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LEADERSHIP STYLES IN SAUDI ARABIAN UNIVERSITIES: COMPARISON BASED ON

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND

A dissertation submitted in partial satisfaction

of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education in Organizational Leadership

by

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DEDICATION

In the name of Allah, the most gracious, most merciful.

This dissertation is dedicated to the best gift in my life, my family, who has given me all the kindness and support in the world.

I dedicate it to my wonderful mother for her unconditional love, and continuous prayers. I am forever indebted to the greatest woman in my life and any amount of gratitude is woefully inadequate.

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In the end, I dedicate it to my father-in law Dr. Abdullah Bin Moammar who has been a true father, a role model, and an inspiration to me.

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ABSTRACT

The government of Saudi Arabia has prioritized economic and social development in its ambitious Vision 2030, which was introduced by His Royal Highness Prince Mohammed Bin Salman Alsaud the Deputy Crown Prince of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The country seeks to diversify its economy and the higher education is among the most important sectors facing tremendous development. Therefore, the achievement of desirable academic outcomes relies heavily on the effective leadership of institutions of higher education.

The aim of the current quantitative study was to evaluate the leadership styles of Saudi leaders in Saudi Arabian universities. Additionally, it sought to determine if there are differences in leadership styles due to the educational institution where Saudi university leaders obtained their post-secondary education, and the self-rated scores of leadership styles on the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (commonly known as the MLQ; Avolio & Bass, 2004).

This quantitative study used an online survey instrument to capture 66 responses from Saudi higher education leaders holding various senior positions in local institutions. Of these, 48 were sufficiently complete for data analysis. The study will assessed the dimensions of transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership of university leaders in Saudi Arabia as perceived by the leaders.

The major findings of this study included demographic data such as the majority of the respondents being between the ages of 55 and 64 years old (35.4%), 85.4% of the leaders having a doctorate degree as the highest education level, and 75% having achieved their education in foreign countries. The ANOVA analysis demonstrated that there were no significant differences in any of the 9 MLQ (5x-short) subscale scores of the university leaders who had completed their

highest education level in Saudi Arabia versus those who had attained their education in western countries.

The study focused on self-evaluations, as the participants completed the questionnaires about their perceptions. Future studies can: incorporate 360-degree profiles that consider the views of followers and superiors (such as the MLQ 360, LPI 360, and the Checkpoint 360), adopt different research designs or implement a comparative analysis of different regions within a country, or replicate the study in other sectors.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Leadership is a complex ability that is necessary in many aspects of society, including educational institutions. Educational leaders map the future and direction of their institutions, as well as direct strategic planning to meet the goals and objectives of their institutions. Nevertheless, most people have their own interpretation and understanding of the terms *leader* and *leadership* as a result of their personal experiences or education (Burns, 1978; Cashman, 2008; Judge & Robbins, 2012; Northouse 2013). In the past, organizational members who occupied supervisory or managerial roles were automatically called leaders. However, this kind of definition has become outdated.

Now, leadership is considered to be more than merely occupying a position of power and influence. It is something that can propel people to be the best they can (Bennis & Thomas, 2002; Lussier & Achua, 2012; Northouse, 2013). Some theories even assert that effective leaders do not necessarily occupy supervisory or managerial roles. Rather, they can be ordinary employees who have the capacity to inspire others. As a result of countless attempts to define leadership, different leadership theorists note that this construct is most often understood according to an individual's theoretical orientation (Northouse 2013). One of the most commonly used definitions of leadership is provided by Northouse (2013), who stated that leadership is "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (p. 6). Although this definition is broad, is suggests that leadership is a process, rather than a trait or characteristic. This definition highlights how leadership is an interactive process rather than a linear one. It entails influence, rather than coercion, and unfolds in the context of groups.

Due to the complexity of leadership as a construct, many theorists have sought to explain it from different perspectives. Indeed, through the past decades, many theories of leadership have been developed. A number of theorists have developed varying theses in attempts to further explain the concept. For instance, (a) the great man theory holds that certain people are born leaders; (b) trait theory explains leadership as inherent or developed; (c) contingency and situational theories hold that forces within an individual's environment facilitate the development of a specific leadership style; (d) behavioral and participation theories posit that leadership is determined according to deeds instead of genes; and (e) transactional leadership states that leaders can influence employee performance through bureaucratic authority, authenticity, and task-orientation (Judge & Robbins, 2012; Northouse, 2013; Poulson, Smith, Hood, Arthur, & Bazemore, 2011).

A more recently developed leadership theory, transformational leadership, states that effective leaders have four characteristics: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Avolio & Yammarino, 2013; Sun & Anderson, 2012). Transformational leadership is considered to be one of the most effective leadership styles because it can result in empowered workforces that are able to participate actively, even in organizational decision-making.

It is notable that the majority of these leadership theories were developed by Western theorists through the lenses of Western perspectives (Blunt & Jones, 1997; Faris & Parry, 2011; Goh, 2009; Klein & Wang, 2010). As such, these theories are based on a Western context. It might be possible that Saudi Arabian educational or university leaders would be considered ineffective when assessed according to Western standards, especially since culture-oriented frameworks highlight the differences between Arab and Western behaviors (Beuckelaer, Lievens,

& Swinnen, 2007; Miller & Sharda, 2000). Furthermore, researchers have typically described Saudi Arabian organizational leaders as more authoritarian and less team-oriented and participative compared to other Arabs (Al-Yahya, 2007; Assad, 2002; Idris, 2007). Also, researchers added that Saudi Arabian leaders tend to be self-centered, status-conscious, face-saving, conflict creating, and procedure-dependent (Al-Yahya, 2007; Smith, Achoui, & Harb, 2007). In contrast, many cases suggested that Saudi Arabian organizational leaders tend to lead according to the principles of Islam and elevate the importance of their friendships and personal relationships over the goals and performance of their organization (Kabasakal & Dastmalchian, 2001; Smith et al., 2007).

During the 1970s, Saudi Arabia began implementing a job localization policy called *Saudization* in efforts to generate employment for locals by replacing foreign expatriates. Moreover, these job nationalization efforts started to get more aggressive during the mid-1990s due the rising amount of unemployment in the country (Fakeeh, 2009). In addition, the Saudi Arabian leadership introduced two new initiatives or road maps to face current and future challenges and take the country to the next level. The first one is called the 2020 transformation plan, and the second one is the Saudi Vision 2030, which both were introduced by His Royal Highness Prince Mohammed Bin Salman Alsaud the Deputy Crown Prince of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (Saudi Vision 2030, n.d.; see Appendix A).

The Saudi educational system was included in the Saudization initiative efforts as well. However, a number of education scholars in Saudi Arabia sought to have universities excluded from Saudization, based on the rationale that in order for Saudi academic institutions to be competitive, they should be open to all qualified professors and scholars regardless of their nationality (Ahmed, 2016). The Saudi Ministry of Education (formerly the Ministry of Higher

Education) endeavored to avoid the issue by planning to offer citizenship to prominent university professors from foreign countries (Ahmed, 2016). Although this plan has not materialized, universities in Saudi Arabia currently have a mix of leaders composed of locals and expatriates, particularly locals who had attended higher education in countries such as the United Kingdom, the United States, Australia, New Zealand, and Europe (Hamdan, 2014; Onsman, 2011).

Against this backdrop, the goal of this study was to investigate whether there a correlation exists between the location of an individual's post-secondary education and his/her leadership behaviors in Saudi Arabian universities. Examining the current leadership styles in Saudi Arabian universities could also help identify or introduce optimal leadership models that will assist the Saudization efforts achieve its goals. This correlation will be measured through the use of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5x-short), developed by Avolio and Bass (2004). Sections in Chapter 1 include: (a) background; (b) statement of the problem; (c) purpose statement; (d) research questions and hypotheses; (e) significance and nature of the study; (f) framework and definitions; and (g) assumptions, validity, limitations, and delimitations.

Background

Higher education is considered a standalone industry, where universities vie for business against one another, regardless of whether they are from the private or public sector. This phenomenon exists on a global level, and is given immense scholarly attention due to close associations between education and countries' progress and development. Therefore, many stakeholders strive to ensure that universities are accountable for producing graduates that are regarded as future social capital at the societal level, as well as knowledge capital at the industrial level (Arif, Ilyas, & Hameed, 2013). For their part, universities are aware of their great responsibility for providing excellent services that would facilitate the production of skilled

and knowledgeable graduates who have the appropriate mindsets to enable productivity in 21st century industries (Clayton, 2014). Studies have shown that in order for universities to be able to produce the quality graduates expected from them, they should have effective leaders (Clayton, 2014; Fusilier & Munro, 2014; Gomez, 2013; Hooper, 2010; Sani & Maharani, 2012; Simplicio, 2011).

Currently, most of Saudi Arabia's population is young people, with 58% of the country being 29 years old or younger (Central Department of Statistics & Information, n.d.). Recognizing youth as the country's most valuable asset, the Saudi government has been investing billions of dollars in education for the purpose of training the next generation so that they can be highly skilled. Indeed, Saudi Arabia is currently the eighth largest spender on education in the world (Central Department of Statistics & Information, n.d.; Global Competitiveness Forum, 2014). Based on studies showing that leadership is crucial to the success of universities, it is reasonable to assume that this would also be true for the educational landscape of Saudi Arabia.

> However, Onsman (2011), noted that although there are a
> few Saudi academics trained in Saudi Arabia, many of the deans of the newer universities
> are overseas trained and inexperienced as leaders... In contrast, of the few leaders that
> are foreign-born or educated abroad, experience levels and qualifications are considered
> to be higher. (p. 521)

This situation has been exacerbated by the need to recruit inexperienced staff from other neighboring countries to fill the considerable gaps in Saudi Arabia's rapidly increasing staffing opportunities in higher education. To that end, quality issues regarding the educational outcomes among students have been virtually overlooked, particularly in newer institutions. Indeed, Harry

(2007) indicated that the Saudi Arabian education system in general has been unable to prepare students sufficiently to become successful leaders. In contrast, the older, more established universities have been attracting high quality personnel from around the world, particularly top scholars from other Islamic and Arab countries (Onsman, 2011).

Among those in the academe, Saudis prefer to enroll in higher educational institutions abroad, notably in North America and Western Europe (Onsman, 2011). However, there is little knowledge regarding whether university leaders educated in Saudi Arabia and abroad differ in the leadership styles they use. According to Smith et al. (2007), due to exposure to education obtained abroad, some Arab organizational leaders eventually adopt the leadership styles being promoted in their host countries. Indeed, many Saudi organizational leaders educated abroad tend to adopt the "work methods and values such as flexibility, future orientation, accountability, consultation, and egalitarian approaches" (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001, p. 529) to which they are exposed abroad. Therefore, this study will focus on the impact of Saudi university leaders' educational background on their leadership style.

Numerous researchers have examined the country's educational system, especially the managerial programs offered at its tertiary-level institutions. Bremmer (2004) argued that only about 2% of the locally educated university graduates had sufficient qualifications for managerial positions. According to Almami (2014), the capacity to support the private sector with local citizens continues to be the foremost goal of the Saudi government. Many private sector organizations are cognizant of the shortcomings of the local graduates and thus avoid hiring them. Consequently, most individuals seeking to work in senior managerial positions attend institutions in foreign areas such as the United States, Europe, or Australia and New Zealand. However, it is

important to determine whether the Saudi-educated and foreign-educated managers demonstrate substantial differences in their leadership styles.

Smith et al. (2007) determined that some organizational leaders in the Arabian Gulf region did not demonstrate different values because of their foreign education. Previously, Abdalla and Al-Homoud (2001) had established that an exposure of potential Saudi managers to education courses in business management conducted in Western countries could influence them to embrace contemporary working values and techniques such as future orientation, flexibility, consultation, and accountability. Consequently, there was a rise in the adoption of transformational leadership values in Saudi institutions (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001).

Saudi Arabia's government, like that of other countries worldwide, has prioritized the enhancement of its economy, even though it is considered one of the strongest ones in the region. According to Van de Graaf (2013), Saudi Arabia is among the largest economies in the world, but its strength relies greatly on the extraction and sale of huge amounts of oil. The country remains among the largest oil producers globally, which rivaling economies often perceive as a huge privilege. However, this state of affairs also presents significant challenges, especially due to frequent fluctuations in oil prices that hurt the country's income. Moreover, oil is not an infinite resource; thus, the country must seek ways to diversify its economy.

Consequently, Saudi Arabia developed an ambitious long-term Vision 2030 to improve its economy as its dependence on oil reserves declines (See Appendix A). One of Saudi Arabia's main pillars in Vision 2030 is education; the government hopes to have at least five local universities ranked among the best 200 institutions globally, increase parents' involvement in educational activities, align the education system with market needs, and ensure it promotes the exploitation of inherent economic opportunities (Saudi Vision 2030, n.d.).

Statement of the Problem

Higher education is just like any other industry in which there is competition for business. As is the case with other businesses, customers expect that universities will be able to deliver the best in service (Arif et al., 2013; Clayton, 2014). For the case of public universities in Saudi Arabia, managing the balance efficiently is key. Since they don't take tuition and rely on the allocated yearly budget from the government.

Studies show that if universities have effective leadership, specific advantages are gained, including improved academic outcomes among students, higher satisfaction among students and staff, better staff retention, and profitability if applicable (Amin, Shah, & Tatlah, 2013; Arif et al., 2013; Clayton, 2014; Gomez, 2013; Sani & Maharani, 2012; Simplicio, 2011). However, based on a preliminary review of the literature, there appears to be little knowledge or research regarding whether leaders in Saudi universities are effective based on the traditional leadership styles that they use. The problem is that there is little knowledge regarding whether there are differences in leadership styles used by Saudi university leaders based on where they attained their higher education.

Statement of Purpose

This quantitative study sought to evaluate whether the leadership styles used by university leaders in Saudi Arabia are impacted by the geographic location where they obtained their graduate education. Specifically, the purpose of the study was to compare the outcomes of Saudi higher education leaders educated in domestic institutions and those educated in institutions located in Western countries and determine if there are differences between them in terms of their composite leadership style subscale scores on the MLQ (5x-short) (Avolio & Bass,

2004). Hence, the study assessed the dimensions of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership of university leaders in Saudi Arabia as perceived by the leaders.

Research Question and Hypotheses

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5x-short) was used to evaluate the respondents' leadership styles. The MLQ measures nine aspects of leadership, which are derived from Bernard Bass's (1985) full range leadership model (Avolio & Bass, 1991). The nine aspects are then measured by applying a valid measurement tool such as the MLQ (5x-short) to measure those nine scales of the full range leadership model (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Furthermore, through calculating the statistical relationship between variables, the study sought to establish whether a relationship exists between the location where Saudi Arabian university leaders earned their post-secondary education (the independent variable) and the composite factors scores of the subscales (the dependant variable) of the full range leadership model demonstrated by the MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

The study sought to answer the following research question, tested by hypotheses derived from the study's research question:

- RQ1: Are there differences in the 9 subscales scores on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education?
  - $H1_0$: There are no significant differences in any of the 9 subscales scores on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.
    - Idealized influence (attributes)
    - Idealized influence (behavior)

- Inspirational motivation

- Intellectual stimulation

- Individualized consideration

- Contingent reward

- Management-by-exception (Active)

- Management-by-exception (passive)

- Laissez-faire

- $H1_A$: There are significant differences in at least 1 of the 9 subscales scores on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

Significance of the Study

Numerous studies have been conducted on the importance of university leadership (Amin et al., 2013; Arif et al., 2013; Clayton, 2014; Gomez, 2013; Sani & Maharani, 2012; Simplicio, 2011). Even more studies, in fact volumes of research, have been conducted on leadership and leadership styles (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Avolio, & Yammarino, 2013; Blunt & Jones, 1997; Burns, 1978; Goh, 2009; Judge & Robbins, 2012; Klein & Wang, 2010; Poulson et al., 2011). Institutions of higher education need effective leadership since these are the venues in which organizational leaders will be molded.

However, there is very little empirical knowledge regarding the leadership styles being used by university leaders in Saudi Arabia, as well as how these may be related to the location of their higher education experiences. Saudi Arabia is one of the largest Arab and Islamic countries in the world, with a developed economy and a strong educational system (Pavan, 2014). The current study sought to fill this gap in the under-developed body of empirical research addressing

Saudi Arabian leadership behaviors. It was anticipated that the results of the study would provide important insight on leadership to education scholars, stakeholders, Saudi policymakers, and Saudi universities in general.

Furthermore, the study was conducted with the anticipation that its findings would provide critical contributions to the small body of empirical research studies evaluating the leadership styles in Saudi Arabia. Additionally, there is a modest amount of research in English that has utilized the MLQ (5x-short) instrument to measure transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership, specifically in Saudi Arabia. Therefore, the study is important, as its findings will add to the knowledge of the impact of educational background on leadership styles in Saudi Arabia and other parts of the world.

The findings will have a practical significance for educational institutions in the country regarding policymaking and the management of their human resources. It is beneficial for the organizations to determine whether differences in educational background predict desirable leadership behaviors or styles, which would be a critical factor in making decisions concerning recruitment and promotions. In addition, the findings of the study may provide insights on the espoused leadership styles in Saudi Arabia outside the education sector, as many of the public and private sector employers tend to look for qualified Saudi national staff in the local universities as a first stop. Also, the findings of the study may provide insights into the ability of Saudi Arabian tertiary education to produce leaders who possess the culturally desired values and employ practices that are consistent with contemporary leadership and management theories.

Finally, and most importantly, exposing the results of the stated research problem could facilitate the Saudi government's decision making process in terms of whether or not it should continue to send students abroad through the King Abdullah Scholarship Program (KASP) or via

different government agencies. This is a vital decision because during the last decade more than 30 universities were built and are fully operational now. Both public and private were constructed, with more on the way (Pavan, 2014). Accordingly, those universities have matured and developed had their own accredited graduate degree programs. To this end, the government, or university leaders, can elect to enroll students in the less expensive local schools instead because, according to the country's new strategic vision, Saudi Vision 2030, government spending should be efficient and effective (Saudi Vision 2030, n.d.).

Nature of the Study

The study took a quantitative and cross-sectional approach to obtain statistical results using the MLQ (5x-short) survey instrument, which was sent to the participants or completed online. When a study does not seek to measure change in variables across time, a cross-sectional approach is deemed appropriate (Creswell, 2014). Furthermore, the study tested paired hypotheses about the relationship between the geographical location of the participants' post-secondary education institutions (could be in Saudi Arabia or elsewhere), which was the branched independent variable, and the nine dependent variables, which were the transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant factors exemplified within the full range of leadership model (Avolio & Bass, 1991). Subsequently, leadership was measured using the MLQ (5x-short) instrument, which was developed by Avolio and Bass (2004).

Creswell (2014) stated that a quantitative research design is suitable for this type of study, as it sought to establish if there is a relationship between the location where participants attained their post-secondary education and their leadership styles (hypothesized variables). The use of the design was subject to the confirmation of quantitative characteristics such as: (a) a descriptive research problem, (b) the role of literature review in justifying the research problem,

(c) the study's purpose being measurable through observable data, (d) the collection of data using pre-developed instruments due to the population's size, (e) the need for statistical analysis of the raw data for interpretation, and (f) using standard procedures in reporting and evaluating research outcomes (Creswell, 2014).

The latest version of the MLQ (5x-short) developed by Avolio and Bass (2004) was used to measure and compare the transactional, transformational, and passive-avoidant leadership styles of the Saudi university leaders who agreed to participate in the study. Permission was granted from Mind Garden, Inc. to use the MLQ (5x-short) manual samples for the study's proposal (see Appendix F). Additionally, an educational demographic questionnaire (see Appendix D) was used to examine participants' background.

The study utilized informed consent and confidentiality procedures to ensure that it met the standards associated with academic research. As noted by DePoy and Gitlin (2015), these components are important in offering an explanation to possible participants regarding the risks of involvement and the level of security that is employed to protect them. Moreover, the informed consent process offers information on participation being voluntary, the absence of foreseeable risks, and the lack of penalties for non-participation.

Conceptual Framework

The leadership styles theory used as a framework in this study is based on the full range leadership model, which was initially developed by Bernard Bass (1985) and later evolved through the years (Avolio & Bass, 1991). Leadership styles, which vary from culture to culture (Jogulu, 2010), can influence the achievement of institutional goals and objectives.

A conceptual framework refers to an argumentative concept selected to interpret or investigate the anticipated association between appropriate and useful variables (Creswell, 2014).

According to Marshall and Rossman (2014), such frameworks are often based on a practitioner's knowledge or what factors a researcher perceives to be significant and relevant in addressing research problems. The conceptual framework is based on this quantitative study's assumption that leadership behaviors and styles are related to the educational backgrounds of senior university leaders. Further, the conceptual framework is based on the educational background of Saudi Arabia's university leaders as an independent variable, and transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership styles as dependent variables.

Burns (1978) conceptualized transactional leadership as an exchange process in which leaders initiate interactions with possible followers for the purpose of exchanging valuable goods and the advancement of respective interests. However, the transactional relationship has a restricted level of relationship between a leader and followers. A transactional leader utilizes formal authority to give rewards in exchange for the followers' compliance with policy directives, performance targets, and organizational rules. The leader may impose sanctions on followers for non-adherence. Transactional leaders are rational, self-interested, instrumental, and driven by extrinsic motives.

Transformational leadership enables leaders and followers to look beyond their self-interests and access to power (Burns, 1978). They collaborate in a dynamic process that depends on personal relationships and shared values. The formation of these relationships between leaders and followers often leads to higher productivity. The mission of transformational leaders is often broader than that of transactional leaders. They embody expressive, subjective, and moral psychological processes; fulfill higher order needs; and stimulate intrinsic motivational needs (Bass, 1985).

Passive-avoidant leadership differs from transformational and transactional leadership. It consists of both laissez-faire and management-by-exception passive approaches. The laissez-faire approach encompasses the abdication of avoidance and responsibility in decision-making. Conversely, the management-by-exception passive leadership is a kind of non-leadership that manifests when a leader chooses to avoid all leadership duties (Bass, 1985).

