1990) model as more subjective than objective, and that most of the elements were heavily borrowed from the cultural dimensions framework.

3.2.2. Transformation of Conceptualizations

Another culture theory that may explain the power struggles within organisations in Bahrain and other Arab nations is Bourdieu's transformation of conceptualizations. According to Bourdieu, change is inevitable in organisations as static structures are conquered over time (Kvasny & Truex, 2000). Nonetheless, these changes shuffle the power balance within the organisation as those culturally privilege will have the advantage of directing control on the cultural acceptance of new changes that were implemented such as information technology, or other technological innovations for that matter (Kvasny & Truex, 2000). For instance, top managers in the organisation can control the adoption of technologies in ways that would further expand their power

(Orlikowski, 1991; Klein & Kraft, 1994). As Bourdieu (1984) noted in his theory, those who are culturally disenfranchised after change position themselves accordingly in order to survive the environment. Key factors that contribute to the empowering and disempowering of actors may include symbolic and material structures. Unlike Giddens who emphasize that social systems are a result of human reproduced practice over time, Bourdieu (1984) posits that structures evolve over time because actors aim for distinctions within the organisation. Therefore, it can be argued that technological changes in organisations in Arab countries may have somewhat shifted the power balance on some actors, affecting the cultural traits such as power distance, collectivism, and uncertainty avoidance, as well as certain external and internal factors that motivate employees.

Nonetheless, changes are not only limited to technology, but may also encompass the financial aspects of the organisation. A specific study that illustrated the impact of organisational change on employees, in the context of financial manoeuvring, showed that employees, particularly those who have been with the organisation for a long time, were capable of identifying specific changes in the workplace (Keeble-Ramsay & Armitage, 2014). The study, which was conducted after the advent of the 2008 global credit crunch, revealed that several changes that were intended to alleviate the financial burdens were felt negatively by majority of the employee. Generally, there was a deterioration of positive engagement among employees, which allegedly led to severe decrease of morale (Keeble-Ramsay & Armitage, 2014). Employees perceived that the organisation was tightening its control over them, which led to perceptions that the

organisation was losing its care toward its employees. Keeble-Ramsay & Armitage (2014) also reported that technological changes that came along with the financial changes further increased the workload of the employees. Overall, these changes culturally disenfranchised the employees, which resulted to disengagement and decrease in motivation. Similarly, Arab service organisations post 2008 underwent several transformations of conceptualizations. Since these changes are quite inevitable, then the issue of motivating and engaging employees is a continuous struggle that leaders and managers must confront. As stated by Keeble-Ramsay & Armitage (2010), there needs to be a serious consideration toward exploring the gap between the leader's expectations and employee perception in order to find the balance that would lead to employee engagement and motivation.

3.2.3. Work Values

Work values are basically either the cultural values or the personal values of the employee, which define his or her extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (George & Jones, 1997; Parsons et al., 1999). Another explanation, as cited by Furnham et al. (2005), is that work values are motives that serve as standards to engender thoughts and actions (Feather, 1982). Furnham et al. (2005) investigated the work values of employees in order to determine the relationship between two-factor motivation and personality traits of the respondents. The Work Value Questionnaire (WVQ) they used contained 37 work related values to determine which values make them feel content at work. The work values are basically divided into intrinsic and extrinsic needs of the employees, which make the instrument also suitable for inquiring about the intrinsic and extrinsic

motivation of the respondents. Specifically, work values have four dimensions, which include: work relationships; influence and advancement; financial and working conditions, and; autonomy and use of skills. With the exception of work relationships, the other three dimensions can be used to determine the hygiene/extrinsic and motivator/intrinsic motivation values of the respondents. Financial and working conditions capture the extrinsic needs of the employees, while influence and advancement, and autonomy and use of skills capture their intrinsic needs. The work relationships dimension, on the other hand, can capture both the personal and cultural values of the respondents as it inquires about the way they relate to their managers and co-workers. Interestingly, this dimension coincides with Hofstede's (2001) individualism-collectivism dimension, which also inquires about the work relationships of employees, particularly on whether they prefer to act alone or work with groups. As discussed earlier, the individualism-collectivism dimension can play an important role in the externalization of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Eisenberg, 1999; Hagger et al., 2014).

3.3. CONCLUSION OF CHAPTER

Similar to the concepts of motivation, the understanding of culture has evolved from simple straightforward definitions to more complicated dimensions. Specifically, cultural dimensions such as those presented by Hofstede (1980), Fiske (1990), Schwartz (1994), and Trompenaars (1994) were arguably influential in management studies, suggesting ideas on the influence of power play, risk aversion, group behaviour, success interpretation, and time orientation in the business environment. Specifically, these dimensions may influence leadership styles as suggested in several research

ventures. For instance, the high power distance in Arab culture could serve as a barrier to the growth of the employees and the organization in general as it discourages the sharing of ideas and criticism of outdated or ineffective practices (Rao & Pearce, 2016). In contrast, Western cultures that have low power distance are more open to employee participation and radical ideas for change. Interestingly, evidences suggest that new leadership approaches such as transformational leadership could lead to more motivated employees with better performance. Thus, it can be argued that a type of culture could potentially limit the type of leadership that is acceptable within an organization. A restricting culture may not be open to modern leadership approaches that discard the traditional authoritative and laissez-faire means of handling employees. The succeeding chapter will explore more about leadership, specifically its different approaches, to develop a deeper understanding on the effects of culture on the relationship between leadership and motivation.

CHAPTER 4 – THE LEADERSHIP CONNECTION

4.1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter 4 explores the subject of leadership. First it discusses the classical definition of leadership and the various ideas that evolved from it, including Dewey's democratic concepts, Eric Fromm's marketing orientation, and new leadership theories developed for management. It also explores the evolution of leadership theories in relation to management, which includes discussions on trait theory, classification of leadership styles, behaviourism in leadership, contingency approach in leadership, and transformational leadership. Finally, the chapter also discusses several literatures that depict the relationship between transformational leadership and motivation.

4.2. THE CLASSICAL DEFINITION OF LEADERSHIP

Leadership still lacks a single standard definition because of the various schools of thoughts that offered different perspectives on its nature (Yukl, 2010). In the late 1950s, Bennis divided the definition of leadership into two themes – classical definition; and human relations definition (Huber, 2014). The classical definition stresses that that man is inert and passive, and therefore can be controlled by specific leadership traits and transactional systems (Huber, 2014). Power comes from role incumbency and rewards are focused on economic and physiological needs (Lee & Lawrence, 2013; Miller, 2014). On the other hand, the human relations perspective stresses that effective leadership is attributed to the leader's ability to motivate followers through social and psychological gratifications. The leader's power comes from norms developed with a group, the ability to control self, the ability to reduce hierarchies, and the ability to train (Lee & Lawrence, 2013; Miller, 2014). Rewards in this perspective focuses on fulfilling

social and psychological needs, such as self-esteem or the need for approval (Lee & Lawrence, 2013; Miller, 2014).

The classical definition of leadership is associated with early trait theory and transactional theories that stress the importance of authority and transactional strategies (Komives et al., 2009). On the other hand, the human relations concept started with Barnard's Aristotelian view, which emphasized the importance of morality, relationship with followers, and logical persuasions (Northouse, 2011). This perspective made the effectiveness of early trait and transactional theories questionable, as they left out the human side of leader-follower relations. As a result, several new leadership theories based on behaviour, contingency, relations, and combination of trait, transactional, and transformational approaches emerged. These theories are further explored in the succeeding sections.

4.2.1. Dewey and Leadership

One of the earliest concepts of democracy is Dewey's (2001) democratic concept, which point out the importance of a democratic society in education, as it allows people to seek opportunities to expand their achievements. As stated by Dewey (2001), "...where progress, or readjustment, is an important consideration, makes a democratic community more interested than other communities have cause to be in deliberate and systematic education" (p.91). Dewey continued that the success of a democratic society depends on the capability of the people to elect capable and responsible leaders, which makes both democracy and education mutually interdependent (Dewey, 2001). Basically, the lack of democracy would lead to lesser educational opportunities,

whereas the lack of education would put incompetent leaders in the office (Sabel, 2012). Dewey's view on education was a pragmatic one, whereas he focused on both its intrinsic and instrumental values (Jenlink, 2009). He stressed that democracy was an important element in the facilitation of pragmatic education as it could provide the conscious expressions to common interests and rejects the interests of the few (Jenlink, 2009). Democracy could enable people to act collectively to achieve a common goal, and to discuss each others' needs and desires, regardless of whether those desires interest a certain group or not (Jenlink, 2009). Dewey emphasized the importance of sustaining relationships between various groups to learn about each other's ideals and characteristics, in order to facilitate better means of education.

Dewey's concepts of democracy and education can be used to support the notion of democratic leadership in a sense that it emphasized the important role of educators in offering extensive guidance to students, in order to avoid the autocratic and passive characters that restrain the freedom of education (Weber, 2013). As argued by Weber (2013), Dewey's democratic educator can be considered as the quintessential democratic leader as it embodied democratic values rather than autocratic ones. Although Dewey's democratic educator is basically an indirect example of what a democratic leader should be, it can be used as a guide to avoid the pitfalls of traditional autocratic and totalitarian leadership characteristics that are considered barriers to creativity, freedom of expression, and educational growth (Weber, 2013). Dewey's concepts of democracy can be easily used as a reference to the concepts of democratic leadership as both concepts entail democratic values and promote privileges that are

obtainable only in a democratic environment or society. Basically, the characteristics of a democratic society includes fair and competitive elections, rule of law and its effective implementation, rationality and unity, free speech and freedom of expression, respect for each other, maintenance of trust, accountability, and responsibility, and co-existence with one another regardless of beliefs, race, and other demographics (Adjibolosoo, 2013). These characteristics can be used as a guide by the democratic leader to further improve his or her leadership skills, and to engage employees to do their job better. For instance, leaders should be reminded by Dewey's teachings that individual capacities should be respected and that one's aspirations to learn or to advance into one's chosen field should be allowed to all regardless of class and race (Weber, 2013).

4.2.2. Erich Fromm's Marketing Orientation

Another early thinker that contributed to the proliferation of leadership traits is Erich Fromm, who basically introduced the notion that man's traits, characters, and personalities are by-products of his culture and society (Nagler, 1972). According to Fromm, man develops his social character through super imposed individual orientations dictated by the family unit, which is then dictated by the society on how to raise or develop a social character that is generally acceptable (Friedman, 2014). Then, this social character is reflected back into the society when the man socially interacts with other men. Fromm noted that there are four negative characters and one positive character that each man can possibly possess. Negative characters include: (1) the receptive character; (2) the exploitative character; (3) the hoarding character, and; (4) the marketing character. An individual with a receptive character receives things for his

own use passively (Durkin, 2014). This type of individual is dependent on other people for all kinds of support, and thus feels distraught when their sources are threatened (DeVitis & Rich, 1996). Typically, the receptive individual often feels helpless, and thus feels the need to become parasitic to people who can meet his or her needs (Nagler, 1972). On the other hand, the exploitative character is also motivated by external sources, but its difference from the receptive character is that it takes what it likes through force and other cunning methods (DeVitis & Rich, 1996). Simply put, the exploitative individual is sadistic and aggressive as he or she will resort to force whenever necessary (Nagler, 1972). Accordingly, the mindset of the exploitative individual is dominated by feelings of suspicion, cynicism, jealousy, and envy (Durkin, 2014). In contrast, the hoarding character focuses on reinforcing material security through hoarding (Nagler, 1972). The individual who has this orientation focuses on orderliness and mastery of outside threats (Durkin, 2014). Fromm basically adapted these three non-productive orientations from the typologies of Sigmund Freud and Karl Abraham, which are oral receptive, oral sadistic, and anal personalities respectively (Friedman, 2014). However, the fourth non-productive orientation, which is marketing characteristic, was drawn from modern capitalism, specifically from the idea that all values are exchange values, and that the self can be considered as a marketing commodity (Friedman, 2014). The marketing characteristic is also considered non-productive because it assumes that there is no honesty or genuineness in human relations, but rather just a series of underlying intentions to exchange values and commodities (Nagler, 1972).

The four non-productive characteristics that Fromm presented can be considered as early representations of laissez-faire leaders motivated solely by external factors. In contrast, Fromm's productive character represents a good leader as its definition is similar to modern leadership characteristics being promoted in business management. Productive orientation is basically one's realization of his or her potentials to grow and to self-actualization without the need to manipulate or dominate other people (DeVitis & Rich, 1996). In addition, such type of person is capable to reason independently and show compassion and kindness toward others (Nagler, 1972). These features are basically similar to other modern leadership orientations such as transformational leaders, and servant leaders. Further, this type of orientation is also capable to self-motivate intrinsically as extrinsic factors rarely have a lasting appeal to such person. Overall, Fromm's ideas present early insights on the differences between a good and a bad leader. Nonetheless, since Fromm argued that these traits are embedded within a person through a family unit and a society, these can be considered as leadership traits, which fall into the trait definition of leadership.

4.3. THE EVOLUTION OF LEADERSHIP THEORIES

Interests in leadership in relation to management started in the 1840s when Thomas Carlyle introduced the idea that leaders are simply great men that stand above the rest of the population (Carlyle, 1888). He stated that kings, divines, priests and intellectuals were classic examples of exceptional men (Iszatt-White & Saunders, 2014). These classes had leadership traits such as: appreciation for existence; heroic nobleness; sincerity; nobleness; truthfulness; charisma; loyalty, and; strong faith. Some traits that were later considered Great Man material included: talkativeness; race; fingerprint

patters; intelligence; weight; age; height; self-confidence, and; personality (Walsh, 2009). Other important traits that were later found important included good looks, strong self-confidence, exceptional management skills, and ability to control one's emotions (Hughbank& Horn, 2013). In the early nineties, researchers argued that important leadership traits included much sophisticated characteristics than what usually believed. These new traits included one's desire to lead and influence people, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, drive and ambition, and technical knowledge (Deng, 2013).

Although trait theory was the first to provide explanation on the nature of leadership, research on the subject was undermined by the emergence of other leadership theories that were more rationale and sophisticated. One major criticism of the trait theory was that it lacked a standard list of traits that organisations should look out for when selecting a leader (Lussier & Achua, 2012). Nonetheless, despite the lack of standard list, several traits correlated to leadership success were identified (Lussier & Achua, 2012). For instance, research found that intelligence was correlated to perceptions of leadership, and that the subconscious drives were related to leadership effectiveness (Lussier & Achua, 2012).

4.3.1. Stogdill's Criticism on Trait Theory

One of the early thinkers who played an important role in the decline of interest in trait leadership theory was Ralph Stogdill (1948). He discovered that leadership traits are not absolutely present in all situations and that traits are sometimes adopted as an effort to pattern the characteristics and behaviour of the followers. Stogdill (1948) discovered the

significance of leadership behaviours as compared to traits, specifically the importance of tailoring it to certain social situations. Based on his analysis of 124 studies, he concluded that leaders were not made by a combination of certain traits, but rather by using certain traits applicable to certain situations (Klenke, 2004). Basically, this conclusion has led to increased scepticism on the trait theory as most leadership theorists started to contend that traits go hand in hand with certain situations and do not work independently (Bass, 1990; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). Nonetheless, Stogdill did not dismiss entirely the importance of possessing certain traits in order to be a good leader. Rather, he emphasized that need to think carefully which traits work best in certain situations, and vice versa (Klenke, 2004; Izzat-White & Saunders, 2014). Stogdill then became a proponent of the belief that leadership traits and situations should be investigated together rather than separately (Roe, 2014). Despite his scepticism toward the trait theory, Stogdill (1948) found several traits that leaders may possess in different situations. These traits were intelligence, alertness, insights, responsibility, initiative, persistence, self-confidence, and sociability. His follow up study found additional significant traits, which include cooperativeness and tolerance (Stogdill, 1974). He contended that some leaders develop traits over time in certain situations in order to adjust with changes, events, or behaviour and reaction of followers.

Overall, because the trait theory assumes that certain traits are innate and that becoming a leader is in-born, it is pessimistic in a sense that it totally dismisses the possibility that leaders can be developed through willpower and rigorous training (Qutob, 2013). In addition, Stogdill's (1948, 1974) open scepticism toward trait theory

had a scientific weight into it, as his studies provided no evidences that traits alone could determine good leadership. Therefore, future considerations toward trait theory were more cautious, as certain factors are being considered. For instance, traits could be correlated to certain situations, or that traits could have been learned or adopted to fit certain situations (Kusluvan, 2003). Future research also found that certain traits are applicable to almost every situation, while some traits are applicable only to certain situations (Zaccaro, 2007). Thus, there are issues regarding the relative stability and malleability of certain leadership traits, and how such features would lead to the development of leadership behaviours (Zaccaro, 2007).

4.3.2. Classification of Leadership Styles

Research interest on leadership re-emerged in the late 1930s when Lewin, Lippit and White (1939) introduced various leadership classifications, which includes laissez-faire, autocratic, and democratic leadership. Laissez-faire leadership, which also means free-reign, refers to absence of leadership because the responsibility of deciding and solving problems are transferred to the employees (Choi, 2007). These types of leaders are basically minimalists, as policies are minimized and employees are allowed to autonomously make decisions without consulting their leader (Weber, 2013). Laissez-faire leaders also do not engage, motivate, and establish any form of control on their employees (Weber, 2013). Although laissez-faire can be effective when used in a highly motivated group of employees, it is not always the case as most of the time, employees need motivation, which the laissez-faire leader does not provide. As found in the study of Lewin, Lippit, and White (1939), the communication style of a laissez-faire leader

directly avoids any leadership responsibilities, leading to less productivity and efficiency of employees. Recent studies also revealed that laissez-faire type of leadership does not significantly lead to employee motivation as compared to other non-traditional styles such as transformational and transactional leadership (Khan et al., 2011; Chaudhry & Javed, 2012; Koech & Namusonge, 2012). Conyne (2011) stated that such type of leadership has low levels of emotional stimulation and executive functions as they focus more on the technical aspects of leadership. An earlier study conducted by Posthuma (1996) revealed that employees under laissez-faire leadership often felt frustrated because of their leader's failure to direct and guide them, while a recent study conducted by Akaanpaadgi et al. (2014) revealed that laissez-faire was least preferred by employees as compared to democratic style.

Autocratic leadership is another type of leadership first defined by Lewin, Lippit and White (1939), which basically means overexertion of power and authority. Autocratic leaders do everything to control his or her subordinates, including the development and enforcement of policies and procedures, decision-making, and problem solving (Masters & Wallace, 2010). The strategies and steps to attain certain goals are also dictated one at a time by the autocratic leader, including who should perform certain tasks and who should certain employees should work with (Weber, 2013). Further, perhaps the strongest criticism against autocratic leadership is the autocratic leader's habit of criticizing and praising individual performances without giving any objective reasons as to why the individual merit the criticism or praise (Weber, 2013). The communication style of an autocratic leader is also very impersonal and detached from the employees

as he or she engages in one-way downward communication, controls the flow of the discussion, does not listen to employee suggestions, and uses every opportunity for personal gain (Hackman & Johnson, 2013). Several studies confirmed that this type of leadership can negatively affect the motivation of employees. For instance, the study of De Cremer (2007) found that autocratic leadership elicits negative emotions, which could lead to disloyalty and distrust among subordinates. Other studies also found that autocratic leadership can decrease leadership effectiveness, and employee job satisfaction (Jayasingam & Cheng, 2009; Nadarasa & Thuraisingam, 2014).

The third type of leadership introduced by Lewin, Lippit, and White (1939) is democratic leadership. It contradicts both laissez-faire and autocratic styles because democratic leaders consult the opinions of team members in decision making and problem solving, engages the group, and tries to act as a member of the group in spirit (Weber, 2013). Further, democratic leaders also provide objective criticisms and praises as an attempt to correct mistakes or encourage positive work behaviour (Weber, 2013). Democratic leaders also actively provide guidance when needed, but also promotes autonomy at work (Wilson, 2013). When it comes to communicating messages to subordinates, a democratic leader is more open and approachable as discussions and two-way interactions are encouraged and facilitated (Hackman & Johnson, 2013). Further, the democratic leader is a good listener and mediator when it comes to conflicts for the sake of group gain (Hackman & Johnson, 2013).

Lewin, Lippit and White (1939) initially found evidences that democratic leadership is the most effective style among the three leadership classifications. Other studies found support to Lewin, Lippit and White's (1939) findings. For instance, Kayser and Melcher (1973) found that democratic leadership can increase employee commitment and trust toward the leader. On the other hand, Bhatti et al. (2012) found that democratic leadership leads to employee job satisfaction. Other studies found that democratic leadership can lead to employee motivation (Jayasingam & Cheng, 2009; Nadarasa & Thuraisingam, 2014). Finally, Eken et al. (2014) also found that democratic leadership is the most effective style to promote cultural intelligence motivation, or the capability of employees to become motivated in cross-cultural settings.

4.3.3. Behaviourism in Leadership

Following Lewin et al.'s (1939) classifications of leadership was the emergence of leadership theories based on behaviourism. Behavioural theories posited that leadership success was attributed to certain behaviours that leaders should possess (Day & Antonakis, 2012). This school of thought emphasized that certain behaviours important to leadership were adaptable (Day & Antonakis, 2012). It was interested on how leaders act and react to certain situations, particularly among small and large groups (Northouse, 2011; Komives et al, 2009). Relationship and task behaviours of leaders were mostly the focus of behaviour research (Northouse, 2011). For instance, some of the important behaviour found associated with effective leadership included: (1) the ability to use authority effectively; (2) concern for production; (3) being able to involve the team in decision-making; (4) being able to involve the team in finalizing

decisions; (5) being able to become flexible in the implementation of rules, and; (6) having concern for people or relationships (Hughbank & Horn, 2013).

Some of the prominent studies that were conducted using the behaviour approach in leadership included the Michigan Studies, the Ohio Studies, and the leadership grid (Griffin & Moorhead, 2013). The Michigan studies were a series of studies conducted to determine the patterns of leadership behaviours that would lead to better group performance. The results revealed two types— job-centred, and employee-centred (Daft, 2014). Job-centred leaders focused more on employee tasks, efficiency, and scheduling; while employee-centred leaders focused more on the human needs of employees by displaying support to employees and engaging positive interactions (Daft, 2014). On the other hand, the Ohio Studies also found two types of leadership behaviours, which were consideration and initiating structures. Consideration was a leadership style similar to the Michigan studies' employee-centred leadership, as it also focused on the emotional needs of the employees. Initiating structure was similar to job-centred as it also referred to a task-minded leader. The difference between the Michigan studies and the Ohio studies was that the former stressed that those two types of leadership are direct opposites, whereas the latter stressed that they could coexist in both high levels and low levels (Daft, 2014).

4.3.4. Contingency Approach to Leadership

Both traits and behaviour theories of leadership have received several criticisms. Perhaps the major criticism directed on them is the lack of empirical studies that

integrated all leadership styles and compare them with each other (DeRue et al., 2011). The studies that explored these leadership styles and behaviour did not test for the independence of effects (DeRue et al., 2011). Further, trait and behaviour leadership styles also fall in the same limitations as psychoanalysis and behaviourism in psychology, whereas the assumptions on leadership traits are mechanical, one-way, and lacking in contingency. These limitations were basically addressed by a new set of leadership theories that argued the importance of situations in leadership approach. The contingency approach to leadership stressed that matching different types of leadership styles to different situations was the key to effective leadership (Northouse, 2011). Thus, its proponents stressed that the leader's style should fit in different situations in order for it to work (Day & Antonakis, 2012). A well-acknowledged contingency approach was House's path-goal theory, which stressed that leaders should direct the employees to paths that could lead to goal accomplishment. Successfully directing employees to the right path could lead to employee motivation and achievement of goals (Clegg et al., 2011). The path-goal theory included several leadership styles that should be applied to different situations: (1) achievement-oriented leadership; (2) directive leadership; (3) participative leadership, and; (4) supportive leadership (Schermerhorn, 2011). Kerr and Jermier developed an extension this theory in the late seventies by arguing that non-leadership could sometimes become necessary because of routines, follower capabilities, and strong organisational system (Chemers, 2014). Another example of a well-known contingency theory was the Vroom-Yetton-Jago model, which focused on the flexibility of the leader to decide which behaviour should be applied to a particular situation (Nelson & Quick, 2012).

The contingency approach to leadership helped establish a new perception to leadership by discrediting the notions that leaders are passive individuals. It painted leaders as active individuals who can choose which styles should be appropriately applied to a particular context or situation. Basically, the jump from trait/behaviour leadership to contingency/situational is akin to the shift from behaviourism to cognition in psychology. The shift basically elevated the role of cognition among leaders, particularly in terms of their capability to think out what is best for their employees based on their own capabilities and resources. Nonetheless, the flaw of such approach is that it only focuses on the role of the leader as an active agent, while undermining the role of the employees in relationship dynamics. The relational theory on leadership addressed this problem by changing the roles of employees from passive to active, and stressing the relational dynamics being played by both the leader and the employees. It focused on the relational and reciprocal nature of leader-follower exchange (Day & Antonakis, 2012).

A well-known theory that was based on the relational approach the LMX or the Leader-Membership Exchange Theory. It described the nature and level of relationship between leaders and their followers, wherein high-quality relations was attributed to trust, while low-quality relations was based on contractual obligations (Day & Antonakis, 2012). The theory posited that high-quality exchanges would lead to job satisfaction of the followers, which would eventually lead to motivation (Forsyth, 2009; Robbins, 2013). Better exchange was attributed to job climate, performance, commitment, follower characteristics, job satisfaction, frequency, value agreement, and communication

(Forsyth, 2009; Robbins, 2013). It was also triggered by better assignments, authority, tangible rewards, and participation in important decision-making (Rainey, 2009).

4.3.5. The Emergence of Transformational Leadership

A new leadership approach was introduced by Bass in the mid-80s – a time when leadership theories were lacking significant theoretical advancement (Prafka, 2009).

Bass and his colleagues introduced the notion that the relationship between leaders and followers was traditionally transactional (Day & Antonakis, 2012). Bass explained that leaders should go beyond the transactional approach to fully engage and motivate their followers (Prafka, 2009). This new type of leadership was coined as transformational leadership or charismatic leadership (Day & Antonakis, 2012).

Following the discovery of new leadership styles, Bass and Avolio (1997) introduced the Full Range Leadership Model, which included three types of leadership – laissez-fair leadership, transactional leadership, and transformational leadership. The laissez-faire style, which was based on Lewin, Lippit and White's (1939) early classifications of leadership, refers to the traditional authoritative passive leadership style. These types of leaders often exercise their authority but are weak in decision-making (Einarsen et al., 2010). They often avoid conflicts when they arise and often leave organisational issues and disputes to followers and other leaders (Einarsen et al., 2010). These leaders often leave employees uninspired, lacking in vision, unguided, unmotivated, dissatisfied, and unproductive (Einarsen et al., 2010).

On the other hand, transactional leadership utilises different types of material rewards to keep employees satisfied and gain their loyalty and compliance (Gershon, 2013).

Transactional approach involves negotiations with followers concerning the rewards they will receive in exchange for their loyalty and good performance, as well as the immediate punishment they will receive when they go against company policies or slack with their work (Avolio&Yammarino, 2013). Transactional leaders therefore make it a point to clarify the work required to obtain certain rewards (Ledlow& Coppola, 2010). Further, they also monitor followers to ensure that effective work is being done. In case of deviations, transactional leaders use contingent punishments and other corrective actions (Ledlow& Coppola, 2010).

Finally, the third type of leadership in the FRLM is transformational leadership, which refers to a type of leader who focuses on transforming employees by raising the level of their ethical aspirations (Northouse, 2012). Transformational leaders are good at motivating and inspiring employees, especially during times when the organisation is undergoing changes in its policies and system (Northouse, 2012). Leaders who utilise this style are capable to take risks and to promote innovation within the organisation (Northouse, 2012). Transformational leadership was first introduced by Burns as a situational approach type of leadership because it enables the leader to adapt to certain situations in order to inspire or motivate subordinates (Ledlow& Coppola, 2010).

However, Bass argued that transformational leadership should not be limited only to situational approach, but should also be measured through the leader's influence on his or her followers (Northouse, 2012). Thus, instead of adjusting to certain situations,

transformational leaders create a working environment wherein followers are aware of the importance of their tasks and outcomes, and are highly motivated and inspired to work regardless of the material rewards they can obtain (Ledlow& Coppola, 2010). Such leaders focus on four constructs, namely: (1) idealized influence or charisma; (2) intellectual stimulation; (3) individualized consideration, and (4) inspirational motivation. Charisma refers to the ability to arouse strong emotions and identification with the leader. Intellectual stimulation refers to the ability to increase awareness on problems and enable followers to see problems into different perspectives. Individualized consideration refers to the ability to develop followers through support and encouragement. Finally, inspirational motivation refers to the ability of the leader to motivate followers through effectively communicating visions and positive behaviours (Ledlow& Coppola, 2010).

4.4. CONCLUSION OF CHAPTER

The current chapter posits that leadership views have transformed from the “great man” perspective to a humanistic one that aims to guide employees in reaching their full potential. The evolution of leadership theories have exposed the shallowness of traditional leadership approaches, wherein employees are expected to follow the leader without any underlying effort on the latter’s part. In contrast, it introduced more active means of leading employees, focusing on contingency approaches, as well as those that are designed to boost motivation and job satisfaction. Overall, the discussion on leadership theories revealed the relevance of both motivation and culture in the delivery of a successful leadership approach. Basically, certain cultures are less tolerant of a more open relationship between leaders and employees, which limits the capacity of the

former to target specific motivational needs of the latter. As emphasized in the conceptual framework of the study in Chapter 1, culture can affect both leadership style and employee motivation, which then shapes the work behaviour of the employee. The next chapter will discuss the theoretical framework in greater detail, specifically in the context of Arab culture. It will discuss the effects of Arab culture on leadership styles, and how this two-way interaction may inform the extrinsic and intrinsic motivation of Arab employees.

CHAPTER 5 – THE ARAB CONTEXT: THEORETICAL UNDERPINNINGS

5.1. INTRODUCTION

The theoretical framework of the study presented in Chapter 1 (Figure 1.6) displays a general picture on the impact of culture on leadership styles and employee motivational values, as well as the effect of the latter variables on employee motivation. The framework also posits that employee motivation can affect their performance. For instance, lack of motivation could lead to poor overall performance, whereas high extrinsic and intrinsic motivation could lead to better job performance. Some of the theories and studies that supported the framework were briefly discussed in the first chapter. The current chapter provides additional insights on these theories and how they help form the theoretical framework. Further, several supporting studies will also be discussed.

5.2. ARAB CULTURE

An important element in the study's theoretical framework is culture, which was previously defined in Chapter 3 as a combination of beliefs and practices generally consists of morals, customs, religion, arts, association with fellow men, and many other practices (Taylor, 1871). As discussed in Chapter 3, cross-cultural research in management has produced various theories over the years, but the present consensus is the value-belief theory endorsed by Hofstede (1980), Schwartz (1994), Trompenaars (1994) and other cultural theorists that agreed with the notion that values and beliefs shape society's views on what is legitimate, acceptable, and effective (House et al.,

2004). Hofstede's (1980) cultural dimensions theory is basically one of the pioneers of this school of thought and has introduced cultural dimensions that can be used to predict organizational practices and employee behaviours. Dimensions such as power distance, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, masculinity, and time orientation allow researchers to determine and compare the way different cultures accept power and authority, rules and regulations, interpersonal relations, achievements, and goals (Hofstede, 1980). These dimensions were successfully used in various studies (Sabri, 2012; Yeganeh, 2014; Dabic et al., 2015; Khlif, 2016; Lo et al., 2017), including the GLOBE leadership research conducted by House et al. (2004).

Various studies on Arab culture, including Hofstede's and the GLOBE research, suggest its high power distance nature. This means that a huge disparity between authority and ordinary employees exist, mostly discouraging the latter to question the status-quo, and inhibiting them from any form of decision-making (Hofstede, 1980). Some studies conducted in Bahrain found evidences of high power distance, specifically discouraging employees to interact with leaders and share ideas with top managers (Al-Ammari & Hamad, 2008), paternalistic decision-making, overreliance on hierarchies, and large compensation gaps (AlQahtani, 2013). These conditions were also confirmed in other Arab countries such as UAE (Ortega, 2009; Reddy, 2011) and Saudi Arabia (Agourram, 2009; AlQahtani, 2013; Mohammad & Ahmad, 2013).

On the other hand, several studies also confirmed the high uncertainty avoidance in Arab culture. In Bahrain, uncertainty avoidance can be reflected from the high risk aversion culture of organizations (Dwairi et al., 2012). Employees are being

discouraged to take risks through failure shaming and lack of compensation and rewards. Further, rules and regulations are strengthened in order to maintain the status quo and conformity to the organization (Dwairi et al., 2012). High uncertainty avoidance was also observed in UAE, specifically in the IT industry, wherein lack of incentives, support, and bureaucracy prevent the proliferation of research and development (Ditsa et al., 2013). On the other hand, studies report that Saudi Arabia has higher uncertainty avoidance than other Arab countries as it implements stricter rules, more structured systems, and more requirements for employees to exert more efforts (Agourram, 2009; AlQurashi, 2013).

In terms of individualism orientation, Arab countries are generally among those with very low scores, which make them a predominantly collectivistic society (Hofstede, 1981). The collectivistic traits that were found in Bahraini organizations include the practice of *wasta*, or treating the return of favours as obligations, and the practice of granting more privileges to in-group than out-group members (Janahi et al., 2013). Collectivism was also generally found among UAE and Saudi Arabia organizations, which reflected from their unwavering loyalty to in-group in order to gain trust, and tendency to build and expand social networks for future favours (Balakrishnan, 2009).

Masculinity in Hofstede's (1980) model also offers an interesting angle in Arab culture, specifically on the gender disparity. Masculinity is reflected in Bahraini society through its highly competitive business environments and distinction between the roles of men and women (AlQahtani, 2013). Masculine culture in Bahrain is also characterized by

rigid rules and procedures, competition, and hierarchies (Zhang et al., 2007). On the other hand, Saudi Arabia generally has a higher masculinity culture than Bahrain, which means that there is more disparity between the roles of men and women, as well as more emphasis on hierarchy, power, authority, and financial status (Al-Rasheed, 2013). In contrast, Hofstede (1980) and several studies report a more balanced gender orientation in UAE, which suggests that not all Arab nations share the same masculine beliefs. Specifically, UAE not just values power, but also traits such as quality of life, compassion, and human relations (AlQahtani, 2013).

Aside from high masculinity, Arab culture is also generally known for its short-term orientation. Hofstede (2004) reported that both Saudi Arabia and UAE have short-term orientation or low pragmatism as they give high value to traditions and norms. Since societal change is usually shunned in this type of culture, quick results are preferred over long-term results. Therefore, leaders and managers prefer to target short-term goals, and are usually reactive to problems (Hofstede, 2004). In contrast to most Arab nations, certain studies found evidences that Bahrain practices long-term orientation as organizations venture more into long-term goals than short-term ones (Khashman & Large, 2010). Nonetheless, Bahrain is still below Western countries in terms of time orientation, which indicates that certain organizations may not be willing to risk its resources and time to certain goals if it conflicts with certain cultural traditions (Zhang et al., 2007).

The cultural traits associated with Arab culture poses many disadvantages, particularly in the adoption and implementation of flexible leadership styles such as transformational

and transactional leadership. As reported in the study of Rao and Pearce (2016), a low power distance culture with flexible rules command better team responses as it promotes better collaboration and innovation among members. In contrast, high power distance cultures may lead to a “culture of silence”, as employees are discouraged to question and challenge the decision of their superiors (Puni & Alesinya, 2017). As confirmed in one study, it indoctrinate employees to accept hierarchical inequalities as part of work, and are therefore discouraged to complain regarding the behaviors and actions of leaders (Mulki et al., 2015). Similarly, high uncertainty avoidance basically promotes rules and regulations but also poses risks of stifling the growth of employees as it endorses risk-averse behaviours (AlQahtany, 2013). High masculinity may help legitimize these beliefs as it promotes positive perceptions toward authority and reliance on rules and procedures, as well as gender roles (Hofstede, 2003). On the other hand, short-term orientation may prevent the prioritization of research and development, which cause stagnation to the organization (Hofstede, 2004). Overall, the combination of these dimensions may be detrimental to employee motivation and empowerment, as they prevent the adoption of more flexible leadership styles and block innovative efforts from employees.

On the contrary, high collectivism may be advantageous when it comes to building social networks and mediating complex social problems (Balakrishnan, 2009). It could also promote stronger in-group team cohesion as it values the importance of social relations, whether in personal or professional settings (Wendt et al., 2009; AlQahtany, 2013). Further, it can also promote knowledge transfer as employees in collectivist-

oriented organizations showed higher intentions to share knowledge than individualist-oriented ones (Yu, 2014). However, one of its disadvantages is that it could lead to the widespread practice of nepotism, which is known to negatively affect the hiring process and deflate the morale of those who witness the practice (Al Azri, 2010; Aldraehim et al., 2012). Collectivism can also prevent employees to think independently as they are expected to always agree with the in-group (AlQahtany, 2013).

5.3. ANGLO VERSUS ARAB LEADERSHIP STYLE

Another important aspect in the study's theoretical framework is leadership style, which is conceptualized as a variable that can be influenced by the culture. Literature suggests that this is possible, implying that dimensions of national culture indeed shape the way managers perceive leadership necessities and responsibilities (Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 1995; Pimpa & Moore, 2012; Vailati, 2014; Dabic et al., 2015; El-Majid & Cohen, 2015; Vandayani et al., 2015; Nicsevic, 2016). For one, the GLOBE study on culture and leadership, which is considered as the most comprehensive study on the relationship between the two variables, provided insightful findings on how leadership styles differ by national culture (House et al., 1995; House et al., 2004). It basically contributed evidences on the superiority of Anglo countries on leadership styles and how their culture as contributed to the adoption of these styles. Specifically, it concluded that countries such as the United States, United Kingdom, and Canada possessed high charismatic and value based leadership traits, as well as participative and humane-oriented traits (House et al., 2004). In contrast, Anglo managers were found to have low

self-protective traits (House et al., 2004), which are akin to what Bass and Avolio (2004) described as laissez-faire leadership.

Several findings on the implementation and effectiveness of transformational leadership in Western companies confirm the preferences of Anglo managers found in the GLOBE study (Ilies et al., 2006; Rowold & Scholtz, 2009; Beck-Tauber, 2012; Arthur & Hardy, 2014; Callier, 2014; Menon, 2014; Brandt & Edinger, 2015; Soane et al., 2015; Baskarada et al., 2017; Lajoei et al., 2017). Some of the studies that were already discussed in Chapter 4 revealed that transformational leadership can lead to employee motivation (Ilies et al., 2006), prevention of chronic stress among employees (Rowold & Scholtz, 2009), promotion of trust and relationship-building (Beck-Tauber, 2012), and improvement of performance (Callier, 2014). Additional literatures provided further support on the applicability and compatibility of transformational leadership in Western cultures. The quasi-experimental study of Arthur and Hardy (2014), for instance, investigated the impact of transformational leadership on improving poor performance and found positive results. They used a pre-test post-test quasi-experimental among 3,973 samples from the UK to determine if there were any significance changes that may have been brought by transformational leadership intervention. The results of the study indicated that transformational leadership had beneficial effects as the post-group respondents showed positive changes in their perception of leadership and improved their bond with their group. Further, the results also showed that transformational leadership can lead to improvement in performance. The study proved that

transformational leadership can be successfully applied in Western settings and can benefit the organization in the long-run (Arthur & Hardy, 2014).

Menon (2014) also explored transformational leadership in Western settings, specifically its effects on job satisfaction among samples from Cyprus. An adapted version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was used to collect data from 438 respondents. The results showed that transformational and transactional forms of leadership were the most perceived styles among the respondents, whereas laissez-faire leadership was the least perceived style (Menon, 2014). The results also found supporting evidences for the FLRM's three-structure model, specifically the impact of leadership styles on job satisfaction. However, Menon (2014) confirmed that the case in Cyprus was different as "perceived leader effectiveness and job satisfaction were seen as leading respondents to identify specific leadership behaviors" (p.523). Overall, the results suggested that job satisfaction may be situational in certain settings and that transformational leadership traits may need to be combined with other leadership traits to promote satisfaction.