Few studies have focused on the leadership of Saudi Arabian companies. Additionally, Saudi society is unique due to tribal affiliations that have a strong influence on the nation's idea of leadership (Assad, 2002). Consequently, Saudi organizations mostly have a paternalistic corporate culture where managers conduct all decision-making without the input of subordinates (Assad, 2002). Moreover, Saudis prefer hierarchical and stratified organizational structures, which constrain not only change but also the development of human resources. Therefore, it is important for progressive Saudi Arabian organizations to adopt development programs for their managers and leaders.

Definitions of Terms

The aim of presenting the following key definitions is to help explain the unique context of the study. Definitions include common terms found in management and leadership literature.

Saudization: The approach adopted by the Saudi Arabian government to increase employment rates of its citizens by replacing expatriates and foreign employees with Saudi citizens (Fakeeh, 2009; Sadi & Al-Buraey, 2009).

Western education: The education attained from institutions based in the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, U.K, and Europe.

Culture: Hofstede, Hofstede, and Minkov (1991) defined culture as "the collective programming of the mind distinguishing the members of one group or category of people from another" (p. 5).

National culture: The common programming of the minds of members in a certain national society that distinguishes them from members of other national societies (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2005). In this case, national culture refers to that of Saudi Arabia, which is the main focus of the study.

Organizational culture: In this study, the term refers to the common assumptions that individuals in educational institutions have adopted to address internal integration and external adaptation. These assumptions have become valid in the organizations and are often taught to new members when shaping their perceptions, thoughts, and feelings (Schein, 2004).

Leadership: The process via which a person influences a group of individuals to attain common goals (Northouse, 2013). Therefore, leadership in this study relates to individuals who hold managerial positions or positions of authority and leadership in Saudi Arabian universities.

Assumptions

The study's ability to produce applicable answers to the research questions depended on the satisfaction of three assumptions. First, it was assumed that the study would achieve a usable response rate. Voluntary surveys often achieve response rates of between 10% and 90% (Dillman, 2007). Therefore, the anticipation was that a response rate of 50% would be achieved. Also, another assumption was that the submitted instruments would have useful and correct answers. The final assumption was that the participants would provide correct self-ratings of their leadership styles described by the MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire.

Validity

The validity of the study's findings is limited by features of its design, the instruments used in the collection of data, and the procedures used in the identification and recruitment of the study's participants. The findings of the study are based on the statistical relationship between one independent variable and several dependent variables, which measured different features of leadership behavior and styles. Barbuto (2005) stated that different antecedents and contextual factors influence organizational leadership styles; thus, it is not possible to draw causal inferences from the study's findings. Additionally, organizational variables that are not related to the leadership styles of the participants may have affected the frequency with which the demonstrated the leadership behaviors indicated in the MLQ (5x-short).

The self-rating version of the MLQ (5x-short) instruments was used in the study. According to Avolio and Bass (2004), the validity of the data obtained from the self-rating instrument is lower than that collected from the use of the standard MLQ. It was possible that social desirability factors would influence the responses provided by the participants regarding their leadership behaviors.

Limitations

The study's projected and achieved sample size is relatively small, placing constraints on the generalizability and validity of its findings. The participants in the study were recruited from universities and higher education institutions in Saudi Arabia. However, the sample is considered a good representative of the top leadership in the country's universities as the population still consists of a combination of local and foreign nationals. Furthermore, the study's outcomes might have been limited by the characteristics of the design, the method used to enlist contributors, and the data collection medium.

Delimitations

The researcher strove to focus on Saudi Arabian university leaders in institutions of higher education that had previously engaged non-Saudi officials and been subject to Saudization efforts. The participants had to meet different criteria: the subjects of the study had to be citizens of Saudi Arabia, had to have earned an education qualification in post-secondary institutions, and had to hold or have held a senior managerial positions in Saudi universities. Moreover, the participants were offered versions of the MLQ (5x-short) in English and Arabic to enable them to complete the study in the language with which they were most comfortable.

Summary

Chapter 1 outlined the significance of leadership with organizations, especially in universities, to ensure that they can manage change. Although little inquiry has been conducted on the leadership styles of Saudi Arabian senior executives, some research studies have established that most of them are more aligned to transactional than transformational leadership practices. These studies have suggested that organizational leaders in Saudi Arabia have been less effective when measured using managerial standards adopted in the Western world (Al Ghamdi, 2005; Assad, 2002; Idris, 2007). One of the most glaring organizational areas in which much improvement is required is in the development of human resources (Assad, 2002).

The chapter emphasized the purpose of this study, which is to evaluate the relationship between the geographic and cultural place of Saudi Arabia university leaders' highest level of post-secondary education and their leadership behaviors, as measured by the subscales developed by Avolio and Bass (2004) in the MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire. It was anticipated that the findings of this study would add to the body of empirical literature, in particular regarding Saudi Arabian leadership and the unfamiliar question of whether cross-cultural education contributes to

variance in transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership behaviors. The outcomes will be crucial for existing and future Saudi institutions of higher learning that employ Saudi nationals in top executive positions, in addition to offering guidance to policymakers in the education industry. Additionally, the researcher has briefly reviewed some of the main points regarding the desired outcomes of the ambitious Saudi Vision 2030. The following chapter presents the related literature that explores leadership theories, in addition to some current research that is related to the case under investigation.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter presents some of the literature related to the research question, the dependent and independent variables, the historical evolution of leadership styles, and the Saudi Arabian culture and educational system. It incorporates the empirical and theoretical literature associated with Avolio and Bass's (2004) transformational leadership model and full range of leadership paradigm (Bass, 1985), including the measurement of the different kinds of leadership styles. Additionally, it focuses on the impact of national culture regarding how it can influence the adoption of leadership styles.

Documentation

The study utilized sources including major theoretical works and empirical studies dating back to the 1970s and the 1980s. Due to the paucity of academic interest in leadership styles and behaviors in the Gulf region, some of the studies cited in this chapter (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001; Ali, 1993) are not current research, as they were published over 15 years ago. Moreover, most material concerning leadership styles in the region written in Arabic language was not published online, as many libraries and publishing journals have yet to adopt electronic libraries and databases.

In carrying out the study, numerous studies were accessed in academic databases such as ERIC, ScienceDirect, JSTOR, and Academic Search Premier. The Saudi Digital Library (SDL), EBSCOhost, and ProQuest proved to be important retrieval systems for the databases. Consequently, a considerable number of peer-reviewed academic journals, published doctoral dissertations, and books were used in the study.

Leadership Definition

Leadership is a complicated and multifaceted phenomenon that has been the focus of unending research. Interest in the topic has existed for several decades; early philosophers such as Socrates and Plato studied it (Kilburg, 2012). Subsequently, numerous leadership experts, in particular in the 20th century, have conducted research on leadership and written many books on the subject. According to West, Ramirez, and Bernando (2012), the emphasis on a good understanding of the leadership phenomenon has been heightened by globalization. There is a growing desire to investigate the significance of leadership styles used in successful organizations that influenced their level of success in a rapidly changing environment.

Although there is widespread recognition regarding the significance of leadership, there is no consensus on its definition. Numerous people have provided different definitions of the concept. Despite strong interest in the subject, different individuals hold varying opinions on how people develop leadership qualities. The complexity associated with discerning the concept of leadership is attributed to two challenges: it is an intricate construct that is open to subjective interpretation, and different interpretations depend on a person's theoretical background (Ali, 2012; Northouse, 2013).

According to Northouse (2013), various elements affect the way different people define leadership. First, leadership is a process that includes an interaction between a leader and followers. It involves influence, which determines how a leader affects one's followers. Additionally, leadership only exists in groups, as a leader must influence people with a common purpose. Lastly, it involves attention to common goals, as a leader must steer the efforts of a group toward achieving something collectively. However, the definition focuses on an individual as the primary source of leadership. Yukl (2002) presented a more collective

definition of leadership by stating that it entails a process of social influence where an individual intentionally exerts influence over others to structure group activities and relationships. However, this definition does not establish the kind of social influence involved, how it organizes group relations and activities, and who is a leader in a the group context.

Based on this discussion, it is apparent that leadership is a complex concept that is related to other numerous social, organizational, and personal processes. Higgs and Dulewicz (2016) stated that leadership is a process of influence in which a leader inspires others to put effort toward common goals. It does not involve coercion but motivation of followers. Therefore, the most accurate definition of leadership involves a personal choice supported by one's inclinations and organizational beliefs, as well as an awareness of the implications of the chosen approach.

Leadership Theories

A great deal of literature on leadership addresses different areas such as decision-making, leadership power, and interactions between a leader and followers. Therefore, it is necessary to examine the history of research and contributions to the leadership theory. The scientific inquiry of leadership began with Max Weber, one of the pioneers of sociology. According to Popper (2005), Weber made great contributions to the field by focusing on the unresolved tensions associated with leadership and bureaucracy. His research sought answers regarding authority, legitimacy, and status in the context of politics, religion, and the military. Weber established that the inevitable trend of rationalizing all spheres of society highlights the significance of leadership and its problematic nature.

A detailed examination of leadership theories leads to the identification of different categories. Since academic interest in leadership remains high, the following sections will trace the historical evolution of leadership theories. According to Dugan (2016), even though the

theoretical foundations have evolved over time, the basic elements of leadership such as decision-making, charting a direction, establishment of goals, communication, and conflict resolution remain largely unchanged. The evaluation of their evolution will provide an insightful perspective and context that is crucial in highlighting the significance of leadership.

Great man theory (1840s). The great man theory became popular in the 1800s, as most accomplishments during the period were attributed to great men whose immense influence researchers understood to be derived from their intelligence, individual charisma, wisdom, and Machiavellianism (Northouse, 2013). According to Van Wart (2014), these people used their power to influence history. Thomas Carlyle popularized the great man theory in the 1840s. However, Herbert Spencer created a significant counter-argument that the great men exhibited features of their societies, and their achievements would not have materialized without the social conditions that preceded their lifetimes. Spencer's argument remained valid for nearly 2 centuries (Northouse, 2013; Van Wart, 2014).

Research on leadership based on the great man theory in a certain era would focus on the main personalities that played a critical part in the most significant events. For instance, inquiry into World War II would focus on individuals such as Joseph Stalin, Winston Churchill, Benito Mussolini, and Adolf Hitler. Carlyle (as cited in Matthews, 2015) pointed out that a person interested in understanding major events in history should focus on the people that shaped it with their individual exploits and divine inspiration. Moreover, understanding the actions of these great men is beneficial to the development of leaders, as it plays an important role in the discovery of an individual's true nature (Northouse, 2013).

One of the major criticisms of the great man theory is that not all individuals who hold leadership positions possess the natural qualities associated with leadership. According to

Grossman and Valiga (2016), if leadership were an inborn quality, then all people who have the required traits would rise into leadership roles. However, research has demonstrated that leadership is a complicated concept that depends on many factors that determine the level of success a leader achieves. These factors include group characteristics, the power of a leader, and the circumstances in which a leader and followers interact (Northouse, 2013). The combined impact of these factors influences a leader's effectiveness.

Trait theory (1930s-1940s). Among the earliest approaches to studying leadership is the trait approach. Most academic inquiry on leadership before the 1940s focused on the personal traits of leaders. According to Dinh et al. (2014), the trait theory of leadership holds that a person is either born or made a leader by virtue of some qualities that will ensure his/her success in leadership. These characteristics may include intelligence, creativity, and responsibility. Additionally, the most common factors that were associated with leadership in the 1940s were achievement, capacity, participation, status, responsibility, and situation (Khoo, 2014).

According to Grossman and Valiga (2016), the development of trait theory focused on the evaluation of physical, mental, and social characteristics to increase the understanding of the ones found most commonly among leaders. Consequently, it was discovered that leaders exhibit certain traits that promote behavioral modification and enhance one's chances of becoming a leader. Therefore, understanding the general traits that a successful leader possesses helps in the identification of prospective leaders. Additionally, organizations that require certain traits in their leaders can describe them, quantify them, and develop validation techniques for them (Northouse, 2013).

According to Khoo (2014), trait theory ultimately concluded that four states are necessary for leadership to exist: development of self-control and determination, understanding of social

ideals and abstractions, awareness of personalities, and an adequate memory span to pursue distant goals in place of immediate goals. Researchers have conducted numerous studies evaluating various leadership traits that have differing levels of significance (Northouse, 2013).

According to DuBrin (2015), even though many of these studies were conducted several decades ago, the traits they identified are still relevant; thus, they remain applicable in a contemporary setting. First, evidence shows that an environmental context has an impact on a leader's development. For instance, a leader who has strong experience in a certain area will only thrive in situations that are supportive of his/her knowledge. Additionally, an energetic leader demonstrates charisma and can motivate followers, which is vital to good leadership. However, a leader should exercise energy in moderation, as too much excitement may be confusing to followers. Also, a leader should demonstrate intelligence through proper use of understandable vocabulary in communicating with others. A leader should demonstrate certain competencies to inspire people's faith in his/her leadership (DuBrin, 2015).

The trait theory has been criticized for its similarity to the great man theory because it asserts that certain qualities are critical for an individual to become a leader. According to Levine (2008), it is questionable that people hold innate traits that make them leaders. An individual's personality is dependent on a dynamic value system, and traits arise from equally dynamic motivations. Therefore, people have a certain level of autonomy, which implies that they are not restricted by traits. Moreover, trait theory describes many appropriate characteristics in a general and contextual manner, but their importance can only be established through measurement. Although a successful leader may possess some of the necessary leadership traits, this does not imply that his/her success may be replicated in different

circumstances. Apart from situational factors, a leader's performance is influenced by group dynamics; thus, leadership tasks may be too challenging to be completed by relying on traits only.

Behavioral theories (1940s-1950s). The beginning of the 20th century supported the development of more focused research into the leadership phenomenon. In the 1940s, research studies began shifting their focus from the trait approach by prioritizing the need to understand leaders' behavior. According to Northouse (2013), the behavioral or style approach focuses on what leaders do and how they act toward their followers in various situations. Furthermore, according to Day (2012), behavioral theorists sought to identify determinants of effective leadership to facilitate individuals' training. Consequently, they formulated personality tests and compared the outcomes of individuals that they perceived to be leaders. By the 1940s, researchers had accumulated lengthy lists of traits by conducting different studies in the field of psychology (Northouse, 2013). However, their approach experienced two major problems: the lists became extremely long as research continued, and the identified characteristics were not suitable predictors of leadership across different situations.

Consequently, the research evolved into examining how leaders behave to determine how effective leaders *act* instead of how they appear to others. As noted by Northouse (2013), the new approach scrutinized how leaders work in the context of their organizations by focusing on the behaviors that they demonstrate to increase their success in a group setting. Behavioral theorists created training programs to influence leadership behavior in organizational managers by making the assumption that it was possible for leaders to learn new behaviors.

The behavioral approach made efforts to determine what good leaders did on their jobs with the aim of drawing relationships between specific behaviors and their effectiveness. According to Mengel (2008), this approach focused on two dimensions of leadership behavior:

tasks and interpersonal or people dimensions. The task dimension is associated with the achievement of goals pertaining to a leader's job. The evaluation of leaders' behavior focused on issues associated with production, exercising direct leadership, the development of structure, and the oversight or supervision of others. Conversely, the interpersonal dimension focused on the relationship behavior that leaders exhibited through concern for others, showing supportive leadership, empathizing for the feelings of their followers, demonstrating concern for their comfort, showing suitable appreciation, and making efforts to improve happiness and reduce stressful situations. Leaders should demonstrate positive behavior to support the satisfaction of others in the work environment, promote the creation and sustenance of harmonious workplace relations, and maintain the social stability of the group.

When compared to trait theory, the behavioral theories provided a new perspective that diverged from the social, physical, and mental characteristics of leaders and emphasized their behavior instead (Northouse, 2013). Their major contribution to the development of psychometrics such as factor analysis enabled researchers in the field to evaluate the cause and impact of certain human behaviors on leadership. Consequently, individuals in the right environments would learn the behaviors of naturally gifted leaders.

Contingency theories (1960s). The contingency leadership model is attributable to the work of Fiedler in the 1960s. According to Lussier and Achua (2012), the theory holds that a leader's effectiveness is due to the combined outcome of his/her leadership qualities and the demands of a specific situation. The interaction of these factors ensures the consistency of a leader's qualities with the task at hand. Therefore, the model was founded on the notion that a leader must have the capacity to address different situational variables to facilitate effective decision-making and subsequent actions.

The relevance of Fiedler's contingency theory can be established by focusing on one of the elements of a leadership situation, even though it may emphasize an issue rather than provide a description of the situation. According to Chemers (2014), the theory focuses on a leader's personality or psychological nature as the major determinant of the ability to lead. Moreover, it identifies three major factors that influence the success of a leadership structure: how followers perceive a leader, the task that one undertakes, and the level of control that a leader exerts.

The basis of the contingency theory is that there is no single appropriate way of leading in all situations. Dinh et al. (2014) stated that every leadership style should be customized to match with specific situations. According to this approach, certain leaders may thrive in certain situations, but perform poorly in other circumstances. Contingency leadership theory has a close association with trait theory because an individual's traits are often related to situations in which he/she may want to exercise his/her leadership. A common feature of contingency theory is that a leader will be more comfortable expressing his/her leadership if he/she perceives that followers will be responsive.

Transactional leadership theories (1970s). Transactional leadership theory emanated from the perspective of social exchange, which focused on the implicit contract between a leader and followers and its impact on leadership success. According to Breevaart Bakker, Hetland, Demerouti, Olsen, and Espevik (2014), a transactional leadership model focuses on others' expectations and perceptions concerning a leader's motives and actions. For instance, a leader's perception of fairness and equity is important to followers. Consequently, the effectiveness of such a model depends on a leader's ability to sufficiently reward or punish followers after determining the outcome of leader-assigned tasks. A transactional leader achieves the highest level of efficiency when he/she develops a reinforcing environment that balances the goals of the

individual and those of the organization. Transactional theorists posited that individuals usually seek to maximize pleasant experiences and reduce unpleasant ones; thus, followers are more likely to associate with leaders that support their strengths. However, transactional leadership is often conservative in delegating authority to the followers; leaders of this style often limit followers from undertaking autonomous decisions away from the leader's oversight (Antonakis, & House, 2013; Harms, & Crede, 2010; Northouse, 2013).

The transactional leadership style focuses on the basic managerial roles of planning, controlling, and organizing (Northouse, 2013). According to Chemers (2014), transactional leadership involves directing and motivating others by appealing to their self-interests. A transactional leader derives power from the formal authority bestowed on him/her due to an organizational position. Transactional leadership entails the adoption of a system to motivate followers whose major role is to obey instructions. A transactional leader rewards a follower who does what is required and punishes one who does not.

Transactional leadership theory postulates that the interaction between a leader and followers takes place to achieve ordinary performance objectives (Dugan, 2016). The exchange involves four different factors. Namely, transactional leaders: (a) connect the objectives to rewards, (b) communicate expectations, (c) offer necessary resources, and (d) develop mutually agreed upon goals. The leaders provide different types of rewards for successful performance by their followers. Additionally, these leaders adopt an active management style in which they monitor the activities of others, identify deviations from standards and rules, and implement corrective actions to alleviate future mistakes. Transactional leaders adopt a passive management approach in their interventions when followers do not meet specific performance standards and often use punishment to respond to undesirable behavior. Such actions imply that

they abdicate their duties and avoid making decisions; thus, their followers lose direction (Judge, & Piccolo, 2004).

Transactional theory focuses mainly on short-term goals and standard procedures. Therefore, leaders who use a transactional approach do not foster other people's creativity to generate new ideas. According to May, Peus, Frey, and Kerschreiter (2014), this leadership model is only appropriate in organizations with simple and well-defined problems. Additionally, transactional leaders do not acknowledge efforts by their followers that are not aligned with existing organizational plans and objectives. The transactional leadership model has been determined effective in making decisions that enhance organizational efficiency, such as improving productivity levels and lowering production costs. Therefore, it is most suitable for leaders who prefer issuing directions, who are action-oriented, and whose relations with others are transitory and not based on emotional attachment. Moreover, the leadership model incorporates the assumption that people are motivated by simple rewards, which is essential in pursuing organizational goals and exacting compliance with various common standards.

Transformational leadership theories (1970s). James Burns (1978) introduced the concept of transformational leadership in the 1970s. His main focus was to reformulate the concept of leadership to improve people's understanding of it. According to Judge and Robbins (2012), Burns's main observation was that transformational leadership occurs when leaders and followers engage in a manner that improves individual morality and motivation. Consequently, transformational leaders are visionary, charismatic, inspirational, considerate of their followers' needs, and intellectually stimulating. This leadership model offers an effective way for managers to alleviate problems. Transformative leaders exhibit self-confidence, self-

determination, and self-esteem; they endeavor to inspire others by building confidence and enthusiasm in their work (Northouse, 2013).

According to Bennis and Thomas (2002), most successful corporate leaders have been influenced by a transformational experience, which is referred to as the *crucible of leadership*. Also, the environment or the era in which a leader lives has a tremendous impact, as it influences whether or not a person will become a leader. The crucibles may take the form of influential forces or experiences that a person seeks. A transformative experience may be pleasant, such as unanticipated outcomes that reveal positive opportunities, or unpleasant, such as dealing with significant failure.

The transformational leadership concept is associated with an emphasis on change over maintenance of the existing circumstances (Breevaart et al., 2014). The approach may include the overhaul of an entire organizational framework. It is noteworthy that even though Burns (1978) is credited with the groundbreaking work that led to the establishment of the transformational leadership model, his efforts did not yield a coherent theory. However, subsequent contributions by Bernard Bass (1985) led to the convincing and measurable theory that exists today.

Leadership styles and The Full Range of Leadership Theory

As noted by Avolio and Bass (2004), leadership is a critical factor in the determination of organizational success. Consequently, it has been the subject of many social sciences and organizational development theories over the years. Existing leadership theories imply that leadership behavior is categorized into two major styles: transformational and transactional leadership.