Brandt and Edinger (2015) explored the existence of transformational leadership in teams among respondents in Finland and found positive results. A total of 104 team leaders and 672 team members were surveyed using Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) developed by Kouzes and Posner (1988). The findings revealed that *Enabling*, *Modeling*, and *Rewarding* were significant transformational leadership traits found among teams, On the other hand, *Challenging* was less significant, whereas *Visioning*

was not significant. Basically, the leader respondents preferred to enable their followers to act, and to model their way, rather than to challenge them or to share their visions with them (Brandt & Edinger, 2015). The authors also found that the preference of leadership style may depend on one's personality as extroverted and judging personalities were found to possess more transformational leadership traits than introverted ones.

The link between personality and transformational leadership was also confirmed in the study of Soane et al. (2015), but the focus was on how the personality could affect the follower's perception on leadership effectiveness. The study, which investigated sailing race respondents from the UK, also found evidences on the application of transformational leadership in Western settings and its positive effects on performance. Further, the study also found that perceived leadership effectiveness may affect leadership performance (Soane et al., 2015).

Baskarada et al. (2017) conducted a qualitative research on transformational and transactional leadership among Australian respondents to determine if the adoption of these traits were situational. The findings revealed the applicability and compatibility of both types of leadership in the organization, but found that each style is only preferred on certain situations. For instance, transactional approaches were used in short-term problems, risk mitigation and safety, and scarcity for human capital (Baskarada et al., 2017). On the other hand, transformational leadership was preferred during periods of radical change, or times when employees are needed to be motivated constantly to

maintain satisfactory performance (Baskarada et al., 2017). The respondents reported the need to adapt an ambidextrous style of leadership wherein the leader delegates transactional and transformational tasks strategically. Accordingly, the combination of both styles was perceived to be the most effective as they cover each situation as they arise.

Lajoei et al. (2017) conducted a study on 1,934 Canadian employees using self-reported data to determine the role of value congruence and tenure on the positive effects of transformational leadership. The results not only revealed the wide existence and application of transformational leadership traits, but also the enhancing of value congruence on the leadership style. As stressed by Shamir et al. (1993), one of the tasks of a transformational leader is to make the already existing values of the organization more potent. Basically, for a message to have a charismatic effect, the message must be congruent to the held values of the receiver. Lajoei et al. (2017) stated that a bivariate model that predicts the relationship between leadership and outcome is limited, as certain elements such as value congruence can stand as a substitute to leadership styles. Further, leadership style effectiveness was also affected by tenure as transformational approaches seemed to work only among new employees.

Literature suggests that laissez-faire leadership is almost non-existent in Western setting as most studies on leadership styles basically confirm the existence and applicability of transformational and transactional leadership approaches. This is basically consistent with the results of GLOBE study, which indicates that the modern

Western style of management is almost free from self-protective traits, but is abundant in charismatic, value-based, and participative leadership traits (House et al., 2004). Basically, their understanding of modern leadership approaches has already matured, and research efforts have been shifted on more specific issues that affect the FRLM model. Several insights such as the situational nature of transformational leadership, the need to combine it with transactional approaches, the role of employee personality in leadership perceptions, and the role of value-congruence as a mediator between transformational style and outcome have all contributed to the advancement of leadership research in the Western world.

In contrast to the Anglo cluster's straightforward results, the Middle East cluster in GLOBE study displayed confusing results that may reflect the complexity of Arab and Islam-based cultures (House et al., 2004). The results from the cluster, which included samples of managers from Qatar, Morocco, Kuwait, and Egypt, revealed that Arab managers were predominantly self-protective, as opposed to Western managers who were found to lack self-protective traits (Smith et al., 2007; Zaraket, 2014). The Middle East cluster scored high in *Self-Protectiveness* and *Autonomy*, while ranked the lowest in traits that are essential to transformational and transactional leadership, such as *Charismatic/Value-Based*, *Team Orientation*, *Participative*, and *Human Orientation* (House et al., 2004). Basically, this implies that for Arab managers, the most important factor in leadership is self-preservation, which basically means protecting the status-quo and saving face when necessary, as well as overreliance on rules and procedures (Smith et al., 2007). This is consistent with previous research on Arab traditional culture,

wherein saving face and utilizing influences are widespread accepted practices (Al-Yahya, 2008; Obeidat et al., 2012; Barnet et al., 2013). Flexing one's influence is a traditional practice known as "wasta", which also means a social contract within a group, which obliges it to provide social assistance when necessary (Barnet et al., 2013).

The duality of Arab leadership styles described in House et al.'s (2004) research was confirmed in the study of Shahin and Wright (2004), which found that the leadership style of managers in Egypt consists of different factors from Bass and Avolio's (2004) FLRM, as well as factors that are unique to Egyptian culture. Factor analysis from the 243 responses of Egyptian bank managers revealed that Egyptian leadership style includes elements of transformational leadership, passive management-by-exception, and laissez-faire. However, other factors of leadership outside the FLRM were found, such as bureaucratic leadership, social integration, and authoritarian leadership (Shahin & Wright, 2004). The findings somewhat reflect House et al.'s (2004) conclusion that Arab countries accepts Western leadership approaches, but prioritizes the more deeply rooted practice of self-preservation. As discussed by Shahin and Wright (2004), the Egyptian bureaucracy factor in the results represents the tendency of the managers to become passive problem solvers and blame their own mistakes to other subordinates. Shahin and Wright (2004) confirmed the existence of the "blame culture", which often absolves those who are truly responsible for the mistakes.

Smith et al.'s (2007) study on the diversity of Arab managerial styles also provided less than flattering insights regarding the way Arab managers lead. A total of 538 Arab

samples from Saudi Arabia, Beirut, Lebanon, Qatar and Oman were surveyed regarding their preferred guidance on eight work events. The results revealed leadership approach patterns that include “high reliance on formal rules, unwritten rules, on co-workers and on subordinates, as well as low reliance on one’s own experience and training and on one’s superior” (Smith et al., 2007, p.286). These findings were stronger among Saudi respondents but were weaker among the other countries covered. Apparently, Lebanon, Qatar, and Oman were more likely to combine traditional leadership approaches with modern ones.

The secondary data research conducted by Al-Shabbani (2015) revealed further deficiencies in Arab leadership style. Some of these confirm findings from House et al. (2004) and Smith et al. (2007), which include overreliance on formal rules and prioritizing self-preservation. Similar to the findings of Shahin and Wright (2004), the existence of a “blame culture” was also found as Arab managers prefer not to admit errors as it is considered as sign of weakness (Al-Shabbani, 2015). Low participation of employees on decision making was also prevalent, as decision making in Arab culture are reserved only for the few who are in higher position. Al-Shabbani (2015) basically confirmed the influence of Arab culture on their leadership styles.

In contrast to the few studies that emphasized the traditional nature of Arab leadership, several studies have fully diverted their attention to more positive leadership traits. One example is the study of Randeree and Chaudhry (2012) on the leadership styles of Arab managers in the UAE construction sector. A total of three companies were surveyed,

producing a total of 251 individual responses. The results revealed that the managers mostly utilize consensus and consultative leadership styles (Randeree & Chaudhry, 2012). Further, the results also showed that the leadership approaches to decision making affect employee job satisfaction. In an earlier study, Yousef (1998) concluded that a consultative style of leadership was the most effective approach in organizations based in UAE as consultation is inherent in Islamic and Arab traditions.

Similarly, Butler (2009) conducted research on the leadership approaches of managers in UAE, but focused more on multicultural organizations. The findings of the study revealed the importance of maintaining relationship with employees through quality exchanges between the leader and the employees. Further, the leader must constantly give positive evaluations and meet the needs of employees to motivate employees both intrinsically and extrinsically (Butler, 2009). Another particular finding that stood out was the need for leaders to provide as much work experience to employees as experience was significantly related to job satisfaction. Overall, the study provided support on the importance of consultative and consensus style of management in Arab-managed organizations.

Few studies found not just the existence of consultative and consensus decision making, but also FLRM elements in the leadership practices of Arab managers. For instance, Chaudhry et al. (2012) found evidences elements of transformational and transactional leadership among the leadership practices of Pakistani bank managers. It confirmed the positive effects of transformational and transactional approaches on

employee motivation, whereas the combination of both approaches would produce the best results. A follow-up study strengthened support for transactional leadership, while also providing evidences on the insignificance of laissez-faire style in motivating employees (Chaudhry & Javed, 2012). Similarly, a study conducted by Khalifa and Ayoubi (2015) on the leadership styles of managers in public and private universities in Syria also found evidences on the practice of transformational and transactional leadership among Arab managers. The survey results, which consisted of 160 samples from a public university, and 56 samples from a private university, confirmed the use of transformational and transactional approaches. Nonetheless, only contingent reward (transactional) and inspirational motivation (transformational) were found to have significant impact on organizational learning. Finally, a more recent study by Prabhakar et al. (2016) also found the existence of transformational leadership elements in the field of sports management in UAE, while investigating their effects on Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR). The study revealed the existence of all transformational leadership elements except individualized consideration, but found no significant relationship to CSR orientation. The author suggested that the company's lack of individualized consideration contributed to its weak CSR.

Aside from the studies reviewed above, a small number of studies conducted in Bahrain offered little insights on the transformational leadership practices of Bahraini managers. One particular study was Raman and Rajan's (2012) study on the impact of transformational leadership on knowledge management practices. Using the MLQ as the survey instrument, Raman and Rajan (2012) surveyed a total of 95 Bahraini

respondents and found the existence of transformational elements, as well as positive correlations between transformational leadership and knowledge management practices. Similarly, Birasnav et al. (2013) also found positive relationship between transformational leadership and knowledge management among Bahraini respondents. Specifically, transformational leadership was found to have positive effects on product and process innovation, mediated by knowledge transfer and application (Birasnav et al., 2013).

In addition to transformational leadership, Hawaldar et al. (2016) also found the existence of transactional leadership practices and their role in motivating Bahraini employees. The study surveyed 50 bank managers from Conventional and Islamic Commercial Banks in the Kingdom of Bahrain and found leadership factors that can be found from transactional and transformational leadership approaches. The factors identified include *Team Orientation and Development, Facilities and Environment, Motivation and Rewards, Risk Taking, Rules and Regulations, Delegation, Self-Management, and Interpersonal Relations* (Hawaldar et al., 2016). Among these factors, *Interpersonal Relations* was found to be the most important, followed by *Team Orientation and Development*. The study also found evidences on the importance of *Risk Taking* in facilitating motivation and reward.

5.3.1. Islamic Leadership

Earlier research on Arab leadership suggested theories that most Arab leaders endorse Islamic beliefs in their management and leadership approaches (Abu Sin, 1981; Ali,

1992; Moursi, 1995). For many Arab leaders, Islamic leadership is a unique leadership paradigm that promotes *Personal Piety*, *Moral*, and *Quality* (Ahmad, 2008). *Personal Piety* endorses trustworthiness, justice, sincerity, honesty, gratefulness, and courage, while *Moral* calls for the practice of caring, cooperation, courtesy, humility, tolerance and respect. Finally, *Quality* refers to effectiveness, efficiency, innovativeness, discipline, commitment, and learning (Ahmad, 2008; Ali, 2009). Accordingly, Islam expects the leader to take the role of a servant and a guardian (Jabnoun, 1994), which literally means serving and protecting his subordinates as he leads them (Crippen, 2005). Islamic leaders are also required to possess and practice spiritual awareness, as well as rationality in dealing with people (Marbun, 2013).

One interesting aspect of Islamic leadership is that it draws and promotes motivation through a set of Islamic principles, which include views on instincts, incentives, and commitment (Ahmad, 2009). Motivation is also divided into intrinsic and extrinsic factors, but also includes one's level of spiritual maturity and moral development (Ahmad, 2009). Intrinsic motivation can be achieved through building personal relationships with employees and sharing with them useful ideals that may guide them in their self-development and growth in the organization (Ali, 2009). Ali (2009) noted that both personalism and idealism are important in Islamic leadership as it enables followers to identify with the leader not only on a personal level, but also with the leader's visions and ideals.

Previous studies in Islamic leadership show consistency with Arab cultural labels. For instance, the study of Hunt and At-Twajiri (1996) confirmed the high collectivism in Arab organizations as they reported that executives from Saudi Arabia value friendships and connections more than the goals and objectives of the organization. This basically means that given the choice, managers may choose to protect or endorse a relative even if it means disrupting the productivity in the company. On the other hand, Ali (2009) theorized that Islamic leadership poses the risk of descending into authoritarian leadership in situations wherein the leader fails to attain belief and value cohesiveness, and fails to clarify ideologies and visions to followers. Additionally, the tendency of Islamic leaders to feel high sense of belongingness, recognition, approval, and dissatisfaction with present affairs could lead to authoritarian rule because such feelings create a collision of reality and ideals, which leads self-infatuation, failure to admit shortcomings, and inability to make tangible progress (Ali, 2009). Further, Islamic leadership values masculine over feminine values, which means that power and authority are viewed as more attractive than compassion and kindness to others (Hodges, 2017). This can be reflected from the lack of leadership opportunities for women in Arab societies (Hodges, 2017). Several studies also found a lack of employee involvement in the decision-making process, which reflect the high uncertainty avoidance in Arab culture (Al-Hajiri, 1997).

Interestingly, several studies found transformational and transactional leadership elements embedded with Islamic leadership. One example is the study of Ahmad and Ogunsula (2011) on Islamic leadership principles, which found that Islamic managers in

Malaysia possess mostly servant leadership traits, followed by transactional, and finally by transformational leadership traits. These traits are combined or are carefully selected when situations demand, suggesting the flexibility of Islamic leadership. Another study is Hidayat et al.'s (2017) investigation on the leadership styles of government managers in Bahrain, which revealed the prevalence of transactional styles, followed by transformational styles. Interestingly, the results also revealed that only few managers practice a laissez-faire approach. In contrast, Galanou and Farrag's (2015) study on Qatar Islamic leaders found that transformational leadership traits are more statistically significant with Islamic leadership. Using the Portrait Value Questionnaire (PVQ), they found significant positive associations between transformational leadership and Islamic leadership. Similarly, the study of Hashim et al. (2017) on employees in Malaysia's anti-drug enforcement agencies revealed significant relationships between the two variables. Imran et al.'s (2016) study on Pakistani leaders also revealed the existence of transformational leadership styles and its significant effects on organizational learning. Overall, these results suggest that Islamic leadership has distinctive similarities with modern leadership approaches. As stressed by Mir (2010), the Islamic approach promotes self-development among employees, mutual consultation, humility, piety, and social responsibility, all of which are attuned with the principles of FRLM.

5.3.2. Duality in Arab Leadership

Analysis on Arab and Islamic leadership suggests the duality in Arab leadership approaches. On one hand, Arab managers practice traditional leadership approaches that promotes large power gaps, overreliance to rules and policies, respect for power

and authority, and collectivistic relationships (Hunt & At-Twajiri, 1996; Al-Hajiri, 1997; Shahin & Wright, 2004; Smith et al., 2007; Ali, 2009; Al-Shabbani, 2015; Hodges, 2017). On another, Arab leaders possess and practice transformational and transactional leadership traits, which are basically the exact opposites of traditional leadership approaches, or otherwise known as laissez-faire (Butler, 2009; Ahmad & Ogunsula, 2011; Chaudhry et al., 2012; Chaudhry & Javed, 2012; Raman & Rajan's, 2012; Randeree & Chaudhry, 2012; Birasnav et al., 2013; Khalifa & Ayoubi, 2015; Hawaldar et al., 2016; Prabhakar et al., 2016; Hidayat et al., 2017). A possible explanation in this phenomenon is the presence of Western expatriates in Arab territories over the years, resulting in the region's introduction to modern management and leadership concepts (Taleghani et al., 2010). These expatriates, as well foreign workers, have exported values that are different from Arab culture, providing local managers the option to adopt alternative strategies in leadership and other fields of management (Smith et al., 2007). In the study conducted by Ali et al. (1995) on the managerial values of expatriates in UAE, it was found that expatriates generally held different value systems as compared to local employees. Further, these values greatly differ depending on the expatriate's country of origin. For instance, Ali et al. (1995) found that expatriates from Western countries generally displayed individualistic traits, whereas expatriates from other Gulf countries displayed collectivistic traits. However, the expatriate's capability to influence values of employees from host country depends on several factors such as nationality, managerial level position, level of conformist behavior, relationship between expatriate's government and host country, and labor laws (Ali et al., 1995; Atiyah, 1996).

Additionally, another factor is the host country's tolerance for foreign values and behavior (Neal, 2010).

5.4. MOTIVATION IN ARAB CULTURE

Several studies have explored the link of motivation to Islam, was discussed earlier as an integral part of Arab leadership. A specific example is the study of Fakhar Zaman et al. (2013), which hypothesized that intrinsic motivation mediates between Islamic work ethics and job satisfaction. The findings of their study revealed a significant positive relationship between Islamic work ethics and intrinsic motivation, and that intrinsic motivation mediates the relationship between job satisfaction and Islamic work ethics (Fakhar Zaman et al., 2013).

Another interesting study is that of Sulaiman et al. (2014), who investigated the motivation of Muslim managers. The study found the significance of Islamic faith in shaping the motivation of the managers and their ways of shaping the motivation of their employees. As stated by one of the respondents, their ways of motivating their employees must take into consideration their Islamic beliefs. The study also found that Muslims were more intrinsically motivated than extrinsically motivated, basically due to their adherence to Islamic principles when making decisions and handling feelings of desires and needs.

The high intrinsic motivation among Muslims can be further explained by Alawneh's (1998) accounts on the basic characteristics of Islamic motivation. Alawneh (1998)

explained that there are five characteristics, which include: the hierarchical nature of motives; clarity of aims and objectives; high importance of goals and aims; realism, and; comprehensibility. As discussed by Alawneh (1998), Muslims have known about the hierarchies of needs before Maslow presented it in the 1940s. Further, they are also more likely to be intrinsically motivated due to their dedication to balance to earthly desires and spiritual beliefs.

Another example is the study of Lim (2013), which explored the work motivators of employees from Saudi Arabia and United Arab Emirates. The results revealed that employees from UAE were motivated more by extrinsic factors such as career advancements, salaries, and promotions. On the other hand, Saudi Arabia employees had higher intrinsic motivation as they were more interested in work variations, challenges, and various things that make everyday work more interesting (Lim, 2013). The author explained that these differences were found perhaps due to the stricter practice of Islam among Saudi respondents, which basically means they were conditioned from the start to give less importance to material things, and more emphasis on intrinsic factors such as personal growth (Lim, 2013). A similar comparison of results was found in the study of Sadi and Al-Ghazali (2012), wherein Saudi respondents were also found to be more intrinsically motivated than Bahraini respondents. This suggests that culture, which is tied to stricter enforcement of religion and politics, may have a strong influence on the motivation values of the employees. Another study that supports these findings is the study of Al-Hazmi (2010) on Saudi Arabian educators, which revealed that most of them were more motivated with intrinsic

factors than extrinsic factors. An earlier study conducted by Abboushi (1990) also found evidences on the strong intrinsic motivation of Arab employees due to their motivation to become involved in different activities, their preferences on certain activities, and their strong sense of pride toward their work. Another form of intrinsic motivation found among Arab employees was their affiliation to certain groups. In the study of Yasin and Stahl (1990), it was found that Arab managers were more motivated in acquiring several affiliations than rising up the ranks, mainly because of their high collectivistic culture. A later study conducted by Wils et al. (2011) found supplemental evidences that even the younger generation of Arab employees still possess high collectivistic traits, which influences their motivation orientation.

In summary, there is basically a modest progress in the study of motivation with the different dimensions of culture in Islamic settings. For instance, affiliation seems to be a source of both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation among Arab managers due to high collectivistic culture (Abboushi, 1990; Yasin & Stahl, 1990; Wis et al., 2011). Further, most of these studies also confirmed the high intrinsic motivation among Arab managers, which can be rooted from their culture of affiliation and traditional Islamic beliefs. However, there is still room for more exploration as only certain types of demographics have been thoroughly investigated. Although intrinsic motivation among Muslims has been investigated by several researchers, there is still lack of research on other geographies wherein Islam is also prevalent, such as the Arab nations in the Middle East. Furthermore, it also includes lack of study on intrinsic motivation and its relationship on several dependent variables. An example is the relationship between

leadership and motivation is still unclear among Arab societies. These issues can be addressed by exploring the issue of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation in Bahrain settings, since the country is underrepresented in these types of studies.

5.5. IMPACT OF LEADERSHIP ON EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION

Taylor (1911) was the first to suggest that certain leadership styles could lead to the motivation of employees to change their working patterns, basically through the scientific approach to management. On the other hand, early studies on transformational and charismatic leadership, such as those presented by Burns (Ledlow & Coppola, 2010) and Bass (Northouse, 2012) suggested that those styles could boost the followers' motivational needs from the bottom to the top level of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Burns was the first to propose that a charismatic style could improve the judging ability of followers because their moralities are improved (Ledlow & Coppola, 2010). Several authors theorized that employees could be motivated through the selflessness showed by transformational and charismatic leaders, inspiring employees to become selfless as well for the benefit of the organisation (House, 1977; Ledlow & Coppola, 2010; Northouse, 2012). House et al. (1995) later introduced the role of self-concepts in the relationship between leadership style and follower motivation.

Transformational and charismatic styles implicate the self-concepts of the followers, which engage their self-consistency, self-worth, self-esteem, and self-expression.

Aside from theoretical literatures, a number of peer-reviewed studies were also conducted to test the relationship between leadership style of leaders and the

motivation of their followers. A study conducted by Tyagi (1985) on 111 life insurance employees revealed significant results on the relationship between job dimensions, leadership style and job satisfaction. The regression analysis of the results revealed that job dimensions were important in influencing the intrinsic motivation of employees than their extrinsic motivation. Further, autonomy and feedback also positively affected the performance of the employees. Regarding leadership behaviour, the results showed that leadership traits, especially hierarchical influence, significantly influenced the extrinsic motivation of employees more than their intrinsic motivation. This result contrasted findings on the impact of significant leadership styles on employee motivation. However, it should be noted that Tyagi's (1985) research was conducted at a time when the concept of transformational leadership was still in its infancy. Tyagi (1985) used an instrument developed by Jones et al. (1977), which contained some of the elements of different types of leadership but was generally a generic means to obtain information on the transactional and authoritative traits of leaders. In other words, dimensions of transformational leadership were left out, which was why leadership was more significantly related to extrinsic motivation than intrinsic motivation.

Barbuto Jr. (2005) conducted a study that tested the impact of leadership styles not on employee motivation, but the motivation of the leaders themselves. The aim of the study was to determine whether motivation could be an antecedent to full range leadership. The results revealed several correlations between certain types of leadership and dimensions of motivation. However, self-reports on transformational leadership produced higher correlation with motivation than any types of leadership or full range

leadership (Barbuto Jr., 2005). Further, the results revealed that internal motivations had higher correlation to transformational leadership, while external motivation had higher correlation to transactional leadership. Nonetheless, the correlation between leadership and motivation produced small effects, which questions the importance of leadership style in determining the leader's motivation.

Ilies et al. (2006) presented a model that attempted to explain the influence of transformational leadership on follower's motivation. The model was based on past research on charismatic leadership and transformational leadership that found evidences on their effects on employee effectiveness, performance, and motivation. They conceptualized that transformational leadership could influence the behavioural components of follower's motivation through affective and cognitive processes. These processes influence the direction, amplitude, and persistence variable of the individual. The framework posited that the leader's affective state influences the affective state of the followers themselves, which would eventually affect motivation. In this regard, positive emotions could result to various types of positive outputs that could lead to employee motivation. On the other hand, cognitive processes emphasized the effects of transformational leadership on the vision and goal-setting capabilities of the employees. The ability to come up with visions could lead to the development of useful goals, which could lead to follower efficacy, self-set goals, direction, persistence, and amplitude (Ilies et al., 2006). The framework could establish the link between transformational leadership and motivation, but was unfortunately not tested. Nonetheless, Ilies et al.

(2006) suggested that future tests should be conducted to confirm the relationship between the two variables.

A study conducted by Rowold and Scholtz (2009) interestingly explored the impact of leadership styles on chronic stresses in the workplace. Based on the survey results of 244 German government agency employees, the results revealed that a passive management-by-exception style of leadership was positively correlated with all four types of chronic stresses, namely social conflicts, too much work and social pressures, performance pressures, and dissatisfaction with work and social recognition (Rowold & Scholtz, 2009). Further, the results also revealed that transformational leadership had significant negative relationship with all four types of chronic stress. These results suggest that such style can significantly reduce the chronic stress of employees, whereas transactional type and traditional type can increase them. However, the study's main limitation was similar to previous those of previous studies as it was also conducted through a cross-sectional quantitative approach.

The study conducted by Chaudhry et al. (2012) explored the relationship between leadership styles and employee motivation among bank employees in Pakistani banking firms. The study's research design was descriptive, and an MLQ-based questionnaire was distributed to a total of 350 respondents. The results found evidence that all four elements of transformational leadership – idealized behaviour, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration – had significant positive relationships with motivation. This confirmed the correlation between transformational

leadership and employee motivation, at least in Pakistani setting. Nonetheless, the results interestingly showed that the relationship between transactional leadership and employee motivation was also high, which was particularly higher than the relationship between transformational leadership and motivation. This indicates that transformational leadership can be combined with transactional leadership to enhance employee motivation, particularly in Pakistan culture and bank setting.

Chaudhry and Javed (2012) conducted another study on the relationship between leadership and motivation in Pakistani banks, but focused more on the effects of transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership on employee motivation. Similar to the previous study conducted by Chaudhry and colleagues (Chaudhry et al., 2012), employees of banking firms in Pakistan were surveyed. The results also revealed that transactional leadership had significant positive correlation with employee motivation. However, the results showed that laissez-faire leadership had very low significance, which indicated that it was the least effective method.

Lidong and Xinxin (2013) investigated the relationship between employee work motivation and ethical leadership, an element important in the utilization of transformation style. The respondents were employees from two multinational companies based in China, which were surveyed using scales in work motivation and ethical leadership perception. Data analysis confirmed the correlation between perceptions on ethical leadership and intrinsic work motivation, as well as the correlation between innovative work behaviour and ethical leadership. Group ethical

leadership was also significantly related to individual intrinsic work motivation, while intrinsic individual motivation partially mediated the relationship between ethical leadership perception and innovative behaviour, and fully mediated the relationship between group ethical leadership and innovative work behaviour (Lidong & Xinxin, 2013).

El-Salam et al. (2013) conducted a study on the interrelation between leadership, job satisfaction, and motivation among 455 employees of a construction company in Egypt and found significant results. The findings revealed significant positive correlations between leadership support and motivation, in both intrinsic and extrinsic types. Leadership support was also found positively correlated with job satisfaction. Further, leadership was also found correlated with psychological empowerment, meaningfulness, choice, and impact. The results showed the importance of improving the leadership capabilities of the organisation in order to boost employee motivation and satisfaction. However, the research was limited only to quantitative studies, which was basically the same as most studies conducted about leadership in the past.

One of the few qualitative studies that focused on leadership was Beck-Tauber's (2012) unpublished dissertation on the Social Enterprise for Economic Development Program (SEED). The program involved Asian and European students who were sent in rural settings to engage in social entrepreneurship activities. Beck-Tauber (2012) collected data based on the students' actions as transformational leaders through the activities they engaged in, and the tasks they performed and completed. Data were gathered from the students' written reports, wherein which they were free to disclose anything

they considered important during the course of the SEED program. Reflections on their experiences, exchanges with the villagers and their teammates, learning, events, and activities were provided in the written reports. Data were analyzed using open coding and categorization, which later revealed that familiarization on the different contexts of the situations played an important role on the completion of transformational leadership tasks. Trust, awareness of frames, reframing, empathy, stimulating mindsets, empowering, were also found important in facilitating transformational tasks. Beck-Tauber (2012) stated: "In antecedent processes, leaders and follower interact in the familiarizing, relationship building and transformational learning" (p.120). After these activities, both are contextualized to the core process of influencing. Findings also revealed that transformational leaders achieved transformation by empowering the followers, and help them generate ideas by stimulating their mindsets (Beck-Tauber, 2012).

The study conducted by Callier (2014) also revealed the interrelation between transformational leadership, public sector motivation, mission valence, and performance. The respondents included federal, state, and local government employees, who were surveyed using a web-based approach. The results revealed that employee evaluations were positively affected by the relationship between transformational leadership and public sector motivation. Further, a significant positive relationship was also found between transformational leadership and performance, which was further strengthened by the employees' mission valence. Interestingly,

results did not find any evidence showing that motivation also strengthened the relationship between performance and transformational leadership.

Nonetheless, leadership in public sectors seems to be more complex because it involves not only organisational leadership, but also political leadership (Tripathi, 2014). Apparently, political leaders are the ones who are the most capable to influence and develop policies, whereas organisational leaders, or managers, have the least influence and are reserved only to the implementation of policies (Tripathi, 2014). Political leaders in the public sector rely on public interests to shape their policies. These interests are basically used to negotiate policies with constituents, to see which policies are acceptable to them or are aligned with their common interests (Dixon et al., 2007). Tripathi (2014) noted that while political leaders are good with policy development, they prefer to stay away from management and implementation. In contrast, organisational leaders lack the power to write down and pass policies. Therefore, leadership effectiveness in the public sector in the context of positively affecting performance is blurred between organisational and political leadership (Tripathi, 2014). Tripathi (2014) suggested that performances can be maximized only by finding the right balance between the two approaches. This may explain the lack of significance of motivation on the relationship between performance and transformational leadership in the study of Callier (2014). Considering these ideas, the effectiveness of leadership seems to be affected by external factors such as politics. In order for the leader to extract most of the effectiveness from his style, he should consider identifying these external factors and analyze them from different angles to determine the right approaches to balance his

style, to make it more effective to different stakeholders. Since politics is considered, then culture should also be considered as it is an underlying factor that may affect political motives and actions.

In summary, there is wealth of research on the relationship between transformational leadership and motivation. However, the results are still conflicting as some studies did not find significant relationship between the two variables (Callier, 2014), or that transactional leadership can return higher intrinsic motivation than transformational leadership (Chaudry et al., 2012). Further, aside from conflicting findings, studies on transformational leadership and motivation are similarly widely dispersed geographically. This raises many questions, including the generalisability of the relationship between the two variables on different sets of respondents, different settings, and different controlled environment. One particular issue that is still unclear is the importance of culture in the relationship between the two variables. This was first raised by Eisenberg (1999) but has failed to produce any follow up investigations apart from the study of Hagger et al. (2014), which found evidences that individualistic and collectivistic employees externalize their intrinsic motivation differently. Interestingly, the study of Furnham et al. (2005) found that differences in the externalization of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation can be based on the personality of the employees. Further, several investigations revealed that the effectiveness of leadership may be blurred by the dynamics between organisational and political responsibilities, at least in the public sector (Dixon et al., 2007; Tripathi, 2014). This considers the importance of external factors that may affect leadership implementation, such as culture. This mirrors the

complexity of motivating employees as motivation factors are externalized differently by different types of people from different types of culture. Several studies that investigate intrinsic motivation among Muslim respondents also confirmed this, as they found that Islamic values contribute to the balance of the Muslim employees' extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (Alawneh, 1998; Fakhar Zaman et al., 2013; Sulaiman et al., 2014).

Unfortunately, studies that further explore this relationship among Muslims are fairly limited. Further, there appears to be a lack of investigation toward leadership and motivation in Arab countries.

5.6. HYPOTHESES AND INDUCTIVE RESEARCH

The current study's literature review established the existence of transactional and transformational elements in Arab leadership approaches, as well as the work values of employees being skewed more toward intrinsic factors than extrinsic ones. Specifically, due to larger disparity in power distribution, and the influence of Islam, it can be assumed that extrinsic motivation is only secondary among Arab employees. However, because of the large power distance and uncertainty avoidance, the attractiveness of rewards may only be available in higher managerial positions, which leads to the assumption that managers have different work motivation values as compared to regular employees. Therefore, the study has developed the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1^a: The motivation orientation of Bahraini employees is leaning more toward intrinsic work values than extrinsic work values.

Hypothesis 1^b: There is a significant difference between the work motivation values of employees and managers.

The potential to explore these hypotheses was first emphasized with the study's second research question, which was asking about the work values (intrinsic and extrinsic motivation) of Bahraini employees under specific leadership styles. Literatures in Islamic studies suggest that Arab motivation is strongly rooted in Islamic values, which promote the attainment of intrinsic rewards as opposed to extrinsic rewards (Abboushi, 1990; Yasin & Stahl, 1990; Alawneh, 1998; Wils et al., 2011; Fakhar Zaman et al., 2013; Sulaiman et al., 2014). However, this is not to say that extrinsic motivation does not serve its purpose in Arab culture. For instance, less stricter Arab nations such Bahrain and UAE appeared to be more extrinsically motivated as compared to Saudi Arabia (Sadi & Al-Ghazali, 2012; Lim, 2013). Further, Arab managers also appeared to be more concerned about their affiliation as compared to non-managers, which strongly dictates both their intrinsic and extrinsic motivation (Abboushi, 1990; Yasin & Stahl, 1990; Wis et al., 2011).

As stated in Chapter 1, the first research question of the study was concerned about the most prevalent styles of leadership among Bahraini managers. Several literatures, including the GLOBE study, suggest that Arab managers in general still adhere to traditional leadership values of laissez-faire and authoritarianism because of their strong adherence to self-preservation (House et al., 2004; Smith et al., 2007; Zaraket, 2014). Basically, Arab managers' trait of protecting the status quo is not uncommon in Arab

leadership literature, indicating that saving face and expanding one's influence are two well accepted practices in order to become a successful leader (Smith et al., 2007; Al-Yahya, 2008; Obeidat et al., 2012; Barnet et al., 2013). In addition, literatures on Islamic leadership suggest that Islamic leaders, whether Arab or from other parts of the world, may have the tendency to prioritize self over others (Hunt & At-Twajiri, 1996; Ali, 2009; Hodges, 2017). In contrast, several literatures found the adherence of Arab managers on transformational leadership values (Yousef, 1998; Butler, 2009; Chaudhry & Javed, 2012; Chaudhry et al., 2012; Randeree & Chaudhry, 2012; Khalifa & Ayoubi, 2015; Prabhakar et al., 2016). Similarly, transformational leadership values were found among Arab and non-Arab Islamic managers (Mir, 2010; Ahmad & Ogunsula, 2011; Galanou & Farrag, 2015; Imran et al., 2016; Hashim et al., 2017; Hidayat et al., 2017). However, despite these conflicting results, it might be premature to assume the widespread use of transformational and transactional leadership practices in the Gulf as literatures are widely dispersed throughout the region. For instance, although several studies have found the presence of transformational and transactional leadership elements in Bahrain settings (Raman & Rajan, 2012; Birasnav et al., 2013; Hawaldar et al., 2016), traditional leadership approaches are still highly practiced in other Arab countries, particularly among more authoritative nations such as Saudi Arabia (Smith et al., 2007). This collision between the authoritative Arab culture and the influence of Western expatriates to Arab managers is being pointed as the possible reason for this duality (Ali et al., 1995; Smith et al., 2007; Taleghani et al., 2010). Although Islamic leadership has some similarities with modern leadership approaches, some of the Islamic values and qualities of modern leadership approach conflict with traditional Arab

culture, specifically in terms of submission to authority and overreliance on rules. Therefore, it is assumed that Bahraini managers do not practice the leadership style they prefer, but one that is acceptable and compatible with the culture of their organization. Additionally, because of a strong masculine culture and gender disparity in the region, it can be assumed that there is a significant difference between the leadership styles of male and female managers. Based on these deliberations, the following hypotheses have been developed for the quantitative phase of the study:

Hypothesis 2^a: The leadership style of Bahraini managers is not purely laissez-faire, but also includes elements of transactional and transformational leadership.

Hypothesis 2^b: There is a significant difference between the preferred leadership styles of Bahraini managers and the one they are currently practicing.

Hypothesis 2^c: There is a significant difference between the leadership styles of male and female Bahraini managers.

Literatures suggest the link between full range leadership (transformational and transactional) and motivation (intrinsic and extrinsic) (Barbuto Jr., 2005; Ilies et al., 2006; Rowold & Scholtz, 2009; Beck-Tauber, 2012; Chaudhry et al., 2012; Chaudhry & Javed, 2012; Lidong & Xinxin, 2013; El-Salam et al., 2013; Callier, 2014). However, literatures that dealt with this topic are extremely limited, especially in Arab settings. Basically, there is little consensus on whether or not modern leadership approaches are

applicable in other cultures apart from Western settings, as culture appear to have an apparent effect on the relationship between leadership and its effectiveness on employees (Eisenberg, 1999). In addition, most of the studies that explored the phenomena focused more on quantitative research. The current study recognizes that the intricacies in the relationship between these variables can only be explored thoroughly through qualitative research because of culture, which was established as a potent factor that could influence the manager's leadership approach, as well as the employees' motivation orientation. Therefore, in order to provide more in-depth explanations on the relationship between culture, leadership, and motivation, the utilization of a qualitative approach is necessary. In this regard, no hypothesis on the interrelationship between the three variables will be presented as it will be explored personally by the researcher. Thus, the research will switch into an inductive stance in the qualitative phase, in contrast to the deductive stance of the initial quantitative phase. It is reiterated that the initial quantitative phase of the study is conducted to have an initial knowledge on leadership styles and motivation orientation of the respondents, which could be later used as a guide in the study's inductive research phase. The qualitative study thus explores the study's main research question, which basically inquires on the interrelation between leadership styles, employee motivation, and culture in Arab setting. Specifically, it also explores the rest of the sub-research questions, which inquired about: Bahraini managers' cultural orientation; the influence of leadership style on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of employees; the impact of culture on the adoption of leadership styles; the impact of culture on work values, and; the impact of culture on the managers' approaches in motivating employees.

5.7. CONCLUSION

Historically, both motivation and leadership theories evolved together with the evolution of psychological studies. Motivation studies began with instinct theories and psychoanalysis, which all posited that human motivation is based on their instincts and subconscious minds. The trait theory of leadership, which dominated the early 1900s, appeared to be influenced by this mechanistic and passive view on human behaviour. The consensus was that great leadership traits are basically in-born to a selected few, undermining the importance of other variables that could have contributed to one's leadership approach. The introduction of behaviourism in the 1930s shifted the focus on stimulus response, which also shifted the focus on both areas of studies. The dominant motivation theory was Skinner's behaviourism, while the dominant leadership theories were behaviour theories developed from the results of the Michigan and Ohio studies. While these theories were step up from the instinct and trait theories, they were still fairly limiting and mechanistic in a sense that they failed to take into consideration the mental processes of the employees and how they learn from each experience. The cognitive revolution, which started in the 1960s, filled these gaps and introduced new sets of theories that incorporate the actual processes that lead to those variables. Other intervening variables such as autonomy, control, situations, and relationships were taken into consideration. It also led to more research on the relationship between leadership and motivation, which basically expanded the understanding on leadership styles affect the motivation of employees. For instance, studies on the effects of transformational leadership on intrinsic motivation proliferated, contributing the understanding on how leadership styles can shape employee behaviour for the better.

However, despite the positive findings, several studies also found conflicting results that question the importance of transformational leadership. Further, because of the magnitude of variables that could affect leadership and motivation, many variables such as culture and values remain underrepresented. Specifically, Arab culture is underrepresented as there appears to be only few studies conducted using Arab respondents. Finally, another limitation of the current studies on the relationship between leadership and motivation is that it is dominated by positivistic and post-positivistic approaches in research. Qualitative research, which can offer new insights on how these two variables interact as deeper and subtler data can be obtained, seem to be lacking in this field of research.