The first part of the full range of leadership theory (Bass, 1985) and most widely studied leadership style is transformational leadership. According to Steinwart and Ziegler (2014), a transformational leader is charismatic and motivates followers by appealing to their moral values and ideals through the formulation of an inspiring vision. Transformational leadership involves the development of an emotional relationship between leaders and subordinates. Such leaders take real interest in their followers' well being. As noted by Jin (2010), transformational leadership incorporates the components of compassion, empathy, relationship-building, sensitivity, and innovation, supporting a climate of trust, confidence, and individual development. Additionally, transformational leaders integrate the components of power sharing and participative decision-making.

Podsakoff, Mackenzie, and Bommer (1996) stated that transformational leadership is defined by six components: identification and articulation of a vision, offering a suitable model, supporting the acceptance of group objectives, setting high performance expectations, promoting intellectual stimulation, and providing individualized support. According to Harms and Crede (2010), the identification and articulation of a vision involves the recognition of new opportunities for the organization and inspiring others with its vision.

Behrendt, Malz, and Goritz (2016) noted that creating a suitable and successful leadership model involves a leader setting examples for followers that are consistent with their values. Supporting the acceptance of group objectives implies seeking cooperation among followers and ensuring that they work together to achieve common goals. Setting high performance targets involves leaders promoting their expectations of quality, excellence, and individual performance. Intellectual stimulation involves encouraging subordinates to challenge the existing circumstances by taking risks, adopting creative thinking, and participating

intellectually. Lastly, offering individualized support implies that a leader respects followers and prioritizes their personal needs, feelings, and welfare.

The second part of the full range of leadership theory (Bass, 1985) is transactional leadership, which entails an exchange process in which there is contingent reinforcement of employees based on performance. A transactional leader motivates others by appealing to their individual needs based on relevant economic transactions. According to Bennett (2009), transactional leadership uses organizational bureaucracy, power, policy, and authority to maintain control. This type of leadership is often referred to as *authoritative leadership*. The main behavior associated with transactional leadership is the identification of expectations regarding tasks and roles and offering contingent rewards on the fulfillment of associated obligations. The exchanges in contingent rewards often include tangible or intangible rewards such as pay increments or recognition, respectively.

Most researchers have pointed out that transformational and transactional leadership are not mutually exclusive. As noted by Vera and Crosan (2004), effective leaders understand how to utilize both transactional and transformational leadership styles in response to certain circumstances. Moreover, leaders can enhance their influence by using the both of the two leadership styles. Transactions often form the foundation of transformations. A transformational approach builds on a transactional foundation in contributing to the performance and extra effort of subordinates, which is known as the *argumentation effect*. Therefore, transformational and transactional leadership styles have a positive association because they complement each other (Barbuto, 2005; Vera & Crosan, 2004).

The third part of the full range of leadership theory (Bass, 1985) is passive-avoidant leadership. According to Moriano, Molero, Topa, and Mangin (2014), passive-avoidant

leadership takes two forms: passive management by exception and laissez-faire leadership. Passive management by exception refers to practices associated with a leader who waits for mistakes to occur before devising corrective actions. The approach is more effective in the supervision of a large number of followers reporting directly to a leader (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Laissez-faire leadership entails the avoidance or absence of leadership. It is the most ineffective leadership type where an individual does not make decisions or takes action, and instead disregards his/her responsibilities.

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Since the 1970s, leadership researchers and practitioners have examined both transactional and transformational leadership concepts. Bass (1985) started by studying the theory of transformational leadership; empirical outcomes revealed that the leadership approach had a positive impact on objective and subjective performance. Subsequently, numerous studies have focused on similar inquiries. According to Rodriguez (2014), leaders who adopt the transformational leadership approach focus on motive development to inspire the positive emotions and motivation of their followers, which is critical in the creation and communication of a vision of the future. Conversely, transactional leaders depend on a well-defined and concise system of interactions and rewards.

Description. The MLQ is the most commonly used tool for assessing transformational and transactional leadership behavior. According to Xu, Wubbena, and Stewart (2016), the tool has been translated into many languages and utilized by numerous practitioners and researchers globally. Researchers also use it to construct new survey instruments. Additionally, researchers and consultants can utilize the web-based 360-degree or multi-rater forms to collect ratings about leaders, which provides detailed feedback. The MLQ (5x-short) contains five transformational,

three transactional, and two passive-avoidant scales, as well as three outcome scales. The following sections will outline the different components within the identified categories.

Transformational leadership. The first scale in transformational leadership is *inspirational motivation* (IM), which identifies leaders who can inspire their followers. In most cases, the inspiration does not require the followers to have a close association with the leader. As noted by Yammarino et al. (2015), an inspirational leader is able to articulate common goals in a simplified manner and communicate performance standards appropriately. Moreover, these leaders can present a vision and outline how to achieve it. Overall, an inspirational leader helps followers to understand the meaning of their efforts and promotes positive expectations.

The second scale within the transformational perspective is *idealized influence* (attributes; II-A), which recognizes leaders who can build trust in others. Such leaders cultivate pride and power in their followers by overlooking their personal interests and prioritizing the interests of the group. A leader with these idealized attributes becomes a reference model for others due to these special qualities (Armstrong & Muenjohn, 2008; Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1999).

The next scale is *idealized influence (behavior;* II-B), which focuses on identifying leaders who incorporate integrity into their actions. Ideally, a leader should portray positive values in his/her behavior such as self-control, consciousness, high moral judgment, dominance, and self-efficiency. Consequently, he/she communicates these beliefs and values, focuses on an appropriate vision, and considers the ethical consequences of an organization's activities. Additionally, he/she focuses on developing a common and agreeable mission or vision for the entire group (Armstrong & Muenjohn, 2008; Avolio & Yammarino, 2013)

Intellectual stimulation (IS) is the next scale, which recognizes leaders who can support innovative thinking to help followers create new ideas and values. Moreover, a transformational

leader helps others to adopt new thinking processes about old problems. The leader encourages

them to question their beliefs, values, and assumptions, as well as those of their leader, to ensure

that inappropriate and outdated factors do not hinder the resolution of existing problems.

Consequently, they build their capacity to solve future issues, especially those that a leader

cannot anticipate. IS is effective when a leader does not have to be involved for others to

recognize problems, take control of their imagination and thoughts, and incorporate personal

values and beliefs (Avolio et al., 1999).

Another scale associated with transformational leadership is *individualized consideration*

(IC), which identifies leaders who can coach people. IC implies that a leader understands

followers, shares their concerns and needs, and offers unique treatment to every follower. Apart

from the followers' existing needs, leaders should strive to develop themselves to ensure that

they maximize and achieve their full potential. Additionally, transformational leaders should

nurture organizational cultures that provide people with opportunities and support personal

growth (Armstrong & Muenjohn, 2008; Avolio et al., 1999)

Transactional leadership. The first scale under transactional leadership is *contingent*

reward (CR), which identifies leaders who recognize and reward achievement. Such leaders

discuss and clarify responsibilities for different projects and tasks, outline performance

objectives, and clearly articulate rewards and punishments depending on performance outcomes.

Contingent rewards are critical in a transactional leadership model, as they establish the

standards that should guide the actions of individuals and groups (Armstrong & Muenjohn, 2008;

Avolio et al., 1999).

The second scale is *management-by-exception*-active (MBE-A), which identifies leaders

whose emphasis is on monitoring mistakes. These leaders outline specific compliance standards

and describe inefficient performance in a vivid manner. Subsequently, they formulate sanctions

for individuals who do not meet set standards. Therefore, leaders monitor deviations, errors, and

mistakes closely, and adopt quick and comprehensive measures to correct them. Leaders who

adopt active management-by-exception utilize the approach to keep track of mistakes, focus on

deviations and errors, and rectifying any oversteps (Armstrong & Muenjohn, 2008; Avolio et al.,

1999)

      Passive-avoidant leadership. The first scale is *management-by-exception-passive* (MBE-

P), which identifies leaders who can fight fires or resolve issues in their organizations or groups.

A leader who adopts active management-by-exception takes a proactive approach by anticipating

and monitoring deviations and mistakes and taking corrective measures, whereas passive

management-by-exception means that a leader will exercise a reactive approach by taking

corrective actions after a problem has occurred. Most leaders who adopt the approach utilize

punitive actions to correct mistakes (Armstrong & Muenjohn, 2008; Avolio et al., 1999).

      The second scale is *laissez-faire* (LF), which identifies leaders who evade involvement.

Such leaders have a *non-leadership* style; thus, they do not assume the responsibilities that are

associated with an effective transformational leader, such as offering sufficient information to

followers, providing feedback, and acknowledging satisfactory work. These permissive leaders

do not address crucial problems, are often absent when required, avoid strenuous decision-

making, and respond to urgent issues with late reactions (Armstrong & Muenjohn, 2008).

      Outcomes of leadership. The first outcome scale is *extra effort*, which indicates a

leader's capacity to generate extra effort in his/her followers. The outcome is one of the direct

consequences of an efficient leadership approach, which is demonstrated by the followers' desire

to achieve greater performance by committing extra effort and going beyond the behavioral

expectations of a leader, organization, or group. In this case, leaders strengthen their followers' desire to succeed, adopt positive behavior, and surpass their objectives (Armstrong & Muenjohn, 2008; Avolio et al., 1999).

The second leadership outcome scale is e*ffectiveness*, which identifies leaders who are efficient; thus, they fulfill the professional aspirations of their followers. Moreover, they represent them in an efficient way when dealing with higher authority, and strive to be efficient in realizing the objectives of an organization (Armstrong & Muenjohn, 2008; Avolio et al., 1999)

The last outcome scale is *satisfaction with leadership*, which identifies leaders who can generate satisfaction in others. Such leaders make sure that others have adequate interpersonal satisfaction by being authentic, warm, open, nurturing, and honest. Additionally, they have good social and interpersonal skills, which promote feelings of satisfaction in others (Armstrong & Muenjohn, 2008; Avolio et al., 1999)

Theoretical basis. The development of the MLQ followed extensive research into managerial behavior in various organizational settings in the United States and globally. According to Belias and Koustelios (2014), the MLQ is a brief but comprehensive survey of numerous items that measure different leadership styles. Over the years, the MLQ has been enhanced and modified. The current version has strong reliability and validity, and is often utilized for research and commercial purposes. The tool is an excellent indicator of the performance of leaders across different organizations, organizational levels, and cultures (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999).

The MLQ provides a comprehensive 360-degree approach to measuring a leader and facilitates anonymity in reporting by authorized individuals inside and outside an organization. According to Finley (2014), the collection of feedback involves individuals who may be at a

lower, similar, or higher level in comparison to the relevant leader. Moreover, other individuals may be included in the survey. Raters' responses are collated in a confidential manner in a comprehensive report, which helps a leader to determine the final score (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999).

The MLQ presents an excellent evaluation tool that supports associated coaching and development in both personal and professional areas. Its evolution has followed research focusing on managerial behavior in various organizational settings in the United States and globally (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999). Barbuto, Fritz, Matkin, and Marx (2007) utilized the tool in a research study focusing on leadership and established that direct association between gender and education with consistent disparities in leadership behaviors. Zagorsek, Dimovski, and Skerlavaj (2009) also used MLQ and established that transformational leadership has a significant impact on all organizational learning constructs, but only behavioral and cognitive changes and information acquisition had a direct association with transformational leadership. Throughout the evolution of the MLQ, research inquiry has continued regarding the qualities that demonstrate excellent leadership. Kouzes and Posner (2007) utilized the outcomes of various studies conducted in different cultural and geographic settings. They determined that exceptional leaders exemplified some characteristics consistently. However, they developed and used a different tool, named the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI), which evaluates leadership from a different perspective than the MLQ.

The MLQ (5x-short) employs a 5-point Likert scale with measurements from 0, *not at all*, to 4, *frequently, if not always*. The final scoring uses the average of the scores on every subscale. Consequently, the leadership styles of concerned leaders are determined by the overall score (Green, Rodriguez, Wheeler, & Baggerly-Hinojosa, 2015).

The MLQ has undergone a continuous validation process over the past few decades, experiencing various trials, enhancements, and revisions (Avolio & Bass, 2004; Avolio et al., 1999). Consequently, these efforts have led to the strengthening of the technique's validity and reliability. According to McMillan (2004), validity refers to the suitability of a measure in relation to the outcomes from the scores that are obtained from those measures. Conversely, reliability is the consistency of the scores from one study to the next. Fox (2009) noted that the validation process of the MLQ has established its convergent and factorial validity, test-retest reliability, internal consistency, and inter-rater agreement. Additionally, the factor analysis in different research studies supports the construct validity of the technique (Antonakis et al., 2003; Avolio et al., 1999; Lowe, Kroeck, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996).

Antonakis et al. (2003) reviewed various independent research studies based on the divergent and convergent criteria that raters used in various organizations in America and confirmed the tool's construct validity. Armstrong and Muenjohn (2008) established the structural validity of the MLQ in a study that evaluated various organizations in Thailand and England, concluding that the technique was adequate in demonstrating the entire leadership factor constructs associated with transformational leaders.

Avolio and Bass (2004), the developers of the MLQ, endeavored to confirm its reliability and confirmed that every subscale had reliability of between 0.69 and 0.83, as shown in Table 1. These reliabilities are high and surpass the recommended internal consistency in most of the literature. Also, there is widespread reliance on the MLQ to examine the leadership aspects of numerous business, education, and security institutions at both master's and doctoral levels. However, criticism has been directed toward the tool based on insufficient validity due to the failure to replicate factor structure in all cases in empirical research. Pillai, Scandura, and Tejeda

(2001) determined that the MLQ was more accurate for a single higher-order model when compared to a multi-factor one. Consequently, they recommended a reduction of the items of the tool for consideration.

Table 1

Reliability of MLQ (5x-short) Subscales

MLQ (5x-short) Tool	Leadership subscale	Reliability
Transformational	Idealized influence-attributes	0.75
	Idealized influence-behavior	0.70
	Inspirational motivation	0.83
	Intellectual stimulation	0.75
	Individualized consideration	0.77
Transactional	Contingent reward	0.69
	Management-by-exception (Active)	0.75
Passive-Avoidant	Management-by-exception (Passive)	0.70
	Laissez-faire	0.71
Outcomes of leadership	Extra effort	0.83
	Effectiveness	0.82
	Satisfaction	0.79

Note. Adapted from *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire: Third Edition Manual and Sampler Set* (p. 76), by B. J. Avolio and B. M. Bass, 2004, Menlo Park, CA: Mind Garden, Inc. Copyright year by the authors.

Studies on leadership using MLQ. The MLQ was first published in 1985 (Bass, 1985. Over the years, different versions of the tool have been employed to measure the associations among transactional, transformational, and passive-avoidant leadership actions, leading to varying results. According to Pounder (2008), different studies have demonstrated that the tool's transformational leadership subscales have a direct relationship to leaders' ability to promote extra effort in their followers, inspire perceptions of effectiveness, and motivate satisfaction with the leaders. Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang, and Lawler (2005) assessed transformational leadership behavior using the MLQ (5x-short) tool and established that adopting the style had positive association with job satisfaction, performance, and organizational commitment by followers.

Albritton (1993) performed a study examining the perceptions of transformational and transactional factors described by the MLQ instrument. It focused on the leadership factors associated with the perceptions of measures of leadership outcomes and organizational effectiveness. The findings of the study supported all the hypotheses that related transformational leadership to the university libraries' effectiveness and they were consistent with prior studies in many other fields.

Lowe et al. (1996) evaluated the outcomes of various published and unpublished studies that had utilized an early version of the MLQ questionnaire. Their findings showed that transformational leadership was a good predictor of positive leadership results for group performance and other follower outcomes. The prediction power was consistent across all the studies irrespective of the organization type, a leader's position, and the technique utilized in measuring the effectiveness of a leader. However, it was evident that charisma had a significant positive impact on leaders' effectiveness in studies that relied on followers' perceptions to measure the performance of work groups or organizations.

Nischan (1997) conducted a study to evaluate the fit of the transformational-transactional leadership paradigm to the lecturers of a community college using students' ratings of the instructors on the MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire. Its purpose was to establish the impact of perceived faculty leadership on the outcome factors of extra effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction. The study's findings demonstrated the applicability of the transformational leadership approach to the classroom environment in the community college. Consequently, the study concluded that the variables associated with transformational leadership contributed more to the outcome variables than those associated with transactional and passive-avoidant leadership.

Judge and Bono (2000) sought to establish the existence of a relationship between MLQ (5x-short) scores and the *big five* personality traits of extraversion, neuroticism, openness to experience, conscientiousness, and agreeableness. The sample under consideration included leaders of about 200 organizations in the Midwestern United States who had recently enrolled in or graduated from community leadership programs. The study established that agreeableness has the greatest correlation with transformational leadership. Although openness has a positive association with transformational leadership, its impact declined significantly after controlling for the impact of the other four traits. Neurotic characteristics such as depression, anxiety, and low self-esteem had an inverse relationship with transformational leadership.

Judge and Piccolo (2004) conducted a meta-analytical study on numerous studies that had utilized the MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire. The analysis focused on 87 sources covering 626 correlations. The selection of the studies included criteria such as those with a strong research design (such as the longitudinal model) or those that incorporated different data sources in measuring leadership. The outcome of the analysis indicated that transformational leadership had a higher positive impact on the different criteria of leader effectiveness than contingent reward. Moreover, the study indicated high correlations among the scales of transformational leadership and between the contingent reward aspect of transactional leadership and the transformational leadership subscales.

Boerner, Eisenbeiss, and Griesser (2007) hypothesized that triggering task-related controversial debate may have a positive influence on the improvement of relationships between leaders and follower innovation, which is perceived as a good indicator of employees' freedom to express themselves in a work environment and support the generation of new ideas. The study utilized the MLQ (5x-short) alongside other evaluation techniques. It found a positive

association between transformational leadership and follower innovation. Additionally, the results of the study indicated that transformational leaders had the capacity to influence actions that demonstrated organizational citizenship in their followers.

National Culture and Leadership Styles

Leaders need to understand the national culture of the employees in an organization, as it influences their perception of the work environment and other related factors. According to Hofstede et al. (2005), a national culture constitutes the beliefs, values, and assumptions that are learned in early childhood that differentiate one group of individuals from another. Leaders must establish ways to work in accordance with the expectations of their followers. The likelihood of a leader's success increases with behavior that that is agreeable within a certain cultural context.

Clear differences exist among cultures in terms of values, behaviors, and attitudes, which have an impact on organizational leadership. According to Alves, Lovelace, Matsypura, Toyasaki, and Ke (2006), most studies in the past focused on the leaders themselves by exploring their actions, philosophies, and styles, as well as the suitability of their leadership styles. However, a growing number of studies have demonstrated that different leader behaviors and actions are interpreted in different ways depending on the dominant culture in an environment, which influences employees' perceptions regarding an ideal leader. Consequently, they view some leadership approaches as less effective and favor others instead. The expansion and globalization efforts by many companies present various opportunities and challenges for leaders. Since most of these companies have operations across the world with different cultural values and beliefs, it becomes necessary to acknowledge and understand the link between these cultures and leadership styles. A leader who is sensitive and receptive to different cultures is likely to be more effective than one who is not (Judge & Robbins, 2012; Shafee & Rhodes, 2016).

Most of the predominant leadership theories were developed in traditionally individualistic societies whose perception of effective leadership was the achievement of higher production and better financial results. Antonakis and House (2013) stated that the perspective of a leader's effectiveness is concerned with the results of one's actions instead of a specific kind of behavior. Moreover, the theories were formulated based on indicators of self-interest, including networking and mentoring, which are common in individualistic cultures. Nonetheless, exposure to collectivist cultures indicates that leaders are likely to judge their effectiveness based on long-term goals such as the loyalty of their followers, the capacity to inspire others to put in extra effort, and satisfaction with leadership. Additionally, collectivist cultures give precedence to the requirements of a group, family, and community when choosing leadership actions (Hofstede, 2011). Consequently, the need to observe the values associated with mutual obligations demands that a leader provides direction and protection to followers with the expectation that they will return the favor with their commitment and loyalty.

Leadership theories often support a democratic perspective of the attainment of leadership roles by stating that all people have the same chance of getting to the top. According to Hofstede et al. (2005), the assumption is most likely derived from an individualistic viewpoint on the basis of low power distance. Conversely, in cultures with high power distance, people have a high regard for titles, social status, and positions because they determine how other people treat or behave toward someone. In these cultures, leaders and their followers perceive themselves as unequal. Therefore, it is assumed that a leadership style in a high power distance society will promote respect for age, tolerance, consensus, and compromise in formulating standards for working together that are agreeable to all.

The management of multicultural workforces presents enormous challenges for leaders worldwide. According to Weaver, Wilborn, McCleary, and Lekagul (2007), this increase in the level of culturally diverse work environments requires leaders to understand the significance of the actions and values of the people working in their organizations. Therefore, organizations should strive to retain leaders with leadership styles that are congruent with employees in these cultures. For instance, a participative leadership style often achieves enhanced profitability of organizations in countries with low power distance. However, this leadership style may not achieve higher financial results in cultures with high power distance. A leader's effectiveness is a major contributor to the success or failure of a company, as the right leadership style will allow individuals and work groups to improve their productivity.

Islamic View of Leadership Concept

Cashman (2008) asserted that leadership is a critical element of human nature, as every group or organization needs an effective leader to achieve its desired success. Every person as a social being leads a life by forming mutual relations with other people. Since no one can live completely alone, cooperation between people brings out the need for leadership in society. Currently, the concept of leadership is important in various spheres of society, including financial, social, and political. The concept of leadership is relevant from the institution of the family to the largest organizations in the world. The section will examine the concept of leadership from the perspective of the religion of Islam.

Leadership in Islam is perceived as *amana* (trust in others). According to Kriger and Seng (2005), from the religion's viewpoint, leadership constitutes a sacred role that helps achieve solutions for problems of humanity and guides people to sustainable betterment. Islam emphasizes the need for leaders to prioritize human welfare, as holding such a position

constitutes a psychological contract with followers in which a leader must offer guidance, protection, and fair and just treatment. Therefore, leaders in Islam should focus on doing good.