CHAPTER 6 - METHODOLOGY

6.1. OVERVIEW

The research methodology of the current study combines qualitative with quantitative research. A descriptive research design was used to determine the frequency and average of the leadership styles of managers, and motivation level of employees. In addition, a descriptive design was used to describe the significant relationship between leadership styles and employee motivation. On the other hand, a case study approach was used to deeply explore the influence of external factors on the development of those styles, and its influence on employee work motivation. The study would later confirm the theoretical framework that presents the interrelation between leadership styles and motivation, as well as the influence of external factors on the development and acceptance of these styles. Analysis was conducted through a statistical treatment of data, qualitative data coding, and identification of themes and sub-themes.

6.2. RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

The theory map which was presented through historical discussions of theories in the literature review was guided with the philosophical stance of pragmatism. It basically refers to a theory that verifies truth and knowledge through experience and practice, and that the truth is defined by the tenets that are useful to the believer (Howell, 2013). It contends that objectivity must relate to practice, and therefore promotes the utilization of both objective and subjective dimensions (Howell, 2013). Further, pragmatism also posits that relationships are determined through pragmatic ways than exploring them through meta-physical objects (Kurki, 2008). In addition, it contends that social actions are influenced by social contexts, putting great emphasis on the importance of culture in

shaping the people's behaviour, whether they are related to leadership styles, or means to internalize motivation (DeLamater & Ward, 2013).

6.3. PHILOSOPHICAL PERSPECTIVES AND PARADIGMS OF INQUIRY

Paradigms of inquiry are defined as the frameworks that systematize scientific inquiry (Hoshmand, 1994). Systematic inquiry is enabled through the set of rules that are embedded within each paradigm, which serve as means of standard or regulation to the research approach (Weaver & Olson, 2006). Basically, they provide guidance to the research through identifying the most reasonable, important, and legitimate methodologies compatible with the nature of reality being examined (Shekedi, 2005). Further, guidance is provided by setting the limitations of inquiry, which then help identify the most appropriate approaches that should be used (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). It also sets the appropriate research questions, aligning them with the researcher's selected worldview, as indicated in the selected paradigm of inquiry (Ha, 2011). It basically sets the researcher's positions toward reality, knowledge, truth, and theory, and declares his or her responses to the three fundamental questions of inquiry, which are ontology, epistemology, and methodology.

6.3.1. Subjective and Objective Stances

As stated earlier, paradigm of inquiry sets the researcher's position toward various elements such as reality, knowledge, truth, and theory. These elements can be viewed as either objective or subjective. For instance, reality, which is defined as a perceived existence or recorded occurrence (Donlan, 2008), can be looked into two different angles. On one side, the researcher can perceive reality as objective when his or her

views posit that everything that is considered real is perceivable and are independent of the mind of the perceiver (Schiro, 2008). Further, objective reality is perceived through the belief that scientific investigations are essential components in unravelling evidences, and that these scientific evidences are the “be all, end all” of what constitutes reality (Rosen, 2010). On the contrary, subjective reality is when the researcher shifts perception from the conscious object to his or her inner mind (Rosen, 2010). In other words, subjective reality is a type of reality that may be true only to one person, as perceived from personal experiences (MacDonald, 2009).

Subjectivity and objectivity in knowledge can be similarly explained. Knowledge, which is defined as a set of rules, ideas, and procedures (Schwartz, 2006), can also be perceived objectively by the setting the limitations to scientifically proven facts that are stored within the memory of every person (Wong, 2013). Objective knowledge is basically man-made facts that are conceived through proven theories and scientific evidences (Ernest, 1998). Therefore, knowledge obtained from a study that measured data through scientific means can be considered objective. In contrast, subjective knowledge is a type of knowledge that is conceived within the subconscious of the person, and proven through many experiences (Ernest, 1998). Subjective knowledge may lack scientific proof, but can be backed up by years of experiences, observations, and other methods that do not involve any scientific measurements.

Aside from reality and knowledge, truth and theory can also be perceived through objective and subjective means. Firstly, truths that are considered as real and

universally accepted, and are established facts through documentations and historical accounts, are considered as objective truths (Furtak, 2010; Anderson, 2012). On the other hand, truths that are personal and limited only to individual experiences are considered as subjective truths (Anderson, 2012). Similarly, objective theories are theories developed based on scientific results, supposedly built with frequencies, probabilities, causations, relationships, etc (Edel, 1946). In contrast, subjective theories are those that are formed first within the subconscious realm of the individual, and usually have limited insights on a set of facts (Edel, 1946).

Overall, subjectivity and objectivity in research distinguishes the different approaches that can be used to develop and address the research problems. Subjectivity and objectivity are both highly dependent on the paradigm of inquiry selected by the researcher, as the type of inquiry would determine which among the two would be the most acceptable stance that the researcher should take. In current study, the stance selected is a combination of objectivity and subjectivity mainly because the paradigm of inquiry selected requires more flexibility in addressing the research problem. To further elaborate, the three fundamental questions in paradigms of inquiry will be discussed in the next section.

6.3.2. The Three Fundamental Questions

As discussed earlier, paradigms of inquiry limit the researcher's stance in addressing the research as certain research methods are only compatible to certain philosophical stances (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Overall, there are three fundamental questions that

limit inquiry in research. These are: (1) ontology; (2) epistemology, and; (3) methodology.

Ontology is concerned about the researcher's understanding of reality, specifically the corresponding truth, knowledge, and theories that are associated with it (Lindgreen, 2008; Glynn & Woodside, 2009). As pointed out earlier, reality can either be objective or subjective. Therefore, the ontological position of the research would speak much about his or her perspective toward reality, which would then shape his or her methods of inquiry (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). On the other hand, epistemology refers to the perception toward the involvement of the researcher in the study (Lewis, 2006). An objective type of epistemology is one that is grounded within the principles of scientific investigations, wherein the researcher is separate from the phenomenon being studied. In contrast, a subjective type of epistemology believes that the researcher is part of the reality being investigated, and thus he or she could influence the outcome of the research (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Finally, methodology refers to the type of investigation that is compatible with the researcher's ontological and epistemological position. It describes the process of the study, or the means to which the researcher would seek out truth and knowledge (Basford & Slevin, 2003). It pertains to the research system that will be incorporated in order to collect and analyze data (Kumar, 2008).

6.3.3. Paradigms of Inquiry

There are basically four known types of paradigms that can be used inquire in a research. These include: (1) positivism; (2) post-positivism; (3) constructivism, and; (4) critical theory. Positivism and post-positivism are purely objective types of paradigms.

The ontological position of a positivist is simply that man is governed by a componential objective reality (Hatch, 2010). These components can be studied independently and then analyzed together to form a deeper understanding on a phenomenon (Plack, 2005). On the other hand, post-positivistic views also believe in objective reality, but contend that human inquiry has its limitations, which therefore lead to discovery of imperfect realities (Hatch, 2010). In terms of epistemology, there is only little difference between positivism and post-positivism. Positivists believe that scientific inquiry begins through specific signals that the world gives out, and believes that the researcher should conduct investigations separate from the subject in order not to influence the results (Ha, 2011). Post-positivists also have the same epistemological stance, but contend that truth in findings is not absolute and can be falsified or corrected in future research (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Concerning methodology, positivists are restricted to quantitative inquiry, whereas post-positivists are more open to a combination of quantitative and qualitative inquiry (Guba & Lincoln, 1994; Hatch, 2010).

In contrast to positivism and post-positivism, paradigms of inquiry that lean more toward subjectivity are constructivism and critical theory. Constructivism is a type of inquiry that has the ontological position of relativism, or the belief that reality consists of various complex mental and social constructions (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Complexity lies within human motives and intentions, as well as culture and norms (Plack, 2010). Thus, constructivists believe that reality is subjective as they can be interpreted in multiple ways (Plack, 2010). On the other hand, the ontological position of Critical Theory also posits the basic principles of constructivism, but emphasizes more on how the historical

realism of various factors shaped reality (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). In terms of epistemology, both constructivism and Critical Theory adopt a transactional and subjectivist position. This means that the researchers play an important part in the research as it is assumed that they have great influence over the inquiry (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Regarding methodology, both paradigms of inquiry adopts a dialectical approach, wherein direct interactions with the subjects are conducted. However, constructivism focuses more on hermeneutical approach, while Critical Theory focuses more on dialogic approach. The reason is because the aim of the latter is to engage in dialogues in order to instil new ideas to the subjects and determine how historically established facts can be modified for the better (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

Apart from the four major types of research paradigms that dominated management research, pragmatism – which is based on the American pragmatism philosophy pioneered by Peirce, Dewey, James, and others – is currently emerging as a valid paradigm, particularly in mixed method designs (Goldkhul, 2012; Morgan, 2014). Philosophically, pragmatism is mainly concerned with real world problems, in a sense that it rejects the dualism between realism and idealism (Morgan, 2014). As stressed by Dewey (2008), the difference between post-positivism and constructivism is negligible as compared to the importance of acting out one's beliefs in order to facilitate change. Dewey rejects the separation of the nature of reality imposed by the two major paradigm categories, and instead calls for utilizing the strengths of both approaches. Pragmatism welcomes both objective and subjective evidences in order to have a full understanding of reality without any types of ontological constraints (White, 2010). It rejects the

concepts of positivism/post-positivism and constructivism because of their limiting and biased views on theories (Powell, 2001). Instead of focusing on truth, pragmatism focuses on every method's capability to solve human problems, or to be practical in solving problems as they arise (Powell, 2001). Hall (2013) stressed that its departure from the nature of reality and truth makes it an alternative research paradigm, especially in mixed method designs, as it concentrates more on data that are found to be useful by the stakeholders (Mertens & Wilson, 2012).

Based on its philosophy, the ontological stance of the pragmatism paradigm accepts both the internal and external role of the researcher (Ihuah & Eaton, 2013). Therefore, it is inhibited from the ontological limitations of positivism and anti-positivism as it gives the researcher the freedom to choose how he or she decides to get involved in the research process. On the other hand, its epistemological stance is similarly liberating as it allows both subjective and objective meanings to address the research question (Morgan, 2014). It does allow the merging of views as a practical step to interpret data. From these perspectives, the methodological stance of pragmatism gives way to both quantitative and qualitative approaches, and allows the values of the researcher to interpret data subjectively (Hall, 2013; Morgan, 2014).

6.3.4. Selected Paradigm of Inquiry

Pragmatism is selected for the current study because the literatures on leadership and motivation in the Arab region are more skewed toward positivistic research. This basically creates the problem of ontological and epistemological limitations, as the

results were basically confined to presumably objective truths, free from any values that may have influenced the research process, or may have provided inputs to address problems as they arise. Pragmatism fixes this by allowing the researcher to explore freely as the researcher progresses without any boundaries set by other paradigms (Creswell, 2009). For instance, a positivistic research would limit the investigation of the phenomena to empirical means, leaving out any intricacies or subtleties that may help address the research question. Similarly, focusing only in subjective research would eliminate the study's capability to investigate certain variables statistically. Pragmatism combines these two strengths to carry out a more flexible and practical research, and produce more appropriate results tailored for the study's research questions.

Hence, the ontological, epistemological, and methodological concepts of positivism and constructivism are incorporated in the specific stages of the study. In the first stage of the study, an empirical investigation on the leadership styles and employee motivation of Arab managers and employees will be conducted. An objective stance is followed, specifically prohibiting the values and biases of the researcher to influence the research process and findings (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). In addition, the methodological approach in this stage should be in accordance with the principles of positivism, which is experimental and manipulative. Particularly, hypotheses will be empirically tested using a quantitative research approach (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

On the other hand, the second stage of the study is qualitative in nature, and is therefore approached using the research elements found in constructivism paradigm. In

this stage, relativism will be observed as the study's ontological position. Further, the epistemological stance will be shifted to transactional and subjectivist, wherein the researcher is interactively connected with the subjects, allowing for the development of the findings as the investigation proceeds (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). Methodologically, this stage follows a dialectic and hermeneutical approach in order to reconstruct previously held constructions (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

6.4. RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design is considered as the basic structure of the research project as it consists of the framework explaining the mechanics of the investigation (Schwartz-Shea & Yanow, 2013). It basically provides the blueprint for the research process, which focuses on obtaining sound solutions or explanations for the research problem, and then presents specific and tangible outcomes (Simonsen et al., 2010). It basically conceptualizes the research process through logic and coherence, and glues the different components of the research (Mackey & Gass, 2011). The research design should not be confused with research methodology because the former particularly focuses on the structure of inquiry, while the latter involves with methods of data collection (De Vaus, 2001).

6.4.1. Types of Research Design

The types of research design vary and it is basically up to the researcher to select the most appropriate design to address the research problems. The three major types include: (1) exploratory; (2) causal, and; (3) descriptive.

Exploratory research design is basically selected when the researcher intends to uncover new research findings that were not presented in literatures before (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). This is preferred when knowledge and understanding about a certain problem is lacking in all angles, specifically on the different variables involved (Saunders et al., 2007). Exploratory studies basically inspire future research as they usually provide initial information that would require a more intensive investigation in the near future. Some of the methods to conduct exploratory research include literature review, focus group interviews, and in-depth field interviews of experts (Saunders et al., 2007).

On the other hand, causal design is selected when the research problem requires the testing of causal relationship between variables (Cooper & Schindler, 2006). As the name implies, it seeks to discover any causalities, specifically the effects of one variable to another (Mooi & Sarstedt, 2011). Causal research can be difficult to pull off because it is different from correlation in a sense it does not merely tests for the existence of relationship, but actually tests for the direct impact and effects of a single variable to another variable (Mooi & Sarstedt, 2011). Validation of causality can also be difficult because it requires the rigid control of other factors that may directly or indirectly affect causation.

The third research design is descriptive, which is a formalized study design that includes investigative questions and clearly stated hypotheses (Mitchell & Jolley, 2012).

It describes a phenomenon by asking the questions “who, what, when, where, and how” on a particular subject population. Such questions can be answered descriptively by determining the frequency of the population that have certain characteristics, and by testing the association or correlation between certain variables. A simple descriptive research may inquire on a certain univariate research question and test for particular hypothesis to determine the existence of certain variables. This can be broadened by determining bivariate relationships between two variables, which can be done through cross-tabulation. The relationships that were established from a descriptive study were not causal in nature because the aim of descriptive research is only to determine the interdependence of a certain variable from another. This would enable the researcher to gauge the strength of the relationship between two variables, suggesting possibilities of causation (Mitchell & Jolley, 2012). Overall, the results that would be gathered from a descriptive study should be able to describe phenomena, characteristics, or functions (Mooi & Sarstedt, 2011). It does not explore new variables, and test for causal relationships between variables.

6.4.2. Research Design Adapted for the Study

Descriptive research was the selected design because the results of the initial literature review imply that many phenomenon and characteristics of leadership are still not described. Exploratory research was discarded because the current study intends to confirm previous research findings and theoretical assumptions culture, leadership, and motivation instead of developing new ones. As discussed in Chapter 1, exploratory research focuses more on the discovery of new ideas without providing any conclusive

evidences (Shields & Rangarjan, 2013). In contrast, the current study aims to confirm previous findings and theories, and provide a definite conclusion on the interrelation between leadership, motivation, and culture in Arab settings. Similarly, causal research was also discarded because of the lack of time to control many variables before being able to establish a definitive causal relationship between leadership and motivation. Descriptive research fits the objectives and selected paradigm of the study because the relationship between leadership and motivation in Arab setting still lacks a clear description. Further, the relationship between leadership styles and employee motivation is also not yet established.

6.5. RESEARCH METHODS

The original plan of the researcher is to adapt only quantitative methods for the study because it allows the gathering of many data from different public and private sector organisations in Bahrain, which can then be quantitatively analyzed to determine certain frequency patterns and relationships among variables. However, the need to conduct a more in-depth qualitative study was taken into consideration to be able to gain deeper insights from the respondents. Further, a more flexible ontological stance that included the influence of cultural factors was considered. Thus, the current system could be shaped or improved, wherein which the researcher plays a large part in the improvement. For instance, a dialogue between the researcher and one of the manager respondents would lead to the identification of current leadership problems, as well as to the possible solutions of the said problems. The researcher could play a huge role in

“transforming ignorance and misapprehension”, basically an important feat to accomplish in a study that partly incorporates a constructivist paradigm.

A quantitative design in the form of survey questionnaires will be utilised to provide supporting data on the prevalence of leadership styles and the level of job motivation. The survey design would be instrumental in gathering the attitudes and behaviour of the respondents using questionnaires. Specifically, the study adopted the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) developed by Bass and Avolio to measure leadership (Xirasagar, 2008). The instrument focuses on the three leadership styles – laissez-faire, transactional and transformational – and consists of 45 items, which includes statements that characterize each element on each type of leadership. A total of 36 out of the 45 items focus on the three leadership styles, whereas the remaining nine items identify the personal assessments of the leader’s effectiveness, subordinate satisfaction, and subordinate extra effort, each calculated as the mean of three item scores (Xirasagar, 2008). The MLQ instrument uses Likert-type scales to measure each item (Mannheim & Halamish, 2008). Results may suggest that high rate of transformational leadership is highly effective, whereas high rate of transactional leadership is moderately effective. On the other hand, high rate of laissez-faire is equivalent to ineffective (Xirasagar, 2008). Bass and Avolio validate the MLQ and confirm high reliability for each scale, which ranges from .74 to .91 (Moore & Rudd, 2006; Xirasaga, 2008).

Aside from quantitative survey, a case study approach will be used as a primary method in the qualitative phase of the study. In definition, a case study is generally an investigation or analysis of a particular individual or group (Starman, 2013). It comprehensively attempts to describe a specific case, or specific phenomena in an individual or a particular institution. As added by Simons (2009), a case study allows multiple perspectives to explore deeply the complexity and difference of a specific group, or particularly, the different variables that make up that specific group.

The time dimension of a case study is classified into either single or multiple types (Starman, 2013). A single case study focuses on one cases, while with multiple case studies, each case is studied and compared with each other to make up a single case. Additionally, both types of case studies can be further classified into retrospective and snapshot (Starman, 2013). A retrospective case study focuses on past phenomenon, while snapshot focuses on a particular time period. The current study adopts a single case study on a particular organization, covering both retrospective and snapshot elements. Specifically, several managers and employees will be interviewed to build a retrospective case, while respondents will also be observed occasionally to build a snapshot case. The purpose of adopting both approaches is to be able to validate the respondents' responses to open interviews with their actions during the observation phase.

The case study approach is adopted because of its several advantages, specifically in a study that adopts an interpretivist-constructivist paradigm. First, case studies provide

rich and intricate data as compared to surveys or quantitative interviews (Widdowson, 2011). Further, the details that are generated from a particular case can be validated or confirmed by other similar cases (Widdowson, 2011). A case study approach also allows conceptual validity, which means that it is possible to conduct contextualized comparisons of data that are otherwise difficult to measure (Starman, 2013). In the current study, the variables being investigated are contextual in nature and are therefore confined and defined in different terms and contexts. Case study can help in exploring analytically equivalent phenomenon even if expressed in such differences (Starman, 2013). Finally, case studies are also useful in generating new hypotheses and models (Starman, 2013). The current study can benefit from this advantage as it aims to develop and recommend a particular model that may help improve the leadership approach of Arab managers in enhancing employee motivation. Case studies can discover causal mechanisms mainly because it observes various intervening variables and conditions that may affect the relationships between the primary variables (Starman, 2013).

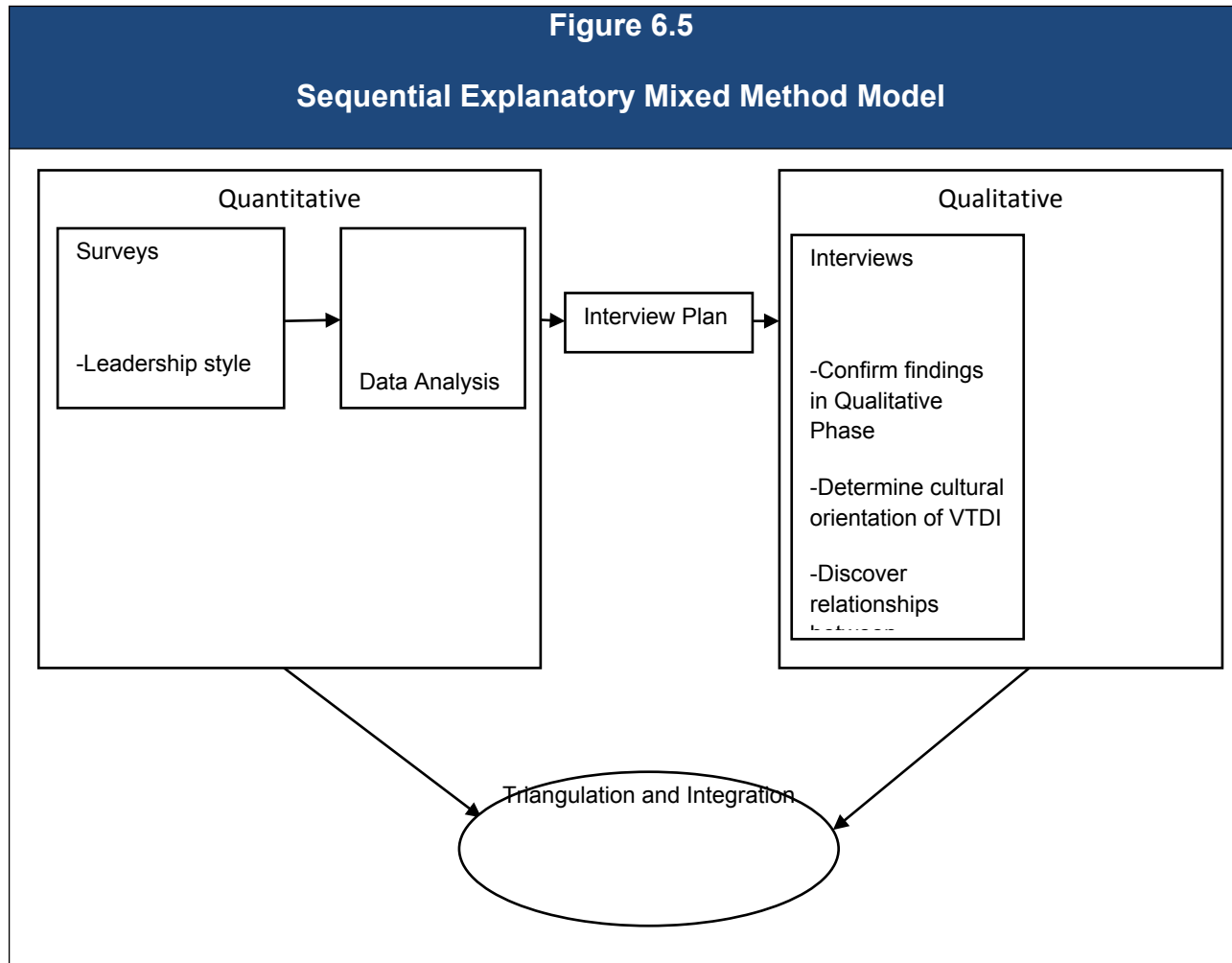
In summary, mixed method, or a combination of quantitative and qualitative research, was selected for the current study because this method allowed the collection of sufficient data and insights that would help in the development of a sound conclusion. Quantitative research was conducted as a means to obtain actual data on the general reflection of leadership and motivation among employees, which could be used to engage a dialogue with the selected participants. On the other hand, qualitative research was also used because critical inquiry requires a dialogic methodological

approach. This could not be achieved by quantitative research alone as it is limited only with surveys. Qualitative approach was a prerequisite to a dialogic method because allowed the exchange of opinions about certain topics, and open up discussions to a level wherein both parties are comfortable to address the issues. Qualitative research enabled the use of unstructured interviews and open-ended interviews, which were appropriate in collecting richer responses captured either through audio recording or through paper. Qualitative analysis allowed the incorporation of both inductive and deductive techniques, and permitted the researcher to subjectively provide inputs as an active participant in the research process.

A sequential explanatory approach was utilized to complete the three stages of the study's mixed methodology. In this strategy, quantitative data was collected first, which was then followed by a series of qualitative studies to help explore certain results in more detail, as well as to explain unexpected results (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2007). Basically, equal priority was given to each phase, and data are integrated during interpretation. As a research based on pragmatism, a sequential explanatory strategy fits well because it provides distinct stages that are straightforward and easier to describe.

As can be seen in Figure 6.5, a sequential explanatory mixed method design was selected for the study to give both quantitative and qualitative approaches their respective temporal orders to provide a satisfactory triangulation of results (Creswell, 2013). After the literature review, the model sequentially begins with quantitative research, in which quantitative surveys and analyses are conducted. Interview plans are

then constructed based on the results of the quantitative study, which leads to the facilitation of the qualitative research. This includes open-ended interviews and follow-up interviews, in which the results will be later triangulated with the quantitative results.



Sequential explanatory mixed method design was selected over other designs because the sequence that it offers fit the current study well. With VTDI as the case study, it attempts to familiarize first on the leadership styles of Bahraini managers, as well as the overall work values of the employees in the organization. Literature review suggests that several instruments can be used to determine these variables through quantitative means. Specifically, the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) and Work Values

Questionnaire (WVQ) were selected as they were successful in determining the leadership styles and intrinsic-extrinsic values of the respondents (Bass & Bass, 2009; Furnham et al., 2005; Furnham, Eracleous & Chamorro-Premuzic, 2009). These surveys were considered because transformational leadership and work values have already been thoroughly explored and therefore can be sufficiently determined using survey instruments with high validity and reliability. However, the results from these instruments would only provide a basic understanding on the leadership styles and work values of Bahraini managers and employees. A follow up qualitative research would help expand the results, as well as determining alleged relationships necessary for the completion of the study's objectives. Further, the qualitative results would provide additional data necessary for the triangulation of results. Therefore, it is important to note that although the study begins with quantitative research, the main focus is on qualitative research as it aims to discover knowledge beyond the quantifiable variables explored in the study.

The preparation for the sequential explanatory strategy started in the first stage of the study, which was the literature review. This stage included a review and analysis of related literatures. It included a review of the different theories pertaining to leadership and motivation. It also included an analysis of various peer-reviewed studies that focused on those subjects. The aim of the literature review stage was to gain insights on the development of leadership and motivation theories over years, the consistency of results, and the suggestions on the interrelation among the two variables.

Then, the sequence shifted to the second stage, which focused on quantitative research. This included quantitative surveys on the attitudes held by employees and managers on leadership styles and motivation. The following were the types of quantitative surveys used in this stage:

1. Demographic Profile: This inquired about the demographic characteristics of the respondents, namely: age; gender; occupation; years of working experience; marriage status, and; annual income.
2. Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ): Adapted from Bass (Northouse, 2012), this instrument focuses on the three leadership styles – laissez-faire, transactional and transformational – and consists of 45 items, which includes statements that characterize each element on each type of leadership. A total of 36 out the 45 items focus on the three leadership styles, whereas the remaining nine items identifies the personal assessments of the leader's effectiveness, subordinate satisfaction, and subordinate extra effort, each calculated as the mean of three item scores (Bass & Bass, 2009). This questionnaire will be used to determine which type of leadership style is prevalent among Bahraini managers.
3. Work Values Questionnaire (WVQ): Developed by Furnham et al. (2005) and Furnham, Eracleous and Chamorro-Premuzic (2009), this survey instrument contains 37 items and requires individuals to report the extent to which intrinsic (e.g. responsibility and personal growth) and extrinsic (e.g. pay and benefits) components are important to them on a six-point scale. This will be

used to determine the level of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of Bahraini employees under specific leadership styles.

The objectives of the second stage of the methodology will be to measure the following:

1. Strongest leadership style among Bahraini managers;
2. The work values or the intrinsic-extrinsic motivation of employees, and;
3. The relationship between leadership styles of managers and the work values (intrinsic and extrinsic motivation) employees.

Sequentially, the third stage followed, focusing on the qualitative investigation of the important variables of the study. A total of 20 managers were interviewed, and 5 from those 20 managers were observed. These respondents were divided into categories: (1) Set A, and; (2) Set B. Set A respondents included managers who were interviewed and observed in different levels depending on their availability during the interview process, their consent regarding the extent of the interviews and observations, and their level of cooperation with the researcher. Overall, a total of 15 managers were included in Set A, and some of them were interviewed regarding their leadership styles and cultural orientation, while some of them were observed. These interviews/observations can be divided into four levels based on the depth and combination, which shows in the following list:

1. Level 1 – Respondents who were interviewed about leadership style and culture, and were observed.
2. Level 2 – Respondents who were interviewed about leadership style and culture, but were not observed.
3. Level 3 – Respondents who were interviewed about leadership style, and were observed.
4. Level 4 – Respondents who were interviewed about leadership style, but were not observed.

On the other hand, Set B respondents included a total of VTDI managers. Set B respondents basically completed more interview sessions than Set A, and spent more time conversing with the researcher. Similar to Set A respondents, managers in Set B were also interviewed regarding their leadership styles and culture orientation, but also included interviews on their perceptions toward the different factors that may have affected their adoption of certain leadership styles, such as their organisations rules and norms, and their employees' preferred leadership styles.

Follow up interviews and observations were also conducted on several employees working under some of the managers from Set A and Set B. A total of 15 employees were selected for interviews, and were also closely observed for during work hours. Each employee was observed within one working day, with the objective to discover any important information regarding their relationships and interactions with

managers and co-workers. Interviews were conducted spontaneously, whenever there were chances to communicate with them without interfering with their work.

6.6. VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

Respondent criteria were enforced during the study's quantitative stage to improve internal validity. Respondents were validated regarding their association with their current organisation, and their current employment contract. The selected employees and managers should be working in the organisation for more than a year to ensure that they have sufficient experience interacting with each other.

Presentation of data in the quantitative stage of the study was objective. Personal interpretations were allowed but were not considered as facts. However, results from the quantitative research were referenced in the analysis of the qualitative data to determine any significant differences between the findings from the two studies. Further, historical threats to validity were also addressed. This was done by determining if there were any changes that were implemented in the past few months that could influence the responses of the participants. Such changes could cause bias and affect the flow of the research process.

Threats to validity in the quantitative stage of the study were addressed by assuring the respondents that their participation in the study would be confidential and anonymous. On the other hand, reliability was improved by selecting a neutral time and location for the participants to avoid any schedule conflicts with work. Further, the facilitation of the

research was restricted only to one person to avoid observation error and bias. Finally, small pilot survey was conducted to prove the reliability of the instruments.

Validity and reliability in the qualitative stage of the study were addressed differently.

Internal validity in this research stage was attempted to establish through the strategies listed by Lincoln and Guba (1985), which include the following:

1. The adoption of a research method well established in both subjective and objective inquiry;
2. Early familiarity of the culture of the participating company or organisation;
3. Use of random sampling similar to quantitatively designed studies;
4. Use of triangulation;
5. Strategies to ensure honesty of informants;
6. Iterative questioning;
7. Negative case analysis;
8. Frequent debriefing sessions;
9. Peer scrutiny of the research project;
10. Reflective commentary of the researcher;
11. Background, qualifications, and experience of the investigator;
12. Member checking;
13. Detailed description of the phenomenon being investigated, and;
14. Examination of previous research findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Shenton, 2004; Morrow, 2005).

The list is an extensive guide, but not all of these strategies were met due to roadblocks in the research process. Nonetheless, the researcher ensured that all of the participants were qualified to participate in the study by examining their backgrounds and qualifications first. Further, the participants were also informed in detail about the nature and purpose of the study. In addition, dialogues between the researcher and participants were exchanged instead of just conducting a linear interview to ensure that participants would fully share their thoughts and views about certain topics. This also helped in ensuring the honesty of the participants as they were sharing their views informally and without any risks. Finally, although random sampling was not selected due to the small number of potential samples, the researcher was familiar with the culture of the organisation and was keen to compare the interview and observation results with previous research findings, as well as the results in the quantitative survey.

External validity was improved in the current research through transferability. This refers to the chance that the study findings are transferable to other research situations (Speziale et al., 2011). Although VTDI was the only organisation covered in the study, transferability was enhanced through the quality and relevance of the respondents involved in the field work and using more than one data collection method. Further, the length of each data collection session and time period were maximized (Cole & Gardner, 1979; Marchionini & Teague, 1987).

Reliability in the current research was addressed through dependability. This refers to the criterion met after the researcher has shown the credibility of the findings (Speziale et al., 2011). Dependability was achieved by providing detailed explanation of some of the important parts of the study such as the research design, the operational detail of data gathering, and the reflective appraisal of the project. These parts were continuously updated as the study progresses. Further, a dependability audit, which was the process of examining the consistency of the data and findings by a third party auditor, was also conducted (Pitney & Parker, 2009). This is similar to peer-review and debriefing, but the focus should be more on the research design and findings (Pitney & Parker, 2009). The dependability review was conducted by close peers within VTDI, as well as friends and relatives of the researcher that have sufficient background in management.

Finally, objectivity in the qualitative research stage of the study was achieved through confirmability. This refers to eliminating prior assumptions or preconceptions when interpreting data and constructing the conclusion for the research (Daymon & Holloway, 2005). Confirmability in the current study was attained through: elaboration on why a particular method is selected over another; detailed explanation on the weaknesses of the selected method; discussion of preliminary theories and their comparison with newly developed ones, and; the provision of “audit trail” to enable readers to trace the course of the research from beginning to end (Shenton, 2004). As elaborated earlier, the methods adopted in the study were those that are compatible with a pragmatic paradigm.

6.7. SAMPLING

Participants for the quantitative stage of the research were randomly selected through a stratified random sampling. Compared to non-probability sampling methods, probability sampling could reduce variance (Groves et al., 2013). The target sample size for the quantitative research was 30 to 50 employees, and 10 to 20 managers. Specifically, a total of 35 VTDI employees and 15 VTDI managers participated in the survey. On the other hand, samples in the qualitative stage of the study were obtained through snowball sampling. Snowball sampling was used in order to find information on the most suitable respondents to participate in the study. The first manager interviewed was asked regarding other managers who have the same qualifications, and might have the interest to participate in the study. Overall, a total of 20 managers were included in the interview sessions.

The later part of the qualitative sampling was conducted using theoretical sampling. It is basically a type of purposive sampling that takes place after the preliminary analysis of initial data has been completed (Jaccard & Jacoby, 2011). As stated, snowball sampling was used as the initial sampling method in the study. After the preliminary analysis of data obtained from initial samples, theoretical sampling was used in order to seek additional information that can provide new perspectives on the initial data collected (Jaccard & Jacoby, 2011). As stated earlier, qualitative respondents were divided into Set A and Set B. A total of 15 managers were included in Set A, while a total of 5 managers were included in Set B. Theoretical sampling was conducted to determine the

managers that could provide new information concerning the initial information obtained. The Set B respondents were selected for further interviews, to determine what they feel about certain aspects of their leadership and how it is influenced by external factors. Some of the respondents from Set A, and all respondents from Set B, were also selected through theoretical sampling to be asked about their cultural orientation, which was later found to be an instrumental factor in the development of leadership styles, and the relationship between leadership style of managers and employee motivation.

In addition, follow up interviews and observations were conducted on selected managers to improve data collection. Further, several employees were also selected for interviews and observations as they may reveal important information regarding the effects of their managers' leadership styles on their motivation. Specifically, 7 employees working under laissez-faire managers, and 8 employees working under transactional/transformational managers agreed to participate. These employees were identified only after determining the leadership approaches of their respective managers.

6.8. PILOT TESTS

Pilot tests on the quantitative questionnaires and qualitative guides were conducted before their actual facilitations. First, both the MLQ and WVQ instruments were pre-tested to five colleagues of the researcher to ensure that their readiness for data collection. The questionnaires were emailed to each respondent and were required to be returned within a week. The pretests were basically helpful in identifying potential

problems within the instruments that may affect the data collection process. Specifically, the respondents were helpful in verifying some of the questions' clarity, and even suggested different wordings that would avoid confusion among Bahraini respondents. Therefore, some of the words were reworded for better clarity, while some misspellings and grammatical errors were corrected. Additionally, ten random employees from VTDI were also handed the questionnaires early on for pre-testing purposes and were asked if they encountered any problems in completing the questionnaire. None of the respondents reported any difficulties or anything that may prevent them from answering each question accurately.

Similarly, the interview guides were pretested to five colleagues of the researcher. However, since the guides can be flexibly adjusted during the interview sessions, the purpose of the pretest was to determine whether or not the questions would effectively target the proper answers that were expected from the respondents. The guides were also emailed to the respondents and were expected to be returned within not more than a week. The results were satisfactory as no major changes were suggested to the guides. The interview guides were also pretested to ten random employees from VTDI to ensure that all questions can be clearly answered without any problems. These steps were conducted with all the follow-up interview guides, and the results mostly revealed that the respondents could not find any difficulties with guides. However, one problem was identified with the main interview and follow up interview guides on leadership styles. Apparently, the problem was that the questions were not specific enough that pretest respondents were putting their own leadership style terms from other leadership

theories that were outside of the full range leadership model. The questions were then revised to prevent the respondents from using unrelated textbook theories that would only complicate the triangulation of results. On the other hand, the researcher also made sure that each question is clarified to the respondents during the personal interview sessions to avoid any unrelated responses.

6.9. DATA COLLECTION

6.9.1. Quantitative Data Collection

Three types of data collection methods were used in the current study: (1) survey; (2) interview, and; (3) observation. Surveys were used in the study's quantitative research stage to determine the leadership styles of managers and work values or motivation of employees in VTDI Bahrain. The survey instruments were distributed personally to each respondent during a visit at VTDI. Attached with the survey instruments was an informed consent letter that informed the respondents about the objective of the survey and asked them to participate with their own consent. Respondents who agreed to participate in the survey completed the questionnaires in less than 30 minutes. Results that were generated from the survey were used in identifying themes and patterns of work values (intrinsic and extrinsic motivation) of employees and leadership styles of managers.

6.9.2. Qualitative Data Collection

A set of in-depth qualitative interviews were conducted in VTDI as a part of the case study approach. Overall, a total of 20 VTDI managers were interviewed through a

dialogic approach. A dialogue is basically defined as an interaction between egalitarian partners, wherein both parties are searching for true understanding and knowledge (Kvale, 2005). A pragmatic approach to interview was applied, in which the objective was to make the interview process as natural and practical as possible. Basically, the purpose of the qualitative interviews was to gain a deeper understanding on the relationship between leadership styles, motivation of employees, and cultural orientation through subjective interpretations. Subjectivity is basically different from objectivity that is confined within the positivist spectrum. Instead of positivistic quantification, subjectivity in interviews is carried out through an egalitarian and personal approach, unassuming and non-directive to the subjects being investigated (Kvale, 2005). Specifically, the focus of the qualitative interviews was the respondents' reflection on their leadership styles and application throughout the organization, as well their impact on the motivation of their employees. Qualitative interviews were also used to uncover the role of Arab culture in the selection of the respondents' leadership styles and their real-time application. Overall, the respondents' accounts would provide deeper understanding of the phenomena, specifically the main variables of the study and their interrelations. It would also provide data that could be systematically analyzed with data through other methods, such as the surveys and observations.

As stated earlier, the participants in the case study are divided into two sets. The first set (Set A) is divided into four levels depending on the respondents' level of immersion with the qualitative research process. Level 1 includes two managers, specifically Manager 1-1A and Manager 1-1B. Both of these managers were subjected to in-depth

interviews about their leadership styles and culture, and were also observed in the process. Interviews were conducted as each manager is observed. Interviews were conducted in real-time during the observation period, which lasted in the entire shift. Each interview question was delivered in the form of a dialogue and lasted at least 5 minutes or less.

In contrast, Level 2 managers were also interviewed regarding leadership and culture but were not explored deeper through observation. However, since these managers were not observed, their interview sessions were scheduled and approached differently than those in Level 1. The managers participated in Level 2, which are enumerated in Table 6.8.1, were interviewed in the second to the last week of September 2014. All managers were interviewed in a single day and each interview sessions lasted at least not more than three hours. The managers included in Level 2 are listed in Table 6.8.1a.

On the other hand, Level 3 also includes two managers (Manager 1-3A and Manager 1-3B) that were interviewed and observed. However, interviews with these managers were limited only to the topic of leadership due to their decisions to inhibit on the topic of culture. These managers were also scheduled for interview and observation in the last week of September 2014 and were similarly approached as those in Level 1. Finally, Level 4 includes managers that were also interviewed with the same limitations as Level 3, but were not observed due to personal inhibitions and conflicts of schedules (see Table 6.7.2a). These managers were scheduled in the second to the last week of September 2014 and were similarly approached as those in Level 3. Interview sessions

among Level 4 managers were divided into three days. Each interview sessions lasted not more than two hours.

| Table 6.7.2a | | | | | |
|---|--------------|---------------------------|------------------------|--------------------------------|----------|
| Main Respondents for Qualitative Research | | | | | |
| Set A Respondents | | Interviewed on Leadership | Interviewed on Culture | Interviewed on other variables | Observed |
| Level 1 | Manager 1-1A | Yes | Yes | No | Yes |
| | Manager 1-1B | | | | |
| Level 2 | Manager 1-2A | Yes | Yes | No | No |
| | Manager 1-2B | | | | |
| | Manager 1-2C | | | | |
| Level 3 | Manager 1-3A | Yes | No | No | Yes |
| | Manager 1-3B | | | | |
| Level 4 | Manager 1-4A | Yes | No | No | No |
| | Manager 1-4B | | | | |
| | Manager 1-4C | | | | |
| | Manager 1-4D | | | | |
| | Manager 1-4E | | | | |
| | Manager 1-4F | | | | |
| | Manager 1-4G | | | | |
| | Manager 1-4H | | | | |
| Set B Respondents | | | | | |
| Manager 2-1A | | Yes | Yes | Yes | No |
| Manager 2-1B | | Yes | Yes | Yes | No |
| Manager 2-1C | | Yes | Yes | Yes | No |
| Manager 2-1D | | Yes | Yes | Yes | No |
| Manager 2-1E | | Yes | Yes | Yes | No |

Additionally, a set of respondents were grouped to Set B as they were subjected to more in-depth interviews that included not only leadership and culture, but also other variables related to the study including employee motivation. Respondents in Set B agreed to be interviewed in a wider array of subjects, and therefore produced richer and

more intricate interview data as compared to Set A. However, the limitation of Set B respondents lies in the lack of observation as all respondents inhibit themselves in the activity for reasons of maintaining stability in working hours. Interviews with Set B respondents were conducted on the second to last week of September 2014 and were divided into 2 days. Each interview sessions lasted not more than three hours.

Follow up interviews on a number of employees working under several managers interviewed during the first phase of the qualitative research were also conducted (see Table 6.7.2b). The aim of the follow up interviews was to confirm the relationship between the manager and the employees. Specifically, it aims to validate the impact of certain leadership styles on employee motivation, as well as the role of culture on the relationship. After gaining permission from their respective managers, the employees were contacted personally and were informed of the intention of the researcher to interview and observed them. Those who agreed to be interviewed and observed were immediately scheduled. Generally, the whole process lasted from the last week of April 2015 to the first week of May 2015.

The criteria of employees for the follow up interview are that they should be working for VTDI within a year, and that they should be working under the same manager for more than a year. However, several factors affected participation in this phase of the study. As can be seen in Table 6.7.2b, only a maximum of two employees were interviewed and observed in each manager that allowed the investigation to take place.

The procedure for the every interview conducted on managers and employees followed a natural flow of dialogue, but with a use of a pre-developed guide for asking questions. As stated earlier, a dialogic approach to interview was selected in order to keep the interaction between the interviewer and the interviewee natural and pragmatic. The interview guide was only used to remind the interviewer the variables that are important in the study, as well as to establish rapport with the respondents. However, the approach in the interview itself was pragmatic and non-systematic. Respondents that were also observed were interviewed in between their work and therefore were approached in a friendly and warm personal tone. The interviewer simply approaches the interviewee when a question arises, but makes sure that the timing is non-intrusive to work, and as informally as possible. Interview data extracted from interview sessions were recorded in a smartphone, while some of the important notes are jotted down on the spot. These data were later transcribed into Microsoft Word, and then transformed into Rich Text Format (RTF) to be able to be coded in Nvivo7.

Table 6.7.2b

Employee Respondents for Follow-Up Interviews and Observations

| Manager | Employees Interviewed and Observed |
|--------------|------------------------------------|
| Manager 1-1A | Employee H1 |
| | Employee M1 |
| Manager 1-1B | Employee D1 |
| | Employee R1 |
| Manager 1-3B | Employee F1 |
| | Employee M2 |
| Manager 1-4B | Employee M3 |
| | Employee M4 |
| Manager 1-4D | Employee A1 |
| | Employee S1 |
| Manager 1-4F | Employee L1 |

| | |
|--------------|-------------|
| Manager 2-1A | Employee M5 |
| Manager 2-1B | Employee A2 |
| | Employee B1 |
| Manager 2-1E | Employee S2 |

Observations were also conducted in the study using the participant observation strategy. While cognitive-observation focuses on the empirical nature of the subjects being observed, participant observation approaches the subjects pragmatically to gain a sense of understanding on emotions and relation dynamics (Lamnek, 2005). It focuses on the subjects' routines and behaviours that are usually natural and self-explanatory. Since the current study incorporated a mixed method design, the quantitative phase of the study already covered the empirical nature of the research. Therefore, participant observation was selected in favor of cognitive-observation in order to gain a deeper understanding on the relationship between the study's important variables, specifically leadership, motivation, and culture. Looking back at the literature review, it was established that the role of culture in the dynamics between leadership and motivation may be complex, and may contain certain intricacies that may not be captured by quantitative research. Participant observation allows a more pragmatic way of observing subjects as it guides relationship with informants, as well as allowing the researcher to have a certain grasp on the interrelation of people and their cultural parameters (Schensul et al., 1999). Further, since the researcher is known, participant observation eases the facilitation of process and allows the researcher to engage in dialogues as the observation progresses (Schensul et al., 1999).

Specifically, a total of four (4) managers from VTDI were observed in the study (see Table 6.7.2a). To protect their identities, these managers were given code names such as: (1) Manager 1-1A; (2) Manager 1-1B; (3) Manager 1-3A, and; (4) Manager 1-3B. Each manager was observed per day, which was conducted in the final week of September 2014. The observation was basically unannounced to the managers so as to avoid any preparations on their part that may lead to the production of biased data. Each manager was followed by the researcher/observer throughout the shift. The observer was visible and known, but distant and avoided to be intrusive to any of their actions and interactions with employees. The observations were documented in free form and transcribed in a logbook. Further, it was unstructured but was guided by predetermined sets of questions that were developed from the literature review. Specifically, the observer opted to look out for the following: (1) the leadership style of the managers; (2) the power dynamics between the manager and his/her employees; (3) the motivation of employees under the manager, and; (4) the effects of any cultural construct on the relationship between the manager and employees. These criteria basically assisted in understanding the manager-employee relationship dynamics in VTDI, and set the observation results to validate interview results, as well the survey results that were produced in the first part of the study.

Aside from the initial observation, a follow up observation was conducted on a number of employees under selected managers occasionally from April to May 2015 (see Table 6.7.2b). Using the same participant observation procedures, the researcher opted for a follow up observation and interviews on selected employees when the insights on the

leadership styles of managers have already been gained. However, because of conflicts in schedules and busy working conditions, only a number of managers agreed to the follow up observations, and some of these managers were only previously interviewed and not yet subjected to any observation. The specific employees who were observed under specific managers were listed in the previous table.

6.10. DATA ANALYSIS

6.10.1. Quantitative Data Analysis

The quantitative descriptive data were analyzed statistically using SPSS software. The statistics that will be used include descriptive statistics, particularly frequency distribution, mean, and standard deviation. On the other hand, independent sample and paired sample t-tests were used to identify significant differences on the responses of the participants on each item. T-test was used to analyze the Likert data instead of a Mann-Whitney-Wilcoxon (MWW) in accordance to the conclusion of de Winter and Dodou (2010) regarding the validity of using T-test in non-continuous data. By drawing at least ten thousand random samples from each of the 98 Likert distribution combinations, de Winter and Dodou (2010) attempted to compare the results between T-Test and MWW to confirm their validity in Likert-type data. They found that "...the power differences between the t-test and MWW were minor and exceeded 10% for only few of the 98 distribution pairs" (de Winter & Dodou, 2010, p.5). They found that the Type II error rate of both T-Test and MWW were close to zero, while the Type I error rate was close to the nominal value of 5%, which eliminates the worry of "...finding a difference when there is actually none in the population (de Winter & Dodou, 2010, p.5-

6). The authors also stressed that both the power of T-test and MWW increase with sample size, but do not result to a preferred method. However, the main reason T-Test was selected over MWW was because it was found to be superior in Likert findings with multimodal distribution, with power advantage over 26% against the MWW, which was found more powerful in skewed distributions (de Winter & Dodou, 2010). The findings in Chapter 4 show that most of the results were multimodal, and therefore more suited to be analyzed using T-test instead of MWW.

6.10.2. Qualitative Data Analysis

On the other hand, Nvivo7 was selected as the main tool to analyze qualitative data because of its capability to automate data coding, which makes it easier for the researcher to analyze content, identify themes, and develop models (Wong, 2008). As a Qualitative Data Analysis (QDA) software, Nvivo eliminates a number of manual tasks that are otherwise time consuming. It organizes different data, such as literatures, interview and observation transcripts, and then allows querying as an ongoing enquiry process through its “query” function (Hilal & Alabri, 2013). Query results could then proceed to the identification of themes by using the “tree nodes”, which allows the researcher to highlight a chunk of data to be coded in a particular node. Categorization of data in particular nodes can lead to the emergence of themes, which the researcher can further translate into models.

Qualitative data analysis started with template analysis, wherein a list of codes was initially produced to represent themes that can be potentially identified in the data (King,

2004). This template is then used as a coding framework to compare texts and identify themes and subthemes. It can start with the development of “highest order codes”, which can be broken down into several levels of lower order codes (King, 2004). It is based on an inductive-deductive concept, wherein predetermined codes based on deduction from literature review can be initially used to be later modified by the induction of new codes as new themes emerge from successive readings and comparison of texts.

Thematic analysis was also used to analyze the qualitative data in the study. Template analysis was basically a prelude to thematic analysis, enabling the initial categorization and then proceeds with the discovery of themes. Nvivo7’s features made the transition from template analysis to thematic analysis less difficult through its tree node features. The first step was the development of an initial template using pre-determined codes extracted from the literature review. For instance, the pre-determined leadership style codes were the elements of the Full-Range Leadership Model (FRLM), which was basically expressed as the main leadership theory the current study is based. This includes laissez-faire (traditional) leadership, transactional leadership, and transformational leadership. The last two categories were further broken down into sub-codes. Specifically, transactional leadership was broken down into contingent reward, management-by-exception (passive), and management-by-exception (active). On the other hand, transformational leadership is further broken down into: intellectual stimulation; inspirational motivation; individualized consideration; idealized influence (attributed), and; idealized influence (behavior). Similarly, predetermined codes were

used in culture orientation analysis. The highest-order codes used were: power distance; uncertainty avoidance; collectivism; masculinity, and; short-term orientation. Finally, initial codes used in motivation orientation were intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. These pre-determined codes were entered in Nvivo7's tree node function as parent codes. Chunks of texts that were inputted into each node were then analyzed to develop more specific categories or themes. This was conducted through a thorough reexamination of texts, which included the assignation of new codes to certain tree node sub-levels.

CHAPTER 7 - PRESENTATION OF DATA

7.1. OVERVIEW

This chapter includes a detailed presentation on the findings of the study, which includes the statistical results of data, as well as verbal accounts of interviewed

managers, and observed findings. Data findings on both the quantitative and qualitative research were presented through tables, followed by a narrative discussion of the results. The quantitative data results that were presented include the descriptive and correlation findings of the study. On the other hand, qualitative data results were presented through discussions, whereas quasi-statistical findings from the qualitative data were also presented through tables.

7.2. DATA PRESENTATION

A clear and sufficient elaboration and explanation of results that were calculated using the data obtained from the various instruments used in the study is presented in section.

The presentation of data is divided into three main sections, which are:

1. The quantitative data results, which include the presentation of results from the surveys conducted on Bahrain organisation employees and managers using the MLQ and WVQ instruments;
2. The qualitative data results, which include the discussion of the interview results with Bahraini managers, and observation results from few managers who were included in the interview samples and also agreed to be observed;
3. The comparison and synergy of quantitative and qualitative data results.

The movement from the research question to the data collection approach begun in the quantitative phase of the study wherein surveys on leadership styles of Bahraini managers and work values of Bahraini employees were conducted. One of the important variables in the research question, which is the leadership styles of Bahraini

managers, was addressed by surveying a total of fifteen manager respondents from VTDI using the MLQ questionnaire. Literature review findings suggested the effectiveness of transactional and transformational leadership over laissez-faire leadership on various organizational variables, including motivation. Aside from the being the pioneer survey instrument for measuring transformational leadership traits, the MLQ was also successfully used by various leadership studies and confirmed its high reliability and internal validity (Shahin & Wright, 2004; Chaudhry et al., 2012; Chaudhry & Javed, 2012; Raman & Rajan, 2012; Birasnav et al., 2013; Khalifa & Ayoubi, 2015; Prabhakar et al., 2016).

On the other hand, another important variable was the motivation orientation of Bahraini employees, which was addressed by conducting a survey approach on 35 employee respondents using a modified WVQ questionnaire. The WVQ was selected for its capability to determine the intrinsic and extrinsic work values of employees (Furnham et al., 2009). As stressed in the first chapter, work value instruments have been found to have high reliability and viable in cross-cultural settings (Super, 1970; Wollack et al., 1971; Gay et al., 1971; Elizur, 1984). It was replicated and confirmed for its applicability in different culture settings, high reliability, and high internal validity (Elizur, 1984; Borg, 1986; Elizur, 1987; Selmer, 2000; Furnham et al., 1995; Furnham et al, 2005; Furnham et al., 2009).

7.2.1. Demographic Results – Employees

A quantitative survey was conducted on 35 Bahraini employees from a Bahrain organisation to determine their motivation orientation by gaining insights on their work

values using Furnham et al.'s (2005) Work Values Questionnaire. As shown in Table 7.2.1a, most of the employee respondents that were surveyed were males (54.3 percent), but were followed closely by females (45.7 percent).

| Table 7.2.1a | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Gender of Employee Respondents | | | | |
| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Females | 16 | 45.7 | 45.7 | 45.7 |
| Males | 19 | 54.3 | 54.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 35 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

Further, the respondents ranged from ages 25 to 58, and averaged to around 35 years of age (see Table 7.2.1b and Table 7.2.1c), which means that a large number of the respondents were in their late twenties, early thirties, and mid-thirties.

| Table 7.2.1b | | | | | |
|------------------------------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|--|
| Age of Employee Respondents | | | | | |
| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent | |
| Valid 58.00 | 1 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 2.9 | |
| 57.00 | 1 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 5.7 | |
| 56.00 | 1 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 8.6 | |
| 48.00 | 1 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 11.4 | |
| 45.00 | 2 | 5.7 | 5.7 | 17.1 | |
| 44.00 | 1 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 20.0 | |
| 43.00 | 1 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 22.9 | |
| 42.00 | 1 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 25.7 | |
| 40.00 | 1 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 28.6 | |
| 37.00 | 1 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 31.4 | |
| 36.00 | 1 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 34.3 | |
| 34.00 | 2 | 5.7 | 5.7 | 40.0 | |
| 32.00 | 5 | 14.3 | 14.3 | 54.3 | |

| | | | | |
|-------|----|-------|-------|-------|
| 31.00 | 1 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 57.1 |
| 30.00 | 3 | 8.6 | 8.6 | 65.7 |
| 29.00 | 2 | 5.7 | 5.7 | 71.4 |
| 28.00 | 4 | 11.4 | 11.4 | 82.9 |
| 27.00 | 3 | 8.6 | 8.6 | 91.4 |
| 26.00 | 1 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 94.3 |
| 25.00 | 2 | 5.7 | 5.7 | 100.0 |
| Total | 35 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

| Table 7.2.1c | | | | | |
|-------------------------------------|----|---------|---------|---------|----------------|
| Average Age of Employee Respondents | | | | | |
| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
| Age | 35 | 25.00 | 58.00 | 35.0571 | 9.27661 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 35 | | | | |

Data results also revealed that most of the respondents were married (71.4 percent), and only a small number were single (28.6 percent) (see Table 7.2.1d). Finally, the respondents' annual income ranges from BD4, 800 to BD120, 000 a year, with an average of BD7, 551 a year (see Table 7.2.1e and Table 7.2.1f).

| Table 7.2.1d | | | | |
|--|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Marital Status of Employee Respondents | | | | |
| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| S | 10 | 28.6 | 28.6 | 28.6 |
| Valid M | 25 | 71.4 | 71.4 | 100.0 |
| Total | 35 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

| Table 7.2.1e | | | | |
|---------------------------------------|--|--|--|--|
| Annual Income of Employee Respondents | | | | |

| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
|--------------|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| BD10000 | 1 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 2.9 |
| BD10800 | 3 | 8.6 | 8.6 | 11.4 |
| BD12000 | 1 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 14.3 |
| BD4800 | 1 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 17.1 |
| BD5000 | 2 | 5.7 | 5.7 | 22.9 |
| BD5400 | 2 | 5.7 | 5.7 | 28.6 |
| BD5500 | 2 | 5.7 | 5.7 | 34.3 |
| Valid BD6000 | 8 | 22.9 | 22.9 | 57.1 |
| BD6600 | 3 | 8.6 | 8.6 | 65.7 |
| BD7200 | 2 | 5.7 | 5.7 | 71.4 |
| BD8000 | 1 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 74.3 |
| BD8100 | 1 | 2.9 | 2.9 | 77.1 |
| BD9000 | 3 | 8.6 | 8.6 | 85.7 |
| BD9600 | 5 | 14.3 | 14.3 | 100.0 |
| Total | 35 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

| Table 7.2.1f | | | | | |
|---|----|---------|---------|---------|----------------|
| Average Annual Income of Employee Respondents | | | | | |
| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
| Annual_Income | 35 | 4800 | 12000 | 7551.43 | 2070.148 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 35 | | | | |

7.2.2. Instrument Reliability Test – Work Values Questionnaire

A reliability scale test set to Cronbach's Alpha was conducted using SPSS 20 in order to test the internal consistency of the Work Values Questionnaire that was used to survey the 35 Bahrain employee respondents. The results in Table 7.2.2 revealed an Alpha of 0.80, which indicates that 80 percent of the scores from the 37 item questionnaire were internally consistent.

Table 7.2.2

| Reliability Statistics for Work Values Questionnaire | |
|--|------------|
| Cronbach's Alpha | N of Items |
| .803 | 37 |

7.2.3. Work Values Questionnaire Results

As stated earlier, the first hypothesis of the study tests whether or not the motivation orientation of Bahraini employees is leaning more toward intrinsic work values than extrinsic work values. In addition, it is followed by a sub-hypothesis that addresses significant difference between the work motivation values of employees and managers. Specifically, the following hypotheses were stated in Chapter 5:

Hypothesis 1^a: The motivation orientation of Bahraini employees is leaning more toward intrinsic work values than extrinsic work values.

Hypothesis 1^b: There is a significant difference between the work motivation values of employees and managers.

The Work Values Questionnaire, which was developed by Furnham et al. (2005), was adopted in order to test this first set of hypotheses. The instrument was distributed to a total of 35 Bahrain employee respondents to determine their most important extrinsic and intrinsic motivators. The codes for the Work Values Questionnaire were:

1. Work Relationships or WR (Items 7,8,9,10,12,21,24,28,29,30,33, and 35).
Extrinsic motivation factors were items 9,10,24,29,30, and 33; Intrinsic motivation factors were items 7,8,12,21,28, and 35;

2. Influence and Advancement or IA (Items 1, 2, 16, 17,20,22,23,25, and 32).

Extrinsic motivation factor was item 20; Intrinsic motivation factors were items 1, 2, 16, 17, 22, 23, 25,and 32.

3. Financial Working Conditions or FWC (Items 4,6,11,13,14,19,26,27,31,34, and 37). Extrinsic motivation factors were items 4,6,11,13,14,19,26,27,31, and 37; Intrinsic motivation factor was item 34;

4. Autonomy and Use of Skills or AUS (Items 3,5,15,18, and 36). All AUS items are intrinsic motivators.

Table 7.2.3a shows the descriptive statistics results for the Work Values Questionnaire as completed by the 35 Bahrain employee respondents. The results show all of the scores in each item were significantly higher than expected, indicating that work values of Bahrain employees were a balanced combination of desires for better work relationships, influence and advancement, financial and working conditions, and autonomy and use of skills. It should be noted that financial and working conditions are extrinsic factors that pertains to the benefits and compensations that employees receive, as well as the conditions in the workplace, such as safety, resources, and company image. On the other hand, autonomy and use of skills consists of intrinsic motivation items that refer to the extent to which the organisation allows the employee to work autonomously, and use their skills and abilities when necessary. However, the table also shows some slight differences on the scores, as some item averages were slightly higher than the rest. The highest descriptive average was on Q2, which pertains to “advancement and chance for promotion (IA)” followed by Q37 “work conditions

(FWC)”, Q3 “autonomy and personal freedom (AUS)”, Q13 “flexible benefits (FWC)”, Q4 “benefits (FWC)”, Q25 “participation in decision making (IA)”, Q9 “esteem (WR)”, Q21 “harmony (WR)”, Q35 “trust (WR)”, and Q26 “pay (FWC)”.

| Table 7.2.3a | | | | | |
|--|----------|----------------|----------------|-------------|-----------------------|
| Work Values Questionnaire Descriptive Results | | | | | |
| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
| Q2 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 5.4857 | .56211 |
| Q37 | 35 | 5.00 | 6.00 | 5.4571 | .50543 |
| Q3 | 35 | 3.00 | 6.00 | 5.3714 | .73106 |
| Q13 | 35 | 5.00 | 6.00 | 5.3143 | .47101 |
| Q4 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 5.3143 | .52979 |
| Q25 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 5.3143 | .67612 |
| Q9 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 5.2857 | .62174 |
| Q21 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 5.2571 | .61083 |
| Q35 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 5.2571 | .56061 |
| Q26 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 5.2571 | .74134 |
| Q18 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 5.2286 | .64561 |
| Q11 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 5.2286 | .64561 |
| Q7 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 5.2286 | .59832 |
| Q27 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 5.1429 | .73336 |
| Q20 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 5.1429 | .64820 |
| Q28 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 5.1143 | .58266 |
| Q8 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 5.1143 | .79600 |
| Q36 | 35 | 3.00 | 6.00 | 5.1143 | .71831 |
| Q24 | 35 | 3.00 | 6.00 | 5.1143 | .67612 |
| Q1 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 5.1143 | .79600 |
| Q19 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 5.0857 | .65849 |
| Q6 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 5.0857 | .65849 |
| Q5 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 5.0857 | .61220 |
| Q29 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 5.0286 | .61767 |
| Q16 | 35 | 3.00 | 6.00 | 5.0286 | .78537 |
| Q10 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 5.0286 | .51368 |
| Q34 | 35 | 3.00 | 6.00 | 4.9714 | .78537 |
| Q15 | 35 | 3.00 | 6.00 | 4.9714 | .66358 |
| Q12 | 35 | 3.00 | 6.00 | 4.9714 | .74698 |
| Q33 | 35 | 3.00 | 6.00 | 4.9429 | .80231 |

| | | | | | |
|-----------------------|----|------|------|--------|--------|
| Q22 | 35 | 3.00 | 6.00 | 4.9429 | .83817 |
| Q32 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 4.9143 | .65849 |
| Q14 | 35 | 3.00 | 6.00 | 4.9143 | .74247 |
| Q17 | 35 | 3.00 | 6.00 | 4.8571 | .69209 |
| Q23 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 4.8286 | .66358 |
| Q31 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 4.8000 | .71948 |
| Q30 | 35 | 4.00 | 6.00 | 4.7714 | .54695 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 35 | | | | |

As indicated in WVQ, “advancement and enhancement for promotion” and “participation in decision making” are factors included in the Influence and Advancement (IA) category, while “flexible benefits” and “pay” are factors included in Financial and Working Conditions (FWC) category. Meanwhile, “esteem”, “harmony”, and “truth” are factors included in the Work Relationships (WR), while “autonomy and personal freedom” is included in Autonomy and Use of Skills (AUS). These items were included in their respective categories because they were the result of Furnham et al.’s (2005) factor analysis, which led to the creation of the WVQ or Work Values Questionnaire. Nonetheless, what could be discerned from these findings is that the top ten highest perspective averages were mostly extrinsic motivation factors that relate to financial and working conditions, while intrinsic values that were on the top ten were mostly related to work relationships with colleagues.

Interestingly, the majority of the items that got the lowest averages were Influence and Advancement items. Particularly, some of the lowest averaged items were Q30 “relationship with subordinates (WR)”, Q31 “resources (FWC)”, Q23 “opportunity for personal growth and development (IA)”, Q17 “influence in the work group/team (IA)”,

Q14 “human resources backup (FWC)”, Q32 “responsibility (IA)”, and Q22 “managerial respect (IA)”. Most of these IA items were intrinsic motivators.

The scoring of the WVQ results recommended by Furnham et al. (2005) was conducted to determine the actual scores for each of the four work values dimension. The scores of each respondent in each category were added up and then computed to determine the average total score for each work values dimension. The results in Table 7.2.3b shows that the dimension that returned the highest score was AUS or Autonomy and Use of Skills ($M=5.15$), but were followed very closely by the other three work values dimension. Nonetheless, the lowest dimension that returned the lowest score was IA or Influence and Advancement ($M=5.06$). These descriptive results suggest that most of the respondents had a fairly balanced work values in all of the dimensions, basically considering almost all of the values important in their working experience. As can be seen in Table 6.2.3a, the average scores never got lower than $M=4.77$, which indicates that the respondents either agreed or strongly agreed in all statements. No single dimension received a radically higher average than the rest, which suggest the employees’ balanced intrinsic and extrinsic work values. However, the respondents were slightly more in favourwith the AUS dimensions, which means that they consider autonomy in work as slightly more important than other dimensions. Further, the respondents also considered IA as slightly less important than the rest, which suggest that moving up in position and gaining influence in work was least of the respondents’ priority. Nonetheless, it should be noted that these slightly higher and lower averages were not very pronounced and are basically not enough to conclude the most important

or least important dimensions. Therefore, Hypothesis 1^a is not supported as the results did not show any significant peak in the intrinsic work values of Bahraini employees. Rather, the respondents mostly agreed that all work values are important, giving slightly higher importance on autonomy, and less importance on influence and advancement.

| Table 7.2.3b | | | | | | |
|--|----|---------|---------|--------|--------|----------------|
| Work Values Questionnaire Scores Per Dimensions | | | | | | |
| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Sum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
| AUS | 35 | 4.20 | 5.80 | 180.40 | 5.1543 | .36327 |
| FWC | 35 | 4.55 | 5.55 | 179.73 | 5.1351 | .27834 |
| WR | 35 | 4.54 | 5.62 | 178.85 | 5.1099 | .26403 |
| IA | 35 | 4.29 | 5.71 | 177.29 | 5.0653 | .32009 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 35 | | | | | |

An independent t-test analysis was conducted to determine the differences in results among the different categories of samples that were collected in the study. One particular sample category of interest was the occupation of the respondents, which were divided into two groups: managerial; and non-managerial. The respondents that were surveyed in the study had different professions but can be divided into managers and non-managers. As shown in the results in Table 7.2.3c, majority of the respondents were non-managers at 65.7 percent. On the other hand, 34.3 percent of the respondents hold managerial positions. The purpose of the independent sample t-test was to determine if the work values of Bahrain employees differed in terms of occupation, particularly on whether managers have different motivations in work as compared to non-managers.

| Table 7.2.3c | | | | |
|--|-----------|---------|---------------|--------------------|
| Work Values - Managerial and Non-Managerial Occupation | | | | |
| | Frequency | Percent | Valid Percent | Cumulative Percent |
| Managerial | 12 | 34.3 | 34.3 | 34.3 |
| Non-Managerial | 23 | 65.7 | 65.7 | 100.0 |
| Total | 35 | 100.0 | 100.0 | |

The independent sample t-test results in Table 7.2.3d show that the differences on the responses between managers and non-managers on work values were not significant in all work value dimensions. The Levene's test for the equality of variance showed that assumed equal variances were not significant in all dimensions at the p value of .05. Respectively, the WR ($p=.148$), IA ($p=.584$), FWC ($p=.931$), and AUS ($p=.677$) all scored higher significance than .05, which instils confidence on the relationship between the T value and the significance level associated with the T value. Basically, it tests the homogeneity of variance assumptions, specifically the assumption that the variances are the same in both samples by measuring the extent to which they are not statistically significant. If in any case the Levene's test revealed statistically significant results, then it means that there were statistically significant differences in the variances, which would render the t test results unfit, as the assumptions on the homogeneity of variance were not met (Martin & Bridgmon, 2012). Fortunately, the Levene's test in the current study showed that all of the variances in each of the four categories were not statistically significance, indicating that the variances were obtained from the same samples and have met the requirements for interpreting the results of the independent t test samples.

The t-test results in Table 7.2.3d show that the differences between managerial and non-managerial work values were not statistically significant in all of the work values dimensions at the p value of .05. Specifically, there were no significant differences in the scores for managerial and non-managerial in WR, with a score of $t(33)=.498$, $p=.622$. Similar results were found in IA with $t(33)=1.202$, $p=.238$, FWC with $t(33)=.480$, $p=.635$, and AUS with $t(33)=1.549$, $p=.131$. These imply that the t-test results for the equality of means in all dimensions were not significant at the p value of .05, and are more likely accurate. These results suggest that there were no significant difference on the work values of Bahrain managerial and non-managerial employees. Thus, it can be concluded that Hypothesis 1^b was not supported as the work values of Bahrain employees were the same regardless of occupational power and that any slight differences found were not statistically significant.

| Table 7.2.3d | | | | | | | | | | |
|--|-----------------------------|---|------|------------------------------|--------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|---|--------|
| Independent Sample T-Test Analysis on Occupation of Respondents and Work Values Dimensions | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
| | | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| | | | | | | | | | Lower | Upper |
| WR | Equal variances assumed | 2.199 | .148 | .498 | 33 | .622 | .04737 | .09508 | -.14607 | .24081 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | .533 | 27.014 | .598 | .04737 | .08880 | -.13483 | .22957 |
| IA | Equal variances | .305 | .584 | 1.202 | 33 | .238 | .13614 | .11325 | -.09427 | .36654 |

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|-----|--|------|------|-------|--------|------|--------|--------|---------|--------|
| | assumed Equal variance s not assumed | | | 1.132 | 19.067 | .272 | .13614 | .12030 | -.11559 | .38786 |
| FWC | Equal variance s assumed Equal variance s not assumed | .008 | .931 | .480 | 33 | .635 | .04809 | .10026 | -.15589 | .25207 |
| | | | | .493 | 24.226 | .626 | .04809 | .09749 | -.15302 | .24920 |
| AUS | Equal variance s assumed Equal variance s not assumed | .176 | .677 | 1.549 | 33 | .131 | .19638 | .12678 | -.06156 | .45431 |
| | | | | 1.527 | 21.567 | .141 | .19638 | .12859 | -.07061 | .46336 |

7.2.4. Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Results

The second set of hypotheses deals with the leadership issues that current study intends to explore. Specifically, it attempts to test the extent to which Bahraini managers practice elements of transformational and transactional leadership, their preferred leadership style versus the one they are implementing, and the difference between male and female leadership styles. Specifically, the following hypotheses were stated in Chapter 5:

Hypothesis 2^a: The leadership style of Bahraini managers is not purely laissez-faire, but also includes elements of transactional and transformational leadership.

Hypothesis 2^b: There is a significant difference between the preferred leadership styles of Bahraini managers and the one they are currently practicing.

Hypothesis 2^c: There is a significant difference between the leadership styles of male and female Bahraini managers.

The Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire was used to test these hypotheses and was distributed to Bahraini managers from VTDI. A total of 10 managers completed the survey. The codes for the MLQ dimensions that were incorporated within the questionnaire are as follows:

1. Laissez-Faire Leadership (LF) = Q1, Q16
2. Idealized Influence – Behaviour (II-B) = Q2, Q12
3. Idealized Influence – Attributed (II-A) = Q9, Q10
4. Contingent Reward (CR) = Q4, Q17
5. Management-by-Exception – Passive (MBE-P) = Q5, Q8
6. Management-by-Exception – Active (MBE-A) = Q11, Q13
7. Individualized Consideration (IC) = Q7, Q14
8. Intellectual Stimulation (IS) = Q3, Q15
9. Inspirational Motivation (IM) = Q6, Q18

Similar to the WVQ, a reliability tests were conducted on the MLQ. The results revealed an Alpha of 0.66 (see Table 7.2.4a), which indicates that 66 percent of the scores from the questionnaire were internally consistent.

| Table 7.2.4a | |
|---|------------|
| Reliability Statistics for Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire | |
| Cronbach's Alpha | N of Items |
| .658 | 36 |

The results in Table 7.2.4b shows the descriptive findings on what the managers actually do when they perform their leadership duties. The top five items that returned the highest descriptive averages were: Q14 “I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others (IC)”, Q18 “I express confidence that goals will be achieved (IM)”, Q17 “I express satisfaction when others meet expectations (CR)”, Q13 “I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards (MBE-A), and Q6 “I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished (IM)”. On the other hand, the items that returned the lowest scores were Q1 “I avoid getting involved when important issues arise (LF)”, Q5 “I wait for things to go wrong before taking action (MBE-P)”, Q8 “I show that I am a firm believer in ‘If it ain’t broke, don’t fix it’ (MBE-P)”, and Q16 “I delay responding to urgent questions (LF)”. These results indicate that Bahraini managers’ leadership styles are not only limited to laissez-faire traits, but also includes transactional and transformational traits, which overall supports Hypothesis 2^a.

| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
|-----|----|---------|---------|--------|----------------|
| Q14 | 10 | 2.00 | 4.00 | 3.5000 | .70711 |
| Q18 | 10 | 3.00 | 4.00 | 3.4000 | .51640 |
| Q17 | 10 | 3.00 | 4.00 | 3.4000 | .51640 |
| Q13 | 10 | 2.00 | 4.00 | 3.3000 | .82327 |
| Q6 | 10 | 3.00 | 4.00 | 3.3000 | .48305 |

| | | | | | |
|-----------------------|----|------|------|--------|---------|
| Q12 | 10 | 2.00 | 4.00 | 3.1000 | .56765 |
| Q4 | 10 | 2.00 | 4.00 | 3.0000 | .66667 |
| Q2 | 10 | 2.00 | 4.00 | 3.0000 | .81650 |
| Q10 | 10 | 1.00 | 4.00 | 2.9000 | .87560 |
| Q3 | 10 | 2.00 | 4.00 | 2.9000 | .87560 |
| Q15 | 10 | 1.00 | 4.00 | 2.7000 | 1.15950 |
| Q7 | 10 | 1.00 | 4.00 | 2.7000 | 1.41814 |
| Q9 | 10 | 1.00 | 4.00 | 2.5000 | .84984 |
| Q11 | 10 | 1.00 | 3.00 | 2.3000 | .67495 |
| Q16 | 10 | 0.00 | 3.00 | 1.7000 | 1.05935 |
| Q8 | 10 | 0.00 | 3.00 | 1.3000 | 1.05935 |
| Q5 | 10 | 0.00 | 2.00 | .9000 | .87560 |
| Q1 | 10 | 0.00 | 2.00 | .8000 | .91894 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 10 | | | | |

The results in Table 7.2.4c shows the descriptive findings on what the managers ought to be doing when leading their employees. The results show that the findings were similar with the respondents' actual leadership practices. These suggest that the respondents agree with their current leadership practices and that they do them on their own accord. It also suggests that they are not pressured by the organisation or any authoritative figure to favour a particular leadership style.

| Table 7.2.4c | | | | | |
|---|----|---------|---------|--------|----------------|
| MLQ Descriptive Results on the Leadership Style the Respondents Ought to be Practicing | | | | | |
| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation |
| Q14_O | 10 | 2.00 | 4.00 | 3.5000 | .70711 |
| Q18_O | 10 | 3.00 | 4.00 | 3.4000 | .51640 |
| Q17_O | 10 | 3.00 | 4.00 | 3.4000 | .51640 |
| Q13_O | 10 | 2.00 | 4.00 | 3.3000 | .82327 |

| | | | | | |
|-----------------------|----|------|------|--------|---------|
| Q6_O | 10 | 3.00 | 4.00 | 3.3000 | .48305 |
| Q12_O | 10 | 2.00 | 4.00 | 3.1000 | .56765 |
| Q4_O | 10 | 2.00 | 4.00 | 3.0000 | .66667 |
| Q2_O | 10 | 2.00 | 4.00 | 3.0000 | .81650 |
| Q10_O | 10 | 1.00 | 4.00 | 2.9000 | .87560 |
| Q3_O | 10 | 2.00 | 4.00 | 2.9000 | .87560 |
| Q15_O | 10 | 1.00 | 4.00 | 2.7000 | 1.15950 |
| Q7_O | 10 | 1.00 | 4.00 | 2.7000 | 1.41814 |
| Q9_O | 10 | 1.00 | 4.00 | 2.5000 | .84984 |
| Q11_O | 10 | 1.00 | 3.00 | 2.3000 | .67495 |
| Q16_O | 10 | 0.00 | 3.00 | 1.7000 | 1.05935 |
| Q8_O | 10 | 0.00 | 3.00 | 1.3000 | 1.05935 |
| Q5_O | 10 | 0.00 | 2.00 | .9000 | .87560 |
| Q1_O | 10 | 0.00 | 2.00 | .8000 | .91894 |
| Valid N (listwise) | 10 | | | | |

The actual scoring of the MLQ was conducted to be able to compare the means on the scores of the respondents on each leadership style. The results in Table 7.2.4d show that most of the respondents were transformational and transactional leaders. As shown in the table, the leadership style that returned the highest score was IM ($M=3.35$), followed by CR ($M=3.20$), IC ($M=3.10$), and II-B ($M=3.05$). IM or Inspirational Motivation is a type of transformational leadership that focuses on creating enthusiasm and confidence in achieving goals. On the other hand, CR or Contingent Reward is a transactional style wherein the leader expresses satisfaction when an employee meets his or her expectations, identifies that employees, and provide appropriate rewards. IC or individualized consideration is a transformational leadership style that considers the different needs of employees and spending time to coach them. Finally, II-B or Idealized Influence Behaviour is a transformational style that focuses on sharing one's beliefs and ideals to employees, and ensuring that all decisions are grounded moral and ethical

standards. The lowest scores were MBE-P ($M=1.05$), which is a transactional style, and LF ($M=1.35$), which stands for laissez-faire leadership. Further, all of the leadership styles had the same score on both “actually doing” and “ought to be doing” perceptions except for MBE-A and MBE-P. MBE-A had a slightly lower “ought to be doing” score ($M=2.75$) than the respondents’ “actually doing” score ($M=2.85$). On the other hand, MBE-P had a slightly higher “ought to be doing” score ($M=1.10$) than the “actually doing” score ($M=0.5$). These results suggest that the respondents mostly prefer and practice these leadership styles as compared to other styles, which suggest that they are more transformational than transactional, and are more transformational and transactional than laissez-faire.