Islam strives to ensure that the best people become leaders due to the critical nature of leadership. According to Abdulaziz (2001), the religion describes various qualities and preconditions that an ideal leader should possess. These elements of a good leader are derived from Islamic *Sharia*, which comprises various authoritative sources such as the *Al Qur'an, Sunnah and hadeeth,* and Islamic *Fiqh* (Beekun & Badawi, 1999). Additionally, attributes espoused by different righteous caliphs assist in the establishment of desirable qualities in a leader (Adair, 2010; Beekun & Badawi, 1999).

Mohammed (2000) stated that leadership has three critical concepts: legitimacy, power, and authority. From an Islamic perspective, legitimacy requires additional clarification, as it has a fundamental difference from other leadership systems. Legitimacy in Islam comprises popular and divine legitimacies. Whereas other systems consider the will of the majority or popular legitimacy as the dominant criterion, Islam views acceptability to Allah or divine legitimacy as an important prerequisite. The second form of legitimacy is obtained by a leader who obeys Islamic teachings, which entitles one to the obedience of followers. Therefore, divine legitimacy is a precondition for popular legitimacy. The two forms of legitimacy are essential in leadership in an Islamic context because the absence of divine legitimacy means it is not valid, and the lack of popular legitimacy implies that it is unfulfilled (Mohammed, 2000).

The Qur'an describes a crucial element of the Islamic perspective of leadership during the appointment of Prophet Ibrahim (Abraham) as a leader when Allah states that any divine covenant does not incorporate the *dhalimeen* (oppressors). According to Rohaiza (2014), in Islam an oppressor should not hold a leadership position, irrespective of whether that person

possesses all the other relevant leadership qualities. Moreover, Islam does not condone the aspect of hereditary leadership, as every person must rise to leadership on merit. Allah perceives every individual as his representative on earth, which places some constraints on a person's actions. A person is not free to behave in any way or submit blindly to the aspirations of any group, despite its majority or influence. The Islamic concept of leadership is based on implementing Allah's will on earth; thus, it is different from other leadership systems where those who desire to take high office must submit to the wishes of the people despite their lack of merit.

Leaders in an Islamic context must exhibit certain qualities. As noted by McCloud, Hibbard, and Saud (2013), it is important to be compassionate, kind, and forgiving towards one's followers to eliminate the chance of abandonment. Additionally, it is important for a leader to consult followers. A leader should inspire a sense of purpose, courage, and determination in followers when pursuing a specific policy. The Qur'an emphasizes that a leader should be resolute to ensure that followers are obedient. Some other qualities include wisdom and knowledge, courage, eloquence, and the spirit of self-sacrifice.

An individual rises to a leadership position due to certain circumstances and the ability to lead and inspire others to achieve a certain goal. According to DuBrin (2015), a leader can motivate other people to accept a vision, then create a movement to pursue change. A leader must begin by articulating the vision and portraying the capacity to transform it into action through the alignment of performance with the vision to achieve success. However, Islam is different from other conventional systems, as it does not encourage individuals to pursue leadership positions actively, especially when the main motivation is seeking power and glory (Beekun, & Badawi, 1999). Leaders should desire to serve the people by exemplifying religious

doctrine. People should rise to leadership positions on the basis of their past work and accomplishments, which propel one to higher responsibilities.

Leadership is such an important element in society that Islam stresses that even a group of three individuals embarking on a journey should select a leader (Adair, 2010). The Islamic concept of leadership and its supporting principles provide a good leadership model that can help organizations achieve a high level of success. Its principles are derived from the Qur'an, the teachings of Prophet Muhammad, the actions and qualities of the caliphs, and numerous leaders in the Islamic faith who achieved excellence despite facing massive challenges and meager resources (Adair, 2010; Beekun & Badawi, 1999; Mohammed, 2000). The leadership principles are beneficial not only to Muslim leaders, but also to others who do not profess the faith because they transcend religious, racial, and other constraints. Understanding these principles can promote success and development in different spheres of human enterprise.

Empirical Studies on Leadership Styles in Saudi Arabian Organizations

Ali (1989) conducted a study to determine the leadership decision-making styles of various managers in the Gulf region. Although the sample included executives based in Qatar and Kuwait, a majority of the participants were Saudi nationals. The study determined that the Saudi Arabian managers mostly adopted a collegial decision style and would consult their peers regularly. Moreover, younger Saudi executives who held positions in joint ventures with foreign companies were more likely to adopt a participative style than older managers in locally owned enterprises. The younger managers held consultations with both their superiors and their followers.

At-Twaijri (1989) conducted a comparative study of the job attitudes and satisfaction levels of American and Saudi managers working for 50 joint ventures with U.S. and Saudi

Arabian interests. The study indicated that the Americans had substantially higher job satisfaction levels than their Saudi counterparts. Conversely, the Saudi executives indicated a lower satisfaction with their compensation. Additionally, the Saudi executives had a higher likelihood of stating that supervisors should assist employees with personal issues, employers should take a more active role in the welfare of their employees and families, and private-sector organizations should address social issues. The differences between the groups of American and Saudi managers reflected the influence of in-group, paternalistic, and collectivist cultural norms in the latter society.

Ali (1993) evaluated the decision-making styles of 117 Saudi Arabians, about 90% of which had completed tertiary education. The study also incorporated an analysis of their risk attitudes and individualism. The outcomes of the analysis revealed that these managers portrayed an authoritarian leadership style, which is referred to as *pseudo-participative decision-making*. The approach allowed input from followers, but the executives would not incorporate it in their decision-making. Moreover, the executives took an individualistic and a highly risk-averse approach in making decisions. The main reason attributed to their actions was an over-reliance on established customs and formal procedures and their inability to adopt innovative behavior.

Hunt and At-Twaijri (1996) conducted a study that evaluated the leadership values of 144 Saudi executives who held positions at various organizational levels. The outcome of the study determined that a majority of the managers adopted an individualistic approach. However, most of them prioritized the maintenance of personal relationships and friendships at work rather than the achievement of company objectives, which indicated a high level of in-group collectivism. The study sought to determine the correlation between the scores in a modified Value Survey

Module (VSM) and various demographic characteristics such as marital status, educational background, level of management position, age, and level of managerial experience. The researchers concluded that none these variables had an impact on the VSM subject scores.

Pillai, Scandura, and Williams (1999) conducted a study to analyze the transformational-transactional leadership of managers. The study utilized the MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire to evaluate individuals holding middle management positions in firms in Saudi Arabia, Jordan, Australia, Colombia, and India. The Saudi Arabia group consisted of 117 managers. The study sought to establish a complicated network of relationships among transformational leadership, the quality of exchanges between leaders and followers, the followers' opinions of organizational justice, and the job satisfaction of followers. The outcome of the study found no association between transformational leadership and job satisfaction for the Saudi Arabian group. The finding was attributed to the high-power distance culture in Saudi Arabia, which implies that employees are not accustomed to receiving and following strict directives from leaders. Consequently, the adoption of a leadership style that promotes engagement was likely to lead to low job satisfaction.

Robertson, Al-Khatib, Al-Habib, and Lanone (2001) conducted a study that sought to determine the leadership beliefs and values of Saudi, Kuwaiti, and Omani managers in different organizational levels. The study found considerable differences in the work attitudes of the three national groups. The Saudi executives portrayed the strongest work ethic and had the most independent sources of motivation. However, their responses pointed to great disparities between Saudi managers and their employees. Additionally, Saudi managers with graduate degrees demonstrated a stronger work ethic than those who had not attained that level of education. However, the Saudi group held traditional beliefs regarding the role of women at the

workplace, and were likely to support gender segregation and limitation of women to clerical roles. The conclusion of the study indicated a significant divergence between the Saudis' work-related beliefs and those held by Western societies in comparison to the Kuwaiti and Omani groups.

Assad (2002) conducted an analysis of numerous studies that focused on the assessment of workforce and organizational performance in Saudi Arabia. Most of these studies had been published previously in Arabic journals, and the analysis was broken down to focus on individuals and organizations. At the organizational level, the outcomes indicated that Saudi companies faced various challenges: excessive centralization of authority, bureaucracy and overlapping functions, inefficiency in communication, poorly-designed employee incentives, contrasting job tasks and education and training programs, inferior managerial competencies, and poor performance evaluation systems. Regarding individual behaviors, the study established that various problems were prevalent in Saudi organizations: low motivation, missed deadlines, excessive absenteeism, inefficient time management, nepotism and favoritism by managers, and prevalent personal relationships at the workplace.

Al Ghamdi (2005) performed a study to establish the level at which managers in Saudi Arabia utilized strategic management techniques comparable to what was described in Western management literature. The study utilized a survey in which managers from 72 of the country's 300 largest firms provided responses. Forty-five percent of the executives indicated that their firms did not utilize the tools and only 10% indicated that their firms used them regularly. A majority of those who indicated that their firms employed at least one of the techniques were based in joint ventures with Western interests.

Idris (2007) examined four Saudi Arabian organizations and a Saudi subsidiary of an American company to determine how their leaders utilized best practices to enhance organizational effectiveness. The study used a sample of 73 senior-level, 88 middle-level, and 35 first-line managers. The best practices under consideration were pay-for-performance, benchmarking, and offering regular feedback on performance. The outcomes of the study revealed that 79% of the executives believed it was prudent to dismiss employees who did not meet set performance standards. However, 65% of the managers had never fired an employee due to missed performance targets. Moreover, about 31% of the managers of the participants in the study indicated that providing accurate performance evaluation results would reduce employee motivation. About 66% of the managers believed that employee rewards had a positive impact on corporate culture, whereas 75% thought that employees preferred their compensation to be based on their performance. The study's conclusion indicated that even though the managers who participated in the study were aware of best practices, they did not adopt them in their organizations. The practice gaps were attributable to various cultural dimensions inherent in Saudi Arabia such as collectivism, paternalism, and evasiveness of behavior that may lead to conflicts.

Smith et al. (2007) conducted a study that required managerial responses to various events: the introduction of a new subordinate, conflicts within a department, and the issuance of new procedures. The study subjects included managers from Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and Lebanon. The Saudi group constituted of senior executives and middle managers. All the managers were supposed to indicate their level of reliance on various sources of guidance when making responses, including training and experience, formal procedures, embedded company norms, work colleagues, specialists, superiors, subordinates, and common moral beliefs. The

Saudi managers at both levels indicated a high dependence on formal rules, company norms, training and experience, superiors, and the opinions of their peers and subordinates. However, the Saudi middle managers were the least reliant on guidance from their superiors, which is mostly attributable to the high power distance in the Saudi Arabian culture. Additionally, the study established that the Saudi managers were influenced more by their traditional values than modern practices in comparison with participants from other Middle Eastern nations.

Noer, Leupold, and Valle (2007) conducted a comparative analysis of self-reported coaching behaviors of 80 Saudi managers and 71 American managers. The study utilized a CBI (Coaching Behavior Inventory) as a survey instrument to examine three kinds of managerial coaching behaviors: assessment of subordinates' work performance, challenging poor performance by employees, and offering support to subordinates. The outcome of the study aligned with the original hypothesis that the Saudi managers offered more consistent responses than their U.S. counterparts. The results were attributed to the homogenous Saudi culture, which contrasts starkly with the diversity portrayed in American culture. Moreover, the Saudi managers offered more support to other employees than the American managers. The U.S. executives indicated that they challenged poor subordinate performance more than their Saudi peers. These observations are attributable to the a deeply rooted desire for collectivism in the Saudi Arabian culture (Hofstede, 2011), which means that the managers avoid confrontation and behavior that may lead to the loss of support among their followers.

Noer (2008) conducted another study using a similar sample as the previous study (Noer et al., 2007) to determine the learning tactics that they utilized when they faced challenges at work. The study utilized the Learning Tactics Inventory (LTI), which includes four subscales: taking on a task and learning from the experience, reflection and engagement in cognitive

rehearsal, management of emotions, and contacting other organizational members to seek advice and support. The study established that American managers had a greater chance of using learning tactics than their Saudi counterparts. The observations were attributed to the different cultural aspects of both countries. American culture, which is highly individualistic, influenced the managers to take action, whereas the collectivist Saudi culture led its managers to prefer collaboration and collective approaches in solving workplace problems.

National Culture and Curriculum Development

According to Hofstede (1980), national culture is the common programming of the mind that differentiates the members of one society from another. Alalshaikh (2015) argued that the cultural environment of a group of people has an impact on their thoughts, feelings, and working styles. Since culture affects how people interact, it will also have an impact on how they learn. Education is an activity that is highly influenced by cultural factors such as presentation style, interactions between students and instructors, social presence, and the content of the curriculum. Education in Saudi Arabia is strongly affected by cultural and religious traditions, such as the separation of people by gender. Therefore, it is important to consider its people's cultural perspective when designing management or leadership curriculum to ensure that it is effective in creating capable graduates.

Two types of cultures influence an employee: societal culture and organizational culture. According to Schein (2004), organizational culture has a lengthy and inconsistent history. Hofstede et al. (2005) made distinctions between national and organizational cultures, as national culture refers to cultures that are associated with specific countries, whereas organizational culture refers to the culture that make organizations distinct from each other. The current study was concerned about Saudi Arabia and its people; thus, it was prudent to review the related

literature information about its national culture, which is perceived as among the most conservative and religious societies in the world (Shafee, 2016).

Hofstede (1994) stated that the culture in which people grow up might lead to the development of similar behavior, as they have the same experiences. The mindsets that people form as children tend to persist throughout their lifetimes. People's beliefs and behavior affect the emergence of and opposition to new ideas. Culture affects creativity in an organization due to people sharing the same mental programming, which exists in three levels: human nature, culture, and personality. The human nature level is the most basic and may include factors such as laughing, crying, and eating. Human nature refers to the biologically inherited aspects of culture, which may lead to the sharing of the ways in which people eat, laugh, or express feelings. Additionally, personality represents the peak of mental programming, which differentiates people's behavior from one another in the same culture. Personality is formed by the combination of learned and inherited behavior.

Limited studies have focused on culture in the education system. Stewart (2012) evaluated how adaptive interfaces can satisfy cultural diversity in the educational system. The study gave rise to the Cultural Artifacts in Education framework based on Hofstede's indexes. Stewart (2012) stated that Hofstede's cultural dimensions influence the formulation of educational situations, the education process, the interaction between a lecturer and learners, the style of teaching, and the content. The following sections will evaluate how these cultural dimensions should be considered in the development of curriculum.

Power distance. Power distance refers to the level to which the less powerful organizational members and societal institutions such as family accept and expect the unequal distribution of power (Hofstede, 2011). The cultural dimension focuses on the value that a

society attaches to hierarchical relationships and respect for those in authority. In the education setting, the relationship between instructors and students in a high power distance culture is hardly close or personal. Conversely, in a low power distance culture, teachers interact freely with students, teachers trust students with important assignments, and the environment supports equality (Stewart, 2012).

Uncertainty avoidance. Uncertainty avoidance refers to the level to which people in a certain culture feel threatened by unknown or ambiguous circumstances (Hofstede, 2011). The culture dimension measures people's level of acceptance of ambiguity in the future. In an education setting, this dimension is related to the behavior of students toward the development of their curriculum. According to Hofstede et al. (2005), in a high uncertainty avoidance culture, students have a high desire to know about the future of their studies; thus, they prefer simpler designs with concise descriptions and little data. Conversely, a low uncertainty avoidance culture means that students have accepted the unknown and will tolerate more complicated designs (Stewart, 2012).

Femininity versus masculinity. According to Hofstede et al. (2005), this cultural dimension relates to the level of distinctiveness in gender roles. Therefore, a masculine society has clearly distinct gender roles in which men are assertive, motivated by material success, and tough, and women are supposed to be tender, modest, and focused on the quality of life. Alternatively, in a feminine society, men and women collaborate and exchange information easily (Stewart, 2012).

Individualism and collectivism. As described by Hofstede (1994), the cultural dimension refers to the level at which individuals prefer to act individually or members of a group. In an educational setting, it can offer an explanation of a student's preference to become

a member of a student group rather than just learn in a traditional environment in which one just interacts with the instructor (Stewart, 2012).

       The effect of Saudi culture on leadership. Managers in Saudi Arabia do not exist in isolation in terms of social and economic factors and are highly influenced by universal cultural norms, values, and exceptions. According to Moran, Abramson, and Moran (2014), Saudi culture is based on Islamic guidelines and traditions; thus, Islam is the main factor that influences the country's culture. Saudi Arabia is among the societies with a high power distance index (Khan & Varshney, 2013), which implies that individuals in the country have a high regard for hierarchical systems in which everyone recognizes their position. Such a hierarchical system features clear inequalities, centralization, clear instructions for followers, and benevolent autocracy. Moreover, people demonstrate their respect for individuals who hold high positions in organizations. Apart from high-ranking positions, people in Saudi Arabia have respect for older people as well (Shafee & Rhodes, 2016). These characteristics that are ingrained in the mentality of people in the country may have an adverse effect on organizational effectiveness, as people are not allowed to question leaders' decision, inhibiting their creativity; thus, they cannot develop and adopt new ideas in the completion of their tasks (Shafee, 2016). Additionally, the country has a collectivist culture (Khan & Varshney, 2013); thus, people prioritize group objectives and tasks. Also, Saudi Arabia is a high uncertainty avoidance culture (Khan & Varshney, 2013); thus, people fear change and the unknown, which hinders their creativity (Shafee, 2016; Hofstede, 2011). However, technological advancements provide an opportunity for more interaction between leaders and followers, which may have an impact on leadership styles and workplace creativity.

Leadership Can Be Learned

Understanding leadership knowledge and knowing what makes an individual a better practicing leader than another is not really useful in the enhancement of organizational performance unless one can learn from this understanding and change one's behavior appropriately. Adair (1989) was among the first to demonstrate that it was possible to train leaders. He suggested that leadership is a transferable skill rather than an exclusively inborn capability. However, leadership potential must be present in an individual such that the training sessions only develop it further. Capowski (1994) argued that leaders are made and not born. Therefore, the development of leaders requires hard work and effort. The argument is based on the notion that every person has the potential to lead; thus, the development of leadership qualities depends on how a person is developed and cultivated. However, critics claim that more leaders have been developed by circumstances, accident, will, or perseverance than by learning skills in leadership courses.

According to Kovoor-Misra and Olk (2015), learning to be a leader is a personal process that depends on an individual's specific background. It entails the ability to develop a compelling vision and influence people to support that vision. However, a leader should have *soft* people skills, which one can learn. Moreover, people need to learn in a dynamic environment to ensure that when they become leaders that they can empower others, support change, and challenge the existing status quo. Leadership skills should be refined and practiced, which necessitates a combination of self-knowledge and feedback to enhance effective learning. According to Bennis (2003), a person starts the process of becoming a leader when he/she decides to become one. The main determinant of becoming a leader is learning, and each mistake is a learning opportunity.

Summary

The chapter evaluated a variety of literature, demonstrating that Avolio and Bass's (2004) full leadership model is a significant construct in studying leadership styles. Additionally, it focused on the current version of the MLQ (5x-short), which was found to generate valid measures of organizational leadership behaviors. Furthermore, the aforementioned theories of leadership have highlighted how defining leadership can be a complex matter, and showed how common those theories and definitions can overlap. Over the past decade, the development of leadership theories was a constant, and testing those emerging theories was done in various contexts. Accordingly, leadership theories will continue to emerge because of changing organizational and global environments.

Various empirical studies have demonstrated how Saudi Arabian executives shunned transformational leadership in favor of authoritarian management practices, such as a disregard for formal and informal rules and discriminatory treatment of followers due to nepotism and tribalism (Ali, 1993). However, much of the related literature was not current research due to the scarcity of current literature examining Saudi leadership styles. In addition, different studies have suggested the incompatibility of the country's cultural values with the transformational leadership model. Conversely, the examined literature also suggested that Saudi leaders demonstrated leadership behaviors that were consistent with positive elements of transactional leadership, active management by exception, and contingent rewards.

It is noteworthy that most of the studies suggested that the majority of the examined workplaces in Saudi Arabia did not support the emergence or cultivation of transformational leadership behaviors. The educational system in the country exemplifies different values that do not promote the adoption of transformational leadership. Moreover, universities in the country

do not adequately prepare students to have the skills and knowledge that they require to become effective transformational leaders. The Saudi government has placed enormous responsibility on the educational system to promote better leadership practices related to business acumen, self-reliance, and technology to enhance the success of the current transition efforts (Saudi Vision 2030, n.d.).

Understanding the density of leadership and its influence on both employee performance and organizational outcomes is essential for any university. Thus, more research is needed to explore leadership behaviors and culture in Saudi Arabian universities in order to identify the most favorable leadership styles that maximize overall organizational outcomes for both academic and professional staff.

Chapter 3: Methodology

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between the educational background of Saudi Arabian university leaders and their leadership styles. The measurement of leadership styles relied on Avolio and Bass's (2004) full range leadership theory, which includes transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership styles. Educational background was measured by the geographical and cultural contexts in which the university leaders pursued their highest level of post-secondary education. The participants were university leaders who have held or currently occupy positions such as president, vice president, deputy president, dean, department head, faculty head, and administrative chief. Participants were asked to complete the self-rating MLQ (5x-short) alongside a demographic questionnaire.

The following chapter presents the study's methodology, including the design and a justification for its suitability. Additionally, it includes a discussion of the study's population, data collection, sampling, data analysis, and internal and external validity. A key section discusses the protection of human rights and confidentiality, as the study involved human subjects. The chapter includes a summary of all the key points of the study's methodology.

Restatement of Research Question and Hypotheses

The MLQ was utilized to assess the participants' leadership styles. The MLQ measures nine aspects of leadership, which are derived from Bernard Bass' (1985) full range leadership model (Avolio and Bass, 1991). The nine leadership factors are: idealized influence attributes, idealized influence behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and management by exception-active, management by exception-passive, contingent reward, and laissez faire leadership. These factors help to differentiate between effective and ineffective leaders at all levels of an organization.

Furthermore, through calculating the statistical relationship between variables, the study sought to establish whether a relationship exists between the location of Saudi Arabian university leaders' post-secondary education (the independent variable) and the composite factors scores of the subscales (the dependant variable) of the full range leadership model demonstrated by the MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

This study sought to answer the following research question, tested by hypotheses that were derived from the research question:

- RQ1: Are there differences in the 9 subscales scores on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education?