| Table 7.2.4d | | | | | | |
|---------------------------------|----|---------|---------|--------|----------------|--|
| MLQ Scores Per Leadership Style | | | | | | |
| | N | Minimum | Maximum | Mean | Std. Deviation | |
| IM_O | 10 | 3.00 | 4.00 | 3.3500 | .41164 | |
| IM | 10 | 3.00 | 4.00 | 3.3500 | .41164 | |
| CR_O | 10 | 2.50 | 4.00 | 3.2000 | .53748 | |
| CR | 10 | 2.50 | 4.00 | 3.2000 | .53748 | |
| IC_O | 10 | 1.50 | 4.00 | 3.1000 | .84327 | |
| IC | 10 | 1.50 | 4.00 | 3.1000 | .84327 | |
| II-B_O | 10 | 2.50 | 4.00 | 3.0500 | .55025 | |
| II-B | 10 | 2.50 | 4.00 | 3.0500 | .55025 | |
| MBE-A | 10 | 2.00 | 3.50 | 2.8500 | .57975 | |
| IS_O | 10 | 2.00 | 4.00 | 2.8000 | .71492 | |
| IS | 10 | 2.00 | 4.00 | 2.8000 | .71492 | |
| MBE-A_O | 10 | 2.00 | 3.50 | 2.7500 | .58926 | |
| II-A_O | 10 | 1.00 | 4.00 | 2.7000 | .78881 | |
| II-A | 10 | 1.00 | 4.00 | 2.7000 | .78881 | |
| LF_O | 10 | 0.00 | 2.00 | 1.3500 | .62583 | |
| LF | 10 | 0.00 | 2.00 | 1.3500 | .62583 | |
| MBE_O | 10 | 0.00 | 2.00 | 1.1000 | .80966 | |
| MBE-P | 10 | 0.00 | 2.00 | 1.0500 | .76194 | |

| | | | | | |
|-----------------------|----|--|--|--|--|
| Valid N (listwise) | 10 | | | | |
|-----------------------|----|--|--|--|--|

A paired T-Test analysis was conducted to compare the means on the “actually doing” and “ought to be doing” results. As expected, correlation and t could not be computed on all items except MBE-A and MBE-P because the standard error of the differences returned zero. Nonetheless, the results revealed that both pairs were significantly correlated with their counterparts with a result of $r=.935$, $p<.05$ for MBE-A, and a result of $r=.892$, $p<.05$ for MBE-P.

| Table 7.2.4e | | | | | | | | | |
|---|------------------|--------------------|----------------|-----------------|---|--------|-------|----|-----------------|
| Paired T-Test Analysis on MBE-P and MBE-A | | | | | | | | | |
| | | Paired Differences | | | | | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) |
| | | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | | | | |
| | | | | | Lower | Upper | | | |
| Pair 5 | MBE-P MBE-P_O | -.05000 | .36893 | .11667 | -.31392 | .21392 | -.429 | 9 | .678 |
| Pair 8 | MBE-A MBE-A_O | .10000 | .21082 | .06667 | -.05081 | .25081 | 1.500 | 9 | .168 |

However, T test analysis has revealed that differences between these pairs were not significant at the p value of .05 (see Table 7.2.4f). Specifically, the difference was insignificant for the scores in MBE-P (M=1.05, SD=.761) and MBE-P-O (M=1.10, SD=.809) as the conditions were $t(9) = -.429$, $p=.678$. Similarly, the difference was insignificant also for the scores in MBE-A (M=2.85, SD=.579) and MBE-A-O (M=2.75, SD=.589), with conditions of $t(9)=1.50$, $p=.168$. Therefore, Hypothesis 2^b was not

supported as there were no significant differences between the “actual” leadership styles of the respondents and what they think they “ought to be doing”. In other words, most of the respondents are actually practicing what they think are “correct” leadership in specific situations. There were basically no difference between their leadership practice and their thoughts on what they should actually practice.

| Table 7.2.4f | | | | | |
|---|--------|---|--------|----------------|-----------------|
| Independent Sample T-Test Analysis Group Statistics | | | | | |
| Gender | | N | Mean | Std. Deviation | Std. Error Mean |
| LF | Male | 4 | 1.3750 | .47871 | .23936 |
| | Female | 6 | 1.3333 | .75277 | .30732 |
| II_B | Male | 4 | 3.3750 | .62915 | .31458 |
| | Female | 6 | 2.8333 | .40825 | .16667 |
| IS | Male | 4 | 2.8750 | .85391 | .42696 |
| | Female | 6 | 2.7500 | .68920 | .28137 |
| CR | Male | 4 | 3.6250 | .47871 | .23936 |
| | Female | 6 | 2.9167 | .37639 | .15366 |
| MBE | Male | 4 | .8750 | .75000 | .37500 |
| | Female | 6 | 1.1667 | .81650 | .33333 |
| IM | Male | 4 | 3.5000 | .57735 | .28868 |
| | Female | 6 | 3.2500 | .27386 | .11180 |
| IC | Male | 4 | 3.3750 | 1.25000 | .62500 |
| | Female | 6 | 2.9167 | .49160 | .20069 |
| MBE_A | Male | 4 | 2.8750 | .47871 | .23936 |
| | Female | 6 | 2.8333 | .68313 | .27889 |
| II_A | Male | 4 | 3.1250 | .62915 | .31458 |
| | Female | 6 | 2.4167 | .80104 | .32702 |

An independent sample t-test was conducted to determine the variances of responses on the leadership styles in terms of the respondents' gender. As displayed in Table 7.2.4f, a total of $N=4$ male respondents and $N=6$ female respondents were surveyed. Comparison of the mean for each leadership style revealed that there was little difference between the responses of male and female respondents. T-test analysis, which was displayed in Table 7.2.4g confirms this lack of significant differences except on CR or Contingent Reward, which returned a significant score of $t(8)=2.67$, $p=.030$. Further, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was also satisfied via Levene's F Test at $F(8)=.50$, $p=.504$. These findings suggest that there was no significant difference on the leadership styles between male and female managers except for Contingent Rewards, wherein more males favoured CR leadership styles over females. As stated earlier, Contingent Reward is a type of transactional leadership style wherein the leader acknowledges employee accomplishments, expresses his or her satisfaction, and provides the proper rewards. Therefore, these results partially support Hypothesis 2^c as they suggest that male managers are most likely to identify and recognize employee achievements through extrinsic rewards than female managers.

| Table 7.2.4g | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|-------|---|------|------------------------------|----|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------------|---|---------|
| Independent Sample T-Test Analysis on Gender of Managers and Leadership Style | | | | | | | | | | |
| | | Levene's Test for Equality of Variances | | t-test for Equality of Means | | | | | | |
| | | F | Sig. | t | df | Sig. (2-tailed) | Mean Difference | Std. Error Difference | 95% Confidence Interval of the Difference | |
| | | | | | | | | | Lower | Upper |
| LF | Equal | .566 | .474 | .097 | 8 | .925 | .04167 | .42823 | -.94582 | 1.02916 |

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|-------|-----------------------------|-------|------|-------|-------|------|---------|--------|---------|---------|
| | variances assumed | | | | | | | | | |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | .107 | 8.000 | .917 | .04167 | .38953 | -.85660 | .93994 |
| II_B | Equal variances assumed | .354 | .568 | 1.670 | 8 | .134 | .54167 | .32443 | -.20646 | 1.28979 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 1.522 | 4.698 | .192 | .54167 | .35600 | -.39141 | 1.47474 |
| IS | Equal variances assumed | .200 | .667 | .256 | 8 | .804 | .12500 | .48747 | -.99912 | 1.24912 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | .244 | 5.544 | .816 | .12500 | .51133 | - | 1.40155 |
| | | | | | | | | | 1.15155 | |
| CR | Equal variances assumed | .490 | .504 | 2.627 | 8 | .030 | .70833 | .26963 | .08657 | 1.33010 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 2.490 | 5.429 | .051 | .70833 | .28443 | -.00579 | 1.42245 |
| MBE | Equal variances assumed | .042 | .843 | -.570 | 8 | .584 | -.29167 | .51137 | - | .88756 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | -.581 | 6.994 | .579 | -.29167 | .50173 | - | .89495 |
| | | | | | | | | | 1.47089 | |
| | | | | | | | | | 1.47829 | |
| IM | Equal variances assumed | | | .934 | 8 | .378 | .25000 | .26761 | -.36711 | .86711 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | .808 | 3.915 | .466 | .25000 | .30957 | -.61694 | 1.11694 |
| IC | Equal variances assumed | 3.891 | .084 | .827 | 8 | .432 | .45833 | .55414 | -.81952 | 1.73619 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | .698 | 3.627 | .527 | .45833 | .65643 | - | 2.35713 |
| | | | | | | | | | 1.44047 | |
| MBE_A | Equal variances assumed | 1.032 | .339 | .105 | 8 | .919 | .04167 | .39665 | -.87302 | .95635 |
| | Equal variances | | | .113 | 7.918 | .913 | .04167 | .36752 | -.80736 | .89069 |

| | | | | | | | | | | |
|------|-----------------------------|------|------|-------|-------|------|--------|--------|---------|---------|
| | not assumed | | | | | | | | | |
| II_A | Equal variances assumed | .010 | .922 | 1.480 | 8 | .177 | .70833 | .47849 | -.39506 | 1.81173 |
| | Equal variances not assumed | | | 1.561 | 7.637 | .159 | .70833 | .45377 | -.34678 | 1.76345 |

7.2.5. Qualitative Study Results

A qualitative study was also conducted in accordance to the mixed method design recommended by the pragmatism research paradigm. As stressed in the methodology chapter, pragmatism combines the strengths of quantitative and qualitative research to carry out a more flexible and practical study to address the research problems. Basically, it allows the combination of two research paradigms of different philosophies to practically meet the research objectives (Creswell, 2009). Therefore, in contrast to the positivism paradigm used in the quantitative study, a constructivist philosophy was enabled in the qualitative study to lift the objective restrictions and allow the researcher to practice subjectivity. To allow triangulation of data, Victory Training and Development Institute (VTDI) was again selected as the case sample. Moreover, qualitative study was basically informed by the quantitative results by initial knowledge on leadership styles and motivation orientation of VTDI employees. These details would serve as anchors to have an idea what to expect when interacting or observing certain respondents. The study basically follows a sequential transformative approach, wherein methods are employed to best serve the theoretical perspective and that the results are integrated in the interpretation phase (Creswell, 2009). VTDI was selected because of the access of the researcher to the organisation, which would make the interviews and observations

less difficult to schedule. Further, it was also selected because of the combination of available managers that are able to provide the appropriate information needed for the study.

There were basically two sets of interviews and observations conducted in the study – Set A and Set B. The first set of interviews/observations was basically successful on inquiring about the leadership styles of several managers from VTDI. A total of 15 respondents were interviewed about leadership, and a few from those 15 respondents were interviewed about their values and culture orientation. Because of the conflicts in time and schedules of both the respondents and the researcher, some of the interviews were more in-depth than the others. These interviews/observations can be divided into four levels based on the depth and combination, which shows in the following list:

1. Level 1 – Respondents who were interviewed about leadership style and culture, and were observed.
 - Manager 1-1A
 - Manager 1-1B
2. Level 2 – Respondents who were interviewed about leadership style and culture, but were not observed.
 - Manager 1-2A
 - Manager 1-2B
 - Manager 1-2C

3. Level 3 – Respondents who were interviewed about leadership style, and were observed.
 - Manager 1-3A
 - Manager 1-3B
4. Level 4 – Respondents who were interviewed about leadership style, but were not observed.
 - Manager 1-4A
 - Manager 1-4B
 - Manager 1-4C
 - Manager 1-4D
 - Manager 1-4E
 - Manager 1-4F
 - Manager 1-4G
 - Manager 1-4H

On the other hand, the second set of respondents, Set B, also includes VTDI managers. The difference between Set A and Set B is that the latter underwent more in-depth interviews as compared to the former. Managers in Set B were interviewed regarding their leadership styles and culture orientation, as well as their perception toward the effect of their leadership styles on different organisational variables including employee motivation. Basically, more time was spent on this set of interviews, and greater dialogue was exchanged between the researcher and managers. For the purpose of confidentiality, the actual names of these respondents were also not stated in the

research similar to the first set of managers. The actual names were replaced with codes, such as the following: (1) Manager 2-1A; (2) Manager 2-1B; (3) Manager 2-1C; (4) Manager 2-1D, and; (5) Manager 2-1E.

Interviews and observations were conducted during the last days of September, 2014, and then reoccurred in April to May 2015. Each interview lasted for at least one hour of dialogue exchange, while each observation session lasted for at least 3 hours.

Observations were carried in order to get more accurate information on the behaviour of selected VTDI's managers and their interaction with their employees. The following sections discuss the interview and observation results pertaining to the leadership styles of the selected managers and how they have formed as an acceptable practice in the organisation and in Bahrain's culture.

7.2.5.1. Leadership Styles

The leadership styles of managers from VTDI were further explored through personal interviews and observations. The first set of interviews included 15 managers from the organisation. The first set basically included two types of interviews, which covered leadership styles and cultures, but did not involve inquiries on the respondents' perception on the effects of their leadership style on different variables within the organisation. Nonetheless, these interviews were in-depth and included exchanges of dialogues with the respondents themselves. Due to the issue of confidentiality, the actual names of these managers were not mentioned in the presentation of data. The overall results basically confirmed the quantitative findings of the study regarding the leadership styles of the managers in VTDI.

Out of the 15 managers interviewed, only four were found to have a full laissez-faire leadership style. These were the managers who admitted that they tend to avoid important issues when they arise, and delay responses to urgent questions. For instance, one of these four managers (Manager 1-4F) stated his involvement with his team was just overall guidance and not really someone who should be there in case an important issue arises. His reasoning was mainly due his confidence on the abilities of his team and that the ICT department directly supports his team. Manager 1-4F was against the act of responding immediately to urgent questions. According to him, responding to urgent questions is sometimes difficult when in a meeting or other important events.

Similarly, Manager 1-3B also boldly admitted his laissez-faire style of leadership. He stated he can only be consulted for the final decision, arguing that he does not need to “stick his nose” into everything. Manager 1-3B also stated that since business concerns are continuous, then it will be difficult to respond to every urgent question as they come. He argued that there should be flexibility, and sometimes, responding to urgent questions can be sacrificed if other important matters are being attended to. Manager 1-4B and Manager 1-4D also have the same perspectives when it comes to leadership. These managers admitted that they seldom involve themselves with their employees and just let their employees solve important issues as they arise. In other words, they were not very hands-on when it comes to troubleshooting problems.

Table 7.2.5.1a

Laissez-Faire Leadership Sub-Themes and Behaviours Identified with Sub-Themes

| Themes | Sub-themes | Behaviour identified within sub-themes |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------------|--|
| Laissez-Faire Leadership Traits | Non-involvement in important issues | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Thinks employees can always handle all types of issues; • Sees leadership as only providing guidance when asked; • Expecting employees to be self-reliant. |
| | Delayed responses to urgent questions | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Few hours delay won't make a difference; • Prioritizes seniors over lower level employees asking urgent questions. |

Most of the other interviewees were found to have strong transactional leadership traits, particularly on contingency rewards and active management-by-exception. Most of the respondents stated that they assign certain employees on specific performance targets, which is basically a characteristic of a contingent reward leader. For instance, Manager 1-4C stated that he review tasks and then select the best performers to handle them. Further, Manager 1-1B stated his employees are categorized based on their expertise and performances, which he uses to assign certain employees to different levels of tasks. Other managers who were asked the same question also had similar responses. Another contingency reward characteristic that was found among the majority of the respondents was the act of complementing and rewarding employees when targeted goals had been met. One of the respondents, Manager 1-3A, stated that he “direct them (employees) and highlight the reward they will get if targets are achieved”. Similarly, Manager 1-4A stated “I always express satisfaction whenever my team met my expectation”. When further asked, these managers confirmed that they value the

importance of rewards and complements as they believe that such as actions will help motivate employees and encourage them to do their jobs properly and give their bests.

Aside from contingency reward, most of the respondents were transactional leaders as they practice active management-by-exception. This means that they believe changes are sometimes necessary to prevent future failures, and it is better to take note of failures and create plans to prevent them from reoccurring in the future. Active management-by-exception is basically the opposite of passive management-by-exception, within which the leadership behaviour is focused on waiting for problems to arise before making any necessary actions or interventions. Active management-by-exception is a pro-active transactional leadership trait that believes in the importance of change and planning. For example Manager 1-4G stated: “successful leadership believes in change. In this regard, I can easily adopt change and I don’t resist it”. He also stated that he performs immediate action whenever he encounters problems as he is “not the type who will wait for something to be broken before fixing it”. Another example is Manager 1-1A, who stated that he does not resist change and is always open to change as the end result can be more beneficial than not having any change at all. Manager 1-1A also stated that he also prefers to be proactive as he does not like the idea of waiting for mistakes to happen before making any move.

| Table 7.2.5.1b | | | |
|--|-------------------|--|----------|
| Transactional Leadership Sub-Themes and Behaviours Identified with Sub-Themes | | | |
| Themes | Sub-Themes | Behaviours Identified with Sub-Themes | |
| Transactional | Acceptance of | Positive | Negative |

| | | | |
|-------------------|---|--|---|
| Leadership Traits | Change | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Doesn't believe in the saying "if it's not broken, don't fix it" • Change is necessary in achieving certain plans; • Change is vital for business; • Careful planning | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Believes in the saying "if it's not broken, don't fix it" |
| | Addressing problems | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Creates precautionary plans to avoid future problems; • Takes notes of failure to develop plans for future problems; • Does not wait for problems to go bigger | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Wait for problems to arise before addressing them; |
| | Employee Job Delegation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Based on skills; • Based on specialization; • Assign on specific target tasks | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Doesn't assign individual employees on job targets because of prioritizing team efforts |
| | Praises and rewards on completion of target goals | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Verbal and written praises; • Performance pay plans; • Promotions; • Development opportunities | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Passive, non-vocal on achievements; • Fear of spoiling employees |

Respondents in VTDI mostly possessed transformational leadership characteristics, except for the Individual Consideration (IC) dimension, wherein a considerable number of the respondents have opposing responses. For example Manager 1-4E opposes the idea that employees that have different needs, abilities, and aspirations, but rather argued that they are mostly similar, making one a perfect reliever to anyone who would

not come to work. This was also the same perception of Manager 1-2B. Similarly, Manager 1-4H also sees his employees collectively, as having “the same needs and abilities as well aspirations”. On the other hand, majority of the respondents were also not too keen on the idea of coaching their employees. Manager 1-3A stated that he is always very busy and have no time coaching his staff. He stated that he either just sends them to in-house training or outsource training from the outside. Manager 1-4G was also in a similar situation of not having enough time to coach his employees, and therefore just opt to send them to training outside the organisation. Nonetheless, some of the managers have more positive views toward coaching. One example is Manager 1-2A, who stated that he spends time teaching and coaching his employees because he want them to feel that he is hands-on and they are important to the organisation. Further, he also considers that his employees have different needs and aspirations, so therefore he treats them as individuals based on their skills and situations. Manager 1-4C also has the same perceptions, and stated that he finds time as much as possible to coach his employees. However, this manager does not completely believe that people have different needs, but instead believed that his employees have similar needs. Generally, the majority of the respondents do not apply IC in their leadership styles.

In contrast to their general perception on IC, most of the respondents embraced the values of Intellectual Stimulation (IS), which is the act of looking for new ways to solve problems instead of just relying on the old ways. One of the respondents, Manager 1-3A stated: “I don’t usually go for tried and tested ways. I am kind of adventurous and I wanted to seek for new ways to solve them”. Manager 1-4G also expressed the same

beliefs and stated: “I usually find out new ways instead of adhering to the old ways I have. Who knows, new ways have better result than the ones I already have”. Nonetheless, almost half of the respondent still adhere to the old tried and tested ways and rejected the idea of finding new ways to solve issues within the organisation. For instance, Manager 1-2B stated that she is “more comfortable and at ease” is she will use the same strategy she have used before especially if that method has better outcomes. Similarly, Manager 1-4H considers brainstorming for new ways as “headaches” and “waste of time”. He considers the old ways as more time-savers, which can also lead to better outcomes.

Table 7.2.5.1c

Transformational Leadership Sub-Themes and Behaviours Identified with Sub-Themes

| Themes | Sub-Themes | Behaviours Identified with Sub-Themes | |
|------------------------------------|--|---|---|
| | | Positive | Negative |
| Transformational Leadership Traits | Looking for new ways to solve problems | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Create new solutions as alternatives; • Precautionary methods in case old methods fail; • Analyze tried and tested methods to create new alternatives. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stick to tried and tested ways; • Waste of time; • Making things complicated; • Overreliance on old methods. |
| | Seek employee perspectives | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Belief that team will contribute essential perspectives; • Respect and value employee opinions; • Involve employee in decision-making; • Gather employee perspectives in solving problems; | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rely on one’s instinct; • Lack of faith on the capability of employees to contribute something. |

| | | | |
|---|--|---|--|
| | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Motivating employees by allowing them to speak up | |
| Employee needs and abilities | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • All employees are unique; • Every employees have different needs, abilities, and aspirations; • Each employee is distinguished by his or her skill | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees are collective; • Most have the same needs, abilities, and aspirations. | |
| Coaching Employees | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Always find time to coach and teach employees; • To make employees feel important | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rely on staff development standards; • Rely on employee's capability to learn on his own; • Waste of time; • Encouraged to register in workshops | |
| Enthusiasm towards goals | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shows enthusiasm that goals will be achieved; • Helps motivate employees. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No need to show enthusiasm; • Confident on team's ability to handle tasks | |
| Express confidence that target will be achieved | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Show confidence among employees; • Encourage less performing employees; • Positive thinking when taking on goals • Helps motivate employees | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prefer to be strict; • Not showy; • Belief that expressing confidence may create tension. | |
| Moral and ethics | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Result is nothing if one does not morally or ethically; • Unethical decisions may create future problems; • Image building | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Results matter most that moral or ethical obstacles | |
| Values and | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Share values and | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unnecessary to share | |

| | | | |
|--|---------------------|---|--|
| | beliefs | beliefs to employees; <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Necessary to have common values; • Share but not all; • Useful in motivating employees; • Leading by example | values and beliefs. |
| | Respect | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Value difference among staff; • Keeping leader-member exchange alive; • Display optimism; • Being punctual; • Being open to opinions; • Regularly give compliments; • Make them feel that leader is not distant | |
| | Dedication to group | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sacrifice self-interest for group; • Refrain from stealing credits; • Give credit where credit is due; • Recognize team efforts; • Ethical way; • For the benefit of the organization | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personal interest over group interest; • Occasionally take credit from team's work. |

Seeking different perspectives from employees in solving problems is another leadership trait associated with IS. Surprisingly, a large majority of the respondents incorporate this to their leadership style. For instance, Manager 1-1B stated that she is very open to suggestions from her employees, and is eager to receive contributions from them. On the other hand, Manager 1-4G sees the act of looking for new solutions

alone very troublesome. He stated that he would rather call for a meeting and seek suggestions and recommendations from his staff than to “kill himself” of thinking for a solution alone. Additionally, Manager 1-2A stated that his staff never fails to amaze him with the ideas they share. The rest of the managers have the same perspective except for Manager 1-2C, who stated: “I don’t seek different perspectives and I just listen to my instinct and look for solutions to problems because I don’t think my subordinates have better solutions than what I have”. Nonetheless, the general finding is that most of the interviewees practice IS one way or another.

The interviews also revealed that most of the respondents practice Inspirational Motivation (IM), which is another important element of transformational leadership. This means that most of the managers show enthusiasm on completing target goals and expressing confidence that these goals will be achieved. However, there were still few managers who do not practice IM. For instance, Manager 1-1B rejected the idea of being enthusiastic about meeting the team’s target, and stated that she would rather just casually act about any task because of her confidence that her team will meet the target goals. Nonetheless, Manager 1-1B stated that she never fails to encourage and motivate her employees and always expressed confidence that goals will be achieved. In addition, some of the managers believe that there is no need for them to worry and their team needs little motivation. As stated by Manager 1-1A: “No need for me to worry much. The team is dedicated enough to achieve the task with few motivation words”. Regarding expressing confidence on the achieving goals, some of the managers choose a strict approach in expressing their confidence. For example, Manager 1-1A

stated: “Yes I am showing strictness sometimes in order for my subordinates to strive hard in achieving their tasks in a timely manner”.

Regarding Idealized Influence (II), the results of the study revealed that the managers mostly emphasize sharing important values and beliefs (behaviour) rather than instilling pride in their followers (attributed). Idealized Influence that focuses on behaviour emphasizes the need to consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions, as well as sharing the leader’s most important values and beliefs. For instance, Manager 1-3A revealed that he was an ethical person and did not care whether the results would be at his favour or not. He set an example to his employees in that decisions should be grounded on ethics and morality. Manager 1-4G also has similar beliefs, stating that he considers ethical and moral consequences when making decisions because his staff respects him as a superior. Interestingly, all of the respondents talk about their most important values and beliefs to their employees. One example is Manager 1-4E who stated that he leads by example and that is why he is sharing his ethical values and beliefs to his subordinates. On the other hand, Manager 1-4H stated: “Yes, sharing them is one way of telling my people that these are the values and beliefs that I wanted or expect them to follow”. In general, almost all of the respondents influence their employees by leading as good examples.

In contrast, the attributed type of Idealized Influence focuses on instilling pride to employees by acting in ways that build respect for the leader, and sacrificing self-interest for the benefit of employees. Most managers from the first set of interviews also

practiced this type of transformational leadership, except for several few who expressed opposition, such as Manager 1-1B, Manager 1-2C, and Manager 1-3A. Manager 1-1B stated that she valued her own self-interest, which she would not give up just for the sake of the team. Another manager, Manager 1-2C stated that she would not sacrifice her personal interests for the benefit of the group unless the group was worthy. Contrary to these perceptions, the majority of the respondents thought of the welfare of their team first before themselves. For instance, Manager 1-2B stated that she could not bear taking credit from her team. Manager 1-3A also gained respect from his employees by not taking credit from what they have accomplished.

7.2.5.2. Culture of VTDI Managers

Aside from determining their leadership styles, respondents in VTDI were also interviewed concerning their cultural orientation. Interviews about culture were conducted on all Level 1 and Level 2 respondents. An interview guide based on Hofstede's cross-cultural dimension model was used to determine the extent of their power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity, collectivism, and time orientation. As discussed in the literature review, Hofstede's cultural framework was the most widely used culture model (Chanchani & Theivanathampillai, 2002), which also received moderate empirical support since being introduced in the 1980s. Metcalf and Bird (2004) reported that over 1,500 studies verified the model's validity. Nonetheless, it was developed for quantitative research that includes multi-country respondents. It was adopted in the current study not to quantify the results, but as means to extract information regarding culture in order to gain insights on power relations, collectivism,

and uncertainty avoidance culture in VDTI. Although the objective was not to quantify the results, information gathered from the interviews using Hofstede's constructs were used to subjectively determine the culture of the organisation, and whether or not this culture could affect the relationship between leadership and motivation.

The qualitative findings revealed that a significant number of the managers in VDTI exert high power distance, but there were also those who exert low power distance to their employees. Specifically, a total of 24 statements reflect the strong power distance of several managers. These managers value the advantages of having authority, and exercise that authority to create a considerable distance between them and their employees. This is consistent with previous studies such as those conducted by Hofstede (1980), confirming that Arab culture has high power distance because of its high value for authority. One example is the statement of Manager 1-2A, who expressed the following:

“I let my employees express their opinions but I don't allow them to questions my decisions. They should respect and understand whatever decisions I made”.

Manager 2-1A also stated:

“As a leader, I think no one has the right to question my authority especially if I am an effective leader. Yes, I adapt an 'open door policy' and I allow my employees to express their opinions and ideas that are

beneficial for the organisation but anything that is of less value will not be entertained.”

Similarly, Manager 2-1E stated:

“Yes, they are very welcome to question my decision but they have to ensure that their suggestion is far better than mine.”

These managers clearly drew the line between their authority as leaders and the right of their employees to provide suggestions. This implied their assertion of authority, which distances them to a significant extent from their employees. Although their employees were allowed to express their opinion, they would most likely be rejected as the leader would still make the final call. This could potentially discourage anyone to ask questions or provide corrective suggestions even in such cases wherein corrections may be necessary. Other managers also expressed that they would like their authority to be absolute and unquestioned, although there are some who were open to ideas and suggestions.

Table 7.2.5.2a

| Power Distance Sub-Themes and Behaviours Identified with Sub-Themes | | | |
|--|----------------------|--|---|
| Theme | Sub-themes | Behaviours identified within sub-themes | |
| | | Low Power Distance | High Power Distance |
| Power Distance | Authority of manager | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees are allowed to share their views; • Decisions are made as a team; • Managers should listen to employees’ opinions; | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees cannot question a manager’s authority; • The manager is the sole decision maker; • Employees should trust their managers. |

| | | |
|--|--|---|
| Employee's respect for authority | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • They can ask questions but need to prioritize respect for authority; | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees must get to top management first to amend any wrongdoing of immediate manager (bureaucracy) |
| Finality of decision | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allows power dynamics and employee opinions to shape decisions; • Allow employees to correct any wrong actions. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Only the manager can make the final decision; • Adherence to bureaucracy; • Perception that only women tend to negotiate; • Employees only allowed to share ideas if they are sure they have better ideas than the manager; • Belief that only the manager can make the best decision |
| Consulting employees before applying changes | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To avoid issues in cultural differences; • To prepare team members; • Should reach a common understanding; • Address differing perspectives | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Young employees lack capability to provide feedback; • Employee feedback is not needed; • Employees understand |
| Employee's role | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Based on abilities; • Encourage to think out of the box; • Additional training and new knowledge gained may promote employee's roles. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inflexibility in employee's roles; • Stuck in job description |

In contrast, a total of 24 statements reflected the low power distance of some managers, which suggest that the power distance in VTDI might not be dictated by its

culture, but by the individual preferences of the managers. Managers with low power distance were basically more approachable to employees, and were more enthusiastic in allowing employees to ask questions and provide suggestions. For example, Manager 2-1B stated:

“I want them to be active in questioning things if they believe that it is wrong. This will be for the benefit of the business.”

Similarly, Manager 1-1B stated:

“...We take decision as team and part of my leadership role is to discuss the business objectives to the employees to be part of decision making.”

Manager 1-1A also displayed low power distance with the following statement:

“...I want my employees to be proactive in asking questions when in doubt however I always ensure that they do not go beyond the authority level.”

These examples as well as the other statements in the qualitative data reflect the moderate power distance culture of VTDI. Based on the interview data and observations, managers basically allow the employees to provide feedback and give suggestions but only to a certain extent. Employees have the right to be heard and are given the proper venues to share their ideas. However, some of the managers showed tendencies to favour their own methods and solutions instead of actually incorporating the suggestions of employees to their plans. In other words, the idea of allowing

employees to share their opinions were nothing more than a means to make them feel like they contributed something to organisation, when in fact, it was their manager who often made the final decisions. The managers were not aware that despite their efforts in providing the proper venues for sharing opinions, they were unknowingly distancing themselves from their employees by asserting that their authority cannot be questioned by all means.

On the contrary, managers, like Manager 1-1A, Manager 1-1B, and Manager 2-1B, were openly encouraging their employees to become proactive in the decision making process. Interestingly, these managers were found to have strong transformational leadership traits, which might explain their low power distance approach. For example, Manager 1-1A stated that listens attentively whenever one of his staffs express his/her opinion or suggestion and makes them feel that their ideas are being valued. On the other hand, Manager 1-1B stated that she considers the individual skills of her employees and look for new solutions to problems. Observation data from Manager 1-1B also reflected her transformational style of leadership. She was very approachable and coach staff occasionally. Two employees who were working under her appeared to be very satisfied with their jobs. It was observed that one employee was very vocal with his opinions and Manager 1-1B actually entertained this instead of shrugging it off. In the end, it was observed that they were able to resolve their disagreements and maintained their good relationship.

The interview findings also revealed that VTDI has a very high uncertainty avoidance culture. The results showed that there were as much as 46 statements that favour uncertainty avoidance compared to only 8 statements that did not favour uncertainty avoidance. One of the themes that were found in these statements was the lack of tolerance of managers to disorganisation and chaos. Most of the managers stated that they would prefer their teams to be organized at all times and would not tolerate any type of chaos. For instance, Manager 2-1A stated the following:

“Yes, I would like my team to be organized all the time in following certain objectives for the organisation's sake.”

Similarly, Manager 2-1D stated:

“No one can work efficiently in a chaotic workplace. I prefer [it] if my team is organized”.

Other managers also shared the same sentiments, which indicated that VTDI follows a culture of orders and organisation, and has very little room for disorganisation. Nonetheless, one manager had an alternative perspective. Manager 1-2B stated that she preferred a “little bit of chaos” as such conditions may lead to productivity and

creativity among her employees. Unfortunately, her way of dealing with employee creativity may be too divisive to the organisation's culture. She was asked if she felt this way, and she stated that it was because the organisation preferred everything to be organized and controlled.

Other important themes found in the uncertainty avoidance statements included: managers preferred competence over flexibility; managers were strict in implementing simple rules such as wearing of identifications within office premises; managers were against the expression of emotions in public, and; managers were strict in the implementation of the organisational rules, policies, and regulations. Basically, these traits are all indications of an organisation that has a very high uncertainty avoidance culture. While this may be good for organisational stability, very high uncertainty avoidance may inhibit employee creativity and innovation. As stated by Manager 1-2A, focusing on flexibility instead of competence can encourage creativity.

| Table 7.2.5.2b | | | |
|---|----------------|---|--|
| Uncertainty Avoidance Sub-Themes and Behaviors Identified with Sub-Themes | | | |
| Themes | Sub-themes | Behaviours identified within sub-themes | |
| | | High Uncertainty Avoidance | Low Uncertainty Avoidance |
| Uncertainty Avoidance | Organization | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High systematic teams; • More productive; | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Looser structures provide more creative employees; • Better implementer |
| | Competence | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Highly competent employees are preferred over flexible employees; • Deadlines and time constraint; • Easy to control. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Flexible employees can encourage innovation; • Flexibility with good control. |
| | Identification | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Policy; | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not important; |

| | | | |
|--|-------------------|---|--|
| | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Non-negotiable; • Strict; • Conform to standards and procedures; • Security | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • As long as the employee is performing. |
| | Expression | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Professionalism; • Humiliating; • Proper place; • Control emotions; • Negatively impact the organization's image. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pretention is not healthy. |
| | Respect for Rules | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Strict implementation of rules and regulations; • Non-negotiable • Should be good role models. | NA |

High uncertainty avoidance may also paralyze employees from expressing their opinions, and giving suggestions as they see fit. In addition, it may also prevent employees from showing their true selves and may just create a facade to go with the organisation's dominant culture. For instance, Manager 1-1A stated that choosing not express one's emotions in public is pretentious and not healthy for the employees. This means that being less expressive in public could be a result of the organisation's high uncertainty avoidance, which was being implied to all employees as the dominant culture that should be followed. What Manager 1-1A could have meant by "pretentious" was actually pretending not to know anything or not having any problems despite the opposite. In general, high uncertainty avoidance could prevent employees from having a "voice" or the courage to voice out their opinions.

The results also revealed a high masculinity culture in VTDI. There were basically 35 statements in favour of masculinity as compared to only 15 statements in favour of femininity. One of the themes found was the high respect of managers on people who are successful. Most of the respondents stated that successful people are role models that people should aspire to become. Another theme was the preference of managers to work in a systematic environment rather than in a more relaxed state. As stated by Manager 1-1B:

“I always vote for a systematic environment for it will make things ordered and organized”.

Table 7.2.5.2c

| Masculinity-Femininity Sub-Themes and Behaviors Identified with Sub-Themes | | | |
|---|------------------|--|---|
| Themes | Sub-themes | Behavior identified within sub-themes | |
| | | Masculinity | Femininity |
| Masculinity-Femininity | Power | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Powerful and successful people are role models; • They inspire and set examples. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Do not look up to role models; |
| | Work environment | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Systematic | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relaxed environment |
| | Conflicts | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Disagreements are important; • Leads to critical thinking; • May produce new ideas; • Better decision | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Views and opinions are welcome. |
| | Success | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Men motivated by material success; | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Women more precise to quality; |

| | | | |
|--|---------|---|---|
| | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Women emotions are hindrance to decision-making; • Society, culture more in favour to men; • Women are a bit shallow; | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Draws strength from their minority status; |
| | Support | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seeks support only in difficult situations. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Seeks affection from staff; • Acts as a team |

Systematic is basically a masculine trait, whereas relaxed and caring are feminine traits. The desire to work in a systematic situation can be attributed to either a masculine culture or high uncertainty avoidance culture. As discussed before, VTDI had a very high uncertainty avoidance culture, which realistically leads to a high masculinity culture wherein systems and rules are valued more than working in a relaxed and friendly atmosphere. Aside from systems, VTDI managers also showed preference for having different opinions on things rather than having consensual thoughts when making decisions. Further, the managers also see that men and women have different ways of foreseeing success, and that women are more emotionally weak in decision making. For instance, Manager 2-1E interestingly stated that:

“Women's perception about success is quite different than what men see. Women are emotional and their idea of success is a bit shallow than what men see”

This statement may indicate that there could be gender bias within VTDI when it comes to making important decisions, or when it comes to other factors that may concern inputs or ideas from different parties. Basically, this was expected because VTDI is dominated by male managers, and therefore, may conform more to masculine types of culture than feminine. Nonetheless, there were women who stressed that their values were better than those of the men. Further, VTDI managers also generally displayed a feministic culture trait, particularly in terms of constantly seeking mutual affection and concerns of their employees. As stated by Manager 2-1D:

“Without their continuous support business objectives will not be achieved and concerns will not be solved that is why I always seek their affection and concerns.”

The results of the interviews also revealed that the culture in VTDI is a mix between individualism and collectivism, but leaning toward the latter. Accordingly, there were 29 statements in favour of collectivism as compared to only 20 statements in favour of individualism. A specific theme found among the statements that favour collectivism was the need to show loyalty to the group rather than practice individualism. One example is Manager 2-1A statement which goes:

“...my employees must have high level of loyalty to the groups wherein they belonged to for example in their department, however, that should not contradict the overall business objectives”.

Most of the other managers basically had the same perspective regarding group loyalty. This loyalty to the group also raised another theme that is akin to collectivist culture, which was the need to match one’s leadership style to group norm. Majority of the managers admitted that their leadership styles were not their personal preferences, but rather the preferences of their employees, specifically their conventions and norms. This implies that cultural factors may indeed influence the leadership style of the managers, particularly in an organisation with high collectivist culture. As stated by Manager 1-2A:

“My leadership actions flow from values and are considered and worthwhile based on employee norms”.

| Table 7.2.5.2d | | | |
|--|-----------------------|--|--|
| Collectivism-Individualism Sub-Themes and Behaviors Identified with Sub-Themes | | | |
| Themes | Sub-themes | Behavior identified within sub-themes | |
| | | Individualism | Collectivism |
| Collectivism-Individualism | Loyalty to group. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Should work alone; • Can give loyalty to people with same interests; • Should not contradict with overall business objectives. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Should be given to the in-group to increase the chances of completing objectives successfully. |
| | Conventions and norms | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leadership based on personal preference. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leadership style tailored to conventions and norms; • Leadership style tailored to personality and history. |

| | | | |
|--|------------|---|--|
| | Self-image | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Feeding the ego; • Perceptions are not accurate. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Maintaining an image leads to trust and interest of employees in their work; • Respect; • Self-awareness and self-management; • To have emotional closeness with employees. |
| | Promotion | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Achievement; • Job performance analysis; • Autonomy; • Creativity | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Age • Loyalty |
| | Relatives | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Helpful to relatives but do not engage in nepotism; • Should look for work on their own; • Nepotism is prohibited; • Culture can be used to mask failures; | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Help relatives but let them go through the recruitment process |

This statement means that Manager 1-2A bases his leadership on positive values which he draws from the norms of his employees. This is collectivist in a sense that despite having his own leadership preferences, he chose to incorporate elements into his leadership style which he thinks will please the majority of his employees. Nonetheless, one manager had an individualistic mindset when it comes to leading his team. Manager 1-1A stated that his leadership style focused on personal preferences because he believes he is well-experienced as a leader and he knows what he is doing.

Another theme found was that many of the managers were actually concerned with what their employees and co-managers thought of them. For example, Manager 2-1A

stated that he was concerned with the thoughts of his subordinates because they could indicate whether his leadership style was successful or not. He explained that leaders need to create conditions in which people will want to work to the fullest extent of their abilities. In order to create these conditions, leaders must be able to ascertain what his or her employees want, or what they think of certain types of leaderships. Another manager, Manager 2-1B, was also concerned with what his subordinates thought of him because he wanted them to respect him. Getting to know his employees' perception of him will enable him to assess if his actions are respected or not.

Other collectivism themes included the importance of age and loyalty for one's promotion and offering relatives help when they needed a job, but not necessarily nepotism. As stated by Manager 2-1A, age and loyalty are both important in the promotion of employees, while Manager 2-1D similarly stated that employee loyalty should be given to the team before being given the chance for promotion. On the other hand, many respondents admitted that they are always willing to help a relative when one needs a job. However, the managers clearly pointed out that their assistance has limitations and they would not engage in nepotism. For instance, Manager 1-1A and Manager 2-1D stated that they are willing to help their relatives get a job in their organisation, but they need to go through the normal HR process. In contrast, other managers did not agree with the idea of helping their relatives enter their organisation because of policies prohibiting such actions, and their belief that such acts would not help their relatives become independent.

Investigation on the final cultural dimension – time orientation – revealed that VTDI has a strong short-term orientation culture. There were 35 statements in favour on short-term orientation as compared to only 13 statements in favour of long-term orientation. This means that the organisation focused on the present and past elements, considering them as more important than the future. One of the themes found was that the managers were particularly concerned that their employees should learn the differences between good and bad behaviour. Focusing on these values means that they concentrate more on past traditions of good and bad behaviour, as well as maintaining stability by differentiating the two types of behaviour. A future oriented culture will not be concerned on such matter and will just focus on achieving the organisation's long-term goals.

| Table 7.2.5.2e | | | |
|---|-----------------------|---|--|
| Time Orientation Sub-Themes and Behaviors Identified with Sub-Themes | | | |
| Themes | Sub-themes | Behavior identified within sub-themes | |
| | | Short-Term Orientation | Long-Term Orientation |
| Time Orientation | Behavior | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees should know the difference between good and bad behaviour; • Expected from a professional; • Emphasized in the HR manual. | NA |
| | Culture | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Looking back to culture and roots is important; • Contributes to performance; • Better decisions; | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Actions should be projected to the future; • Some cultural traits are negative. |
| | Information Coherence | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Better for business decisions; • Avoid misconceptions and | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Contradictory views bring better judgment. |

| | | | |
|--|-----------|--|---|
| | | failures; <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Non-coherent information is misleading | |
| | Questions | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Asking “how” and “what” means eager enough to do things; • Asking “why” may imply questioning the manager’s authority; • “What” and “how” is more straightforward and will lead to better decisions. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • “Why” opens opportunities for employees to provide suggestions; • Open-ended |
| | Stability | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employee’s should value stability over change readiness; • Open business opportunities; | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Change is better; • Opens individual opportunities; • Employees should accept that change is inevitable; • Employees should be prepared to changes in the future |

Another theme was that most of the managers valued stability rather than organisational change. This means protecting the status quo despite having opportunities to improve the organisation through change. Further, most of the managers prefer that their employees ask ‘why’ instead of ‘what’ and ‘how’. According to Hofstede (1980), this shows their focus on the present instead of the future, as they value current systems more than identifying new problems and creating solutions for them. Asking “why” is basically relative to being concerned only with those that are already established, instead of looking for new ways to approach things or to solve problems. Finally, the managers prefer their employees to submit coherent and detailed information as they believe than information that lack details can be misleading and can get in the way of short term goals.

7.2.5.3. Relationship between Culture and Leadership Style

Some of the Set A respondents and all of Set B respondents allowed the researcher to gather essential information that would enable critical assessment on the relationship between the leadership styles of VTDI managers and their cultural orientation. Two Level 1 managers from Set A were interviewed about culture and leadership style, and were observed in their actual work. On the other hand, three Level 2 managers from Set A and all managers from Set B were interviewed regarding their leadership styles and culture orientation, but were not observed due to time and administrative restraints.

Based on the interview results, the dominant cultural dimensions in the VTDI were moderate power distance, high uncertainty avoidance, high collectivism, high masculinity, and short-term orientation. Generally, this indicates that VTDI's culture imposed strict rules, regulations, and policies on their employees, while having high regard on authority, success, conformity, and short-term goals. On the other hand, the leadership style survey and interviews revealed that the dominant leadership styles were transactional and transformational leadership, although there were few managers who still use a laissez-faire style. This implies that both transactional and transformational styles of leadership were compatible with VTDI's culture and the cultural orientation of managers.

As discussed earlier, the reliability of the MLQ survey was 0.66, which is somewhat acceptable as it predicts 66 percent of the results. However, this was not very high to

ascertain that the respondents were truthful in their responses. Further, it can also be recalled that only small number of the respondents were surveyed. This could also impact the reliability and validity of the results. On the other hand, the validity of the interview and observation results was attained by following Lincoln and Guba's (1985) guide. Specifically, not all suggestions to internal validity were accomplished, but the researcher ensured that all participants were qualified to participate and know about the nature of the research. Further, dialogues between the researcher and participants were exchanged to ensure honesty of responses, freedom of expression, and reflection. Aside from these, the researcher was also familiar with the culture of the selected organisation. Finally, triangulation was observed as results were compared and analyzed with the literatures and quantitative findings.

To improve external validity, transferability was enhanced through the quality and relevance of the respondents involved in the field work and using more than one data collection method. As stated earlier, the respondents were basically experts in their own respective fields and have years of experience to share. Additionally, the length of each data collection session and time period were also maximized (Cole & Gardner, 1979; Marchionini & Teague, 1987). This was also discussed in the methodology section, as well as to how reliability and objectivity of the data were improved.

Overall, there was moderate validity and reliability in both the quantitative and qualitative findings, but they were not sufficiently strong to consider the findings as absolute. Further, subjective interpretation on the relationship between leadership and

culture was less rigid as compared to objective empirical results. Therefore, the relationships discussed earlier were part speculative, although they were based on actual data. This was the case because encountered in the research process, such as small number of participants and time constraints. Nonetheless, this shows a general picture on the relationship between the leadership and culture.

More insights can be revealed on the relationship between leadership and culture by critically analyzing several individual cases. The first case is Manager 1-1A – a 33 years old Operations Department manager who is married and earns 21,600 Bahraini Dinar per year. Based on the interview results, Manager 1-1A's leadership style is leaning more toward transactional leadership, with the addition of several transformational leadership characteristics. He practices contingent rewards and active management-by-exception, as well as both active and behavioural idealized and influence, and a little bit of intellectual stimulation. On the other hand, his cultural orientation was low power distance, balanced individualism-collectivism, femininity, balanced uncertainty avoidance, and short-term orientation. These findings imply that Manager 1-1A's leadership style and cultural orientation are somewhat consistent. For instance, his active transactional and idealized influence approach is compatible with his low power distance and balanced uncertainty avoidance orientation. Keeping a close distance with employee allows him to share his values to his staff and keep tabs on ethical and moral issues. Furthermore, a balanced view on uncertainty avoidance allows him to consider risks and changes, and consider the opinions and suggestions of his employees. His overall caring attitude toward his employees also reflected his high femininity culture,

while his balanced individualist-collectivist perception ties his group together, while at the same time allowing them to practice individuality. During the observation, it was found that Manager 1-1A inspired his staff constantly by being a good example ethically and morally, and also developed their leadership capabilities by responding to their needs, sharing his most important values to them, listened to them, and putting the team first. However, his weakness was lack of transformational leadership traits such as inspirational motivation. This meant that he was not confident on his team's capability to complete tasks, and lacked enthusiasm when asking them to accomplish goals. Basically, he chose to become strict rather enthusiastic when ordering them to fulfil tasks. This may have something to do with his short-term orientation, which focuses on stability and coherence. Finally, his other weakness was his lack of individualized consideration as he believed in collective rather than individual needs, and that coaching and training were better outsourced. This behaviour can be attributed to his collectivist culture, wherein loyalty to the team and perception of others are more important than individual interest and perceptions. Interestingly, Manager 1-1A confirmed these weaknesses during the interview sessions on leadership style. He stated that he was a proactive type of manager who does not resist change. However, his style of motivating his employees focused more on strictness and one-sided communication. He did not believe in the strategy of motivating employees through expressing confidence in them and being enthusiastic about what is needed to be accomplished. In his own words, he preferred to show strictness to achieve goals rather than motivate employees in other ways. In addition, he was also against the idea

that individuals have specific needs. For him, everyone had the same collective needs as anybody, and therefore, single coaching or one-on-one training was necessary.

Another interesting case is Manager 1-1B – a 33 years old female quality assurance manager, who was single and earned a total of 9,000 Bahraini Dinar per year. The interview results on leadership style revealed that her leadership approach lean more toward transactional leadership and minor transformational leadership. Specifically, she practiced contingent reward and active management-by-exception, as well as intellectual stimulation and bit of individualized consideration and behavioural idealized influence. On the other hand, her cultural orientation was moderate power distance, collectivism, masculinity, uncertainty avoidance, and balanced time orientation. Manager 1-1B's preference for intellectual stimulation can be attributed to her belief that "a chaotic team is better". This meant that even though she was strict in implementing basic rules, she allows arguments and dialogues to occur within her premises to enhance the creativity and innovativeness of her employees. Intellectual stimulation can also be attributed to her high masculinity orientation, as this type of culture orientation give more challenges and opportunities for advancement to employees. However, it can be argued that some of her statements conflict with observation. For instance, even though she stated that employees should learn on their own, it was observed that she was always very helpful, patiently answering their questions, and sometimes coaching them to do certain tasks properly. The reason for this is that she was torn between implementing the policies and rules of VTDI, and staying true to her preference of constantly stimulating the creativity of her employees and seeking for new solutions to

problems. The strong uncertainty avoidance in VTDI indicates emotional compliance for rules, even if the rules did not work or were incompatible with the manager's personality. Further, there is a strong adherence to formality and risk taking is mostly discouraged. Based on Manager 1-1B's statements, and what was observed of her, her personality and approach to people could be incompatible to VTDI's strong uncertainty avoidance. This also includes her value for individuality as opposed to VTDI's strong collectivism culture. As discussed earlier, most of the managers in VTDI practice collectivism and several themes regarding these collectivistic practices were found. These themes included strong loyalty to the group, being concerned about "what others thought of them", and importance of age and connections within the organisation.

The three cases from Level 2 also show interesting results on how culture might affect leadership. For instance, the case of Manager 1-2A also shows that high power distance orientation may not be very inhibiting to non-traditional leadership styles as he showed strong transformational and transactional traits, except on one contingent reward trait and one idealized influence trait. Further, Manager 1-2A also has a high collectivism orientation, which means that he believed in loyalty to the group as opposed to individual interest. This basically complements his strong attributed idealized influence traits, wherein the self-interest of the leader is sacrificed for the benefit of the whole team. His strong collectivism also showed on the statements he made when he was being interviewed regarding his leadership style. He was always referring to his employees as 'his team' or 'his staff' even on questions about leadership traits that would be most likely be applied to an individual rather than to the whole team.

Also, similar to the other managers, his uncertainty avoidance was only strong on issues concerning formalities and discipline, but he was very open to change and flexibility. Finally, short-term orientation was again found as a strong predictor of transactional and transformational leadership as focus on the present requires technical motivation strategies to keep employees engaged and focused on their tasks. However, despite his strong short-term orientation, Manager 1-2A emphasized that he was open to changes and flexibility.

Manager 1-2B is similar to Manager 1-1A in a sense that she also excelled in idealized influence leadership. She was willing to share her values to her employees to some extent, and consider the ethical and moral consequences of each decision. Further, she also puts the team first before herself, and set an example to her employees. Similar to other managers, she also has high power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity, and short-term orientation. The only difference was that she was more of an individualist when compared to others who were more collectivists. She believed in the value of individual employees and did not base her actions on what others thought of her. She also believed that skills and abilities were the important factors for getting a promotion, and she also rejected nepotism. These individualistic values were similar to the values of Manager 1-1A, who was also a good idealized influence leader. Interestingly, despite her strong individualistic orientation, she disagreed with individual consideration leadership because according to her, most of her employees have the same needs and abilities, and that coaching/training should be obtained outside the organisation. The possible explanation for this was basically VTDI's own system, which was characterized

by high power distance, high uncertainty avoidance, and high collectivistic culture. This means that despite her desires to treat employees individually, the system emphasizes the value of teams and groups, and also limited the responsibilities of its managers to promote stability and lessen uncertainties.

7.2.5.4. Acceptance of Leadership Styles

The second set of interviews and observations was concentrated on whether the manager's leadership styles were accepted by the organisation. These interviews were conducted among Set B respondents, who had undergone more interview sessions than the respondents from Set A. As discussed earlier, there were two sets of respondents because the interviews in the first set were limited only on the subjects they were discussed earlier. Because Set B respondents were more open to discussions, they were asked additional questions relating to subjects that could potentially provide more insights to the results. One of these subjects was their acceptance of leadership styles. The interview results revealed several interesting insights regarding the perceptions of the managers toward this. Majority of the managers stated yes, while only one manager stated no. The main reason why the majority thought that their leadership style was well-accepted was because they did not receive any complaints relating to it. Specifically, the managers who stated yes emphasized the following:

1. Because employees have high work productivity;
2. Because employees put extra effort in their work;
3. Because employees were committed and passionate about their work;
4. Because employees were willing to contribute and make decisions;

5. Because employees appear to adapt with the style of the leader and were comfortable with it;
6. Because employees appeared to be more engaged in their work.

For example, Manager 2-1B stated that:

“...it is accepted because it is a good method of handling people and it encourages employees to perform professionally and productively at work.”

On the other hand, Manager 2-1C stated:

“Employees feel they are empowered to do their tasks regardless of the way they do the job as far as results and objectives are achieved”

In contrast, some of the managers felt that their employees were not very comfortable with their styles of leadership. For instance, Manager 2-1A stated that: “...employees tend to believe that work procedures and policies must be done in a specific ways and measures...” Somehow, Manager 2-1A believed that his strictness in the implementation of work policies and procedures limited his employees’ creativity at work, which made them opted for a less strict style of leadership. On the contrary, Manager 2-1E also felt the same way, stating that his employees were not so accepting of his style because thought that his less than strict approach on rules had led to lack of discipline among some of the employees. Generally, this contrast between the perceptions of Manager 2-1A and Manager 2-1E’s employees reflect the preference of

employees on a balanced strictness of rules implementation regardless of style of leadership.

7.2.5.5. Leadership Styles and Organisational Norms

Interview and observation results also revealed insights on the compatibility of the managers' leadership approach with the organisation's existing norms. Most of the respondents did not agree that their styles conflicted with their organisation's culture and norms. For instance, Manager 2-1A stated:

“My leadership style resembles or shall I say it complements with the organisation's values and culture. It is even beneficial in the attainment of the organisation's business objectives”

Manager 2-1A pointed out that his approach to leadership was incidentally compatible with the organisation's norms, and was basically helpful in achieving organisational objectives. However, another manager pointed out that leadership approaches are tailored based on the situations experienced within the organisation. Manager 2-1D stated:

“...my approach is adapted to the particular demands of the situation within the organisation, the particular requirements of the people involved and the particular challenges facing the organisation.”

Basically, this means that organisational problems encountered within VTDI required a type of leadership that is flexible, effectively motivates employees, and utilise their skills

since Manager 2-1D's approach was discovered through interview as a combination of transactional and transformational leadership traits. Manager 2-1B, who has a similar approach stated:

“I don't think it does. It is even parallel to the leadership approach that is practice in the organisation. That is why my colleagues are comfortable with my style since it is quite close to the style that they're familiar with.”

Based on these accounts, it can be interpreted that VTDI either knowingly or unknowingly promote leadership styles that motivate employees, instead of traditional approaches that are akin to non-leadership. These accounts suggest that VTDI has high standards when it comes to hiring managers, carefully selecting those who may utilise leadership approaches that are compatible with the norm of the organisation.

7.2.5.6. Leadership Styles and Organisation's Rules/Policies

The majority of the respondents stated that their leadership styles do not conflict with their organisation's rules and policies. Respondents provided different explanations, albeit some of them did not have anything to do with rules and policies. For example, Manager 2-1A stated that his leadership style:

“...plays an active role in the organisational development, it produces a positive corporate culture, motivated employees and the ability to change and grow as an organisation.”

Nonetheless, being less than straight to the point, Manager 2-1A wanted to elaborate that his approach does not violate any rules as it aims to motivate employees and uphold positive organisational culture. Similarly, Manager 2-1E stated that his leadership approach was:

“...similar to the business practices of the organisation and it do not contradict to that of the organisation.”

Manager 2-1B provided a similar view, emphasizing that she has consistently used an approach that matches the accepted practices within the organisation, which basically focuses on communication and motivation. Manager 2-1B further stressed that this is the reason her colleagues were comfortable with her approach as it is the approach they are familiar with.

Overall, these statements suggest that managers in VTDI do consider the rules and policies of their organisation before adapting a particular leadership approach. They made sure that their approaches were aligned with the organisation’s open-door policy and that they did not violate any rules in the process. Further, they outlined the positive effects of their leadership approaches to their employees, reflecting their claim that they uphold the organisation’s values, making their approaches well-accepted by fellow managers and employees alike.

7.2.5.7. Reasons for Selecting Specific Leadership Style

Conversations with the five managers provided some interesting insights as they revealed the reason for selecting a particular leadership style. For example, Manager 2-1D who practices a combination of transactional and transformational leadership stated that her leadership style was influenced by her belief in the capability of her people as they are well-trained and skilled. She stated that she selected this style because she felt that it was appropriate in her situation. She also did not choose this directly, but rather came naturally as she felt that it was the proper way to lead his employees. In other words, the adoption of her style was basically not planned, but was carried out of necessity to adjust with the needs of her employees and the culture of the organisation. She stated:

“...I firmly believe that learning by doing is the best practice that would help the employees achieves their targets”.

This reflected Manager 2-1D's aim to educate her employees through hands-on training, while at the same time considering their individual needs and abilities. This exemplifies her strong individualized consideration (IC) trait, which is an important element in a transformation leader. In addition, Manager 2-1D also never failed to express her confidence when targeting learning goals, which reflected her strong inspirational motivation trait (IM), which is another important transformational leadership element.

Another example is Manager 2-1C, who stated that his approach was to encourage creativity and innovation, which he thought would lead to improvements within the organisation. Manager 2-1C stated that he encourages them by: "...doing the tasks in a different ways or perspectives which will lead to better results." This basically reflected his transformational leadership approach, as it highlighted his intellectual stimulation (IS) trait. As discussed earlier, transformational leaders possess a trait that enables them stimulate the creativity and innovativeness of their followers.

Similarly, Manager 2-1B also aimed to develop her employees through her leadership approach. She stated that her approach was based on her belief that "success can be attained through unified efforts". She continued that she always focused on "developing and supporting" her team to encourage good teamwork and collaboration. She does this through motivating her employees by telling them specifically what are needed through be accomplished and showing enthusiasm that these goals can be met. Further, she also made sure to coach her employees and consider their individual needs. These traits basically confirmed her transformational approach, specifically in terms of inspirational motivation (IM) and individual consideration (IC).

7.2.5.8. Leadership Style and Employee Motivation

Most of the information obtained from interviews and observations revealed that the leadership styles of the managers affected the motivation of their employees. For instance, it was found that employees who work under transformational and transactional managers were more likely to be motivated because they: (1) felt that the

decisions they made were their own; (2) felt that they received a good amount of support every time they needed to achieve a certain task, and; (3) felt that they were worthy enough to contribute to the organisation. These were confirmed based on follow-up interviews and observations conducted on a number of employees working under leaders who were found to possess a combination of transformational and transactional leadership styles. Specifically, 7 employees working under laissez-faire managers, and 8 employees working under transactional/transformational managers participated.

One of the managers whose employees were interviewed and observed was Manager 1-1B. Her leadership style was found to be a combination of transactional and transformational leadership, with focus on individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, contingent reward, and active management-by-exception. One of the employees interviewed, whom we will call Employee R1, admitted that he was very committed to the organisation. He also stated that Manager 1-1B always inspired him to work better and give his best to the organisation. When asked to rate her manager's leadership style, he gave her a rating of 10 without any hesitation. Employee R1 explained that what impressed him was his leader's integrity and professionalism. Employee R1 added that his manager was always there when important issues arise and always demonstrated integrity with all her working relationships. In his own words, he stated:

“Yes she is always there when important issues arise. To begin with, she regularly reminds us, her team members of the purpose of our work. And

she knows that she's a role model for her team, so she demonstrates integrity in all of her working relationships. As a result, it motivates us all.”

Further, she constantly reminded them about the purpose of their work. When asked about learning, Employee R1 stated that he did not have any problem learning new skills, reflecting the ability of their manager to teach and coach them. In addition, Employee R1 also stated that Manager 1-1B never failed to compliment them, even if their accomplishments were only small.

When asked about his reasons for staying in the company, Employee R1 stated that he is currently staying because of the company's stability and reputation. This reflected Employee R1's strong extrinsic motivation. However, he also stated that another reason for keeping his job was his love for his work. Some of factors that contributed to his intrinsic motivation were the good leadership of his manager and the friendliness of his co-workers. Overall, it can be assumed that Employee R1 developed a sense of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation because of Manager 1-1B's leadership style and the organisation's image.

Similarly, Employee D2 under Manager 1-1B also said a lot of positive things about her manager. Manager 1-1B always inspired her to give her best to the organisation through encouragements, compliments, and rewards. In her own words, Employee D2 stated:

“I am very committed to my company so I rate my commitment as 10. In fact, I talk up this organisation to my friends as a great organisation to work for.”

Employee D2 also stated that she never had any difficulty learning new things in the organisation because her manager was always there to guide her and encourage her to become creative and innovative. In addition, even though she was a newcomer, Manager 1-1B never failed to show trust to her. As stated by Employee D2:

“I am just new in the company but she told me during our one-on-one meeting that she expects more from me and she said that I won’t fail her. She has trust that I can do the job that is being given to me because I am not new in this field.”

Employee D2 also admired her manager for setting high expectations and standards, but also “walks the walk”. In other words, Manager 1-1B never failed to show exceptional performance to her employees. When asked to rate her manager, Employee D2 gave a 9 because she was impressed with the way she led and encourage them. On the other hand, when asked about her reasons for keeping her job, Employee D2 simply stated her job commitment and supportive teammates. She expressed her satisfaction to her work, which was directly influenced by her manager’s style of leadership. She even mentioned that her boss was very “professional” and that

she enjoyed every moment of the tasks given to her. Overall, it can be assumed that Employee D2 was intrinsically motivated with her job as shown by her commitment.

Two employees working under Manager 2-1B were also interviewed and observed. The first employee, Employee B1, was also asked about her commitment to the organisation. After a few conversations, it was revealed that she was very committed to the organisation in a sense that she would “gladly” accept any assignments or tasks given to her. When asked about Manager 2-1B, Employee B1 stated that her manager has high expectations of her. She stated:

“I know she has high expectations on me because I am her assistant. It has a positive effect on my work because it teaches me to work hard and give my best in everything I do.”

Nonetheless, her manager always made it a point to acknowledge her major accomplishments and praise her in front of the other employees during meetings. Aside from acknowledging her accomplishments, Manager 2-1B also keeps her presence among her team. She stated that her manager:

“...is very hands-on she is always there whenever we need her guidance and support. She works with us closely and values our opinions which make me feel great about me.”

Employee B1 admitted that her manager generally inspired her to work better. As discussed earlier, Manager 2-1B possessed a combination of transformational and transactional leadership traits, which could be the reason as to why she was well-loved and well-accepted by her employees. During Manager 2-1B’s interview, it was discovered the she practiced inspirational motivation (IM) by making her employees believed in their capacity and showing enthusiasm that they would accomplish the task. Because of these approaches, Employee B1’s motivation to work was apparent. She even stated the following:

“Deciding to work for this organisation was a definite success. I have always appreciated her leadership style. She is someone that I look up to”.

When asked about her reason for staying in the company, Employee B1 stated that one of her reasons was to the opportunity to further her career in the company. She basically looks forward to a career growth, which can be considered as a form of intrinsic motivation. She was there not for the extrinsic rewards, but rather for the challenges, which according to her “makes things interesting”.

| Table 7.2.5.8a | | | |
|---|-------------------------------------|---|---|
| Employee Motivation Sub-Themes and Behavior Identified Within Sub-Themes – Perspectives from Employees Under Transactional-Transformational Leaders | | | |
| Themes | Sub-themes | Behavior identified within sub-themes | |
| | | Transactional-Transformational Traits | Non-Transactional-Transformational Traits |
| Employee Motivation | Perspective on Manager’s Leadership | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inspires the best in employees; • Engages employees towards work; • Know how to handle team | |

| | | | |
|--|--------------------------------|--|--|
| | | <p>properly;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provides guidance; • Has integrity and professionalism; • Approachable. | |
| | Employee's Learning Experience | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No difficulties in handling new tasks and challenges; • Can ask for guidance if having difficulty; • Quick learner; • Can easily adapt. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not briefed properly about the task |
| | Reasons for Staying | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Employees are valued and recognized; • Supportive colleagues and manager; • Passion and love for work; • Work-life balance; • Good salary; • Career growth. | |
| | Commitment | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Similar values to the organization; • Inspiring; • Proud working in the company; • Willing to take the extra mile to contribute. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Disagreement with organizational policies concerning employees |
| | Manager's Expectations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High expectation, which leads to motivation. | |
| | Manager's motivation approach. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Takes time to understand employees; • Small gestures; • Provides work-life balance; • Shows genuine care; • Good listener; • Detailed job descriptions; • Incentives and compensation. | |

Similarly, Employee A2 under Manager 2-1B also expressed his satisfaction with his manager's leadership. He gave a high score to his commitment, stating that he found his values and the organisation's values to be very similar. Further, he also stated that the organisation knows how to value his importance. Regarding his manager, he had nothing but kind words to her. He stated:

“My manager is very enthusiastic and passionate. She is very concerned and involved in every process and she is focused in helping her members to succeed as well which is why we have a unified team you can really see that everyone in our team is working to meet the expectation of our boss.”

He also stated that her manager inspired to give his best to every job, which extremely helped in improving his performance. His manager motivated him by recognizing his contributions to the company through complements and rewards using the organisation's recognition scheme, which was also his reason for staying in the organisation. Further, his manager also promoted work-life balance by allowing flexible schedules and understanding family commitments. Generally, Employee A2 was more extrinsically motivated than intrinsically motivated because he frequently mentioned the perks and recognitions he had received. Incidentally, it was observed that Employee A2's performance was bordering only from satisfactory to good. He also sometimes lacked initiatives with certain tasks. In this regard, it can be assumed that although he was extrinsically motivated, he was lacking in intrinsic motivation. Nonetheless, his

performance and relationship with his manager was still better as compared to some of the employees working under laissez-faire managers.

On the other hand, several employees working under laissez-faire managers were also interviewed and observed. Interestingly, it appeared that there was more dissatisfaction and dissent among their ranks as compared to those working for transformational and transactional leaders. Employee S1, who works under Manager 1-4D, revealed that her commitment to the organisation can only be ranked as 5 out of 10 and that she only works for it because she needed her job. She revealed that the presence and guidance of her manager is rarely felt, which result in blame culture among employees and lack of cohesiveness. Regarding its effects on her motivation, Employee S1 stated:

“I am not as driven as I was before maybe because of the leniency that I see in my Manager. And because of her lack of control and little guidance, projects can go off-track and deadlines are being missed at times.”

According to Employee S1, her manager encourages her sometimes, but she often gets inspiration elsewhere. She also rated her manager low in terms of performance because she believed her manager did a poor job in defining their roles as employees and guiding them when guidance are necessary. When she and her manager was observed together, it was found that she was not only one who was disappointed but also her other teammates. It was noticed that she was not very committed at work and she seldom approach her manager. In fact, it was obvious that there was a bit of tension

and distance between them, reflecting their poor relationship. Although it can be said generally that Employee S1 does her job, she appeared to be lacking in both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation.

Similarly, Employee A1, who was also working for Manager 1-4D, was found very dissatisfied with his job. According to him, he was happy that his manager gave him enough autonomy in his job. However, overall he was not satisfied because his manager rarely guided them and often avoided personal responsibility for group failure.

Employee A3 stated:

“She counts on her subordinates that are why she has high expectations from us. Which is very hard most of the time especially when there are tasks or goals we can’t meet. It is easy for her then to blame her subordinates for not completing tasks or living up to her expectations”.

Employee A1 stated that he is committed to the organisation and the he respects her manager’s trait of not taking credit from others. However, he stated that he was frustrated with his manager’s poor leadership as it was weak, inconsistent, and disreputable. According to him, his manager’s leadership was not ideal in their department because of his teammates could not set their own deadlines, and could not solve problems effectively without any form of guidance. Employee A1 also cited the poor communication in his department, which was negatively affecting the flow of work. Observation results also revealed that Employee A1 was mostly distant from his

superior and peers. Further, his performance was mediocre and never demonstrated enough to show that he was actually committed to his job.

| Table 7.2.5.8b | | | |
|--|-------------------------------------|---|---|
| Employee Motivation Sub-Themes and Behavior Identified Within Sub-Themes – Perspectives from Employees Under Laissez-Faire Managers | | | |
| Themes | Sub-themes | Behavior identified within sub-themes | |
| | | Non-Laissez-Faire Traits | Laissez-Faire Traits |
| Employee Motivation | Perspective on Manager's Leadership | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Disappointed; • Team mates cannot commit to deadlines; • Overreliance on delegation of tasks; • Poorly defined roles; • Minimal presence; • Seldom reach out to employees. |
| | Employee's Learning Experience | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Always ask questions; • Confident; • Sufficient experience; • Attentive. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tendency to resist change; • Lack of concentration. |
| | Reasons for Staying | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learning new things; • Passion and love for work; | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Being able to leave the office anytime; • Benefit and compensation package; • Laid-back atmosphere. |
| | Commitment | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Passion and love for work; • Organization recognizes individual and team effort. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of commitment because of poor leadership; • Only work out of necessity. |
| | Manager's Expectations | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High expectation but with less supervision led employees to believe they are being trusted. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Manager has high expectation but blame's subordinates for one's fault; • High expectation but usually uninvolved; • Lack of control; • Little guidance; |

| | | | |
|--|---------------------------------------|--|--|
| | | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leniency |
| | <p>Manager's motivation approach.</p> | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Takes the time to talk to employees; • Provides feedback; • Celebrates achievements. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sends employees to training. |

In contrast, some employees under laissez-faire leadership appeared to be motivated extrinsically. One example is Employee F1, who works under Manager 1-3B. She stated she was motivated enough to stay in the company because good facilities, benefit packages, and helpful colleagues. However, she also stated some concerns on the leadership style of her manager. In her own words, she said:

“Yes she is letting us do things that we want without interfering in our work. She is hands-off and allows us to make decisions. I like it that way sometimes because I have a complete freedom to make decisions however I don't feel that it is right. It is not ideal particularly in our department where most of the members are new and lack the knowledge or experience they need to complete tasks and make decisions”.

Employee F1 explained that her motivation to work comes from the company's facilities and training programs. Somehow, these extrinsic tangible factors appealed to her, and thus, were reasons enough to retain her job. However, her concern was her manager's lack of presence, which negatively affects the morale of their team. She also shared her concerns regarding the inconsistencies in VTDI's policies. She stated:

“Sometimes we, employees feel like policies are not applied evenly and fairly; for example managers may not be penalized for activity employees would expect to see punished and another issue is ambiguity wherein the imposed policies were not actually practiced for example our company promotes work-life balance however they only promote single employee who works long hours without complaint.”

However, despite these concerns, it was observed that Employee F1 had a very good relationship with Manager 1-3B. She was obviously enjoying the autonomy of her work, and was often not shy to approach her manager. Further, she was punctual, professional, and an exceptional performer. Nonetheless, her motivation to work was more likely rooted from extrinsic factors as her statements often included the work environment, training programs, and helpful employees as top of her concerns. She did not mention any references to working because “she likes the work”, or working because of her desire to grow as an employee.

Similarly, Employee M2, who was also working under Manager 1-3B, shared almost the same sentiments. Employee M2 also pointed out the lack of presence of her manager but interpreted this as their manager’s way of giving them autonomy to work without any supervision or guidance. According to her, autonomy of work and salary were the main reasons she was still staying in the company. She also stated that her manager often celebrates success with the team, and even treat them to lunch. In contrast, she also

questioned her manager's laissez-faire approach as most of the time; the manager only briefly interacts with them, with less guidance. Further, she also mentioned the lack of open-communication strategy in the organisation. She stated:

“No open communication strategy whereby they can't convey the underperformance employee and provide constructive feedback and also there is no training provided for the underperformance employees”.

In spite of these concerns, it was observed that Employee M2 has a good professional relationship with manager. She appeared happy during work, and also showed a lot of respect to Manager 1-3B. It was also observed that what contributed the most to her good performance was her closeness with her peers. Overall, it can be concluded that Employee M2 was motivated extrinsically to the extent that she was enjoying the working conditions and the compensations she was receiving from the organisation.

Based on the interview and observation data of seven employees working under laissez-faire managers, it can be concluded they were more likely to be motivated through extrinsic factors than intrinsic factors. Interestingly, as shown in Table 7.2.5.8c, several positive employee behaviours were found even under this type of leadership, which include being committed to work, customer satisfaction-oriented, self-reliant, and good performance to name a few. However, a number of negative employee behaviours were also discovered, including difficulty collaborating with other groups, being aloof,

not contributing significantly to group tasks, being unable to raise concerns and issues to managers, and many more.

| Table 7.2.5.8c | |
|---|---|
| Employee Behaviour Under Laissez-Faire Leadership | |
| Positive | Negative |
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Committed to work; 2. Customer satisfaction-oriented; 3. Enjoys autonomy given by manager; 4. Enjoys job; 5. Good performance; 6. High engagement level; 7. Open to feedback; 8. Professionalism; 9. Respects manager; 10. Self-reliant 11. Social ties with colleagues and manager. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Difficulty collaborating with other groups; 2. Disappointed with manager; 3. Distances himself/herself from manager; 4. Distances himself/herself from co-workers; 5. Does not contribute significantly to group tasks; 6. Does not raise issues with superior; 7. Mediocre performance; 8. Not comfortable with a woman manager; 9. Not committed to work; 10. Underperformance; 11. Unhappy with work. |

On the other hand, based on the interviews and observations of 8 employees from 5 transformational-transactional managers, it was found that employees working under these managers displayed less negative behaviours. As displayed in Table 7.2.5.8d, the only two negative behaviours found were lacking initiative and procrastination. For instance, one employee displayed procrastination and appeared to be less motivated, but her performance was good and was guided thoroughly by her manager. In contrast, positive employee behaviours found among these employees include having exceptional performance at work, being passionate about work, self-driven and

motivated, and having very strong commitment. These behaviours were not found among employees working under laissez-faire managers. Thus, it can be interpreted that while motivated employees are possible in laissez-faire leadership, employees in transformational-transactional leadership are more likely to be intrinsically motivated and display better performance and stronger organisational commitment. Further, employees under transformational-transactional leadership also displayed less negative behaviour, as compared to employees under laissez-faire leadership. Employees under laissez-faire were more likely to become unhappy with their jobs, underperform, and uncommitted to work. In addition, these employees never excelled beyond good performance, and were not as committed as those working under transformational-transactional managers.

| Table 7.2.5.8d | |
|---|---|
| Employee Behaviour Under Transformational-Transactional Leadership | |
| Positive | Negative |
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Comfortable with manager; 2. Exceptional performance; 3. Good performance; 4. Good rapport with managers and colleagues; 5. Happy with job; 6. Highly engaged; 7. Passionate about work; 8. Self-driven and motivated; 9. Strong commitment. | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Lacks initiative; 2. Procrastination. |

7.2.5.9. Culture as a Mediating Variable

The interview sessions with Set B respondents enabled the assessment of data to determine the role of culture as mediating variables since these respondents underwent

not only the interview sessions about leadership but also about their cultural orientation and their perceptions on the impact of their leadership styles on employee motivation. The respondents were generally transactional and transformational leaders as shown in their interview results and occasional informal dialogues and conversations with them. They mostly possess contingent reward characteristics, as well as active management-by-exception characteristics. This means that it is basically a standard practice among managers to assign employees on tasks based on their skills and provide sufficient rewards based on their performances. Further, it also means that it is a standard practice among managers to think of new solutions to recurring problems and believe in the necessity of changes. In general, most of the managers in VTDI are transactional, which reflects their culture as shown in the interview results. The qualitative findings generally revealed that VTDI has a high power distance and uncertainty avoidance culture. This means that the organisation is fairly systematic and has a high respect for authority and stability. A bureaucratic organisation that follows a certain system and values stability would most likely implement reward schemes in order to prevent employee dissatisfaction and turnover. This is what the organisation currently does in order to keep their employees in check. Rewards are standard and systematic in order to ensure that their employees are satisfied and extrinsically motivated. The systematic reward was also aligned with the organisation's high masculinity culture and short-term orientation, which focuses on success and achievements on short-term goals, and strong value for systematic process and competitive environment.

On the other hand, there were some cases in Set B that stood above the rest because of their noticeable differences. For instance, Manager 2-1E scored high on inspirational motivation (IM) traits but scored low on other traits. This indicated that he believed in the power of showing enthusiasm to his employees to give them a boost when completing a task, but not much on other transformational leadership characteristics such as idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. Data on his culture interview may explain his perspectives regarding these traits. The findings revealed that Manager 2-1E possessed very high orientation on four cultural dimensions, namely masculinity, power distance, short-term orientation, and uncertainty avoidance. He also has a moderate collectivistic orientation. Based on these data, it can be assessed that his lack of individual consideration may be due to his moderate collectivistic attitude as he favours group orientation to individual orientation. Further, his lack of idealized influence and intellectual stimulation can be attributed to his high power distance and uncertainty avoidance respectively. High power distance may have impeded his capability to grasp the concepts of idealized influence as this requires bringing himself closer to the his employees for frequent sharing of values, as well as sacrificing time and self-interests for the benefits of the team. Because of high power distance, Manager 2-1E opted to exert his authority to the fullest extent, preventing him from ideally influencing them through sharing of values, or through involving them in decision-making. As stated by Manager 2-1E, no one can question his authority and decisions. In addition, strong uncertainty avoidance may prevent the leader from taking any risks, preventing his team to gamble on new ways to solve problems or to create a better systematic process to complete tasks. This can be reflected on Manager 2-1E's

very low intellectual stimulation trait. Nonetheless, all these shortcomings were compensated by his strong sense of transactional leadership and inspirational motivation. His employees still appeared motivated to do their jobs everyday but they rarely share their ideas or voice out their opinions on certain issues. The motivation of the employees appeared to be coming from the manager's positive and enthusiastic outlook on how the tasks would be accomplished. Further, the employees were also motivated by their desires to obtain material rewards for their efforts. However, there was a sense of distrust among them and toward their leader mainly because of the power distance that separates them. They work collectively but were not very close on a personal level.

Another manager that had very high orientation on all five cultural dimensions was Manager 2-1A. However, his main difference with Manager 2-1E was his very high collectivism. This means that he had extremely high regards for group loyalty, norms, traditions, seniority, and family. He valued group work more than individual work, and base all his decisions and leadership style on the perception of employees toward him and the norm of the organisation in general. He was also willing to help out his family members to get a job, and he was very particular about age and loyalty when it comes to promotion. Aside from his high collectivism traits, Manager 2-1A also had high power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity, and short-term orientation similar to Manager 2-1E. Regarding his leadership style, he also had high contingency reward and active management-by-exception traits similar to Manager 2-1E. As explained earlier, high transactional leadership styles are basically expected within a high power

distance, strong uncertainty avoidance, and masculine culture in order to exert authority and promote stability through systematic means. On the other hand, Manager 2-1A's transformational leadership traits had some noticeable differences from Manager 2-1E's traits. Manager 2-1A showed high idealized influence (both behaviour and attributed) and intellectual stimulation traits, and showed lack of individualized consideration and inspirational motivation traits. His lack of individualized consideration can be attributed to his very strong collectivistic views. However, it may be difficult to explain his strong intellectual stimulation trait given his high power distance and strong uncertainty avoidance orientations. Nonetheless, comparing his responses from Manager 2-1E's responses revealed some subtle differences. First, although Manager 2-1A preferred competent employees over flexible ones, he was always on the search for more flexible employees because according to him "...they can adjust easily to irregular tasks given to them". This shows that despite his high uncertainty avoidance, he was very open to changes and flexibility, which may mean that he was also open to creative and innovative contributions. As stated by Manager 2-1A:

"I believe in seeking ideas or different perspectives from my subordinates. Who knows if I will put together my perspective and there will be a better outcome."