  - $H1_0$: There are no significant differences in any of the 9 subscales scores on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

    - Idealized influence (attributes)

    - Idealized influence (behavior)

    - Inspirational motivation

    - Intellectual stimulation

    - Individualized consideration

    - Contingent reward

    - Management-by-exception (active)

    - Management-by-exception (passive)

    - Laissez-faire

o   H1$_A$: There are significant differences in at least 1 of the 9 subscales scores on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

Research Methodology

In this study, a quantitative research method was chosen to evaluate the differences in leadership styles of university leaders in Saudi Arabia using the MLQ (5x-short) scores based on their educational background. According to Creswell (2014), quantitative research is a suitable method in the exploration of the differences or associations between variables. A quantitative study incorporates statistics, hypotheses, and numbers, which it utilizes to determine the associations or differences among variables (Creswell, 2014). This study sought to determine the difference in leadership styles of university leaders based on the location where they attained their post-secondary education. Therefore, a qualitative approach would not have been appropriate, as the variables used in the study were known and there was no need to conduct a comprehensive evaluation of the life experiences of the participants.

The quantitative paradigm sufficed in this case, as the purpose of the study was to determine answers to unambiguous research problems, address the concurrent research questions, and test the hypotheses in a statistical manner (Creswell, 2014). Consequently, a qualitative methodology was inappropriate because the study employed specific variables and used measurable data in testing the different hypotheses. The choice of the quantitative approach in the study was consistent with the application of the MLQ (5x-short) to determine the impact of the location where the leaders obtained their post-secondary education on their leadership styles.

Creswell (2014) identified six criteria for quantitative studies.

1. The research problem has to be descriptive.

2. The literature must have a strong justification for the research problem.

3. The variables must be measurable.

4. Additionally, a study must use existing instruments in the analysis and interpretation of data through statistical analysis.

5. Subsequently, the reporting and

6. Evaluation of the data must utilize fixed and standard procedures to ensure that the study's outcomes are objective.

The research study satisfied all the six attributes; thus, it was quantitative in nature.

Creswell (2014) stated that a quantitative study is more desirable than a qualitative one as it enables a research study to survey a larger population. Also, a cross-sectional research design was suitable as it involves the collection of data at a particular point in time from the participants of a study who are at different stages and ages of their personal and professional growth (Rindfleisch, Malter, Ganesen, & Moorman, 2008). Rindfleisch et al. (2008) noted that cross-sectional research is an alternative to longitudinal research. The main advantage of the cross-sectional approach is the absence of sample attrition, as a researcher collects data at one particular time. Moreover, it is a less expensive way of collecting data when compared to the longitudinal approach, which requires a researcher to relocate the original participants and conduct the survey again.

The research study used a descriptive approach to identify the differences in the university leaders' leadership styles based on the background setting in which they obtained their post-secondary education. Although descriptive studies are often simple to formulate and carry

out, their outcomes lead to crucial information and data that can shape policymaking, direct research in the future, and explain the differences in a survey group (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 2006).

This quantitative and cross-sectional investigation obtained statistical findings. The dependent variable was the organizational leadership and the independent variable was the location of the educational institution. The measurement of the dependent variable was the scores of the nine-factor subscales embodied within the self-ratings of the MLQ (5x-short). The study involved the completion of two sets of instruments: an informed consent form and two survey instruments, which were completed online (See Appendix B). The two survey instruments were the MLQ (5x-short) and the educational demographic questionnaire (See Appendices C and D).

Population

The study focused on Saudi national leaders who hold or held senior positions in any Saudi Arabian university and higher education institutes, such as president, dean, department head, administrative chief, and faculty head. Therefore, the population of the research inquiry was only senior managers or leaders in different universities in the country. In addition, participants had to meet the following criteria:

- Saudi National.
- Work or have worked in a Saudi University.
- Hold a post-secondary degree.

Sampling

Cooper and Schindler (2003) stated that a sample design is valid if it represents the entire population's characteristics that are under evaluation in an accurate way. The study used a non-probabilistic, chain-referral sample acquired through the snowballing sampling method (Creswell,

2012), which is a subset of purposive sampling. The researcher used his personal network and began with a convenience sample of initial participants. These initial participants operated as a starting point, through which the first wave of participants are recruited. Wave one participants in turn recruit wave two participants; and the sample consequently expands wave by wave like a snowball growing in size as it spins down a hill (Goodman, 2011). It is an effective means to investigate a sample population, which does not require the use of sophisticated software. The sample size of 100 participants was the target from current and former university leaders in Saudi Arabian institutions to complete the survey questionnaires online.

Instrumentation

According to Cooper and Schindler (2003), a study must utilize suitable measurement scales to ensure that its data will be used to test statistical hypotheses. In the study, measurements concerning leadership behavior and styles and educational backgrounds were utilized to obtain raw data. The research study utilized a set of two questionnaires in the collection of the data to enhance the possibility of getting a clearer picture of the relationship between the variables in question.

The MLQ (5x-short) utilizes a set of 45 questions, 36 of which are to test the level of transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership actions adopted by leaders, which provides a raw scores of their leadership styles. The remaining 9 questions measure the resulting outcomes of the leadership styles. The MLQ (5x-short) measures transformational leadership using 20 questions that examine idealized influence (attributed), idealized influence (behavioral), intellectual simulation, individual consideration, and inspirational motivation. Additionally, it utilizes eight questions to evaluate management-by-exception (active) and contingent reward as elements of transactional leadership. Finally, the questionnaire utilizes

eight questions to examine the management-by-exception (passive) and laissez faire as components of passive-avoidant leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Every leadership measurement question in the MLQ (5x-short) uses a 5-point Likert scale, which includes the following elements: *not at all* (0), *once in a while* (1), *sometimes* (2), *fairly often* (3), and *frequently, if not always* (4). The rating scale is the basis for the high-level construct of the leadership style, which is measured by adding up the scores associated with the different leadership behaviors.

Data Collection

Data were collected for this study via questionnaires in the form of a self-administered survey of participants' leadership behaviors, and educational backgrounds. The questionnaire sought to obtain information regarding the university leaders' educational backgrounds. A consent form and the survey questionnaires were provided to the study's participants and completed online. To protect the privacy of the research participants, their names and identifying information are not published herein. Moreover, the subjects of the study who wanted like to receive a summary of the study's outcomes were asked to indicate their interest.

The research included various items. First, the informed consent form addressed the study's participants by identifying the researcher, providing a description of the study, and explaining that the study would involve voluntary participation, no compensation for participants, and no punishment for lack of participation. Additionally, the participants were required to agree with the consent form and submit it in order to proceed to the study instruments. The other two items are the demographic information questionnaire (See Appendix D) and the MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire (See Appendix C).

A summary of the factors of transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant

leadership styles is presented in Table 2. It has different criteria for every subscale and describes

how the different factors measure the leadership styles. In addition, the three outcomes are extra

effort, satisfaction, and effectiveness of a leader.

Table 2

Factor Subscales of the MLQ

Category	Subscale	Number of items	Range of subscale scores
Transformational leadership	Idealized influence attributed	4	0-20
	Idealized influence behaviors	4	0-20
	Inspirational motivation	4	0-20
	Intellectual stimulation	4	0-20
	Individualized consideration	4	0-20
Transactional Leadership	Contingent reward	4	0-20
	Management-by-exception active	4	0-20
Passive-avoidant Leadership	Management-by-exception (passive)	4	0-20
	Laissez faire	4	0-20
Resulting Outcomes	Extra effort	3	0-15
	Effectiveness	4	0-10
	Satisfaction	2	0-10

Note. Adapted from *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire: Third Edition Manual and Sampler Set* (p. 118-119), by B. J. Avolio and B. M. Bass, 2004, Menlo Park, CA: Mind Garden, Inc. Copyright year by the authors.

The leader version of the MLQ (5x-short) is a self-reporting questionnaire with a Likert-

type scale. The survey instrument contains 45 items or questions in which 36 items describe

specific organizational leadership behaviors and require a rater to select the frequency with

which he/she performs each behavior. The other 9 items measure the outcomes of leadership:

satisfaction, exertion of extra effort, and the effectiveness of a leader (Moriano et al., 2014). In

the current study, participants' results for the three outcomes will be disregarded. As a 360

approach was not adapted where the researcher could compare those results against the similar

results from other raters, such as the rater's superiors or followers.

The researcher constructed the demographic information questionnaire for the purpose of the present study (See Appendix D). It required the participants to indicate their citizenship, employment status, highest level of education, geographic location, gender, age, length of employment, and leadership title. By answering the questions, the subjects provided conformation that they satisfied the eligibility criteria for participation. Moreover, an additional question sought to establish the geographic location of the education institutions in which the subjects completed their highest level of education. The answers were useful in identifying and differentiating the leaders that were educated in the country or in western countries. Survey instruments in which the subjects indicate the *Other* option in responding to the location were not included in the evaluation. The other responses were used to identify and divide the sample into two groups for the Saudi-educated and Western-educated university leaders, enabling the researcher to operationalize the independent variable. Information such as age, gender, and managerial titles was used to construct a demographic profile of the evaluated sample.

Data Analysis

According to Weiss (2015), the selection of suitable inferential statistics entails understanding the kind of relationships that a study will address. This study focused on establishing the association between the educational background of Saudi university leaders and their leadership styles by evaluating their correlation. The study used inferential statistical procedures to establish the strength of the relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variables. The study's hypotheses was tested through an analysis of variance (ANOVA). The response scale was coded as indicated: *not at all* (0), *once in a while* (1), *sometimes* (2), *fairly often* (3), and *frequently, if not always* (4).

The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics such as frequencies, standard deviations, and means. Statistical analysis was conducted using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Creswell (2012) stated that it is important to use such a methodology to ascertain the scores' distribution. The ANOVA analysis tests an independent variable for mean differences in a dependent variable. It includes various assumptions: the observations with every sample are independent of each other, a normal distribution, and the population from which the samples are selected has equal variance (Creswell, 2012).

Validity

The validity and reliability of descriptive research studies is still critical even if they do not have treatment or control groups. The validity of research has both internal and external components. First, external validity "refers to the validity of the cause-and-effect relationship being generalizable to other persons, settings, treatment variables, and measures" (Creswell, 2012, p. 303). According to Gall et al. (2006), there are three kinds of external validity: population, ecological, and operational.

Population external validity identifies other populations to which a study's findings can be generalized; thus, it addresses the selection of subjects of a study (Gall et al., 2006). The study used volunteers who may have different characteristics from the general population; thus, it is difficult to determine how non-volunteers would have responded to the survey (Ary, Jacobs, & Razavieh, 2002). Ecological external validity is associated with the generalizability of findings in other situations (Gall et al., 2006). In this case, threats to the ecological external validity such as pre-testing, and attitudes elaborated during the study may not present problems. Operational external validity is concerned with the definitions in a study. The use of different operational definitions will likely change the outcome of a study (Creswell, 2012).

Internal validity relates to the "validity of inferences drawn about the cause and effect relationship between the independent and dependent variables" (Creswell, 2012, p. 303). The threats associated with internal validity are mostly concerned with history, maturation, regression selection, mortality, instrumentation, and testing (Creswell, 2012). Due to the anticipated short timeline of the study, a history, maturation, and selection threat among participants was not expected to be a problem. Also, the participants were adults, so it was not likely they would change over the anticipated short timeline of the study. Moreover, mortality: threats might have posed a threat to the study, since some participants might not have completed the questionnaires (Creswell, 2012). Additionally, since the study sought to obtain responses of a group of Saudi Arabian university leaders using the subscales of the MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire, the instrumentation threat was minimized since the instrument has been established to be valid and reliable

Informed Consent, Confidentiality, and IRB Plans

Informed consent and confidentiality involved a two-stage process. First, the researcher offered an explanation of the study to prospective participants, including a description of the risks of involvement in the study. For the second step, confidentiality, participants' level of privacy was addressed, as well as a description of the various techniques that were employed to promote it. The study incorporated the ethical requirements of research because of the inclusion of human subjects. It included an informed consent form, which all participants were required to sign and submit with the completed questionnaires. Individuals who did not submit it with the other survey instruments were not prompted to continue and were not included in the sample.

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) committee reviewed and validated all behavioral research dealing with human subjects for this study. The researcher ensured compliance with all

the policies and regulations concerning human subjects. Thus, the researcher filed an IRB application and once approved, a copy of the approval letter was attached in the appendices (see Appendix F).

Summary

Chapter 3 provided a comprehensive description of the methodology to be used in carrying out the study. The data obtained from the MLQ (5x-short) and the demographic information questionnaires were used to evaluate the differences between the leadership styles adopted by Saudi university leaders based on the location of their highest level of post-secondary education.

Chapter 4: Analysis of Data and Results

The purpose of this quantitative study was to compare the differences between transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership outcomes of Saudi Arabian university leaders educated in Saudi Arabia and of those educated in institutions located in Western countries. Survey data were utilized from 48 university leaders in Saudi Arabia to complete the study.

Table 3 displays the frequency counts for the demographic variables in the study. Table 4 provides the descriptive statistics for the 9 subscale scores from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5x short form (MLQ). Tables 3 and 4 display the results of the one-way ANOVA comparisons of the 9 MLQ (5x-short) subscale scores based on country of post-secondary education to answer the research question. As additional findings, Tables 5-9 display the nonparametric Spearman correlations for each of the 9 MLQ (5x-short) subscale scores with highest education completed, gender, age range, highest education in Saudi Arabia, and highest professional title, respectively.

Description of the Sample

Table 3 provides the frequency counts for the demographic variables in the study. Most participants were male (70.8%) and their ages ranged from 22-34 (14.6%) to 65-74 (2.1%), with a median age of 49.50 years. All participants completed their K-12 education in Saudi Arabia (100.0%) and most held doctorate degrees (85.4%) as their highest education completed. Location of highest education varied; most were from Saudi Arabia (25.0%), United States/Canada (45.8%), or the United Kingdom (22.9%). Highest professional title ranged from Administrative Chief (16.7%) to President or Deputy President (12.5%) with a median professional title of Vice Dean.

Table 3

Frequency Counts for Selected Variables (N = 48)

Variable	Category	*n*	%
Gender			
	Male	34	70.8
	Female	14	29.2
Age Range [a]			
	22-34	7	14.6
	35-44	13	27.1
	45-54	10	20.8
	55-64	17	35.4
	65-74	1	2.1
K-12 Education-Saudi Arabia			
	Yes	48	100.0
Highest Education Completed			
	Bachelors Degree	2	4.2
	Masters Degree	5	10.4
	Doctorate	41	85.4
Location of Highest Education			
	Saudi Arabia	12	25.0
	United States/Canada	22	45.8
	United Kingdom	11	22.9
	Other	3	6.3
Highest Professional Title [b]			
	Administrative Chief	8	16.7
	Faculty Head	1	2.1
	Department Head	10	20.8
	Vice Dean	23	47.9
	President, Vice President or Deputy President	6	12.5

[a] *Mdn* = 49.50 years
[b] *Mdn* = Vice Dean

Table 4 displays the descriptive statistics for the 9 MLQ (5x-short) subscale and scale scores. These ratings based on a five-point metric: 0 = *Not at all* to 4 = *Frequently, if not always*. The highest mean scores were for contingent reward (*M* = 3.36, *SD* = 0.53) and inspirational motivation (*M* = 3.32, *SD* = 0.59). The lowest means were for laissez-faire subscale (*M* = 0.69, *SD* = 0.58) and for the score of passive/avoidant leadership scale (*M* = 0.82, *SD* = 0.47).

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for the MLQ (5x-short) Subscale and Composite Scale Scores (N = 48)

Score	M	SD	Low	High
Idealized Influence (Attributed)	3.20	0.65	1.00	4.00
Idealized Influence (Behavior)	3.29	0.61	1.00	4.00
Inspirational Motivation	3.32	0.59	1.00	4.00
Intellectual Stimulation	3.13	0.57	0.75	4.00
Individual Consideration	3.10	0.68	1.00	4.00
Contingent Reward	3.36	0.53	1.50	4.00
Management-by-Exception (Active)	2.46	0.85	0.50	3.75
Management-by-Exception (Passive)	0.96	0.62	0.00	2.75
Laissez-faire	0.69	0.58	0.00	2.25
Transformational Leadership	3.21	0.52	0.95	3.85
Transactional Leadership	2.91	0.53	1.25	3.88
Passive-Avoidant Leadership	0.82	0.47	0.00	2.00

Note. Ratings based on a five-point metric: 0 = *Not at all* to 4 = *Frequently, if not always*.

Answering the Research Question

The research question asked, "Are there differences in the 9 subscales and scale scores on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education?" The related null hypothesis predicted H_0: "There are no significant differences in any of the 9 subscales scores on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education."

To answer the research question, Table 5 provides the results of the one-way ANOVA comparison of the MLQ (5x-short) subscale and scale scores based on country of post-secondary education. Inspection of the table found no significant differences in any of the 9 subscale or scale scores at the $p < .05$ level; the difference closest to being significant was for management-by-exception (active; $p = .28$).

Table 5

Comparison of MLQ (5x-short) Subscales and Composite Scale Scores Based on Country of

Highest Education: One-way ANOVA (N = 48)

Subscale & Scale	Country	*n*	*M*	*SD*	η	*p*
Idealized Influence (Attributed)					.03	.99
	Saudi Arabia	12	3.21	0.90		
	United States/Canada	22	3.18	0.59		
	United Kingdom	11	3.20	0.42		
	Other	3	3.25	0.87		
Idealized Influence (Behavior)					.13	.86
	Saudi Arabia	12	3.25	0.81		
	United States/Canada	22	3.36	0.59		
	United Kingdom	11	3.25	0.43		
	Other	3	3.08	0.52		
Inspirational Motivation					.08	.97
	Saudi Arabia	12	3.27	0.82		
	United States/Canada	22	3.36	0.58		
	United Kingdom	11	3.30	0.44		
	Other	3	3.25	0.25		
Intellectual Stimulation					.14	.84
	Saudi Arabia	12	3.02	0.83		
	United States/Canada	22	3.20	0.52		
	United Kingdom	11	3.09	0.36		
	Other	3	3.17	0.38		
Individual Consideration					.18	.69
	Saudi Arabia	12	3.15	0.88		
	United States/Canada	22	3.09	0.68		
	United Kingdom	11	3.20	0.37		
	Other	3	2.67	0.88		
Contingent Reward					.05	.99
	Saudi Arabia	12	3.33	0.72		
	United States/Canada	22	3.35	0.52		
	United Kingdom	11	3.41	0.41		
	Other	3	3.33	0.38		

(continued)

Subscale & Scale	Country	*n*	*M*	*SD*	η	*p*
Management-by Exception (Active)					.29	.28
	Saudi Arabia	12	2.38	0.81		
	United States/Canada	22	2.61	0.92		
	United Kingdom	11	2.11	0.77		
	Other	3	3.00	0.25		
Management-by Exception (Passive)					.28	.30
	Saudi Arabia	12	0.85	0.58		
	United States/Canada	22	0.86	0.68		
	United Kingdom	11	1.27	0.53		
	Other	3	0.92	0.29		
Laissez-faire					.26	.36
	Saudi Arabia	12	0.79	0.50		
	United States/Canada	22	0.68	0.58		
	United Kingdom	11	0.48	0.51		
	Other	3	1.08	1.04		
Transformational Leadership					.08	.96
	Saudi Arabia	12	3.18	0.75		
	United States/Canada	22	3.24	0.49		
	United Kingdom	11	3.21	0.26		
	Other	3	3.08	0.55		
Transactional Leadership					.21	.56
	Saudi Arabia	12	2.85	0.66		
	United States/Canada	22	2.98	0.53		
	United Kingdom	11	2.76	0.41		
	Other	3	3.17	0.19		
Passive-Avoidant Leadership					.13	.86
	Saudi Arabia	12	0.82	0.41		
	United States/Canada	22	0.77	0.54		
	United Kingdom	11	0.88	0.39		
	Other	3	1.00	0.66		

Note. Ratings based on a five-point metric: 0 = *Not at all* to 4 = *Frequently, if not always*.

In addition, Table 6 displays the results of the one-way ANOVA comparisons of the 9 MLQ (5x-short) subscale and scale scores based on the location of their highest post-secondary education (Saudi Arabia versus other location). Inspection of the table found no significant differences in any of the 9 subscale and scale scores at the $p < .05$ level, with the difference

closest to being significant for intellectual stimulation ($p = .45$). This combination of findings

(Tables 5 and 6) provided no support to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 6

Comparison of MLQ (5x-short) Subscale and Composite Scale Scores Based on Highest

Education in Saudi Arabia: One-way ANOVA (N = 48)

Subscale & Scale	Country	n	M	SD	η	p
Idealized Influence (Attributed)					.01	.95
	Other Country	36	3.19	0.55		
	Saudi Arabia	12	3.21	0.90		
Idealized Influence (Behavior)					.04	.79
	Other Country	36	3.31	0.53		
	Saudi Arabia	12	3.25	0.81		
Inspirational Motivation					.05	.76
	Other Country	36	3.33	0.51		
	Saudi Arabia	12	3.27	0.82		
Intellectual Stimulation					.11	.45
	Other Country	36	3.17	0.46		
	Saudi Arabia	12	3.02	0.83		
Individual Consideration					.04	.81
	Other Country	36	3.09	0.61		
	Saudi Arabia	12	3.15	0.88		
Contingent Reward					.03	.85
	Other Country	36	3.37	0.46		
	Saudi Arabia	12	3.33	0.72		
Management-by Exception (Active)					.06	.68
	Other Country	36	2.49	0.87		
	Saudi Arabia	12	2.38	0.81		
Management-by Exception (Passive)					.10	.50
	Other Country	36	0.99	0.63		
	Saudi Arabia	12	0.85	0.58		
Laissez-faire					.11	.48
	Other Country	36	0.65	0.60		
	Saudi Arabia	12	0.79	0.50		

(continued)

Subscale & Scale	Country	*n*	*M*	*SD*	η	*p*
Transformational Leadership					.03	.83
	Other Country	36	3.22	0.43		
	Saudi Arabia	12	3.18	0.75		
Transactional Leadership					.06	.67
	Other Country	36	2.93	0.49		
	Saudi Arabia	12	2.85	0.66		
Passive-Avoidant Leadership					.00	.99
	Other Country	36	0.82	0.50		
	Saudi Arabia	12	0.82	0.41		

Note. Ratings based on a five-point metric: 0 = *Not at all* to 4 = *Frequently, if not always*.

Additional Findings

As additional findings, Table 7 provides the Spearman correlations for the 9 MLQ (5x-short) subscale and scale scores with the highest level of education completed. Highest education completed was not significantly correlated with any of the 9 subscale scores.

Table 7

Spearman Correlations for MLQ (5x-short) Subscale and Composite Scale Scores with Highest Education Completed (N = 48)

Variable	Highest Education Completed
Idealized Influence (Attributed)	.07
Idealized Influence (Behavior)	-.05
Inspirational Motivation	-.06
Intellectual Stimulation	.12
Individual Consideration	.02
Contingent Reward	-.07
Management-by-Exception (Active)	-.12
Management-by-Exception (Passive)	.01
Laissez-faire	-.08

Transformational Leadership	-.09
Transactional Leadership	-.16
Passive-Avoidant Leadership	-.04

* $p < .05$.

Table 8 displays the Spearman correlations for the 9 MLQ (5x-short) subscale and scale

scores with gender. Gender was significantly related to intellectual stimulation. Specifically,

being female was associated with higher intellectual stimulation scores ($r_s = .30, p = .04$).

Table 8

Spearman Correlations for MLQ (5x-short) Subscale and Composite Scale Scores with Gender

(N = 48)

Variable	Gender [a]
Idealized Influence (Attributed)	-.22
Idealized Influence (Behavior)	-.13
Inspirational Motivation	.02
Intellectual Stimulation	.30*
Individual Consideration	.20
Contingent Reward	.10
Management-by-Exception (Active)	.02
Management-by-Exception (Passive)	-.09
Laissez-faire	.05
Transformational Leadership	.02
Transactional Leadership	.02
Passive-Avoidant Leadership	.02

* $p < .05$.
a.   Coding: 1 = *Male* 2 = *Female*

Table 9 displays the Spearman correlations for the 9 MLQ (5x-short) subscale and scale

scores with age range. Older respondents had higher individual consideration scores ($r_s = .35, p$

$= .01$). Table 10 provides the Spearman correlations for the 9 MLQ (5x-short) subscale scores

with whether their highest education was completed in Saudi Arabia. Highest education

completed in Saudi Arabia was not significantly correlated with any of the subscale scores.

Table 11 displays the Spearman correlations for the 9 MLQ (5x-short) subscale scores with

highest professional title. Highest title had a significant correlation with inspirational

motivation; specifically, higher professional titles were associated with higher inspirational

motivation scores (r_s = .36, p = .01).

Table 9

Spearman Correlations for MLQ (5x-short) Subscale and Composite Scale Scores with Age

Range (N = 48)

Variable	Age Range	
Idealized Influence (Attributed)	.17	
Idealized Influence (Behavior)	.26	
Inspirational Motivation	.16	
Intellectual Stimulation	.01	
Individual Consideration	.35	**
Contingent Reward	.22	
Management-by-Exception (Active)	-.07	
Management-by-Exception (Passive)	.02	
Laissez-faire	.03	
Transformational Leadership	.25	
Transactional Leadership	.01	
Passive-Avoidant Leadership	.03	

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

Table 10

Spearman Correlations for MLQ (5x-short) Subscale and Composite Scale Scores with Highest

Education in Saudi Arabia (N = 48)

Variable	Highest Education in Saudi Arabia [a]
Idealized Influence (Attributed)	.12
Idealized Influence (Behavior)	.04
Inspirational Motivation	.04
Intellectual Stimulation	-.02
Individual Consideration	.09
Contingent Reward	.06
Management-by-Exception (Active)	-

	.10
	-
Management-by-Exception (Passive)	.08
Laissez-faire	.14
Transformational Leadership	.10
Transactional Leadership	.01
Passive-Avoidant Leadership	.05

* p < .05.

[a] Coding: 0 = *No* 1 = *Yes*

Table 11

Spearman Correlations for MLQ (5x-short) Subscale and Composite Scale Scores with Highest

Professional Title (N = 48)

Variable	Highest Professional Title	
Idealized Influence (Attributed)	.23	
Idealized Influence (Behavior)	.20	
Inspirational Motivation	.36	**
Intellectual Stimulation	.18	
Individual Consideration	.07	
Contingent Reward	.03	
Management-by-Exception (Active)	.01	
Management-by-Exception (Passive)	.08	
Laissez-faire	-.14	
Transformational Leadership	.26	
Transactional Leadership	.02	
Passive-Avoidant Leadership	-.07	

* p < .05.

Conclusion

In summary, this study utilized survey responses from 48 university leaders in Saudi

Arabia to compare the differences between transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant

leadership styles of Saudi Arabian university leaders educated in Saudi Arabia and of those

educated in institutions located in Western countries. The main research question (leadership

score differences based on location) was not supported (Tables 5 and 6).   In the final chapter,

these findings will be compared to the literature, conclusions and implications will be drawn, and

a series of recommendations will be suggested.

Chapter 5: Findings, Conclusions, and Implications

This chapter presents the findings of the study and outlines their implications for the practice, policymaking, education, and research in educational leadership. The discussion is based on the cited relationship among literature, practice, theory, and research. Additionally, it will include some recommendations for future research in the area of leadership styles and effectiveness.

Summary of the Findings

Problem. The government of Saudi Arabia has prioritized economic development in its ambitious Vision 2030 (Saudi Vision 2030, n.d.). Although it is among the largest economies globally largely due to its robust oil production, the country seeks to diversify its economy due to emerging challenges in the industry such as fluctuating prices and a decline in its reserves (Van de Graaf, 2013). The Saudi government has identified the education sector as one of the most important pillars in its long-term vision of 2030 especially due to its potential to improve its citizens' competencies, thereby supporting the identification and exploitation of other social and economic opportunities (Ahmed, 2016). The higher education sector in Saudi Arabia is experiencing tremendous competition just like other sectors of the economy, and Saudis expect the country's public universities to achieve the highest level of service especially due to the significant financing from the government.

Leadership influences academic performance, student satisfaction, employee commitment, and financial performance of educational institutions (Amin et al., 2013, Clayton, 2014). Therefore, the achievement of desirable academic outcomes relies heavily on the effective leadership of institutions of higher education. A review of the existing literature

yielded little research material about the effectiveness of Saudi universities based on the leadership styles adopted by those at the helm. Consequently, the study set out to evaluate the impact of the geographic location in which university leaders obtained their higher education on their leadership styles.

Purpose. The purpose of this study was to compare the outcomes of Saudi leaders in higher education institutions based on whether they were educated in local or Western institutions and establish if differences exist in the composite leadership styles subscale scores on the MLQ (5x-short). The formulation of the research question and the corresponding hypotheses was guided by the nine leadership aspects of the full range leadership model and the MLQ (5x-short) as the measurement tool (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Additionally, the statistical relationship between variables was determined using the geographical location of the post-secondary education as the independent variable and the composite factor scores of the different subscales of the full range leadership model in the MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire as the dependent variables. Overall, the following research question and the subsequent hypotheses formed the basis of carrying out the study:

- RQ1: Are there differences in the 9 subscales scores on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education?

  o H1$_0$: There are no significant differences in any of the 9 subscales scores on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

    ▪ Idealized influence (attributes)

    ▪ Idealized influence (behavior)

- Inspirational motivation

- Intellectual stimulation

- Individualized consideration

- Contingent reward

- Management-by-exception (active)

- Management-by-exception (passive)

- Laissez-faire

  - $H1_A$: There are significant differences in at least 1 of the 9 subscales scores on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

Research methodology. The study relied on the MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire to evaluate the leadership styles of the participants. It sought to measure nine leadership factors associated with Bass's full range leadership model: idealized influence attributes, idealized influence behaviors, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent reward, management by exception-active, management by exception-passive, and laissez faire leadership (Avolio & Bass, 2004). A determination of the statistical association between the location of the leaders' post-secondary education and the composite scores of the model's subscales based on the questionnaire would demonstrate whether a relationship exists between the variables. The study sought to answer the following research question and tested the subsequent hypotheses.

- RQ1: Are there differences in the 9 subscales scores on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education?

- o H1$_0$: There are no significant differences in any of the 9 subscales scores on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

- H1$_A$: There are significant differences in at least 1 of the 9 subscales scores on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

The study was based on a quantitative research method in the evaluation of the differences between the leadership styles of Saudi university leaders (Creswell, 2014). It was based on the MLQ (5x-short) scores on the basis of the geographical location in which they completed post-secondary education. The purpose of the study incorporated clear research problems; thus, the technique was appropriate, which implies the suitability of a statistical technique in testing the hypotheses. Moreover, it was consistent with use of the MLQ (5x-short) to determine the impact of the location of the leaders' higher education on the leadership styles they adopted. Additionally, a cross-sectional research design was appropriate in the collection of data for the study participants at a particular period in varying stages and ages in the personal and professional growth (Rindfleisch et al., 2008). The research design was found suitable, as it is less costly than other designs. It used a descriptive approach to differentiate the leadership styles of the individuals at the top management roles of Saudi universities based on the place of their educational background.

The study focused on Saudi leaders with a post-graduate degree who held senior positions such as president, vice president, deputy president, dean, vice dean, faculty head, departmental head, and administrative chief or similar in higher education institutions in the country either presently or in the recent past. It utilized the snowball sampling technique,

starting with a convenient sample of participants from a personal network that determined the subsequent leaders that were involved in the study (Goodman, 2011). The research study used the MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire, which incorporated 45 questions, 36 of which measured different aspects of transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant leadership styles based on a 5-point Likert scale (Moriano et al., 2014). The remaining 9 questions measured the resulting outcomes of the leadership styles. Additionally, the study used a demographic information questionnaire to capture the leaders' employment status, highest education level, geographic location where they attained their education, age, gender, leadership title, and length of employment (Cooper & Schindler, 2003). Subsequently, data on educational backgrounds and the leadership behaviors were collected using questionnaires in the form of a self-administered survey. The data analysis relied on the ANOVA statistical procedure to test the hypotheses.

Regarding internal validity, the study involved university leaders who are all adults; thus, it was not likely that they would have experienced any changes in the short period of participating in the study (Gall et al., 2006). Conversely, there was mortality: threat associated with the study as it was anticipated that some of them would not complete the questionnaires (Creswell, 2012). However, the study sought to collect information about the Saudi leaders using the MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire, which lowered the instrumentation threat, as the instrument has already been proven to be reliable and valid (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

There was also a need to incorporate confidentiality and informed consent in the study. The study included a two-stage process in which the participants were informed of the possible risks. Subsequently, a description of the measures taken to preserve the privacy of the participants was provided. Since the study involved human subjects, it was imperative to obtain

informed consent from the leaders, which they would sign and submit alongside the completed

questionnaires. Consequently, any participant who did not agree to the informed consent was not

prompted to proceed to the surveys and was not considered in the sample. The researcher also

made every effort to comply with the policies and regulations associated with research that

involves human subjects, as subject to a review and validation by the IRB committee.

Major findings. The survey data were collected from 66 university leaders in Saudi

Arabia (48 included in the study); 70.8% of the participants were male. Those between the ages

of 22-34 years constituted 14.6% of the sample while those between 65-74 years made up 2.1%

of the sample. All the leaders that took part in the study had completed their basic k-12

education in the country and 85.4% of them held doctorate degrees as the highest level of

education qualification. The geographical location where these leaders had completed their post-

secondary education varied, as 25.0% had earned their educational requirements in the country,

45.8% had done so in the United States or Canada, and 22.9% had done so in the United

Kingdom. Also, the participants had various leadership titles, with the most common ones being

the Administrative Chief role held by 16.7%, and either President or Deputy President held by

12.5%.

The initial assumption was that a 50% response rate would be achieved. Usually,

voluntary surveys can achieve low response rates of up to 10% after the consideration of usable

and correctly filled questionnaires (Dillman, 2007). Therefore, the 66% response rate achieved

in the study is quite good. However, similar studies have achieved higher levels of response

rates, which could point to the drawbacks of relying on a non-random sampling technique. The

study relied on referrals from a network of leaders in higher institutions in Saudi Arabia, and the

participation in the study was purely voluntary. However, an evaluation of the demographic

representation of the university leaders who took part in the study indicates a reasonable comparability of the general population of leaders in the country regarding age range, higher education status, gender, and professional titles, which was similar to the findings of Pillai et al.'s (1999) work. Overall, it was assumed that the study participants provided accurate self-assessment of the leadership behaviors as anticipated by the MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire.

Additionally, the demographic data indicated that the majority of university leaders (35%) were between the ages of 55 and 64 years old. The second highest representation in the study were leaders between the ages of 35 and 44 years old (27.1%). Also, the sample included individuals in the age brackets of 45 to 54 years, 22 to 34 years, and 65 to 74 years that constituted 20.8%, 14.6%, and 2.1% of the sample, respectively. Overall, the majority of the university leaders are below the age of 54 years, which will play a critical role in the transformation of the education sector as the country pursues its Vision 2030 objectives (Saudi Vision 2030, n.d.). Assuming that the sample is representative of the general population of the leaders of Saudi institutions of higher education, a majority of these leaders, especially those between the ages of 22 and 44, will continue to gain experience, which is important in ensuring the longevity and success of the sector.

Furthermore, the demographic data of the sample revealed that a majority of the university leaders had attained a doctorate degree as the highest level of education (85.4%). Only 4.2% had a bachelor's degree while 10.4% had completed a master's degree as the highest education level. The high proportion of individuals with the advanced degrees at both master's and doctorate levels signify that they not only have the desire to lead but also are scholars who have a good understanding of how higher educational institutions should operate. Assad (2002)

pointed out that differing educational achievements have an impact on leadership. Alalshaikh (2015) stated that cultures influence education systems and by extension leadership behaviors.

Moreover, the demographic data of the sample of university indicated that only a small proportion of them had completed their highest level of education in Saudi Arabia. Since a combined proportion of 68.7% had obtained their highest level of education in the United States, Canada, or the United Kingdom, they had great exposure to some of the best universities in the world and can enhance the quality standards of education in Saudi Arabian higher education institutions to match or surpass those in the most developed nations (Abdalla & Al-Homoud, 2001). Different studies have indicated that exposure to different cultures influences leadership behaviors (Assad, 2002; Noer et al., 2007).

The descriptive statistics of the 9 MLQ (5x-short) subscale scores based on the 5-point Likert scale indicated that contingent reward and inspirational motivation had the highest mean scores of 3.36 and 3.32, with standard deviations of 0.53 and 0.59, respectively. Conversely, laissez-faire subscale and the composite scale of passive-avoidant leadership had the lowest mean scores of 0.69 and 0.82, with standard deviations of 0.58 and 0.47, respectively.

The development of the findings required the testing of the various hypotheses corresponding to the scales of the MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The subscales that were considered include idealized influence-attributed (IIA), idealized influence-behavior (IIB), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS), individual consideration (IC), contingent reward (CR), management-by-exception active (MEA), management-by-exception passive (MEP), laissez-faire (LF). As well as the composite scales of transformational leadership (TFL), transactional leadership (TRL), and passive-avoidant leadership (PAL).

IIA indicates the level at which a leader can create mutual trust with others, promote their self-esteem, and support their concerns (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The hypotheses for the IIA subscale were:

- H_0: There are no significant differences in the scores of the idealized influence-attributed subscale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

- H_A: There are significant differences in the scores of the idealized influence-attributed subscale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

The scores for IIA fell ranged from 1.00 to 4.00. Results of the one-way ANOVA analysis indicated that there was no significant difference between the respondents who had obtained their highest level of education in Saudi Arabia and those who had obtained it in foreign countries. The university leaders who had completed their higher education in the country had a higher mean score than those who were educated in other countries, but the difference was not statistically significant. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis and concluded that the study indicated an equivalence of IIA behaviors regardless of the geographical location of the university leaders' post-secondary education.

IIB is concerned with leaders' actions that demonstrate integrity in the form of moral conviction, self-control, conscientiousness, and optimism (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The hypotheses for the IIB subscale were:

- H_0: There are no significant differences in the scores of the idealized influence-behavior subscale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

- H_A: There are significant differences in the scores of the idealized influence-behavior subscale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

The scores for the IIB subscale also ranged from 1.00 to 4.00. The ANOVA analysis indicated that there was no significant difference between the respondents who had obtained their highest level of education in Saudi Arabia and those who had obtained it in foreign countries. The university leaders who had completed their higher education in foreign countries had a higher mean score than those who were educated in Saudi Arabia, but the difference was not statistically significant. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis and the conclusion was that IIB behaviors were equal for the university leaders who had attained their post-secondary education in different geographical locations.

The IM subscale corresponds to the leaders' abilities to articulate shared goals and the common understanding of what is both morally right and important (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The hypotheses for the IM subscale were:

- H_0: There are no significant differences in the scores of the inspirational motivation subscale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

- H_A: There are significant differences in the scores of the inspirational motivation subscale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

The scores for the IM subscale fell between 1.00 and 4.00. The subsequent one-way ANOVA analysis indicated that there was no significant difference between the university leaders educated in Saudi Arabia and those who had completed their higher education in other

countries. Their mean scores were 3.27 and 3.33 respectively and their difference was not statistically significant. Therefore, it was appropriate to fail to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the IM behaviors of both sets of university leaders were similar despite having attained their highest level of education in different geographical locations.

The IS subscale represents the ability of leaders to encourage their followers, challenge their deeply-held assumptions, and question both their personal beliefs and those of their followers (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The hypotheses for this subscale were:

- H_0: There are no significant differences in the scores of the intellectual stimulation subscale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

- H_A: There are significant differences in the scores of the intellectual stimulation subscale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

The scores for the IS subscale ranged from 0.75 to 4.00. The one-way ANOVA analysis demonstrated that there was no significant difference between the respondents who had obtained their highest level of education in Saudi Arabia and those who had obtained it in foreign countries. The university leaders who had completed their higher education in other countries had a higher mean score of 3.17, whereas those who were educated in Saudi Arabia had a mean score of 3.02. However, the difference was not statistically significant and the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis, concluding that the study indicated an equivalence of IS behaviors regardless of the geographical location of the university leaders' post-secondary education.

The IC subscale refers to leaders' efforts to develop their followers through different kinds of coaching techniques (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The hypotheses for this subscale were:

- H_0: There are no significant differences in the scores of the individual consideration subscale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

- H_A: There are significant differences in the scores of the individual consideration subscale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

The scores for the IC subscale also ranged from 1.00 to 4.00. A direct comparison of the mean scores indicates that the university leaders who had attained their highest education in Saudi Arabia had a higher IC than those who had pursued their post-secondary education in other countries. However, the subsequent ANOVA analysis demonstrated that the IC scores were not significantly different; thus, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis, concluding that there was sufficient evidence that the IC of both sets of leaders were similar irrespective of the choice of geographical location for their higher education.

The CR subscale is concerned with leadership behaviors that reward the achievement of followers for their work contributions (Avolio & Bass, 2004). This subscale had the following hypotheses:

- H_0: There are no significant differences in the scores of the contingent reward subscale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

- H_A: There are significant differences in the scores of the contingent reward subscale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

The scores of the CR subscale were between 1.50 and 4.00. A comparison of the mean scores of the university leaders indicated that those who had pursued their highest level of education in Saudi Arabia had a lower score (3.33) than those who had obtained it from a foreign country (3.37). Nonetheless, the subsequent ANOVA analysis indicated that there was no significant difference between the scores of the two sets of university leaders; thus, it was appropriate to fail to reject the null hypothesis. There was sufficient evidence that the CR behavior of the university leaders who completed their highest level of education in Saudi Arabia was similar to the CR behavior of those who completed it in another country.

The MEA subscale refers to leaders who carry out their active form of management-by-exception by monitoring any deviations from anticipated performance, introducing fast and comprehensive measures to correct the deviations, and the imposition of sanctions on followers that continually demonstrate sub-standard performance (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The MEA subscale had the following hypotheses:

- H_0: There are no significant differences in the scores of the management-by-exception active subscale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

- H_A: There are significant differences in the scores of the management-by-exception active subscale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

The scores for the MEA subscale ranged from 0.50 to 3.75. The university leaders who obtained their highest level of education in other countries had a higher mean score of 2.49 than those who had completed it in Saudi Arabia whose mean score was 2.38. However, the one-way ANOVA analysis later indicated that there was no significant difference between the scores of

both sets of university leaders. Consequently, it was appropriate to fail to reject the null

hypotheses and reach the conclusion that there was sufficient evidence that the active

management-by-exception behavior of the university leaders who completed their highest level

of education in Saudi Arabia was similar to the behavior of those who completed it in another

country.

The MEP subscale refers to leaders who only take action only when they encounter

severe problems (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The MEP subscale had the following hypotheses:

- H_0: There are no significant differences in the scores of the management-by-
  exception passive subscale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between
  Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

- H_A: There are significant differences in the scores of the management-by-exception
  passive subscale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi
  university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

The scores for the MEP subscale ranged from 0.00 to 2.75. The university leaders who

obtained their highest level of education in other countries had a higher mean score of 0.99 than

those who had completed it in Saudi Arabia whose mean score was 0.85. However, the one-way

ANOVA analysis later indicated that there was no significant difference between the scores of

both sets of university leaders. Consequently, it was appropriate to fail to reject the null

hypotheses and conclude that the passive management-by-exception behavior of the university

leaders who completed their highest level of education in Saudi Arabia was similar to the

behavior of those who completed it in another country.