Further, Manager 2-1A's idealized influence traits can be attributed to the subtle differences of his power distance orientation as compared to Manager 2-1E's power distance orientation. Both of them basically had high power distance, but Manager 2-1A was more flexible in a sense that he would constantly inform his employees when

changes had to be implemented. In contrast, Manager 2-1E stated that he would always make drastic decisions without informing his employees because they still had very little experience. This subtle differences show that Manager 2-1A is an authoritative figure that allows a little flexibility at times, which may explain why he practices idealized influence. Despite his authority figure, he makes it a point to interact with his team and share his values constantly. In addition, he also makes it a point to sacrifice his self-interests for the benefit of his team, which could also be attributed to his high collectivism. In general, Manager 2-1A was more of a team person, while Manager 2-1E was more of an authoritative figure bordering individualism and laissez-faire values. As stated by Manager 2-1E, he preferred his relatives to be more independent rather than expecting assistance from him in employment. Further, he also stated that he base his promotions not on age or loyalty, but on performance alone. These statements reflect Manager 2-1E's lack of team orientation, which may explain his lack of idealized influence traits.

Regarding employee motivation, it was observed that Manager 2-1A's employees were happier and more enthusiastic in their work. Further, there was also a strong sense of teamwork among them, and that sharing of information were noticeably more accepted as a norm as compared to Manager 2-1E's team. Also, despite Manager 2-1A's high power distance, his employees appeared to be less afraid to address him and give suggestions or provide feedbacks. This was perhaps due to the fact that Manager 2-1A was easily accessible and very approachable. Overall, the employees appeared to be motivated, not only by the material rewards they can get through their performance, but

also through their autonomy to share information, ask questions, and their noticeable closeness to their leader.

Interestingly, one of the respondents from Set A, Manager 1-2C, practices laissez-faire type of leadership, while at the same time, having strong uncertainty avoidance and short-term orientation. Interestingly, Manager 1-2C also possessed moderate collectivism, low power distance, and high femininity. Her cultural orientation was basically similar to Manager 2-1A and Manager 2-1E except in the aspects of gender orientation and power distance. High femininity basically refers to the preference of a more relaxed and less systematic work environment, and constantly seeking mutual affection with each other. On the other hand, low power distance means that she is more approachable as she downplays the importance of her authority. Basically, these two traits may appear contradicting with a laissez-faire type of leadership as such as type means lack of leadership or lack of genuine concern and support to employees. Nonetheless, a possible interpretation is her lack of acknowledgement of her authority and responsibility to lead her team, which resulted from her very low power distance views. Further, another possible interpretation is the relaxed side of a feminine culture. This may mean the lack of any systematic ways to reward employees, or to motivate them. Also, even though employees are allowed to share their opinions and views, it does not necessarily mean that their ideas or feedbacks are taken into consideration. Manager 1-2C's "less strict" approach may be of face value only, and not actually for involving employees in the decision-making process and creation of ideas. This means that employees are basically left to decide on their own but are not being given proper

guidance or their concerns are not being addressed immediately. Laissez-faire leadership is basically a traditional leadership style that lacks genuine concern for employees, but not necessarily mean authoritative or bureaucratic. Therefore, although Manager 1-2C's employees were being given the freedom to express their opinions, they appeared less motivated as compared to the employees under Manager 2-1A and Manager 2-1E because they long for other types of leadership support such as sufficient rewards, systematic creation and development of solutions for existing problems, guidance through value sharing, enthusiasm from leader, and other means that would motivate employees. Thus, it can be argued that laissez-faire leadership or lack of leadership can be affected by one's low power distance orientation as this may mean the leader's lack of interest on his authority to rule his employees. This may mean less strict way of leading, but it could also result to lack of systematic rewards and motivation programs. Aside from low power distance, it can also be interpreted that high femininity resulted to an environment that is less systematic and competitive. Similar to the effects of low power distance, high femininity could also result to a lack of motivational programs as it could impede the development of systematic solutions to problems.

Follow up interviews and observations on employees working under laissez-faire and transactional-transformational managers revealed several perceived cultural roadblocks based on their firsthand experiences. Laissez-faire employees stated that some of the barriers they encountered include: conflict between departments; employee exclusion from decision making; inconsistent policies; lack of proper communication, and; poor leadership. Apparently, these barriers appeared to be consequences of high power

distance and high uncertainty avoidance culture among the employees and the managers. For instance, one employee stated:

“Too many structural layers slow down and reduce communication effectiveness for example, miscommunication occurs at times when the other staffs were not able to deliver the message well.”

Another employee also stated:

“Most people are excluded from the decision-making and thinking processes thereby limiting potential to change and adapt quickly. For instance, if there are new policies that the company wants to impose they don't really seek suggestions from the others nor let other staff contribute in the decision-making.”

These statements basically reflect the power distance in the organisation, specifically under laissez-faire leaders, as managers keep their distance from their employees in the decision-making process. Bureaucracy also served as barriers to prevent the flow of communication from the bottom-up, making it difficult for some employees to provide feedback and suggestions. These barriers also reflect the organisation's uncertainty avoidance through the implementation of policies that keep employees away from key decision-making processes, or the use of bureaucracies to prevent them from accessing the several areas in the organisation.

On the other hand, two employees pointed out the conflict among departments within the organisation. For instance, one employee stated:

“The inconsistencies across departments. For example the staff in human resources, might want to know why the information technology department has better offices or always seems to be on vacation. I feel like there is inequality.”

This reflected that the organisation practices group favouritism, which indicates a strong collectivism culture. As a collective team, certain groups enjoy certain perks depending on their influence with the management. As discussed earlier, some of the managers, especially those who practice laissez-faire style of leadership, had the tendency to engage in nepotism in order to help their relatives. Basically, these statements reflect the importance of group norm with the organisation. Every employee was pressured to get along with peers and managers, and consider them as family.

Similarly, high power distance and high uncertainty avoidance were also found from the statements of employees working under transformational-transactional leadership. One of the employees stated that culture prevents new solutions, specifically stating:

“I find it hard to adjust to the ‘this is the way we do things’ mentality. I don't really agree to it because I think that it keeps people to look for better alternatives to improve their performance”.

Further, another employee stated:

“The communication is not so transparent and there are inconsistencies at times. I am facing difficulties because I always want a transparent, consistent and genuine communication.”

Interestingly, employees under transformational and transactional leadership were more allowed to share their opinions, but they mostly failed to convince their managers to adopt new policies. In addition, they were mostly discouraged not look deeper into certain issues through lack of communication transparency. Similarly, their managers were using bureaucracy to separate the employees from them in a sense that despite being approach, the employees would still recognize their manager's authority.

On the other hand, some of the statements of employees working for transformational-transactional managers also reflected the influence of collectivism culture. For example, one of the employees admitted the existence of a blame of culture in the organisation, wherein individual accountability is replaced by group accountability. As stated by the employee:

“Individual accountability was weak. People were afraid to take personal responsibility and this created a lot of blame-shifting.”

Another employee stated:

“Sometimes I can’t adjust to the flexibility in terms of work schedule. Because I feel like it is not consistent, it doesn’t apply to all only for some employees whom I think isn’t fair at all.”

These statements reflected a collectivistic culture because they suggest the acceptance of group responsibility and in-group favouritism within the organisation. Because people were afraid to take personal responsibilities, mistakes were usually blamed on the group. When a person refuses to take responsibility on his or her own, it could be due to his or her belief that accountability should be a group process, wherein the group takes the blame regardless of the employee who made the mistake. On the other hand, the lack of consistency on the flexibility of work schedules reflected the culture of in-groups. Apparently, some of the employees belong to certain in-groups that have more privileges as compared to out-groups. These in-groups may include the managers themselves, along with some other employees who they have close tie with. Interestingly, collectivism appeared to be stronger among groups being led by transformational-transactional leaders. One possible reason might be due to the friendliness of the leaders, which encourages some of the employees to socialize with them and share their views occasionally. For some reason, employees who were not very sociable were left out and were considered as part of the out-group. In contrast, there were less in-group in laissez-faire leadership that actually includes the manager

because there was rarely any contact or interaction between the manager and employees.

Laissez-faire leaders were actually good in promoting work autonomy but lacked the capability to motivate employees in giving their very best to the organisation. On the other hand, transformational-transactional leaders promote closeness among employees and use strategies to drive motivation and promote creativity and innovativeness. Unlike in laissez-faire, their employees were mostly exceptional performers, either individually or in group settings. Overall, the culture of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and collectivism was pervasive across the organisation regardless of the leadership style used by the managers. These were consistent with most of the managers who were interviewed and observed.

7.2.5.10. Summary of Observation Results

As stressed throughout the study, observations and interviews were conducted simultaneously on some of the managers and employees in the study who agreed to being observed. These observation findings were mentioned throughout the current chapter along with the interview results to maintain a continuous flow of narrative. Therefore, in order to narrow the observation findings, a summary of observation findings is presented in the current subsection. The purpose is basically to provide a narrowed-down view of the observation findings to determine any deviation from the interview and survey findings.

As stated in Table 7.5.2.10a, all of the cultural elements observed among the observable respondents were consistent with the interview results. First, the observation validated the high uncertainty avoidance among the managers as they valued both national and local labour laws, as well as the organization’s formal rules and guidance. They also often emphasize to their employees the need to develop career stability and expertise in their chosen fields so as to last in the industry. In turn, this also confirmed the organization’s high masculinity wherein expertise and success are valued. In addition, collectivism was also confirmed. The respondents’ emphasis on building and maintaining relationships with employees and clients was noticeable, as well as putting the interest of the group first over self-interest. Similar to the interview results, the employees were also encouraged to be group-oriented rather than self-oriented. Moderate amounts of power distance were also noticed, as the managers were very approachable and open to the ideas of their employees. These were consistent with some of the interview results wherein managers displayed the same moderate power distance behaviours. However, it should be noted that the interview results found that certain managers were less keen in narrowing down the power gaps between them and their employees. Finally, short-term orientation was observed by the leaders and their team’s lack of long-term goals. This was consistent with the interview results as most respondents produced statements that were categorized to short-term orientation.

| Table 7.2.5.10a | | |
|---|-------------------|---|
| Observation Results Summary on Observed Managers | | |
| Themes | Sub-themes | Behavior identified within sub-themes |
| Cultural Elements | High uncertainty | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Career stability; |

| | | |
|-------------------------|-------------------------|--|
| | avoidance | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attainment of expertise; • Reliance on formal rules and procedures; • High emphasis on labor laws, quality assessments, and ethical guidelines; |
| | Collectivism | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Emphasis on building relationships with employees and clients; • Preaches to put the interest of the group first before self. |
| | Moderate power distance | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Take accountability for failures; • Open to employees' ideas; • Approachable. |
| | Masculinity | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Promoting values regarding success and achievements. |
| | Short-term orientation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of long-term goals. |
| Leadership Style | Transformational | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Motivates and inspires staff; • Promotes higher ideals and moral values; • Coaches employees regularly; • Stimulates staff creativity; • Promoting commitment through good values. |
| | Transactional | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uses rewards and incentives to encourage employees to work. |
| Motivation of Employees | Intrinsic | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Involves team in the decision-making process; • Taps on team's creativity; • Providing compliments and positive feedbacks to boost morale. |
| | Extrinsic | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Motivates employees through reward schemes; • Reward system for meeting a particular objective. |

The leadership style observed among the respondents was transformational and transactional. Basically, no laissez-faire traits were observed as the leaders were very hands-on and involved with their employees. One particular transactional trait that stood out was the constant use of rewards and incentives as a mean to motivate employees.

On the other hand, transformational traits that were found include promoting positive values, inspiring staff, coaching staff, and stimulating staff creativity. Managers also targeted both the extrinsic and intrinsic needs of their employees to promote motivation. Although not entirely similar because less number of employees participated, the observation results reflected some of the findings in the quantitative study, as well as in the interview results.

Aside from the managers, several employees also agreed to participate in the observation process. One set of employees were those who were working under laissez-faire leaders. As shown in Table 7.5.2.10b, the observation results produced almost similar findings as the interviews results, where the employees were either lacking in motivation or intrinsically driven to work. The employees observed also showed poorer performance as compared to those who working under transformational-transactional leaders. Nonetheless, some employees also displayed good performance. This was consistent in the interview results since it was established that laissez-faire leadership does not totally lead to lack of motivation, but may more likely produce less motivated employees as compared to those working under managers that apply modern leadership approaches.

| Table 7.2.5.10b | | |
|---|------------------|--|
| Observation Results Summary on Observed Employees Under Laissez-Faire Managers | | |
| Themes | Sub-themes | Behavior identified within sub-themes |
| Employee Motivation | Lacks Motivation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Distant; |

| | | |
|-------------|----------------------|--|
| | | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Shows unhappiness with job; • Does not like manager's leadership style; • Lacks commitment at work; • Having issues with having a woman boss. |
| | Intrinsic motivation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Enjoys autonomy; • High engagement with coworkers and manager; • Displays happiness at work. |
| Performance | Poor performance | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not committed to work; • Underperformance; • Difficulty cooperating; • Does not make any significant contribution; • Lacks significant effort. |
| | Good performance | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-reliant; • Open to feedback; • Good relationship with manager and colleagues; • Strives for customer satisfaction; |

As shown in Table 7.5.2.10c, employees working under managers that utilize transactional and transformational elements had more intrinsic reasons to work as compared to those working under laissez-faire leaders. Although some employees also displayed low motivation, they had more exceptionally performing employees who were willing to go the extra mile just to contribute to the organization. Most of these employees were also more engaged in their work, and had more positive perceptions toward their managers. Overall, these findings confirmed the significant difference between employees working under laissez-faire managers and employees working under transactional-transformational leaders that were also found in the interview results. Basically, transactional-transformational managers also had their flaws as

displayed by the behaviour of some employees. However, these behaviours were less severe in comparison with those working under laissez-faire leaders.

| Table 7.2.5.10c | | |
|---|-----------------------------|--|
| Observation Results Summary on Observed Employees Under Transactional-Transformational Managers | | |
| Themes | Sub-themes | Behavior identified within sub-themes |
| Employee Motivation | Lacks Motivation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Distant; • Lacks commitment. |
| | Intrinsic Motivation | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High engagement with coworkers and managers; • Shares optimism with teammates; • Displays happiness at work; • Passion towards job; • Mutual respect between employee and boss; • Eagerness to learn; • Highly inspired by the manager's way of leading. |
| Performance | Poor performance | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Difficulty collaborating with team members and other groups; • Difficulty getting along with manager. |
| | Bordering poor performance. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of initiative; • Tends to procrastinate. |
| | Good performance. | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-driven; • High commitment to the organization; • Eager to learn; • Good relationship with coworkers and manager; • Sees manager as very supportive; • Accomplishments are recognized. |
| | Exceptional performance | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Giving extra mile in work; • High commitment to the organization; • Taking extra hours and work. |

7.3. PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

This project attempted to answer a research question that focuses on the relationship between leadership styles and motivation in Bahrain setting. As stated in Chapter 1, the research question is as follows:

“Is there a significant relationship between leadership styles of managers, their cultural orientation, and the level of motivation of their subordinates in Bahrain’s service sector organisations?”

The specific variables that were investigated in the current study were the leadership styles of Bahraini managers and the motivation of employees in VTDI Bahrain. Results from the quantitative and qualitative research revealed that were significant patterns on the relationship between these variables. The following are the key findings of the study:

1. The hypothesis that the motivation orientation of Bahraini employees was leaning more toward intrinsic work values than extrinsic work values (H1^a) was not supported as findings revealed that the respondents considered both intrinsic and extrinsic motivators to be equally important. Nonetheless, they gave slightly more importance to intrinsic motivators under influence and advancement, work relationships, and autonomy and use of skills. On the other hand, they gave slightly less importance to extrinsic motivators under financial working conditions and work relationships;
2. The hypothesis on the significant difference between the work motivation values of employees and managers (H1^b) was not supported as quantitative

- results revealed that the work values of Bahraini employees were the same regardless of occupational power;
3. The hypothesis that the leadership style of Bahraini managers was not purely laissez-faire, but also includes elements of transactional and transformational leadership (H2^a) was supported. The quantitative results revealed that most of the managers surveyed were transformational and transactional leaders. Specifically, the leadership style that returned the highest score was inspirational motivation (IM), followed by contingent reward (CR), individual consideration (IC), and behavioural idealized influence (II-B). On the other hand, the lowest scores were passive management-by-exception (MBE-P) and laissez-faire (LF);
 4. The hypothesis that there was a significant difference between the preferred leadership styles of Bahraini managers and the one they were currently practicing was not supported (H2^b) as quantitative results revealed that their actual leadership styles were the same as the one they preferred;
 5. The hypothesis on the significant difference between the leadership styles of male and female Bahraini managers (H2^c) was partially supported as the findings revealed that male managers were more likely to incorporate a transactional contingent reward approach in their leadership style than female managers;
 6. Qualitative results provided supporting evidence that most Bahraini managers now incorporate transactional and transformational leadership elements in the leadership styles;

7. Qualitative results provided supporting evidences that Bahraini managers were practicing the leadership styles they prefer, without any pressure from the organization;
8. Qualitative results provided supporting evidences on the extrinsic and intrinsic work values of Bahraini employees;
9. Qualitative results suggest that leadership style affects employee motivation, as most employees work under transformational and transactional managers displayed more positive working behaviours than those working under managers that had laissez-faire traits;
10. Motivation roadblocks were identified in the study regardless of whether the leader incorporates transactional and transformational leadership or not;
11. Qualitative results confirmed that Bahraini culture has high power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity, short-term orientation, and collectivism;
12. Qualitative results suggest that culture may somehow influence the preferred leadership style of Bahraini managers as some of their perceptions toward leadership were consistent with several cultural values, such as authority and high power distance, overreliance to rules and uncertainty avoidance, team loyalty and collectivism, preferring male values over feminine values and high masculinity, and focus on short-term goals.

The findings of the current study found evidences that partially support the conceptual framework. The results of the various, albeit limited, studies that concentrated in Arab and Islamic region have shown that Arab leadership is dual by nature. On one hand, it is

bounded by Arab traditions that focus authority, overreliance on rules, self-preservation, and lack of accountability (House et al., 2004; Shahin & Wright, 2004; Smith et al., 2007; Al-Shabbani, 2015). On another, Arab managers are being pulled by modern leadership approaches because of Western influences and the necessity to apply new leadership approaches (Smith et al., 2007; Teleghani et al., 2010; Neal, 2010). Most of the studies gathered on Arab leadership confirmed the existence of transactional and transformational leadership practices (Chaudhry et al., 2012; Chaudhry & Javed, 2012; Raman & Rajan, 2012; Birasnav et al., 2013; Khalifa & Ayoubi, 2015; Hadalwar et al., 2016; Prabhakar et al., 2016). However, this does not mean that laissez-faire or traditional leadership has been completely replaced by modern approaches. It just means that most Arab managers are now starting to incorporate transactional and transformational elements into their leadership styles. Interestingly, the findings of the quantitative study supported this and its hypothesis, confirming that most Bahraini managers are now well-versed in both transactional and transformational leadership approaches. Supporting evidences were also found in qualitative study, which further shed light to the complexities of Arab leadership style. These findings were basically not surprising, considering that House et al.'s (2004) GLOBE study had also noted that despite Arab leadership's many flaws, it is not lacking of any elements that are important to modern leadership approaches. It was just that Arab leaders tend to find these elements less important as compared to Anglo leaders.

Literatures suggest that transformational and transactional leadership elements are similar to the type of leadership that the Islamic faith endorses. The Islamic leadership concepts of personalism and idealism are akin to transformational leadership elements

of idealized influence and inspirational motivation (Ali, 2009). Several studies also found distinct relationship between Islamic leadership and transformational leadership, confirming that the two approaches complements, rather than conflict, each other (Ogunsula, 2011; Galanou & Farag, 2015; Imran et al., 2016; Hashim et al., 2017; Hidayat et al., 2017). Nonetheless, Islamic leadership in itself is also dual by nature, as it also possesses several elements that are tied to traditional Arab culture. A number of studies found that Islamic leadership promotes overreliance on connections (Hunt & At-Twajiri, 2006), high sense of belongingness (Ali, 2009), and value for masculine traits such as power and authority (Hodges, 2017). Ali (2009) explained that Islamic leadership may descend to authoritarianism when the leader fails to communicate effectively his vision and goals, and when reality collides with the leader's idealism. Although the study did not delve into the effects of religion into leadership, it found evidences of these symptoms. Most of the leaders displayed high sense of authority, emanating the large power distance found in the studies of Hofstede (1981) and House et al. (2004). Specifically, almost all were very clear that their authorities cannot be questioned at all times, and that decisions must be made by them unilaterally. Although they take the time to listen to employees, it appeared that it was just an attempt to motivate employees by convincing them that they have a voice in the organization. In addition to authority, compliance to rules, regulations, and norms were also high and strictly implemented. Most of the managers have low tolerance for a looser and more relaxed environment. Instead, they opted for one that is highly systematic as they equate it to being more productive. Compliance to rules and regulations, as well as having a professional demeanor in public, was also strictly enforced. Further, highly

masculine traits such as respect for material success and negative views on women's emotional traits reinforce literatures on Arab culture. Therefore, in a sense, it can be stressed that cultural factors somehow affects one's leadership approach, as they are embedded in the organization and the society wherein it belongs as standards that define what is acceptable and what is not. For instance, a looser structure that treats employees as almost equal to managers may be difficult to accept in such environment and may require years of reconditioning to change perceptions toward such practice. These cultural traits were intrinsically embedded, and as a result, came naturally to the managers that adhered to them. Most of these managers were actually practicing the leadership approach they prefer, without any elements of coercion or peer pressure, as confirmed in the study's quantitative results. These findings further found additional support in the qualitative study, strengthening the notion that culture plays an important role in a manager's overall leadership approach. However, the specifics on its impact may be too complex to pinpoint as its overall effects still has certain gray areas that should be taken into consideration. One example is that although Arab culture is reported to have high collectivism, most of the managers shun the idea of nepotism, as well as promoting employees based on loyalty and age. Nonetheless, their team-oriented approach, view on the importance of public self-image, and managerial approaches that are aligned with organizational norms and national culture show their high collectivism side. Basically, these contrasts are less general and may need further exploration.

As implied by the limited and geographically dispersed research on Arab leadership, there may be a lack of consensus on how it affects motivation. Nonetheless, literatures on the motivation orientation of Arab and non-Arab Islamic employees may provide some short insights that can be cross-compared to recent literatures in Arab leadership. Interestingly, these literatures imply that Arab and non-Arab Islamic employees are more intrinsically than extrinsically motivated (Al-Hazmi, 2010; Koulubandi et al., 2012; Sadi & Al-Ghazali, 2012; Fakhar Zaman et al., 2013; Farwa & Niazi, 2013; Lim, 2013; Sulaiman et al., 2013; Ghannad et al., 2016; Heyrani & Hamekhhkhani, 2017; Kalhoro et al., 2017; Ounnoughi, 2017), but also imply that high intrinsic motivation may be exclusive only to highly authoritative countries like Saudi Arabia. In contrast, more open and westernized countries such as Bahrain and UAE have more extrinsically motivated employees because of the availability of more financial opportunities and room for growth (Sadi & Al-Ghazi, 2012; Lim, 2013). The reason is basically adherence to Islamic values and work ethic, which promote intrinsic motivation, as well submission to authority. However, few studies, such as those conducted by Al-Hazmi (2010) and Ounnoughi (2017) found evidences that intrinsic motivation in Arab settings does not necessarily equate to work satisfaction or pay satisfaction. These results imply that some Arab employees have no other choice but to cling into what is intrinsically important, than to explore the option of increasing their extrinsic values. This may also imply the important role of the manager in keeping their employees intrinsically motivated to work, as the means to motivate employees extrinsically, such as rewards, compensation, pay, and career growth, seems to be lacking. Nonetheless, several studies that found significant relationship between intrinsic motivation and job

satisfaction conflict the results that imply low satisfaction among intrinsically motivated employees (Fakhar Zaman et al., 2013; Heyrani & Hamekhhani, 2017). A number of studies also found link between intrinsic motivation and organizational commitment, as well as intrinsic motivation and job performance (Farwa & Niazi, 2013; Ghannad et al., 2016; Kalhoro et al., 2017). However, these studies were conducted in non-Arab Islamic countries, wherein although Islamic ethics are valued, possess different culture as those in Arab countries. Further, it also reflects the lack of studies conducted in Arab countries regarding employee motivation, and how it is affected by several organizational variables. Interestingly, the study of Al-Hazmi (2010), which covered Saudi Arabian employees, was conducted using qualitative research. Interviews and dialogues with employees revealed their intrinsic motivation, but also revealed the contextual situation wherein intrinsically motivated employees in the region are also the least satisfied with their jobs. The findings in the current study partially confirmed this as several employees working under laissez-faire leaders stressed their disappointed with their job, while at the same time stressing their passion for their work. The quantitative study also revealed the high intrinsic motivation of Bahraini employees, as well as their high extrinsic motivation, indicating that they were driven to work by both intrinsic and extrinsic needs. However, the qualitative study found more intrinsic qualities than extrinsic ones, which more or less supported one of the hypotheses of the quantitative study. Surprisingly, employees working under laissez-faire managers were also more likely to cling into intrinsic factors as reasons to stay in their job than those working under transactional-transformational leaders. These employees also interpret their manager's lack of presence as an effort to make them work autonomously. Quantitative

findings found evidences that Bahraini employees indeed give higher importance to autonomy. But the qualitative results suggest that the employees seemed to ignore the context or reason behind it, or are basically unaware that it was just their managers' poor leadership style. In contrast, employees working under transactional and transformational leaders were not just driven by intrinsic factors, but also by extrinsic factors such as rewards, compensation, and the working environment. Overall, these findings reflect that perceptions toward intrinsic motivation in Arab culture may not be the same in Western perspectives.

7.4. DISCUSSION

Literature review on Arab culture has led to insights that may reflect the leadership and motivation orientation of Bahraini managers and employees in the workplace. Apart from Hofstede's (1980) study on culture, it was established and confirmed in various studies the high power distance, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, masculinity, and short-term orientation in Middle Eastern nations (House et al., 2004; Sabri, 2012; Yeganeh, 2014; Dabic et al., 2015; Khlif, 2016; Lo et al., 2017). High power distance was reflected on lack of employee participation in decision-making, overreliance on hierarchies, and huge compensation gaps between employee and managers (Ortega, 2009; Reddy, 2011; Agourram, 2009; AlQahtani, 2013; Mohammad & Ahmad, 2013), while uncertainty avoidance practices included failure sharing, lack of incentives and reward system, stricter rules, and roadblocks to employee suggestions (Agourram, 2013; Dwairi et al., 2012; AlQurashi, 2013; Ditsa et al., 2013). These characteristics in Arab culture that were confirmed by various studies have led to the assumption that

Arab leadership style leans more towards Bass and Avolio's (1997) definition of laissez-faire leadership, which equals to avoidance of responsibilities and prohibits different views. This type of leadership is defined as lacking in any desirable leadership qualities, while also being authoritative and over reliant on rules. Few literatures on leadership have confirmed this, specifically on managers' tendency to be self-protective (House et al., 2004), high bureaucracy (Shahin & Wright, 2004), and lack of accountability (Al-Shabbani, 2015). These literatures also confirmed the lack of employee participation in decision-making, as they are either discouraged or there are not enough incentives to participate. Overall, these insights have led to the development of the current study's hypothesis that most Bahraini employees' motivation to work is intrinsic by nature, rather than extrinsic, because of the lack of incentives and encouragement to participate in decision making or express opinions to authority. This was rejected in the quantitative study as no intrinsic work value significantly peaked, but different and more complex results were found in the interviews and observations. The results revealed lack of support for Hypothesis 1^a as they did not show any significant peak in the intrinsic work values of Bahraini employees. In contrast, respondents mostly agreed that all work values are important, giving slightly higher importance on autonomy, and less importance on influence and advancement. Apparently, the respondents were more intrinsically than extrinsically motivated as several intrinsic values such as work-life balance, passion and love for work, and being valued by the organization were given more importance any form of material rewards. The qualitative results were more consistent with the literatures on employee motivation in various Arab and non-Arab Islamic countries, which also found evidences on the high intrinsic motivation of Arab

and non-Arab Islamic employees (Al-Hazmi, 2010; Koulubandi et al., 2012; Sadi & Al-Ghazali, 2012; Fakhar Zaman et al., 2013; Farwa & Niazi, 2013; Lim, 2013; Sulaiman et al., 2013; Ghannad et al., 2016; Heyrani & Hamekhhani, 2017; Kalhoro et al., 2017; Ounnoughi, 2017).

Interestingly, the qualitative results also found that employees working under laissez-faire managers were intrinsically motivated, but were mostly disappointed with several factors involving their manager and the organization as a whole. This was consistent with the findings of Al-Hazmi (2010) and Ounnoughi (2017), which both found that intrinsic motivation in Arab settings may not equate to job satisfaction, especially in highly authoritative countries like Saudi Arabia. This contradicts previous findings on the positive effects of intrinsic motivation on job satisfaction (Ke et al., 2013; Miniotaite & Bucioniene, 2013; Trepanier et al., 2013; Yun et al., 2014). In addition, the qualitative findings also contradicted the results of several studies that suggested that more open and westernized countries such as Bahrain and UAE may have higher extrinsic motivation than Saudi Arabia (Sadi & Al-Ghazi, 2012; Lim, 2013). This led to the development of the current study's hypothesis that there may be a significant difference on the work values of managers and employees as the former has more access to material rewards than the latter. However, it was found in the quantitative study that both groups had the same work values and were equally motivated intrinsically and extrinsically. The results in the quantitative study rejected Hypothesis 1^b, which asserted that work motivation changes with occupational power. Regardless of whether or not the employee is a manager or a team member, it appears that the work values of Bahraini

employees, at least in VDTI, are the same, and are leaning more towards the desire to be more autonomous in the workplace. This was somewhat verified in the qualitative study as although several managers showed tendencies to become selfish and materialistic, many were still driven by intrinsic factors in their work. One potential reason is adherence to Islamic work ethics as several studies conducted in non-Arab Islamic countries found evidence on the significant relationship between faith-endorsed values and intrinsic motivation (Fakhar Zaman et al., 2013; Sulaiman et al., 2014; Ghannad et al., 2016; Heyrani & Hamehkhani, 2017).

Research on Arab culture has also informed the study's hypotheses on leadership. The level of power distance and uncertainty avoidance are basically specific factors that may influence a manager's decision to shape and adopt a particular leadership style. Highly authoritative countries in the Middle East, like Saudi Arabia, were reported to have authoritative leaders that tolerate a blame culture, as well as inhibit employees from participating in decision making, or even expressing their opinions (House et al., 2004; Smith et al., 2007). Further, several literatures have also stressed the practice of *wasta*, which is basically a culture of giving favors to in-groups or family members, regardless of whether the favor would be detrimental to the organization or not (Balakrishnan, 2009; Bailey, 2012; Barnett et al., 2013; Janahi et al., 2013; Feghali, 2014). This coincides with the findings of high collectivism in Arab culture, which could either be advantageous or not. Collectivism promotes camaraderie, which could lead to better team work and solving social problems, but can also lead to nepotism and the confinement of ideas when abused (Al Azri, 2010; Aldraehim et al., 2012; AlQahtany,

2013). Additionally, high masculine culture and short-term orientation may legitimize overreliance on authority, rules, and bureaucracy, while at the same time, stagnate the organization from new ideas (Hofstede, 1980). Overall, the combination of these traits may serve as barriers to the adoption of modern leadership strategies, as stressed in several studies (Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 2004; Shahin & Wright, 2004; Smith et al., 2007). Interestingly, several studies contradict these findings as they found that Arab managers, including Bahraini, were applying transformational and transactional elements in their leadership approaches (Chaudhry et al., 2012; Chaudhry & Javed, 2012; Raman & Rajan, 2012; Birasnav et al., 2013; Khalifa & Ayoubi, 2015; Hadalwar et al., 2016; Prabhakar et al., 2016). Further, the influence of Islamic leadership compliments certain modern leadership traits, but may also descend to a traditional non-leadership approach if abused. These contradictions suggests the duality in Arab leadership, wherein managers know the capability of modern approaches, but are sometimes forced to adopt leadership traits that are culturally embedded, regardless of their effectiveness. The findings in the current study confirmed this as Bahraini managers were found to possess not only transformational and transactional traits, but also passive culturally embedded traits such as non-involvement with important tasks, overreliance to rules, and over-emphasis on their authority as managers. Support for Hypothesis 2^a was found, asserting that Bahraini leaders practice a combination of traditional, transformational, and transactional skills. This revealed that laissez-faire styles are still being practiced within the organization by some managers, which was also confirmed in the qualitative phase of the study. In addition, the rejection of Hypothesis 2^b revealed that there were no significant differences between the “actual”

leadership styles of the respondents and what they think they “ought to be doing”. However, although the managers appeared to be practicing the leadership style they prefer, further investigation revealed that they possess traits that reflect their organization’s emphasis on power, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, masculinity, and short-term orientation. For instance, qualitative findings revealed the less than favorable view towards women in the workplace, as well as giving importance on material success and wealth, reflecting the influence of masculine culture in VTDI. Although the coverage of the quantitative research was lacking in the culture department, investigation on Hypothesis 2^c slightly supported the male managers basically focus more on extrinsic rewards than female managers. With male managers dominating VTDI, this implies that VTDI’s culture is indeed strongly masculine, which somewhat influences the leadership approaches of managers toward their employees. In addition, a number of managers are still strictly enforcing authority by not allowing employees to express their opinions and leaving them out of the decision making process. High uncertainty avoidance is also observed, with emphasis on systems, time management, rules and policies, conformity, and public self-image. Some managers also admitted that their leadership styles were influenced by the organization’s conventions and history, as well as the need to maintain a positive self-image to gain the respect of employees. These implied the high collectivism culture in VTDI. Overall, despite the lack of consensus in the quantitative findings, the qualitative results suggest that culture may somehow influence the preferred leadership style of Bahraini managers as some of their perceptions toward leadership were consistent with several cultural values, such as authority and high power distance, overreliance to rules and uncertainty avoidance, team loyalty and

collectivism, preferring male values over feminine values and high masculinity, and focus on short-term goals.

Based on the points discussed above, the potential contribution of the results to VTDI's management plan is recognized. First, the results identified several cultural barriers that may prevent the implementation of transformational leadership programs, specifically those related to authority, strict implementation of rules, gender, in-group behavior, and time orientation. Using the findings as a base guide, VTDI can implement programs that would lessen the influence of negative cultural constructs on leadership. Further, the study informed the company on the work values of its employees, in which data can be used to target areas of motivation needed to achieve certain goals. However, to proceed further would mean tailoring several behaviors that are tied on cultural beliefs and practices. This would be challenging in a sense that the company must confront the managers and employees' status quos, and convince them of new ways that would improve their interaction with one another. A new theoretical framework that explains the relationship between variables, as well as the implication of the results for practice and future studies will be discussed in more detail in the succeeding chapter.

7.5. CHAPTER SUMMARY

The quantitative and qualitative findings on the leadership styles, motivation, culture, and the interrelation between the three variables among Bahraini employees were presented in this chapter. Quantitative results revealed that Bahraini employees, regardless of occupational power, were driven to work by both extrinsic and intrinsic

factors, which they agreed as equally important to them. This rejected the hypotheses that the motivation orientation of Bahraini employees was leaning more toward intrinsic work values than extrinsic work values, and that there was significant differences between the work values of managers and employees. However, qualitative findings revealed that most of the respondents were motivated intrinsically, which resonated even among employees working under laissez-faire leaders. Quantitative findings also revealed that aside from laissez-faire, Bahraini managers also incorporate transformational and transactional elements in their leadership styles. This supported the hypothesis that their leadership style includes elements from the three leadership styles. Supporting evidences were also found in the qualitative results, further strengthening the findings in quantitative study. In contrast, the quantitative findings rejected the hypothesis on the significant difference between the preferred leadership styles of Bahraini managers and the one they are currently practicing as the results revealed that their current practice and the one they prefer were similar. This was also confirmed in the qualitative results, affirming that Bahraini leaders have the convenience to choose and incorporate their own leadership approach. This eliminated the notion that these managers were possibly being forced by the organization to adopt a certain style. In addition, quantitative findings also revealed that there was no significant difference between the leadership styles of male and female managers, except for the contingent reward approach, which most of the male managers agreed. Qualitative findings did not directly confirmed this, but discovered a high masculinity culture in the organization, which perceives male-related value such as success and achievement as more dominant than the female values of kindness and compassion.

Qualitative results provided evidences to suggest the impact of leadership styles on employee motivation in Bahrain setting. The findings revealed that most employees working under transformational and transactional leadership displayed more positive working behaviours than those working under laissez-faire leaders. Further, they displayed high intrinsic motivation, but were also driven by extrinsic factors. In contrast, employees working under laissez-faire were more intrinsically motivated but were more dissatisfied with their work and their managers' performance. On the contrary, employees working under transactional-transformational leaders displayed both intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and were satisfied with their work and their managers' leadership style.

Qualitative results also revealed that Bahrain culture has high power distance, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, masculinity, and short-term observation. Results also provided evidences to suggest that culture may indirectly or directly affect leadership approaches as some of the managers' perceptions toward leadership were consistent with several cultural values identified in the study, such as authority, overreliance to rules, team loyalty, preferring male values over feminine values, and focus on short-term goals. Conclusions and recommendations regarding these findings will be presented in the succeeding chapter.

CHAPTER 8 - CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1. OVERVIEW

The mixed method study was designed to investigate the interrelation between leadership styles, employee motivation, and culture among Bahraini employees and managers. A series of surveys, interviews, and observations were conducted in Victory

Training Development Institute (VTDI) – a vocational training organization located in the Kingdom of Bahrain. The research problem arose from several issues found in Bahrain setting, which include the increasing drive of the government to choose local managers over expatriates, and the socioeconomic condition that makes it practical for organizations to hire low skilled labour from other countries. Results from literatures report the duality in Arab leadership, wherein managers are torn between traditional styles and modern leadership approaches. Research also suggests that Arab employees are more intrinsically motivated, specifically in regions that enforce high authority and strict implementation of rules. The current findings revealed that most Bahraini managers apply transactional and transformational elements in their leadership style, while only a few still resort to traditional passive approaches. Further, despite rejection in the hypothesis, qualitative findings found that Bahraini employees value intrinsic factors more than extrinsic ones. Results also confirmed that Arab culture affects both leadership and motivation in certain ways. Culture affects the managers' interpretation of leadership elements, while it also affects the employees' perception of their manager's leadership style. Finally, results also suggest that the combination of transactional and transformational leadership elements were more effective in motivating employees than a traditional passive laissez-faire approach.