The LF subscale refers to leadership behaviors that are associated with the routine avoidance of active involvement at the workplace (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The LF subscale had the following hypotheses:

- H_0: There are no significant differences in the scores of the laissez-faire subscale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

- H_A: There are significant differences in the scores of the laissez-faire subscale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

The LF subscale had scores ranging from 0.00 to 2.25. The mean scores of the leaders of higher education institutions in Saudi Arabia who had undertaken their highest level of education in the country was higher than that of leaders who had pursued it in other countries. The subsequent one-way ANOVA analysis determined that there was no significant difference between the scores of the two sets of university leaders; thus, it was appropriate to fail to reject the null hypothesis. The subsequent conclusion was that the laissez-faire behavior of both sets of leaders was similar notwithstanding the differing geographical locations at which the university leaders had chosen to obtain their highest level of education.

The transformational leadership scale comprises five subscales: idealized influence-attributed, idealized influence-behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The hypotheses for the composite scale of transformational leadership were:

- H_0: There are no significant differences in the scores of the transformational leadership scale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.
- H_A: There are significant differences in the scores of the transformational leadership scale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

The scores of the transformational leadership scale ranged from 0.95 to 3.85. The mean score for the leaders who had obtained their education in foreign countries was higher (3.22) than that of those who had pursued the highest level of education in Saudi Arabian universities (3.18). The results of the ANOVA analysis showed no significant difference between the university leaders educated in Saudi Arabia and those educated in other countries. Therefore, there was sufficient evidence to fail to reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the transformational leadership behavior of the university leaders who completed their highest level of education in the country was similar to that of the leaders who completed their education in other countries.

The transactional leadership scale comprises two subscales: contingent reward and management-by-exception active (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The hypotheses for the composite scale of transactional leaderships were:

- H_0: There are no significant differences in the scores of the transactional leadership scale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.
- H_A: There are significant differences in the scores of the transactional leadership scale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

The scores of the transactional leadership scale ranged between 1.28 and 3.88. The mean score for the leaders who had obtained their education in foreign countries was 2.93 against 2.85, which was the score of those who had pursued the highest level of education in Saudi Arabian universities. The ANOVA analysis's outcomes showed no significant difference in the university leaders educated in Saudi Arabia and those educated in other countries. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject the null hypothesis as there was sufficient evidence to conclude that the transactional leadership behavior of the university leaders who completed their highest level of education in the country was similar to the behavior of those who completed it in other countries.

The passive-avoidant scale consists of two subscales: which are management-by-exception passive and laissez faire (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The hypotheses for the composite scale were:

- H_0: There are no significant differences in the scores of the passive-avoidant leadership scale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

- H_A: There are significant differences in the scores of the passive-avoidant leadership scale on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education.

The scores of the passive-avoidant leadership scale ranged between 0.00 and 2.00. The mean scores for the leaders who had obtained their education in foreign countries and those who had pursued the highest level of education in Saudi Arabian universities were both 0.82. Also, the results of ANOVA analysis found no significant difference in the university leaders educated in Saudi Arabia and those educated in other countries. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject

the null hypothesis, as there was sufficient evidence to conclude that the passive-avoidant leadership behavior of both sets of university leaders was similar.

A Spearman correlation analysis of the 9 MLQ (5x-short) subscale scores for the highest level of education completed by the leaders demonstrated that there was no significant correlation with any of the scores. A similar analysis between gender and the MLQ (5x-short) subscale scores indicated that gender had a significant relationship with intellectual stimulation and female leaders had higher scores. A Spearman correlation analysis focusing on age range demonstrated a significant relationship between the MLQ (5x-short) subscale scores and age range, with older respondents having higher individual consideration scores. The Spearman correlation analysis that focused on the highest level of education that was completed in Saudi Arabia indicated that there was no significant relationship with any of the scores. A comparable evaluation focusing on highest professional title found a significant relationship with inspirational motivation, with higher professional titles being associated with higher scores of inspirational motivation.

Conclusions

The aforementioned findings in the study led to the following conclusions:

- There was no significant difference between the leadership behaviors of university leaders who attained their post-secondary education in Saudi Arabia and those who attained it in Western countries.

- There was a weak association between gender and intellectual stimulation.

- There was a weak relationship between age range and individual consideration.

- There was a weak association between professional titles and inspirational motivation.

First, the study's main aim was to evaluate the difference in the self-assessed leadership styles of Saudi Arabian university leaders who had attained their highest education in Saudi Arabia and other countries based on the MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire. The study was based on the following research question: Are there differences in the 9 subscales scores on the self-rated MLQ (5x-short) questionnaire between Saudi university leaders based on the location of their post-secondary education?

An ANOVA analysis of the scores of the MLQ (5x-short) subscale was conducted based on the different geographical locations in which the leaders pursued their post-secondary education. The results of the analysis indicated that there were no significant differences in any of the MLQ (5x-short) subscale scores for the leaders who had completed their highest level of education in Saudi Arabia versus other countries. The outcomes were consistent with the findings obtained by Hunt and At-Twaijri (1996), who found that educational background did not have an impact on leadership styles. However, numerous studies found differences in the leadership styles of U.S. and Saudi leaders mostly due to the different dominant cultures (At-Twaijri 1989; Noer et al., 2007; Robertson et al., 2001).

Second, the results of a Spearman correlation analysis indicated that gender had a significant relationship with the university leaders' intellectual stimulation. The two variables had a positive weak relationship with female leaders having higher scores. Therefore, the women in the sample perceived themselves as having a superior capacity to emphasize creativity and rationality to intellectually stimulate their followers.

Third, the Spearman correlation analysis led to the outcome that age range had a significant relationship with the individual consideration of the university leaders. The two variables had a positive weak relationship, with older leaders having higher scores. Therefore,

the older leaders in the sample perceived themselves as better in providing personal attention to their followers through offering advice and coaching them. The outcomes were inconsistent with the findings of Ali (1989), who determined that younger Saudi leaders were more likely to adopt a participative approach than older leaders.

Finally, the results of the Spearman correlation analysis indicated a significant relationship between professional titles and inspirational motivation. The two variables had a positive weak association, with higher leadership titles earning higher inspirational motivation scores. Therefore, university leaders holding higher positions in their institutions perceived that they had a greater ability to inspire and motivate followers as well as boost their confidence to ensure that they achieve common goals. The finding was not consistent with those of Lowe et al. (1996), who determined that a leader's position does not impact his/her effectiveness. However, high rankings university leaders might be riding the heightened transformational and motivational wave, which was created by the God Father of the ambitious Saudi Vision 2030 His Royal Highness Prince Mohammed Bin Salman Alsaud the Deputy Crown Prince of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

Implications for the Future

This study makes some contributions to the literature by evaluating the leadership styles exhibited by Saudi Arabian leaders of institutions of higher education and the impact of the geographical location of the country in which they pursued their highest level of education. Additionally, its findings have expanded the scope of the previous literature about leadership in the country. The evaluation of the relationship between the university leaders' styles based on the location of education (which considered places such as the United States, Canada, and the United Kingdom) may also be useful beyond Saudi Arabia. Also, it can be replicated across

different regions, as it is important to explore the significance of the leadership in enhancing the contributions of the education sector to the overall economy.

The study did not reveal significant differences in the leadership styles of the university leaders in Saudi Arabia whether they attained their education in the country or in western countries. However, the correlation analysis found some weak relationships between some aspects of the leadership styles and various characteristics of the leaders. The weak relationships between gender and intellectual stimulation, age range and individual consideration, and professional titles and inspirational motivation could inform the identification of future leaders or the progression of existing leaders. Further evaluation is required to determine whether other studies provide better information about these associations.

Additionally, the Saudi government's can have a clearer vision in the decision making process in terms of whether or not it should continue to send students abroad through the King Abdullah Scholarship Program (KASP) or via different government agencies. Based on the suggested research data and findings, the government, or university leaders, can elect to enroll students in the less expensive local schools and programs instead, because according to the country's new strategic vision, Saudi Vision 2030, government spending should be more efficient and effective (Saudi Vision 2030, n.d.).

The outcomes of the study could be beneficial in the practice of leadership and management in and beyond the education sector. Further studies can focus on specific leadership styles to determine the impacts on the performance of others and the achievement of overall performance objectives. Moreover, it is important to determine the suitability of adopting specific leadership styles, especially in turbulent times. This study relied heavily on the full range leadership model that includes transformational, transactional, and passive-avoidant

leadership styles. Organizations in different economic sectors may find the outcomes of the study useful during the selection and recruitment of leaders based on the desirable behaviors and attributes. Additionally, existing leaders can adopt some measures to develop staff that demonstrate the potential of the desired leadership attributes to take up leadership roles in the future.

Recommendations for Future Research

The current study relied on Saudi Arabian university leaders' self-assessment of their leadership styles. Different approaches could enhance further research to reinforce the results of this study. The following recommendations would offer academicians, researchers, private sector organizations, and government policymakers opportunities to conduct further studies on leadership styles in Saudi Arabia.

The study was based on self-administered questionnaires. Future studies may seek to improve the ability to predict leadership styles by adopting a 360-degree profile, such as the MLQ 360, LPI 360, and the Checkpoint 360. Consequently, the studies should include the views of different subordinates and superiors to obtain a comprehensive evaluation of the different aspects that predict leadership styles.

Future studies can cover other sectors of the economy such as healthcare, manufacturing, agriculture, and non-oil mining. The focus on the different areas will ensure that the country can plan for its future and establish the roles of its current and future leaders in steering these important sectors in line with its long-term vision of 2030.

The study was conducted as a comparison of leadership styles adopted by university leaders based on the country in which they achieved their highest level of education. A future study could take an internal approach by comparing the leadership styles adopted by individuals

from different geographical regions within the country. The research approach will provide insights into the similarities and differences that leaders exhibit based on regional influences.

In addition, future studies can utilize different research designs. For instance, studies could incorporate open-ended questions to obtain insights into the participants' views on a topic. Also, some of the participants might prefer a pen-and-paper format; thus, the incorporation of this method of administration would increase the response rate. A mixture of both online and hard copy questionnaires could be used to boost the chances of garnering a higher proportion of responses.

Final Summary

This chapter outlined the findings of the entire study. The major findings of this study included demographic data such as a 66% response rate, the majority of the respondents being between the ages of 55 and 64 years old (35.4%), 85.4% of the leaders having a doctorate degree as the highest education level, and 75% having achieved their education in foreign countries. The ANOVA analysis demonstrated that there were no significant differences in any of the 9 MLQ (5x-short) subscale scores of the university leaders who had completed their highest education level in Saudi Arabia versus those who had attained their education in Western countries.

The results of the Spearman correlation demonstrated that gender had a significant association with the university leaders' intellectual stimulation, with a positive weak relationship between the two variables. Additionally, age range had a significant association with individual consideration, with a positive weak relationship between them. Also, a significant relationship existed between professional titles and inspirational motivation; the two variables had a positive weak association.

The study makes considerable contributions to existing literature and would support future evaluations of leadership styles within Saudi Arabia and the other countries considered in the study. Although there were no significant differences found in the leadership styles of the participants, the correlation analysis established some relationships with various leadership attributes, which could influence organizational decisions in different economic sectors.

The study focused on self-evaluations, as the participants completed the questionnaires about their perceptions. Future studies can: incorporate 360-degree profiles that consider the views of followers and superiors (such as the MLQ 360, LPI 360, and the Checkpoint 360), adopt different research designs such as hard copy questionnaires to boost response rate, implement a comparative analysis of different regions within a country, or replicate the study in other sectors such as manufacturing and construction, or the uprising financial sector.

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APPENDIX A

Saudi Vision 2030

Global جلوبل

Saudi Vision 2030

- Saudi announces its 2030 vision with a plan to raise USD100bn via Aramco 5% stake sale
- Focus is to reduce oil dependency of the country and become sustainable without it by 2020
- Reforms would liberalize the economy to seek higher foreign investments

Saudi Arabia has unveiled its Vision 2030 roadmap with three key themes – a "vibrant society", a "thriving economy" and an "ambitious nation." Key takeaways of the vision documents are:

Goals 2030

- ✓ To move from the current position as the 19th largest economy in the world into the top 15
- ✓ To rise from the current position of 25 to the top 10 countries on the Global Competitiveness Index
- ✓ To increase the private sector's contribution from 40% to 65% of GDP
- ✓ To raise the share of non-oil exports in non-oil GDP from 16% to 50%
- ✓ To increase non-oil government revenue from SAR163bn to SAR1tn
- ✓ To increase the Public Investment Fund's assets, from SAR 600bn to over 7tn
- ✓ To have three Saudi cities be recognized in the top-ranked 100 cities in the world
- ✓ To increase the localization of oil and gas sectors from 40% to 75%
- ✓ To increase SME contribution to GDP from 20% to 35%
- ✓ To increase foreign direct investment from 3.8% to the international level of 5.7% of GDP
- ✓ To raise the ranking in the Government Effectiveness Index, from 80 to 20
- ✓ To raise the ranking on the E-Government Survey Index from the current position of 36 to be among the top five nations
- ✓ To increase women's participation in the workforce from 22% to 30%
- ✓ To increase the capacity to welcome Umrah visitors from 8mn to 30mn every year
- ✓ To more than double the number of Saudi heritage sites registered with UNESCO
- ✓ To increase household spending on cultural and entertainment activities inside the Kingdom from the current level of 2.9% to 6%
- ✓ To increase household savings from 6% to 10% of total household income
- ✓ To increase the ratio of people exercising at least once a week from 13% of population to 40%
- ✓ To raise the position from 26 to 10 in the Social Capital index
- ✓ To increase the average life expectancy from 74 years to 80 years
- ✓ To lower the rate of unemployment from 11.6% to 7%
- ✓ To raise the global ranking in the Logistics Performance Index from 49 to 25 and ensure the Kingdom is a regional leader
- ✓ To raise the non-profit sector's contribution to GDP from less than 1% to 5%
- ✓ To rally 1mn volunteers per year (compared to 11,000 now)

Privatization

- The Kingdom plans to value state oil company Saudi Aramco at more than USD2tn ahead of the sale of less than 5% of it through an initial public offering.
- The government will further develop the sophistication of investment vehicles, particularly after transferring the ownership of Aramco to the Public Investment Fund, which will become the largest sovereign wealth fund in the world. It will increase the efficiency of the fund's management and improve its return on investment, with the aim of diversifying the government resources and the economy.
- Emphasis would be given on smoothening of the process of listing private Saudi companies and state-owned enterprises, including Aramco. This will require deepening liquidity in the capital markets, fortifying the role of the debt market and paving the way for the derivatives market
- The Prince plans to transform Aramco from an oil producing company into a global industrial conglomerate.

Public Investment Fund

- At the center of the plan is the restructuring of its Public Investment Fund (PIF), which Prince Mohammed said would become a hub for Saudi investment abroad, partly by raising money through selling shares in Aramco.
- He added that the kingdom would raise the capital of its public investment fund to SAR7tn (USD2tn) from SAR600bn (USD160bn).

Tourism

- The government has commenced a third expansion of the Two Holy Mosques as well as modernizing and increasing the capacities of the airports. It has launched the Makkah Metro project to complement the railroad and train projects that will serve visitors to the Holy Mosques and holy sites. Furthermore, it has reinforced the network of the transport system to facilitate access and help pilgrims perform their visits with greater ease and convenience. The plan also proposes to establish more museums, prepare new tourist and historical sites and cultural venues, and improve the pilgrimage experience within the Kingdom.
- The plan proposes to build an Islamic museum in accordance with the highest global standards, equipped with the latest methods in collection, preservation, presentation and documentation. It will also be an international hub for erudition and include a world-class library and research center.
- By increasing the capacity and by improving the quality of the services offered to Umrah visitors by 2020, the plan aims to make it possible for over 15mn Muslims per year to perform Umrah and be completely satisfied with their pilgrimage experience.
- By 2030, the government plans to more than double the number of Saudi heritage sites registered with UNESCO.

Education

- In the year 2030, plan aim to have at least five Saudi universities among the top 200 universities in international rankings.
- The goal by 2020 is for 80% of parents to be engaged in school activities and the learning process of their children. The government will launch the "Irtiqaa" program, which will measure how effectively schools are engaging parents in their children's education. It will establish parent-led boards in schools, to open discussion forums and further engage with parents.
- Building an education system aligned with market needs and creating economic opportunities for the entrepreneur, the small enterprise as well as the large corporation is also emphasized in the plan.

Government Reforms

- The plan documents improved governance, transparency, structural reform in the government functioning. It states to achieve zero tolerance for all levels of corruption, whether administrative or financial.
- The government will expand the variety of digital services to reduce delays and cut tedious bureaucracy. It will immediately adopt wide-ranging transparency and accountability reforms and, through the body set up to measure the performance of government agencies.
- The King Salman Program for Human Capital Development- is yet to identify and put into effect the best practices that would ensure that public sector employees have the right skills for the future.
- Government is working towards shared services across the government agencies. This will contribute to achieving increased productivity and efficiency of government spending.
- It will launch the "Qawam" program as a reflection of the Qur'anic verse that calls for moderation in spending between excess and parsimony.

Small and Medium Enterprises

- SMEs in the Kingdom are not yet major contributors to the GDP, especially when compared to advanced economies. Therefore, the Kingdom will strive to create suitable job opportunities for citizens by supporting SME entrepreneurship, privatization and investments in new industries.
- It aims to create suitable job opportunities for the citizens by supporting SME entrepreneurship, privatization and investments in new industries. To help achieve this goal, it has established the SME Authority and will continue encouraging the young entrepreneurs with business-friendly regulations, easier access to funding, international partnerships and a greater share of national procurement and government bids. It will strive to facilitate enhanced access to funding and to encourage the financial institutions to allocate up to 20% of overall funding to SMEs by 2030.

Expatriates

- The government plans to improve living and working conditions for non-Saudis, by extending their ability to own real estate in certain areas, improving the quality of life, permitting the establishment of more private schools and adopting an effective and simple system for issuing visas and residence permits.

Social

- To lower the rate of unemployment from 11.6% to 7%; furthermore, to increase women's participation in the workforce from 22% to 30%.
- To have three Saudi cities be recognized in the top-ranked 100 cities in the world.
- To increase household spending on cultural and entertainment activities inside the Kingdom from the current level of 2.9% to 6%.
- To increase the ratio of individuals exercising at least once a week from 13% of population to 40%.
- Even though 47% of Saudi families already own their homes, the government aims to increase this rate by 5% till 2020.
- To raise KSA's position from 26 to 10 in the Social Capital index.
- To increase the average life expectancy from 74 years to 80 years.
- The government has launched the National Labor Gateway (TAQAT), and eyes to establish sector councils that will precisely determine the skills and knowledge required by each socio-economic sector. The government would also expand vocational training in order to drive forward economic development.
- To increase household savings from 6% to 10% of total household income.
- The government would work towards developing private medical insurance to improve access to medical services and reduce waiting times for appointments with specialists and consultants.

Housing

- To increase housing ownership rate by 5% till 2020. The government would introduce a number of laws and regulations; encouraging the private sector to build houses; and providing funding, mortgage solutions and ownership schemes that meet the needs of our citizens.
- To exceed 90% housing coverage in densely populated cities and 66% in other urban zones.

Subsidies and Taxes

- Subsidies for fuel, food, water and electricity will be better utilized by redirecting them towards those in need.
- Subsidy criteria would be created based on the maturity of economic sectors, their ability to compete locally and internationally and their actual need for subsidies, without endangering promising and strategic sectors.
- There will be no taxes on citizens' income or wealth, or on basic goods. The government would keep prices stable over the long term, and give Saudi citizens greater economic security.

Military

- To manufacture half of the military needs within the Kingdom to create more job opportunities for citizens and keep more resources in our country.
- To localize over 50% of military equipment spending by 2030.

Diversification

- The ongoing privatization of state-owned assets, including leading companies, property and other assets.
- To provide better opportunities for partnerships with the private sector through the three pillars: KSA's position as the heart of the Arab and Islamic worlds, leading investment capabilities, and strategic geographical position.
- Localizing renewable energy and industrial equipment sectors; generate 9.5 gig watts of renewable energy.
- Create attractions in tourism sector, improve visa issuance procedures for visitors, and prepare and develop historical and heritage sites.
- To create digital economy and boost technology sector.
- Mining sector is expected to reach at SAR97bn by 2020. The government would furnish incentives for and benefit from the exploration of the Kingdom's mineral resources. Furthermore, it eyes to create 90,000 jobs in the sector.
- Localizing oil and gas sector, doubling our gas production, and construct a national gas distribution network.
- To increase the contribution of modern trade and e-commerce to 80% of the retail sector by 2020 and create jobs in the sector.
- The government would partner with the private sector to develop the telecommunications and information technology infrastructure, especially high-speed broadband, expanding its coverage and capacity within and around cities and improving its quality. The government aims to exceed 90% housing coverage in densely populated cities and 66% in other urban zones.
- To rise from current position of 25 to the top 10 countries on the Global Competitiveness Index.
- To increase foreign direct investment from 3.8% to the international level of 5.7% of GDP.
- To increase the private sector's contribution from 40% to 65% of GDP.
- To raise our global ranking in the Logistics Performance Index from 49 to 25 and ensure the Kingdom is a regional leader.
- To raise the share of non-oil exports in non-oil GDP from 16% to 50%.
- Creating special economic zones with visa exemptions, and directly connected to the King Khaled International Airport.

Others

- Improve the quality of our services, by privatizing some government services, improving the business environment, attracting the finest talent and the best investments globally, and leveraging unique strategic location in connecting three continents.
- To prepare the right environment for citizens, the private sector and non-profit sector to take their responsibilities and take the initiative in facing challenges and seizing opportunities.
- Healthy lifestyle to all citizen, promoting physical, psychological and social well-being.
- To enhance the role of government funds, while also attracting local and international investors, creating partnerships with international entertainment corporations. Land suitable for cultural and entertainment projects will be provided and talented writers, authors and directors will be carefully supported.
- Regular participation in sports and athletic activities, working in partnership with the private sector to establish additional dedicated facilities and programs.
- Creating safety, security in the cities, infrastructure development and providing high quality services such as water, electricity, public transport and roads.

- Waste management, establishing comprehensive recycling projects, reducing all types of pollution and fighting desertification.
- Promote the optimal use of our water resources by reducing consumption and utilizing treated and renewable water.
- Protecting and rehabilitating beaches, natural reserves and islands, making them open to everyone.
- Reviewing regulations to simplify the establishment and registration of amateur, social and cultural clubs.
- The government would launch and provide the necessary financial support for "Daem", a national program to enhance the quality of cultural activities and entertainment.
- The government aims to establish more than 450 registered and professionally organized amateur clubs providing a variety of cultural activities and entertainment events by 2020.
- To move from the current 19thposition as the largest economy in the world to the top 15.
- The government would push for GCC common market, unifying customs, economic and legal policies, and constructing shared road and railway networks.
- To collaborate with consumers, food manufacturers and distributors to reduce any resource wastage.
- To create a more impactful non-profit organizations and raise the non-profit sector's contribution to GDP from less than 1% to 5%.
- To rally one million volunteers per year (compared to 11,000 now).

Saudi Vision 2030

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APPENDIX B

Informed Consent

PEPPERDINE UNIVERSITY
Graduate School of Education & Psychology

Leadership Styles in Saudi Arabian Universities: Comparison Based on Educational Background

You are invited to participate in a research study conducted by Sultan Ahmed Alalshaikh, a doctoral student in the Graduate School of Education & Psychology at the Pepperdine University, because you are a leader in a Saudi University. Your participation is voluntary. You should read the information below, and ask questions about anything that you do not understand, before deciding whether to participate. Please take as much time as you need to read this document. You may also decide to discuss participation with your family or friends.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study is to study examine the differences in Leadership Styles among university leaders in Saudi Arabia based on the location of their degree background.

PARTICIPANT INVOLVEMENT

If you agree to voluntarily to take part in this study, you will be asked to participate in completing two sets of short surveys. A Demographic Questionnaire, and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire.

The Demographic Questionnaire is anticipated to take no more than 5 minutes and the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire is anticipated to take no more than 15 minutes. You do not have to answer any questions you don't want to or you do not know.

PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

Your participation is voluntary. Your refusal to participate will involve no penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights, or remedies because of your participation in this research study. Although there may be no personal benefit for you, the potential benefit of the study is that it will enlighten the academic and managerial fields about the leadership styles of university leaders in our country

ALTERNATIVES TO FULL PARTICIPATION

The alternative to participation in the study is not participating or completing only the items that you feel comfortable. Your relationship with your employer will not be affected whether you participate or not in this study.

CONFIDENTIALITY

I will keep your records for this study confidential as far as permitted by law. However, if I am required to do so by law, I may be required to disclose information collected about you. Examples of the types of issues that would require me to break confidentiality are if you tell me about instances of child abuse and elder abuse. Pepperdine's University's Human Subjects Protection Program (HSPP) may also access the data collected. The HSPP occasionally reviews and monitors research studies to protect the rights and welfare of research subjects. There will be no identifiable information obtained in connection with this study. Your name, address or other identifiable information will not be collected.

The data will be stored on a password protected flash drive in the principal investigators place of residence and the data will be stored for a minimum of three years after the study has been completed, and then the date will be destroyed.

INVESTIGATOR'S CONTACT INFORMATION

I understand that the investigator is willing to answer any inquiries I may have concerning the research herein described. I understand that I may contact Sultan Alalshaikh via email at ███████████████████████. You can also, contact the Dissertation Chairperson, Dr. Ronald Stephens via email at ████████████████, if you have any other questions or concerns about this research. If you have questions about your rights as a research participant, contact Dr. Judy Ho, Chairperson of the Graduate & Professional Schools Institutional Review Board (GPS IRB) at Pepperdine University, via email at ███████████████ or ██████████ ██.

RIGHTS OF RESEARCH PARTICIPANT – IRB CONTACT INFORMATION

If you have questions, concerns or complaints about your rights as a research participant or research in general please contact Dr. Judy Ho, Chairperson of the Graduate & Professional Schools Institutional Review Board at Pepperdine University 6100 Center Drive Suite 500, Los Angeles, CA 90045, ███████████ or █████████████.

By clicking on the link to the survey questions, you are acknowledging you have read the study information. You also understand that you may end your participation at end time, for any reason without penalty.

You Agree to Participate

You Do Not Wish to Participate

If you would like documentation of your participation in this research you may print a copy of this form.

Arabic Translation of Informed Consent

جامعة Pepperdine
كلية الدراسات العليا في التربية وعلم النفس

عنوان الدراسة: أنماط القيادة في الجامعات السعودية: مقارنة بناءً على الخلفية التعليمية

أنتم مدعوون للمشاركة في دراسة بحثية يجريها سلطان بن أحمد آل الشيخ، طالب دكتوراه في كلية الدراسات العليا في التربية وعلم النفس في جامعة Pepperdine وذلك لأنك ذي منصب قيادي في الجامعات السعودية. مشاركتكم طوعية. يجب عليكم قراءة المعلومات أدناه، وطرح الأسئلة حول أي شيءٍ لم يفهم، قبل اتخاذ قرار بشأن المشاركة. يرجى أخذ الوقت اللازم لقراءة هذه الوثيقة. ويحق لك أن تقرر أيضا مناقشة المشاركة مع عائلتك أو أصدقائك.

الغرض من الدراسة

الغرض من الدراسة هو دراسة الاختلافات في أنماط القيادة بين قادة الجامعات في المملكة العربية السعودية بناءً على الخلفية التعليمي

المشاركة في المشاركة

إذا وافقت على المشاركة الطوعية في هذه الدراسة، سيطلب منك المشاركة في إكمال مجموعتين من المسوحات القصيرة. استبيان ديموغرافي، واستبيان القيادة متعددة العوامل.

ومن المتوقع ألا يستغرق الاستبيان الديمغرافي أكثر من 5 دقائق، ومن المتوقع ألا يستغرق استبيان القيادة المتعددة العوامل أكثر من 15 دقيقة. لا يلزم عليك الرد على أي أسئلة إذا كنت لا تريد إجابتها أو كنت لا تعرف إجابتها.

المشاركة والانسحاب

مشاركتكم طوعية. ورفضكم للمشاركة لا ينطوي على أي عقوبة أو فقدان المزايا التي تحق لكم خلاف ذلك. يجوز لكم سحب موافقتكم في أي وقت ووقف المشاركة بدون عقوبة. أنتم لا تتنازلون عن أي مطالبات أو حقوق أو تعويضات قانونية بسبب مشاركتكم في هذه الدراسة البحثية. على الرغم من أنه قد لا يكون هناك فائدة شخصية بالنسبة لكم، فإن الفائدة المحتملة للدراسة هو أنه سوف تسهم في تنوير المجالات الأكاديمية والإدارية حول أساليب القيادة المتبعة في الجامعات في بلادنا

البدائل للمشاركة الكاملة

والبديل عن المشاركة في الدراسة هو عدم المشاركة أو استكمال الأسئلة التي تشعر بالراحة لإكمالها. لن تتأثر علاقتك مع صاحب العمل سواء شاركت أم لا في هذه الدراسة.

السرية

سأبقي سجلاتكم لهذه الدراسة سرية بقدر ما يسمح به القانون. ومع ذلك، إذا طلب مني ذلك بموجب القانون، قد يطلب مني الكشف عن المعلومات التي تم جمعها عنك. ومن الأمثلة على أنواع القضايا التي قد تتطلب مني كسر

السرية هي إذا تم إخباري عن حالات إساءة معاملة الأطفال وإساءة معاملة المسنين. كما يمكن لبرنامج حماية العناصر البشرية التابع لجامعة Pepperdine الوصول إلى البيانات التي يتم جمعها. ويقوم فريق برنامج حماية العناصر البشرية في بعض الأحيان بمراجعة ورصد الدراسات البحثية لحماية حقوق ورفا الأشخاص تحت دراسة المواضيع البحثية.

لن تكون هناك معلومات محددة سيتم الحصول عليها فيما يتعلق بهذه الدراسة. لن يتم جمع اسمك أو عنوانك أو معلوماتك الأخرى القابلة لتحديد هويتك.

سيتم تخزين البيانات علة محرك أقراص فلاش محمي بكلمة سر في مكا إقامتن الباحث الرئيسي وسيتم تخزين البيانات لمدة لا تقل عن ثلاث سنوات بعد الانتهاء من الدراسة، ومن ثم سيتم التخلص منها.

معلومات جهة الاتصال الخاصة بالمحقق

وأنا أفهم أن المحقق مستعد للإجابة على أي استقسارات قد تكون لدي بشأن البحث الوارد وصفه هنا. أنا أفهم أنني قد اتصل بالباحث سلطان آل الشيخ عبر البريد الإلكتروني ▬▬▬▬▬▬▬.edu ▬▬▬▬▬▬▬. يمكنك أيضا الاتصال بالمشرف على رسالة الدكتوراه، الدكتور رونالد ستيفنس عبر البريد الإلكتروني ▬stephen@pepperdine.edu. إذا كان لديك أي أسئلة أو استقسارات أخرى حول هذا البحث. إذا كان لديك أسئلة حول حقوقك كمشارك بحثي، يرجى الاتصال بالدكتور جودي هو، رئيس مجلس المراجعة المؤسسي والمدارس المهنية في جامعة Pepperdine، عبر البريد الإلكتروني ▬▬▬@pepperdine.edu▬ أو في 310-568-▬▬▬.

حقوق المشار في البحث - معلومات الاتصال بمجلس الاستعراض المؤسسي

إذا كان لديك أسئلة أو مخاوف أو شكاوى حول حقوقك كمشارك بحثي أو عن البحث بشكل عام يرجى الاتصال الدكتور جودي هو، رئيس مجلس الدراسات العليا معهد الدراسات العليا والمهنية في جامعة بيبردين 6100 مركز دريف جناح 500

لوس أنجلوس، كا 90045، (0) ▬▬8-568-310 أو ▬▬▬ gpsirb@pepperdine.edu.

بالنقر على الرابط لأسئلة المسح، فإنك تقر بأنك قرأت معلومات الدراسة. كما أنك تفهم أنك قد تنهي مشاركتك في نهاية الوقت، لأي سبب من الأسباب دون عقوبة.

أنت توافق على المشاركة

أنت لا ترغب في المشاركة

إذا كنت ترغب في توثيق مشاركتك في هذا البحث، يمكنك طباعة نسخة من هذا النموذج.

APPENDIX C

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire - Leader Form

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
Leader Form

My Name: _____ Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____Leader ID #: _____

This questionnaire is to describe your leadership style as you perceive it. Please answer all items on this answer sheet. **If an item is irrelevant, or if you are unsure or do not know the answer, leave the answer blank.**

Forty-five descriptive statements are listed on the following pages. Judge how frequently each statement fits you. The word "others" may mean your peers, clients, direct reports, supervisors, and/or all of these individuals.

Use the following rating scale:

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

1. I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts 0 1 2 3 4
2. I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate 0 1 2 3 4
3. I fail to interfere until problems become serious 0 1 2 3 4
4. I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards ... 0 1 2 3 4
5. I avoid getting involved when important issues arise 0 1 2 3 4
6. I talk about my most important values and beliefs 0 1 2 3 4
7. I am absent when needed 0 1 2 3 4
8. I seek differing perspectives when solving problems 0 1 2 3 4
9. I talk optimistically about the future 0 1 2 3 4
10. I instill pride in others for being associated with me 0 1 2 3 4
11. I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets 0 1 2 3 4
12. I wait for things to go wrong before taking action 0 1 2 3 4
13. I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished 0 1 2 3 4
14. I specify the importance of having a strong sense of purpose 0 1 2 3 4
15. I spend time teaching and coaching 0 1 2 3 4

Continued ➔

MLQ: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Scoring Key (5x-short)

MLQ Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
Scoring Key (5x) Short

My Name: _____ Date: _____

Organization ID #: _____Leader ID #: _____

Scoring: The MLQ scale scores are average scores for the items on the scale. The score can be derived by summing the items and dividing by the number of items that make up the scale. **If an item is left blank, divide the total for that scale by the number of items answered.** All of the leadership style scales have four items, Extra Effort has three items, Effectiveness has four items, and Satisfaction has two items.

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

*Idealized Influence (Attributed) total/4 =

*Idealized Influence (Behavior) total/4 =

*Inspirational Motivation total/4 =

*Intellectual Stimulation total/4 =

*Individual Consideration total/4 =

Contingent Reward total/4 =

Management-by-Exception (Active) total/4 =

+Management-by-Exception (Passive) total/4 =

+Laissez-faire Leadership total/4 =

Extra Effort total/3 =

Effectiveness total/4 =

Satisfaction total/2 =

1. Contingent Reward 0 1 2 3 4
2. Intellectual Stimulation 0 1 2 3 4
3. Management-by-Exception (Passive) 0 1 2 3 4
4. Management-by-Exception (Active) 0 1 2 3 4
5. Laissez-faire Leadership 0 1 2 3 4
6. Idealized Influence (Behavior) 0 1 2 3 4
7. Laissez-faire Leadership 0 1 2 3 4
8. Intellectual Stimulation 0 1 2 3 4
9. Inspirational Motivation 0 1 2 3 4
10. Idealized Influence (Attributed) 0 1 2 3 4
11. Contingent Reward 0 1 2 3 4
12. Management-by-Exception (Passive) 0 1 2 3 4
13. Inspirational Motivation 0 1 2 3 4
14. Idealized Influence (Behavior) 0 1 2 3 4
15. Individual Consideration 0 1 2 3 4

الهنــارة للاستشارات

Arabic Translation Sample of the MLQ (5x-short) - Leader Form

فيما يلي قائمة جمل وصفية تصف نمطك القيادي، يرجى إعطاء حكمك حول مدى اتفاق ذلك مع سلوكك القيادي في مدرستك.

مطلقاً 0	نادراً 1	أحياناً 2	غالباً 3	دائماً 4	الفقرة	م
					أمنح الآخرين المساعدة مقابل جهودهم.	1
					أعيد فحص فرضيات بيئة العمل المدرسي لكي أتأكد من أنها مناسبة.	2
					أخفق في التدخل حتى تصبح المشكلات خطيرة وجادة.	3
					أركز انتباهي على الأمور الخارجة عن المألوف، وعلى الأخطاء، والاستثناءات، والأمور الخارجة عن المعايير.	4
					أتجنب التورط عند ظهور أو نشوء قضايا حساسة ومهمة.	5
					أفصح وأعبر عن أهم قيمي ومعتقداتي.	6
					لا أتواجد عند الحاجة.	7
					أبحث الأمور من زوايا واتجاهات متعددة عند حل المشاكل والقضايا.	8
					أتحدث بتفاؤل وأمل عن المستقبل.	9
					أعزز الافتخار بالآخرين كونهم مرتبطون ويتعاملون معي.	10
					أناقش بدقة كل فرد مسئول عن تحقيق أهداف العمل.	11
					أنتظر حتى تحدث الأخطاء ثم أبادر في التحرك لتصحيحها.	12
					أتحدث بحماس عما يجب تحقيقه.	13
					أؤكد على أهمية وجود شعور قوي تجاه الأهداف والغايات.	14
					أبذل جهداً بالتعليم والتوجيه.	15
					أوضح المردود المتوقع الذي سيتلقاه الفرد عند تحقيقه الأهداف.	16
					أعزز فكرة: "إذا كان الشيء يعمل لا تصلحه" أي لا تحرك ساكناً.	17

APPENDIX D

Demographic Information Questionnaire

Please fill out the information below about your self:

1. Please indicate your citizenship:

   ☐ Saudi Arabian   ☐ Non-Saudi

2. The highest level of education completed

   ☐ High School

   ☐ Diploma

   ☐ Bachelor's degree

   ☐ Master's degree

   ☐ Doctorate degree

3. In which of the following geographic areas did you attain your Higher Education degrees, select all that apply:

   ☐ Saudi Arabia

   ☐ USA/Canada

   ☐ United Kingdom

   ☐ Europe

   ☐ Australia/ New Zealand

   ☐ Other, Specify: _____

4. In which of the following geographic areas did you attain your k-12 education, select all that apply:

   ☐ Saudi Arabia

   ☐ USA/Canada

   ☐ United Kingdom

   ☐ Europe

   ☐ Australia/ New Zealand

   ☐ Other, Specify: _____

5. Gender:
   □ Male
   □ Female

6. Age range:
   □ 22-34
   □ 35-44
   □ 45-54
   □ 55-64
   □ 65-74
   □ 75 or older
   □ Prefer not to disclose

7. You have been employed (or have been in the past) at your position at the university for approximately:
   □ Less than 1 Year
   □ More than 1 Year

8. Current (or Past) Leadership or Management title:
   □ President, Vice President or Deputy President
   □ Dean, Vice Dean
   □ Department Head
   □ Faculty Head
   □ Administrative Chief
   □ Other, Specify _____

Arabic Translation of Demographic Information Questionnaire

استبيان المعلومات الديموغرافية

يرجى ملء المعلومات أدناه عن نفسك:

1. يرجى ذكر جنسيتك ☐ المملكة العربية السعودية ☐ أخرى تحديد

2. يرجى بيان حالة عملك ☐ دوام كامل ☐ دوام جزئي

3. أعلى مستوى من التعليم

☐ درجة البكالوريوس

☐ درجة الماجستير

☐ درجة الدكتوراه

4. في أي من المناطق الجغرافية التالية حصلت على آخر درجة

☐ المملكة العربية السعودية

☐ الولايات المتحدة الأمريكية، كندا، أوروبا، أستراليا، أو نيوزيلندا

☐ أخرى

5. جنسك ☐ ذكر ☐ أنثى

6. الفئة العمرية الخاصة بك

☐ من 21 إلى 35 ☐ 35 إلى 50

☐ +50 ☐ يفضل عدم الكشف عنها

7. لقد تم توظيفك في منصبك في الجامعة لسنوات تقريبا.

8- عنوان الإدارة الحالي هو:

☐ الرئيس أو نائب الرئيس أو وكيل جامعة

☐ عميد

☐ رئيس القسم

☐ رئيس الكلية

☐ الرئيس الإداري

☐ أخرى، حدد

APPENDIX E

Instrument Use Approval

PEPPERDINE

Sultan Alalshaikh 'student' <~~sultan-alalshaikh@pepperdine.edu~~>

Re: [Mind Garden] Message from contact form - General Questions

Mind Garden <info@mindgarden.com>   Thu, Jun 1, 2017 at 7:50 AM
To: Sultan Alalshaikh <~~sultan-alalshaikh@pepperdine.edu~~>

Hello Sultan,

I would recommend that you purchase the Manual.
In your proposal, you can include those materials from the Manual that you feel are necessary to make your best case.
You should include all appropriate copyright attributions in your proposal -- that is, these materials are sourced from the MLQ Manual and include the MLQ Manual copyright language.

When your proposal is approved, you can contact us regarding license purchase.

Best,

Katherine
Mind Garden, Inc.
[Quoted text hidden]

Approval for Remote Online Use of a Mind Garden Instrument

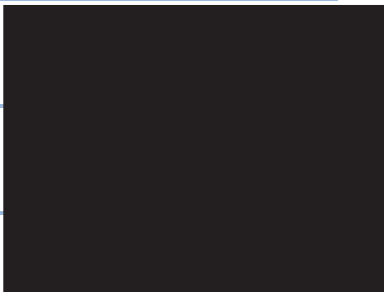Effective date is August 1, 2017 for:

SULTAN ALALSHAIKH

You submitted your statement for remote online use at 5:53 pm EDT on July 31, 2017.

mind garden

Remote online use of the Mind Garden instrument stated below is approved for the person on the title page of this document.

Question	Answer
Your name:	SULTAN ALALSHAIKH
Email address:	
Repeat email address:	
Phone number:	
Company/institution:	PEPPERDINE UNIVERSITY
Your project title:	Leadership Styles in Saudi Arabian Universities: Comparison Based on Educational Background
Mind Garden Sales Order or Invoice number for your purchase of reproduction licenses:	IGSZOAMNL
The name of the Mind Garden instrument you will be using:	MLQ

Your signature and date

Question	Answer
Your name (as electronic signature):	SUTAN ALALSHAIKH
Date:	07.31.2017

APPENDIX F

IRB Approval

NOTICE OF APPROVAL FOR HUMAN RESEARCH

Date: July 26, 2017

Protocol Investigator Name: Sultan Alalshaikh

Protocol #: 17-01-493

Project Title: LEADERSHIP STYLES IN SAUDI ARABIAN UNIVERSITIES: COMPARISON BASED ON EDUCATIONAL PLACE BACKGROUND

School: Graduate School of Education and Psychology

Dear Sultan Alalshaikh:

Thank you for submitting your application for exempt review to Pepperdine University's Institutional Review Board (IRB). We appreciate the work you have done on your proposal. The IRB has reviewed your submitted IRB application and all ancillary materials. Upon review, the IRB has determined that the above entitled project meets the requirements for exemption under the federal regulations 45 CFR 46.101 that govern the protections of human subjects.

Your research must be conducted according to the proposal that was submitted to the IRB. If changes to the approved protocol occur, a revised protocol must be reviewed and approved by the IRB before implementation. For any proposed changes in your research protocol, please submit an amendment to the IRB. Since your study falls under exemption, there is no requirement for continuing IRB review of your project. Please be aware that changes to your protocol may prevent the research from qualifying for exemption from 45 CFR 46.101 and require submission of a new IRB application or other materials to the IRB.

A goal of the IRB is to prevent negative occurrences during any research study. However, despite the best intent, unforeseen circumstances or events may arise during the research. If an unexpected situation or adverse event happens during your investigation, please notify the IRB as soon as possible. We will ask for a complete written explanation of the event and your written response. Other actions also may be required depending on the nature of the event. Details regarding the timeframe in which adverse events must be reported to the IRB and documenting the adverse event can be found in the *Pepperdine University Protection of Human Participants in Research: Policies and Procedures Manual* at community.pepperdine.edu/irb.

Please refer to the protocol number denoted above in all communication or correspondence related to your application and this approval. Should you have additional questions or require clarification of the contents of this letter, please contact the IRB Office. On behalf of the IRB, I wish you success in this scholarly pursuit.

Sincerely,

Judy Ho, Ph.D., IRB Chair