8.2. CONTRIBUTIONS TO CURRENT RESEARCH

Research on leadership and motivation in Arab setting may appear to be abundant, but the wide geographical dispersion limits the current understanding on how these variables interact when contained within a specific cultural framework. For instance, the high intrinsic motivation in Saudi Arabia may appear to be a product of exceptional

leadership, but literature suggests that these intrinsic orientations are either products of deeply embedded Islamic values, or self-serving behaviours to convince oneself of one's worth in the organization (Al-Hazmi, 2010). This was confirmed in the study of Ounnoughi (2017), but in Algerian setting. On the contrary, employees from UAE and Bahrain were reported to have higher extrinsic motivation, as organizations are less authoritative and more open to modern western approaches (Sadi & Al-Ghazi, 2012; Lim, 2013). In addition, employees in non-Arab Islamic countries also have high rate of intrinsic motivation, which further suggests the role of Islamic work ethic (Farwa & Niazi, 2013; Ghannad et al., 2016; Kalhor et al., 2017). Research on leadership also produced mixed results, further blurring the generalizability of major studies that confirmed the widespread practice of traditional leadership in the Arab world. These gaps in literature justify the continuous exploration of leadership practices in Arab settings and their impact on several variables such as motivation. Thus far, few studies that were conducted in Bahrain produced positive results in terms of leadership practices, implying that the integration of modern leadership approaches could lead to genuinely motivated employees, both extrinsically and intrinsically (Raman & Rajan, 2012; Birasnav et al., 2013; Hadalwar et al., 2016). However, these studies were limited only to a positivistic ontology, which is only confined to objective interpretation of realities. Basically, there is a possibility that the quantitative results were not as they seem as various intricacies that can only be covered by qualitative results were left out. One example was the study of Al-Hazmi (2010) which found, through qualitative research, the intricacies surrounding the intrinsic motivation of Saudi Arabian employees. The current study similarly wanted to discover more deeply-embedded

meaning, hence the decision to adopt a mixed method design. The results produced from the quantitative and qualitative study have managed to produce a more intricate picture on the role of culture on leadership and motivation, at least in Bahrain setting, as it found evidences on how a manager's leadership style is entangled within various cultural dimensions. For example, despite the widespread practice of transactional and transformational values, most of the managers were still trapped within the schema of authoritarian and uncertainty avoidant values that were described in pioneer large scale studies (Hofstede, 1981; House et al., 2004). Many of the managers were open to ideas but still akin to protect their own turf. In turn, this reflects the self-preservation culture that was described in the GLOBE study (House et al., 2004), as well as the high uncertainty avoidance and power distance stressed in several studies. In other words, the current study captured the normalcy of leadership duality in Arab culture, wherein managers struggle to find the right balance between an appropriate modern approach and a traditional culture-based one.

Theory-wise, the findings of the study may or may have not confirmed Bass and Avolio's (1994) notions of effective leadership. On one hand, the study found evidences on the existence of transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire values. It also found evidences on the effectiveness of transformational and transactional leadership on employee motivation, as well as the opposite effect of passive leadership. Results also suggested the possible effect of active leadership on other variables such as commitment and performance. All of these findings were well supported in both Western and Arab settings, as discussed in the literature review. However, majority of these

studies approached the subject quantitatively. As a result, most of the findings were linear and excluded elements that may question the validity of these approaches. For instance, the qualitative findings of the study revealed that it may be difficult to put managers in certain categories, at least in Bahrain settings. The respondents basically displayed a combination of different leadership elements in their repertoire instead of the one-sided categorizations often featured in quantitative studies. Although there were evidences to suggest that the managers with the most laissez-faire traits may produce the least motivated employees, there also evidences suggesting that some employees were comfortable enough to work under a laissez-faire leader because of the autonomy being given to them. Further, some of these employees were also motivated to work intrinsically and even viewed their autonomy as a way of their manager to motivate them. Similarly, there were also employees working under transactional and transformational managers that displayed lack of motivation, or behaviors bordering to lack of motivation. Despite the high transformational leadership traits displayed by their managers, these employees were found to have the difficulty in collaborating with coworkers, and the lack of initiative or drive to contribute in tasks. These cases suggest that employees perhaps have their own preference of leadership styles that when met, increases their motivation regardless of whether the leadership style has been labeled as effective or not. Another possibility is that since the manager's leadership styles were a combination of many elements, the perceived impact of their approaches on motivation were dampened by the conflicting values they display, as well as by the cultural factors that both the managers and employees adhere to. In addition, employees could be well affected by certain cultural factors that make them unable to

see the ineffectiveness of certain styles. Therefore, it would be appropriate to assume that Arab culture could serve as a roadblock in the adoption of non-traditional leadership approaches, as well as on how employees perceive or react to a specific type of leadership.

8.3. CONTRIBUTIONS TO MANAGEMENT PRACTICE

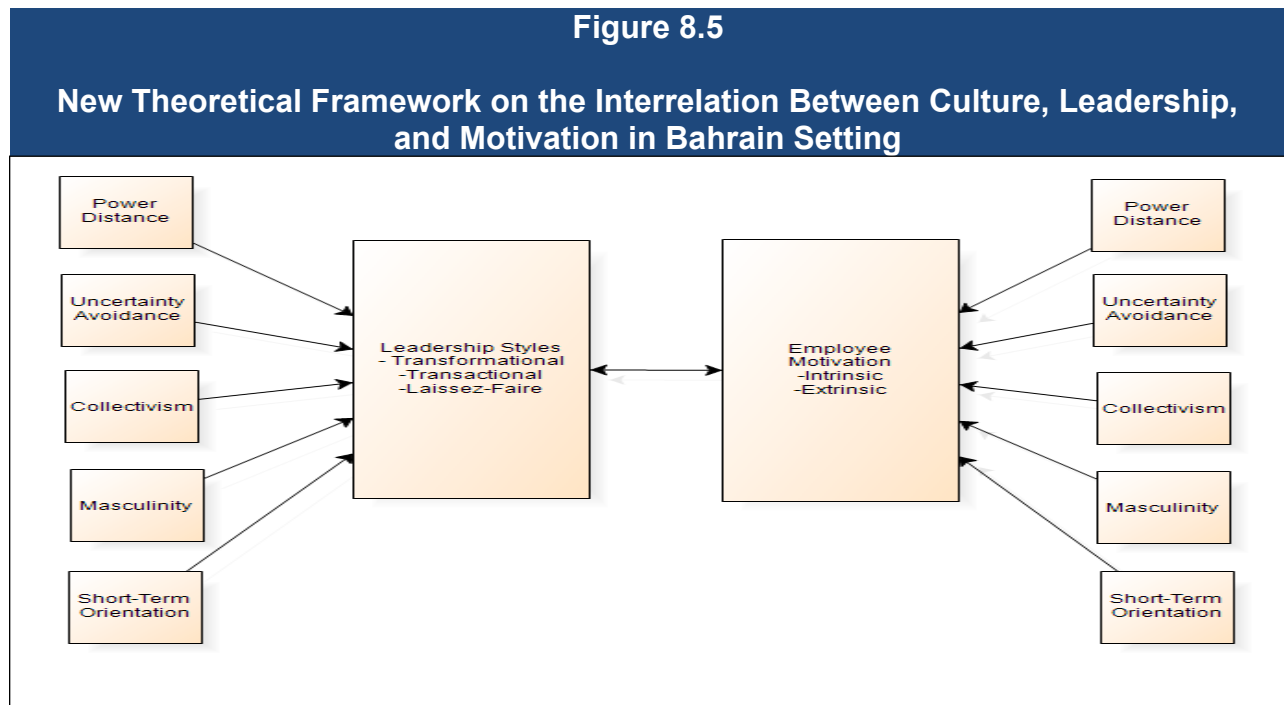
Literature lauds modern leadership approaches that include transactional and transformational values, while discourages traditional approaches that include passive and authoritarian elements. However, these studies failed to explore the cultural constructs that may very well affect the overall shape of a manager's leadership repertoire, as well as the employee's perception of effective leadership. The findings of the current study recognize these factors and suggest that the interaction between leadership and motivation can be severely affected by each actor's cultural beliefs. For instance, the impact of laissez-faire leadership on employee motivation may be strengthened by the employee's view that the leader's non-involvement is actually an effort to improve their autonomy. On the other hand, the impact of transformational leadership may be weakened by the employees' negative perceptions toward their manager's over-involvement. Since they were brought up in a culture that promotes a wide separation of power, then employees may view non-involvement as more normal than constant involvement. Additionally, a manager's transformational leadership approach may be diluted by culturally-embedded traits that the manager may be subconsciously applying. For example, a manager may boast of going beyond his self-interest for the benefit of the group, but resorts to credit grabbing or blaming when the

project is done. Using these examples, it can be suggested that the Full Range Leadership Model (FRLM) may not be a direct fit in an Arab organization that is dominated by traditional Arab culture. Basically, there is a need to reconfigure the cultural orientation of both the managers and employees to eliminate the intrusion of cultural constructs in the effective implementation of transactional and transformational leadership.

8.4. NEW THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

As discussed in the first chapter, the study's conceptual framework suggested the effects of Arab culture on the leadership style of Bahraini managers, as well as the motivation orientation of Bahraini employees. The findings in the quantitative study narrowed down the important variables in this framework as several hypotheses were addressed. The leadership styles of Bahraini managers were narrowed down to a combination of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership elements. The findings also revealed that the work values of Bahraini employees were both intrinsic and extrinsic regardless of occupational power. The qualitative study provided additional support to these findings, but revealed a more complex relationship between leadership and motivation in Arab setting. Qualitative results confirmed the conceptual framework in terms of how culture can affect a manager's leadership approach, as well as the employee's perceptions toward culture. Findings also confirmed that highly motivated employees produced more positive work behaviours than less motivated ones. Specifically, the findings partially supported the results of previous studies regarding the effects of transactional and transformational leadership approaches on

intrinsic motivation, which translates to job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In contrast, it also partially supported the general consensus that laissez-faire is the least effective in motivating employees and keeping them satisfied with their job.



The study's conceptual framework was revised based on these initial findings to provide a more detailed illustration of the interrelation between variables in Bahrain settings. Each one of the five cultural dimensions affects both the leadership styles of the managers and the motivation of the employees. These cultural constructs basically influence the interrelation between leadership and motivation. Leadership styles are not completely defined by culture, but are rather morphed into hybrid leadership practices that may incorporate certain elements of a particular style, but sometimes conflicted by traditional beliefs. Similarly, culture does not completely influence employee motivation, but rather the employee's perceptions toward the leadership approach of the manager.

As stressed earlier, evidences in the qualitative study suggest that several employees working under laissez-faire leaders had the wrong impression on their leaders and were intrinsically motivated. Basically, these employees thought that an authoritative and passive figurehead was normal, and that they were being trained to be autonomous in their work. These cultural acceptance forms the employees' perception toward their leadership approach, which shapes their motivation and reflects their work behaviour. Overall, these interactions among variables may explain as to why certain employees working under laissez-faire managers were intrinsically motivated, while some working under transactional-transformational were not. However, the limitation of this model is that it does not link motivation to positive working behaviour because of the complexity of interpreting the effects of motivation based on such cycle. Qualitative findings revealed that despite the intrinsic motivation of several employees, they showed dissatisfaction with their work, as well as lack of commitment with the organization. These findings support the results in the study of Al-Hazmi (2010) and Ounnoughi (2017) wherein intrinsic motivation were found alongside job dissatisfaction among Arab employees. One possible explanation is perhaps due to the lack of extrinsic opportunities in highly authoritative countries such as Saudi Arabia, employees tried to search for intrinsic values in their jobs in order to justify their stay. Therefore, although the model contests the effects of leadership on motivation, it does not make any assumptions on the effects of motivation on satisfaction and performance.

8.5. IMPLICATION FOR PRACTICE

The new theoretical framework was designed to explain the significant effects of culture on leadership and motivation in Bahrain setting. It was developed to explain a certain

phenomenon discovered in the qualitative study as it contradicts certain perceptions on intrinsic motivation. Nonetheless, it is important to note that both the quantitative and qualitative studies also found evidences on the impact of transactional-transformational leadership approach on intrinsic motivation, as well as the impact of intrinsic motivation on job satisfaction and performance. It should be emphasized that the phenomenon was rarely experienced by employees working under transactional-transformational leaders, which suggest that such approaches were still more effective in motivating employees as compared to laissez-faire. Therefore, it is recommended that Bahraini organizations should pursue the adoption of modern leadership approaches among their managerial ranks, as well as the phasing out of traditional approaches. However, the organization should first overcome the cultural roadblocks that may impede the transition to modern leadership style. Basically, a recommended solution is the continuous education of Bahraini managers and employees about positive and poor leadership as a means to push a culture change on the perception of both groups toward leadership elements. The human resource department should develop and initiate the implementation of this program through the use of various mediums such as leaflets, organizational publications, and in-house seminars. The challenge is to break the stigma on several modern leadership elements so that they will become more acceptable to both the enabling and receiving parties.

Additionally, Bahraini organizations should promote an organization-wide culture change to make their corporate environment more conducive to transactional-transformational leadership elements. The mixed study results revealed that power

distance, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, masculinity, and short-term orientation were all positively related to transactional leadership. However, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and collectivism should be carefully moderated in order to match transformational leadership dimensions such as idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration respectively. Further, masculinity should also be moderated as low masculinity was found to contribute to the adoption of laissez-faire leadership when combined with low power distance. Thus, the key to the adoption of transformational leadership is to balance the manager's cultural orientation toward power distance, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, and masculinity. These can be balanced through organisational support, specifically by decreasing bureaucracy and authoritative responsibilities of the managers, promotion of creativity and innovativeness among employees, balancing the competitiveness and success-orientation within the working environment, and promoting individuality. Once these cultural orientations have been balanced, then it would be easy for the managers to understand and adopt the values of transformational leadership, which can be used to enhance employee motivation within the workplace.

Once the cultural roadblocks have been reduced or eliminated, the next step is to develop a motivation program based on transactional and transformational leadership values. The goal is to systematize the motivation programs of managers within the organisation, to ensure that all intrinsic and extrinsic needs of employees are covered. Quantitative findings revealed that Bahraini employees valued both extrinsic and intrinsic values, but slightly gave more importance to several motivators. Specifically,

they placed higher regards on several extrinsic motivators under financial working conditions and work relationships. These extrinsic values included work conditions, benefits and flexible benefits, esteem, pay, and fatigue avoidance. On the other hand, they were slightly more concerned with several intrinsic motivators under the same categories, but including autonomy and use of skills. These included advancement and chance for promotion, autonomy and personal freedom, participation in decision making, harmony, trust, job interest, and clarity of work goals and targets. Tapping into these motivators could promote employee satisfaction, commitment, and creativity.

8.6. LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDIES

The current dissertation attempted to explore the interrelation between leadership, motivation, and culture in Bahrain settings. Quantitative and qualitative studies were conducted in order to provide data that would lead to sufficient understanding of the variables and their connection. Nonetheless, due to issues of access and time, the study was fairly limited in scope, specifically on its sample size and target of analysis. This resulted to findings that were only limited to the design of the study, which then leads to more questions concerning the relationship between the two variables. Below are the limitations of the study, and recommendations on how they should be addressed by future researchers:

1. New Theoretical Framework: One of the limitations of the study was basically the lack of quantitative treatment on the theoretical framework developed from the literature review and mixed method data. Quantitative studies on the effects of each cultural dimension on each transformational leadership trait

should be conducted in the future to validate the theory. In addition, quantitative research should also be conducted on the effects of each cultural construct on the employee perception towards leadership and the development of intrinsic motivation. Quantitative support on these variables will strengthen the validity of the new theoretical framework presented in the study.

2. Job Satisfaction: One of the variables that the researcher often encountered in the qualitative phase of the study was the issue of job satisfaction. Apparently, based on the interviews and observations, more employees under laissez-faire managers were dissatisfied with their jobs. However, these employees gave intrinsic reasons for staying in their jobs. Further, some employees working under laissez-faire managers were not only intrinsically motivated, but also displayed job satisfaction. The possible reason for being intrinsically motivated under a laissez-faire leader was theorized in the study's new theoretical framework. However, job satisfaction under such condition may be more difficult to theorize because of lack of data as it was not included as a variable of focus in the study. Future studies should focus on gaining new understandings concerning intrinsically motivated but dissatisfied Arab employees;
3. Sample Size: Sample size in both the quantitative and qualitative portion of the dissertation was fairly limited because of limited access to respondents

and time constraint. Because the sample size for the quantitative surveys and qualitative interviews was relatively smaller than expected, the results of the study may not be operational to Bahraini service organizations. Future studies should devote more time in conducting the quantitative survey on a much larger sample size in order to obtain more reliable, viable, and generalisable data results.

4. Longitudinal Study: One of the weaknesses of the current study was that it was conducted under very limited time. Basically, the allotted schedules were not sufficient enough to survey a larger number of respondents, or to interview and observe more managers and organisations. Aside from limiting the sample size to a great extent, time constraint had also put a limit on the depth of the interviews and the observations. A longer research time would have given the researcher more opportunity to observe the subjects further and dig deeper on the issues that were discovered. Future researchers should investigate the interaction between leaders and employees longitudinally in order to discover more accurate patterns and behaviours, as well as nuances that would help in expanding knowledge on the relationship between leadership styles and employee motivation.

5. Inter-Organisation Comparisons: The findings of the current study were able to determine the relationship between leadership styles, cultural orientation, and employee motivation in a service organisation in Bahrain. However, the

information that was obtained from the findings was limited only to a single organisation. Although it was effective in gaining insights on the leadership styles of Bahraini managers and the work values of Bahraini organisation, it was limited only to one organisation, which basically has its own unique organisational culture. As stated earlier, VTDI is generally influenced by Western vocational school systems, and therefore has a more modern and Westernized approach as compared to other service organisations in Bahrain. However, it was found that adherence to traditional cultural practices were still present despite its welcoming stance on Western management concepts. Future researchers should investigate other organizations similar to the structure of VTDI in order to have a valid comparison of findings and determine if the theoretical framework is also applicable in other similarly-structured Bahrain organization.

6. Multiple Level of Analysis on the Interrelation between the Important

Variables of the Study: The level of analysis selected in the current study was micro level, which was fairly limited on certain respondents from VTDI. This limits the surveys and interviews of the study on immediate respondents such as the employees and managers of the organisation. Future researchers can explore the relationship between leadership styles and motivation using different levels of analysis to see certain pictures on a much larger scale. Specifically, future researchers explore the variables through meso level research, which focuses not only on the organisational level, but also the

impact of political and economic systems, and other stakeholder on the organisation (Ballantine & Spade, 2011). Meso level can also include other government institutions and their effect on service organisations in Bahrain. For example, future researchers can investigate the education department or the trade department and then analyze their effects on vocational schools such as VTDI. In addition to meso level, future studies can also venture in macro level research, which could be challenging but perhaps the most enlightening among lower levels of analysis. In such case, macro issues such as the changes in global events and other international bodies that could affect service organisations in Bahrain should be taken into consideration (Ballantine & Spade, 2011). This level of analysis should provide even deeper insights particularly on the effects of international standard in vocational schools and Western styles of management in VTDI.

8.7. CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

The quantitative results of the study revealed that Bahraini employees mostly agreed that all work values were important, giving slightly higher importance on autonomy, and less importance on influence and advancement. This was the same across all occupation, as there was a significant difference between the work values of managers and employees. In contrast, the quantitative findings confirmed that Bahraini managers now incorporate transactional and transformational leadership elements, but certain elements of laissez-faire leadership are still practiced. Interestingly, the qualitative

findings contradicted some of the quantitative results, as deeper investigation revealed that Bahraini employees were actually more intrinsically driven to work, even those who are working under laissez-faire leaders. Nonetheless, qualitative results confirmed the significant impact of culture on the relationship between leadership and motivation, as several cultural constructs seemed to distort the managers' view toward transactional and transformational elements, as well as the employees' perception toward the effectiveness of their manager's leadership style. As a result, few employees under transactional-transformational leaders showed signs of dissatisfaction, while few employees under laissez-faire leaders showed signs of satisfaction. However, this does not undermine the fact that the combinations of transactional and transformational leadership approach were more effective in motivating employees than laissez-faire approach. In order to take advantage of this, there should be a collective effort among Bahraini service organizations to facilitate culture change and make the adoption of transactional and transformational leadership elements more conducive in the working environment. The challenge begins in the alignment of views toward effective leadership, by discovering a middle-ground between traditionally-embedded practices and modern leadership practices. These advantages and disadvantages between various elements must be clarified, and the influence of negative cultural values over these elements must be eliminated. Overall, the results of the mixed method study confirmed the duality in Arab leadership, as well as the high intrinsic values of Arab employees.

In conclusion, the sub-objectives of the study were successfully addressed by the quantitative research, which was then verified by the qualitative search. First, the quantitative research determined that the predominant style of leadership in VTDI was a combination of transformational and transactional approaches, but still has shades of traditional laissez-faire approaches. This was then confirmed by the qualitative research, specifically from the interviews with the managers and employees, and the observations on the interaction between the managers and employees. Second, the quantitative research also provided a first glimpse on the work values of VTDI employees, which revealed that they value both intrinsic and extrinsic factors, with slightly more emphasis on autonomy. This was confirmed in the qualitative research, but it was also found that the intrinsic motivation of some employees were a result of their perception of their leader's authority, which was basically influenced by the organization's cultural constructs. The cultural orientation of VTDI, which was the study's third sub-aim, was also sufficiently addressed as it was confirmed that the organization has elements of high power distance, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, masculinity, and short-time orientation. Finally, based on the findings and triangulation of results, the main aim of the study was satisfactorily addressed, as significant relationships between leadership styles, cultural orientation, and motivation in VTDI were discovered. The quantitative results provided a limited view of these relationships, as they mainly focused on gathering initial information on important variables such as leadership and work values. However, the qualitative results provided sufficient data to confirm the influence of culture of the leadership styles of managers, as well as on the perceptions of employees toward these styles, which ultimately shape their work values.

Although managers have the freedom to incorporate the leadership styles they prefer, their approaches are still somewhat influenced by cultural factors related to power distance, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, masculinity, and time orientation. This was most apparent among the few managers who still practice a laissez-faire approach. In addition, although employees who were working under laissez-faire managers were still motivated to some extent, they displayed less satisfaction and motivation as compared those who are working under transformational-transactional managers.

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APPENDIX A – DEFINITION OF TERMS

Several important terms related to leadership, motivation, and culture were used in the study. Some of these terms were briefly mentioned, while others were continuously used until the final chapter. These are the list of some of the terms that the readers might encounter:

1. Bahrainization: Kingdom of Bahrain's effort to eventually replace the skilled segment of the expatriate workforce with Bahraini nationals (Bertelsmann Stiftung's Transformation Index, 2016).
2. Collectivism: A cultural dimension that refers to the extent to which a society gives importance to conformity to in-groups (Hofstede, 2001).
3. Cultural Dimensions Theory: Culture theory developed by Hofstede (1980) that categorizes culture into five dimensions, which includes power distance, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism, masculinity, and short-term orientation.
4. Extrinsic Motivation: External type of motivation associated with tangible and material rewards (Furnham et al., 2009).
5. Femininity: The opposite of masculinity. It is basically the extent to which a society values humanistic principles more than masculine traits such as power, success, and achievements (Hofstede, 2001).
6. Full-Range Leadership Model (FRLM): A leadership model that includes transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership styles. It contends that traditional styles of leadership are ineffective compared to the combination of transformational and transactional styles (Bass & Avolio, 1995).
7. Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE): A study conducted by House and associates in the early nineties that explored the leadership style and culture of 62 countries.
8. Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC): A regional intergovernmental group in the Arab region that consists of Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates.

9. Intrinsic Motivation: Internal type of motivation wherein the employee enjoys the work with or without any external rewards (Furnham et al., 2009).
10. Laissez-Faire Leadership: A passive but authoritative type of leadership that often exercise authority but is weak in decision-making (Einarsen et al., 2010).
11. Masculinity: A cultural dimension that refers to the extent to which a society values masculine values such as power, success, and achievements (Hofstede, 2001).
12. Power Distance: A cultural dimension that refers to the degree of separation between leaders and followers within a society (Hofstede, 2001).
13. Short-Term orientation: A cultural dimension that refers to the extent to which society focuses on traditions that originated from the past and on current goals that should be achieved.
14. The Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ): A survey instrument developed by Bass and Avolio (1994) to measure transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership.
15. Transformational Leadership: A leadership style that focuses on motivating and inspiring employees through four constructs, which include (1) idealized influence or charisma; (2) intellectual stimulation; (3) individualized consideration, and (4) inspirational motivation (Ledlow & Coppola, 2010).
16. Transactional Leadership: Uses different types of material rewards to keep employees satisfied and gain their loyalty and compliance (Gershon, 2013).
17. Uncertainty Avoidance: A cultural dimension that refers to the degree of risk taking acceptable or allowed within a particular culture (Hofstede, 2001).

18. Vocational Training and Development Institute (VDTI): A training institute located in Manama, Bahrain that provides learning and development solutions to individuals and organisations in the Middle East.
19. Wasta: A culturally-rooted Arab practice that treats the return of favours as obligations, and the practice of granting more privileges to in-group than out-group members (Janahi et al., 2013).
20. Work Values: Either extrinsic or intrinsic motives that serve as standards to engender thoughts and actions (Feather, 1982).
21. Work Values Questionnaire (WVQ): A survey instrument developed by Furnham et al. (2005), which requires individuals to report the extent to which intrinsic (e.g. responsibility and personal growth) and extrinsic (e.g. pay and benefits) components are important to them on a six-point scale.

APPENDIX B – CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE MLQ SURVEY

Dear Respondent,

I am inviting you participate in a survey with the purpose of investigating the relationship between leadership and employee motivation. The purpose of the research is to gain more insights on the leadership styles of Bahraini managers and how these styles influence employee motivation. Included with this letter is a two-part questionnaire that inquires about your leadership approaches. Kindly look over the questionnaire and decide if you're taking the survey or not. There are no risks involved and it should only take 20 to 30 minutes to complete. Please be informed that you have the right to refuse

participation, and you have the right to withdraw anytime throughout the duration of the research. Further, participation in the survey ensures your anonymity.

If ever you decide to participate in the survey, kindly sign this form:

Participant's Signature

Thank you very much for your time.

Sincerely,

Abdulla Nasser AlNoaimi

APPENDIX C – MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Name: _____
2. Age: _____ 3. Gender: _____ 4. Occupation: _____
5. Marital Status: _____ 6. Annual Income: _____

Using the scale items below, kindly indicate “what you actually do”.

| | Not at all | Once in a while | Sometimes | Fairly often | Frequently, if not always |
|--|-------------------|------------------------|------------------|---------------------|--------------------------------------|
| | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 1. I avoid getting involved when important issues arise | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 2. I talk about my most important values and beliefs | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 3. I seek differing perspectives when solving problems | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 4. I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 5. I wait for things to go wrong before taking action | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 6. I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 7. I spend time teaching and coaching | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 8. I show that I am a firm believer in “If it ain’t broke, don’t fix it.” | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 9. I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 10. I act in ways that build others’ respect for me | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 11. I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 12. I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 13. I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 14. I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 15. I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| 16. I delay responding to urgent questions | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

17. I express satisfaction when others meet expectations 0 1 2
3 4
18. I express confidence that goals will be achieved 0 1 2
3 4

Using the scale items below, kindly indicate “what you ought to be doing”.

| Not at all | Once in a while | Sometimes | Fairly often | Frequently, if not always |
|------------|-----------------|-----------|--------------|------------------------------|
| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

19. I avoid getting involved when important issues arise 0 1 2
3 4
20. I talk about my most important values and beliefs 0 1 2
3 4
21. I seek differing perspectives when solving problems 0 1 2
3 4
22. I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets 0 1 2
3 4
23. I wait for things to go wrong before taking action 0 1 2
3 4
24. I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished 0 1 2
3 4
25. I spend time teaching and coaching 0 1 2
3 4
26. I show that I am a firm believer in “If it ain’t broke, don’t fix it.” 0 1 2
3 4
27. I go beyond self-interest for the good of the group 0 1 2
3 4
28. I act in ways that build others’ respect for me 0 1 2
3 4
29. I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures 0 1 2
3 4
30. I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions 0 1 2
3 4

| | | | | |
|-----|--|---|---|---|
| 31. | I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| | | 3 | 4 | |
| 32. | I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| | | 3 | 4 | |
| 33. | I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| | | 3 | 4 | |
| 34. | I delay responding to urgent questions | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| | | 3 | 4 | |
| 35. | I express satisfaction when others meet expectations | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| | | 3 | 4 | |
| 36. | I express confidence that goals will be achieved | 0 | 1 | 2 |
| | | 3 | 4 | |

APPENDIX D – CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE WVQ SURVEY

Dear Respondent,

I am inviting you participate in a survey with the purpose of investigating the relationship between leadership and employee motivation. The purpose of the research is to gain more insights on the leadership styles of Bahraini managers and how these styles influence employee motivation. Included with this letter is a questionnaire that inquires about your work values. Kindly look over the questionnaire and decide if you're taking the survey or not. There are no risks involved and it should only take 20 to 30 minutes to complete. Please be informed that you have the right to refuse participation, and you have the right to withdraw anytime throughout the duration of the research. Further, participation in the survey ensures your anonymity.

If ever you decide to participate in the survey, kindly sign this form:

Participant's Signature

Thank you very much for your time.

Sincerely,

Abdulla Nasser AlNoaimi

APPENDIX E – WORK VALUES QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Name: _____

2. Age: _____ 3. Gender: _____ 4. Occupation: _____

5. Marital Status: _____ 6. Annual Income: _____

Answer the following statements using a scale of 1 (unimportant) to 6 (extremely important).

1. I express confidence that goals will be achieved

1 2 3
4 5 6

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| 2. Advancement and chances for promotion | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 3. Autonomy and personal freedom | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 4. Benefits (vacation, sick leave, pensions, insurance) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 5. Chance to use your skills and abilities | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 6. Company image (to be employed by a company for which you are proud to work) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 7. Clarity of your work goals and targets | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 8. Contribution to society | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 9. Esteem (sense that you are valued as colleague or worker) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 10. Fairness (people being equitably paid for performance compared to others) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 11. Fatigue avoidance (not being overworked to exhaustion) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 12. Feedback (regular) concerning the results of your work | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 13. Flexible benefits (being paid in various ways to suit you, e.g., car, life insurance, and childcare vouchers) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 14. Human resources backup (being helped with selection and appraisal) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 15. Independence in work style | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 16. Influence within the organisation as a whole | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 17. Influence in the work group/team | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 18. Job interest (to do work which is personally very interesting to you) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 19. Job security (as permanent a job as possible) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |

| | | | |
|--|---|---|---|
| 20. Job status (to have a job others recognize as very high status) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 21. Harmony (among all groups in your organisation) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 22. Managerial respect: Being respected for your skills and input | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 23. Opportunity for personal growth and development | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 24. Opportunity to meet people and interact with them | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 25. Participation in decision making | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 26. Pay (a high competitive salary by performance-related systems or rapid promotion) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 27. Physically safe conditions at work | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 28. Recognition for doing a good job | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 29. Relationships with work colleagues | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 30. Relationships with subordinates | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 31. Resources (being provided with all necessary and up-to-date equipment) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 32. Responsibility (being encouraged to take responsibility for work outcome) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 33. Supervisor (a fair and considerate boss) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 34. Training opportunities (regular, relevant opportunities to attend useful training courses) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 35. Trust (being trusted by all people you work with) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 36. Use of ability and knowledge in your work | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |
| 37. Work conditions (comfortable, clean, modern) | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| | 4 | 5 | 6 |

APPENDIX F– INTERVIEW CONSENT FORM

Invitation to Participate

I am asking to participate in a doctoral study that I am currently undertaking about the relationship between leadership styles and employee motivation in Victory Training and Development Institute. Please take time to read the information below to learn more about the study so you can decide whether to participate as an interviewee or not.

What is the research objective of the study?

The objective of the research is to investigate the relationship between leadership styles and employee motivation in VTDI. Specifically, it will explore the leadership styles of managers and the current intrinsic and extrinsic motivation level of employees by examining their work values. This will also include the investigation of cultural

orientation in VTDI and how it is relevant to the relationship between leadership and motivation.

Method

Since the study incorporates a mixed method design, both surveys and interviews will be used to collect data. Semi-structured interviews, which you are asked to participate with, will be conducted to provide qualitative data to the study. Insights based on interviews will be important in the study as it hopes to discover subtle information and important themes that would help gain more understanding about the relationship between leadership styles and motivation. This can be accomplished by exchanging informal dialogues during the interview process, discovering problems and new ideas.

Participation in the Study

You are asked to take part in the research because of your experiences and involvement in leadership and employee motivation. Nonetheless, the decision is yours to make, and if ever you agree, you will be given an information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. Further, even if you sign up, you are allowed to withdraw anytime without any given reason.

Risks

Since the study is not experimental, there are no actual physical risks involved. Nonetheless, perhaps a possible risk is sacrificing a few minutes of working time during the interview process.

Privacy

I ensure that your privacy will be protected. Confidentiality will be applied to all your answers and all your personal information. Further, your name will not be published in any way.

Audio Record Permission

You have the option to agree or disagree to the use of audio voice recorder. If you feel that this can violate your privacy, then you can request that the interviewer will not use any voice recorder at any time during the interview. Please choose below your decision:

I agree to be recorded with digital voice recorder ___Yes ___No

Findings from the Research StudyA summary of the research findings will be provided on request to all participants.

Questions

If you have any further questions, please feel free to contact with me anytime through email.

If ever you decide to participate in the survey, kindly sign this form:

Participant's Signature over Printed Name

Thank you very much for your time.

Sincerely,

Abdulla Nasser AlNoaimi

APPENDIX G – INTERVIEW GUIDES

This questionnaire will not be presented to the manager interviewees, but will be used as guide during on the spot and informal interviews.

1. What is your leadership style? Kindly elaborate.

2. Based on your own experiences as a manager, is your preferred leadership style “allowed” or well-accepted by your peers? Please explain and expand your answer.
3. Does your style of leadership conflicts with the generally accepted norm in your organisation? Please explain and expand your answer.
4. Are there any rules or policies in your organisation that contradicts with your leadership style? Please explain and expand your answer.
5. Do your religious beliefs have strong influences on your style of leadership?
6. Please explain why you have chosen your leadership style over other styles.
7. Is your leadership style well-accepted by your followers? Why do you think they accept (or do not accept) your style of leadership?
8. Is your leadership style effective in motivating your followers to work? Please explain your answer?
9. As a leader, what are the problems or difficulties that you encountered when motivating your followers?
10. What strategies or actions can you suggest in order to avoid these problems or eliminate these difficulties in motivating your followers?

Follow Up Interviews on Leadership

A. First set of questions:

1. Do you always get involved with your employees when important issues arise?

2. How about addressing urgent questions? Do you immediately respond to them or do you delay them if you're doing something important?

B. Second set of questions:

1. Do you assign certain employees on specific performance targets? Or do you just assign anyone? (CR).
2. When you assign tasks to employees, are you enthusiastic about the targets that you wish to meet, or are you just casual about it? (IM)
3. Do you express confidence that the goals will be achieved? Or do you show strictness and pessimism so that they will work harder to achieve the goals? (IM)
4. When target goals have been met, do you express your satisfaction and praise/reward the employees? Or are you just passive about it so as not to spoil them too much? (CR)

C. Third set of questions

1. Do you wait for problems to arise before taking actions? (MBE-P) Or do you take notes of failures and create plans to avoid them from happening again in the future? (MBE-A)
2. Do you believe in the saying "if it ain't broke, don't fix it"? (MBE-P) Or do you believe that changes are sometimes necessary to prevent future failures? (MBE-A).
3. Do you seek different perspectives from your employees when solving problems? Or do you think they're not experienced and knowledgeable enough to provide input? (IS)

4. When you solve problems, do you use 'tried and tested' ways to solve them? Or do you look for new ways to solve them? (IS)

D. Fourth set of questions

1. Do you share your most important values and beliefs to your employees or do you keep them to yourself? (II-B)
2. When you decide, do you take into consideration the ethical and moral consequences? Or do you believe that results is all that matter? (II-B)
3. Be honest. Do you mostly sacrifice your self-interest for the benefit of the group? Or do you think that the group will work just the same even if you reap credits and benefits? (II-A)
4. What is your way to gain respect from employees? Please answer honestly. (II-A)

E. Fifth set of questions

1. Do you spend time coaching and teaching your employees? Or do you believe that employees should learn among themselves or enroll in seminars/post-graduate schools/etc. to gain new knowledge? (IC)
2. Do you think that your employees have different needs, abilities and aspirations? Or do you see them collectively, as in they have one collective needs, abilities and aspirations? (IC)

Follow up Interviews on Culture

A. First set of questions

1. As leader, do you believe that your authority should not be questioned? Or do you allow your employees to express their own opinions?
2. Do you teach your employees to respect authority at all cost? Or do you want them to be active in questioning things that they think are wrong?
3. Do you define the roles of employees based on their abilities? Or do you define roles based on the job they applied for?
4. Do you allow employees to question your decisions? Or do you consider your decisions as final and absolute?
5. When you apply changes in your department, do you consult employees first? Or do you make the changes drastically?

B. Second set of questions

1. Do you believe that employees should have strong loyalty to the group wherein they belong to? Or do you think that they should work alone and just give their loyalty to peers with same interests?
2. Do you base your leadership style on the conventions and norms of your employees? Or do you base it from your personal preferences?
3. Are you concerned about what employees and co-managers think about you? Or you're only concerned about your own rules and objectives?
4. Do you promote employees based on their loyalty and age? Or are these factors not important to you when promoting them?

5. Do you think that it is your duty to offer a job to a relative when they need help?
Or do you think that they should seek job on their own?

C. Third set of questions

1. Do you have high respect to those who always succeed in life? Do you think it's the losers' fault that they lost?
2. Are you motivated in a relaxed and friendly work atmosphere? Or do you prefer a more systemized work environment wherein objectives are clearly stated and performances are evaluated?
3. Do you believe that decisions should be consensual? Or do you believe that a bit of conflict and disagreement is sometimes productive?
4. Do you believe that men and women have different ways of seeing success? Do you believe that men are motivated by material success, and women are motivated by well-being of others?
5. Do you seek mutual affection and concern from your employees? Or do you just want them to support you in difficult situations?

D. Fourth set of questions

1. Do you prefer your employees to be organized? Or do you allow a bit of chaos and ambiguity, and make them learn how to cope in such situations?
2. Do you prefer a highly competent employee? Or a flexible employee who can adjust to every environment?

3. Are you strict when it comes to your employees' identification cards? Do you always require them to bring it with them and wear them?
4. Do you think it's better for employees to express their feelings in public? Or do you think that there are proper places and time for such emotions?
5. Do you prefer your employees to respect the organisation's rules and customs? Or are you ok when they express their deviance against them?

E. Fifth set of questions

1. Do you want your employees to clearly know what is good and bad behaviour? Or do you prefer them not to be concerned on such things?
2. Do you want your employees to value the stability of your department and organisation? Or do you want them to think that everything is permanently changing?
3. Do you prefer your employees to ask 'why'? Or do you prefer them to ask 'what' and 'how'?
4. Do you want your employees to be influenced by their roots and culture? Or do you just want them to project their actions toward the future and not be concerned about roots?
5. Do you want information being submitted to you to be coherent? Or do you allow contradictory information sometimes because they are beyond your control?

Follow up Interviews on Employees

1. Is your manager always there to address important issues when they arise? If yes, does this action make you think highly of your manager? Does it inspire you to work better? If no, what are your thoughts about it? Please elaborate your answer.
2. Kindly elaborate the level of expectation you receive from your manager and how it affects your daily work.
3. Do you have any particular reason as to why you are still presently involved with your work? Kindly elaborate.
4. Are you happy with your working conditions? Instead of answering just “yes” or “no”, please feel free to share your thoughts regarding this.
5. What are the things that your manager do in order to motivate you to work? Kindly provide examples.
6. Does your manager inspire you to do your work better? Or do you look elsewhere when it comes to inspiration.
7. Does your manager acknowledge your good performances or contributions to the team/department? Are you being sufficiently rewarded? If no, how do you feel about this? If yes, please provide examples and elaborate.

8. Do you experience difficulties in learning new tasks and accepting new challenges? If yes, please explain your reasons. If no, please elaborate.

9. In a scale of 1 to 10, please rate how committed are you to the organisation?
Please elaborate your answer and provide examples.

10. What are your difficulties in adjusting with your organisation's culture? Please provide examples and elaborate.

11. In a scale of 1 to 10, please rate your manager's leadership. Please explain your answer. Do not hold back your answer. I assure you that your answers will be confidential and will not be shared with your manager.

12. What are the current issues in your department/team that you think should be addressed immediately? What actions have your manager done so far to solve these issues? Please provide examples and elaborate your answer.